Arabic Writing for Occupational Purposes (AWOP): Strategies of Teaching Writing

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Abstract

This thesis is concerned with the Teaching of Arabic Writing for Occupational Purposes (TAWOP). Its main purpose is to develop an effective and practical approach to TAWOP in the context of Kuwait.

Three research instruments were employed: questionnaire, observation and interviews. A structured questionnaire was given to the participants, all of whom were employed in various occupational fields in Kuwait, in order to measure a number of factors believed to affect the approach to the teaching of writing. Task observation was used to discover how the different writing strategies under study worked in practice. Semistructured interviews were conducted with the participants who performed the observed tasks, and also with teachers of Arabic, in order to determine the most effective strategies that could be used in TAWOP.

This research provides sufficient evidence to suggest that combining two well-understood approaches to the teaching of writing, known as the product and process approaches, will best fulfil the needs of learners of Arabic for occupational purposes, who are required to perform a variety of writing tasks in the workplace addressed to different readers, and using many different language aspects.

This thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter One presents the main aims of the study, and explains why it is significant. Chapter Two provides a description of the area of the study. Chapter Three discusses the concept of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), considers its historical background, its definition and its various types, and explains the importance of taking the learner's needs into consideration. In Chapter Four we review the literature related to the teaching of writing. Chapter Five presents the proposed model of the study. Chapter Six discusses the methodology related to the research instruments used in the fieldwork. A full description is given of the aims, population, design and implementation of the research. The results of the questionnaire are analysed in detail in Chapter Seven, and in Chapter Eight the results of the observation sessions and the interviews are analyesd and interpreted. Finally, Chapter Nine summarises the main findings of the study, considers their implications, and makes recommendations for future research.

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Transliteration Scheme

The Library of Congress (LC) system of transliteration has been followed throughout the thesis.

First: Consonants

Arabic	LC	Arabic	LC
ء	’	ض	ḍ
ب	b	ط	ṭ
ت	t	ظ	ẓ
ث	th	ع	‘
ج	j	غ	gh
ح	ḥ	ف	f
خ	kh	ق	q
د	d	ك	k
ذ	dh	ل	l
ر	r	م	m
ز	z	ن	n
س	s	ه	h
ش	sh	و	w
ص	ṣ	ي	y

Second: Diphthongs

ي (ay)	و (aw)

Third: Vowels

Arabic (short vowels)	LC	Arabic (long vowels)	LC
ـَ	a	ا	ā
ـُ	u	و	ū
ـِ	i	ي	Ī

Abbreviations

AFL:	Arabic as a Foreign Language
AFLSP:	Arabic as a Foreign Language for Specific Purposes
AOP:	Arabic for Occupational Purposes
ASL:	Arabic as a Second Language
ASLSP:	Arabic as a Second Language for Specific Purposes
AWOP:	Arabic Writing for Occupational Purposes
ELT:	English Language Teaching
ESA:	Educated Spoken Arabic
ESP:	English for Specific Purposes
LAP:	Language for Academic Purposes
LBP:	Language for Business Purposes
LEP:	Language for Education Purposes
LGBP:	Language for General Business Purposes
LOP:	Language for Occupational Purposes
LSBP:	Language for Specific Business Purposes
LSP:	Language for Specific Purposes
LST:	Language for Science and Technology
MSA:	Modern Standard Arabic
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STAW:	Strategies for the Teaching of Arabic Writing
TAFL:	Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language
TAFLSP:	Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language for Specific Purposes
TAOP:	Teaching Arabic for Occupational Purposes
TASLSP:	Teaching Arabic as a Second Language for Specific Purposes
TASP:	Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes
TAWOP:	Teaching Arabic Writing for Occupational Purposes
TESP:	Teaching English for Specific Purposes
TESOL:	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TFL:	Teaching a Foreign Language
TLOP:	Teaching Language for Occupational Purposes

TLSP:	Teaching Language for Specific Purposes
TS:	Target Situation
TSL:	Teaching a Second Language
TWOP:	Teaching Writing for Occupational Purposes

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 The Background to the Study

The Teaching of Foreign and Second Languages (TFL/TSL) has developed remarkably since the middle of the twentieth century. There has been a significant development in taking into consideration the learners' needs. In particular, Teaching English for Specific Purposes (TESP) is a good example of what the study will call Teaching Language for Specific Purposes (TLSP) and has been a focus of activity that has improved the field of TFL/TSL. It should be noted that the study's discussion of TLSP is based on the literature connected with the theory and practice of TESP. We have chosen to focus on the field of TESP because of the lack of material of good quality available in the field of Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (TASP).

TLSP takes learners' needs and interests as the starting point of the whole teaching/learning processes, for example in designing courses and materials, in teaching language skills and in developing teaching approaches (Strevens 1977: 146; Hutchinson and Water 1987: 53; Nunan 1988a: 75; Agius 1990: 6; Nunan 1990: 42,43; Graves 1996: 12,14; Ferris and Tagg 1996:31; Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998: 31).

Teaching Language for Occupational Purposes (TLOP) is a branch of TLSP (Holme 1996:3) that aims to address the specific needs of learners requiring language for particular occupational tasks. Donna (2000: 3-6) argues that in TLOP we should recognise that the language taught should be related not to the teacher's or course designer's expectations, but to the requirements of the learners' work. The present study, therefore, considers writing as a language skill needed by learners of Arabic for Occupational Purposes (AOP) in Kuwait.

Writing is a language skill needed by both foreign and second language learners. It plays a vital role in the daily life and communications of modern societies, particularly in the occupational field, where it is considered as an important skill.

Salminen (1996: 49), on the basis of the results of an extensive questionnaire and interview study, points out that writing skills are needed as much as other skills by the learners of language for business purposes. In the context of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) many significant studies and researches over the past thirty years have emphasised the importance of teaching writing in a foreign/second language, and discussed the theoretical and practical aspects of approaches to teaching writing.

Although the teaching of Arabic as a foreign/second language has witnessed some improvements in the last three decades (particularly in Kuwait and the Arabian Gulf countries; Oman and Saudi Arabia) very little attention has been given by either researchers or teachers to the teaching of writing skills in this context. Al-Batal (1989:137) asserted that most Arabic programmes neglected the teaching of writing, or at best treated it as a secondary skill. This is still the case in Kuwait. There seem to be shortcomings and omissions in Arabic studies, in relation to strategies for teaching writing in general and in the field of Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (TASP) in particular, where learners' specific needs and purposes have been neglected.

This study, therefore, seeks to contribute to the remedying of this deficiency in the field of Arabic as a Foreign/ Second Language for Specific Purposes (AFLSP/ASLSP), with special reference to Arabic for Occupational Purposes. It will try to fill this gap in research on the teaching of writing in Arabic and provide empirical evidence to develop an effective and practical approach for Teaching Arabic Writing for Occupational Purposes (TAWOP).

1.2 The Need of this Study

In the TESOL context, there has been growing interest in learners and their needs, and this interest has changed the focus from the teacher-centered classroom to a learner-centered classroom (Tudor 1996: 57).

Writing is one of the main language skills that foreign/second language learners need to learn, since it is a communicative activity that is used in many aspects of daily life

(Fowler 1989:91-92; Clark & Routledge 1997:114; Pincas 1982:2; Bowen and Marks 1994:15; Salminen 1996: 49, and Cumming 1998: 65). Related to this, there has been a large body of research in the TESOL context calling attention to the importance of using the most effective approach for teaching writing in order to help learners of a foreign/second language to write real text successfully (Tribble 1996; Raimes 1983, 1991; Tomlinson 1983; Zamel 1976, 1980, and 1982; Hyland 2002; Taylor 1981; White 1988; McDonough and Show 1993; Caudery 1997). Unfortunately, little or none of this focus on the teaching of writing approach has been reflected in the TAFLSP/TASLSP context in general, and in Teaching Arabic for Occupational Purposes (TAOP) in particular. Strategies for the teaching of Arabic writing (STAW) need more attention for a number of reasons. Firstly, there is a shortage of studies on approaches and strategies for teaching Arabic writing that deal with writing, as a main skill needed for communication in real life situations. Secondly, although there have been serious attempts to develop the field of TASL in Kuwait, there are still no satisfactory courses in the context of TAWOP that can help non-Arab learners to fulfil their writing needs. Learners of Arabic writing for occupational purposes need to express themselves and communicate with real readers in real situations. Therefore, it is important to link Arabic courses to learners' writing needs which are primarily related to their job requirements by teaching Arabic in a way that meets these needs. Thirdly, there is an increased interest in learning Arabic writing for occupational purposes in Kuwait. According to the researcher's experience as a teacher of ASL at Kuwait University, learners and companies/institutions (whether private or governmental) are increasingly calling for courses in Arabic writing for occupational purposes to be designed to enable their employees to write Arabic occupational texts in the workplace, where Arabic is the official language.

Another factor that has encouraged the present researcher to carry out this research is the widespread complaint from learners of Arabic in the Language Centre at Kuwait University, that the writing programmes presented to them are excessively oriented to the teaching and reinforcement of grammatical and structural rules, rather than to the use of language as a medium of communication in authentic tasks and with real readers. To the present researcher's knowledge, no research has been carried out on teaching Arabic writing for occupational purposes. This study will be the first

empirical research of any scale conducted on teaching writing strategies regarding the ASLSP in Kuwait. Therefore, this study is intended to be a timely contribution to the field of TAOP, which aims to develop an effective and practical approach which it is hoped will fulfil learners' writing needs.

1.3 The Statement of the Problem

The central problem of the research is: How can we develop an effective and practical approach to the teaching of writing for occupational purposes in Kuwait? The selection of a particular approach is crucial because it will determine the roles of the teachers and learners, and the types of tasks and activities that will be used (Akdaṣ, 1999: 2).

During the present researcher's eight years experience as a teacher of Arabic for non-Arabs, he realised that the approaches to teaching writing used in the Arabic Language Unit at Kuwait University are not appropriate for teaching writing, and there is mounting dissatisfaction among both teachers and learners, with what is being used. The course does not help the learners to achieve their writing purposes, by writing authentic texts to communicate successfully with colleagues, customers and others in the day-to-day work environment. Two important issues can be highlighted: 1- The teaching approach currently used presents writing as a secondary skill for the purposes of reinforcing grammatical and structural rules; 2- It ignores the teaching of writing as a communication skill needed by non-Arab learners who want to communicate with native speakers, and express themselves successfully in various real-life situations, particularly learners of Arabic for occupational purposes, who need to perform various writing tasks related to their jobs, addressed to real readers (whether inside or outside the workplace) and using various writing conventions, styles, and vocabulary.

Therefore, as teachers of Arabic we need to reconsider how we teach writing, by exploring the theoretical and practical sides of the main current teaching approaches, and apply them to develop the field of teaching Arabic writing for occupational purposes.

In general, the main reason for carrying out this study is the hope that useful conclusions can be drawn from it. The most direct benefit will be a marked development of an effective and practical approach for teaching Arabic writing for occupational purposes that can help the learners to fulfil their writing needs by writing occupational texts successfully.

1.4 The Context of the Study

This study is conducted with non-Arab learners in Kuwait. Non-Arab learners study Arabic in two different environments. The first is the case where foreign learners study Arabic in an environment where people in general speak and use Arabic. In this context, Arabic is taught as a second language (TASL), because Arabic is the language that is used in daily life for everything in formal or informal communication. For example, foreign learners who study in Kuwait may use their mother tongue at home or with friends, but they use Arabic at school, university and work. Richards *et al.* (1992:124) pointed out that language is taught as a second language when it is widely used within the country as a language for instruction, in schools, and as a language of government and for everyday communication.

The second environment is where foreign learners study Arabic in their native country, or in a country where Arabic is not used by native speakers, since the people in the environment surrounding them speak another language and Arabic is not the language used for communication. In such an environment, Arabic is taught as a foreign language (TAFL). For example, the foreign learners, who study Arabic in Leeds University, study it as a foreign language. A foreign language is that which is taught as a subject in schools, (colleges or university) but not used as a medium of instruction in education or a language of communication (Richards *et al.* 1992: 123,124). Accordingly, although the teaching of Arabic to non-Arabs in Kuwait and the Arabian Gulf countries tends to be called Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language (TAFL), it in fact should be called Teaching Arabic as a Second Language (TASL).

1.5 The Purposes of the Study

The study seeks to benefit from recent developments in the field of teaching foreign/second languages for specific purposes, and its main purpose is to develop an

effective and practical approach for teaching Arabic writing for occupational purposes that can help learners (ASL/AFL) to write occupational texts successfully. The aims of this study are:

1- To explore the literature in order to study the theoretical and practical sides of the current approach to teaching of writing.
2- To determine the types of writing tasks which are used in writing occupational texts.
3- To investigate the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader of the occupational text in the given context.
4- To examine the aspects of language most used in writing occupational texts.
5- To discover the writing strategies most used to write occupational texts.
6- To determine the most effective and practical approach for teaching of writing for occupational purposes.

1.6 The Research Questions

Based on the purposes of the study, the following questions will be addressed:

1- What are the main current approaches to teaching writing, in theory and practice?
2- What types of writing tasks are used to write occupational texts?
3- What is the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader in the given context?
4- What language aspects are most used to write occupational texts?
5- What writing strategies are used to write occupational texts?
6- What would be the most effective and practical approach for teaching Arabic writing for occupational purposes?

1.7 An Overview of the Methodology

As will be explained in detail in Chapter Six, the methodological approach for this study uses both qualitative and quantitative methods. According to Oxford and Crookal (1989: 414), future language learning strategies research should, whenever possible, use both qualitative and quantitative methods. By using different ways to

collect data, it was hoped to be able to build up a more complete view of the area to be investigated.

Chapter Two

Description of Area of Study

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section provides a linguistic description of the phenomenon of diglossic Arabic. The second gives a general overview of Teaching Arabic as a Foreign/Second Language (TAFL/TASL). The third presents a detailed account of TASL in Kuwait, and particularly of the morning and evening programmes of the Arabic Language Unit, where the present study of Teaching Arabic for Occupational Purposes (TAOP) was carried out. A certain amount of background information about TASL with special reference to TASP in Kuwait is necessary in order to understand the context of this study and to facilitate later discussion of the findings.

2.2 Diglossic Arabic

Among others, Al-Kahtany (1997:1) observes that diglossia is a feature of the Arabic-speaking world, as witnessed by the terms *al-ʿāmmiyya* "colloquial Arabic" (manifested in regional dialect) and *al-fuṣḥā,* "literary Arabic" (manifested in Modern Standard Arabic). Diglossia refers to a condition where two varieties of a language exist side by side throughout the community, each playing a distinct role. Diglossia has been defined by Ferguson (1959:336) as " a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation."

Consistent with the above definitions we find that in all parts of the Arabic-speaking world there are two levels of Arabic. Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) is used in formal situations, e.g. books, newspapers, broadcasting, media, public lectures and

formal speeches. It is understood throughout the Arab world. All school subject materials are written in MSA; in fact Arabic is always written in MSA. It should be noted that MSA is based on and inspired by Classical Arabic, which is the language of the Qur'ān, pre-Islamic poetry, and the medieval classics of Arabic literature. Although it has developed and acquired new vocabulary, it has kept in line with the characteristic morphological, grammatical and syntactic properties of Classical Arabic (Al- Shuwairekh 2001:16).

On the other hand, every region has its own particular colloquial form of the language. It is used in informal conversation and it is the language of everyday activities, mainly spoken. This colloquial form varies not only from one country to another, but also from one region to another within each country. However, the dialect of the capital city of the country tends to establish itself as the standard or semi-standard colloquial form.

The diglossic situation in Arabic creates problems for learners of Arabic as a foreign/second language. They are faced with two varieties of the language they are trying to learn and, of course, with double sets of word items. It is a common phenomenon to find several words in different Arabic dialects including MSA expressing the same content or thought, for instance the greeting "How are you?" has different dialect versions: كيف الحال kayfa l-ḥāl (Gulf Arabic); أشلونك shlūnak (Syrian); and ازيك Ezzāyek (Egyptian), all with the same meaning.

Dealing with this diglossic situation in the AFL/ASL classroom is one of the "most formidable challenges that faces the teaching of Arabic" (Al Batal 1995:119). Agius (1990:3) has pointed out that what foreigners should be taught is a pressing problem in the sense that foreign learners are always seeking opportunities to use the newly learned language in natural situations, but in the AFL/ASL context, these opportunities for natural communication with speakers whose mother tongue is Arabic are very rare because almost all of them speak one form or another of colloquial Arabic, which is different from MSA. Therefore, the MSA which

AFL/ASL students learn is only useful in formal situations and of no use in day-to-day interaction within any Arabic community.

In addition, between Standard Arabic and Colloquial Arabic there exists a variety of intermediary Arabic called Educated Spoken Arabic (ESA). ESA is a middle way between formal Arabic and dialects. Nicola (1990:42) has described ESA as a language used in informal communication by educated Arabs of different native dialect backgrounds. It is an emerging language comprising parts common to all the dialects. Agius (1992:3) remarks that "ESA is characterized by general intelligibility and is becoming increasingly a medium for wider communication among great regional and stylistic diversity. Its linguistic features are drawn from *fuṣḥā* and *ʿāmmiyya* on the phonological, lexical and syntactical levels". It may be described as a fusion of the standard and colloquial varieties, thus containing elements of both spoken and written Arabic. The pronunciation of ESA is very closely related to Standard Arabic and it has a highly classical vocabulary, though there are differences in some aspects of syntax and morphology (Ryding 1991:214). Educated Arabs of most nationalities use ESA as a medium of spoken communication; it is their current informal language, used to fulfil their daily language needs. (For more details about ESA see Mitchell 1986; Agius 1990; and 1992; Nicola 1990; and Holes 1995).

Various approaches have been used in an effort to overcome the problems of diglossia within TAFL/TASL. These approaches reflect different views about the functions of the language within society. They include:

1) Ignoring Standard Arabic and teaching a selected dialect in order to enable learners to become involved in the activities of daily life. Williams (1990:46) has recommended that Arabic teaching programmes should begin with dialect and then move to MSA.

2) Adopting ESA as it is used and understood by almost all educated Arabs (Ryding 1990:213). Agius (1992:3) has recommended that "learners of Arabic should familiarize themselves with this ESA, both on a linguistic and social level and guidelines are needed to direct learners to develop enough linguistic skills to know how to use it when the occasion arises".

3) Teaching two courses: one of Standard Arabic and the second of a chosen dialect.

4) Teaching both Standard Arabic and a dialect at the same time in the same course (Younes 1990:107).

5) Adopting Standard Arabic only as it is understood throughout the Arab world. (For more details about dealing with the problems of diglossia in the classroom see Haddad 1990:70; Holes 1990:36-41; Nicola 1990:42-44; Williams 1990:46-49; Agius 1992:3-6; Hussein 1992:18; Al Batal 1992:56; Parkinson 1992: 24; Younes 1995:63; and Fakhri 1992:141). In the Arabic Language Unit at Kuwait University, Standard Arabic is the variety of Arabic taught. However some teachers at the Unit use ESA with their learners in and out of class.

2.3 Teaching Arabic as a Foreign/Second Language (TAFL/TASL)

Arabic came to enjoy a special status on the international scene due to the political and economic changes witnessed by the Arab world (ᶜAbdal-Ḥalīm 1985:13-14). This was followed by an increase in the teaching and learning of Arabic as a foreign/second language, whereby educational and commercial establishments throughout Europe began to organise programmes, utilising the knowledge and expertise of the Arab communities (Al-Rājihī:1995). Those industrial countries which had commercial and political relations with Arab countries sent students to learn Arabic in its native lands and from its native speakers. The seventies and eighties of the last century witnessed a rapid increase in learning Arabic as foreign/second language. Several American and European universities gave considerable attention to the teaching of Arabic and in the Arab world, governments were concerned to establish institutes within universities devoted to teaching Arabic as a second language.

Due to the increasing interest in learning Arabic, several universities in the Arab world created institutes and special departments wholly concerned with teaching Arabic, and these have increased rapidly in number. At first, the teaching of Arabic as a second language in the Arab world suffered from a lack of scientific grounding and a clear vision of the dimensions of the teaching process. However, efforts to build this scientific basis have now begun.

2.3.1 The Main Purposes of Learning and Teaching Arabic as a Foreign/Second Language

The increase in learning/teaching Arabic as a foreign/second language reflects a number of purposes and motives that lie with the learners. These purposes and motives vary, and it falls to the bodies responsible for setting courses and devising and implementing teaching approaches to meet the needs of the learners. It is fair to say that learners can be categorised by their purposes in and motives for learning Arabic. Al-Wāṣiṭī (1985:228-230) mentions the main ones:

2.3.1.1 Religious Purposes

These first appeared with Islam and reflect the desire of many Muslims to perform its acts and rituals through the employment of Arabic, which is the language of the religion. Ṭuʿayma (1990:11&22) mentions that Arabic is worth learning because of its unique religious significance, being the language in which a Muslim performs prayers and all religious rituals. Consequently, religious purposes are extremely important, as is shown by the huge numbers of individuals who seek to learn Arabic for these purposes.

2.3.1.2 Scientific Purposes

These are not new by any means, as evidenced by the interest of Orientalists from many different countries. However, some of these purposes have appeared only recently with the large number of learners coming to Arab universities, colleges and institutes to specialise in the Arabic language, or in applied and theoretical sciences. Al-Wāṣiṭī (1985:229) points out that Arabic for this majority constitutes a means rather than an objective; therefore special programmes have to be devised in order to meet the learners' needs.

2.3.1.3 Occupational Purposes

These purposes are manifested in the concern of specialists, technicians, business personnel and employees in Arab countries to learn Arabic in order to use it in their chosen professions or occupations; for example, to perform their designated tasks in the workplace.

2.3.1.4 Political Purposes

These pertain to foreign journalists and correspondents as well as resident politicians and diplomats, amongst others, who are interested in learning Arabic in order to achieve a better understanding of social and political life through their engagement with the media, politics or commerce. A number of western ambassadors possess a reasonable degree of competence in Arabic, and are interested in the study of Arab civilisation and literature, as well as the culture of the country in which they reside.

2.3.1.5 Social Purposes

They are manifested by those who reside in Arab countries and who have established social contacts and relationships with the people; for example, the foreign wives of Arab husbands. These purposes also apply to those foreigners, particularly foreign Muslims, who have decided to live permanently in Arab countries. These types of learners need programmes which emphasise the social and cultural aspects of Arab life.

2.3.2 The Main Centres for Teaching Arabic as a Foreign/Second Language in the Arab World.

There are a number of centres (see Table 2.1) and institutes currently engaged in TAFL/TASL; some award degrees or diplomas. These insitutions teach Arabic as a foreign/second language for several purposes, as discussed in 2.3.1.

N.	Country	Institutional
1	Jordan	• Language Centre, University of Jordan, Amman. • Language Centre, Yarmouk University, Irbid.
2	United Arab Emirates	• Language Centre, UAE University, Al- Ain.
3	Tunisia	• Burguiba Institute for Modern Languages, University of Tunis.
4	Algeria	• Insitute of Arabic Language and Art, University of Algiers. • Intensive Education Centre, Qasantina University.
5	Sudan	• The Islamic African Centre, Khartoum. • Khartoum International Institute for the Arabic Language.
6	Syria	• Institute for Teaching Arabic to Foreigners. Damascus.

7	Iraq	• Institute for TAFL, Al- Mustansiriyyah University, Baghdad.
8	Qatar	• Language Centre, University of Qatar.
9	Lebanon	• Arabic Language Department, American University, Beirut, Lebanon. • Institut de Lettres Orientales, Université St-Joseph, Beirut.
10	Libya	• University of the Islamic Dawa, Tripoli.
11	Egypt	• Egyptian Centre for Cultural Co-operation, Cairo. • Centre for Arabic Studies Abroad, American University in Cairo. • Islamic Delegations College, al- Azhar University. • International Language Institute, Cairo. • British Council, Arabic Unit, Cairo. • Department of Arabic, Ain Shams University, Cairo. • Department of Arabic, University of Alexandria, Alexandria.
12	Morocco	• Institute of Research Studies and Arabicisation, Rabat. • Fez Institute for Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language ALIF?
13	Saudi Arabia	• Arabic Language Institute, King Saud University, Riyadh. •Unit for Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language, Islamic University, Madina. • Arabic Language Institute, Umm al-Qura University, Mekka. • TAFL Institute, Imam Mohammed bin Saud University, Riyadh.
14	Kuwait	• Language Centre, Kuwait University.

Table 2.1: The main centres for teaching Arabic as a foreign/second language in the Arab world.

2.4 Teaching Arabic as a Second Language and for Specific Purposes in the State of Kuwait[1]

The Arabian Gulf countries have a strategically important and economically vital position in today's world mainly due to their oil reserves. These countries contain more than half the world's known stored oil and natural gas reserves, and thus depend on oil as their main source of income.

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[1]The state of Kuwait is a small Arab country that lies on the north-west shore of the Arabian Gulf. Kuwait is bordered by Iraq to the north and west, and by Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to the south. Kuwait is one of the main oil- producing countries in the world, prossessing a tenth of the world's oil reserves.

The discovery and exploitation of oil and the socio-economic development funded by oil reverses led to a wave of immigration from different countries, from both the east and west. Migrant workers have contributed substantially to the development of the Arabian Gulf countries in many different fields (oil, health, industry, education, business, commerce, etc.). These foreign workers have used English as a main means of communication with native speakers (Arabs) and also with each other, especially in the business field, because English is the most widely used international language.

Although Arabic is the official language of the Arabian Gulf countries (whether spoken or written), it has not played an important role as an occupational language in the workplace. Recently, however, the Gulf countries have developed a policy of encouraging non-Arab employees who work (whether in the govermental or private sectors) to learn Arabic, and of promoting its use as the offical language in the workplace, and particularly in business. The purposes of these countries in thus promoting the learning of Arabic are occupational rather than religious or political.

The economy of Kuwait is characterised by a wide range of internal commercial and investment activities, owing to the presence of a number of big companies, which has attracted a large number of Arabs and non-Arabs to come and work in both the governmental and non-governmental sectors; indeed, foreigners constitute about 82.57% of the workforce in Kuwait (25.28% from Arab countries and 57.29% from non-Arab countries), according to statistics for 2002 issued by the Ministry of Planning and summarised in Table 2.2 below.

Nationality	%
Kuwaiti	17.43
Arab	25.28
Asian	55.0
African	0.12
European	1.74
American	0.36
Australian	0.03
Canadian	0.04
Total	100

Table 2.2: The Kuwait workforce (Ministry of Planning 2002)

2.4.1 The Importance of Teaching Arabic for Occupational Purposes

The present importance of Arabic for occupational purposes has come about as a response to the needs of foreign employees working in the Arab world. Arabic is the official language of that world, and so employees who deal with native Arabic speakers (whether in the workplace or in day-to-day communication) need to be able to use the language, even when these native speakers are competent in a language that is also understood by the employee, such as English. For example, a hotel receptionist will most often deal with native Arabic speakers, and so it is important that he/she can use Arabic in order to communicate with native speakers, whether guests or co-workers. Good communication is essential for effective performance. Therefore, as teachers of Arabic, we need to widen our focus, to teach Arabic not only for academic or religious purposes but also for occupational purposes.

In Kuwait, for example, we note the increasing demand among foreign residents, and particularly employees, to learn Arabic for occupational purposes, especially after the decision taken by parliament to designate Arabic as the official language used in the workplace (both governmental and private sectors).

Although the importance of teaching Arabic for occupational purposes is being increasingly recognised, TAFL/TASL centres in the Arab world are generally failing to meet the demand for courses. For example the Language Centre in Kuwait, despite being one of the first TASL centres in the Arab world, still has not designed or implemented satisfactory courses in Arabic for occupational purposes that can meet the learners' needs. Moreover, of all the textbooks on Arabic there are only two that cover business Arabic (see pp.17-20). This lack of teaching materials is both surprising and deplorable, and it is essential that we should develop the field of teaching Arabic for occupational purposes (including teaching materials, textbooks, teaching approaches, etc.) if we are to meet learners' needs and help them achieve their goals. Therefore, as teachers of Arabic, we must support our foreign students by developing appropriate and effective teaching approaches which can meet the learners' needs in the Kuwaiti workplace.

It is important to consider carefully a number of basic questions in order to be able to develop effective teaching approaches: for example, is Arabic for occupational purposes being taught in a way that meets learners' needs? Is there a syllabus specifically designed for teaching Arabic for occupational purposes? What are the teaching approaches currently used in teaching Arabic for occupational purposes? Do these approaches meet the learners' needs, enabling them to use the language effectively in the target situation (TS)?

The present study is intended to be a timely contribution to the field of teaching Arabic for occupational purposes. It develops an effective approach to the teaching of writing for these purposes, which it is hoped will help learners to achieve their goals. This matter will be further discussed in Chapters Four and Five.

Bearing in mind the issues associated with teaching Arabic for occupational purposes, we will briefly comment on two textbooks currently used for teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes, designed mainly for students of business Arabic.

1- Joan Mace's textbook *Arabic Today* (1996) is designed for professional and business learners who want to communicate with individuals and institutions in the Arab world. It consists of two parts. Part One offers a form of educated spoken Arabic, covering thematically life situations (e.g. at the airport, in the restaurant, at the surgery etc.), and Part Two, dealing with written Arabic in a number of different business/professional situations (e.g., insurance, petroleum, correspondence etc.). Thus, Mace's textbook concentrates first on spoken Arabic (Part I), and builds the written Arabic (Part II) on the basis of the spoken language. There are some shortcomings to be highlighted.

Regarding the final part, we note that grammar-translation is the method used: each lesson presents a vocabulary list with translation into English. The lesson then presents and explains a grammatical rule and examples are provided. Exercises focus on and reinforce the grammatical aspects. Furthermore, the teaching of speaking in Part One depends on memory strategies such as repetition, using transliterations of certain expressions and sentences. This method might be suitable for learners who have a good ability to memorise, but others might find its challenges daunting. In

addition, the lessons in Part One focus on language knowledge and ignore language use by neglecting the communicative skills/activities which allow learners to use language confidently in real-life situations (e.g., group work, role play, games, open discussion etc.). Moreover, Part One's use of transliteration of vocabulary, sentences and expressions might be useful in some cases but does not allow learners to be exposed to the target language.

Although Part Two of Mace's *Arabic Today* has undeniable merits, it also suffers a number of shortcomings. The author claims that the book is suitable for use in the classroom but analysis reveals that it may not fully meet the needs of students of Arabic for specific purposes, and of business Arabic in particular, as it neglects to use real communicative examples related to writer's needs in the workplace. It again depends on the use of the grammar-translation method, by presenting the vocabulary, sentences, and paragraphs of the lesson with translations, then discussing the relevant grammatical rules, and finally providing exercises that reinforce the grammatical aspects (e.g., linking sentences, forming negatives, etc). Therefore, teaching writing according to Mace's textbook is a process based on grammatical concepts and dealing with particular topics by means of exercises and activities. This approach to teaching writing might not meet the needs of every learner, especially those that need to use written language to communicate with a real reader in a real-life situation.

In addition, Mace's textbook appears to ignore the learner as creator of the text by neglecting those processes which require creative thinking (e.g., generating and developing ideas, writing them down, evaluating what has been written). The teaching of writing, according to Mace, should focus on what the learner writes rather than on how to write an effective text, thus restricting the practice of writing to artificial situations. Moreover, the textbook seems to ignore some learners' needs, as it does not take into account the specific needs of particular learners in various target situations. Therefore, Mace's *Arabic Today* is suitable for teaching speaking/writing for general purposes rather than for specific purposes in depth and, as such, it is not ideal for students of Arabic for occupational purposes. Despite its merits, it is unlikely to meet the needs of students of Arabic who wish to communicate confidently and effectively in writing in a business environment.

2- Raji Rammuny's *Business Arabic (Advanced Level)* (1994) is designed for those who have studied Arabic for two years at the very least. It is intended for those using Arabic in business and commercial interactions and makes use of a large number of authentic texts, covering real-life (mostly business situations); advertisements dealing with such matters as employment and rental; financial documents, such as cheques, receipts and bills; written business communications such as letters of complaint, hotel bookings, faxes and telexes; economics and international trade; investment, finance and banking; and finally, contracts.

Each unit contains: a) a text dealing with a task-oriented business topic (e.g. advertisement, financial document, etc.); b) a list of vocabulary and expressions used in the business field, with English equivalents to help the learner to understand the text; c) communicative exercises using text-related vocabulary and expressions; several types of exercises are included such as multiple choice, matching, and close drills; d) a writing section which includes a variety of writing assignments: some use authentic models as a basis for writing a new text (product); others consider the writer as a creator of the text (process); e) oral exercises derived from real-life business situations that are related to the lesson by means of free discussions.

The author claims that learners who successfully complete this textbook will be able to understand commercial business reports and real Arabic materials that deal with business and trade, discuss and negotiate effectively in the workplace, perform various types of writing tasks (such as business letters, reports, and application forms), and understand social customs and behaviours involved in the business field in the Arab world.

Rammuny's textbook may be considered a valuable reference for teaching business Arabic. However, it is concerned with an individual rather than a cooperative approach to the teaching of writing skills, and so uses communicative activities narrowly, in a way which is unlikely to encourage learners to use the target language effectively. Moreover, Ali (2000:117) points out that "the glossary in the back of the book is rather poor, for many of the terms found throughout the book are not found there. Though these words are in fact glossed in their relevant sections, a final glossary should collect all of the vocabulary items used in the book, thus adding to

its value as a reference tool". It also lacks a comprehensive index and English-to-Arabic glossary.

Perhaps the most important comment to be made of Rammuny's textbook is that it teaches business Arabic according to a broad concept; in other words, it does not pay attention to the specific occupational tasks associated with particular job categories (managerial staff, secretarial staff etc.) and so fails to some extent to cover the requirements of common work situations. Therefore, the textbook seems more suited to Teaching Language for General Business Purposes (TLGBP) than to Teaching Language for Specific Business Purposes (TLSBP). The differences between these two will be discussed in the next chapter.

2.4.2 Kuwait University

2.4.2.1 The Language Centre

Kuwait University has recognised the importance of learning foreign languages since its establishment in 1966[2], and English is the medium of instruction in four of its colleges. To ensure that the language needs of the student body were met, the English Language Centre was founded in 1973 as a support unit for the university. Its name was changed to the Language Centre in 1975 when the teaching of French and Arabic as second languages was added to its responsibilities. In 1976 the study of Russian as an optional course was also included, and current plans call for the development of a German Language Unit.

Recently, the Office of Extramural Studies and Translation was established in order to use the Language Centre's expertise to meet governmental needs outside the traditional bounds of the Language Centre. Its responsibilities include providing specialised language courses to government bodies, public sector organisations, and so on. The Language Centre is responsible for all English-Language teaching outside the regular degree programme in the Department of English Language and Literature, as well as for the teaching of French, Arabic as a foreign Language,

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[2]Kuwait University was inaugurated in October 1966, only five years after independence. The university started with the Colleges of Science, Arts and Education and the Women's college, and comprised 418 students and 31 faculty members.

German and Russian. University regulations require every student to take a specified number of compulsory English courses, which are taught by the Language Centre. Non-credit developmental courses are also given for those students who have not gained a place on the regular courses. [3]

2.4.2.1.1 The Arabic Language Unit

This unit was first established as an integral part of the Faculty of Humanities and only became part of the Language Centre in 1975. Foreign and resident non-Arabic speaking students who wish to study Arabic at Kuwait University enrol in the course offered by the Arabic Language Unit at the Language Centre.

The Arabic language programme is open to both undergraduate and postgraduate students. The courses are designed as support or continuation of the academic curricula followed by the students at their home universities. At the end of every course, successful candidates will receive a certificate of attendance. It is hoped that the period of language study which the student spends at the Language Centre will contribute significantly towards the attainment of an academic degree at his/her home university. The type of Arabic taught is Modern Standard Arabic, and advanced students are exposed to classical Arabic literature. The Arabic Language Unit provides two programmes of teaching Arabic as a second language. These are described below

2.4.2.1.1.1 The Morning Programme

This is an intensive programme which aims to prepare learners academically. It is divided into four intensive levels, each spanning one semester of fifteen weeks. Classes are held in the morning, fifteen hours a week, three hours a day. Placement tests are taken at the beginning of each semester to distribute learners on four different levels: elementary, elementary plus, intermediate, and advanced. Examinations are carried out on completion of each level to see whether learners are

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[3]The Language Centre oversees the teaching of English in each of the colleges: Arts; Commerce, Economics and Political Science; Engineering and Petroleum; Allied Health; Education; Shari'a and Islamic Studies; Law; Medicine; Sciences; and Graduate Studies. It also supervises French language courses in the colleges of Arts, Law, and Shari'a and Islamic Studies.

ready to proceed to the next level. Table 2.3 shows the study plan for this programme.

Subject	Elementary 15 weeks	Elementary Plus 15 weeks	Intermediate 15 weeks	Advanced 15 weeks
	No. of hours per week	No. of hours per week	No. of hours per week	No. of hours per week
Speaking	4	4	3	3
Listening	2	2	2	2
Reading	3	3	3	3
Writing	4	4	4	4
Grammar	2	2	3	3
Total hours of teaching	15	15	15	15

Table 2.3: The study plan of the morning programme at the Language Centre, Kuwait University.

Furthermore, the Arabic Language Unit provides courses in teaching Arabic for specific purposes covering the four language skills. These courses build on learners' needs (occupational, social and religious). The materials used in teaching these courses are often authentic, taken from the field itself (for example; texts from the workplace, newspapers, advertisements etc.). Three types of learners study in the morning programme:1) regular learners (from various colleges), who have not studied their high-school subjects in Arabic; 2) irregular learners, who study Arabic for a limited time ranging from one to three semesters according to their level; 3) occasional listeners from inside or outside the university. The learners are from different countries and of different religions, and the majority are offered by the university accommodation on campus. All the teachers in the Arabic Language Unit are native speakers and specialists in teaching Arabic as a second language.

2.4.2.1.1.2 The Evening Programme

The evening programme is held for those people who work in Kuwait and are unable to attend daytime courses due to their work commitments. Its objectives are to enable learners to understand spoken and written Arabic, speak fluently, read comfortably, and write effectively. Most of the courses taught in the evening

programme are of Arabic for Special Purposes, and some attention, though not satisfactarily, is given to Arabic for Occupational Purposes. The programme is divided into five levels: elementary, elementary plus, intermediate, intermediate plus, and advanced. The course for each level lasts fifteen weeks. Learners study two days a week, two hours each session. Learners studying in morning and evening courses have participated in the survey conducted by the present study (see Chapters Seven and Eight).

2.4.3 Institute of Banking Studies

The Institute of Banking Studies organises courses for its employees in Arabic for Occupational Purposes at two levels:

Arabic for non-Arab Bank staff- beginners' level. This is a programme for non-Arab bank employees who need to speak, write and understand Arabic in banking and non-banking contexts. It aims to instill speaking, writing, listening and reading skills for daily life, these skills being presented in two parts. Part 1 covers survival Arabic in non-banking situations, and Part 2 spoken Arabic for basic banking transactions. The course also covers the main cultural phrases, such as greetings, personal information, directions and daily life situations such as dealing with taxis, food, hospitals, phone calls, and so on. The banking transactions section covers bank terminology and the main banking transactions, i.e. types of account, opening an account, withdrawing and depositing money, exchanging currency, numbers and percentages. The course is communication based, employing both functional and situational approaches.

Arabic for non-Arab Bank staff- intermediate level. By popular request the Arabic for non-Arab Bank Staff programme is being extended to include a follow-up intermediate course. This develops the themes and language functions introduced during the elementary course and provides an introduction to writing (Institute of Banking Studies: 2002: 29).

2.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, information about the situation of Teaching Arabic as a Second Language (TASL) in Kuwait has been provided, together with a description of TASL in Kuwait University and its language centres, particularly the Arabic Language Unit, where the present study was carried out. The next chapter is devoted to a review of the literature on Teaching Language for Specific Purposes (TLSP).

Chapter Three

TLSP: Nature, and Some Considerations

3.1 Introduction

Teaching Language for Specific Purposes (TLSP) is considered a crucial activity in the field of language teaching. This is because it emphasises the introduction of language that helps learners to achieve the goals for which they are studying a specific language. This chapter will briefly discuss the historical background of LSP. The concept of LSP will then be examined, with emphasis on the importance of taking into consideration learners' needs. Lastly, types of LSP will be reviewed with special reference to Teaching Language for Occupational Purposes (TLOP).

3.2 Historical Background

McDonough (1984: 1) maintains that serious interest in teaching languages for specific purposes started in the late 1960s. Since then it has grown rapidly to the extent that LSP is now well known to the majority of those who deal with language teaching all over the world. TLSP has established itself as a solid activity, which has improved the field of foreign and second language teaching during the last 30 years. According to St. John and Dudley- Evans (1991: 297) the demand for LSP increased with the appearance of teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in the second quarter of the twentieth century.

Although the study of LSP has had a long and interesting history, which some would trace to the ancient Greeks and Romans (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998), the beginning of its modern history was dominated by the teaching of language for academic and occupational purposes. The great increase of global business has added to the importance of this vital field, and has led to the growth and spread of the teaching of languages for business purposes. TLSP, however, emerged as a 'natural' phenomenon that was not planned or designed. A group of factors and trends led to the growth and spread of this method:

1. The expansion and vigour in the fields of economics, science and technology by the end of the Second World War had resulted in a more unified world. This expansion necessitated the development of English as an international language of communication.

2. The field of linguistics witnessed great improvement through the emergence of new ideas, which had a great influence on language teaching. These new ideas have turned attention from defining the formal aspects of language use to finding the different purposes for which languages are used in real communicative situations. The language needed by a specific group of learners may be determined by analysing the aspects and features of the learners' needs in the fields of work and study.

3. Psycholinguistics was an important factor in enhancing the field of LSP. It has drawn attention to making the learners the centre of the learning process by acknowledging their needs and interests, which greatly affects their motivation for learning. This has led to the development of language courses to suit learners' needs and interests which, in turn, have led to a purposeful and effective kind of education to achieve learners' goals (Hutchinson and Waters 1987:6-8).

3.3 What is TLSP?

Attention and concern have been focused on learners in order to detect their needs and achieve their goals. According to Richards and Rodgers (1987:73), traditional language courses (which concentrate on using grammar to teach language) are not suitable for the large groups of learners who aim to use a second or foreign language for higher levels of academic study or for professional purposes. This, in turn, highlights the need for adequate learning materials and content to suit the levels of such groups of learners, who have different specialisations in different fields.

In defining TLSP, a key question is, how specific it should be, i.e. is the language to be used for academic or occupational purposes, or is it for daily use? Learners' needs are the starting point in defining the nature and kind of language to be taught and their definition will lead to the decisions to be taken about the teaching materials, methods, types and nature of language offered and the language skills to be

emphasized. Strevens (1977: 146) is of the opinion that TLSP is determined by the learners' needs rather than by the requirements dictated in general education. The present researcher agrees to some extent, but in the case of Kuwait, Strevens' principle does not apply because educational policy is set by the state.

LSP is the investigation of the goals which the learners want to achieve, taking into consideration their communicative needs (Kennedy and Bolitho 1984:54). This is achieved through the offering of a syllabus, teaching methods and teaching materials designed to suit the learner's needs and thus benefiting the learner. Robinson (1980: 33) defines TLSP as being concerned with both utility and profit. The benefit is derived through presenting the language not as a subject but as a service, offered to achieve desired goals. In this connection, McDonough (1984:5) maintains that TLSP makes a distinction between language as a subject and language as a service. The concept of language learning as the pursuit and realisation of specific goals leads to TLSP being considered as a means of achieving the aims of language learning. TLSP is the teaching of language not as an end in itself, explains Mackay (1978:28), but as a means of realising a certain goal that learners strive to reach. Moreover, the concept of TLSP as a means to achieve a language target may necessitate that all language programmes and teaching approaches offered contribute to achieving this goal.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987:19) LSP is "an approach more than a product". This means that TLSP does not involve a particular type of language, teaching materials or methodology. They suggest with regard to English for specific purposes (ESP) that " the foundation of ESP is the simple question: why does this learner need to learn a foreign/second language?". The language required depends on the language context, determined by the reasons for which the learners are learning the language, which vary according to the types of purposes (social, occupational, academic etc.). As a method of teaching language, ESP depends on taking the learners' needs into consideration. It is understood as an approach to or method of presenting and teaching language, not as a limited language product. TLSP is therefore understood to include programmes directed to homogeneous groups of learners who have homogeneous goals.

There are many features and characteristics in TLSP which contribute to making this area of language learning/teaching clearer. Many researchers (Robinson 1980b: 13; Dubin and Olshtain 1986:34; Strevens 1988: 55; Nunan 1989: 89; Qotbah 1990: 73; Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998:10-11; and Robinson 1991:2-4; Ellins and Johnson 1994:10-13) maintain that TLSP is "goal-oriented": learners study LSP not because they are interested in studying the language for itself but because they have to perform tasks and duties in this language (Robinson 1991:2). For example, learners of Arabic for occupational purposes need to know the language because the nature of the tasks (written and spoken) performed in the workplace requires the ability to use Arabic competently and effectively. TLSP courses may differ from other language courses in their selection of skills, topics, situations and language used. Learners are usually adults possessing a variety of levels of language proficiency: e.g., intermediate, post-beginner, or beginner.

Furthermore, they may start LSP courses before they start their occupational or educational practice. Such courses are usually of limited duration, which requires limited goals that can be achieved in the time specified. These courses may include learners in the same specialisation, which means a similarity in their occupation and field of practice, and they are usually goal-directed courses where learners study the language for specific occupational needs and not out of enjoyment and/or interest. TLSP enhances the learners' desire to study the language by making their study a means of communication at work or in daily life; thus the learner feels the actual benefit of learning the language. It involves course design, teaching methodology, materials production, testing and evaluation. Therefore, the LSP teacher is often not only a teacher, but also acts as a course designer and materials writer. The materials used in TLSP consist of a combination of produced materials and published textbooks. It has been argued that they should be authentic; in other words, taken from the real world, in order to suit the specific needs of learners (Swales 1980: 16; Allwright 1981:14; and Robinson 1991: 55-56). John and Davies (1983:13) point out that learners can thus be helped to identify the types of topics which they will deal with at work. TLSP depends on an accurate process of analysing the learners' needs through recognising these needs and stating the learners' goals. This helps in finding adequate language courses that suit such needs and goals, so that the desired benefit

from the language study can be achieved. Determining learners' needs is therefore a distinctive feature of TLSP, which will be considered in the following section.

3.4 Needs Analysis

TLSP concentrates on the learner as the centre of attention in the learning process. Richterich and Chancerel (1987:4) argue that everything (objectives, teaching methods/materials, syllabus etc.) begins with and returns to the learner. One of the fundamental factors in a learner-centred system in language teaching is that teaching should involve a quick response to learners' needs (Brindly 1989:73). (Figure 3.1).

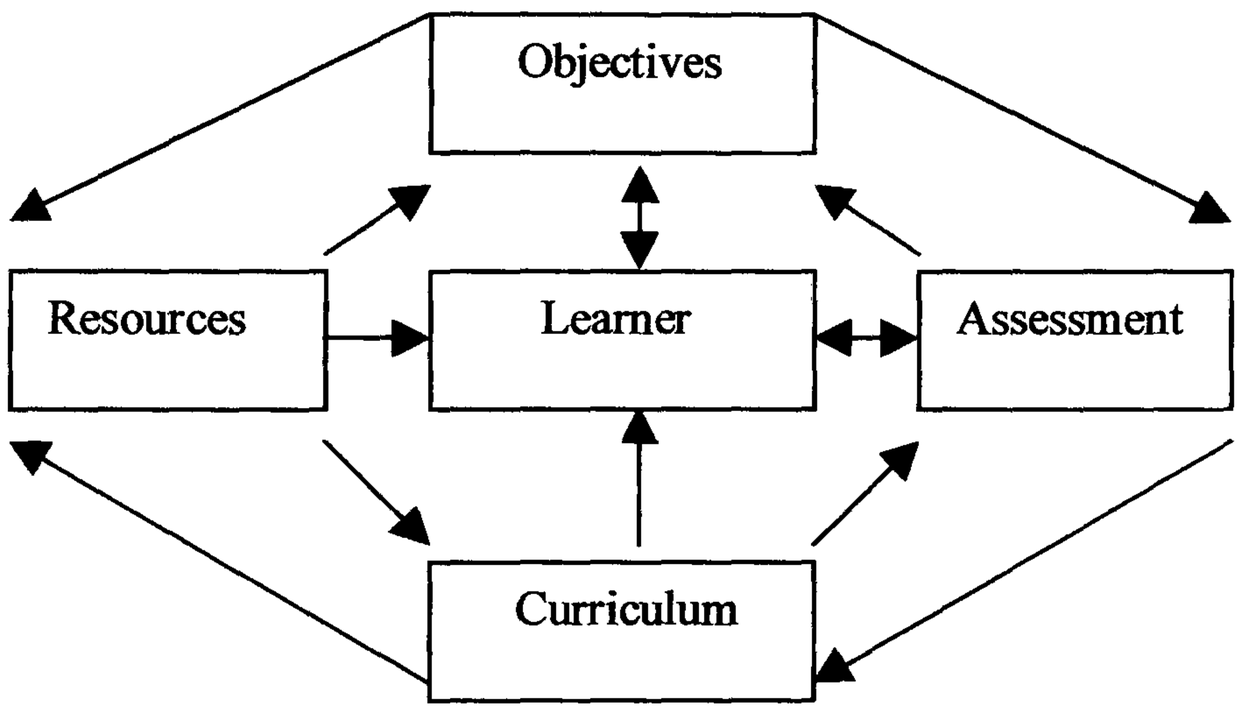

Figure 3.1: The central position of the learner in the learning process, after Richterich and Chancerel (1987:4)

The learner's needs are considered to be an essential element of TLSP. For example, regarding learners who wish to learn Arabic for occupational purposes, their job requirements should be specified to make it possible to tailor the teaching materials and language courses to suit their occupational needs. Such courses will include writing reports and memos, note taking, sending faxes and letters, answering telephone calls, reading and summarising reports coming from other companies, and so on. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 122) consider discovering learners' needs to be a unique process in TLSP, a cornerstone in the design and development of intensive LSP teaching courses which will meet the learners' needs in the target situation. Thus, taking into consideration a learner's needs as an employee is the crucial step in determining LSP teaching methods.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 53) define TLSP as the design and teaching of a language course that starts with the question: why do the learners want to learn the language? The answer to this question originates from acknowledging the learners' needs, which can be defined through the classification and determining of such needs; this process forms the foundation for designing language syllabus/teaching methods according to learners' needs (Ellis and Christine 1994: 44, and Ferris and Tagg, 1996:31).

Widdowson (1981: 2) defines needs as those resulting from the study of the learners and their job requirements, which determine what the learners should be able to do by the end of the language course. Further, needs can be explained as what the learners do not know or cannot do, and yet need for some reason. Determining learners' needs involves the establishment of a set of procedures used to collect the necessary information needed for teaching the language. Nunan (1988a: 75) explains that learners' needs analysis is a procedure used to get the necessary information about the learners and their communicative tasks and then to implement this information in determining teaching methods and materials. It is also a logical starting point in the development of language programmes, as well as in the arrangement of procedures to define and pinpoint learners' needs and determine the priorities among those needs.

Nunan (1990:18) emphasises the above concept through his definition of the determination of needs as the process of obtaining and analysing information about learners. He claims that the first step in this process is obtaining relevant information about the learners, and that this is also the starting point in developing a learner-centred teaching course (Nunan 1988b: 42-43).

Graves (1996:12,14) sees needs analysis as related to finding out what the learners already know, what they can do, and what they need to learn. The LSP course can satisfy such requirements by relating the process of needs analysis to the interpretation of the information about the learners' needs. Collecting and classifying information about the learners will help the teacher to prepare exercises which would be useful in the case of foreign learners, one of whose job requirements as employees is to write. Let us take another example, of employees who are unable

to speak Arabic: there is an important telephone call from a major company in Egypt which has particular dealings with a major company in Kuwait, and the caller indicates that the director of the Egyptian company wishes to speak to his counterpart in the Kuwaiti company. If neither the director nor his deputy are available, any employee dealing with the call must be able to speak Arabic. If not, how can the employee convey the message left by the caller to their Director? In such a case, there is a specific occupational need for employees to be able to speak Arabic and understand Arabic speakers, arising from the nature of the requirements of the workplace. In the teaching context, these needs are met through exercises that deal with talking to people, using the telephone and writing and reading reports related to the job. The needs analysis process has a very significant role in the field of TLSP. It helps in the definition and classification of learners' needs, and can be utilised as a basis for developing the language syllabus. White (1988b:84) maintains that the result of a needs analysis process is the specification of the final output which learners hope to achieve from their study of the language. Language teaching should originate from what learners want to learn and how they intend to utilise the language after they complete the course. Language teaching should therefore prepare learners to use the language in authentic situations rather than just in the limited classroom situation. According to Cunningsworth (1983: 149), the teaching of a language course should be both suitable to and effective in attaining real use of the language outside the classroom's confines. This can be achieved through the accurate specification of the learners' current and future abilities and needs.

The process of needs analysis has been the subject of criticism by various stakeholders within education, such as teachers, educational bodies and learners. Teachers, for example, tend to believe that the freedom given to the learners to express their needs and the establishment of such needs as the core of the syllabus may decrease teachers' influence and position in the classroom. Educational bodies, on the other hand, tend to think that all the decisions related to the syllabus/teaching methods and materials should be taken by experts and specialists, and not by learners. In turn, learners often feel those teachers and educational bodies who seek advice from learners are at a loss and do not know what to do.

The way needs are specified and whose needs are taken into consideration are other complications. Several parties must be engaged in the needs analysis process. Richterich and Chancerel (1987: 31) mention three sources for getting the information required for needs analysis: learners, teaching organisations and students'employers, as shown in Figure 3.2.

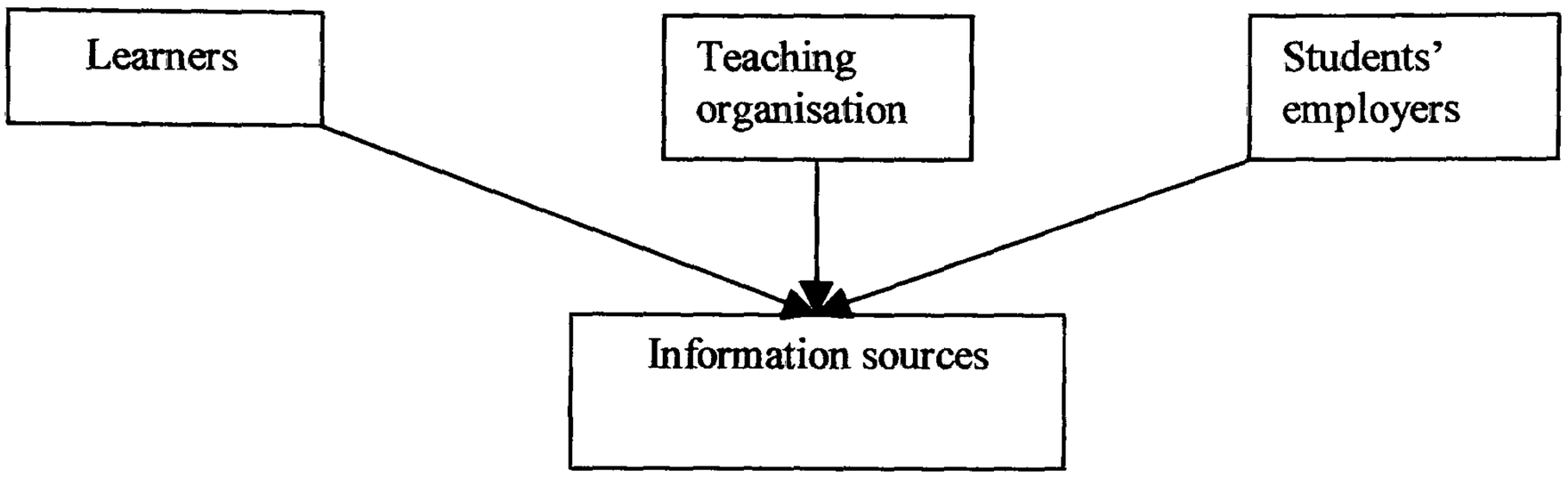

Figure 3.2 The information sources for the needs analysis process

A problem arises in deciding who, of the three, will specify the needs. This has been elaborated by Chambers (1980: 26-27), who explains that learners may understand their goals at certain levels, but may not be able to take decisions concerning the language. For example, learners who wish to learn Arabic for occupational purposes may be able to determine their needs in areas such as reading, writing, and speaking; however, they might be unable to determine precisely which reading and writing skills will best help them to read and write. In other words, they might be unable to determine the communicative events which will develop their writing skills for occupational purposes. Moreover, learners' employers may be able to specify the students' needs, but still, they are neither expert in analysing communicative events, nor can they set the priorities among the needs. The teaching organisation may have the teaching experience, but this does not mean it possesses the expertise needed to analyse the students' needs, and it may neglect the communicative situations faced by the learners.

Each of these three parties will naturally try to put their own needs first, though they may be incompatible with the others' needs. The employer may highlight the occupational needs of the learners, while the learners themselves concentrate on communicative needs regarding the community at large; for example, the National Bank of Kuwait may believe that it needs its employees first and foremost to read

general reports in Arabic, but in fact the employees need to learn Arabic to communicate with each other in real-life situations, or they may need far more often to answer the telephone and interact verbally with customers and visitors. In order to overcome this problem in the present study, the researcher has taken into consideration actual occupational needs related to job requirements and particularly to writing tasks, rather than learners' special communication needs.

In spite of the difficulties it presents, the needs analysis process still has an important role in reminding teachers that the ultimate goal of teaching a language is to enable learners to use it as a means of communication. Needs analysis also helps to enhance the scope of use of a language, as maintained by Cunningsworth (1983:153-154). The learners' needs in the present study are related to the their occupational needs in the workplace. Therefore, they are determined and limited according to their relation to the written tasks performed in the workplace.

3.5 Branches of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP)

It is generally understood that LSP falls into two main divisions, Language for Academic Purposes (LAP) and Language for Occupational Purposes (LOP) (Swales 1985:13). The first deals with how to write reports and essays, with study methods and research techniques. The second has to do with occupational language courses, which help the learners to use a language as a means of communication in the workplace, e.g., management training for advancement in one's profession.

Robinson (1991:2) classifies Language for Science and Technology (LST) as a separate sub-division of LSP, because LST involves both study needs for academic purposes and language needs for occupational purposes, as illustrated by the following Figure 3.3.

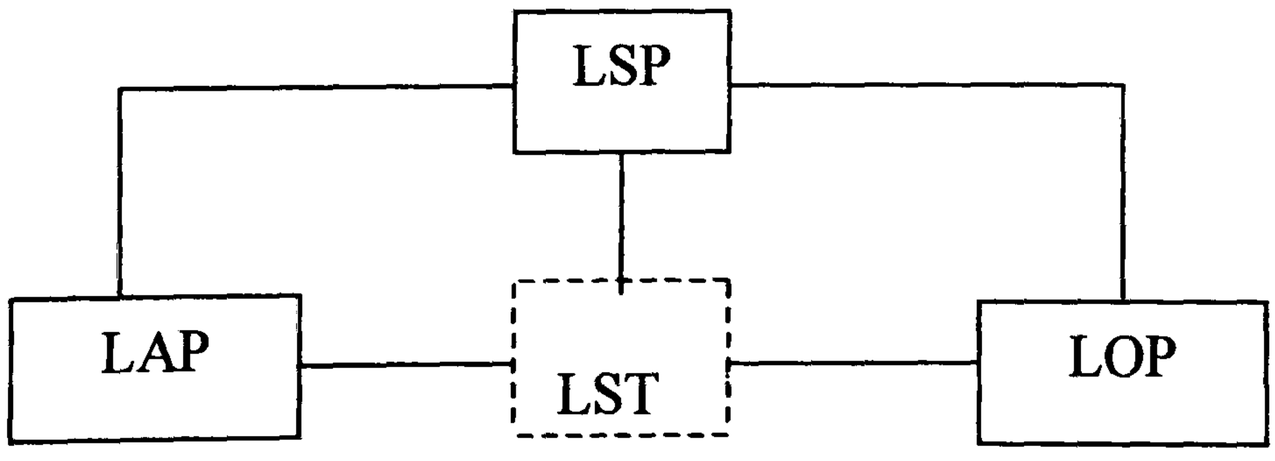

Figure 3.3. Classification of LSP after Robinson (1991:2)

Both LOP and LAP involve three stages of learning (Robinson 1991:3). The first has to do with pre-experience or pre- study learners (in the area of LAP). This means that the learner is acquiring experience in order to follow the target subject of study. Then comes the period when the learner is taking a module while engaged in employment or studying another subject while completing the course of study, which is when he/she applies what has been learnt to real-life situations. Figure 3.4 shows this classification in the case of English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

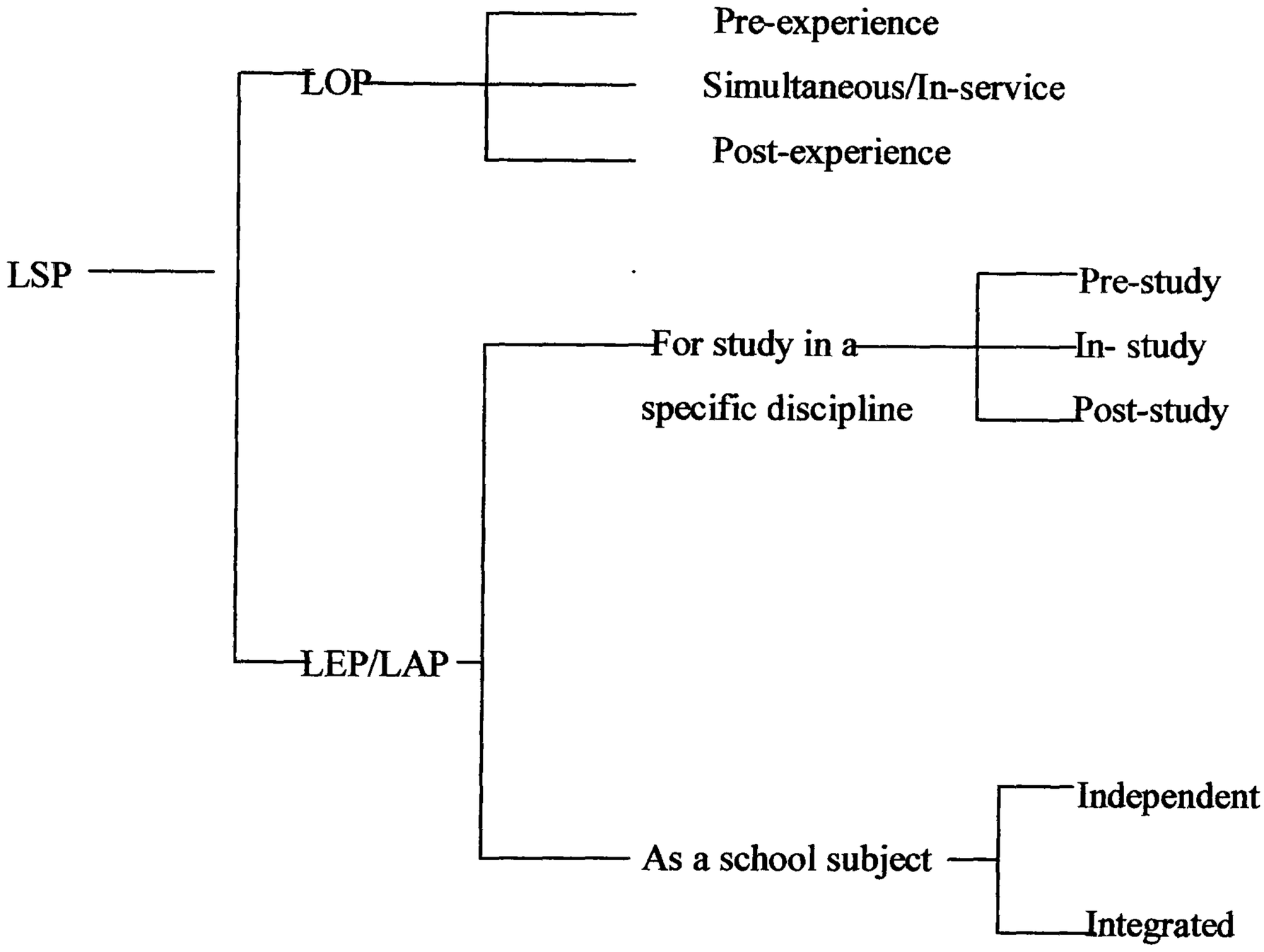

Figure 3.4: LSP classification adopted from Robinson (1991: 3)

It is also important to mention that Dudley -Evans and St. John (1998: 6 – 7) make an interesting and significant division of LSP into disciplines or occupational areas. On this basis, the difference between LAP and LOP is marked by the distinction between language study and discourse or oral communication. For example, in the field of business, the study of LOP is different from the study of LAP. The latter, offered to business students in colleges, enables them to comprehend written materials. The study of language for occupational business purposes (i.e LOP), however, is offered through the design and implementation of courses providing language skills for training and communication among the business staff (whether inside or outside the workplace, and whether written or spoken). Such courses

concentrate on language which helps learners to communicate with colleagues, high-ranking management and all other workplace staff. By contrast, LAP offered to business students emphasises reading and comprehension and note-taking skills during lectures, and language study is used as a means of helping learners to understand their specialisation. Figure 3.5 illustrates the importance of English (for specific purposes) as a language of instruction and a learning area:

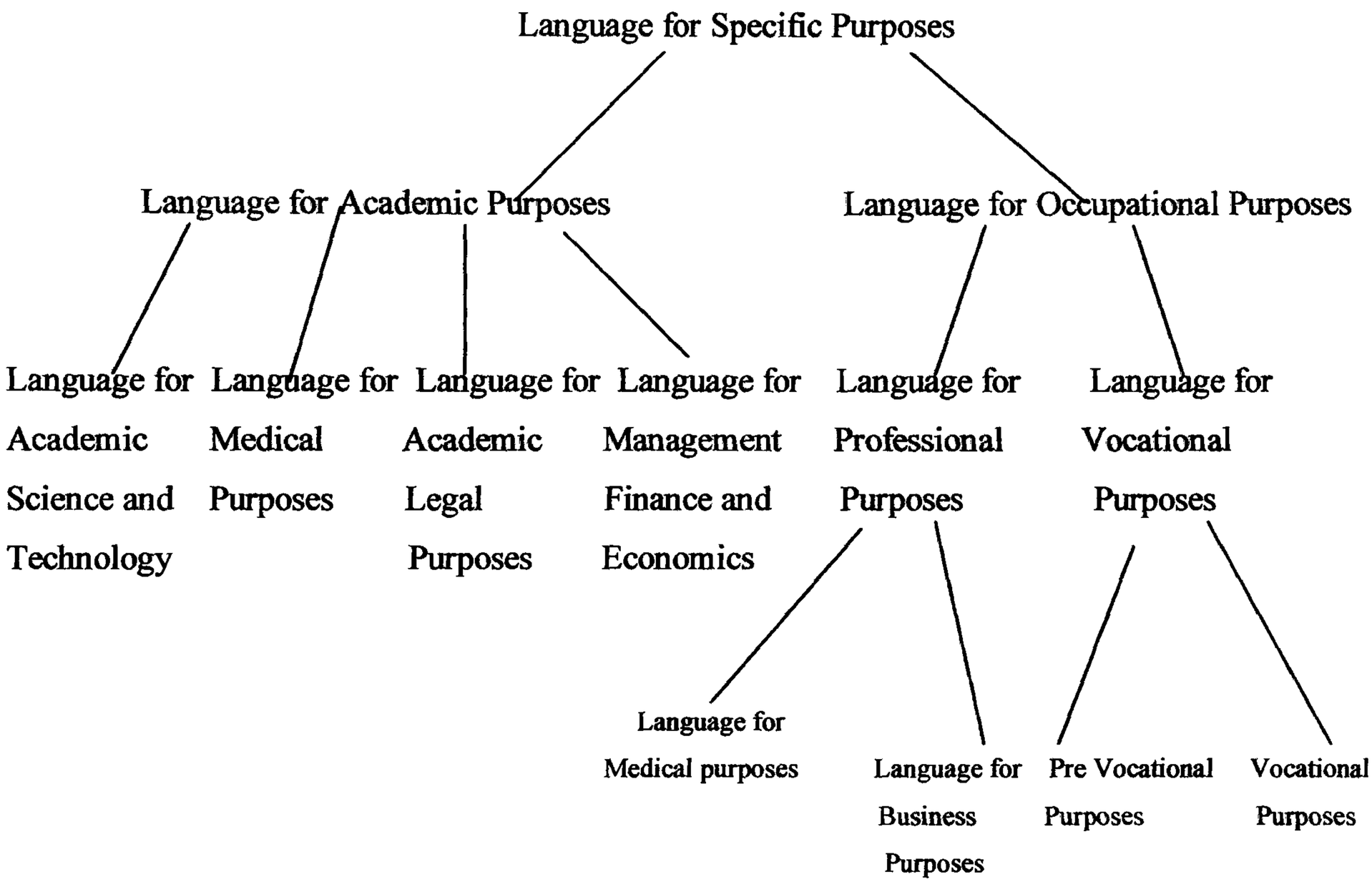

Figure 3.5 The Classification of LSP adopted from Dudley Evans and St. John (1998:6)

3.5.1 Language for Occupational Purposes (LOP) with Special Reference to Language for Business Purposes (LBP).

Managers need to interact with colleagues, customers, and staff (e.g. through direct conversation, and by writing and reading reports related to their job requirements). Friedenbery and Bradley (1984:1) note that LOP is aimed at learners with job experience, or pre-job experience, who need to learn language skills and activities, which can help them to communicate effectively in the workplace.

Holme (1996:3) observes that LOP is a type of LSP, which focuses on teaching specific language skills determined by the particular job requirements of the

company or institution. Therefore, the learners' needs in the present study are determined according to the requirements of the workplace. Donna (2000: 2) notes that teaching language for occupational purposes involves teaching to adults working or preparing to work in business. So classes in occupational language may be taken in companies or in language schools. LOP courses should address the specific needs of learners requiring language for particular occupational activities, so that its curriculum content and language syllabus, and teaching methods and materials should relate to such occupations and activities. This view is supported by Donna (2000:3-6), who argues that when we consider the teaching of language for occupational purposes we must recognise that the language taught should be related not to the teacher's or course designer's expectations but to the learners' occupational needs.

Language for Business Purposes (LBP) is placed as a category within LOP, although the term might be used, sometimes, to indicate a separate activity from LOP, as it involves a great deal of general as well as specific language, and also because it is such a large and important category. Business purposes are nevertheless occupational purposes, so it is logical to see LBP as part of LOP (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998: 7). Therefore, in this study we will use LOP to refer to language for occupational business purposes. Great attention is directed to the study of business nowadays because of its global growth and reach. Also, because it is related to the fields of finance, banking, economics and accounting, it is an important area. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 53) consider LBP to be the most active and fast-growing branch of LSP because it concerns adult learners who work or intend to work in the field of business and need to use the target language in its occupational context.

It is equally important to mention that there are two kinds of business language: Language for General Business Purposes (LGBP) and Language for Specific Business Purposes (LSBP). LGBP is offered to those learners with pre-job experience who are preparing to enter the business world (Tribble 1996:75). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 55-56) point out that learners attend these courses at language schools and groups are usually formed on the basis of language proficiency rather than job. Most LGBP courses contain work on the four skills, with specific

emphasis on the improvement of grammar and vocabulary. LSBP is intended for those learners who have job experience, who bring business knowledge and skills to the language learning situation and who need language for work and communication, i.e., for specific language activities in the field of business such as writing reports, taking and making phone calls, arranging interviews and so on (ibid: 55 – 56).

Moreover, LSBP courses are carefully designed to concentrate on one or more of the language skills and specific communicative events in the field of business, as in the present study. The materials used in this type of course often include selected communicative events from books and specially written activities, probably stemming from the learners' own work context. These are intensive courses in which learners form small groups of 6-8 members.

In this study we concentrate on learners with job experience, learners already working in the occupational (business) field, who need to learn Arabic as a means of communication in the workplace. More precisely, we will focus on teaching writing for occupational purposes (TWOP).

3.6 Conclusion

To sum up, LSP is taught in accordance with learners' needs rather than for its own sake or for the sake of educational institutions or teachers, through an emphasis on teaching methods, materials, and syllabus design which enable learners to satisfy their needs, whether these be academic or occupational.

Teaching language for occupational purposes (TLOP) is a branch of teaching language for specific purposes (TLSP) focusing on teaching language skills for occupational purposes. Learners' needs in the present study are writing needs related to job requirements. Therefore, in order to enable the learners to write effectively in the workplace we should use an appropriate approach to teaching writing skills which can help non-Arab employees in Kuwait and, for that matter, in any Arab country, to achieve their goals by enabling them to carry out their tasks successfully. Therefore, in Chapter Four we will discuss the literature on the approaches to

teaching writing, in order to establish a proposed framework to develop the approach of the present study.

Chapter Four

Literature Overview

4.1 Introduction

Writing plays an important role in our daily life as a means of communication with others, particularly in the workplace, where most communication must be documented in writing. In this chapter we will discuss the nature of writing, noting the differences between writing and speaking. We will then consider reasons for teaching writing for occupational purposes, the subject of our thesis. The remainder of the chapter is devoted to the two main approaches to the teaching of writing (product and process). The features, strategies, and advantages and disadvantages of each, are considered.

4.2 Nature of Writing

Undoubtedly writing plays a major role in the life of modern societies because this activity is strongly connected to people's everyday lives and their communication in different situations, which necessitates various writing activities. The ability to write is not acquired instinctively, as is the case with speaking, which can be acquired through imitation and interaction. Rather, writing is "learned through a process of instruction.... in order to master and learn certain structures which are important for effective communication in writing" (Byrne, 1989:5). Turk and Kirkman (1982:7) point out that writing as a skill can be acquired by doing it; therefore in order to master it one needs both instruction and practice.

Writing, like speaking, has an essential social role; we cannot live without it. It is, of course, a means of expressing ideas and feelings, as well as being a means of documenting and communicating more technical information. Such official documentation is valuable, for example, for all procedures and transactions in the occupational field, whether in the form of letters, contracts, agreements, notes or reports. The need for written documents to ensure the safety and formality of these transactions is great. Eustace (1996:53) emphasises the importance of written documents and dealings in the occupational field. Companies often refuse to carry out any commercial or occupational transaction unless it is documented in writing.

Writing as a social activity is, in modern societies, a means of communication that requires particular skills. It is an obvious point that the main objective of writing in almost all contexts is to communicate. Most kinds of writing, especially in the occupational field, are intended to communicate with one or more readers to fulfil an aim or transfer information (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996:224). Many authors (Brookes & Grundy, 1990; Widdowson, 1981; Raimes, 1983; Lord and Dawe, 1983; Firbas, 1986; Kraples 1990; and Bahatia 1993) have emphasised the importance of writing as a communicative activity in daily life; they insist that writing is not an end in itself, but it is an activity through which people inform, influence and respond to each other according to their purposes and aims. Nystrand (1986: 40) points out that the activity of writing demands interaction between two participants, the writer and the reader, when the reader has understood the written text, the writer has spoken to the reader. According to Canale (1983:4), writing is a process of exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of "verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/ visual modes and a production and comprehension process". Written communication often has the purpose of building social relations in order to persuade. According to Firbas (1986:24), writing as a communicative process is multifaceted and thus can be seen from many angles; for example, the communicative purposes of the writer and the reader's interpretation of those purposes. Therefore the purposes of writing as a communicative activity are very important because these determine the goal toward which the communication of information is developed within individual sentences and throughout the piece as a whole.

Raimes (1983:3) states that writing as an activity is related to thinking, a relation that is apparent in the process of selecting words and expressions and constructing sentences. Also, a great deal of thought is involved in clearly conveying ideas and feelings using the most appropriate words and expressions. When learners write, they have an opportunity to attain a better understanding of the language they are learning. The effort they exert to express their ideas, and their constant use of several of their physical faculties, such as their eyes and hands, as well as minds, is a unique process that enhances learning.

Moreover, Zamle (1982:195-197) stresses that writing is a process suited to the development of ideas. It is usually through writing that a simple idea is enlarged and modified to give birth to its final meaning. Thus, writing may be considered to be a process through which ideas are made and modified. Writing is also a means of creative discovery, characterised by the dynamic interaction of both content and language. It is a valuable communicative skill that enhances the clear expression of thinking and feeling. It is also a means of linguistic training, as it involves multiple continued attempts to clarify what is meant. It is "a process of exploring one's thoughts and learning from the act of writing itself what those thoughts are" (ibid: 195). Moreover it is a communicative activity that does not involve physical interaction with the recipient; in other words there is no immediate feedback. In addition, writing can be regarded as a mechanical process which can be planned and corrected. It is possible to go back to what has been written and make changes while producing other writings.

Thus, writing involves a number of related thinking processes and, at the same time, is a social process which relates the reader to what the writer writes in texts which provide real communication that conveys a certain meaning, and/or fulfils a certain need related to everyday life and transactions. This view holds writing to be a complex process because it involves transferring thoughts to language by organising sentences to produce a cohesive and meaningful text. Therefore, learners of Arabic as a foreign/second language may find that writing is a difficult process because they have to transfer their capability to write in their mother tongue to Arabic, in addition to which they may lack practice in the techniques and methods of writing correctly. As White and Arndt (1988: 3) argue, "Writing is far from being a simple matter of transcribing language into symbols: it is a thinking process in its own right. It demands conscious intellectual effort, which usually has to be subsumed over a considerable period of time". Writing, as Scriverner (1994:156) points out, involves different mental processes, because it requires time to think, prepare, practise, make errors, and find an alternative or the best solution. Akinnaso (1982:87) observed that although writing is essentially a mechanical process, which slows down the speed of production, it can be planned beforehand and revised afterwards; it can be corrected; it is also a permanent and reproducible process. Halliday (1989) makes the point that writing is a kind of discourse, which produces communication with either a known or

unknown reader, and it therefore demands explicit and coherent language. Thus, according to Tribble (1996:3), writing skill is considered to be one of the more difficult skills in language acquisition, whether of the mother tongue or a foreign language, because the nature of the skill being learned is artificial in itself.

4.3 Differences between Speaking and Writing

Writing practice first starts as a service activity reinforcing work in other areas, and while the learners are using it to reinforce other learning they will be able to master the technical details of writing (Rivers 1981:296). Rivers also claims that " the higher levels of composition will be possible only when the learners have attained some degree of mastery of the other skills". Rivers suggests that writing is a skill connected with and dependent on other skills.

Teaching language skills is not like teaching other school subjects such as history, chemistry or geography. It is not a matter of imparting information; the skills have to be practised until they are mastered. Listening and reading skills, however, are usually called passive skills, while speaking and writing are considered productive skills. There are, then, differences between speaking and writing. The comparison between speech and writing might help us understand the difficulties confronted by learners of Arabic as a foreign/second language. Raimes (1983:4-5) observes that "learning to write is not just a 'natural' extension of learning to speak a language. We learned to speak our first language at home without systematic instruction, whereas most of us had to be taught in school how to write that same language". Several important differences between writing and speaking have been mentioned by a number of authors, including Raimes. The table below (Table 4.1) indicates these differences.

N	Speech	N	Writing
1	Speech in one's native language is always acquired in the first few years.	1	Not everyone is able to learn to read and write.
2	The spoken language has variations of dialect.	2	Writing in general requires the coherent use of relatively unvarying forms of grammar, syntax and vocabulary.

3	Speakers use their voices (pitch, stress and rhythm) and bodies (gestures and facial expressions) to help convey their ideas.	3	Writers depend on the use of a system of symbols to express their ideas.
4	Speakers use pauses and intonation	4	Writers use punctuation.
5	Speakers pronounce	5	Writers spell.
6	Speaking is usually spontaneous and unplanned	6	Most writing takes time. It is planned.
7	A speaker speaks to a listener who interacts with what he/she says, interrupting or questioning.	7	For the writer, the reader's response is either delayed or non- existent.
8	Speech is usually informal and repetitive.	8	Writing is more formal and compact.
9	Speakers tend to use simple sentences connected by simple conjunctions.	9	Writers use more complex sentences, often connected by discourse markers.

Table 4.1. Differences between writing and speaking by Raimes (1983:4-5).

Reid and Power (1993:27) consider some of these differences. They point out that the main difference between spoken and written language is that babies acquire their first language orally without effort, while the learner has to be instructed in writing. Speaking in most cases is dialogue, a conversation with a cooperative partner with whom we share some background, whose feedback is immediate and whose response we can predict; writing more often seems to be a monologue, with the writer attempting to identify or create an audience with only self-provided feedback. Tribble (1996:9) explains that in speaking the concentration is on building relations, while in writing the concentration is on recording things and completing tasks or on developing ideas and arguments. He also mentions that we learn our mother tongue through a process of trial and error, but we are usually taught how to write at school in a systematic way. In speech we use many phrasal verbs and common words, while in writing we may use rare words and conventional abbreviations.

4.4 Why Teach Writing for Occupational Purposes?

The importance of teaching writing to the foreign/second language learner has been emphasised by a number of authors and researchers over the past thirty years. We all recognise the importance of writing in our lives. We use it to communicate with other people in a great variety of situations. Through writing we can share ideas and feelings, and attempt to persuade and convince other people. There are many reasons to consider writing as part of our language teaching. Raimes (1983:6) believes that writing is a crucial language skill; it helps the learners to learn. How? First, it reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms and vocabulary, which we teach our learners. Second, when our learners write they have a chance to be adventurous with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned; that is to say, to take risks. Third, when our learners write, they become very involved with the language: The effort to express ideas and content through the use of eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning. Raimes also argues that there is a close relationship between writing and thinking that makes writing a valuable part of any language course. As writers struggle with what to put down next or how to put their thoughts down on paper, they often discover something new to write or a new way of expressing their ideas. They discover a real need for finding the right word and the right sentence.

In addition to the importance of teaching writing as a means of communication with others, there are other reasons of no less importance: as Raimes (1983:3) notes, writing as an activity helps to strengthen the syntactic structures, terminology and vocabulary that are used in teaching. The learner, when he/she thinks about vocabulary items and structures, and clarity of expression, is in fact acquiring new vocabulary that he/she can use in other language activities such as reading, listening and conversation.

The teaching of writing enables learners to acquire knowledge of the new language they are learning and using (Franco, 1996:120). In learning writing, they have the time to think of the language while forming, arranging, and revising (often several times) what they wish to write to ensure the clarity and correctness of what is written. In this respect, teaching writing through training enhances other linguistic

skills. For example, note-taking develops the listening skills, because the ability to understand and write down the main points and keywords implies careful listening and thorough comprehension of what the speaker is saying. This process develops the learner's ability to listen more effectively.

Moreover, Fowler (1989: 91-92) has stated that there are various reasons for writing. The objectives of teaching writing should help in accomplishing the following:

a. Acquiring or transferring information or expressing opinions and attitudes;
b. Performing various activities in daily transactions;
c. Maintaining and sustaining social dialogue;
d. Communicating in the absence of other means of communication, such as telephones and interviews;
e. Reaching the biggest audience;
f. Returning, if necessary, to the message at any time and re-comprehending it;
g. Providing a visual dimension for communication.

There are at least five factors causing us to write. These are: the distance between communicators; the need to avoid face-to-face interaction; the opportunity to take time and care over wording; the opportunity to integrate verbal and visual and means of communication; the need to keep evidence of the communication; and finally in some cultures, to add weight to the message (Clark & Routledge, 1997:114).

Similarly, Bowen and Marks (1994:151) argue that teaching writing has several purposes, among which are that it helps to reinforce what has been studied, and aims to use language, especially grammatical structures, in a more comprehensive way.

It is important to determine, both as teachers of and researchers in language teaching for specific purposes, why we should teach writing. Pincas (1982:2) suggests that teaching writing fulfils several key objectives: essentially writing must be real writing and exercises should incorporate the various kinds of writing which are used every day in transactions in the learner's occupational field. It must be as communicative as possible and should be something more than just the application of

artificial syntax rules or the introduction of new vocabulary for use in written utterances. It should deal with the skills that are essential for effective writing.

One of the most important questions that should be raised is why should we teach writing for occupational purposes? Perhaps the most obvious answer is that writing is one of the linguistic skills that employees in the occupational field most need, as it is important in dealing with all occupational issues, whether they are administrative, technical or commercial in nature.

Skill in writing helps, particularly, learners of a second/foreign language for occupational purposes to meet the requirements of the occupational field, especially in an office environment, where employees need to deal with letters, facsimiles, telexes, notes, memos, e-mails, short reports, job application forms and so on. Thus, learners of Arabic for occupational purposes should be keen to develop their writing skills. Furthermore, the teaching of writing for occupational purposes gives learners the skills to perform their duties in a more effective way by enabling them to carry out written tasks, which are of major importance in their occupational field, and this will have a positive effect on their job performance. It is, therefore, necessary for teachers of Arabic as a foreign or second language, especially when teaching language for specific purposes, to present courses that teach Arabic writing for occupational purposes. These courses should give priority to training learners in writing skills which will enable them, as will be shown in Chapter Seven (section 7.4), to perform their occupational tasks more effectively.

It is important to note that there is a relationship between the ability to write and social power. Writing ability enables a writer to play an effective role in society. In this way, writing becomes an important means of social interaction with people in different situations. Without the ability to write in an effective way in the target situation, the learners of foreign or second languages will not be able to perform social roles such as those in the occupational field where writing is considered as an important activity (Tribble, 1996:12). Employees who do not have the ability to perform their writing duties are undoubtedly disadvantaged in carrying out their social roles, especially in the workplace, which requires contract writing, commercial correspondence, the writing of invitation cards, messages, and memos, and note-

taking and so on. Therefore, there is a relationship between writing and social power in these activities. Moreover, the nature of actions and situations in the workplace often involves dealing with formal documents. This requires the ability to write competently, which in turn enhances the writer's logical discipline, not only in administration and everyday transactions, but also in his/her ability to express ideas.

The teaching of writing has become more important in the occupational field since the introduction and use of modern technology in written occupational tasks. The invention of the devices such as fax, telex and e-mail has increased the importance of writing in the occupational field because this new writing technology helps to save time and produce written documents quickly (Salminen, 1996:43), which is highly valued in the occupational field. Most employees do their occupational correspondence by themselves, and the need to write faxes, letters or e-mails increased the importance to teaching writing for occupational purposes.

White (1995:225) mentions that the importance of teaching writing has grown because writing as an activity has evolved through its connection with commerce. Some written documents deal with these kinds of commercial activities even in the world of electronics, which depends on written messages used in the occupational field and in both commercial and personal relations (Gains: 1999:81). This importance will increase in a world where commerce is conducted electronically. The use of real messages and material used in an occupational field related to the learners' needs will help to increase their motivation as they can readily perceive the relationship between what they are learning and what they need.

Although we have some answers to the question, why should writing be taught?, the fact that there are various kinds of writing does not make the task easy, even when students are keen to learn. Teaching writing is not only related to "why" or "how"; it also involves "what". What methods can help learners to determine their preferences in learning? It is important to consider what learners themselves wish to write as opposed to what they should learn in order to write. The learners' needs (as discussed in Chapter Three), and the target situation in which they seek to use the language must be taken into account. Their writing needs should be focused upon as the basis for the teaching of writing, especially in the occupational field, so that all the

materials used to teach this skill fulfil their writing needs. Tomlinson (1983:7) argues that writing should be directed forward in both teaching and learning, and emphasises the importance of combining what is taught and why it is taught with the learners' writing needs.

But essentially the question is: how do we teach writing? What theories and approaches used will enable our learners to fulfil their needs? There is no clear- cut answer to this question. According to Raimes (1983:5): "There is no one answer to the question of how to teach writing in ESL classes. There are as many answers as there are teachers and teaching styles, or learners and learning styles". Pincas (1982:13) points out that good teaching is supported by two main principles. Firstly, adequate vocabulary and grammar do not automatically guarantee competence in writing, which must be taught as a specific subject. Secondly, the learner must see his/her aim clearly. This requires that some kind of model be provided. The first step is that learners should become familiar with the type of writing they intend to practise, for only then can they practise the skills they will need. Such exercises will enable them to produce their own piece of writing. Therefore, in the next section we will discuss the theoretical and practical aspects of the current approaches to the teaching of writing which can help learners of Arabic for occupational purposes to write successfully in the target situation (TS).

4.5 Approaches to the Teaching of Writing

Writing as an activity does not change, but the conception of what writing really is and how to approach it has been reshaped more than once. This reformulating has not emerged without being affected by other orientations affecting language learning /teaching. In the last twenty or thirty years, many crises have arisen in the field of teaching writing in the context of a second/foreign language; this has been noted by Zamel (1976), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1983), Widdowson (1983) and Arndt (1987) among others. There are various and continuous complaints concerning the teaching of writing. We, as teachers and researchers, should admit that many of the obstacles may be a result of the approach adopted.

The question that arises here is, what approaches have been available over the past thirty years? Many researchers have contributed to the development of different approaches, and have presented a general view of approaches to the teaching of writing using different criteria. Many authorities (Zamel 1980:82; 1982:196; Taylor 1981: 7; Gere 1986: 34; Candlin and Hyland 1999:12; and Bowen 1994: 35) have identified the complex nature of the process of writing and have raised questions concerning which of the two most influential approaches, process or product, should be used. Therefore, both approaches to the teaching of writing will be considered.

4.5.1 The Product Approach: Implications and strategies

This approach, has dominated the field in both teaching and research. It incorporates language laboratories and controlled composition. It treats writing " as a secondary concern, essentially as reinforcement for oral habits" (Zamel, 1982:199). According to Ramis (1991:408-409), when the audiolingual method (1960s) was the dominant mode of instruction, the view that speech was primary meant that writing served a subservient role, that of reinforcing oral patterns of language. White (1988b: 5) states that in its traditional form, the teaching of writing was language-focused. Writing was looked upon as essentially of secondary importance to the spoken language, and was generally used as a means of strengthening the spoken language.

Writing, according to this point of view, "is basically a matter of arrangement, of fitting sentences and paragraphs into prescribed patterns" (Silva, 1990: 12-13). In the product approach, writing is regarded as the outcome of linguistic usage through the formation and correction of linguistic forms. It is considered that taking all these matters into account in teaching writing helps develop the learner's writing ability (Zamel, 1982:195). Development, according to the product approach, depends on what the learners write, starting with simple sentences and moving on to complete paragraphs after receiving purely linguistic instruction. Little attention is given to other considerations like purpose, audience, and the writing processes performed by the writer.

The product approach pays attention to the generation of different kinds of written products, and emphasises the imitation of different kinds of model sentences, paragraphs or essays, as the approach focuses on rhetorical and grammatical forms

(Richard *et al.* 1992: 290). It also sees writing as mainly concerned with knowledge about the structure of language, and writing development as mainly the result of the imitation of input, in the form of text provided by the teacher (Badger and White 2000: 153). The teacher who focuses on form often offers the learners written texts and asks them to imitate and adapt them to produce other written products. The traditional approach, Watson (1982:5) notes, assumes that the guaranteed method of teaching writing in a proper way, whether in the first or second language, is to imitate the style of those writers generally regarded as successful.

A traditional method, the product approach, is still being used in many writing courses. The simple idea of imitating texts springs from the fact that people learn how to converse through imitating others. There are still teachers who believe that studying and imitating texts is a sound and successful method of learning writing, whether in the first or second language.

It seems clear that the product approach is built on the linguistic system rather than the use of the language (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998:21). The teaching of writing using the traditional methods of the product approach focuses on certain key points, as noted by McDonough and Shaw (1993:179), chiefly, the focus is on the final written product, whether it is a sentence or a complete essay. Writing, then usually involves imitating a model text, which forms the basis of an assignment: to write and produce a similar (parallel) text, as is shown in Figure 4.1.

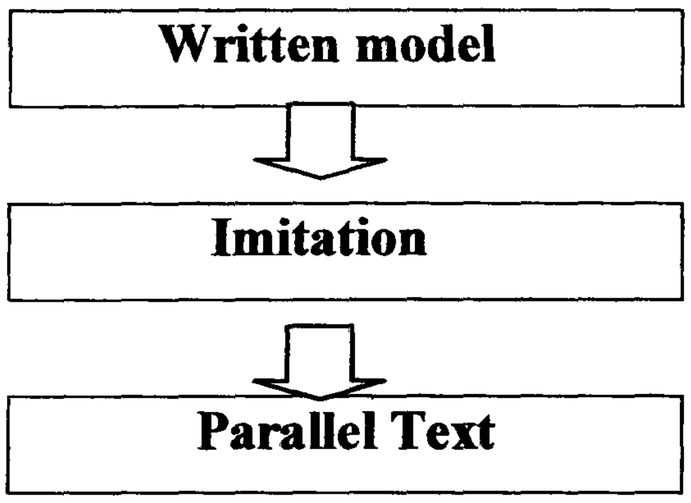

Figure 4.1: The linear steps of the product approach

According to this figure, writing is a linear process. The first written copy is often the final one. There is a widespread belief that learners should master the linguistic skill of writing at the level of the sentence before they can proceed to write a good, logical

paragraph. This approach stresses the importance of training learners to form sentences correctly and providing exercises that strengthen syntactic skills.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:116) point out that the product approach has generally been used to refer to a concentration on the features of the actual text, the end product; and that this usually involves the presentation of a model text, which is analysed and then forms the basis of a task that leads to the writing of an exactly similar or a parallel text. This approach to the teaching of writing provides learners with a source of patterns to be reproduced or manipulated in different ways.

The learner who learns how to write through the product approach can make good use of following and imitating the overall organisation and syntactic patterns. This approach can help teachers significantly in their efforts to encourage learners to participate in the writing process by providing them with resources, support, motivation, guidance, experience and self assurance. Hedge (1988:8) emphasises that focusing on the model and analysing its characteristics will inform us about what the learners should produce, in terms of correct grammar, a range of vocabulary, punctuation, sentence structures, using the conventions of layout correctly, spelling accurately, linking ideas and information across sentences to develop a topic, and developing and organizing the content clearly and convincingly.

Learners, according to this approach, tend to consider their mistakes as being very serious and feel obliged to correct them as much as they possibly can. This approach has therefore led to exercises that focus on recognizing and using topic sentences, examples and illustrations. Caudery (1997:5) mentions that the written text the learner produces using the approach tends to be assessed by the teacher simply in terms of how accurate it is linguistically, and how well it parallels the model being employed. According to MacDonough and Shaw (1993:178), this approach is a combination of various trends in the teaching of writing, in all of which the focus is on accuracy. Hyland (2002:9) argues that grammatical accuracy is the principal feature of writing development and the best measure of good writing, and that using the product approach will reinforce grammatical accuracy, which will lead in turn to the development of the learner's writing ability.

The linguistic characteristics, lexis, expressions and conjunctions are examined, and often the learners manipulate elements in order to produce a new text similar to the one they have studied. The basic stages of teaching writing according to this approach are shown in the simple diagram presented by White (1988b: 5):

Study the model ⇨ Manipulate elements ⇨ Produce a parallel text.

Nunan (2000: 18) rightly states that the product approach to the teaching of writing is one approach in which the learner is engaged in imitating, copying and transforming models of correct language. He remarks that the product approach supports classroom activities in which learners take part in imitation and copying and changing the linguistic forms into error-free language (ibid, 86). It focuses on exercises and activities in which paragraphs and sentences are imitated and used as a source for producing a new text. Its importance lies in the syntactic accuracy, and not the comprehension, of what is written. These exercises often concentrate on the imitation of paragraphs, identification of topic and support, paragraph completion, essay forms and reordering of scrambled paragraphs.

The product approach as a teaching method involves various exercises and activities, which include any writing for which learners are given assistance such as a model to follow, a plan or outline to expand from, or a partly written version with indications of how to complete it (Pincas 1982:102). The controlled composition exercise is also used. In this kind of exercise, the teacher provides the learners with a passage. The learners do not focus on the content, organisation, finding ideas or forming sentences; all they do is make some specific changes in the passage. These changes are usually grammatical or structural, like changing the gender from male to female and changing other elements as necessary. For example, the teacher presents this sentence (1) and asks the learners to make substitutes to form a sentence (2).

1– يكتب السكرتير التقرير اليومي و يقدمه للمدير .

The secretary writes the daily report and (he) presents it to the manager.

2–تكتب السكرتيرة التقرير اليومي و تقدمه للمديرة .

The secretary writes the daily report and (she) presents it to the manager

Or they change the tense of the verb from the present (sentence 3) to the past (sentence 4), as in:

3–يذهب المدير إلي الاجتماع اليوم ليناقش التقرير السنوي مع الموظفين، و سوف يبـــدى الملاحظات اللازمة، و يقوم السكرتير بتسجيل هـــذه الملاحظـــات.

The manager is going to the meeting today to discuss the annual report with the employees making his necessary comments, which the secretary will record.

4 – ذهب المدير إلي الاجتماع أمس وناقش التقرير السنوي مع الموظفين و أبـــدى، الملاحظـــات اللازمة و قام السـكرتير بتســجيل هـــذه الملاحظـــات.

The manager went to the meeting yesterday to discuss the annual report with the employees and gave the necessary comments, which the secretary recorded.

Thus, the learners do not add anything new of their own to write the new text; they simply make some grammatical changes in tense (present/past) and gender (male/female) as indicated.

Another exercise used in the product approach is that of 'questions and answers'. It gives the learners some freedom to write sentences. They are not provided with a specific text, but with some information, and then a series of questions whose answers will form the complete text. The information might outline the daily routine of a company manager:

بداية العمل	٠٠و٩
قراءة البريد	١٥و٩
كتابة التقارير	٠٠و١٠
اجتماع مع الموظفين	٠٠و١١
اجتماع مع رؤساء الأقسام	٤٥و١١
الانتهاء من العمل	٠٠و١

Starting work	09:00
Reading the mail	09:15
Writing some reports	10:00
Meeting with the employees	11:00
Meeting with heads of departments	11:45
Finishing the work	13:00

The learners write a paragraph describing the daily routine of the manager by answering a number of questions in the form of complete sentences like:

متى يبدأ المدير العمل؟

ماذا يفعل أولا؟

ماذا يفعل بعد ذلك ؟

ماذا يفعل بعد ذلك ؟

مع من يجتمع؟

متى ينتهي من العمل؟

When does the manager start work?

What does he do first?

What does he do then?

What does he do after that?

Whom does he meet with?

When does he finish work?

Sentence combining is another of the exercises and techniques used in teaching writing using the product approach. Raimes (1983:107) explains that sentence combining is the combining of "base' or "kernel" sentences into one longer compound or complex sentence. For example, students are asked to combine pairs of simple sentences into as many sentences as possible within the context of a particular paragraph, for example:

المدير لم يستطع حضور الاجتماع.

المدير كان مريضاً.

The manager could not attend the meeting

The manager was sick.

Here, the learners can explore the various possible ways of combining the two sentences, including:

لأن المدير كان مريضاً فلم يستطع حضور الاجتماع.

المدير لم يستطع حضور الاجتماع لأنه كان مريضاً.

المدير لم يستطع حضور الاجتماع بسبب مرضه.

Because the manager was sick he could not attend the meeting.

The manager could not attend the meeting because he was sick.

The manager could not attend the meeting because of his sickness.

This kind of exercise develops the students' understanding of sentence structure and sentence variety. However, this kind of exercise does not give the learners the opportunity to formulate ideas and communicate something meaningful to the reader.

Another type of activity is parallel writing. In this activity, learners study a model which is provided by the teacher and then write their own text on a similar theme, depending on the model and using it as a guide to vocabulary, sentence structure, cohesive devices, and organization of the passage. Letters, advertisements, dialogues, and job applications lend themselves well to parallel writing exercises (Raimes

1983:110). For example, the teacher might provide the learners with a description of a hotel:

فندق الأصدقاء فندق خمس نجوم يقع وسط مدينة الكويت. يتكون الفندق من ٥٠ غرفـــة ويضم ثلاثة مطاعم وصالة للأفراح و حمام للسباحة. مواعيد وجبات الطعـــام بالشـــكل التالي: الإفطار من الساعة ٧-٩ صباحا، الغداء من الساعة ١٢-٢ ظهرا، العشاء من ٧-٩. للحجز والأستفسار ارجوا الاتصال على الأرقام التالية: تليفون ٥٦٧٥٨٩٥ ، فـــاكس ٤٧١٣٢٤٠٤ ، البريد الإلكتروني ashdeka@hotmail.com.

Friends' Hotel is a five-star hotel located in Kuwait city centre. The hotel contains 50 rooms, and has three restaurants, a function room, and swimming pool. Mealtimes are as follows: breakfast 07.00-09.00 hours, lunch, 12.00-14.00 hours and dinner 19.00-21.00 hours. For booking and information, please call the following numbers: Tel 5675895, Fax 47132404, email <ashdeka@hotmail.com>.

The learners read the description of the Friends' Hotel, discuss the text, then write a similar description of the Gulf Hotel relying on the following guidelines:

- فندق ثلاث نجوم.
- يبعد عن مركز المدينة ١٠ كيلومتر.
- يضم ٣٠ غرفة.
- مطاعم، حمام سباحة.
- مواقف سيارات.
- الإفطار ٨-١٠، الغداء ١-٣، العشاء ٨-١٢.
- تلفون ٤٧٤٠١٢٣ / فاكس ٤٣٥٦٧٢.

- Three-star hotel.
- 10 km. from the city centre.
- It consists of 30 rooms.
- There are 4 restaurants, and swimming pool.
- Car parking.
- Breakfast 08.00-10.00 hours, lunch 13.00-15.00 hours, dinner 20.00-00.00 hours.
- Tel 4740123/ fax 435672.

Many teachers believe that it is important when using the product approach to teach writing to use different models. Using models as a basis for writing new text presents learners with the living language in a wide range of styles and formats. Jordan (1997:165) points out that because teachers provide their learners with models and various exercises and ask them to produce similar or parallel texts, attention is paid to the organisation of the writing, its structure and, cohesion, and students get to know the conventions and styles used in daily communications in the target language. Grammar and general organization should be in conformity with what the intended reader would consider to be conventionally correct. Using models encourages learners to think of the purposes and the reader of the text, and so this practice has an important role to play in the teaching of writing (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998:116).

Presenting learners with models to follow and imitate helps them to solve the difficulties and problems which they will face in organizing their own texts and enables them to use the patterns of the model in appropriate ways in future writing tasks. Thus, the use of models in teaching writing is not merely a matter of imitation or producing similar text, but it is a matter of understanding how the text is organized in an appropriate way in order to achieve its aims and fulfil the reader's expectations.

Watson (1982:6), however, states that the product approach is used merely to reinforce grammar teaching, with error-free production as its primary target, whether that production is a sentence or a whole composition. More positively, the role of the teacher, according to Campbell (1998:3) and Hyland (2002:2), is as judge of the final written product, who focuses on the identification and correction of problems

connected with the learner's control of the language system. Learners study and imitate the texts provided by the teachers in order to learn the writing styles exemplified in them. Thus, the learners become well qualified to produce texts in these styles.

According to this approach, the main role of the teacher is to correct the learners' scripts and thus to reinforce the rules and traditions of the written language. Focusing on accuracy is very important; therefore controlling what the learners write is essential. This can be done through the imitation of specific texts, with only few changes to the vocabulary. The dryness of the method can be enlivened, however; the teacher can conduct the classroom exercises using group discussion (three or four learners) as a communication activity. The discussion should lead the learners to decide on one correct answer or on a possible range of options. The learners, however, are not communicating real information, either to each other in their discussions or to any reader in their writings; they are simply coming to an agreement about how best to complete the task.

Although the product approach has been established and used to teach writing for a long time, there is increasing dissatisfaction regarding its use. There are many reasons for this, which Eschholz (1980:24) mentions. First, the models presented to the learners are generally too long, too remote from the learners' own writing problems, and too likely to promote reading comprehension and rhetorical analysis rather than a mastery of writing. Second, Badger and White (2000:153) believe that "the product-based approach sees writing as mainly concerned with knowledge about the structure of language, and writing development as mainly the result of the imitation of input, in the form of texts provided by the teacher."

In addition, the product approach is often confined to presenting texts and asking the learners to process these texts by making them the basis for the production of new ones. The problem here lies in the fact that these texts are produced by other people and not by the learners themselves. It can be argued that when learners imitate texts written by others they are not actually writing, but merely copying. The writing process in this case is not creative; the new text has not been produced by a 'real' writing process. Narantuya (1999:18) points out that imitation and copying

somebody else's model does not demonstrate the process by which the original text was written. Writing done in a mechanical way without any sense of purpose and of audience, factors which are essential for successful written communication, cannot develop the learner's writing skill and prepare them for their future needs. Watson (1982:8) argues that depending on fixed models as a base for writing a new text makes what the learners produce an artificial collection of sentences rather than a text, something no experienced writer would ever produce. In addition, focusing on structural manipulation often leads to the communicative purposes of the model being ignored and so what the learners produce is an unnatural discourse that no native speaker would ever produce.

When learners are asked to focus on the accuracy of what they are writing, they do not pay much attention to the meaning of the sentences or the way the sentences are linked to each other to form a paragraph. Watson (1982:6) points out that the model provides a powerful input, but questions to what extent studying and analysing these models reinforce the learner's understanding of how good writing is actually made.

One of the problems that face the application and use of the product approach in teaching writing is that the topics are chosen by the teachers (Raimes 1991:413). The focus of importance is more on how the sentences and paragraphs are written, than on the ideas which the learners express. Each part of the writing serves as a means of grammatical training and of mastering rhetorical forms. This approach neglects several important elements which contribute to the production of a text, such as why and to whom the learners are writing; where and how the learners obtained the ideas for writing the text; how the learners develop their writing; and what are the main stages involved in writing. These shortcomings of the product approach have led to the emergence of the process approach to the teaching of writing, which we will discuss in the next sub-section.

4.5.2 The Process Approach: Implications and Strategies

Applebee (1986:95) mentions that the 1970s and 1980s witnessed a major change in the accepted approaches to the teaching of writing. In direct opposition to the focus on the final written product, there has been "a groundswell" of support for the

process approach. According to Ameira (2001: 28), drawing upon L_1 research (from the early 1970s) on writers' mental processes during the act of writing, another commonly accepted way of writing instruction is to focus on the writer and the writer's cognitive processes. Keh (1990:294) pointed out that the process approach is not new; it has been practised since the early 1970s. According to Caudery (1997:7) in the later twentieth century, a group of ideas known as process writing or the process approach have had a great effect. An interest in the writing process in the L_1 context has been shown in the works of, for example, Flower and Hayes (1981) and Sommers (1980) among others. Studies by, for example, Zamel (1982), Raimes (1985), and Kraples (1990), have also highlighted this interest in what L_2 writers actually do as they write.

The process approach emerged as a reaction to the product approach. According to Zamel (1980: 84), writing is a process that is engendered by a real need to express personal feeling or reaction. There has been a shift of importance to the writing process itself and the processes the writer performs to produce a text. The theories that discuss ways that the teacher can help the learner to write have moved and changed from control and guidance of language form to acknowledgment of process (Piper 1989:211). The emphasis of this approach, as Caudery (1997:11) notes, is on the readers and purposes of the text, and the methods aim to train learners to recognise the importance of these factors. White (1988b: 6-7) pointed out that the dissatisfaction with the product approach as a method for teaching writing coincided with the increased importance given to discovering how the writer actually writes. What are the processes that take place during the activity of writing? The product approach's imitation of models faced resistance from the communicative approach in ELT, which focuses on what the learner wants to learn. Instead of imitating models and correcting mistakes, students are encouraged to learn by all available means. Hyland (2002:23) stresses that the process approach strongly resists any teaching approach which depends on notions of correct grammar and usage, and sees writing as a creative act of discovery, where the focus is on fluency rather than accuracy.

This change in the view of how writing should be taught has led to a revolution, giving rise to a new understanding of the procedures and processes that produce the text. Haneda and Wells (2000:434) pointed out that instead of focusing on how the

learner should analyse and imitate a certain text, attention is now focused on exploring what goes on in the writer's head. White and Arndt (1988:5) see the process approach to writing as an enabling process, whose purpose is "to nurture the skills with which writers work out their own solutions to the problems they set themselves, with which they shape their raw materials into a coherent message, and with which they work towards an acceptable and appropriate form for expressing it".

Zamel (1982:196-197) argues that the process approach is based on the principle that, before teaching writing, we should understand how a text is written. In other words, understanding the processes involved in producing text is vital to the teaching of writing. This approach requires more than learning the syntactic rules and imitating the rhetorical forms; in other words, how to write is more important than what to write. In this approach, several stages are required to produce a text. These stages interact continuously to attain the meaning embodied the text. Writing, from this viewpoint, is an exploratory process in terms of both ideas and learning the activity of writing itself.

Caudery (1997:3) notes that the writing process in the process approach is not divided into neat, distinct stages in a certain sequence. There are various sub processes, which intermingle in episodes such as planning, writing, re-reading and revising. There are micro activities, which take place at all stages of the writing process. According to Badger and White (2000-159), writing in the process approach has predominantly to do with linguistic skills such as planning and drafting and there is much less emphasis on linguistic knowledge such as knowledge about grammar and text structure.

The implicit assumption underlying the process approach, as Caudery (1997:13) has pointed out, is that if the learners' writing process is improved then their written product will also improve. This method leads to real training, which encourages the learners to generate, develop and form their ideas before receiving instruction and outlining.

The process approach as a teaching method is characterised by the following features (Hairston 1982:86):

1- It focuses on the writing process. The teacher intervenes in the learners' writing while they are writing.
2- It studies the strategies of invention and exploration. The teacher helps the learners to generate the content and explore the purpose.
3- The teacher evaluates the written text in the light of the writer's intention and how it meets the audience's needs.
4- It considers the writing process as a recursive rather than a linear process.
5- It concentrates on the fact that writing is a way of learning and developing and a communication skill.
6- It concentrates on the reader and purposes of the text.

The process approach regards writing as an internal, complicated behaviour; the focus is not on the final text, but rather on the writer's behaviour before, during and after the act of writing. This approach does not recognise specific limits or organization in writing. In short, it does not view writing as a linear process. According to White and Arndt (1988:3), writing is not a simple matter of transcribing language into written symbols. On the contrary, it is a thinking process in its own right, demanding conscious intellectual effort. They see writing as a form of problem solving which is linked to other processes such as generating ideas, discovering a voice with which to write, planning, goal-setting, monitoring and evaluating what is going to be written as well as what has been written. It is, therefore, a process, complex and recursive in nature. They (ibid: 4) also argue that the writer faces a very complex management tasks because of a 'darting back and forth' from one process to another in real time. At every point of the writing process, the writer has to take decisions at all levels whether at the level, of ideas, of planning, of organizing or of expression.

The focus on the process approach is creative writing; on the act of writing itself. It stresses different stages that take place in the production of a real text. Writing is regarded, according to this approach, as a recursive and complicated process, in which the writer moves back and forth between several stages. Writing in this case is not regarded as involving a fixed sequence of activities, but rather is an unpredictable, dynamic process, as shown in Figure 4.2.

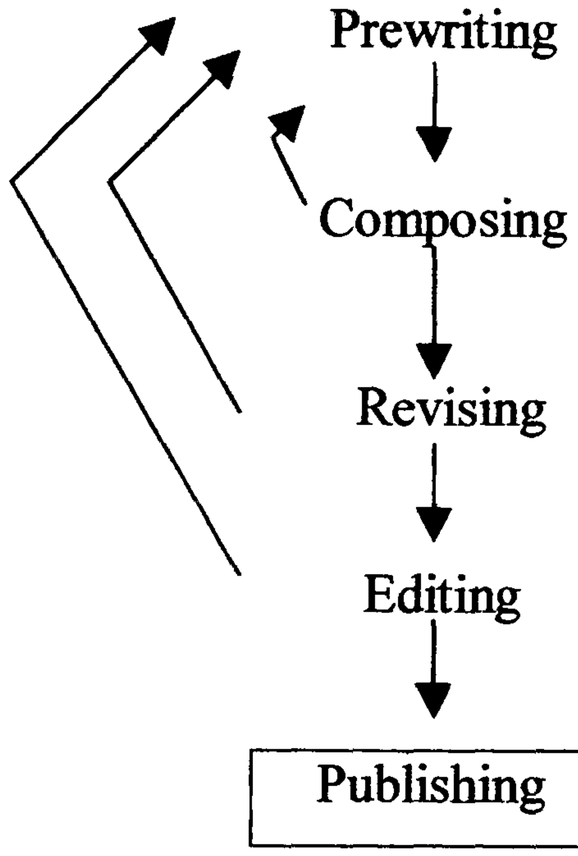

Figure 4.2 The writing stages according to the process approach (Tribble 1996:39).

According to Raimes (1985:229) the person writing the text does not follow a neat sequence of planning, organising, writing, and then revising, for while a writer's product-the finished essay or novel is presented in lines, the process that produces it is not linear at all, but recursive. In addition, Hedge (1988:9) points out that a good writer is one who uses various stages and processes that lead to the production of a successful text. The writer starts with the planning and preparation process in general, which includes thinking about what he/she wishes to say and to whom the message is addressed. After that he/she drafts, reviews, revises and edits the text.

As mentioned earlier, the process approach pays more attention than other approaches to the purposes and the reader of the text. These two factors, as Caudery (1997:19) notes, affect all aspects of a text, in terms of both the language used in producing the text and its content. In general, the process approach is designed to help learners think through and organise their ideas before writing and to rethink and revise their initial drafts.

This approach focuses on the process of the writing activity which gives birth to the ideas and the outcome through several stages. It contributes greatly to the teaching of writing by emphasising that writing is a complicated and creative process. Instead of concentrating on accuracy and patterns, the process approach to the teaching of writing has introduced a new range of class assignments characterised by the use of a variety of strategies such as selecting topics, generating ideas and revising drafts.

(Raimes 1991:409- 410). With this approach, when teaching writing, teachers start by giving the learners adequate chance to choose a topic, formulate ideas, and write multiple drafts. The focus of the approach, at the beginning of the writing process is less on accuracy than on the writer's struggle to reshape and organize his/her ideas. Later, the focus can be shifted more towards accuracy. Moreover, this approach according to Nunan (2000:87) focuses on the quantity rather than on the quality of what is being written. Beginning writers are encouraged to explore new ideas and try to write them in any form whatsoever, without worrying about correcting the inevitable mistakes.

Instructional activities typically associated with the process approach include brainstorming, focusing on the learners' ideas and experiences, emphasizing multiple drafts, providing an audience other than the teacher, and postponing attention to editing skills until the final draft.

Zamel (1987:705) has written in this connection that the process approach as a teaching method not only leads to good writing but also helps the learner to feel confident and competent to succeed in other language activities. The process approach also pays more attention than other approaches to the importance of taking into account the purposes of the text.

We have noted that the writing process as described by advocates of the process approach is one consisting of several stages or groups of stages. Some authors divide it into three stages (pre-writing, writing, and post-writing) while others divide into four stages (pre-writing/preparation, drafting, revising, and editing). The present researcher prefers to use four stages, which indicate more precisely the nature of the activities which occur at each stage.

4.5.2.1 Stage One: Prewriting/Preparation Stage

The first stage is the prewriting/preparation stage. However, the researcher prefers to name it the preparation stage, as it includes some preparation processes which precede the writing itself. Peacock (1986: 57-58) understands the prewriting stage as one which prepares the learners before they start the writing process by helping them

to start writing with confidence and understand the objective of their writing. In this respect prewriting (preparation) helps in exploring the topic, the vocabulary needed and the sentence structures to be used. It also helps the learners to communicate their ideas on the topic before writing, and to plan for writing (as will be shown in Chapter Seven, section 7.8.2 and Chapter Eight, section 8.2.1.1). Adegbija (1991:228) explains that this stage helps the learners to focus their minds on the writing task, to tap their repertoire of experiences, word knowledge and those of others; it enhances their prospects of producing a well-ordered, well-organised, fluent and coherent text if they prepare themselves with the linguistic tools for communicating exactly what they intend. Raimes (1985:241) defines this stage as one of activities such as reading about the topic, rehearsing, planning, trying out beginnings, and making notes, in which the learners engage before starting the first sentence.

This stage involves various activities, both mental and physical. There may be mental planning related to the theme or topic of the writing, or planning on paper including, for example, notes, diagrams, outlines or rough drafts. This stage is very important, as it is here that the writer sets his/her goals, and generates and organizes his/her ideas. The writer prepares to write the text by choosing the ideas, suitable expressions, vocabulary and styles. The prewriting stage concerns the process of generating ideas, and thinking how they will be related to one another (Caudery 1997:11). Much of the literature on the writing process (for example, Candlin and Hyland 1999; Parker 1993; Sasaki 2000; Flowerdew 1993; Raimes 1983, 1991; and Grabe and Kaplan 1996) have been devoted to this aspect of the writing process. This could be because many learners, particularly those inexperienced in writing, need help with planning and with getting started. The amount of time allocated for preparation depends in large measure on the writer, the purposes, the content and the situation. Writing a quick message to a friend or a colleague, for example, needs different preparation from writing a letter of complaint or a marketing report. Preparing and generating ideas is a vital part in the writing process. As White and Arndt (1988:7) rightly observed, the 'real and actual' beginning of the writing process is one of the most difficult steps and one that may hinder the writer.

The preparation process plays a very important part in the writing process because writing a text, even a brief one, needs some thought before the task is undertaken.

Writing a text necessitates some thinking before launching into it. The writer needs time to develop his/her thoughts through generating and preparing the ideas, diction and expressions which may fulfil the aim of the text. Murray (1982: 15, 19) emphasises the importance of the prewriting (preparation) stage in producing a text according to the process, because this stage often takes as much as 85% of the writer's time.

Hedge (1988:21) asserts that the skillful writer before doing anything- even before picking up the pen (or switching on the computer) takes into account two important questions. The first question is, what is the purpose of this piece of writing? This question is inseparable from the function of the text. The text must have clear and specific purposes. The purpose may be to persuade the reader to accept a company's offer, to introduce a marketing report, or to invite a friend to a party. The purposes will undoubtedly affect the way the text is written, including the amount of preparation. It will also affect the choice of language. Writing a marketing report, for example, needs considerable advance preparation, not only of ideas, but also of facts and figures. The writer also needs to prepare the expressions, terminology and style, which may help in achieving the clarity and aim of the text. By contrast, writing a memo to a friend is unlikely to need more than a moment's preparation, whether of the ideas or expressions, vocabulary or style.

The other question which Hedge (ibid:21) mentions and which should be taken into account before starting to write is: who am I writing this for? In other words, who is the reader of the text? The reader(s) of the text may be a group of colleagues or a senior executive in the organization or the state. Thinking about the reader helps the writer to choose what he/she wants to say and how to present it in the most appropriate style: formal, friendly, serious, or tentative.

The amount of preparation that precedes writing will vary depending on who the reader is. A message addressed to a friend telling him one's news may not need any preparation of diction, terminology, expressions and style, due to the friendly relationship between the reader and the writer. On the other hand, a message directed to a minister, for example, needs precision in using the formal diction, terminology, expressions and style suitable to the reader of the text and his/her expectations. In the

prewriting/preparation stage, however, the good writer will be prepared to modify or even dispense with a preconceived plan, and changes may occur during the course of composition. However, the unskillful writer will be bound by a fixed plan and will apply it throughout the writing process from the very beginning to the very end, without any modification.

Teachers who use the process approach give their learners support and ensure that they have enough time to experiment with their ideas and correct what they have written in their drafts (as will be discussed in Chapter Eight, section 8.2.3.2.1). The writing process is thus an exploratory process, incorporating new ideas and linguistic forms to express those ideas.

There are certain characteristics in the prewriting stage which Zemelan and Daniels (1982:32) note: 1) It involves using structured activities to help learners gather and organize material for writing and become engaged with a specific topic. It may include internal activities such as thinking, memory, and contemplating personal values, and it may also include such things as dialogue, research, data gathering, experiments, and class discussions; 2) It helps the learners realize that they have a wide range of choice. In good pre-writing activities, learners generate many possibilities and are then given a structured opportunity to choose from among them; 3) Most effective prewriting activities involve multiple steps arranged in a sequence that supports the learners' own thinking. Learners can list questions and ideas that have developed in their mind as a result of the initial stimulus. They can then generate material, using internal contemplation. Finally they can look for a focus in the material they have begun to collect before they begin the actual drafting. All this is done through a discussion involving the learners and the teacher.

4.5.2.2 Stage Two: Drafting Stage

The second stage of the writing according to the process approach is the writing itself or drafting stage. The writer begins to transfer ideas into text. The writer in this stage moves from thinking about writing and preparing for it to the act of writing itself. This stage is called composing, drafting, creating or developing. Brown and Hood (1989:19) note that the writing/drafting stage starts when the learner is ready or

wishes to write. In this stage, the most important thing is to write down vocabulary items, without worrying about spelling, grammar, punctuation or usage. The focus here is on preparing a first draft, which may undergo modification in the second draft. The most important thing is to get down the ideas that the writer wishes to express.

The skillful writer writes the first draft in this stage. As White (1988b:9) observes, the task is to write down as many ideas as possible, neglecting niceties of diction and expression and quickly writing sentences, which may not be organised (this point is in agreement with what will be seen in Chapter Eight, section 8.2.3.2.2). The writer is interested in recording the ideas connected to the topic, while the stress on organization-logic, clarity and the correction of errors comes later. According to Harris (1993:46), this is the stage where the ideas and plans are translated through a provisional text. Writing down ideas helps the writer to find out what can be written and then link the sentences and paragraphs together. The drafting stage allows writers the flexibility to explore, to make discoveries and to change their ideas.

This stage is the act of producing the first draft. It is the fastest part of the writing process and the most "frightening", Murray (1982:15) pointed out, when the writer has completed a draft, he/she knows how much, and how little, he/she knows. Murray (ibid: 19) also mentions that this stage is most accurately termed the 'central stage' of the writing process.

4.5.2.3 Stage Three: Revising Stage

The third stage of the writing process is the stage known as revising, defined by Taylor (1981:5) as the "discovery procedure". Although Beach (1976:163; 1979:115) claims that revising processes are often confused with editing or proofreading, this stage is a critical point in the process; the writer begins to rearrange, reformulate and rewrite what he/she has written in a logical way. The writer, according to this approach, is always correcting what he/she has written to make sure of the clarity and syntactic accuracy of the text. The revising stage is one of the most important stages of the writing process. It aims to ensure that the context and purpose are clear and suitable for the reader of the text in the particular writing situation. Meredith

(1985:231) argues that revision is a valuable part of exposition and argument. The writer revises what he/she has written in order to make his/her purposes clear, meaningful, coherent, and unified and ensure that the language is correct. Usually the revising process occurs after finishing the writing, though some revision may take place during composition. This stage is a very vital part of the process of writing a text, when discovery and organization come together, when writers refine and recast what they have written and shape it into a coherent written statement (Taylor 1981:6; Mendonce and Lohnson 1994: 751).

It is not only for making sure of the correctness of the spelling, punctuation and grammar; this stage is also related to arranging, changing and deleting (as will be shown in Chapter Seven, section 7.8.2 and Chapter Eight, section 8.2.3.2.2). The writer checks what he/she has written by making sure that what he/she has written is what he/she actually wants to write, and that what has been written is written in a clear and suitable way. It is true what Raimes (1985: 236) said, that second language learners as writers have problems other than correcting errors of grammar, spelling and punctuation. Among these problems is making the meaning of what they write clear and effective. In order to achieve this, writers should be able to perform the types of revision their writing needs in order to be clear and suitable for the reader of the text. The teacher of writing can structure the writing classes by giving the learners the chance to rewrite their drafts in a way that helps to develop the content.

Revision can be performed during the drafting/composing process or after finishing writing. The revising process is a constructive part of the writing process. In this stage sufficient time and attention should be given to whatever is written. Changes can be made in the organisation of the sentences and paragraphs in order to make the content and purpose of the writing clear. Murray (1982:73) points out that what the writer does after a draft is completed is to understand and communicate what has begun to appear on the page. The writer reads the text to see what has been suggested, then confirms, alters, or develops it, usually through many drafts. Eventually a meaning is developed which can be communicated to a reader. The writer may also add some parts or delete others which in his/her view are unecessary. Two or more sentences may be joined to make one and superfluous words deleted. Moreover, Chenoweth (1987:26) mentions that revision gives the writer the

opportunity to re-think the content. This point was made by several authors. When a writer starts writing, he/she often starts without knowing exactly what to write; but when he/she re-writes and revises what he/she has written he/she actually discovers what he/she wants to say. The professional writer may re-write several times. Taylor (1981:7) considers that the revision process gives the writer of the text unlimited chances to reshape what he/she has written. This stage is therefore a vital point in the writing process, and Sommers (1982:150) maintains that it should focus on the clarity of the aim and purpose of writing the text.

Murray (1982: 134) has discussed two types of revision: internal and external. In internal revision, the writer of the text focuses fully on exploring what has been discovered on the page and then reworks the subject, the information, the argument, and the structure until he/she is satisfied that the meaning is successfully communicated. By contrast, external revision is the briefer final process of preparing the written text for an external audience.

The revision process includes the evaluation of what has been written by revising the written text according to the following points (Hedge 1988:19):

- Am I sharing my impressions clearly enough with my reader?
- Have I missed out any important point of information?
- Are there any points in the writing where my reader has to make a jump because I have omitted a line of argument or I've forgotten to explain?
- Does the vocabulary need to be made stronger at any point?
- Are there some sentences which don't say much or which are too repetitive and can be missed out?
- Can I rearrange any sets of sentences to make the writing clearer or more interesting?
- Do I need to rearrange any paragraphs?
- Are links between sentences clear?
- Do they guide my reader through the writing?

According to Shih (1986:630) there are skills which the learners exercise through the revising stage: 1) revising and evaluating the content: examining what the text says

and how the writer intends the reader to react, adding, deleting, reordering, and altering the text to ensure all parts of the discussion are relevant, substantive and informed; 2) evaluating and revising the organization: adding spaces and making any changes needed to create a clearer organization.

4.5.2.4 Stage four: Editing Stage

The fourth stage in writing is the editing stage. The writer corrects any mistakes found in the text. It is here that the writer makes the final changes by making sure of the accuracy of what has been written so that the text is able to fulfil the minimum degree of acceptability to the reader (Hedge 1988:19) (an important point which is discussed in our findings of the main field study, see Chapter Eight, section 8.2.3.2.4). Raimes (1998:154) argues that it is important to see the editing stage as distinct from revising, though writers often engage in both at the same time. The aim is to make sure that what has been written is written for the reader. Moreover, while learners are writing they make several grammar, punctuation and spelling mistakes and, therefore, the editing stage is for making sure that the text is free from these mistakes. This stage, then, consists of careful checking of the text to make sure that it is free from errors which may impede communication. These errors may be found in the word order, word choice, punctuation and spelling. This process cannot be acquired automatically; it is a behaviour that needs to be taught.

Shih (1986:613) pointed out that the skills exercised during editing the text include that of editing vocabulary and style; that is to say using one's knowledge of lexical and stylistic conventions to identify and solve problems. Another important skill is that of using reference works to identify and correct errors in spelling, punctuation, so on.

In practice, in the writing process the four stages intermingle. They do not form a fixed linear process, but a continuous and repeated process in which the writer finds him-/herself going back and forth from stage to stage.

The process approach has some implications for the teaching of writing, as pointed out by Applebee (1986:102-103):

1- The writing text is the production of the learners' own writing. Learners examine their own writing.
2- The learners find their own subject. It is not the job of the teacher; it is the responsibility of the learners to explore their own language, to discover their own meaning. The teacher supports but does not direct the learners.
3- The learners always use their own language.
4- The learners should have the opportunity to write several drafts to discover what they have to say on the particular subject.
5- The learners are encouraged to try any form of writing that could help them to discover and communicate what they have to say.

According to the process approach, the role of the teacher is to provide the learners with the opportunity to come up with their ideas, thus encouraging an environment which is positive and cooperative, with less interference and control (Hyland 2002:23). The teacher's role is to facilitate the learners' writing and provide them with input or stimulus. Teachers should sometimes work with the learners individually and encourage them to find alternatives, responding to them as autonomous writers, helping them experiment with various strategies to see what could work well given a variety of writing tasks, guiding them through multiple drafts until the learners realize they have produced the best text (Campbell 1998:3). Therefore the teacher's role, as Applebee (1986:107) has indicated, is that of a collaborator, rather than an evaluator.

Teachers can use a variety of effective activities and techniques in teaching writing in a communicative way, which achieve benefits for the learners. One of these activities is group work. Reid (1993:155) argues that using group work activities in the classroom has been the most influential strategy in teaching composition over the past decade. It develops communicative skills and achieves the linguistic need for interaction (Long and Porter 1985:219). Raimes (1998:153) emphasises that an important characteristic of the teaching of writing according to the process approach is using group work frequently to generate the ideas of the text and reviewing the content and form of the text in a cooperative way. Several studies, for example, Mendonce and Johnson (1994), Cumming and So (1996), Reid and Powers (1993), and Elgar (2002) have found that group work has produced useful results through

discovering the text, revision, developing fluency and enhancing the tutoring situation.

Shin (2002:28) has indicated that group work as a communitive activity allows learners to experience a multiple audience of potential readers, and find workable solutions to writing problems. Participants in group work during discussions show their opinions to each other, get feedback, and evaluate others' work, all of which might lead them to feel more confident with what they have written.

Taking part in group work enables learners to use one another's resources and work toward common goals. Savova and Donato (1991: 13) have argued that the positive feelings that contribute to success in writing tasks and that are particularly found in group work increase the learners' motivation to learn and foster their contribution to the learning process. In addition, in group work the learners teach each other in several different successful ways (Bassano and Christison 1988:8; Dansereau 1988:116; Gaies 1985: 132). Reid (1993:156) said group work could be successful in the writing class. The students' writing will be easier and more successful when they are talking, drafting, revising, redrafting, and editing in groups as part of the writing process.

Many benefits are obtained by using group work in teaching writing, which allows and provides good writing practices. Brookas and Grundy (1990:69) point out that there are several reasons to use group work in teaching writing:

1- It encourages collaborative writing.
2- It enables the learners to work with various class sizes.
3- It enables learners to talk more about the material, topic etc.
4- It enables groups to compare their work with that of other groups.
5- It allows the teacher's role to be redefined.

However, while group work has many advantages, there are some disadvantages. It provides learners with valuable experience, but some learners may not wish to write with a group all the time. In addition, some learners may not want to risk exposing their apparent deficiencies in exercises and tasks to a large group (Boughey 1997:128).

We have seen that according to the process approach the writer goes through different stages: pre-writing (preparation), drafting, revising, and editing. The teacher can engage the learners in useful learning activities by presenting a particular topic, for example: describe a commercial product a certain company produces in such a way as to persuade customers to buy the product. The teacher asks the learners to engage in group discussion to break down the task according to the four writing stages.

Although the process approach has dominated discussions of writing, several authors have criticised it, especially in the field of language teaching for special purposes (Horowitz 1986: 445). The teacher who wishes to use this approach in teaching writing may not be able to reach a balance between what he/she feels is important for developing the learners as writers, and the influence and effect of the teaching materials used (Tribble 1996:41). Learners need models, especially at the first levels, to train them. According to Badger and White (2000:157) the disadvantage of the process approach as a teaching method is that it regards all writing as being produced by the same set of processes; not enough importance is given to the kinds of texts writers produce and why such texts are produced. It provides the learners with inadequate inputs, especially in terms of linguistic knowledge. Caudery (1997:4) does not believe that the process approach provides a solution to all the problems to be found in teaching writing and doubts that it can be regarded as a methodology suitable for all writing situations.

Leki (1992:7) points out that the process approach gives second/foreign language learners the unrealistic impression that grammatical accuracy is not important (Eskey 1983:320). Caudery (1997:20) emphasises that this approach is not necessarily motivating; there are some aspects which learners find demotivating, particularly if used insensitively or over-frequently; for example, it may not be suitable to force learners to re-write what they have written in the light of feedback on every or even most occasions. Learners, as Caudery (ibid) found, confirmed that in most cases they regard re-writing as being in some way good for them, but not necessarily enjoyable. Another problem with the process approach is the amount of hard work demanded of both teacher and learners (ibid). Teachers do not only need to make full comments on a learner's text in giving feedback; they also need to think more deeply about the text

about which they are giving advice. It is much harder to make useful comments that can help learners to develop a text than to point out language errors. As for learners, they may find that they are expected to think more clearly about their writing, and to think in a different way. Unless they are prepared to work hard on their text, they are likely to find the process relatively unfulfilling (ibid: 20). Ameira (2001:39) shows that this approach fails to prepare the learners for writing tasks specific to their needs, because in the occupational field, for example, there are certain models commonly used for writing business letters.

4.6 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to focus on the theoretical and practical sides of the approaches used in teaching writing. We have discussed the nature of writing as a communication activity, and highlighted the differences between writing and speaking. Finally we focused on the main approaches for teaching writing (product and process), describing their strategies, and evaluating their advantages and disadvantages. The questions that arise in this context are: how best are we to teach writing for occupational purposes? Which approach should we use in order to teach writing effectively? Do we need to use product, process, or both? With these questions in mind, in the next chapter, we will consider a comprehensive model designed to improve the teaching of writing Arabic for occupational purposes.

Chapter Five

Proposed Model

5.1 Introduction

On the basis of the concepts discussed in the previous chapter, in this chapter we will establish a proposed model for developing an approach to the teaching of writing for occupational purposes. The main feature of the proposed model is that it combines the product and process approaches to the teaching of writing.

5.2 Product or Process Approach.

It is important that we, as teachers of Arabic for occupational purposes, ask ourselves some pertinent questions, among which are which strategies are most appropriate to the teaching of writing and could best help meet learners' writing needs in a particular situation. The choice appears to be between the product and process approaches. Hyland (2002:78) observes that, unfortunately, research provides no cut-and-dried answer to the question, and concedes that there is no single approach to the teaching or learning of writing that satisfies all the relevant criteria. Raimes (1983: 5) also points out that there is no one clear and comprehensive solution, as the writer has to deal with many different factors in order to produce an effective text, as shown in Figure 5.1:

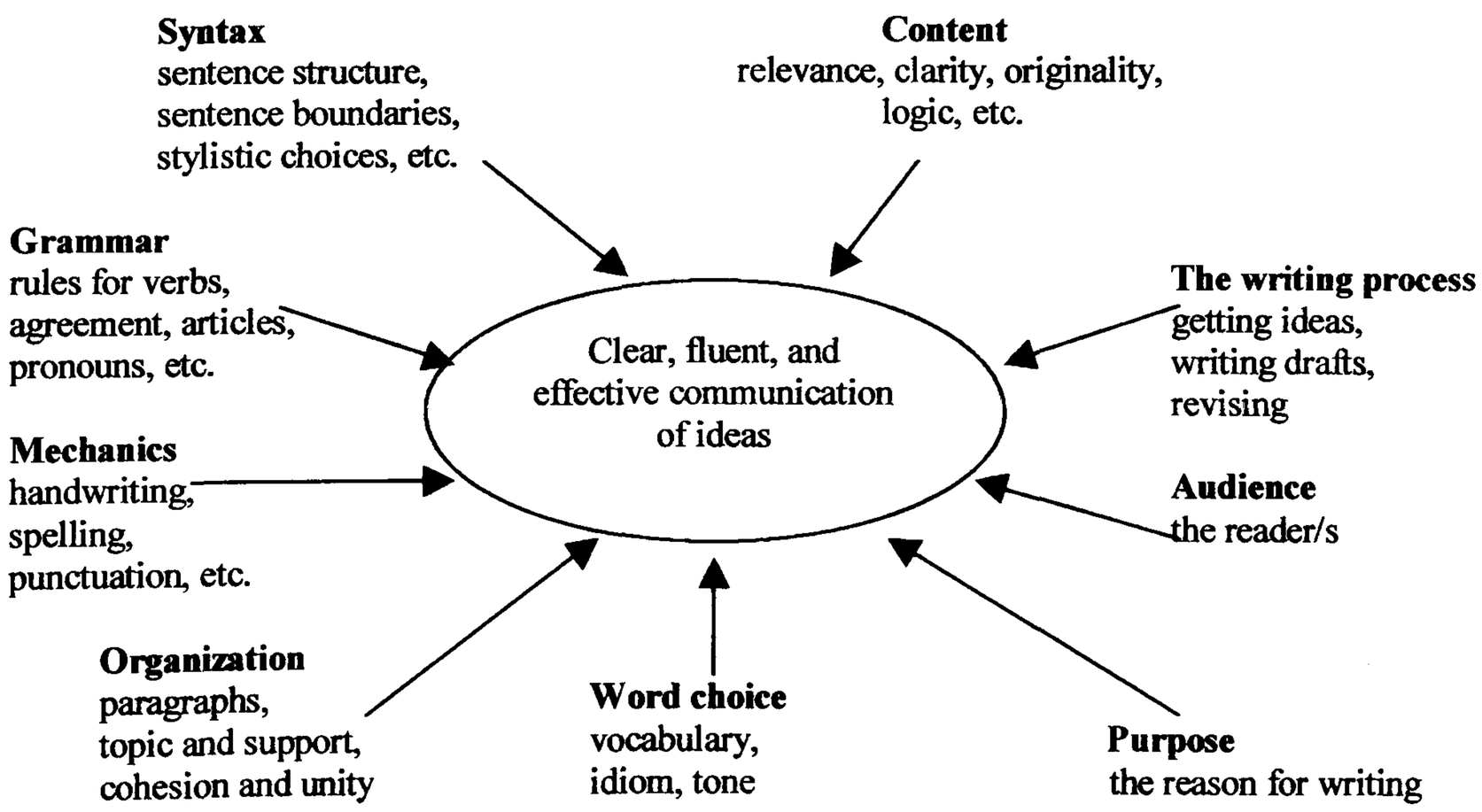

Figure 5.1: The factors involved in producing a piece of writing: Raimes (1983:6)

In connection with the above diagram, Raimes (ibid: 6) points out that, "As teachers have stressed different features of the diagram, combining them with how they think writing is learned, they have developed a variety of approaches to the teaching of writing".

5.3 Gaps and Problems

As we have discussed in Chapter Four, each approach (product and process) has advantages and disadvantages. Each approach, as Ameira (2001:35) claims, is opposed to the other, and there is a gap between them. Pennington *et al.* (1997:123) point out that the product approach reflects the view that language is a set of items, i.e. lexis, and of rules, which can be presented in textbooks and learned by imitation. By contrast, the process approach reflects the view that language is flexible, changing, individual and learnable only by real-life use or communicative activity. Thus, the first sees language as external knowledge, while the second sees language as interaction with subject matter, self, and other individuals. In terms of learning, the goal in the first approach (product) is to master the items of the language in the shortest possible time, whereas the goal of the second approach (process) is self-development and self-expression as a means of communication. Ameira (2001:35) argues that the process approach to the teaching of writing may be appropriate to some writers and to some tasks in particular situations, but it is not suitable for all writers and all tasks. Some degree of concentration on the product approach is important; the writer needs familiarity and practice with particular written forms to produce a text that will communicate clearly and effectively.

Moreover, emphasising the writing process does not mean that the process approach is suitable for most second/foreign language learners, particularly those who are studying a language for specific purposes. Ameira (ibid: 38) maintains that it is not enough to know the process used in writing the text; it is also important to know what is required to complete an acceptable text. Therefore, it is important to take into consideration some important questions: Do all writers need to go through several stages (preparation, drafting, rewriting) to write a text in the same way? Do all tasks require going through these stages in the same way? Ameira (ibid: 38-39) points out that there is no single model for all writers, as there is no universal sequence of the

writing process. It is important to provide real writers in real writing situations with a wide range of models as sources of producing an effective and successful text. Commenting on the two approaches, Ameria (ibid: 51) finally remarks that "the primary shortcoming of these two notions is that they have been seen as a matter of opposition rather than complementary perspectives". This seems an eminently sensible position. Why do we not take into consideration both approaches in teaching writing for occupational purposes? The next section will attempt to address this issue.

5.4 Toward Using a Combination of the Product and Process Approaches

The present researcher believes that using the process or product approach exclusively to teach the writing of Arabic for occupational purposes is not the ideal way to meet the learner's needs in the workplace. Therefore, an effective and workable alternative would be to combine the two approaches, thus enabling students to learn to write with both accuracy and fluency. This combined approach is likely to help learners of Arabic for occupational purposes to fulfil the many and varied requirements of the workplace. Several authors support this view: Narantuya (1999:12) points out that each approach (product and process) achieves different purposes, such as developing the sense of the language system, the writing skill and the writing process and the awareness of text and reader; therefore it could be useful to use both strategies to teach writing for occupational purposes. It follows that teachers should consider a variety of approaches and combine them if necessary when applying them to a particular context. It is important, when teaching writing, to take into consideration the teaching situation and the learners' needs in order to find the appropriate balance of process and product work. Pennington *et al.* (1997:12) note that many teachers take a 'middle of the road' approach, combining product and process teaching philosophies, and try selectively to apply or mix process and product elements in teaching writing so as to combine them in a new synthesis. The present researcher agrees with Pennington's comment. In the present study we will suggest combining both approaches in teaching Arabic writing for occupational purposes (see below).

According to Ameira (2001:77) real writing should concentrate on what it says and the way in which it says it, and so the teaching of writing should incorporate aspects of the process approach and those of the product approach, fitting them coherently into one single approach. Writing is not only defined in terms of how it is brought to completion (process) but also in terms of the knowledge base that goes into it (product). Moreover, Mackay (1994:202) argues that in teaching writing we should seek to incorporate the best of both the product and process approaches. We need to recognize the non-linear development of a piece of writing, but we also need to stress the importance of working toward an effective piece of writing which makes a creative statement, meets the audience's expectations and conforms to the social conventions of written language.

Learners need to study how to use the writing processes as users of the language, and at the same time how to produce an effective and acceptable text which fulfill the aim of writing it. They also need to study writing as a means of and a tool for learning, which is useful for them in both their occupation and personal life. The present researcher agrees, and believes that teaching writing for occupational purposes will be improved by combining the process and product approaches into one teaching method in order to fulfil learners' writing and occupational needs. Nunan (2000:88) contends that there is no reason, in principle, why process writing cannot be integrated with the practice of studying and even imitating written models in the classroom. Eustace (1996:53) stresses that the development of writing for occupational purposes to meet effectively work needs and requirements may be run along two parallel lines, i.e. construction and how to use the language. However, a more efficient method of achieving effective writing development would be the synthesis of both approaches in the teaching of writing. Therefore, the present researcher suggests that in order to meet the writing needs of learners of Arabic for occupational purposes, both approaches should be combined in the practice of teachers. With this in mind we will move in the next section to the proposal of an integrated model.

5.5 The Proposed Model

The model proposed tries to develop and present an effective and practical approach to teaching the writing of Arabic for occupational purposes; in other words it tries to

answer the question, how best can we develop the teaching of writing for occupational purposes in a way which can help the learners to satisfy their writing needs in the workplace? The proposed model is based on that of Tribble (1996:68), who argues that a writer needs to be familiar with a range of knowledge in order to be able to write effective text (ibid: 43,67). This range of knowledge consists of:

1- Content knowledge

"Knowledge of the concepts involved in the subject area": In other words knowledge of the nature of the writing task, "the topic itself", without which the writer cannot complete the task.

2- Context knowledge

"Knowledge of the social context in which the text will be read, including the reader's expectation"; this means knowledge of the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader of the text.

3- Language system knowledge

Knowledge of the lexis, syntax etc.

4- Writing process knowledge.

"Knowledge of the most appropriate way of preparing for a specific writing tasks".

According to Tribble, if the writer understands the nature of the writing task (content knowledge), the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader (context knowledge), which aspects of the language system are relevant to completion of the text (language system knowledge), and what skills are needed to write the text (writing process knowledge), then he/she has a good chance of writing an effective and successful text. He suggests that activities such as writing reports can provide learners with the opportunity to understand the content (topic of the text) and the relationship between the writer and the reader, to understand and explore the language aspects needed to produce the text, and finally to practice the appropriate writing skills (ibid: 68).

Our main field study shows that there is a need to use a variety of strategies for teaching writing (encompassing the product and process approaches), and this need is determined by three factors present in the occupational field: the nature of the writing tasks carried out, the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader, and the language aspects that are mostly used in writing occupational texts (Chapters Seven and Eight). Therefore, the present researcher will adopt Tribble's model with some modifications, which are appropriate to the present study. The present researcher believes that if we want as teachers to develop an effective and practical approach to the teaching of writing for occupational purposes, which can help learners to write successful texts in the workplace, it is important to understand and make good use of three of the four aspects of knowledge mentioned by Tribble; these can be regarded as factors that contribute to determining our approach to the teaching of writing for occupational purposes. The three factors are:

1- Content:

The subject area of the writing tasks (topics) performed in the workplace.

2- Context:

The nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader in the workplace

3- Language system:

The language aspects used in writing occupational texts in the workplace.

The present researcher has separated the writing process from these factors because Tribble's model is concerned with the types of knowledge that a writer must have in order to produce an effective and successful text, rather than with the practice of teacher. The proposed model dose not neglect the importance of the writing process, but does not consider it a factor in the same category as the other three. It is therefore to be understood as forming part of approaches to teaching writing. So a knowledge of the writing process is something the teacher must have and be able to use to provide the learner with appropriate strategies. It does not itself contribute to determining the teacher's approach to the teaching of writing.

Combining both teaching approaches (product and process), is best achieved by a clear understanding of the interrelationship of the three factors mentioned above. On this basis we will present the structure and the main features of the proposed model, which we hope will be viewed as a comprehensive model of the teaching of the writing of Arabic for occupational purposes. The model is shown in Figure 5. 2

Figure 5.2: The proposed model of teaching writing for occupational purposes

The model shown in Figure 5.2 consists of three levels:

Level One: Contributing Factors.

Factors (content, context, and language system) that contribute to the selection of an appropriate approach to the teaching of writing.

Level Two: Teaching Writing Approaches.

Combination of the two approaches to teaching writing (product and process).

Level Three: Outcome.

Ability to write occupational text successfully.

5.5.1 Analysis of Features of the Proposed Model

5.5.1.1 Level One: Contributing Factors

The first level comprises three factors that bear upon the writing of occupational texts in the workplace. These factors also contribute to determining an appropriate and effective approach to the teaching of writing. The following analysis explains the effects of these factors.

5.5.1.1.1 Content

In this context we mean by 'content' the subject area of the writing tasks performed in the workplace. These tasks (topics) are, for example, writing reports, memos, market research reports, notes, invitations, faxes, job applications, manual reports, and so on. This variety of writing tasks is likely to require a variety of writing strategies and processes. For example, writing a market research report requires a different process from that used in writing a job application. The report may require several writing processes and stages. The writer may need to perform a wide range of pre-writing activities before writing the text, such as preparation, including preparation of the ideas; gathering the necessary information, which is likely to include facts and figures; and considering the expressions, vocabulary and so on which will be important in conveying the ideas. Moreover, the task may require initial drafting as well as revision of what has been written, to make sure of the clarity of the content, and it may also need editing to ensure that the text is free from mistakes, whether in spelling or grammar. Writing a job application, on the other hand, may not require the use of these writing processes (preparation, drafting,

revising, and editing); it may simply involve imitating a model. We can see that the variety of writing tasks found in the workplace may require the writer to use a wide range of writing processes.

Writing tasks for specific purposes differs from text to text, depending on how the text is written and the processes and strategies used by the writer to produce the text. The nature of the task contributes to determining the strategies employed by the writer to produce a text which can achieve its communicative purposes and is accurate in the use of structures, vocabulary and expressions (Lord and Dawa 1983: 134; Bouton 1995:220). Applebee (1986:97, 107) points out that the writing process used by both writer and teacher varies according to the nature of the writing task. Some tasks require extensive pre-writing activities; in some, help is needed with drafting; some need a number of revisions; some must be edited; in some, the focus is on a competent first or final performance.

Therefore, teachers of Arabic for occupational purposes should take into account the variety of writing tasks found in the workplace, and use different teaching strategies (product and process) in order to help learners to perform these tasks. This is also the view of Kleine (1986:786), who argues that different tasks and different situations demand different teaching strategies, by which the teachers help their learners to develop appropriate skills. Thus, teachers should choose an appropriate approach which will help learners to produce an effective occupational text.

5.5.1.1.2. Context

"Context" here means the social context, in which the text will be read, including the relationship between the writer and the reader of the text. Most of our writing in real life is addressed to a real reader, as Hedge (1988:10) pointed out. The reader is a major social-context factor, and so writing cannot be understood as a product of a single individual (Ameira 2001: 32). Writing in the occupational field is directed to a real reader (whether known or unknown), and as Narantuya (1999:21) observes, learners (writers) in the workplace are required to write for different readers (whether inside or outside the workplace) who are from different occupational/social levels (whether top or low-ranking management); therefore they need to be able to write

different types of texts to satisfy the expectations of the reader. In order to achieve effective communication and reach an intended goal through writing, the writer should take into account the reader or group of readers of the text, the reason being that this will affect the way in which the text will be written, and the type of information which needs to be included.

The nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader requires the use of a variety of writing strategies and processes to produce the text. For example a letter or note inviting a friend to an informal party is unlikely to call for the use of complex processes. The message is usually delivered to the reader without much preparation, revising and editing. By contrast, a letter directed to the general manager of a company and touching on a controversial issue will probably require the writer to think carefully about how he/she will approach the subject. He/she may consider a wide range of ideas and expressions, revising and editing to make sure the content of the text is clear and the language is correct, and use formal language and writing conventions suitable to the reader and his/her expectations. This process is unlikely to be completed in a single cycle, and will be repeated until the writer is confident that the text satisfies all the relevant criteria.

This variety of relationships between the writer and the reader of the text in the workplace requires the teacher of writing to use a similar variety of teaching strategies which will help learners to address different readers. Some of these strategies will involve writing processes which consist of a number of stages, for example preparation, drafting, revising and editing, to ensure the text will persuade the reader. Also, teaching strategies may be needed that focus on the learner's use of models so that he/she may understand how to write in a formal style, how to organise particular kinds of text, and how to use writing conventions. In this connection Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 116) argue that the successful writer is one who is able to persuade the reader of the validity of his/her argument through the clear expression of ideas and content and the mastery of writing conventions in order to fulfil the reader's expectations. Teaching writing by focusing on the reader, according to Ameira (2001:32), reinforces the understanding of stylistic and linguistic features, and of how a text is organised. Thus, teachers should use models when teaching writing, in order to help learners to acquire those skills which will

enable them to produce appropriate texts. Using models also involves both writer and reader with the culture and conventions of the society in which they are living.

5.5.1.1.3 Language System

In the present context, 'language system' means those aspects of language, e.g. grammar, lexis, style and syntax, which the writer must use to produce an occupational text. Knowledge of this factor helps teachers to ascertain which language aspects are mostly used in writing occupational texts. Teachers can then make use of exercises and techniques that reinforce and develop accuracy. It is necessary to understand the rules governing the use of verbs, noun-adjective and verb-noun concordance, pronouns, sentence-structure, stylistic choice, specialised lexis, and so on. Our main field study shows that the writer of occupational texts uses various language aspects. This variety is a result of two factors: the nature of the writing tasks, which require the use of specific vocabulary, forms, idioms, tenses, and so on; and the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader, which require familiarity with a range of styles (formal and informal) and writing conventions (Chapter Seven, section 7.7.3). Such an understanding will enable teachers to exclude any aspects of the language system, which are not relevant to teaching those things necessary for writing in the workplace and to avoid discouraging or alienating the learners.

5.5.1.2 Level Two: Teaching Writing Approaches: The Combined Approach.

The output from the three factors in the first level leads to the second level of the model, which concerns the selection of an effective and practical approach to the teaching of writing for occupational purposes. This approach is a combination or rather a synthesis of two main approaches: product and process (see Chapter Four). Such an approach should, we suggest, help learners of Arabic for occupational purposes to write successful texts. This combined approach results from an appreciation of the three factors of level one: the writing tasks performed in the workplace (content), the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader (context), and the language aspects used in writing occupational texts (language system). As we shall see in our main field study (Chapter Seven) the writer of occupational texts in the workplace deals with a variety of writing tasks, may be

required to communicate with readers of different occupational/social levels, and to use many different language aspects. This variety of factors demands the use of two different writing approaches (product and process). It is therefore important that teachers use both approaches in order to teach writing for occupational purposes effectively (this will be discussed in Chapter Eight).

5.5.1.3 Level Three: Outcome

Finally, the combination of the two approaches to the teaching of writing for occupational purposes results in the third level of the proposed model: the ability of learners of Arabic for occupational purposes to produce successful texts in the workplace and thus to fulfil their writing needs as employees. It is important to concede, however, that the study's proposed model has some limitations. This model is suitable for teaching writing only to advanced learners, in other words, those who are already skilled in using the Arabic language.

5.6 Conclusion

We have discussed and compared two important approaches (product and process) to the teaching of writing, considering the advantages and disadvantages of each, and drawing on the arguments of several authorities. We then considered whether teaching the writing of Arabic for occupational purposes could be improved by combining the product and process approaches. A theoretical model was proposed and discussed in detail, with particular reference to its three levels. In the following chapter we will discuss the methodology and the procedure which is implemented in this study.

Chapter Six

Methodology of the Study

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to describing the methodology of the present study. The study's primary aim is to develop an effective and practical approach to the teaching of Arabic writing for occupational purposes. To assist in achieving that aim, a survey was conducted to collect important data. Three research instruments were used to collect data from learners (employees) and teachers. Firstly, a questionnaire was designed to measure a number of factors that are believed to affect the development of strategies for the teaching of writing. Secondly, three tasks were designed in order to observe how different writing strategies (product, process, and a combination of the two approaches) work, in other words, how the writers (learners) work with these different writing strategies. Finally, two sets of interviews were conducted; interview with the participants who participated in the three writing tasks, and interview with teachers of Arabic. The latter was to identify the opinions, attitudes, and views of the participants about the most effective and practical strategies for teaching for occupational purposes that can help the learners (writers) to write occupational texts successfully. Each instrument is discussed in terms of the rationale to its use and the design of the instrument. The piloting of the instruments is reported. A detailed account is then given of the sampling and data collection procedures in the main field work.

6.2 Qualitative and Quantitative Methods

In the present study, three instruments were employed: questionnaires, observations and interviews (see Figure 6.1).

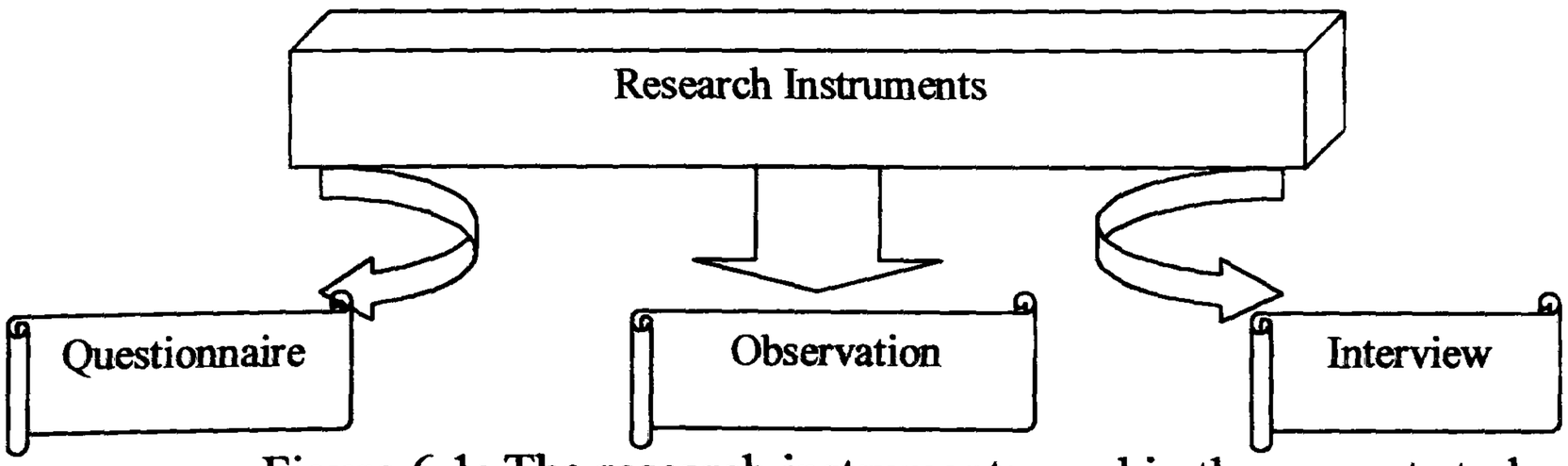

Figure 6.1: The research instruments used in the present study

The instruments of investigation used in any research have to fulfil the aims of the research. The methods of investigation that are used should correspond with external demand (Breakwell 1998: 11; Barrett 1998:167). Robson (1995:31) points out that the procedure of the methods used should be presented in a convenient, comprehensible, and acceptable form to the participants. In order to provide useful complementary evidence and increased reliability, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were adopted in the present study. According to Nunan (1992:46) and Hitchcock and Hughes (1989:34), these are two main types of educational research. Qualitative research aims to broaden the scope of understanding of phenomena by employing more naturalistic and less structured data collection procedures. Therefore, it tends to be closely associated with relatively open and less structured strategies for data collection, such as the use of participant observation and in-depth interviews, in order to generate a detailed account of human behaviour (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991). On the other hand, quantitative research assumes a stable reality and thus seeks causal relationships between different constructs through controlled and objective instruments, with little emphasis on the individual's state of mind. Therefore, this type of research is closely associated with survey or experimental data collection procedures (Slavin 1984; Stallings and Mohlman 1992; and Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991). Despite the distinction between the two approaches, several researchers employ a combination of both (Al-Shuwairekh 2000:115). Strauss and Corbin (1990:36) see qualitative and quantitative methods as complementary.

6.3 Research Instruments

6.3.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a written measuring instrument, which is used to obtain specific information from respondents. It is useful for data collection as it helps the researcher to elicit the relevant information from the respondents in order to confirm or refute his/her hypotheses and research questions. Ricterich and Chancerel (1987:59) state that the questionnaire has two tasks: The first task is to motivate the subject and persuade him/her to express his/her opinion as much as possible. The second task of the questionnaire is to relate the subject's attitude and position to the

topic of the research, so that he/she can give the information needed about his/her position as accurately as possible.

As a research instrument the questionnaire has various advantages: it is easy to administer, and it can be distributed to large groups of respondents at the same time. Since the sample is often large, there is a greater possibility that it will be truly representative, and not abnormally skewed. Respondents can be encouraged to express their attitudes, motives and opinions. Questionnaires can also be applied in the present researcher's absence. Seliger and Shohamy (1989:172) assert that questionnaires are often used to collect data on phenomena that are difficult to observe, such as situations, motivations and self-concepts. However, there are also various disadvantages. Often, fewer questionnaires are returned than expected. Also, the researcher expects the respondents to read all the questions carefully and to give particular answers, which does not always happen. Questionnaires assume that respondents are both willing and able to answer the question.

Designing a questionnaire is not an easy task and specific steps are required. The areas (variables) that need to be investigated should be specified and included in the questionnaire; the information within each area to be investigated should also be specified. In this step, it may be necessary to actually form the questions and hypotheses of the main study into measurable objectives. Next, these objectives can be formed into questions or statements which the respondents later answer. In addition, choosing an appropriate format in which to write the questions is vital in order to obtain reliable, sensitive, and suitable responses.

Oppenheim (1992:159) believes that questionnaires should contain a series of questions or modules, and many of the questions are often written in an abbreviated form. The questions should be ordered within each module in such a way that each module, which focuses on a different variable, starts with questions of a general nature, and then moves to very specific questions by the end of the questionnaire. There are various kinds of questionnaires: The first kind is the open-question questionnaire which allows the respondents to write their own answers freely, using their own words to clarify and explain their responses (Cohen and Manion 1989:248). There are advantages and disadvantages to open-question questionnaires.

Openheim (1992:115) points out that the main advantage of the open-question format is that it allows the respondents to express themselves freely and spontaneously in their responses. However, it often presents coding difficulties and it may present problems in quantifying and categorising responses, for analysis. In addition, it may be both costly and slow to process and moreover, it may be unreliable.

The second type of questionnaire is the closed-question questionnaire, which provides multiple-choice answers, from which the respondent chooses the most appropriate one(s). The advantages of the closed-question format are that it is easy to process, it takes a short time to process and is less costly as it has a limited scope (ibid: 15). It also makes it easy for the researcher to delineate and compare groups and responses, and it is easy to experiment with and to examine hypotheses. On the other hand, it has some disadvantages; it takes more time to develop and write than the open question type and closed questions may restrict respondents from giving more detailed information.

The third type of questionnaire is the mixed questionnaire, which consists of a mixture of open and closed questions (Ricterich and Chanceral 1987:60). Most often, this type of questionnaire includes both the open and closed types of questions in a single domain (module).

6.3.1.1 The Design of the Questionnaire

The purpose of the questionnaire was to measure a number of factors that are believed to affect the development of an effective and practical model approach to the teaching of Arabic writing for occupational purposes.

Stage One

The questionnaire was designed according to a simple standard pattern, which, it was hoped, would help the participants to feel at ease while answering the questions. The items of the questionnaire were based on issues discussed in the literature (Chapter Four), and on the research questions. The questionnaire consists of six sections, each section including a number of items. Three types of questions were used. The first type was a "completion" (Appendix B Q5). The second type was based on a "rating

scale", or "Likert scale" ranging from 1 (strongly disagree/never) to 4 (strongly agree/very often) (Appendix B Q21, 22). At its simplest the scale may have only two possible answers: yes/no (Appendix B Q14). As a whole, the questionnaire contains closed questions; there were 49 items in the first version.

Stage Two

One of the first tasks to be carried out was to make sure of the validity of the questionnaire. The notion of validity refers to whether or not the instrument and study items explain and measure what they are assumed or designed to examine (Oppenheim 1992:144). Gay (1976:88) stresses that any instrument should be checked for validity. Therefore in order to determine the validity of the questionnaire, its contents were shown to five specialists in the field of applied linguistics. One of them (see Table 6.1- [No 4]) hold an MA in TAFL from the University of Leeds and currently teach Arabic as a second language in the Arabic Unit of the Language Center at Kuwait University. The second (No 3 in table 6.1) has a Ph.D. from the University of Leeds and is at the moment teaching at Imam Mohammed Bin Saud. The third (No 2 in table 6.1) is a Ph.D. candidate at the University of London, specialising in teaching foreign languages. The fourth (No 1 in table 6.1) is a teacher of TESOL at Qatar University.

No	Name of Assessor	Title	Place of work	Date of interview
1	Al- Kaled Mohammed	Teacher of TESOL	University of Qatar	13- 11-2000
2	Al- Quahtany, Abdul Mohsen	Teacher of TESOL	Language Centre at College of Technology, Kuwait.	14-11-2000
3	Al- Shuwairek, Saleh	Lecturer in TASL, TASL Institute	University of Imam Mohammed Bin Saud Riyadh	18-11-2000
4	Jafer, Ibrahim	Teacher of TASL, Arabic Unit, Language Centre	Kuwait University	20-11-2000

Table 6.1: Assessors of the pilot study and main field study

These experts were given a clear idea of the purposes of the questionnaire and what it was intended to measure, and were asked to judge its validity. They had some comments, mainly concerning the content, sequence, and layout. The researcher took these comments into consideration and redrafted the questionnaire accordingly.

Stage Three

After checking the validity of the questionnaire, the researcher checked its reliability. Reliability refers to the consistency or stability of any experimental effect (Fraenkel and Wallen 1993:146; Bin Ghali 2001:138). An instrument is said to be reliable if it gives stable results when reapplied under similar conditions after a reasonable period of time. The more reliable the instrument, the more confidence one has that the same result will be obtained when the test is re-administered. Tuckman (1994:180) has pointed out that one way to measure reliability is to give the same sample the same test on more than one occasion and then compare the two sets of scores.

The reliability of the present study's research instrument was submitted to the test-retest reliability technique. This involves administering the same test twice to the same group after a certain time interval has elapsed (Fraenkel and Wallen 1990:147). The scores obtained by each participant on the first administration of the test are related to his/her score on the second administration in order to prove the reliability of the instrument.

The present researcher applied the test-retest technique to measure the reliability of the questionnaire by choosing ten learners who were similar to the intended population; there were six males and four females (see Chapter Seven, Section 7.3). The participants answered the questionnaire twice, under the same conditions, with a one-week interval separating the two occasions. The present researcher then asked a statistician at Kuwait University's Computer Centre to measure the questionnaire's reliability. After some discussion, the statistician suggested that the SPSS was the most suitable tool to be used to establish reliability, which is expressed as a coefficient. Coefficient is a technical term which is used to indicate the relationship between the two sets of scores obtained (Fraenkel and Wallen 1990:147), and hence the degree of reliability of the instrument (Seligher and Shohamy 1989:1987). The

coefficient can vary from 0.00 (no relationship) to 1.00 (perfect relationship), and the higher levels (above 0.70) represents a suitable agreement between the outcomes of the first and second analyses (Tuckman 1994:180; Hammond 1998:206).

Therefore the SPSS was utilized to measure the two sets of results. The scores of the two tests having been obtained, it was found that there was a slight difference between them; however, the results revealed a satisfactory level of relationship between the two tests. The reliability coefficient was found to be 0.87, which is a satisfactory level, since it falls between 0.70 and 1.00. This confirms what several authors (Youngman 1979: 167; Sprinthal *et al.*, 1991:118; Scholfield 1995:206; Hammond 1998:206; and Wiseman 1999:209) have suggested that the reliability coefficient should be greater than 0.7 before we can say that the research instrument is sufficiently reliable. This view is supported by Seligher and Shohamy (1989: 187), who considers that generally one would expect the reliability to be at least 0.70 or 0 .80. We are confident, therefore, that the study's questionnaire is a reliable instrument. After making sure of the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the researcher began to prepare its final version, keeping the questions simple and well organised.

The final version of the questionnaire consisted of seven sections and a total of 36 items (see Appendix B) as follows:

A- Background Information about Respondents' Companies/Institutions (Q 1-5)

In this section, the respondents were asked to provide information regarding their work sector in Kuwait, the name of the company or institution they worked for, the year it was established, the number of employees, and the language in which instructions were given at work.

B- Demographic Information about the Respondents (Q 6-15)

Respondents were asked for their name (optional), age, gender, nationality, first and second languages, education, job category, their work experience in Kuwait in their current job, jobs held prior to working in Kuwait, work experience prior to working in Kuwait.

C- General Information about Arabic (Q 16-17)

The respondents were asked whether or not they used Arabic, where they used it and how they had learned it.

D- The Need to Learn Arabic (Q 18-19)

The respondents were asked whether or not they needed to learn Arabic **(Q18)**. Seven reasons for studying Arabic were presented, to which they were asked to respond on a four-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree", for each statement **(Q19).**

E- Language Skills Related to the Occupational Field (Q 20-21)

In this section, respondents were asked to rate on a four- point Likert scale the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements regarding the importance of each language skill (i.e., speaking, listening, reading and writing) had for them in terms of job requirements and when taking an Arabic course.

F- The Factors Governing the Writing of Occupational Text

There are three main sub-sections:

F/1- Types of Writing Task (Content) (Q 22-24)

The respondents were presented with ten items and were asked to indicate how often they wrote different types of texts such as memos, letters and faxes, general reports, and market research reports **(Q22)**; and how often they performed various writing activities with clients and customers, such as invitations and complaints **(Q23)**. In addition, they were asked to specify how often they performed various writing tasks such as following a set of writing formats and guidelines **(Q24)**.

F/2- The Nature of the Relationship between Writer and Reader (Context) (Q 25-26)

The respondents were presented with five items, and on a four-point scale ranging from "very often" to "never", they were asked to indicate how often they exchanged written texts with various occupational ranks at work: low ranking management,

colleagues and technical staff **(Q25)**. They were also asked to identify the type of writing they used **(Q26)**.

F/3- Language Aspects (language system) (Q 27-30)

The language that the respondents needed in their jobs was targeted to find out in what ways they, as employees, wrote texts relating to their field of work, such as using specialised or general words **(Q27)**. Three items were presented to the respondents to determine how often they used specific language forms when writing occupational texts, such as statements, interrogatives, and conditional **(Q28)**, and whether or not they used the active or passive voice **(Q29)**. They were also asked how often they thought it necessary to use punctuation **(Q30)**.

G- Writing Strategies

There are two main sub-sections:

G/1- Product Approach (Q 31-32)

On a four-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree", the respondents were asked to indicate how often they wrote occupational texts by imitating fixed guidelines **(Q31)**. They were also asked to rate the extent to which they agreed that imitating fixed guidelines made it easier for them to write and made the text more effective **(Q32)**.

G/2- Process Approach (Q 33-36)

They were asked to indicate how far they agreed or disagreed with the view that writing a text at work requires that ideas be prepared before being written **(Q33)**, and whether or not such preparation helped them to produce an effectively written text **(Q34)**. In addition, they were asked to rate on a four-point Likert scale the extent to which they thought that revising an occupational text would help to produce an effective text **(Q35)**. They were also asked to indicate how strongly they agreed or disagreed with the statement that a text should be edited in order to make certain that the ideas are clear and the grammar is correct **(Q36)**.

6.3.2 Observation

Observation is considered an important research instrument for collecting information through the monitoring of certain behaviours, which take place in a real situation. It is one of the more important procedures used for collecting information in quality research (Selinger and Shohamy1989: 162). As a main instrument, observation is often used in second language research to collect information on how learners use the language in various situations, it is useful in studying the teaching process, language learning and the behaviour of the teacher and learner inside the learning classroom. Through observation, the researcher watches a number of behaviours which are taking place simultaneously.

According to Gregeo (1988:67) observation forms an "integral part" of the research design. It allows significant features of the phenomenon under study to emerge. The importance of observation as a research instrument lies in the fact that it studies the phenomenon and the behaviour in a natural context. The observer is supplied with an accurate description of the chosen characteristics of the activities and interactions that take place inside the classroom (Croll 1986:39). Observation is easy to use in the classroom and it can be conducted either formally or informally, helping to facilitate and interpret the observations of the phenomenon of the learners' use of writing tasks from the perspective of the learners themselves (Oxford and Burry-Stock 1995:6). Furthermore, Turney and Robb (1971:193-194) note that observation supplies the researcher with a clear procedure for studying numerous fields of human behaviour and that it may be the only acceptable way to collect information in a typical situation. These behaviours cannot be recorded through interviews or questionnaires, which measure opinions, ideas and responses, and which may vary from one situation to another. Through the use of observation as a research tool, the researcher can obtain empirical data, which can be realised at the time of its occurrence (Wallace 1998:39).

The main advantage of using observation is its directness (Robson 1995:191-193). It does not ask people about their opinions or feelings or responses, but focuses on what the learners do. It is therefore the appropriate instrument to capture real life in the real world. Therefore it can be used as a supportive or supplementary technique

to collect data which may complete the information collected by other instruments such as questionnaires and interviews.

In collecting the information, the researcher may watch and observe how the learners use the language, whether in the classroom, at work, at home or in any other real situation. The objective of the observation is not to evaluate what is taking place in the classroom; rather, its aim is to discover aspects of what goes on in the classroom in order to help to improve and develop language teaching and learning. Observation is a "pivotal activity" playing a crucial role in classroom research (Hopkins 1993:65).

Despite the advantages of using observations, as mentioned above, it has certain disadvantages, according to Turney and Robb (1971:143-144): the behaviour and conduct of the subjects may be artificial when they know that they are being observed. They may intentionally try to create a certain impression, whether good or bad, a disadvantage which also applies to other research tools, like questionnaires and interviews.

The use of observation may waste time because it is a time- consuming technique and it also may not be trustworthy, as the information the observer obtains may be of no real value. It may also depend mainly on the observer's perceptions and thus can be subjective. However, this disadvantage can be overcome if the observation is well planned by determining in advance what is to be watched accurately and carefully.

Observation may take a number of forms. The first is the structured observation, in which the observer determines the behaviours he/she wants to watch beforehand. (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989:162-163). Turney and Robb (1971:143) note that in some studies it is preferable for the researcher to have classified in advance the behaviour he/she wishes to observe. Wallace (1998:110-11) recommends that data collection and analysis in the structured observation is done by some kind of observation scheduling which allows the collecting of information both more objectively and in a systematic way. Structured observations, then, oblige the observer to discuss and prepare in advance what behaviours he/she wishes to observe.

There are several methods for observing and collecting data in the structured observation, such as a checklist. A checklist is a list of expected behaviours, prepared in advance. Every time the behaviour occurs during the specified observation time unit, the observer enters a tally mark next to the appropriate category.

Checklists are used to ensure that the relevant events are noticed and remembered and to help the observer to recognise the nature of the activities of the learners and their behaviour in a certain task. The advantage of using a checklist is that the observer can be trained to use it rather easily as long as the categories to be checked are discrete and the operational definitions are clear and not overlapping. Moreover, the data can be easily key punched directly from the record and frequency counts are easily produced. This makes processing and analysing the data relatively inexpensive.

A second method for collecting information in the structured observation is the rating scale, which is used to measure how learners are related during a certain task. The use of the rating scales necessitates that the observer watches the focus of the observation for a specified period of time, which may vary from 5 minutes to 60 minutes. At the end of the time period the observer rates the behaviour on a scale. This kind of tool helps the observer to quantify and to rate observed behavior or phenomena. The advantage of using rating scales is the ease with which data is processed and quantified. However, the disadvantage is the inherent subjectivity of the ratings. A third method is the use of numerical data: to recognise the degree of the learners' use of a certain activity (Seliger and Shahomy 1989:163-164).

The second tool of observation is unstructured or open observation, allowing the researcher to collect data in a naturalistic manner, as opposed to controlled or structured observation where the setting tends to be controlled and artificial. Unstructured observation allows the observer to attend to the complexity of classroom life in a holistic manner, without determining beforehand what is not worth attending to, as well as to note unanticipated events which may be of help in the interpretation of the phenomenon under study (Bryman 1988:124). Allowing the collection of a large amount of detailed descriptive data may facilitate data analysis from the perspective of the participants themselves. The data collected in the

unstructured observation is in the form of impressions, notes, tapes or transcripts. They are impressionistic; everything related to behaviour is being recorded. It is a subjective but direct method. It is necessary to remember when we record and analyse anything impressionistically, to record and analyse the data according to our existing personal construct, as unstructured observations are often criticised as being affected by the impressions and attitudes of the observer concerning the observed behaviour.

It is possible to use both structured and unstructured observations as a unified method of collecting and analysing data. Both types of observation in one procedure may be used.

6.3.2.1 The Designing of Observation

6.3.2.1.1 Purposes

It is important to determine the purposes of observation because this helps in selecting the appropriate technique to be used. Observation can be used to search for the most effective teaching method, to evaluate the teacher and learner or to choose to apply certain learning programmes. The use of observation in the present study was as a supplement to the questionnaires, for two reasons: first, it could elicit information that was not covered by the questionnaire; for example the drafting stage of the writing process was not discussed adequately in the questionnaire, while other stages like preparation, revising and editing were thoroughly covered. Second, the questionnaires asked the participants about their opinions, attitudes and feelings; what they thought think and felt, and not how and why they actually performed tasks. Observation could help to fill this gap.

Observation can provide good empirical data, thus supporting the purpose of this study which is to ascertain how different writing approaches (product approach and process approach) work, and how they work if they are combined in one teaching approach in other words, what strategies and procedures the writer of the text uses, depending on the product and process strategies, and how the writer composes a text using a combination of the two strategies. This data would be a useful basis for

suggestions on developing an effective and practical approach to teaching and learning, which was the ultimate goal of the research.

6.3.2.1.2 Tasks 1, 2 and 3

The observation was based on three tasks, representing the three different approaches, and a checklist was developed to record observations of learners' behaviour as they performed each task. Three tasks were designed, addressed to advanced level learners, each of which deals with a certain writing approach. Several books and articles were drawn on to design the tasks, which were realistic tasks derived from the occupational field where the participants worked in order to be familiar and closely related to their needs. The tasks were designed in accordance with the jobs practised by the participants, 30 of whom came from one car sales company (Mohammed Nasser Al Sayer & Sons) (Questionnaire Q1, Table 1, Appendix B). The first task (30 minutes) was to write a letter of complaint to a government/non-government organization about the problems the writer was having with some goods or services that had been paid for. The second task (30 minutes) was to write a letter based on a provided model. The third task (60 minutes) was to write a report for a commercial bid. This task consisted of two parts: a) writing a letter providing general information about the company (30 minutes) and b) writing a marketing report designed to improve car sales (30 minutes). For all three tasks, participants were provided with written directions to be followed.

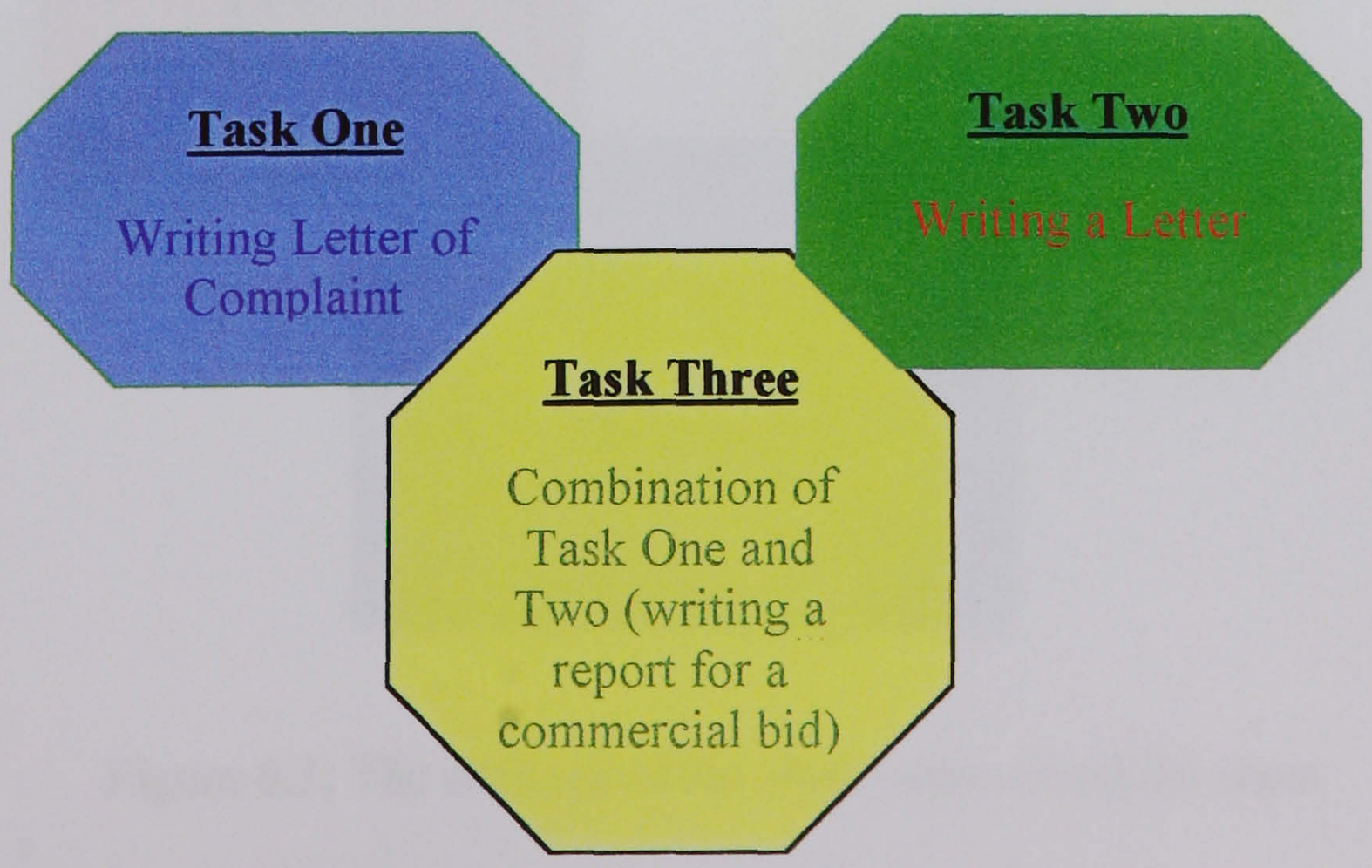

Figure 6.2: The observation tasks

After the design of the tasks was completed, the researcher asked the five specialists in foreign language teaching (see table 6.1) to assess their content and the timing of the task. They suggested some modifications, which were taken into consideration, and accordingly changes were made. The tasks were then given to a group of learners in the Arabic Unit of the Language Centre at Kuwait University to make sure of their operability and the degree of the learners' understanding and comprehension of them. Some modifications were made on the suggestions of the learners (Appendix C).

6.3.2.1.3 Checklist Sheet

There are several methods used to collect data in observations. The method used for collecting data in this study was the checklist. The researcher designed a list comprising the expected behaviours, to see if they occurred while the learners were carrying out tasks. The observation checklist was composed of three sections. The first section included the behaviours expected to occur in task one, which consisted of four parts (preparation, drafting, revising, and editing). The second section included expected behaviours in task two. The final section included expected behaviours in task three, which encompassed the expected behaviours from both tasks one and two. Recording was on a frequency basis (Appendix E).

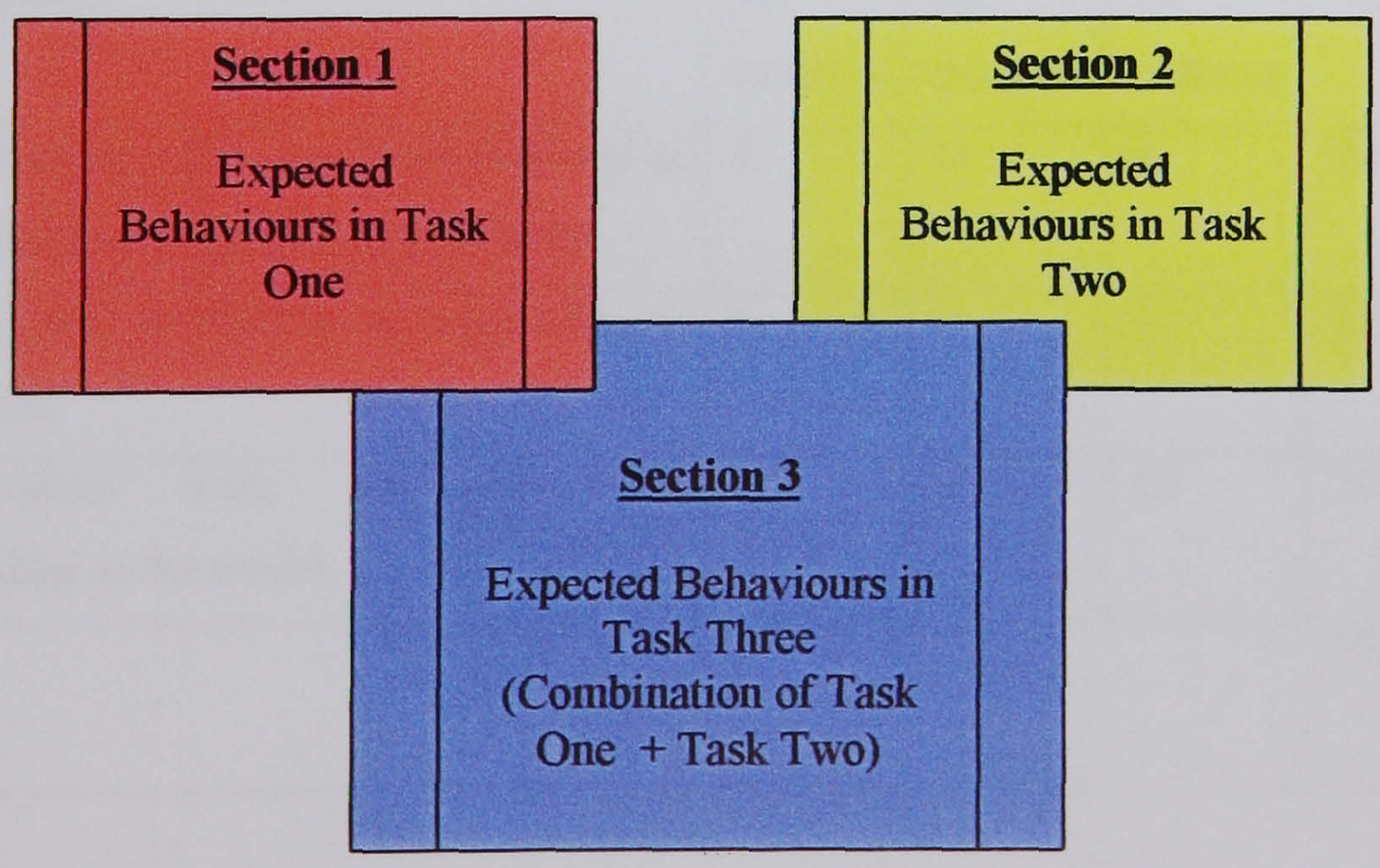

Figure 6.3: The sections of the observation checklist sheet

The researcher of the present study was trained for a number of days in how to record data in order to be able to use the appropriate techniques efficiently. To collect reliable observation data the observer must be trained in certain procedures for recording data.

Each observation has a focus phenomenon to be looked at or listened to. The focus in the observation may be on the teacher, learner, learning activities or others. In this study we focused on the writer's task while he/she was writing an occupational text.

All observations have a setting. They may be conducted in lecture rooms, classrooms, hallways, offices, or staff rooms. The observation setting for this study was the classrooms at Kuwait University, where the chairs were organized in such a way that the learners could work in groups when performing their writing tasks.

Each observation has a specified length: seconds, minutes, hours, or days. Observation data can be collected according to a time sample or real-time method. In the time sample method, the observer uses a timepiece and only records an interaction, for example, every 10 minutes. Table 6.2 provides an example of this method.

No	Behaviour	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total	%
1	Participants raise questions that help in developing and generating new ideas.	8	11	4	23	39.0
2	Participants write down as many ideas as they can	6	3	3	12	20.3
3	Participants write the final draft according to the model.	4	9	11	24	40.7
Total					59	100

Table 6.2: The time sample method

The only interaction coded is the one occurring when exactly 10 minutes have passed. In the real-time method, by contrast, every interaction is coded. Another

form of the real time method is narrative description: everything that is relevant to the purpose is recorded. The researcher used the time sample method in this study. Behaviours relevant to the research purpose were recorded every 10 minutes.

6.3.2.1.4 Methods of Processing and Analysing Data

The events recorded must be processed and categorised systematically in order to draw conclusions from the data. The recording of observation data usually takes the form of a frequency count, noting percentages of occurrences and the presence or absence of events. In this study the researcher observed the class and categorised the behaviours observed at fixed intervals. The categorisation was noted on a tally sheet. Each behavioural occurrence was marked with a tally thus (|). At the end of the task, the tallies were counted and it was then a simple matter of arithmetic to work out which of the categories had occurred most frequently. Table 6.3 provides an example of the method.

No	Behaviour	Tallies	Total
1	During discussions some learners talk while others listen and write down notes that are developed.	|||||	6
2	Participants choose and prepare the styles and expressions related to the writing topic.	|||	3
3	Participants join the sentences they have written to form paragraphs.	|||||||	8
4	Participants compare the sentences they have written with those of their peers.	||||	4
5	Participants revise the text, linking more than one sentence by replacing the elements with more suitable ones.	|||	3
6	Participants edit the written text, focusing on correcting grammar mistakes.	||||||	7
Total			

Table 6.3: Example of an observation tally sheet

6.3.3 The Interviews

The interview is an important qualitative method, which allows the widest possible exploration of views and behaviour patterns. According to Wallace (1998:124) the interview is a research technique which is related to questions addressed to other people. The technique is often classified as introspective, as the respondents report on themselves, their views, their beliefs, their interactions and so on. Interviews are also often used to elicit factual data.

Interviews are carried out either by meeting the subjects face to face or by telephone. They are often used when there is a small number of participants or when the required data is difficult to obtain by using other instruments. Interviews are used to classify data about variables such as attitudes, motivations, opinions and so on.

The aim of the interview is to obtain data by talking with the subjects. Thus interviews are personalised, allowing a high level of in-depth information gathering and classification by the researcher and a free response on the part of the interviewee. It also allows a flexibility, which cannot be obtained by other research procedures. While many interviews have taken the form of one-to-one conversation between the interviewer and the informant, others have been carried out in groups (LoCastro 1994; Atherton 1995).

There are, of course, different types of interviews. The first is the open (unstructured) interview, which provides the interviewee with great freedom of expression in elaborating his/her opinions, so that the transcript often reads like an informal talk. One question leads to another without a pre-planned agenda. In this type of interview, there is often a clear topic. The open interview may generate a relaxed atmosphere although it could be difficult to analyse, especially if the interviewer is not well trained to observe and monitor the conversation. In such a case it is possible to lose a good deal of information.

The second type of interview is the semi-open (semi-structured) interview which, according to Seliger and Shohamy (1989:165), is composed of a certain number of defined questions which are determined in advance but allow some elaboration on

questions and answers. It may be considered a much more flexible version of the structured interview (Wenden 1982; Embi 1996; Kayaoglu 1997). The third type, the closed (structured) interview (Wesche 1979; Porte 1988), is made up of questions whose form is tightly determined from the very beginning. The structured interview is very similar to the questionnaire in both its form and assumptions underlying its use (Hitchcock & Hughes 1989). In this type of interview, no elaboration of either the questions or answers is allowed. It is often used when uniform and specific information is needed and when it is necessary to interview a large number of subjects. Mohammed (1998:116) mentions that one of the advantages of these interviews is that " when the points of questions are not clear or are ambiguous in the questionnaire, they can be explained and clarified when conducting the interview."

Generally speaking, the interview has specific advantages as a research instrument. The interaction which takes place between the interviewer and interviewee during the collection of the data is one of its main characteristics, and it is this interaction which helps to manifest weak points not covered by the other techniques. Another advantage appears when the questions directed to the subjects in the questionnaire are unclear or ambiguous. These questions can be explained and clarified in the interview. However, the interview in general is not free from disadvantages and criticism. Interviews can be costly, time consuming and difficult to administer. They also depend on good interviewing skills, which need thorough training. The process may also include a number of personal and subjective prejudices; the interviewer can direct the interview in whatever way he/she wishes, which may constitute a threat to the validity of the results.

The interviews in the present study were directed to two populations, learners and teachers, as follows:

6.3.3.1 The Learners' Interview

6.3.3.1.1 Purposes

The purposes of the interviews are: 1) to elicit the opinions of the interviewees which had not been given in the questionnaire or discovered by observation. Thus, the interview was used as a complementary method to support the data obtained by

those other instruments; 2) to help in forming an outline of the strategies which the participants believed to be the most suitable for teaching the writing of Arabic for occupational purposes in order to meet their occupational needs; 3) to get to know the participants' opinions directly and in depth, which could not be obtained through the observations.

6.3.3.1.2 Designing the Learners' Interview

The present researcher used the semi-structured interview in this study. The reason for selecting this type of interview, was that, as Hitchcock and Hughes (1989:83) noted, "it allows depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the interviewee's responses". The researcher prepared the questions according to: 1) the research questions posed in Chapter One; 2) what was found useful in the literature review in Chapter Four; 3) the model presented in Chapter Five; and 4) what was found during the observations.

Seventeen questions were prepared and were addressed to the participants who took part in writing Task Three. He asked five specialists in the field of teaching foreign languages to evaluate the questions. They were evaluated by five teachers mentioned earlier (see Tables 6.1). They made comments and suggested changes, for example, deleting some questions or combining two or more questions into one. The final list contained eleven questions (see Appendix F). The researcher attended a course at the University of Kuwait on processing interviews, so as to be able to carry out the interviews competently.

6.3.3.2 Teachers' Interview

6.3.3.2.1 Purposes

One of the best sources for obtaining data about teaching approaches and what happens in the classroom is to talk with the teachers who use these approaches in teaching language skills (or other specific skills). Therefore, the researcher interviewed seven teachers of Arabic as a second language, either at Kuwait University (morning and evening classes) or another location. The aim of these interviews was to collect information about the teachers' opinions and attitudes concerning approaches to teaching Arabic writing, and to find out which approach

they thought would help learners (writers) to write successfully: product, process, or a combination of both. It was the researcher's intention to use these interviews in conjunction with the other instruments, i.e. the questionnaire, observation, and the learners' (employees') interviews.

6.3.3.2.2 Designing the Teachers' Interview

The teachers' interview was based on seven main questions covering their general background and experience in TASL and their attitudes towards using the three approaches to teaching Arabic writing as mentioned above. The interview was of the semi-structured type. After drafting an initial version of the interview questions, the present researcher consulted the five specialists in foreign language teaching as mentioned earlier and their suggestions were taken into consideration. Accordingly, some changes were made (see Appendix G).

6.4 Pilot Study

Before carrying out the main study, a pilot study (April 2000) was carried out with the following aims: 1) to use the results obtained to develop the survey which was to be used later in the main study; 2) to assess the usability and practicability of the instruments and of data collection so that data analysis techniques would be used with the instruments of research; 3) to eliminate repetitive, redundant, difficult and ambiguous questions; 4) to reduce the subjectivity and personal bias of the instruments; 5) to avoid in the main study any difficulties that were encountered during the pilot study; 6) to give the researcher a degree of experience, which was expected to help with undertaking the main study.

At an early stage, the researcher contacted the Statistical Consulting Unit at Kuwait University, and asked advice about whether the proposed data collection and statistical analysis were appropriate for the study. Tilley (1996:40) rightly noted that it is important to determine in advance how data will be analysed.

The pilot study was conducted in four stages. In the first stage the questionnaire was piloted with 6 advanced level foreign students who were studying Arabic in the Arabic Language Unit in the morning class; 3 were male, and 3 were female. These

students were invited to complete the questionnaire and comment on the clarity of each item in the questionnaire. They reported no ambiguity and took about 35 minutes to complete the questionnaire. In the second stage, the three observations tasks were piloted. Six advanced level students participated in the tasks (as described earlier, section 6.3.2.1.2), 4 males, and 2 females who were divided into pairs and each pair completed one task. The time allowed for each task was 25 minutes. The participants reported that the time given to complete the tasks was not enough. Stage three involved conducting interview with the same students who participated in the writing tasks. The interviewees presented some comments on the clarity of some questions. In stage four, the teachers' interview was piloted with seven Arabic teachers. These stages are shown in Table 6.4.

Pilot Study			
		Participants	
Stage	Instrument	Male	Female
Stage One	Questionnaire	3	3
Stage Two	Observation: T1, T2, and T3	4	2
Stage Three	Learners' Interview	4	2
Stage Four	Teachers' Interview	7	-

Table 6.4: The pilot study stages

Based on the results of this pilot study, further minor modifications were made in the wording and construction of some items, some items were incorporated together and some words replaced to make the items more clear and accurate. The instruments and procedures were then considered ready for application in the field.

6.5 The Main Field Study

The main study was conducted during March, April and May 2001. The procedures followed in using the three instruments; questionnaires, observations and interviews, are described in turn.

6.5.1 Implementation of Questionnaire

6.5.1.1 Sample Selection

The distribution and collection of the questionnaire was administered by the researcher himself. Before administering the questionnaire the present researcher visited the Department of Public Relations of the participating companies and institutions, explained the purposes of the questionnaire to them, and asked for their agreement to conduct the survey. They consented and it was agreed that the participants would be those employees who were competent in the use of Arabic (advanced level) and who had more than one year's work experience. As a result, 180 participants were chosen from different departments and from different job categories (senior and middle managers, secretaries). In order to determine the participant's language proficiency level, the researcher agreed with the departments of public relations to carry out proficiency tests on the participants before conducting the questionnaire. The tests were applied at the Language Centre of Kuwait University over three days, at a rate of 60 participants per day.

The test applied was the proficiency test, which is used by the Arabic Language Unit of the Language Centre. The results of the test were to be taken as an indicator of the level of the participants' general language skills (listening, vocabulary, reading, structure and writing).

Certain general principles were taken into consideration in looking at the test results, as follows:

1- Candidates were asked to assess their own level of proficiency in Arabic (self-evaluation).
2- Candidates who obtained a mark of 70% or more were regarded as advanced level.
3- Each skill was examined, considering the number of correct/incorrect answers and unanswered questions.
4- In the writing test, the candidates were asked to write a paragraph of 250 words.

In assessing the writing task, we adopted Mohammed's (1998:180) criteria. These involve three categories: "Good", for those who produce a text with few grammatical

and spelling errors; "Fair", for participants whose text contains several errors (i.e. grammar, syntax, style) that impair the readability of their work; and "Weak", for participants who have difficulties in sentence structure and are unable to express themselves clearly. Our assessment was made in accordance with the following points:

1- Organised structure;
2- Relevance to the task;
3- Appropriate vocabulary;
4- Readability (taking into account errors in grammar, syntax, style and orthography);
5- Ability to construct complex sentences;
6- Argument and employment of evidence;
7- Complete sentence structure;

In order to ensure that the marking system for the writing test was as objective as possible, other professional ASL instructors were involved in the marking and evaluation. As noted above; participants were asked to evaluate their own level of Arabic and all described their level as advanced. However, on marking their work we found that only 150 (83.3%) of the 180 participants obtained 70% or more. These results are shown in Table 6.5.

70% or more		Less than 70%		Total
Fre	%	Fre	%	
150	83.3%	30	16.7	180

Table 6.5: The overall results of the test.

As the proposed model is suitable for those with an advanced level of competence, we decided to invite the 150 successful participants to fill in the questionnaire.

6.5.1.2 Participants

The questionnaire was distributed to respondents in various occupational fields and in different job categories (senior and junior managers, and secretaries), in both the public and private sectors. The sample covered various first languages and different age groups. The results concerning the participants' demographic data will be presented in Chapter Seven (7.2).

6.5.1.3 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher administered the questionnaire twice on Thursday 24 March 2001: in the morning from 09.00 to 11.00 hours with 70 participants, and in the evening from 17.00 to 19.00 hours with 80 participants. Biscuits, tea and coffee were provided for participants. Before handing out the questionnaire, the researcher explained to the participants the purposes and the importance of the questionnaire. In addition, the researcher explained that there were no right and wrong responses to the statements, that they should respond as honestly and accurately as possible, and that their answers would be accorded strict confidentiality. Before applying the questionnaire the researcher and several teachers who spoke various languages (Hindi, English, French etc.) explained the technical terms involved in the mechanics of the Arabic grammar (e.g. verb, noun, pronoun, conditional clause and so on) and their equivalent in the source language. Moreover, the participants were provided with an example of how to respond to the questions and the researcher then answered their initial questions. When the participants were satisfied and confident with the procedures and the questions, the researcher announced the commencement of the questionnaire.

The participants completed the questionnaire individually, although the researcher was present while they were doing so in order to deal with any questions that might arise or clarify any item that they might not understand or might find ambiguous. The language of the instructions was Arabic but English was used on those occasions where it was thought that Arabic would be difficult to understand. The help of colleagues fluent in French, Farsi and Hindi was needed to clarify the questions when necessary. Participants took approximately around 30 to 50 minutes to complete the questionnaires.

6.5.1.4 Analysing the Questionnaire Data

The statistical software SPSS (Statistics Package for Social Science) was used to analyse the data collected from the questionnaire. The researcher took the completed questionnaires to the Statistical Consulting Unit at Kuwait University and asked a specialist there to identify the types of statistical analysis, which could be performed on the data. An appropriate method was selected, and a computer analysis was conducted.

6.5.2 Implementation of Observation Tasks

6.5.2.1 Participants

The second instrument, observation (three tasks, see Figure 6.2), was conducted in March 2001. The participants who took part in the tasks were employees working in the administration departments of commercial companies in Kuwait and who were studying at Kuwait University in the evening class. They were distributed across three financial and commercial establishments; three in the National Bank, three in the Industrial Bank and two in the International Investment Company, as shown in Table 6.6.

Name of company/establishment	Number
National Bank	3
Industrial Bank	3
International Investment Company	2
Total	8

Table 6.6: Distribution of participants across occupational fields.

The participants were of various nationalities and ages: Three were Indian, two were British, one was French and two were American. The participants in the tasks were of both sexes: five were male and three were female, as shown in Table 6.7.

Nationality	Number	M	Age	F	Age
Indian	3	2	37-40	1	35

British	2	1	41	1	30
French	1	1	55	-	-
American	2	1	40-50	1	-
Total	8	5	-	3	-

Table 6.7: Nationality, gender, and age of participants

They were divided into three groups, each of which performed one task. The first group was comprised of four participants: two senior managers (M) and two middle and junior managers (M). The second group had four participants, all executive secretaries (F). The third group was composed of four participants drawn from the first two groups: two were chosen from the first group (one senior manager [M] and one middle manager [M]) and the other two were chosen from the second group (executive secretaries [F]) (Table 6.8).

Group	Senior manager	Gender	Middle and junior manager	Gender	Executive secretary	Gender
Group one	2	M	2	M	-	-
Group two	-	-	-	-	4	F
Group three	1 of group one	M	1 of group one	M	2 of group two	F

Table 6.8: Distribution of tasks

The present researcher applied the tasks for three days (27, 28, and 29 March 2001): one task per day. The observation time was in the evening held on the campus of Kuwait University from 18.00 to 19.00 hours. Before starting the tasks the researcher gave precise directions to each group. The goal of each task was also explained. The participants were very eager to carry out the tasks as they found them related to their daily work. They began writing in normal conditions, and were encouraged to stick to the time limit for each task. After each task the researcher thanked the participants

for their cooperation. They were happy to take part in the experiment and showed great interest in knowing the final results of these observations in order to make good use of them in learning Arabic.

6.5.3 Implementation of Interviews

6.5.3.1 Learners' Interview

After the observations had been completed, the present researcher started to carry out a group interview with the participants performing Task Three. The interview was held on 15 April 2001 in the evening from 16.00 to 17.00 in one of the classrooms, where the present researcher was keen to create a friendly and quiet atmosphere for the participants. Before beginning, the present researcher gave the participants some brief information about the reasons for the interview. He also assured them that the interview was not an oral exam. This helped them to feel at ease, for if interviewees feel that they are under examination they are likely to become anxious and may give incorrect or misleading answers. Therefore the present researcher was keen to characterise the interview as friendly and informal. He used words and expressions that he considered would encourage the interviewees to answer and participate, and made it clear that he was paying attention to what they were saying. The researcher, with the participants' consent, recorded the participants' answers in full. The answers were written by hand, in the interviewee's own words, not summarized or paraphrased.

6.5.3.2 Teachers' Interview

Our next stage was to interview a number of teachers as a group (4 May 2001). We selected the sample according to certain criteria. The main criterion was to select those who were teaching Arabic to upper-intermediate and advanced level students. We insisted on this, because teachers who had experience at this level would be more likely to understand the type of approach to teaching writing that is suitable for advanced level students. The second criterion was to focus on those teachers who had experience of teaching Arabic for specific purposes. All teachers were male and each provided information about himself (such as age, qualification, work experience and place of work). The demographic data concerning the teachers' sample is shown in Table 6.9

Participant	Age	Qualification	Work experience	Place of work
P1	34	MA	10	Kuwait University
P2	36	MA	8	Kuwait University
P3	35	MA	9	Kuwait University
P4	44	MA	8	Kuwait University
P5	45	MA	2	Kuwait University
P6	55	Ph.D.	25	Institute of Banking Studies
P7	57	BA	23	Institute of Banking Studies

Table 6.9: Demographic data of Arabic teachers

The interview was conducted in one of the classrooms. It took more than 40 minutes. The interviewees were asked about, attitudes toward using teaching approaches (product, process, and using both approaches) (see Appendix G). Tape-recording the interview would have been the ideal, but most of the teachers preferred the interview to be recorded in writing. The present researcher respected their request and recorded the interview by writing their answers in full.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the methodology of the present study. The designs and data collection procedures of the three methods used (questionnaire, observation, and interviews) have been explained. The following chapters, Chapter Seven and Chapter Eight report the results and findings.

Chapter Seven
Main Field Study

Questionnaire: Analysis, Results and Initial Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will attempt to present and discuss in detail the results of the first part of the present study: the questionnaire. The major purpose of the work is to investigate a number of factors that are believed to affect the development of effective and practical approaches to the teaching of Arabic writing for occupational purposes. There were 150 respondents holding a variety of positions in different occupational fields in Kuwait. The data was gathered through the use of a questionnaire survey administered during the main field phase of the present research. The analysis and interpretation of the results is based on SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

7.2 Background Information about Companies/Institutions

Q. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5

Six commercial and financial companies and institutions in Kuwait participated in this study. Five of them were private and one was governmental (see Table 7.1). The majority of the staff working in the governmental sector were Kuwaitis but there were also a few other Arabs. Table 7.1 includes information on the year the organisations were established and the number of employees who took part in the survey (Q1-4).

Name of company	Freq	%	Sector	Year of establishment	Number of employees
Mohammed Nasser Al Sayer & Sons	30	20.0	Private	1950	75
Industrial Bank of Kuwait	31	20.7	Private	1973	71
Kuwait Finance House	26	17.3	Private	1979	62
National Bank of Kuwait	20	13.3	Private	1952	53
Investment House	12	8.0	Private	1994	43
Public Institution for Social Security	31	20.7	Governmental	1979	59

Table 7.1: Names of the participating companies and institutions, their year of establishment and the number of employees.

Five of the participating companies were well-established institutions. In addition, one recently established company, Investment House, was also included in the survey. The aim of question 5 was to find out which languages are used in the workplace (Table 7.2).

Language	Frequency	%
Arabic		-
English	-	-
Arabic & English	150	100
Other	-	-

Table 7.2: The language or languages used in the workplace.

It is very clear that both Arabic and English were used in the workplace; while English is considered as an occupational language, there is also a need to use Arabic to meet job requirements within the workplace. It is used by members of staff to communicate not only internally with their colleagues but externally (e.g. for communication with companies, organisations and other government sectors). Thus, employees with a knowledge of Arabic are not only able to carry out more efficiently the tasks required in the workplace but are also better able to communicate effectively with individuals or organisations outside it.

7.3 Demographic Information about the Respondents

Q. 6,7

Information regarding the respondents' age is shown in Table 7.3.

Age	Freq.	%
18-24	10	6.6
25-30	19	12.7
31-36	30	20.0
37-42	34	22.7
43-49	35	23.3
50 and above	22	14.7

Table 7.3: The respondents' age

While the respondents' ages were fairly evenly distributed across all the categories, the majority of the respondents were between 31 and 49 years old; these constituted 66% of the whole sample. Table 7.3 suggests that employers in Kuwait tend to prefer older employees, possibly because of their occupational experience, energy and productivity.

Q.7

Table 7.4 presents the respondents' gender.

Gender	Freq.	%
Male	110	73.3
Female	40	26.7

Table 7.4: The respondents' gender

The results show that most of the respondents in the sample were male, i.e. 110 (73.3%), while females numbered only 40 (26.7%). On the question of gender, the researcher did not find any explanation for the preponderance of male respondents, as Kuwait professes to give equal opportunity to all residents. Employers generally consider qualifications and work experience more important than other factors, including gender.

Q. 8-10

The respondents were asked about their nationality. The results are shown in Table 7.5.

Nationality	freq.	%
British	16	10.7
American	14	9.3
French	6	4.0
Indian	73	48.6
Pakistani	22	14.7
Japanese	7	4.7
Chinese	2	1.3
Philippino	10	6.7

Table 7.5: The respondents' nationality.

Of the total number of respondents 73 (48.6%)-a very high proportion- were Indian, while the remaining 77 (51.3%) comprised respondents from the other seven countries. The researcher tried without success to find an official reason for the high proportion of Indian respondents. Nevertheless, the variety of nationalities reflects the State of Kuwait's open policy of welcoming all nationalities, and may be clearly seen in both private and public sectors.

Q. 9

Table 7.6 shows the respondents' first language.

First language	freq.	%
English	30	20.0
French	6	4.0
Urdu	95	63.3
Phillipino	10	6.7

Japanese	7	4.7
Chinese	2	1.3

Table 7.6: The respondents' first language.

Regarding the respondents' first languages, Urdu was the first language of 95 of the respondents (63.3%) while the others were as follows: 30 (20.0%) English, 10 (6.7%) Philippino, 7 (4.7%) Japanese, 6 (4.0%) French, and 2 (1.3%) Chinese.

Q. 10

Table 7.7. contains information on the respondents second languages.

Second language	freq.	%
English	121	80.7
French	17	11.3
Urdu	9	6.0
Other	3	2.0

Table 7.7: The respondents' second language.

The great majority of the respondents, 121 (80.7%), spoke English as a second language. This is to be expected, as the work field (business and commercial) in Kuwait requires the use of English as the chief international language of commerce.

Q. 11

The respondents were asked about their qualifications. Their responses are presented in the following diagram (Figure 7.1).

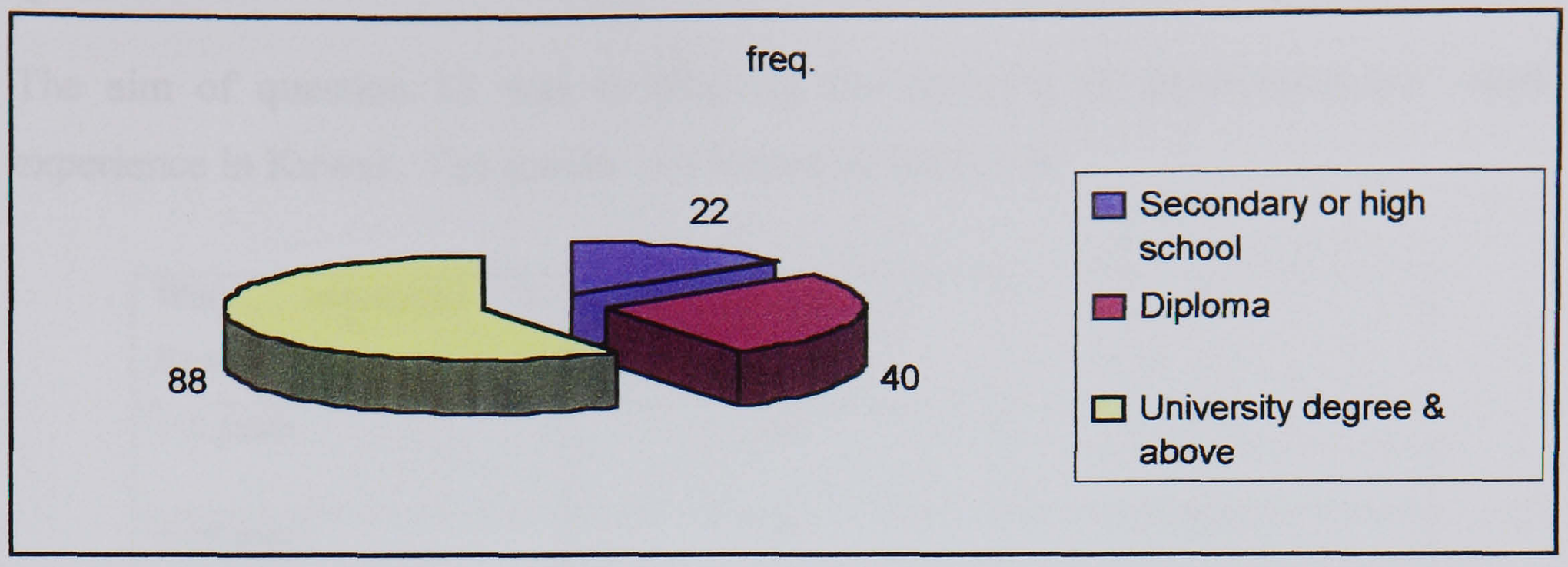

Figure 7.1: The respondents' qualifications

Just over half (88: 58.6%) of the respondents held university degrees and above. This reflects the fact that many jobs in the financial and commercial fields require employees to have high educational qualifications.

Q. 12

Question 12 was designed to identify the positions respondents held from among three categories. Most of the respondents (100: 66.6 %) were managerial staff: 50 (33.3%) were middle managers and 50 (33.3%) were senior managers. In addition, 50 (33.3%) were secretarial staff. The differing natures of these positions require the performance of different kinds of language task (whether written or spoken), and communication with different levels of personnel and different types of client and customers. In all cases, however, a knowledge of Arabic is necessary for competent and effective performance.

Q. 13-15

The aim behind question 13, 14 and 15 was to find out about the respondents' work experience in Kuwait; whether the job that they had had before coming to Kuwait was similar to their current job in Kuwait and what had been their previous practical experience, in order to determine whether the jobs they had had abroad were the same as those they held in Kuwait. It was important to discover this because, if the nature of their duties had changed significantly, they might have been confronted by new kinds of occupational language.

Q. 13

The aim of question 13 was to discover the duration of the respondents' work experience in Kuwait. The results are shown in Table 7.8.

Work experience in Kuwait	Fre.	%
1-5 years	56	37.3
6-10 years	47	31.3
11-15 years	19	12.7
16-20 years	18	12.0
More than 20 years	10	6.7

Table 7.8: The respondents' job and work experience

The respondents' work experience in Kuwait was classified in blocks of five years (1-5 years, 6-10 years etc.) as shown in Table 7.8. One hundred and three (56 + 47: 68.6%) had 1 to 10 years' practical experience in Kuwait: 56 (37.3%) from 1 to 5 years, and 47 (31.3%) from 6 to 10 years. However, 37 (19 +18: 24.7%) had 11 to 20 years' work experience in Kuwait: 19 (12.7%) from 11 to 15 years, 18 (12.0%) from 16 to 20 years. Perhaps not surprisingly, only 10 (6.7%) had more than 20 years' experience. These results show, most importantly perhaps, that just over half (84: 56.0% [47 (31.3%) plus 19 (12.7%) plus 18 (12.0%)]) had 6-20 years' experience, and so should have had a very good idea of work practice in Kuwait, which would have allowed them to evaluate to some degree the strategies needed in the teaching of Arabic writing, because they would have been likely to be fairly competent judges of their own language needs.

Q. 14

Question 14 asked the respondents to say whether the job that they had had before coming to Kuwait was similar to their current job in Kuwait. The results are presented in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2: The respondents' job experience outside and inside Kuwait

Figure 7.2 shows that over half of the respondents (85: 56.7%) had held similar jobs whether outside or inside Kuwait, but 65 (43.3%) had not. Those who had held a similar job outside Kuwait should have been familiar with working procedures and, after a little experience in Kuwait, have become able to assess their own language needs.

Q. 15

Question 15 asked the respondents about the length of their work experience before coming to Kuwait. The results are shown in Table 7.9.

Work experience before coming to Kuwait	Freq.	%
1-5 years	70	46.7
6-10 years	57	38.0
11-15 years	12	8.0
16-20 years	8	5.3
More than 20 years	3	2.0

Table 7.9: The respondents' work experience before coming to Kuwait

The majority of the respondents (127 [70+57]: 84.7%) had had 1 to 10 years, but (20 [12+8]: 13.3%) had had 11-20 years previous practical experience in their jobs,

though it should be noted that only 3 (2.0%) had more than 20 years' experience. Again, more than half (80: 53.3%) had had more than 5 years' experience before coming to Kuwait and so should have been able to assess their language needs on the basis of job requirements.

The results of Q 13,14 and 15 indicate that generally speaking the respondents had had a considerable amount of relevant work experience, either in or outside Kuwait. Accordingly the respondents were likely to have an informed opinion on the factors governing the writing of occupational texts, which will be discussed in sections 7.7.1, 7.7.2 and 7.7.3 (such as the types of writing tasks, the relationship between the writer and the reader, and the language aspects most used in writing occupational texts). They would be able to respond well to questions concerning the most effective strategies to be used in writing occupational texts successfully.

7.4 General Information about Arabic

Q. 16, 17

Q. 16

The respondents were asked where they used Arabic. The results were as shown in Figure 7.3

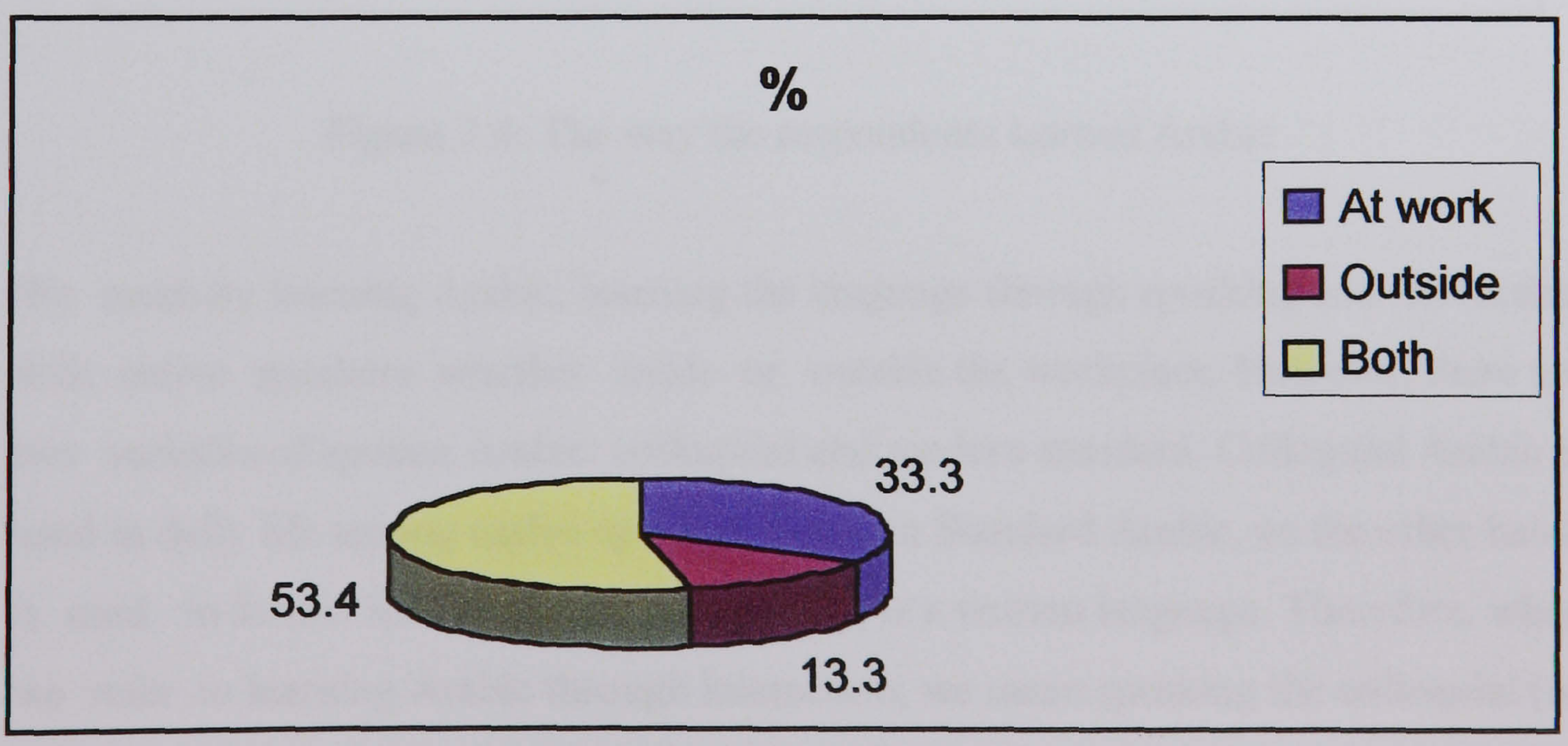

Figure 7.3: The respondents' use of the Arabic language

80 (53.4 %) stated that they used Arabic both at work and outside it; 50 (33.3%) said they used it only at work, while 20 (13.3%) used it outside work. Therefore all the

respondents used Arabic, but the greatest use was in the workplace, and it follows that the ability to use it well facilitates effective communication within the workplace, with both colleagues and customers. These answers confirm the validity of the respondents' answers to Question 5, as they said that both Arabic and English were used at work (see Table 7.2).

Q. 17

The respondents were also asked (Q17) to specify how they had learnt Arabic (see Figure 7.4)

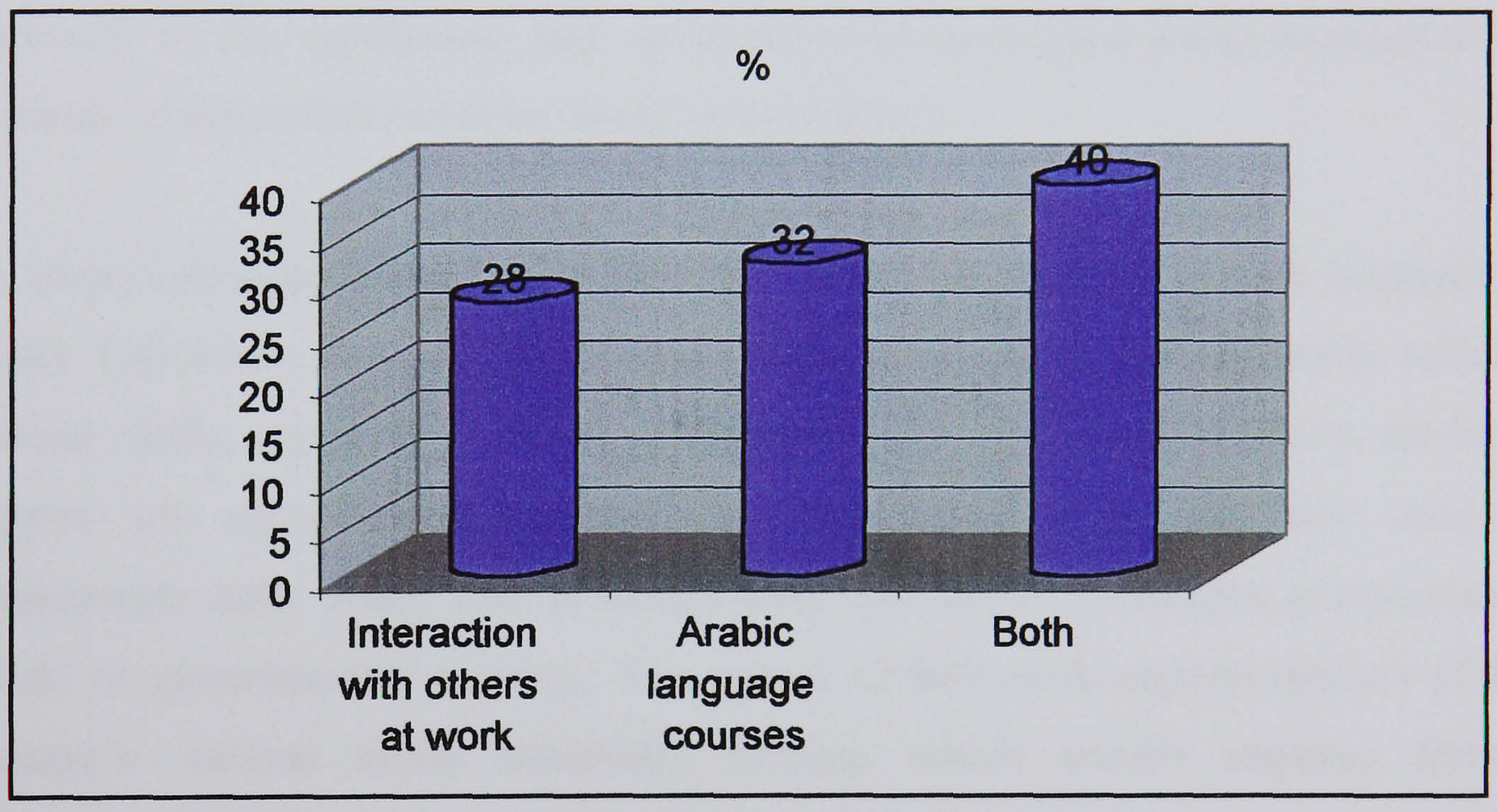

Figure 7.4: The way the respondents learned Arabic

We mean by learning Arabic, learning the language through speaking and interaction with native speakers whether inside or outside the workplace. However, there are two varieties of spoken Arabic: colloquial and modern standard. Colloquial Arabic is used in daily life among native speakers; Modern Standard Arabic, on the other hand, is used in formal situations and, importantly, is a written language. Therefore, when we refer to learning Arabic through interaction, we mean speaking the colloquial (or dialect) variety and by learning Arabic to write occupational texts we mean Modern Standard Arabic (as discussed in Chapter Two). As shown here, 60 respondents (40%) learnt Arabic both through interaction with others at work and by attending Arabic courses; that is, Modern Standard Arabic. Attending Arabic courses was the

chosen method of 48 participants (32%). Interaction with others at work was the method of 42 (28%) respondents. These responses also confirm the results presented in Tables 7.2 and Figure 7.3, namely that Arabic is used both internally and externally. The results also suggest that there is a relationship between learning Arabic through interaction with others in the workplace and learning it by attending Arabic courses. The nature of this relation is that the learning of the language as the result of interaction with others in the workplace (colleagues and customers) may lead to an increase in the respondents' motivation to study Arabic formally (especially with written Arabic, which is rather difficult to learn through interaction with others). Respondents therefore attended Arabic courses in order to communicate effectively in the workplace, and so be able to carry out their duties as required by the nature of their work (whether orally or in writing).

My own experience of teaching Arabic as a second language for specific purposes at Kuwait University indicates that learners are usually keen to learn Arabic with its different skills, especially in the case of those such as our participants, who are from different job categories (managerial and secretarial staff) and who need to communicate both orally and in written form with others (colleagues or customers, private or governmental sectors). The nature of their work requires mastery of the language's various skills, especially writing, which usually requires formal instruction, unlike speaking, which can be acquired through imitation and interaction. Generally, writing is viewed as a skill that is acquired "by doing it" (Turk & Kirkman, 1982:7); therefore, in order to master it one needs to practise it and has to be taught. According to Byrne (1989:5) writing is "learned through a process of instruction…in order to master and learn structures which are important for effective communication in writing".

7.5 The Need for Learning Arabic

Q. 18, 19

When the participants were asked whether or not they needed to learn Arabic their answers were affirmative: all the respondents (150:100%) answered that they needed to learn Arabic. However, this high level of motivation appears to be connected to certain reasons and purposes. In Question 19, we listed seven reasons for learning

Arabic and respondents were asked to rate the degree of importance of each reason (Table 7.10).

No 19	Motives for learning Arabic	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	Freq.	%
19/1	To improve your social status	36	24.0	16	10.7	50	33.3	48	32.0
19/2	It is necessary for your work	11	7.3	16	10.7	67	44.7	56	37.3
19/3	To improve your career prospects	11	7.3	18	12.0	66	44.0	55	36.7
19/4	To be effective in your work	9	6.0	12	8.0	40	26.7	89	59.3
19/5	To work in Arabic- speaking countries	11	7.3	33	22.0	50	33.3	56	37.3
19/6	Because you enjoy learning foreign languages	23	15.3	40	26.7	43	28.7	44	29.3
19/7	To understand Arab culture	18	12.0	30	20.0	57	38.0	45	30.0
Total		119		165		373		393	

Table 7.10: Motives for learning Arabic.

We can divide the responses in Table 7.7 into three categories. The first category (Q 19/2,3,4 and 5) comprises occupational reasons, the second (Q 19/6 and 7) cultural reasons and the third (Q 19/1) a social reason.

The majority of the respondents' reasons for learning Arabic were occupational in nature (i.e. 19/2- 5): most of their answers fell within the "strongly agree" (393) and "agree" (373) categories (see total figures), which indicates the importance of learning Arabic for the respondents' work. Furthermore, the occupational reasons can be divided into two sub-categories. The first (Q 19/ 2, 3 and 4) is connected with the importance of Arabic in the workplace and the second is related with getting a job in an Arab country (Q19/5). For the first category, 56 (37.3%) of the participants

strongly agreed and 67 (44.7%) agreed that Arabic was necessary for their work (Q19/2) 55 (36.7%) strongly agreed and 66 (44.0%) agreed that it was important to improve their career prospects (Q19/3) while 89 (59.3%) strongly agreed and 40 (26.7%) agreed that they wished to learn Arabic in order to be effective in their work (Q19/4). In other words, the ability to use Arabic at work was seen as essential to effective performance. It is a crucial job requirement (involving all four skills: writing, reading, speaking and listening); moreover, those employees who are skilled users of the language are able to communicate easily and persuasively with their colleagues and customers, whether inside or outside of their work. These results confirm the outcomes of Question 5, where the respondents reported that Arabic was one of the main languages used in the workplace. The second sub- category in the occupational reasons (Q 19/ 5) is connected with getting a job in an Arab country: 56 (37.3%) responded "strongly agree" and 50 (33.3%) "agree". In other words, if respondents have knowledge and skills in Arabic they will improve their chances of finding a job in an Arab country, especially in affluent Arab countries such as Kuwait and the rest of the Arabian Gulf, Oman and Saudi Arabia, where organisations are keen on employing people who can use more than one language, provided Arabic is one of them.

Cultural reasons (Q19/6 and 19/7) came second: most of the answers to Q 19/ 6 were either "strongly agree" (44: 29.3%) or "agree" (43:28.7%). However 40 (26.8%) of the respondents disagreed and 23 (15.4%) strongly disagreed. In Q 19/7, 45 (30.0%) strongly agreed; 57 (38.0%) agreed; 30 (20.0%) disagreed; and 18 (12.0%) strongly disagreed. Therefore, although a majority (102: 68.0% [45(30.0%) plus 57(38.0%)]) wished to learn Arabic in order to understand Arab culture, a substantial minority appeared to lack motivation to learn about culture (48: 32.0% [30 (20.0%) plus 18 (12.0%)]) (Q19/7) and also found they were not motivated to learn foreign languages (Q19/6) (63: 42.24% [23 (15.3%) plus 40 (26.7%)]).

Social status (Q 19/1) came in third place. The majority of the ratings for this reason (98:65.3% [48(32.0%) and 50(33.3%)] were within the "strongly agree" and "agree" categories. On the other hand, (Q19/1) 36 (24.0%) of the respondents strongly disagreed, and 16 (10.7%) disagreed. This result indicates that about a third of the

participants felt that their social standing would be unaffected by their ability to communicate in Arabic, perhaps because they considered it socially unimportant and unrelated to their work.

These results suggest that there is a relation between the reasons for learning Arabic for occupational purposes and social/cultural reasons, because the ability to use Arabic in the work place will lead to better communication and interaction between the employees and their colleagues/customers who are Arabic speakers. This in turn is likely to generate social relations (whether at or outside work) which might motivate employees to learn Arabic in order to communicate with native speakers. There is a relationship between the ability to use a language and social power: this ability gives the use of the language an enhanced opportunity to play an effective role in society. This opportunity might also be an incentive to learn and understand the cultures of Arab countries (language, history, customs, traditions, etc.).

7.6 Language Skills Related to Occupational Field

Q. 20 and 21

Q. 20

The respondents were asked about the language skills that were important for their jobs (Table 7.11).

No 20	Skills (language)	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
20/1	Speaking & listening	8	5.3	15	10.0	60	40.0	67	44.7
20/2	Reading	7	4.7	42	28.0	63	42.0	38	25.3
20/3	Writing	3	2.0	11	7.3	67	44.7	69	46.0

Table 7.11: The importance of the language skills for the respondents' jobs.

In this table it can be seen that 69 (46.0%) strongly agreed and 67 (44.70%) agreed that writing skills were important (Q20/3). Speaking and listening (Q20/1) were

considered slightly less important: 60 responses (40.0%) fell in the "agree" category and 67 (44.7%) in "strongly agree". Participants also judged reading skills (Q 20/2) to be of great use: 63 (42%) agreed, 38 (25.3%) strongly agreed; it is noteworthy however, that 49 (32.7% [42 (28.0%) plus 7 (4.7%)]) felt that reading skills were unimportant. This might reflect the nature of the job requirements of one of the job categories (the secretarial staff, representing 33.3% of the whole sample; see Q4). If this is so, it is perhaps because secretarial staff usually transcribe already written documents such as letters and do not need to understand them in detail or consider their meaning. The results in Table 7.11 indicate that the respondents generally acknowledged that their job requirements called for a variety of language skills. However, writing skills seemed to be the most intensively used in the respondents' place of work.

Q. 21

The aim of Question 21 was to determine the respondents' perceptions of their need to learn the various language skills as used in the workplace, should an Arabic course be offered to them. Their answers are shown in Table 7.12.

No 21	Needed skills (language)	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
21/1	Speaking & listening	4	2.7	15	10.0	55	36.6	76	50.7
21/2	Reading	3	2.0	40	26.7	57	38.0	50	33.3
21/3	Writing	2	1.3	12	8.0	56	37.3	80	53.3

Table 7.12. Language skills desired.

Here, 80 participants (53.3%) strongly agreed that they needed to learn writing skills (Q 21/3) and 76 (50.7%) that they needed to learn speaking and listening skills (Q 21/1). Only 50 (33.3%) out of the 150 strongly acknowledged a need to learn reading skills, while 57 (38.0%) agreed, but 40 (26.7%) disagreed (Q 21/2). The results of Q21/2 might be due to the respondents' feeling that they had a satisfactory level of

competence in reading skills but were deficient in others (writing, speaking, and listening), which might be considered more difficult to master, or more useful in the workplace. Therefore they did not consider reading as a skill that needed improvement in the event of an Arabic course being offered. Another explanation could be that almost a third of the sample (Q20/2) felt that reading skills were unimportant for their work, and that these respondents (roughly speaking) (43:28.7% [40 (26.7%) plus 3 (2.0%)]) thought they did not need to improve their reading for this reason. In this respect the results of Q20/2 and Q21/2 might be said to support each other.

Generally, the results show that the respondents felt they needed to acquire language skills, especially in writing, speaking and listening.

The results shown in Table 7.12 can be connected with those in Table 7.11 in that the respondents felt that their most pressing need was to learn writing skills in the case of an Arabic course being offered. This result is supported by the findings of Salminen (1996:50), who points out that writing is the most important skill needed by learners of language for business purposes. This need was related to their job requirements as managerial and secretarial staff. The nature of the work tasks of both groups requires a great deal of written communication, targeted both inside and outside the workplace, such as reports, memos, faxes, note taking and so on. For example, if a manager wanted to give employees new instructions, it would be impractical for him/her to speak to each one of them individually, so he/she would send a written memo or send an e-mail. Through writing we can reach the largest audience. Moreover, writing is important to the respondents because information of all kinds can be officially and securely documented. According to Fowler (1989: 91-92), there are several reasons to write in the workplace:

a- Acquiring or transferring information or expressing opinions and attitudes.

b- Performing various activities in daily transactions.

c- Communicating in the absence of other means of communication, such as telephones and interviews.

d- Reaching the biggest audience.

e- It offers the possibility of returning to the message at any time and re-comprehending it.

f- It provides a visual dimension to communication.

Moreover, recent years have seen an unprecedented growth in the use of electronic facilities for communication at work. This has increased the importance of using writing skills. Therefore, teachers of Arabic writing for occupational purposes need to explore the factors that could affect the development of strategies for teaching writing.

7.7 The Factors Governing the Writing of Occupational Texts

7.7.1 Types of Writing Tasks (Writing Content)

Q. 22, 23 and 24

This subsection concerns three sets of questions/items designed to identify the types of writing tasks most frequently used in the workplace by the respondents.

Q. 22

Question 22 asked about 10 types of writing tasks (Table 7.13).

No 22	Types of writing tasks	Very Often		Often		Not Often		Never	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
22/1	Memos	61	40.7	51	34.0	26	17.3	12	8.0
22/2	Letters and faxes	66	44.0	47	31.3	24	16.0	13	8.7
22/3	Notes	63	42.0	55	36.7	19	12.6	13	8.7
22/4	Numerical data (tables and numbers)	50	33.3	57	38.0	36	24.0	7	4.7
22/5	General reports	56	37.3	58	38.7	22	14.7	14	9.3
22/6	E-mails and web sites	36	24.0	60	40.0	42	28.0	12	8.0
22/7	Marketing research reports	34	22.7	54	36.0	32	21.3	30	20.0

22/8	Financial reports	34	22.7	56	37.3	36	24.0	24	16.0
22/9	Government departmental reports	45	30.0	53	35.3	18	12.0	34	22.7
22/10	Company organization and policy reports	42	28.0	55	36.7	26	17.3	27	18.0
	Total	487		546		281		186	

Table 7.13: Types of writing tasks the respondents were engaged in.

In this table we find in the "total" figures that the majority of the responses fall in the "often" category (546), followed by the "very often" category (487), followed by the "not often" category (281) while the lowest total score is (186) for the "never" category. The table reveals that the overall responses were positive. We can usefully divide these results into four categories. Category one covers internal written communication (Q22/1, 3). Significantly (Q22/3) 63 (42.0%) very frequently wrote notes and 55 (36.7%) wrote them regularly; (Q22/1) 61 respondents (40.7%) produced memos very often and 51 (34.0%) often. Category two comprises external written communication (Q22/2,6). Importantly (Q22/2) 66 (44.0%) of the respondents stated that they sent letters and faxes very often, 47 (31.3%) sent them often; (Q22/6) 60 (40.0%) said they often sent emails, 36 (24.0%) wrote them very frequently and 42 (28.0%) did not often send them. Category three refers to the writing of occupational reports (Q 22/5, 7, 8, 9, 10). 58 (38.7%) noted (Q22/5) that they frequently wrote reports (in general) and 56 (37.3%) claimed to write them very often; regarding financial reports (Q22/8) 56 (37.3%) stated that they wrote them frequently and 34 (22.7%) said they very often did so, while 36 (24.0%) of them did not and still 24 (16.0%) never attempted to do so; (Q 22/9) 45 (30.0%) stated they produced government departmental reports very frequently and 53 (35.3%) did so regularly and significantly 34 (22.7%) never did. Equally interesting results came from Q22/7, 54 (36.0%) often wrote market research reports, 34 (22.7%) wrote them very often, 32 (21.3%) less often, while 30 (20.0%) said they never wrote them. More or less similar results are found in Q22/10. Category four consists only of writing numerical data (Q22/4): 50 (33.3%) of the respondents stated that they dealt with numerical data frequently; 57 (38.0%) produced it regularly and 36 (24.0%) seldom did.

All the ranges of frequency are narrow: "often" (47 to 60): "very often" (34 to 66), and "not often" (18 to 42). The range in the "never" column can be divided into two categories: Q22/1 to Q22/6 (7 to 14) and Q22/7 to Q22/10 (24 to 34). The difference is consistent with the composition of the sample. However, overall there are no significantly high or low figures, indicating a consistency of response to these items.

Examining the results shown in Table 7.13, we find a remarkable variety of writing tasks being performed by the respondents, which reflect their position. The respondents were drawn from different job categories (managerial staff: senior and middle managers, and secretarial staff); and the writing tasks performed by managerial staff tend to be different from those performed by secretarial staff.

The results show that a number of the writing tasks were likely to be performed by most respondents (all job categories) as part of their job requirements, whether directed to a reader inside or outside the workplace (Q22/1,2,3,4,5). We see that the majority of respondents very often (50-66) and often (47-58) wrote memos (Q22/1), letters and faxes (Q22/2), notes (Q22/3), numerical data (Q22/4), general reports (Q22/5), and the minority rarely or never wrote them. In explanation we suggest that all these writing tasks were performed by most respondents in all the job categories (both managerial and secretarial staff) as a part of their job requirements. On the other hand, Table 7.13 suggests that there are writing tasks which may not have been performed by all job categories (Q22/6,7,8,9,10). These tasks by their nature may require the writer to have a high level of intelligence and competence in job performance and outstanding writing skills. Therefore, although the responses to these questions are distributed across the range, there is a concentration in the "not often" (18-42) and "never" (12-34) columns, which could mean that these writing tasks were not performed by all personnel, but only by those with a high level of both proficiency in writing and responsibility (managerial staff). For example (Q22/7) 32 (21.3%) did not often write market research reports, and 30 (20.0%) said they never wrote them. Regarding financial reports (Q22/8), 36 respondents (24.0%) did not often write them, while 24 (16.0%) stated they never wrote them. 34 (22.7%) of the respondents never attempted to write to government departments (Q22/9). Therefore, the results can be said to reflect the nature of the job categories and the writing tasks

performed by the respondents in those categories, and therefore, the results are satisfactory.

Some of these tasks might require the writer to follow certain stages of writing the text clearly in terms of ideas, arrangement, correctness of language and the ability of the text to convince the reader, for example, Q 22/ 5, 7, 8, 9 and 10.

We can conclude that there are a variety of writing tasks used in the workplace. Some of these writing tasks performed at work require the use of certain writing strategies, including, planning, preparation, and revision and editing. Some of these tasks require adherence to a certain model as a source of producing a new text. Teachers of writing for occupational purposes should therefore be aware that the great variety of writing tasks requires the use of particular strategies and that the effective teaching of writing must meet the needs of the learners in this respect.

Q. 23

Question 23 was designed to consider the types of writing tasks that directly involve clients and customers (Table 7.14).

No 23	Tasks (functions)	Very Often		Often		Not Often		Never	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
23/1	Invitations	16	10.7	50	33.3	49	32.7	35	23.3
23/2	Greetings	18	12.0	63	42.0	37	24.7	32	21.3
23/3	Thank you notes	20	13.3	63	42.0	42	28.0	25	16.7
23/4	Complaints	19	12.6	48	32.0	52	34.7	31	20.7
23/5	Proposals	32	21.4	59	39.3	36	24.0	23	15.3
23/6	Requests	20	13.3	71	47.3	37	24.7	22	14.7
23/7	Apologies	13	8.7	62	41.3	48	32.0	27	18.0
Total		138		416		301		195	

Table 7.14: Types of tasks the respondents are required to deal with at work.

The distribution seen in Table 7.14 is consistent, with the majority of responses falling in the "often" (416) and "not often" (301) columns. No figures are very high or very low across the categories, only Q23/5 showing a slight anomaly: 32 respondents (21.4%) very often wrote proposals (Q23/5). This result is to be expected, because the nature of workplace requirements, particularly in the business field, requires that proposals to customers and clients be written on a regular basis.

The results shown in Table 7.14 can be divided into two categories. The first category (Q23/1,2,3,7) comprises writing tasks involving social or informal communication, while the second consists of more formal writing tasks usually having the character of a report (Q 23/4,5,6). Regarding the first category, social or informal communications (Q23/1,2,3,7), significantly (Q23/3) 63 (42.0%) wrote thank you notes regularly, 42 (28.0%) did not often write them, 25 (17.0%) never wrote them. (Q23/2) 63 (42.0%) of the respondents stated that they sent greetings often, 37 (24.7%) did not often send them, and 32 (21.3%) never did so. (Q23/7) 62 respondents (41.3%) often wrote apologies, 48 (32.0%) did not often write them, and 27 (18.0%) said they never did. 50 (33.3%) (Q23/1) frequently wrote invitations, 49 (32.7%) seldom did, and 35 (23.3%) never did. The results with respect to the first category (Q23/1,2,3,7) might indicate that although the requirements of the workplace may demand a certain amount of social or informal communication, this is unlikely to be the regular task of some job categories (such as senior management). This is evidenced by the responses, where the range of frequency of 'not often' was 37-49 and that of 'never' was 25-35.

Category two comprises more formal writing tasks (Q23/4,5,6). Significantly (Q23/6) 71 (47.3%) wrote requests often, 37 (24.7%) did so less often, while 22 (14.7%) said they never wrote them. (Q23/5) 59 (39.3%) often wrote proposals, 36 (24.0%) seldom wrote them, and 23 (15.3%) never did. Regarding the writing of complaints (Q23/4), the results show that 48 respondents (32.0%) wrote them often, while 52 (43.7%) did so rarely and 31 (20.7%) claimed they never wrote them. The results of Q 23/ 4, 5, 6 (category two) suggest that these types of tasks by their nature need to be performed by personnel with a high level of intelligence, competence in job performance and skill in using appropriate writing strategies (senior managers).

This can be seen in the responses, where the range of frequency of 'not often' was 36-52 and that of 'never' was 22-31.

Generally speaking, the two categories (social and formal) of tasks can be said to require two distinct approaches to the teaching of writing. The product approach tends to be appropriate to tasks involving social or informal communication (Q23/1,2,3,7) while the process approach is more suited to the complexities of formal writing tasks (Q 23/4,5,6). The social or informal text can often be written by referring to a model, while formal communications usually require much more careful consideration.

The participants' responses represent generally positive answers in respect of the various tasks. These results reflect the importance of these writing tasks in the workplace in dealing with clients and customers. The function of these writing tasks is to communicate particular information, mostly to particular individuals. They therefore require the use of specific writing styles to achieve their aim. Therefore, teachers of writing for occupational purposes should take into consideration the nature of these writing tasks and should use appropriate teaching approaches that can achieve the effective teaching of writing, which will help the learners to perform different kinds of writing tasks successfully (Chapter Four).

Q. 24

The aim of Question 24 was to determine whether models were followed in the writing of texts (Table 7.15). Specifically, Q24/1 asked whether the respondents followed set models (e.g. form letters) or whether they wrote freely without any guidelines (Q24/2).

No 24	Method	Very Often		Often		Not Often		Never	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
24/1	Follow models of writing	42	28.0	82	54.7	16	10.6	10	6.7
24/4	Write without guidelines	52	34.7	85	56.6	10	6.7	3	2.0

Table 7.15: Method required for the respondents' writing tasks.

85 of the respondents, the highest proportion (56.6%) wrote often without guidelines while 52 (34.7%) did so very often. 82 (54.7%) often followed models, 42 (28.0%) did so very often. The results reflect the varying nature of the writing tasks which the respondents perform in the workplace; these require using different writing strategies in order to write occupational text. These results are to be expected, given that the respondents are managerial and secretarial staff who perform a variety of written tasks. Therefore we have to take into account both approaches (product and process approaches) when teaching writing for occupational purposes, in order to be able to meet the occupational needs of the respondents.

7.7.2 The Nature of the Relationship between Writer and Reader (Writing Context)

Q. 25 and 26

Q. 25

Question 25 concerns personnel who exchange written texts in the workplace (Table 7.16).

No 25	Personnel	Very Often		Often		Not Often		Never	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%8.7	Freq.	%
25/1	Higher ranking management	91	60.7	35	23.3	14	9.3	10	6.7
25/2	Low ranking management	90	60.0	34	22.7	14	9.3	12	8.0
25/3	Colleagues	56	37.3	62	41.3	22	14.7	10	6.7
25/4	Public officials	59	39.3	52	34.7	12	8.0	27	18.0
25/5	Private-sector companies	63	42.0	46	30.7	12	8.0	29	19.3
Total		359		229		74		88	

Table 7.16: Exchange of written texts in the workplace.

According to the results shown in Table 7.13 the majority of the respondents' answers were distributed between the "very often" (359) and "often" (229)

categories. The "not often" (74) and "never" (88) columns represent generally a low total figure. This spread indicates that the respondents exchanged written texts with personnel at all occupational levels. If we consider the first two categories (very often, often), the first of them includes texts exchanged with high-ranking management Q 25/1 (91:60.7%), low ranking management Q 25/2 (90: 60.0%), private -sector companies Q 25/5 (63:42.0%) and public officials Q25/4 (59: 39.3%). The second includes answers that fall within the "often" category: here only 35 (23.3%) exchanged texts with higher-ranking management (Q25/1) and 34 (22.7%) with low- ranking management (Q25/2), as compared to 62 (41.3%) with colleagues (Q25/3), 52 (34.7%) with public officials (Q25/4) and 46 (30.7%) with private-sector companies (Q25/5). The most significant result, however, is that 181 respondents very often exchanged texts with management (low and high) (Q 25/1 and Q25/2). This figure represents a high proportion (over 50% of the responses in the "very often" category) and is to be expected, given the composition of the sample. Equally to be expected is the finding that 56 respondents never write to public officials or private-sector companies (Q 25/4 and Q25/ 5).

These results indicate that the amount of written communication exchanged in the workplace varies according to the occupational level of the reader. The overall picture, however, is that the respondents exchanged written texts with a variety of readers, who would expect the writer to use an appropriate style, in other words one suited to the reader and his/her expectations. Therefore these texts should be written in a style suitable to the reader's occupational level. The way a writer addresses the managing director of the company is inevitably different from the way he/she addresses a work colleague of a similar rank, or a subordinate. The writer normally will address the managing director in a carefully chosen and appropriately formal style, but when addressing a colleague he/she is likely to choose more informal language. Therefore, as teachers of Arabic writing, we should use teaching strategies that can help the learners to tailor their text to the reader and his/her expectations and that requires careful planning in the design of the courses.

Q. 26

Question 26 concerned the level of formality of the written texts the respondents used at work (Table 7.17).

No 26	Type of Writing	Very Often		Often		Not Often		Never	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
26/1	Formal	78	52.0	50	33.3	14	9.4	8	5.3
26/2	Informal	66	44.0	50	33.3	21	14.0	13	8.7
26/3	Both	74	49.4	47	31.3	20	13.3	9	6.0

Table 7.17: Levels of formality.

The majority of the responses show that formal written texts were used as follows: (Q26/1) 78 (52.0%) very often, 50 (33.3%) often, 14 (9.4%) not often and 8 (5.3%) never. In the "often" column, however, the same number of respondents (50:33.3%) claimed that they often wrote informal texts (Q26/2), while 66 (44.0%) wrote them very often, 21 (14.0%) did not often write informally and 13 (8.7%) said they never did. (Q26/3) 74 (49.4%) said they used both styles very often, 47 (31.3%) claimed to use them often, and 20 (13.7%) seldom did so. These positive results indicate that the respondents tended to use both formal and informal styles at work. The kind of relationship that exists between the writer and the reader of the written text determines what is written and how is expressed. Abdul-Raof (2001:107) pointed out that the modes of address variety according to the level of the person the text is addressed to (social, political etc.). As mentioned before, written texts addressed to high-ranking management require a formal style, while for those addressed to colleagues, informality is usually appropriate. These results confirm those shown in Table 7.13 (Question 25), when the respondents indicated that they exchanged written texts with different levels of personnel.

7.7.3 Language Aspects (language system)

Q. 27, 28, 29, 30, 31

Q. 27

Question 27 was designed to ascertain how often the respondents used specialised and general vocabulary (Table 7.18).

No 27	Vocabulary	Very Often		Often		Not Often		Never	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
27/1	Specialized	34	22.7	68	45.3	43	28.6	5	3.3
27/2	General	43	28.6	79	52.7	22	14.7	6	4.0
Total		224				76			

Table 7.18. Types of vocabulary used.

79 (52.7%) of the respondents said that they often used general vocabulary, while 68 (45.3%) often used specialised language. General and specialised vocabulary were used very often by only 43 (28.6%) and 34 respondents (22.7%) respectively; however, 22 (14.7%) did not frequently use general vocabulary, though almost twice as many (43: 28.6%) did not often use specialised vocabulary. Very few respondents answered "never" to both general and specialised vocabulary. These results show that general vocabulary tends to be used more often than specialized vocabulary, but that nevertheless both kinds of vocabulary are needed in writing texts in the field of business. The fact that almost three times as many respondents (224) used both types of vocabulary "often" and "very often", compared to "not often" or "never" (76) is significant, especially if we take into consideration that the respondents were dealing with various job categories in the workplace (e.g. technical staff, training staff, service staff, etc.) which would require a range of skills in using both specialized and general vocabulary.

Q. 28

The respondents were asked about using certain forms of written Arabic in the workplace. The results are shown in Table 7.19.

N 28	Form	Very Often		Often		Not Often		Never	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
28/1	Statements	39	26.0	69	46.0	32	21.3	10	6.7
28/2	Interrogatives	47	31.3	55	36.7	32	21.3	16	10.7
28/3	Conditionals	16	10.6	27	18.0	70	46.7	37	24.7

Table 7.19: Writing style used by the respondents.

Regarding writing statements (Q 28/1), the results show that 69 respondents (46.0%) wrote them often, 39 (26.0%) very often and almost equally, 32 (21.3%) seldom did. Interrogatives (Q 28/2) were said by 55 (36.7%) to be often used, 47 (31.3%) said they used them very frequently while 32 (21.3%) did so rarely and 16 (10.6%) claimed they never used them. However, as many as 70 (47.7%) of the respondents seldom used the conditional (Q 28/3) and 37 (24.7%) never used it. These results generally reflect a reality of the business world where statements and interrogatives are the forms most frequently used; the conditional tends to be rarely used. The reason for this could be that the interrogative is often used in occupational texts to request information, as the nature of the tasks in the workplace require the writer to ask for information or cooperation whether from customers or colleagues (inside or outside the workplace). Regarding the respondents' extensive use of statements, this may also be attributed to the nature of writing tasks in the workplace, which often require providing information to customers, colleagues and other companies; for example, financial statements, times of appointments, product data and so on. As for the conditional, the results show that it is little used. This may reflect the nature of the writing tasks and the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader in the workplace, which perhaps tend not to require the wide use of the conditional.

Q. 29

The respondents were asked about their use of the passive and active voice when writing texts (Table 7.20):

No 29		Very often		Often		Not often		Never	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
29/1	Passive voice	45	30.0	70	46.7	23	15.3	12	8.0
29/2	Active voice	43	28.7	68	45.3	29	19.3	10	6.7

Table 7.20: The respondents' use of passive voice and active voice.

(Q 29/1) 45 (30.0%) very often, 70 (46.7%) often and 23 (15.3%) seldom used the passive voice; (Q 29/2) 43 (28.7%) used the active voice very frequently, 68 (45.3%) used it often and 29 (19.3%) did not often use it. According to the results, the respondents reported an extensive use of both the active and the passive voices. The reason for their use of the passive voice could be that the writer in the workplace often needs to make what he/she writes appear objective (impersonal) and to avoid subjective (personal) expression (Al-Juhany 1990: 34). On the other hand the reason for using the active voice in this context is often to determine or express where the responsibility for performing actions lies, or because the identity of the person with that responsibility will give new information to the reader. In the case of Arabic, the passive is built in the structure of the form of verb; typical examples are Form V and VII types. How much of this grammatical information was known to our respondents was not determined.

Q. 30

This question is designed to assess the importance of punctuation when writing occupational texts at work (Table 7.21).

Q30	Punctuation	Very Often		Often		Not Often		Never	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	Full stop, comma etc.	45	30.0	60	40.0	45	30.0	-	-

Table 7.21: The respondents' use of punctuation.

Punctuation is needed for written tasks. The results show that 45 respondents (30.0%) used punctuation very often and 60 (40.0%) did so often while 45 (30.0%) of the respondents said they seldom did. The findings confirm the importance of using punctuation in writing tasks in the workplace; its particular use will be determined by the nature of the task. For example, if a writer wants to send a memo to a colleague at work, he/she may not take care over punctuation, but if he/she wants to write a complaint, then he/she needs to use punctuation with care in order to make the nature of the complaint clear. It is worth mentioning that the use of punctuation is determined by who the reader is. A written text addressed to a high-ranking official is normally formal and it is therefore different from one addressed informally to a colleague at work. The use of punctuation helps the reader judge the appropriateness of the style of the text and the writer's intentions. Moreover, it helps the reader to follow the writer's train of thought. The use of punctuation, like everything else in writing, depends on the reader, content, situation and purpose.

7.8 Writing Strategies

7.8.1 Product approach

Q. 31

The respondents were asked to consider the nature of the written tasks they were asked to carry out, i.e. whether or not they followed fixed, prepared guidelines (Table 7.22).

Q31	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	4	2.7	11	7.3	97	64.7	38	25.3

Table 7.22: The respondents' use of fixed prepared model

Table 7.22 presents the frequency and percentage of the participants' responses. Significantly, 97 (64.7%) agreed and 38 (25.3%) strongly agreed. This positive result indicates that the respondents tended to write texts by imitating fixed patterns in order to produce new occupational texts. This may be because of the nature of the writing tasks they dealt with at work; certain tasks require fixed, model texts, and this determines the strategies of writing. These results confirm the response shown in Q 24/1, Table 7.12: 82 (54.7%) followed and imitated written texts to produce new texts. It is evident from these responses that the respondents found this method of writing useful, and therefore the learner's needs should be considered and attention given to the imitation of fixed models. We pointed out in Chapter Four, section 4.5.1, that presenting learners with models to follow and imitate helps them to solve the difficulties and problems which they will face in organizing their own texts and enables them to use the patterns of the model in appropriate ways in future writing tasks. Thus, the use of models in teaching writing is not merely a matter of imitation or producing a similar text, but it is a matter of understanding how the text is organized in an appropriate way in order to achieve its aims and fulfil the reader's expectations.

Q. 32

Following on from the previous question, the respondents were asked whether following fixed models made their writing easier and more effective (Table 7.23).

	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
Q32	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	2	1.3	14	9.4	83	55.3	51	34.0

Table 7.23: The respondents' views regarding the value of imitating fixed models.

According to these results it is clear that imitating fixed models was found helpful by the respondents: 83 (55.3%) thought it useful and 51 (34.0%) found it very useful. Only 14 (9.4%) felt that following models did not make their writing appreciably easier. This positive result indicates that the imitation of fixed written texts is likely to ease the writing process and give the respondents confidence, as they need to change only what is deemed necessary; that is, words, phrases, sentences, etc are replaced in ways suitable to the new text. Moreover, the confidence acquired through writing in this way may motivate the respondents to perform more effectively at work (as we have shown in Chapter Four, section 4.5.1).

We can conclude that there is a need for respondents to write occupational texts by imitating fixed written texts or following set guidelines. Job requirements and the nature of the tasks determine this need.

7.8.2 Process Approach

Q. 33-36

Q. 33

The respondents were asked about whether the writing tasks they performed required that their ideas be prepared before the text was written (Table 7.24).

	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
Q 33	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	2	1.3	5	3.3	79	52.7	64	42.7

Table 7.24: Organizing ides before writing.

Here there was almost universal agreement 79 (52.7%) agreed and 64 (42.7%) strongly agreed that the nature of the writing tasks requires that ideas be prepared before they can be written.

Q. 34

Question 34 asked whether the preparation and outlining of written texts helped produce more effective written texts (Table 7.25).

	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
Q 34	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	1	0.6	1	0.6	63	42.0	85	56.7

Table 7.25: Preparation and outlining to produce more effective written texts.

Overwhelmingly the respondents supported this notion: 85 (56.7%) thought it to be of great importance and 63 (42.0%) agreed that preparation was helpful. The responses to Q/33 and 34 stressed the importance of preparation in writing occupational texts. Hedge (1988:21-22) claims that the skilled writer in real-life situations needs to consider two important questions: what are the topic and purposes of writing, and who is the reader of the text? These two questions are connected with

what has been mentioned in sections 7.7.1 (writing content Q22, 23, 24) and 7.7.2 (writing context Q25, 26). Tribble (1996:103) stresses the importance of understanding the content (types of tasks) and context (the reader) of the writing when writing a text.

Q. 35

The respondents were asked whether revising what had been written would help to produce effective occupational texts (Table 7.26).

	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
Q35	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	1	0.6	-	-	52	34.7	97	64.7

Table 7.26: Respondents' views on the importance of revision in producing effective written texts.

There was extremely strong support for revising what has been written: significantly 97 (64.7%) strongly agreed and 52 (34.7%) agreed. The respondents thus stressed the importance of revision when writing occupational texts in order to ensure clarity, appropriateness and effectiveness. The results indicate the nature of the writing tasks the respondents perform and the relationship between writer and reader. These require the writer of the occupational texts to revise what he/she writes to ensure that he/she has said it in a clear and appropriate way and he/she said what he/she wanted to say. Brown and Hood (1989:20) discuss this point further and maintain that text revision is done by checking that the content and purposes are clear and appropriate to the reader in the particular writing situation.

Q. 36

The respondents were asked about the necessity of editing what has been written in order to ensure the clarity of the ideas and the correctness of the grammar (Table 7.27).

	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
Q36	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	1	0.6	-	-	49	32.7	100	66.7

Table 7.27: The importance of editing

The results show an almost total consensus on the part of the respondents as to the importance of editing writing. Most of the respondents (100: 66.7%) agreed strongly and 49 (32.7%) agreed. There is no doubt that the nature of writing tasks, the nature of the relationship between writer and reader, and the language aspects that are most used in writing occupational texts in the workplace necessitate clear presentation of ideas and correctness of grammar. The role of editing is also to ensure that the written text maintains an overall coherence. Editing should therefore be done systematically; the writer needs to pay particular attention to layout, grammar, spelling, word order, punctuation and choice of words in order to achieve the required objectives. While learners are writing they tend to make a number of grammar, punctuation and spelling mistakes, and the purpose of editing is to make sure that the text is free from these mistakes.

7.9 Conclusion

This chapter has reported and analysed the findings of the questionnaire, which show that our respondents, writers of occupational texts, write different kinds of texts to different readers at different occupational levels and use various aspects of the language. It was found that the respondents used a variety of writing strategies. It suggests, therefore, that both the product and process approaches need to be

considered by teachers of Arabic if they wish to teach writing for occupational purposes successfully. In the next chapter (Chapter Eight) we will show how the three approaches to writing (product, process, and a combination of both) may be made to work; in other words, which of these writing strategies can be most effectively used with each approach by the writer of occupational texts in Arabic.

Chapter Eight

Observation & Interviews: Analysis, Results and Discussion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of the second part of the present study. It is divided into two sections. Section one covers observation: observation as a method is intended to show, in this case, how the writers of Arabic occupational texts performed writing tasks according to the product and process approaches, and a combination of both of these. In other words it attempts to discover which writing strategies are used with these three approaches. The second section covers interviews and is divided into two parts: the first concerns the learners' (writers') interview, and the second the teachers' interview. In the first part we reported on the interview conducted with the learners who performed tasks under the observation. The second part reports on the interview conducted with teachers of Arabic. The findings of the observation sessions and the interviews suggest that using strategies related to both writing approaches (product and process) will help learners of Arabic writing for occupational purposes to write occupational texts successfully in the workplace.

8.2 Analysis of the Observations of the Three Tasks

8.2.1 Task One: a Letter of Complaint

The results of observing Task One are divided in accordance with four writing stages: preparation, drafting, revising and editing. The results indicate the frequency of the behaviours occurring in these stages and are shown in Table 8.1.

N	Stage	Total	%
A	Preparation	135	28.0
B	Drafting	101	21.0
C	Revising	128	26.5
D	Editing	118	24.5
Total		**482**	**100**

Table 8.1: Frequency of the four writing stages (task one).

Table 8.1 shows that the activities of the preparation stage were the most frequently observed, with a total of 135 (28.0 %), followed by the revising stage with a total of 128 (26. 5%), by the editing stage with a total of 118 (24.5%) and lastly, drafting, with a total of 101 (21.0%). These results can be divided into four sections:

8.2.1.1 Preparation (Pre-writing) Stage: (Total frequency 135[28.0%]).

The activities involved in the preparation stage are shown in Table 8. 2.

A- Preparation (prewriting) stage			
N	**Behaviour**	**freq.**	**%**
A/1	Participants communicate in order to understand the writing task and prepare the main ideas concerning the subject.	33	24.4
A/2	During discussions some learners talk while others listen and write notes that are developed into ideas.	25	18.6
A/3	Participants choose and prepare the styles and expressions related to the writing topic.	28	20.7
A/4	Some participants raise questions that help in generating and developing ideas.	28	20.7
A/5	Participants write their ideas as much as they can.	21	15.6
Total		**135**	**100**

Table 8.2: Frequency of behaviours occurring in the preparation stage (task one).

These results and the present researcher's observations reveal that the behaviour particularly emphasised by the participants was the preparation of ideas related to the topic. **A/1 (freq. 33[24.4%]), A/2 (freq. 25[18.6%])**, and **A/4 (freq. 28[20.7%])** show the importance of communication channels (communication, discussion, raising questions) in preparing ideas before writing an occupational text. The writer of the occupational text needs to focus on the preparation of ideas in order to be able to produce a text that fulfils both its aim and the reader's expectations. The participants' emphasis on generating and developing ideas for the writing task indicates that this step is considered one of the most important and difficult in preparing an occupational text (as we have shown in Chapter Four, section 4.5.2.1).

Although generating ideas is a critical part of the writing process, its difficulty may decisively hinder the writing process. White and Arndt (1988:7) rightly observed, the real and actual beginning of the writing process as one of the most difficult steps and one that may hinder the writer. The researcher noticed, during the communication and discussion stage, that as the participants were generating and developing their ideas, they were recording them on paper in the form of notes, diagrams and outlines. He also noticed that the participants took some time before starting to communicate and exchange their ideas; Harris (1993:45-46) has stressed that the writer in the planning stage needs time to discuss and examine with others the ideas he has produced.

The participants gave much attention to the selection of a style and, expressions, as shown in **A/3 (freq. 28[20.7%])** in order to express the ideas clearly, avoiding ambiguity and using expressions appropriate to the task and the standards of the reader. The researcher also noticed that the participants' discussions were often focused on item **A/3**. They spent not a little time in selecting the sentences, style and expressions with which to convey their ideas, through discussing their suitability to the topic.

The participants' least frequent behaviour was writing down their ideas **A/5 (freq. 21[15.6%])**. This fact could have been predicted because at this stage the main focus is on **A/1**: preparing for writing (ideas, expressions and styles). The writer is ultimately concerned to produce a neat, clear and convincing occupational text. These results are consistent with the respondents' answers to the questionnaire, as shown in Tables 7.22 and 7.23, where most of the participants mentioned that the preparation stage is important in writing an occupational text, and it confirms what has been discussed in Chapter Four, section 4.5.2.1.

The above results suggest that we, as teachers of Arabic writing for special purposes in accordance with the process approach discussed in Chapter Four (section 4.5.2), should focus particularly on the preparation of the writing process. The teacher, in conducting the preparation stage as Brown and Hood (1989: 7) observe, should use a variety of teaching strategies in order to help the learners to fulfil the aim of the writing task. Among these is brainstorming. In brainstorming, the learner writes

his/her ideas rapidly and is permitted to use his/her mother tongue. What counts here is writing down the ideas and developing them in a way suitable to being the writing task.

8.2.1.2. Drafting Stage: (Total frequency 101[21.0%]).

The drafting stage occupies the last position in items of the participants' emphasis with a total frequency of 101 (12.0%). The results are shown in Table 8.3.

B- Drafting Stage			
N	**Behaviour**	**Freq.**	**%**
B/1	Every participant in the group writes the ideas he/she has prepared in the form of a list of sentences that are not in order.	23	22.8
B/2	Participants compare the sentences they have written with their peers.	22	21.8
B/3	Participants communicate in order to choose the suitable sentences that express the subject clearly then write them down	23	22.8
B/4	Participants join the sentences they have written to form paragraphs.	22	21.8
B/5	Participants focus while they are writing at this stage on correcting mistakes in spelling, grammar and punctuation.	11	10.8
Total		**101**	**100**

Table 8.3: Frequency of behaviours occurring in the drafting stage (task one).

The results in Table 8.3 reflect the closeness in the frequency of the behaviours. The results are discussed below. According to the researcher's observations and the results it may be noted that the participants focused on writing their ideas in the form of a list of unorganized sentences **(B/1)**. They communicated among themselves in order to decide which sentences could best express their ideas **(B/3)**. The researcher noticed the participants' behaviour in respect of these two items **B/1 and B/3 (freq. 23[22.8%])**. They started by writing as many sentences related to the topic as they were able, writing in a haphazard way in the form of separate sentences. After that they started to discuss among themselves in order to choose sentences which expressed most clearly the ideas of the writing topic. What is worth noticing is that the participants discussed the question of appropriateness, deleting sentences and adding some new ones. They continued to discuss the task, generating new ideas and writing them in the form of sentences. Therefore the participants' approach in items **B/1, and B/3** was a recursive process, in which they wrote, generated new ideas and

sentences, and re-wrote. The researcher also noticed that the participants were comparing what they had already written as shown in **B/2 (freq. 22[21.8%])** and discussing these sentences in order to choose the most appropriate. He also noticed that the most effective participant was especially influential on the others, being better able to write than the other participants and so providing them with an explanation of the reasons behind his decision to choose the sentences he had written. The participants also focused on joining the sentences they had written to form a paragraph **B/4 (freq. 22[21.8%])** by adding conjunctions. The participants were observed to be enjoying the group work. The researcher noticed that the participants were not focusing on correcting mistakes in spelling, grammar and punctuation. This was to be predicted, because the focus during this stage (drafting) is on writing as much as possible and leaving the correction of spelling and grammar to the revising and editing stages. What the text writer focuses on in the drafting stage is expressing his/her ideas in the form of written speech. Brown and Hood (1989: 114) stress this when they write that the most important thing in drafting according to the process approach is getting the words down on paper and there is no particular focus on spelling, grammar, punctuation or style. Moreover, Harris (1993:45-46) notes that the drafting stage according to the process approach, is concerned with translating the ideas and plans into a provisional text. The drafting stage allows the writer to start with any part of the written text. Writing down ideas helps the writer to know what he/she has written in order to link the sentences and paragraphs together. The writer, during the drafting stage, according to the process approach, is keen to record his/her ideas on paper, as the focus is on organization and correction comes later.

8.2.1.3. Revising Stage: (Total frequency 128[26.5%]).

Revising is the second stage in importance according to the total frequency of behaviours: **128 (26.5%)** Table 8.1. The participants' emphasis on revising what they had written reflects the importance of this stage in producing occupational texts. This result is to be expected because of the need to revise to ensure the logic and coherence of its ideas of a text and that its arrangement through the linking of paragraphs achieves a clear and total meaning. Again, the writer is seeking to fulfil the aim of writing and the reader's expectations. This emphasis on the clarity and

coherence, the logical arrangement of the paragraphs and the avoidance of repetition may, then, be due to two factors: the nature of the written text and the person to whom the text is directed. The criterion of clarity is also likely to involve linking the paragraphs, avoiding unnecessary repetition, and deleting those parts of the text that may confuse the reader and result in ambiguity.

As in the case of preparation, the social and occupational status of the person to whom the text is directed is of great importance. For example a message directed to a government employee would differ in aims, expressions, terminology, diction and style for one directed to a close friend. What really matters is the delivery of the message. Brown and Hood (1989:20) stress that revision is one of the most important in the writing process. The context and purpose of the text must be clear and suitable to the reader in their particular situation. The activities involved in the revising stage are displayed in Table 8.4.

C- Revising stage			
N	**Behaviour**	**Freq.**	**%**
C/1	Participants revise the text, then link more then one sentence to form a single sentence by replacing the unsuitable elements with more suitable ones.	26	20.3
C/2	Participants revise the text and write clearly and logically in order to fulfil the aim of the writing and the reader's expectations.	32	25.0
C/3	Participants revise the text, paying special attention to the logical organization of ideas and to the clarity of the content and style.	30	23.4
C/4	The participants revise what they have written to make sure that there are no vaguely written parts.	16	12.5
C/5	Participants revise what they have written to make sure that no words are used wrongly.	13	10.2
C/6	Participants revise what they have written to make sure that conjunctions are added to link the paragraphs.	11	8.6
Total		**128**	**100**

Table 8.4: Frequency of behaviours occurring in the revising stage (task one).

The results and the researcher's observations suggest that the participants gave particular attention and emphasis, through their communication channels, to revising what they had written in order to ensure that its logic and clarity fulfiled the aim of

writing and the reader's expectations **C/2(freq. 32 [25.0%])**. The researcher observed that the participants were constantly discussing possible changes and sometimes had difficulty in revising the text. Therefore they were always questioning the clarity and logic of what they had written, using lists to delete and sometimes add words, or arrows to reorder two or more paragraphs. This behaviour was created through group discussion or by participants being given time to think and make notes. The researcher also noticed that there was one participant who became bored with item **C/2** because he felt unable to participate effectively. In addition, the researcher noticed that the participants sometimes generated and developed ideas and expressions by going back to the preparation stage, substituting ideas and words that were inappropriate for more suitable ones in order to improve the text's clarity and logic. This result is consistent with Raimes (1985) and Tribble (1996). Moreover, the results show that the participants were concerned with logic, the organization of ideas and the clarity of the content and style **C/3 (freq. 30[23.4%])**. They added carefully chosen words or sentences to improve the text in the areas corrected. In addition, one of the most interesting behaviours noticed was that the participants, while discussing **C/1(freq. 26[20.3%])**, were enjoying the group work as if they were playing a game, linking two sentences together or deleting some sentences or individual words. They seemed to find the communicative group work both motivating and fun (as we have shown in Chapter Four).

Examining the results in respect of items **C/4 (freq.16 [12.5%0])** and **C/5 (freq.13 [10.2%])**, it can be seen that the participants did not pay these items as much attention, which may imply that they had no great difficulty in revising these items. The researcher noticed that the participants discussed the deletion of some parts, which were vaguely written **(C/4)**, and made sure that no words were used incorrectly **(C/5)**. The least frequent behaviour was making sure that some conjunctions were added to link the text's paragraphs, **C6 (freq. 11 [8.6%])**.

The researcher believes that the results were not unexpected as they showed that the participants focused on every behaviour. The most frequently observed behaviour was revising the text so that it appeared clear and logical. Moreover, in order to fulfil the aim of the writing task and the reader's expectations **(C/2)** there must be some focus on the logical organization of ideas and the clarity of the content and style

(C/3). A good way of obtaining these is to link two or more sentences to form a single sentence by replacing the unsuitable elements with more suitable ones **(C/1)**. Moreover, the writer should make sure that no word is used wrongly **(C/5)** and may add some conjunctions to link the paragraphs of the text **(C/6)**.

These results undoubtedly reflect the importance of the revising stage in the process approach as a means of ensuring that the occupational text is clear in order to fulfil the aim of the writing task and the reader's expectations. Brown and Hood (1989:20) note that in the revising stage the writer checks what he/she has written by making sure that it conveys what he/she really wants to express clearly and appropriately. The aim of revision is to make sure that the content and purpose of the text are clear to the reader in the particular writing situation. Therefore, enough time must be assigned to teaching this stage and to allow the learner to revise the text thoroughly. Raimes (1985: 232) mentions that teachers of writing can structure their writing classes by giving the students the chance to re-write the drafts in a way that can develop the content.

These results, which emphasize the importance of the revising stage to the participants, highlight what we discussed in Chapter Four, section 4.5.2.3, and the results of the questionnaire shown in Table 7.24; the participants emphasized that they badly needed to revise what they were asked to write in the occupational field in order to produce a text able to fulfil its aim and the reader's expectations.

8.2.1.4 Editing Stage: (Total frequency 118[24.5]).

The editing stage came third in degree of importance according to the total frequency of the behaviours: **118 (24.5%)**. The detailed results of observing the participants' behaviours in the tasks of the editing stage are shown in Table 8.5.

D- Editing Stage			
N	**Behaviour**	**Freq.**	**%**
D/1	Participants edit the written text to focus on spelling.	20	16.9
D/2	Participants edit the written text to focus on grammar.	22	18.6
D/3	Participants edit the written text to focus on punctuation.	14	11.9

D/4	Participants edit the written text to focus on word order.	16	13.6
D/5	Participants edit the written text to focus on choice of words.	17	14.4
D/6	Participants edit the written text to focus on repetition.	12	10.2
D/7	Participants discuss what they have written to make sure of its clarity, coherence and logic.	17	14.4
Total		**118**	**100**

Table 8.5: Frequency of behaviours occurring in the editing stage (task one).

The results shown in Table 8.5 can be divided into three groups. The first group **(D/2, and D/1)**: The participants' behaviour was focused on **D/2 (grammar)** with a total of **22 (18.6%),** which means that the participants were concerned that the text should be free from grammatical mistakes. The researcher noticed that the participants read what they had written sentence by sentence. They underlined the grammatical errors then raised a discussion around the errors. What alternatives might replace the wrong word? After that, they read all the sentences and thought about them from a grammatical point of view. The researcher observed that the participants had some difficulty in correcting grammatical mistakes. It was noteworthy that the participants wrote similar sentences to these in the text on a separate sheet of paper and then checked the grammatical rule. After that, they agreed on the right choice by which to correct the word and its sentence. They clearly considered that producing an occupational text free of grammatical mistakes was very important, which was to be expected. Their concern reflected their perception of the nature of the text; specifically that it should be free from mistakes and of a sufficiently high standard to convince the reader. The nature of the writing task necessitates a certain kind of editing. A letter of complaint is characterized by a more formal style, as it is usually addressed to a senior manager. The participants also focused on **D/1** with a total of **20 (16.9%)**; they were concerned to produce a text free of spelling mistakes. It is important in writing a business letter to give special attention to spelling, as opposed to writing a letter to a friend, where spelling mistakes can be tolerated. One of the most enjoyable aspects of the experiment the researcher noticed is that the participants in the process of discussing their spelling mistakes underlined the misspelled words and wrote them in a few different ways to see which one looked right. The researcher also noticed that some participants used their dictionary to check spelling.

The second group **(D/4, D/5, and D7): D/4** had a total frequency of **16 (13.6%)** and both **D/5** and **D/7** a total frequency of **17 (14.4%)** which means that these items were given a similar degree of attention by the participants. The items refer to the arrangement, and appropriate selection of words and to the text's clarity, coherence and logic.

The third group **(D/6)**: The result for **D/6**, a total frequency of **12 (10.2%)**, occupied the last position, which means that the participants did not have much difficulty in editing the text for repetition, which may be due to the fact that they had dealt with repetition in the revising stage.

From these findings, it can be seen that the editing stage is very important in producing texts in the process approach. Editing consists of careful checking of the text to make sure that there is no error, as this may impede the understanding of the text and its aim. The process of editing, as Hedge (1988:19) notes, includes reading what has been written and attempting to apply the reader's perspective to evaluate how the reader may clearly understand and follow the text. Editing is essential as it involves making final changes by making sure that its accuracy will meet the minimum degree of acceptability, for the reader's competence in this stage (ibid.) is not acquired automatically but is a behaviour which needs to be taught. Teaching this stage by designing and presenting activities and exercises will help the learners to produce a written text free of mistakes and whose grammatical structure is clear (see Chapter Four, section 4.5.2.4).

8.2.2 Task Two: Writing a Letter

The participants' behaviours in respect of Task Two are shown in Table 8.6.

N	Behaviour	Freq.	%
1	Participants read the model and discuss how to write a new text by following and imitating the model.	16	15.6
2	Participants manipulate and analyse the model through looking at grammatical structures, vocabulary, and expressions and writing conventions.	34	33.0

3	Participants produce text by following the model sentences, changing some vocabulary, expressions, grammar, and links.	31	30.1
4	Participants read what they have written and compare it with the model.	13	12.6
5	Participants write the final draft according to the model.	9	8.7
Total		**103**	**100**

Table 8.6: Frequency of behaviours of Task Two.

From the results shown in Table 8.6 and from the researcher's observations it could be said that the participants' emphasis was on **item 2** (the participants manipulate and analyse the model through looking at grammatical structures, vocabulary, and expressions and writing conventions). The researcher noticed that the participants' discussions concentrated on determining the linguistic characteristics of the text and the styles and expressions they would use to write the new text. They used the text presented to them without paying much attention to its content or meaning or who would be the reader. Thus, their discussions did not involve generating new ideas or how to express them, but how to imitate the model text given to them to produce a new text.

From the participants' behaviours to **item 3** and the researcher's observations, it can be said that the participants emphasized writing the new text by following the model sentences while making some changes in the vocabulary, expressions, grammar and links which suited the new text. The researcher noticed that in writing the new text the participants did not face any great difficulty because they were used to imitating a fixed text. Their discussions focused on changing the vocabulary, expressions and grammar in ways which suited the new text and not on preparing ideas related to the topic. The role of the text writer in following a model text is studying, analysing and imitating the model's sentences, and expressions. In other words one might argue that in this case the writer is an imitator, rather than a creator. The participants, the researcher noticed, were concerned with following the model given to them more than with the writing processes which would lead to producing their own text. He also noticed that they were paying more attention to accuracy in grammar, style and expression than to the ideas, which led to writing the text.

Moreover the researcher noticed that the nature of the participants discussions in relation to in **item 1** were about how to produce a text based on imitating a model and not on generating new ideas or how to write them in order to produce a text that was clear and coherent in its ideas and thus fulfiling the reader's expectations. The researcher also noticed that the participants were comparing what they themselves had written with the model text and not with what the other participants in the group had produced, although this process of comparison **(item 4) 13 (12.6%)** was not evident in items **1, 2, and 3**. Indeed there was not much focus on **item 4** behaviour, probably because participants were sure of what they were writing, or rather, imitating. As for the participants' behaviours regarding **item 5,** they did not give much attention to the final draft, with a total frequency of **9(8.7%)**.

According to the results and the researcher's observations, participants were focusing, in their writing behaviour, on studying the model given to them, analysing and examining its elements (grammar, vocabulary and conventions) to produce a parallel text.

8.2.3 Task Three: Project to Offer a Commercial Bid to Improve a Car Marketing System

8.2.3.1.Part One

The results of observations in Task Three, part one are shown in Table 8.7.

N	Behaviours	Freq.	%
1	Participants read the model and discuss how to write a new text by following and imitating the model.	13	14.1
2	Participants manipulate and analyse the model by looking at grammatical structure, vocabulary, and expressions and writing conventions.	20	21.7
3	Participants produce text by following the model sentences, changing some vocabulary, expressions, grammar, and links.	25	27.2
4	Participants read what they have written and compare it with the model.	23	25.0
5	Participants write the final draft according to the model.	11	12.0
Total		**92**	**100**

Table 8.7: Frequency of behaviours of Task Three, part one.

According to these results and the researcher's observations the participants who took part in Task One behaved differently in this task (Task Three). They were faster in writing the text. Most of their concentration was on changing some words, expressions, and rules, which suited their new text **(item 3)**. They also compared what they had written with the text given to them **(item 4)**. The researcher also noticed that the participants did not have any difficulty in writing the text, which may be due to the fact that they were accustomed to this kind of writing task in their occupational field. These tasks include dealing with personal information, which they have to write or read. The researcher noticed that during their discussions the participants recalled some of the similar tasks they had carried out in their work place. These writings task depended on following a certain model, which made it easier and faster for them to write the new text efficiently. The role of the participants in this task was to analyse the linguistic characteristics (style, expressions, rules etc.) of the model text given to them and use it as a source for producing a new text.

8.2.3.2 Part Two: Writing Marketing Report

The observations in Part Two can be divided into four writing stages as shown in Table 8.8:

Stage	Total	%
A- Preparation	139	28.6
B- Drafting	101	20.8
C- Revising	126	25.9
D- Editing	120	24.7
Total	**486**	**100**

Table 8.8: Total frequencies of the four writing stages (task three, part two).

These results are divided into four sections:

8.2.3.2.1 Preparation (prewriting) Stage (Total frequency 139 [28.6%]).

A- Preparation (prewriting) Stage			
A	**Behaviour**	**Freq.**	**%**
A/1	Participants communicate in order to understand the writing topic and prepare the main ideas concerning the subject.	33	23.7
A/2	During discussion some learners talk while others listen and write down notes that are developed into ideas.	29	20.9
A/3	Participants choose and prepare the diction and expressions related to the writing topic.	28	20.1
A/4	Some participants raise some questions that help in generating and developing new ideas.	30	21.6
A/5	Participants write down as many ideas as possible.	19	13.7
Total		**139**	**100**

Table 8.9: Frequency of the behaviours occurring in the preparation stage (task three part two).

Generally speaking and from examining the results it may be noticed that the participants in their group discussions focused in this stage on understanding the task and developing the ideas necessary for writing them as shown in **A/1, A/2, and A/ 4 (Table 8.9)**. Also, great attention was given to the preparation of the style and expressions needed to convey these ideas clearly **(A/3)** so as to fulfil the aim of the writing task. The researcher noticed that the participants were focusing in this stage on writing down as many ideas as they could **(A/5)** without paying much attention to coherence or logic, while also making notes for future reference if needed.

It can be said that the preparation stage is a very important stage in writing occupational texts. The process approach obliges the teacher of writing to take into account those strategies and activities that will help learners to generate and develop the ideas, expressions and grammatical rules that are important in producing an effective occupational text efficiently. The importance of this stage is determined according to the writer's work requirements in respect of the nature of what is written, its aim and the reader's expectations.

8.2.3.2.2 Drafting Stage (total frequency 101 [20.8%])

B- Drafting Stage			
N	**Behaviours**	**Freq.**	**%**
B/1	Every participant in the group writes the ideas he/she has prepared in the form of a list of sentences that are not in order.	21	20.7
B/2	Participants compare the sentences they have written with their peers.	23	22.8
B/3	Participants communicate in order to choose the suitable sentences that express the subject clearly then write them down.	24	23.8
B/4	Participants join the sentences they have written to form paragraphs.	22	21.8
B/5	Participants focus while they are writing at this stage on correcting mistakes in spelling, grammar and punctuation.	11	10.9
Total		**101**	**100**

Table 8.10: Frequency of behaviours occurring in the drafting stage (task three, part two).

From the results **B/1** to **B/4**,with frequencies ranging between **21** and **24**, it seems that these items had a similar importance for the participants. The researcher noticed that in this stage, the participants focused particularly on writing down as many ideas as possible without paying much attention to grammatical accuracy or spelling **B/5 (freq. 11[10.9%])**. They were concerned with changing their ideas into "written speech" and focused on how to organize this speech into sentences and paragraphs without considering the logic, clarity or coherence of what they wrote. The most important thing for the participants was how to express ideas in the form of sentences and paragraphs. The lack of attention to correcting mistakes in spelling, grammar and punctuation may be due to their postponing this activity to the revising and editing stages. In short, writing according to the process approach comprises several stages, each of which attempts to fulfil an aim or takes the text a step forward to be completed at the next stage, eventually producing the text in its final shape, which must be clear and able to fulfil its aim and the reader's expectations.

8.2.3.2.3 Revising Stage (total frequency 126[25.9%]).

C- Revising Stage			
N	**Behaviour**	**Freq.**	**%**
C/1	Participants revise the text, then link more than one sentence to form a single sentence by replacing the unsuitable elements with more suitable ones.	25	19.8
C/2	Participants revise the text and write clearly and logically in order to fulfil the aim of the writing and the reader's expectations.	30	23.8
C/3	Participants revise the text, paying special attention to the organization of ideas and its logic, and to the clarity of the content and style.	30	23.8
C/4	Participants revise what they have written to make sure that there are no parts written vaguely.	15	11.9
C/5	Participants revise what they have written to make sure that there are no words that are used wrongly.	14	11.2
C/6	Participants revise what they have written to make sure that some conjunctions are added as links	12	9.5
Total		**126**	**100**

Table 8.11: Frequency of behaviorus occurring in the revising stage (task three, part two).

The researcher observed that the participants' focus in this stage was on revising the text so as to fulfil its aim and the reader's expectations **C/2 (freq. 30[23.8%])**. The writer in this stage also needs to focus on arranging the ideas, the text's logic, content, clarity and style **C/3 (freq. 30[23.8%])**. There is a mutual relationship between these two items as **C/2** cannot be done except by paying attention to **C/3**. The participants also focused on revising the text by linking more than one sentence by replacing the elements with more suitable ones **C/1 (freq. 25 [19.8%])**. The frequency of the participants' behaviour in respect of items **C/4, C/5, and C/6** ranged from **12** to **15**, which means that revising these items was important, but not as important as the other items, perhaps because the writer felt that he/she would be able to edit the text before producing its final version. In short, the participants considered that the revising stage, as one of the writing stages in the process approach, was important in producing an occupational text, mainly because of the nature of the topics used in the work place. For example, the writer of a marketing report on how to improve car sales undoubtedly needs to revise what he/she has

written to make sure that the text fulfils its aim by being logical, organized, coherent and free from ambiguity. The content should be generally clear in order to fulfil the reader's expectations and the text should also be suited to the social and occupational status of the reader.

8.2.3.2.4 Editing Stage (total frequency 120[24.7]).

D- Editing Stage			
N	**Behaviour**	**Freq.**	**%**
D/1	Participants edit the written text to focus on spelling.	20	16.6
D/2	Participants edit the written text to focus on grammar.	22	18.3
D/3	Participants edit the written text to focus on punctuation.	11	9.2
D/4	Participants edit the written text to focus on word order.	17	14.2
D/5	Participants edit the written text to focus on choice of words.	18	15.0
D/6	Participants edit the written text to focus on repetition.	15	12.5
D/7	Participants discuss what they have written to make sure of its clarity, coherence and logic.	17	14.2
Total		**120**	**100**

Table 8.12: Frequency of behaviours occurring in the editing stage (task three, part two).

The most frequent behaviour of the participants in Table 8.12 was editing grammar **D/2**, with a total frequency of **22 (18.3%)**, followed by spelling **D/1**, with a frequency of 20 **(16.6%)**, choice of words **D/5** with a frequency of **18 (15.0%)**. Focusing on word order and clarity **D/4, D/7**, coherence and logic came equal fourth with a total frequency of **17 (14.2%)**, focusing on repetition **D/6** had a total frequency of **15 (12.5%)** and finally, punctuation **D/3** had a frequency of **11 (9.2%)**. Generally speaking, the researcher noticed that the participants paid attention to editing the written text by using their communication channels, which helped them to produce a text free from errors. The participants particularly focused on editing grammar and were also keen to produce a text free from syntactic errors. They took care to arrange words to enhance the clarity and logic of what they had written, and to avoid repetition.

Considering Task Three, which combines the strategies of the two approaches (product + process) we can conclude that the participants in writing Part One were faster as they were imitating a fixed text. They were also writing more effectively, more easily and more efficiently, perhaps because they had access to a source, which minimized the amount of mistakes. Thus, they had no difficulty in writing the text. However this does not mean that the creative process is not in evidence when writing a text in imitation of a fixed model. On the contrary, the researcher noticed that discussions took place, using the communication channels among the participants, on how to write the new text by substituting words, sentences and expressions suitable for the new text, while paying attention to the general lines of the model given to them. Therefore the strategies and activities used in teaching writing according to the product approach should not ignore the creative process; the teacher should implement certain important strategies such as group work discussions, brainstorming, comparisons, analysis and so on. Of course, the approach includes the processes of imitation and following a fixed text. The strategy of imitation is also much used in the workplace because of the nature of the day-to-day writing tasks routinely performed there. This conclusion was confirmed by the respondents in their answers to the questionnaire **(Q 32)** when they said that what they were asked to write necessitated imitating fixed texts. Therefore there is a real need for a focus on this writing strategy and the teachers of Arabic for occupational purposes should focus on teaching writing strategies that reinforce this side of writing.

On the other hand, according to the researcher's observations of the participants' behaviour in Part Two, it can be said, generally speaking, that the participants relied on group work by using their communication channels to produce the text. They were also creators of the text rather than imitators, through generating and developing the ideas, styles and expressions suitable for the topic, and revising the text to produce a final version. The writer of the text according to the process approach makes use of several writing processes, in all of which all he/she is a creator of whatever he/she writes by virtue of his/her power of thought. Moreover the researcher noticed that the participants in their writing of Part Two did not follow a fixed order in these writing processes. In other words they found that they needed to go back to the stage of preparing the ideas, sentences and expressions (preparation stage) while working in the revising stage or the editing stage. To sum up, the

researcher found that the writing behaviour of the participants in Part Two resembled a recursive process.

According to the observations of the Three Tasks, we can conclude that Task One reflects the participants' use of process approach strategies in writing occupational texts. These strategies are suitable to those tasks which require several processes (preparing, drafting, revising, and editing). But these process approach strategies may not be suitable to these topics (tasks) used in the workplace which require imitation and following fixed models (product approach strategies). Task Two was designed to assess the participants' attitudes and competence in these product approach strategies.

The researcher's observations of Task Three, which combined both approaches (product and process), revealed that there was much care, enthusiasm and interaction on the part of the participants in writing the two parts. This may be due to the fact that both these writing strategies closely reflect the nature of the writing tasks which the participants routinely carry out, which require both imitation and thinking processes. In a nutshell, these employees need to use both methods to be able to fulfil their occupational requirements.

The observations of the three tasks confirm the research hypothesis of the present study. The proposed model suggested that there is a need to combine both approaches (product and process) in the teaching of Arabic writing for occupational purposes. The need to combine the two approaches is determined by three factors of workplace practice: the nature of the writing tasks (content) used in the workplace; the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader of the occupational texts (context); and the language aspects (language system) used in writing the texts.

8.3 Analysis of the Interviews Data

8.3.1 Learners' Interview

The participants were asked to provide particulars about themselves, i.e. job category, nationality, gender, and age (Table 8.13).

Participants	Job Category	Nationality	Gender	Age
P1	Senior Manager	British	M	45
P2	Middle Manager	American	M	41
P3	Executive Secretary	Indian	F	35
P4	Executive Secretary	Indian	F	30

Table 8.13: Participants' job category, nationality, gender, and age

Table 8.13 shows that the participants belonged to several occupational categories, and therefore performed various writing tasks according to the nature of their work. The participants were of various nationalities and ages: two were Indian, one was British, one was American. The participants were of both sexes: two were male and two were female.

Q.1

The participants were asked whether they had faced any difficulties in writing part one (Tables 8.14).

Participant	Yes	No
P1		×
P2		×
P3		×
P4		×

Table 8.14: Responses to Q1 (difficulties in writing part one)

The results shown in Table 8.14 indicate that none of the participants had encountered any problems in writing part one of their task. One participant **(P1)** explained the lack of difficulty: "In our kind of work we are used to writing these kinds of occupational texts by imitating fixed models in order to produce new texts. We change what is necessary such as the vocabulary, expressions, conjunctions and grammatical structures to suit the new texts". Moreover the participants stressed that by imitating written models they were able to produce texts characterized by

grammatical accuracy and linguistic fluency; imitation of these models mode writing the new texts in a simple and precise process.

When a writer imitates a particular model he/she has guidelines to follow in producing the new text. This writing strategy (imitation) supplies the writer with a wide range of information on how the text is to be written and the linguistic features, writing conventions, vocabulary and expressions which he/she is expected to use. The participants indicated that writing occupational texts such as application forms and message forms using imitation strategies may fulfil their writing needs, and that they were used to writing texts characterized by simplicity and effectiveness.

Q. 2

In question 2 we asked the participants if they preferred, when writing a text to follow and imitate a model. Three of them (**P 2, 3, 4**) said "yes", while one **(P1)** said "no" (Table. 8.15).

Participants	Yes	No
P1		×
P2	×	
P3	×	
P4	×	

Table 8.15: Responses to Q 2 (preference for following model text)

We asked those who said "yes" to elaborate on their reply. They said that the occupational text is addressed to a real reader who is already known to the writer. This text has several purposes; among which is to satisfy the reader's expectations by being well-organized and free of mistakes. Writers using the imitation strategy have to abide by certain writing protocols related to a particular structure and style, which help to fulfil these expectations. Imitating a model text, therefore, strengthens their understanding of good writing, which in turn facilitates writing the new text. These models provide the writer with resources, support, guidelines, cultural and linguistic

experience, as well as a sense of security and safety in writing the new text (as we have shown in Chapter Four, section 4.5.1).

One of the most interesting answers the participants supplied was that through using this strategy (imitation) their motivation to write was increased, because they felt competent to produce a text that was free from mistakes and successfully fulfilled its aim. On the other hand, if they were to experience difficulties, which resulted in a disorganized text full of mistakes, their motivation to write might be decreased.

The answers of **P 2, 3, 4** suggest that the strategy of imitation encourages learners to use the model as a resource of linguistic and cultural information for future use. This strategy gives the writer support to enable him/her to understand what he/she is writing and how to achieve the aim of the text and fulfil the reader's expectations, producing a text characterized by grammatical accuracy, an appropriate choice of vocabulary, meaningful punctuation, a correct use of the conventions of layout, accurate spelling, linking ideas and information across sentences to develop the topic and organize the content clearly and convincingly.

On the other hand, **P 1** said that he did not like to write the text by imitating a model text, because he did not feel that in doing so he was creating the text himself; that there was no chance for creativity and innovation. When we asked **P 1** about the importance of writing conventions, in spite of his dislike of the idea of following a model, he answered that there should be some kind of guidelines. According to most of the participants, then, there is a need in writing certain occupational texts to make use of the strategy of imitation. Therefore teachers of Arabic writing for occupational purposes should take into consideration the teaching strategies of the product approach in order to achieve the occupational needs of learners of Arabic for special purposes.

Q. 3

Question 3 was about suitability of fixed models. The results of the participants' answers are shown in Table 8.16.

Participant	Yes	No
1		×
2		×
3		×
4		×

Table 8.16: Responses to Q3 (suitability of fixed models for all writing tasks)

Table 8.16 shows that all the participants agreed on the answer "no" to this question. When we asked them to clarify what they meant, they said that tasks varied in nature and had different purposes. Some tasks are best accomplished by imitating a model commonly used in the work place, such as job applications, messages, memos, etc. On the other hand, there are tasks that need rewriting and revision several times to make sure that the aim is achieved through attention to the clarity of ideas, logical coherence and linguistic fluency.

The nature of the particular task requires the writer to use the writing strategies that best suit the task and achieve its aim. For example, writing a marketing report needs a broad preparation process covering the ideas, expressions and terminology. It also benefits from a revising process to make sure of the clarity, organization, and logical linking of the sentences and paragraphs. Editing is also necessary to ensure grammatical and linguistic accuracy and that the text is free from mistakes, which may happen when using a number of writing processes.

The participants' responses indicate that a single writing strategy (imitation) cannot be used to write all the texts required in the work place, due to the variety of tasks to be performed. Therefore, there may be a need for the combination of both writing strategies (product and process) when writing occupational texts. The researcher has suggested this in the proposed model (Chapter Five) when he said that there is a need for the use of both approaches in teaching writing for occupational purposes due to the nature of the writing tasks used in the workplace.

Q. 4

In this question the participants were asked whether they thought different readers required different writing styles (Table 8.17)

Participant	Yes	No
P1	×	
P2	×	
P3	×	
P4	×	

Table 8.17: Responses to Q4 (need for a range of styles)

All the participants said "yes". Among the reasons they gave to this question, they stressed the choice of an appropriate style (formal/informal), and, the use of suitable expressions and vocabulary. The participants said that it was their experience that in writing occupational texts in the work place they were writing for a real reader. This reader might be a high-ranking manager or one of lower rank. A memo, which a general manager directs to his/her secretary to inform him/her of the time of a meeting, will differ in style, vocabulary, expressions, form and organization from, for example, a letter the same manager directs to a government minister. The writer in the first case is concerned only to communicate the message to the reader without any focus on using the appropriate style, vocabulary or expressions, which suits the reader's level and it is acceptable to present it in an informal way. The writer of the second text pays much attention to the use of style, vocabulary, expressions, structures and writing conventions suitable for the social and occupational position of the reader of the text; the text is written in a formal style. This use of style, diction and expressions, whether formal or/informal, is determined by the nature of the relationship between the reader and the writer of the text.

The nature of the relationship between the reader and the writer of the text determines the use of certain strategies. In writing the first text (from the manager to the secretary) the writer may not need to engage in processes such as preparation, drafting, revising and editing to produce the text, while in writing the second text

(from the manager to the minister) the writer may feel obliged to use several processes such as preparation (ideas, expressions, vocabulary), revising (to make sure of the clarity of the ideas and content), and editing (to make sure of linguistic accuracy and that the text is free of mistakes). The participants' answers made it clear that different readers require different styles. This is especially significant when we take into consideration that the participants belonged to different occupational categories. These results proved clearly what the researcher assumed in his proposed model: that the nature of the relationship between the writer of the text and the reader's context determines the strategies and approaches to be used for teaching writing and therefore teaching of writing skills should combine the strategies of the two approaches.

Q. 5

In question 5 the participants were asked if they thought group discussion helped them in writing Part One (Table 8.18).

Participant	Yes	No
P1		×
P2	×	
P3	×	
P4	×	

Table 8.18: Responses to Q5 (usefulness of group discussion for writing part one of task three)

Three of the participants said "yes" **(P 2, 3, 4)** while **P1** said "no". Those who answered "yes' explained, saying that through group work they were able to have wide discussions in order to reach one agreed answer or a certain range of choices. Most of their discussions and interactions concerned how to use the model as a basis for writing their text; in other words how to imitate the model while making the necessary changes in styles and expressions to produce the new text. A typical response was **P3**'s comment that their group discussions provided them with the

chance to consider in detail the text and its aim. These discussions provided them with a method of writing the text with confidence.

From the answers it can be seen that the group discussion around writing Part One focused on how to imitate the model while using it as a basis for writing their new text. Participants' interaction did not concern conveying real information to a real reader but only how best to imitate the text. Therefore it is suggested that group work can be used as a communicative activity in teaching writing for occupational purposes according to the product approach.

Q. 6

In this question participants were asked whether they thought it was helpful to prepare (ideas, vocabulary, expressions) before they began writing Part Two (Table 8.19).

Participant	Yes	No
P1	×	
P2	×	
P3	×	
P4	×	

Table 8.19: Responses to Q6 (importance of preparation)

All the participants said "yes", which indicates the importance of the preparation stage before writing part two. We asked them to explain what they meant, and they elaborated by saying that the preparation process allowed them to discuss and prepare what was necessary in terms of ideas so that these ideas could express the topic in a clear way and fulfil the aim of the text. The preparation process also helps the writer to include necessary information such as figures, statistics, facts, results etc. Moreover, the participants stressed that the preparation process allowed them to select expressions, vocabulary, terminology and grammatical structures in order to express the topic in a logical way and be able to fulfil the reader's expectations. It is significant that the participants said that writing the text by imitating a model also

involved a preparation process, but within a narrower range, for example, preparing the names, places, dates, figures and so on.

According to these results, preparation, as a writing stage, is important in producing occupational texts. The amount of preparation depends on the nature of the writing task. Writing a market research report, for example, differs in the amount of preparation from writing a dinner invitation. The amount and size of preparation before writing depends also on the reader of the text and his/her social and occupational level. Writing a text to the general manager of a company differs in the amount of preparation from writing a message to a friend. This result is confirmed by the results provided by the study's questionnaire (Chapter Seven, section 7.8.2, QS 34 and 35).

Q. 7

In this question we asked the participants if they thought it necessary to revise and edit what they had written in part two (Table 8.20).

Participant	Yes	No
P1	×	
P2	×	
P3	×	
P4	×	

Table 8.20: Responses to Q7 (need for revising and editing)

The results in Table 8.20 show that all the participants stressed the importance of revising and editing what they had written in part two. We asked the participants to explain further. They said that revising the text ensured that the purposes and content of the text were clear to the reader and that the aim of the text in the particular writing situation was achieved. Through revising the text they made sure that the content of what they had written was clear. They focused on the order of the sentences and paragraphs and the coherence and logic of the paragraphs. The revising process also helped them to reconsider the content and thus discover what

they wanted to say. Moreover the revising process allowed them to make sure that they had done all that was necessary to make the ideas clear and achieve the aim of the text, in other words, to know whether they needed to add any necessary elements or delete any unnecessary ones. The participants' answers highlighted the importance of the revising stage in producing occupational texts. This result generally agrees with the findings of our survey (Chapter Seven, section 7.8.2, Q 36). When the text writer begins a first draft, he/she is very keen to write down as many ideas as possible and in any form without giving attention to the clarity or logic of what is written. However when the writer engages in the revising process, he/she is actually rediscovering, in a more exact form, what he/she wishes to say, and whether the text has achieved its aim or not.

Moreover the participants stressed the importance of editing the text which they had written in part two. They explained that when editing they made many changes and modifications in spelling, grammar, layout and so on, to make sure of the accuracy of the text and that it had achieved the minimum degree of acceptability to the reader, since any mistakes would hinder the reader from understanding the content. The importance of editing is, therefore, to make sure that the text is free from errors, which might be an obstacle to understanding. It is important to mention that all the participants agreed that the amount of revising and editing depends on two factors: the nature of the writing task and the relationship between the reader and the writer. These answers confirm what the researcher has suggested in the proposed model (Chapter Five): that the nature of the writing task (content), the relationship of the writer of the text with its reader (context), and the language aspects used in writing occupational text, help to determine the strategies and method appropriate for teaching writing for occupational purposes.

Q. 8

In this question we asked the participants whether they thought that discussions with their colleagues in group work helped them in preparing ideas, expressions and, vocabulary in drafting, revising and editing what they wrote in Part Two (Table 8.21).

Participant	Yes	No
P1	×	
P2	×	
P3	×	
P4	×	

Table 8.21: Responses to Q8 (usefulness of group discussions for writing part two).

All the participants said "yes", which indicated the importance of the group work in writing occupational texts. When we asked the participants to explain, they said that when they worked as a group they motivated and stimulated each other, creating a competitive atmosphere among themselves; this led to a feeling of enjoyment in writing the text, which in turn increased their motivation. This result is in agreement with Savova and Doneto (1991); Brookas and Grandy (1990); Basseno and Christisan (1988); and Dasereau (1988). The researcher agrees with the participants' insistence on the importance of group work in each writing stage. **P1** stressed its importance in the preparation stage, commenting that participants' discussions and interactions before writing the text centered on choosing the ideas most relevant to the topic and the need for these ideas. The discussions also concerned the vocabulary, expressions and terminology appropriate to the expression of the ideas and the aim of writing the text. This type of interaction in the preparation stage helps to generate new ideas, vocabulary and expressions suited to the requirements of the text.

P2 talked about the importance of discussion in-group for drafting the text. He explained that the discussions he and his colleagues carried out helped by determining how to begin; by writing a number of sentences or paragraphs which expressed the topic, albeit in an unorganized way. What really matters in this stage is writing down as many ideas as possible. **P3** talked about the importance of group work in revising the text. She observed that the nature of these discussions helped to raise questions around how to produce the text in a clear way so as to achieve the aim of writing it and fulfil the reader's expectations. The participants' revision focused on the logical sequence and coherence of the ideas, and on the clarity of content and

whether the text had achieved its aim or not. **P4** explained the importance of group work in editing the text, saying that the nature of the discussions centered on how to produce a text free of errors. The group would consider a number of possible options and discuss which seemed most suitable right. Then they agreed on the word they believed was the right one.

These results, in which the participants stressed the importance of group work in writing the text, confirm those of Hedge (1988:11,12), who argued that co-operative work is important in every stage of writing a text. It helps the writing process through brainstorming, which produces many ideas from which the learners (writers) have to select the most appropriate and effective. Moreover, the skills of organizing and logical sequencing come into play as the group decides on the overall structure of the piece of writing. Thus, in writing a first draft, as the learners discuss the structure of sentences, the choice of words and the best way to link ideas, there is a spontaneous process of revision in progress. Reid (1993:156) pointed out that group work could be successful in the writing class. The students' writing will be easier and more successful when they are talking, drafting, revising, and editing in groups as part of the writing process.

Q. 9

In this question we asked the participants whether they believed that writing is a recursive process (in relation to writing Part Two) (Table 8.22).

Participant	Yes	No
P1	×	
P2	×	
P3	×	
P4	×	

Table 8.22: Responses to Q9 (whether writing is a recursive process).

All the participants said "yes". They said that during the first stage of writing the text they prepared ideas and expressions and then wrote them down. They then went back

to prepare other ideas and vocabulary necessary for writing. They revised what they had written and went back to prepare what might be necessary to clarify the content of the text and so on. Therefore, writing a text, according to the participants' answers, involves a number of writing stages, in which the writer does not follow a neat sequence. In other words, the writer in the preparation stage performs a drafting process, and in the revising stage he may go back to the preparation process in order to generate new ideas, vocabulary and expressions which help to produce the text in a clear form. After the writer has carried out the editing process he may feel that he has finished writing the text. However, he may need to go back and repeat the preparation and drafting processes again and so on. Writing a text is thus a recursive process rather than a linear one.

Raimes (1985:229) confirms this notion, remarking that the writer of the text does not follow a neat sequence in planning and organizing and drafting and then revising. The writing process is not a linear process at all but rather a recursive process; it is cyclical, involving discovering and analysing and synthesizing ideas (see Hughey *et al*. 1983: 38).

Q. 10

In this question we asked the participants which they thought was better for them in terms of their writing needs: the first task (Task One or Two) they wrote or the second task (Task Three)? (Table 8.23).

Participant	First Task	Second task
P1		×
P2		×
P3		×
P4		×

Table 8.23: Responses to Q10 (which task better served writing needs)

The results shown in Table 8.23 indicate that all the participants stressed that the second task used a combination of both the product and process strategies, which

was considered better for meeting their writing needs. They said that the combination of the two strategies would allow them to write a variety of texts used in the work place, which would fulfil their writing needs related to the work field. The strategies of the two approaches complement each other. In writing Part One using the model, the writer has the opportunity to understand how to write the text. Becoming acquainted with the conventions used in writing occupational texts, the writer learns a wide range of vocabulary and expressions used in writing occupational texts, which will be a resource for writing other future occupational texts. Therefore, writing the text using imitation strategies strengthens the writer's accuracy, both grammatical and linguistic, as the model is characterized by grammatical and linguistic accuracy. The exposure of the writer to writing conventions when he/she imitates a model enables him/her to use these conventions when writing another text.

The participants said that writing Part Two met their writing needs by enabling them to write these types of texts in the work field, creative in their use of ideas, expressions and vocabulary. Revising what they had written to make sure of the clarity of the text and the fulfilment of its aim by eliminating errors also helped them to be creative in their writing. The combination of using both approaches could help the learners to write occupational text successfully.

8.3.2 The Interviews with the ASL Teachers

We asked seven, admittedly a small sample, ASL teachers (male) to provide information about themselves, such as age (Table 8.24), qualifications (Figure 8.1), place of work (Table 8.25), their teaching experience, their opinions about the main approaches to the teaching of writing, and which one of these approaches they thought would help their learners to write successfully: product, process, or a combination of both. Their answers are presented below:

Q. 1: Age

Table 8.24 (below) shows that the teacher's ages varied considerably; none was less than 35 years or more than 60 years old. Five of the teachers were between 35 and 45 years old; the other two were between 51 and 60. The comparative youth of the majority, if representative of ASL teachers in Kuwait generally, could be an advantage, as younger teachers tend to be more flexible and willing to accept new

developments in the field affecting such aspects as materials, syllabuses, and teaching methods and approaches. Madboulie (1998:132) claims that young and middle-aged teachers are more flexible in accepting new trends in the field of teaching Arabic as a foreign/second language.

Age	Freq.	%
35-40	3	42.8
41-45	2	28.6
46-50	-	-
51-55	1	14.3
56-60	1	14.3
Total	**7**	**100**

Table 8.24: ASL Teachers' ages

Q. 2: Qualification:

The teachers' responses to Q2 are shown in Figure 8.1

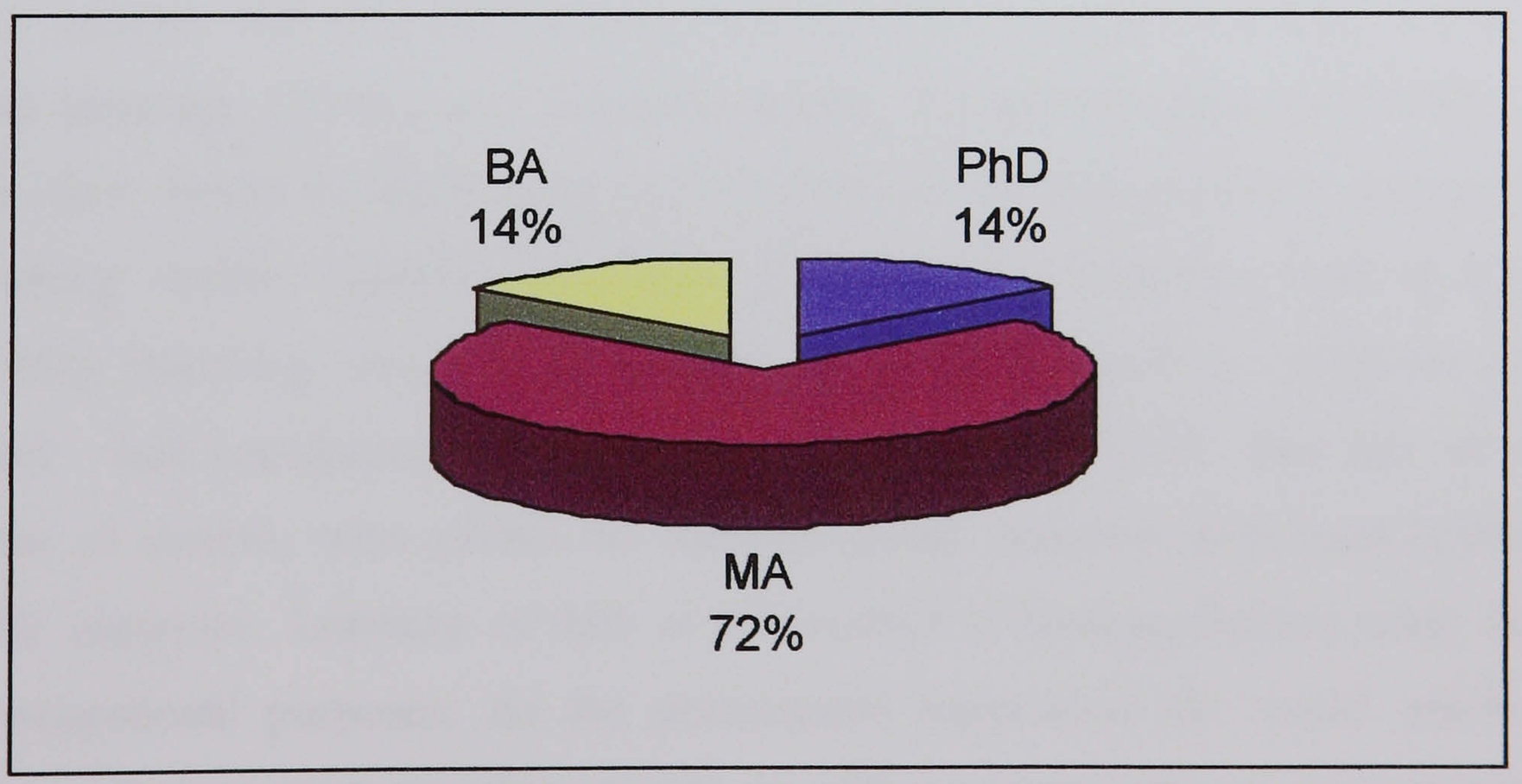

Figure 8.1: Qualifications of the ASL Teachers

Looking at the above figure, we can see that the ASL teachers are highly qualified. Five have an MA and one has a Ph.D. The other teachers have university degree.

This finding suggests that TASL in Kuwait is in a good state of health, because the teachers are specialists and therefore their subject knowledge is likely to be both wide and deep; this could help in developing TASL in Kuwait in areas such as teaching approaches, materials, and syllabus, and so on.

Q. 3 Place of working

We asked the teachers to identify where they worked. Their responses are shown in Table 8.25.

Place of Work	Freq.	%
Kuwait University	5	71.4
Institute of Banking Studies	2	28.6
Total	**7**	**100**

Table 8.25: The teachers' place of work

Five of the teachers taught Arabic as a second language at Kuwait University (morning and evening class) (see Chapter Two, sections 2.4.2.1.1, 2.4.2.1.2), while two taught at the Institute of Banking Studies (see Chapter Two, section 4.3). These results indicate that the interviewees had experience in both teaching Arabic as a second language (TASL) and teaching Arabic for specific purposes (TASP). This means they would be likely to be well aware of the different purposes learners have in learning Arabic. Learners of Arabic at the Arabic Language Unit at Kuwait University (morning class) have a variety of purposes such as religious, social, political, and occupational (see Chapter Two, section 2.3.1). The aim of most learners of Arabic, who attend the evening class, however, is to learn Arabic for specific purposes. Learners of ASL at the Institute of Banking Studies study Arabic for occupational purposes. As the participants understood the varied needs and purposes of their students, they would be able to determine an appropriate and effective approach to teaching writing, which would help learners fulfil their writing needs.

Q. 4 Experience in TASL

The teachers were asked to state how long they had been teaching ASL (Table 8.27)

Teachers experience	Freq.	%
1-4	1	14.3
5-8	3	42.8
9-12	1	14.3
more than 12 years	2	28.6
Total	**7**	**100**

Table 8.26: ASL teachers' experience

The results in Table 8.26 show that the teachers' length of service was fairly well distributed. Three had been teaching for 5 to 8 years, and the same number had served from 9 to more than 12 years. Only one had less than 5 years experience. These results indicate that the majority had considerable experience in TASL; therefore, they were well placed to identify which strategies are most appropriate to the teaching of Arabic writing for occupational purposes.

Q. 5 Teachers' Opinions on the Use of the Product Approach

We asked the ASL teachers to what extent they thought that using the product approach would help their learners to write successfully. The teachers' responses varied according to their different backgrounds. The majority commented that using the product approach would help their learners. The results are presented in Table 8.27.

Opinion	Freq.	%
Very helpful	2	28.6
Fairly helpful	3	42.8
Not helpful	2	28.6
Total	**7**	**100**

Table 8.27: Teachers' opinions on the use of the product approach

According to Table 8.27, five of the seven teachers commented favourably on the importance of using the product approach; two said it would be "very helpful" and three "fairly helpful", while two responded "not helpful". When we asked the five teachers who were positive ("very helpful" and "fairly helpful") to explain, they said that using the product approach provides the learners with guidelines which help them to understand how the text should be written. It provides them with resources, support, motivation, guidance, experience, and encourages self-assurance by enabling them to produce texts that are characterized by correct grammar, a wide range of vocabulary, properly used punctuation, and adherence to the conventions. The exercises reinforce grammar, vocabulary and syntax (as we have discussed in Chapter Four, section 4.5.1). In addition, they pointed out that the types of exercise used in this approach teach learners to use the conventions exemplified in the presented models, such as those of indentation, punctuation, and connecting words, and make them familiar with expressions which can be used in writing other texts in different situations in the future.

On the other hand, when we asked the two teachers who said "not helpful" to explain, they pointed out that this approach focuses on getting the grammar right and ignores the learner's role as creator of the text. The learner is a passive receiver of what the teacher presents. The exercises focus on the imitation of models and the learner is not permitted to choose the topic or generate and prepare the ideas, or to revise, and edit what he/she writes. It is important to say that the teachers who considered the product approach "very helpful" were aged between 51 and 60 and had work experience of more than 12 years (see Table 8.24). Their strong support could be the result of the influence of this background.

Q. 6 Teachers' Opinions on the Use of the Process Approach

The ASL teachers were asked to express to what extent they thought using the process approach would help their learners to write successfully.

Opinion	Freq.	%
Very helpful	4	57.1
Fairly helpful	2	28.6

Not helpful	1	14.3
Total	**7**	**100**

Table 8.28: Teachers' opinions on the use of the process approach

Looking at Table 8.28, we find that four of the ASL teachers thought using the process approach would be "very helpful" to their learners. Two thought it would be "fairly helpful", while only one answered "not helpful". The teachers whose opinions were positive ("very helpful" and "fairly helpful") explained that this approach allows learners to be creative by using all available means to produce the text. This approach helps learners to improve their writing process, it leads to real training, that encourages them to generate, develop, form and then write their ideas, and finally revise what they have written. Moreover, this approach encourages learners to feel confident, competent, and successful through the use of several writing stages (preparation, drafting, revising and editing), and to take into account the purposes and the reader of the text at each stage, in order to make sure that the purposes of the text are clear and that the expressions and style are appropriate for the reader. Furthermore, the process approach embraces a wide range of communicative activities such as group work and games that help in developing the learners' ability to master the language, and make the writing class enjoyable, which increases the learners' motivation.

On the other hand, the teacher who answered "not helpful" explained that teaching writing requires that learners be presented with models as a source of understanding how to produce the text. The types of activities used in this approach do not pay attention to linguistic knowledge, which is important to successful writing, particularly with Arabic. The issue, he said, is not how much the learners write and what the writing process is, but rather how successfully, that is, accurately, they write. Thus, focusing on the writing process and freedom of expression may not lead to successful writing. His views may be partly explained by his background; his age was between 56-60, and his experience as a teacher was more than 12 years; thus, he was familiar with traditional methods for teaching writing.

Q. 7 Teachers' Opinions on the Use of Both Approaches (Product and Process)

The final question asked how far ASL teachers of supported using a combination of the two teaching approaches in the writing class. The responses are shown in Table 8.29.

Opinion	Freq.	%
I support it very much	5	71.4
I support it	2	28.6
I do not support it	-	-
I do not support it very much	-	-
Total	7	100

Table 8.29: Teachers' opinions on the use of both approaches (product and process)

The results shown in Table 8.29 indicate that all seven teachers of ASL supported using a combination of both approaches (product and process) in teaching Arabic writing. Five supported it "very much", while two supported it. They explained their opinions saying that using both approaches would help them as teachers to meet the learners' need to perform successfully a variety of writing tasks. This cannot be done using a single teaching approach. The proposed combination will allow us to focus on accuracy (grammar, punctuation, expressions, etc) and at the same time fluency (using several writing processes and strategies). Therefore using both approaches would help our learners to write successfully.

These results confirm those of the learners' (employees') questionnaire (Chapter Seven) and interviews (Chapter Eight), and support what the researcher suggested in connection with the proposed model (Chapter Five): that in order to develop an effective and practical approach to the teaching of writing for occupational purposes, we should use a combination of both main approaches.

8.4 Conclusion

In this chapter we have discussed the findings from the observation sessions covering three tasks and of the interviews with both learners and teachers. The participants'

answers suggest that there is a strong need to use strategies related to both the writing approaches under discussion (product and process) in teaching Arabic writing for occupational purposes. A combination of both approaches, as suggested by the participants, should meet their occupational writing needs, as they are required to perform a variety of occupational tasks involving writing to different readers and using a number of language aspects. Therefore, a combination of both approaches to the teaching of writing strategies seems to be the most effective and practical way to teach writing for occupational purposes, as it should help learners to fulfil their writing needs by enabling them to write occupational texts successfully. This conclusion confirms what the researcher has suggested in his proposed model: that in order to teach writing effectively it is better to combine the two approaches according to the tasks used in the workplace (content), the nature of the relationship between the writer and reader (context) and the language features used in writing occupational texts (language system). A lesson model is presented in Appendix A, showing the use of both product and process approaches in the teaching of Arabic writing for occupational purposes (TAWOP).

Chapter Nine

Final Discussion & Implications

9.1 Introduction

This chapter will endeavour to discuss the major findings from this study of teaching writing of Arabic for occupational purposes in Kuwait, together with the implications in the TAFL/TASL context. This study appears to be the first piece of empirical research that considers this subject.

By Arabic for occupational purposes (AOP), we mean Arabic for those learners that need the language as a means of communication in the workplace. This general definition is in agreement with the view of Dudley Evans and St. John (1998:53), who also consider language for occupational purposes (LOP) to be the most active and fast-growing branch of language for specific purposes (LSP) because it is concerned with adult learners who work or intend to work in the field of business and need to use language in its occupational context. This matter was discussed in Chapter Three (sections 3.5.1), and such needs are confirmed by the results provided by the study's questionnaire (Chapter Seven, section 7.5). The main reason for choosing this study's field of enquiry was that there is an increasing need to learn how to write in Arabic for occupational purposes, largely due to the importance of writing as a communicative skill in the workplace (we have already seen that this skill is employed in a wide variety of tasks). Therefore the teaching/learning process should involve a quick response to learners'needs. This view is supported by many researchers (Robinson 1980b: 13, Strevense 1988:55; Brindly 1989:73; Robinson 1991:2-4; Dudley Evans and St. John 1998: 10-11; and Donna 2000:3-6).

Therefore, the importance of the present study lies in its focus on developing an effective and practical approach to teaching writing, which could meet learners' writing needs in the workplace.

9.2 The Factors Governing the Writing of Occupational Text.

9.2.1 Types of Writing Tasks (writing content).

The results of this study, as we have seen in the discussion of the questionnaire in Chapter Seven, section 7.7.1, show that the writer of occupational texts produces a variety of texts in the workplace, and this variety requires the writer to use a range of strategies. Some tasks require the production of a relatively standardised text, which can be facilitated through the imitation of fixed models (e.g. job applications, memos, and messages); the model is used as a resource to produce a new text with certain appropriate changes in vocabulary, expressions and links. It was also found that this strategy was used widely in the workplace, as it simplified the writing of occupational texts and at the same time instilled confidence in the writer, who was able in this way to produce a text free of errors of spelling and grammar. This result is compatible with the thinking of McDonough and Shaw (1993:178), who point out that the focus of this strategy is on accuracy; therefore the writer's (or learner's) production should not contain any grammatical or spelling mistakes, whether in a single sentence or in the composition as a whole (Chapter Four, section 4.5.1 and Chapter Eight, section 8.2.2). Teaching this writing strategy, using the product approach, therefore, can meet certain needs of the writer (learner) by enabling him/her to write in a standard form on a variety of tasks in the workplace. In this respect, there is general agreement between with the findings of our survey (Chapter Seven, sections 7.8.1 and Chapter Eight, section 8.2.3.1), and the literature (Watson 1982:5, Nunan 1991: 86, McDonough and Shaw 1993: 179).

It was also found that some of the writing tasks performed in the workplace (e.g. writing market research reports, letters of complaint) were more complex and their completion required a cyclical process, iterating back and forth between several stages. Clear thinking, planning, preparation, drafting, revising and editing were required to produce an effective text. This strategy was reported to be used widely in the workplace. It depends on understanding how the text is written, using several stages (preparation, drafting, revising, and editing) which are recycled as many times as necessary, thus helping the writer (learner) feel confident and competent in writing the text. This result seems to be congruent with findings in the literature (Chapter Four, section 4.5.2) and, as we have shown, with learners' behaviour and attitudes

(Chapter Eight, section 8.2.1). Therefore, teaching this writing approach (the process approach) can meet the needs of the writer (learner) in the workplace which may not be served by the product approach, by helping him/her to produce a variety of written texts for various purposes.

Thus, there is a relationship between the types of writing tasks performed in the workplace and the appropriate types of writing strategies used to produce occupational texts. Writers need to use both of writing strategies, imitative and creative, the most suitable option depending on the nature of the writing task. This result is consistent with that of Hedge (1988:21-22), who notes that the skilled writer in a real-life situation needs to consider the purposes of the writing task. The result also confirmed the compensatory hypothesis suggested by the present researcher in the study's proposed framework: that the character of the task (content) will determine the type of strategies used to teach writing for occupational purposes (see Chapter Five).

9.2.2 Relationship between Writer and Reader (writing context).

The findings of the study and in particular of the survey demonstrate that writers of occupational texts have to address readers of different occupational/social levels (high-ranking and low-ranking management; private, government and public sectors). This variety of levels requires the writer to produce texts in a range of styles (formal/informal) using a variety of vocabulary items, expressions, and writing conventions. Abdul-Raof (2001:107,108) points out that a formal text is characterised as one that is free from "figurative, connotative and emotive expressions", and the modes used to address the reader differ according to his/her level (social, occupational, political, ect.). On the other hand, an informal text is characterised by the use of "idiomatic expressions". This finding seems to be congruent with the thinking of Narantuya (1999:21) as discussed in Chapter Four, who points out that writers (or learners) need to write for a variety of readers, inside or outside the workplace, and as a result need to be able to produce different kinds of texts suitable for them.

The research confirmed that this variety of relationships between the writer and reader require the writer to use a variety of writing strategies: those involving imitation and following a model (product strategies) and those which depend on using several stages to produce the text (process strategies). This result generally agrees with findings in the literature (Hedge 1988: 21-22; Tribble 1996:67-68) (Chapter Four, sections 4.5.1 and 4.5.2). Therefore, there is a need to use both approaches to the teaching of writing Arabic for occupational purposes in order to meet the full range of writers' (learners') needs by enabling them to communicate effectively with different readers in the workplace.

Thus, the research reveals that the nature of the relationship between the reader and writer of the occupational text will partly determine the appropriate and effective approach to teaching writing for occupational purposes, which confirms what the researcher suggested in the proposed research framework (see Chapter Five).

9.2.3 Language Aspects Used in Writing Occupational Text (language system)

The findings survey revealed that writers of occupational texts needed to be competent in using a variety of language aspects (vocabulary, grammar, parts of speech, etc.). In addition there was a need for both specialized and general vocabulary, although general vocabulary was found to be more useful. It was also found that writing occupational texts required mastery of various grammatical structures; statements and interrogatives, active and passive voices, different verb tenses, and different parts of speech mastery of punctuation was also needed. The importance of this result is that it meets the need, identifed in the literature (Tribble: 1996: 68) and compatible with the thinking of Raimes (1983:6), to determine those rules (of verbs, agreement, articles, pronouns, sentences, structures, stylistic choices, specialized lexis, etc.), which the writer must be familiar with and which should be emphasized in the teaching of writing. Such identification of learners' needs can lead to the exclusion of any aspects of the language system which are not directly related to those needs, in order not to distract the writer (learner) or the teacher. Therefore, thorough consideration of these language aspects will contribute to determining the most appropriate and effective approach to the teaching of writing for occupational

purposes, by focusing on teaching strategies, which concentrate on the accurate and appropriate use of the identified features of language.

9.3 Teaching Writing Approaches

Since approaches for teaching writing are the main target of this research, they were grouped into three approaches (product, process, and combined). How each approach operates has been explored in the present study. The following is a description of the most significant features.

9.3.1 Product Approach Strategies

When writing occupational texts according to the product approach, as seen in Chapters Seven and Eight, writers produced texts on the basis of a fixed model by examining and analysing the linguistic features and following this model, while making such changes to vocabulary, grammar, expressions, and links as were needed to produce to the new text, confirming the findings in the literature analysed in Chapter Four, section 4.5.1.

This approach provides the writer with a wide range of structural patterns, lexical items, writing conventions and styles; it also indirectly provides resources, support, motivation, guidance, and experience in writing new texts. This result is consistent with Campbell (1998:3), who notes that the product approach helps the learner (writer) to become competent to write texts in similar styles.

Writing according to the product approach ensured that the text was produced without errors, whether in spelling or grammar, and imitations of the fixed model ensured that the first draft was also the final draft; thus, writers' motivation was increased, because they were enabled to produce a text more or less free of errors (see Watson 1982:6, Hedge 1988:8, and MacDonough and Show 1993:178).

A valuable part of this approach was group work as a communicative activity, although the group discussions focused on how the learners (writers) imitated the text, rather than on generating and creating it.

9.3.2 Process Approach Strategies

Our survey, as shown in Chapter Eight (Section 8.2.1, and 8.2.3.2), indicates that the writer of occupational texts according to the process approach uses several writing stages (clear thinking and preparation before writing, drafting, revising, and editing) to produce occupational texts. These stages are not distinct but recursive in nature and need to be used creatively; they interact continuously. Thus, the writer of occupational texts according to this approach moves back and forth from one stage to another, to make sure the text is achieving its aim and fulfilling the reader's expectations. This result is consistent with the claims made by previous writers (Caudery 1997:3; White and Arndt 1988:3; Tribble 1996: 37- 39, Raimes 1985:229; Brown and Hood 1989:9; Haneda and Wells 2000:434; Ameira 2001:28; and Hyland 2002:23) (Chapter Four sections 4.5.2).

The findings of the study suggest that these stages may be ranked in order of importance for the writing of occupational texts as follows:

9.3.2.1 Preparation (pre-writing)

This stage appeared of primary importance in writing occupational texts, the reason being that it is the real and actual beginning of the writing process. In addition, the data (Chapter Eight, section 8.2.1.1) show that writers at this stage concentrate firstly on the preparation and generation of the main ideas of the text, which is one of the most important and difficult aspects of preparing to write occupational texts. The interview data (Chapter Eight, section 8.3) revealed that respondents saw this stage as important because it allows the writer to discuss and prepare what will be necessary in terms of ideas that express the topic in a clear way and fulfil the aim of the text. Observation (reported in section 8.2.3.2.1) revealed that during this stage, participants took some time before starting to communicate and exchange their ideas (Tasks 1 and 3). This finding is consistent with the claim by Harris (1993: 45-46) that the writer in the preparation stage needs time to discuss and examine with others the ideas he/she has produced. This result is also consistent with White and Arndt (1988:7), who also note that this stage may be problematic and that the difficulties associated with it may hinder the writer (Chapter Four, section 4.5.2). Secondly, the data show that the writer concentrated during this stage on choosing the most suitable

vocabulary, expressions, style, and grammatical structures in order to express the topic in a logical way and be able to fulfil the reader's expectations. Similar aims for this stage were discussed by Peacock (1986:6), Adegbija (1991:228), and Harris (1993:45-46). Our observations and interviews (Chapter Eight, Section, 8.2.1.1, 8.3) also indicated that the amount of time the writer spent on the preparation stage depended on the nature of the task and the reader of the text (e.g. Tasks 1 and 3 see Chapter Eight). These results confirm the hypothesis suggested by the present researcher, that knowing the nature of the task and the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader will contribute to determining the appropriate type of writing strategies used to teach the writing of texts (Chapter Five).

My observation (Chapter Eight, section 8.2.3.2.1) demonstrates that group work is an appropriate activity for the preparation stage. It can provide the writer with a wide range of choices, which helps him/her to generate and select the ideas, expressions, vocabulary, writing conventions, and styles necessary to write effective texts. It enables writers (learners) to deal with the real situations that they may encounter in their occupational field; therefore, this type of activity is an authentic one, related to real situations. This communicative activity appeared to increase the motivation of the writers (learners) to write the text, consistent with what has been described in the literature (Long and Porter 1985:219; Brooks and Grundy 1990:69; Reid 1993:155; Raimes 1998:153; and Shin 2002:28,) and reported in Chapter Four (section 4.5.2). Therefore, it is important to use this kind of communicative activity, when using the process approach, to teach preparation strategies.

9.3.2.2 Revising

Revising came second in importance, according to the results of our observation (Chapter Eight, section 8.2.1, 8.2.3.2). The writer in this stage re- writes what he/she has written, paying more attention to the logical organization of ideas and to the clarity of the content and style, for example, combining several sentences to form one sentence. Participants reported that, through revision, they aimed to ensure that the content and purposes of the text were clear to and suitable for the reader and that the aim of the text in the particular writing situation was achieved. This result is in agreement with those of Brown and Hood (1989:20). There were indications that

during this stage, writers of occupational texts may need to return to the preparation stage to make changes in ideas, expressions, and vocabulary in order to improve the logical flow of ideas and render the content and style more clear.

Writers at this stage have the opportunity to reconsider what they have written and may as a result discover more clearly what they want to say. This process ensures that no parts are vaguely written and no words are used incorrectly. The findings in this respect are consistent with other findings in the ELT literature (Murray 1978:134; Taylor 1981:7; Sommers 1980: 383; and 1982:17; Meredith 1985: 231; and Chenoweth 1987:26), which were discussed in Chapter Four.

Group work, as a communicative activity, is important in revising occupational texts: it helps make the revising process fun, thus increasing the writer's motivation. Therefore, using group work is important in teaching revising strategies according to the process approach (e.g. Tasks 1 and 3, Chapter Eight).

9.3.2.3 Editing

The editing stage was considered third in importance (Chapter Eight, section 8.2.1, 8.2.3.2). Here, the writer concentrates on editing grammatical and spelling errors to ensure that the text achieves a minimum standard of acceptability to the reader and that communication is not impeded. The writer focuses on choice of words, word order and punctuation and is concerned with the clarity, coherence and logic of the text. It was revealed from our interviews in Chapter Eight, that the amount of editing undertaken depends on three factors: the type of task, the reader of the text, and the language aspects used to write the text. This result confirms the suggestion made by the researcher in setting out the research model: that the nature of the task (content), and the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader (context) and the aspects used in writing the occupational text will contribute to determining appropriate teaching strategies which will help the writer to perform effectively (see Chapter Five).

Again, group work, as a communicative activity, was vital to the editing stage for both teachers and writers/learners. It is an activity that gives rise to a wide range of

discussions, which help writers to edit the text in a communicative and cooperative way (Tasks 1 and 3).

9.3.2.4 Drafting

The drafting stage was considered the least important in writing occupational texts. At this stage the writer writes down as many ideas as possible without paying attention to correct spelling, grammar, punctuation, coherence or clarity. The reason for its relative lack of importance may be that writers postponed this activity to the revising and editing stages. At this stage the writer moves from thinking about writing and preparing for it to the act of writing itself. In addition, he/she may begin at any point in the text and continue in no logical order, as indicated in the literature cited in Chapter Four (Harris 1993:46; White b 1988:9; Brown and Hood 1989:19).

9.3.3 Combination Approach: Product & Process Strategies

The evidence supports our proposition that there is a need to combine the strategies of the two writing approaches (product and process) when teaching the writing of Arabic for occupational purposes. This need is determined by three factors which writers of occupational text need to comprehend in order to write effectively: the variety of writing tasks carried out in the workplace (e.g. writing market research reports, memos, messages, job applications, letters), the nature of the relationship between the writer and the reader of the text (e.g. high-ranking/ low-ranking management), and the linguistic features used to write the texts.

The task outcomes revealed that combining of strategies of both approaches (product and process) could help writers to write occupational texts effectively by enabling them to cope with the variety of writing tasks used in the workplace, address different readers appropriately, and produce texts characterized by the accurate use of various elements of language. The strategies of both approaches were found to support each other. Therefore, the combination of the two approaches for the teaching of writing can meet writers' (learners') needs in the workplace. To put this in practical terms, using a model (the product approach) as the basis of writing a text reinforces the accuracy of what is written by providing examples of correct grammar, presenting a range of relevant vocabulary, demonstrating the use of punctuation,

fully using a variety of sentence structures, teaching the conventions of layout, and ensuring correct spelling. This result seems to be compatible with some studies in the literature (Hedge 1988:8) as seen in Chapter Four. Moreover, using a model increases the writer's understanding of the organization of a text and of writing conventions in general. The implications of the present study in this respect are consistent with some studies conducted by Campbell (1998:3), and Dudley Evans and St. John (1998:116). Subsequently, the writer of occupational texts is able to apply this knowledge to produce texts, which depend on the use of several writing stages (process approach).

On the other hand, it was also found that writing in several stages (the process approach) reinforced the fluency of what was being written, by giving the writer the opportunity to understand the process involved in producing the text and thus to improve on it. Multiple drafts went through several stages (generation, development of the ideas, composing, evaluation) to produce the final draft, a process which helped to increase the fluency of the writing, as discussed by Caudery (1997:13). Thus, combining appropriate aspects of both writing approaches (product and process) will increase the writer's (learner's) competence in terms of both fluency and accuracy in writing occupational texts. This view is supported by Ameira (2001:87), who emphasises that writing is defined not only in terms of how it is brought to completion (process), but also in terms of the knowledge base that goes into it (product); and this dichotomy is inevitable in the teaching of foreign/second languages. Therefore, teaching writing should contain both exercises which concentrate on accuracy (product), and those which stimulate fluency (process). Therefore a combination of both approaches in the teaching of writing for occupational purposes will best meet learners' writing needs in the workplace.

Finally, it may be said that the results support the proposed framework presented earlier; specifically, the researcher suggested that to develop the effectiveness of the teaching of writing, which will help learners of writing for occupational purposes to perform well in the workplace, the strategies of both approaches (product and process) should be combined in the AFL/ASL classroom, a suggestion consistent with the views of several previous writers (Macky 1994:202, Eustace 1996:53,

Pennington *et al.* 1997:12; Campbell 1998:12; Narantnya 1999: 12; Nunan 2000:88; and Ameira 2001: 77).

9.4 Implications of the Study

Teaching writing for occupational purposes should meet the writer's (learner's) needs in the workplace. The study's findings suggest that teachers should discover learners' occupational needs by means of survey, questionnaire, interviews or other means. On the basis of that knowledge, teachers could develop appropriate writing tasks for their learners, for inclusion and implementation in the syllabus, as studies conducted by a number of researchers have shown (Kennedy and Bolitho 1984:28; Widdowson 1981:2; Hutchinson and Water 1987:53; and Dudley Evans and St. John 1998:122) (Chapter Three, section 3.4).

We showed in Chapter Seven that the variety of writing tasks carried out in the workplace requires the use of a combination of two approaches to the teaching of writing strategies. It is our belief, therefore, that teachers should combine two approaches to the teaching of writing strategies, product and process, in order to enable the learners to develop the skills to deal effectively with this variety when writing occupational texts. To increase the motivation of the writers (learners) the teacher should use various real and authentic texts (tasks) drawn from the workplace.

The findings indicate that writers communicate with a range of readers from different occupational/social levels. This means they need the ability to produce texts in a wide variety of styles, ranging from the informal to the highly formal, suitable to the reader and his/her expectations. These skills can best be developed by using both the product and process approaches in writing classes. This view is congruent with Narantuya (1999:21), who argues that a writer needs to produce different kinds of texts, which should be suitable for different readers. In practice, the teacher should use activities and exercises, which focus on imitation, and models as a resource of linguistic and cultural information. Learners will learn by examining and analysing the organization of the text and the conventions and expressions exemplified in the model. At the same time, the teacher should teach the skills of writing by focusing on preparation, drafting, revising and editing, which help to produce the text in a way

that ensures the clarity of the content and coherence of ideas, in order to be suitable for the reader and meet his/her expectations.

Writing occupational texts requires variety in the use of language aspects. Teachers could develop appropriate strategies to focus on the accuracy of what is written (product) (see Zamel 1982:195). It is recommended that teachers should use exercises and activities to develop the accuracy of the learners' writing; models could be used as a basis for the study and manipulation of grammatical and structural forms (product). At the same time the teacher should encourage the writer (learner) to apply this linguistic knowledge in composing a series of drafts (process), and revising and editing the text.

It was indicated in Chapters Seven and Eight that the process approach involves several writing stages (preparation, drafting, revising, and editing), and it was recommended that the teacher should encourage the writer (learner) to be the creator of the text by choosing the topic, generating and developing the ideas and expressions, writing spontaneously and evaluating what he/she has written. Therefore, the learner should be allowed to write several drafts before producing the final draft, and all available activities and tools should be used. Raimes (1991:409-410) notes that the learner should be given the opportunity to choose the topic, formulate ideas and write multiple drafts.

Group work, as the findings revealed, is a vital activity in writing texts according to the process approach and it is suggested that teachers should encourage this type of communicative activity, thus providing a wide range of stimuli and interactions which will lead to a feeling of enjoyment in writing the text, and hence to increase the motivation. Group discussions are also an effective activity in writing occupational texts according to the product approach. In this context, teachers should allow a wide range of interaction, permitting the learners to decide as a group how best to use a model as a resource for writing a new text. This, too, will make the writing class enjoyable.

Finally, combining both approaches in the teaching of writing strategies will help learners of Arabic for occupational purposes to perform more successfully in the

workplace. We recommend that teachers and especially designers of the TAOP syllabus take account of both approaches. Teachers could then develop appropriate teaching strategies including exercises and tasks utilizing both approaches and implement them within the syllabus. At the beginning of the programme, the teacher should focus on accuracy (the product approach) through the use of models, then progressively move toward concentrating on fluency (the process approach) through the use of the stages of composition (see Ameira 2001:87).

9.5 Recommendations for Further Research

This is the first empirical study on teaching writing Arabic for occupational purposes conducted in the context of Teaching Arabic as a Second Language for Specific Purposes (TASLSP) in Kuwait. Further research could replicate this study, with some relevant adjustments to the research methodology, in different TAFL/TASL situations with different AFL/ASL learners.

The study's sample was composed of advanced learners only. It might be useful to undertake a study similar to the present one, but with elementary or intermediate learners.

This study has investigated approaches to teaching writing for occupational purposes. Further research may find that there is a need to investigate approaches to teaching writing for academic purposes.

The combination of both approaches (product and process) proposed in this study for the teaching of writing for occupational purposes is a basic framework that could be developed further. In particular, more practical tasks and activities need to be developed.

Further research could focus on teaching reading for occupational purposes. I would therefore suggest that investigation be carried out of the types of activities and tasks, which are more suitable to teach reading Arabic for occupational purposes.

Another area, of course, is to focus on teaching speaking for occupational purposes. This would be particularly useful for those learners who will need to address meetings and conferences. In addition, investigation could focus on teaching learners to communicate effectively with customers, whether using standard or colloquial Arabic, a matter we have considered in Chapter Two.

9.6 Conclusion

The present study has shed some light on the teaching of writing for occupational purposes in Kuwait. It is the first empirical research to address this subject. The significance of the study is that it was applied to Arabic in a TESOL context. It is also noteworthy that this study presents a developed model for teaching writing for occupational purposes by combining the teaching of both kinds of writing strategies, the product and process strategies.

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Appendices

Appendix A

A Model Lesson

Task: Writing a short report

Level: Advanced

Class Time: 90 minutes

Aim:

The aim of this model is to show how the strategies of both approaches (product and process) may be combined in teaching Arabic writing for occupational purposes. The students mentioned are non-Arab learners who have an advanced level of competence in Arabic, and having studied the language for three years, and who are fluent writers in the writing and specking *fuṣḥā*. All students have four to six hours a week with thirty teaching weeks in an academic year. They have been exposed to and trained in using the strategies of both approaches.

The Teaching Material

The students are presented with a fixed model in the form of an authentic report, which has a related, but not identical subject area and a similar but not identical reader (in terms of status and position). The students will use this fixed model as a resource in writing their own text. They are asked to:

1- think about the content of the model (the information included, the questions considered, the ideas expressed);
2- look closely at the language used with particular attention to the reader's expectations;
3- look closely at the organization of the ideas, noting the style employed by the writer and general coherence of the text.

Instructions:

1- Write a report addressed to the general manager of a governmental organization describing the various aspects of a commercial product that your company produces. The purpose of the report is to persuade the reader of the excellence of your product. Write the report covering the following points:

a- State the nature of your product.

b- Use figures and statistical data among other evidences in order to show why your customers prefer your company to other companies.

c- What are the reasons for their preference? Consider for example price, quality, service, marketing, optimal dealing etc.

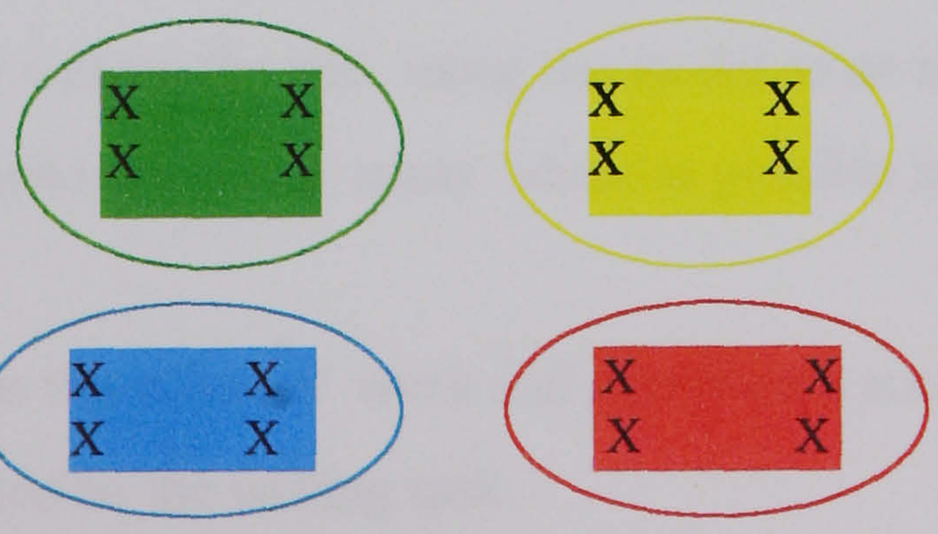
2- Use the given fixed model as a resource for writing your text, and to understand how the text is organized (content, format etc.). Look closely at the language conventions, style, expression, and language features.

3- Perform your task using the four basic writing stages (preparation, drafting, revising, and editing) in order to explore the topic, ideas and expressions, and then revise it again to produce the final version of the text.

Procedure:

1- The teacher explains the purposes of the task and the procedure to the students.

2- The teacher divides the class into four groups. It is assumed there are 16 in this particular class, four students to each group.



3- The teacher presents the topic by writing it on the board or using OHP transparencies and gives background information about the topic.
4- The teacher provides each student with a model report to use as a resource for producing his or her own text.
5- The teacher tells the students that they have 90 minutes to complete.

The processing of the lesson:

The lesson is processed according to the following stages:

Stage One: Preparation (pre-writing) Stage

1- The teacher asks the students to discuss the task following these procedures:
   a- Skim through the model and discuss the language, reader, and purposes.
   b- Consider carefully the reader of the text and his or her expectations.
   c- What is the writer's relationship with the reader?
   d- What are the purposes of the writing?
2- The teacher helps the students to identify their reader and the purposes of the text.
3- The teacher encourages the students to discuss and prepare the main ideas to be included in the text.
   a- The students prepare the main ideas concerning the subject.
   b- Some students talk while others listen and make notes that are developed into ideas.
   c- During the discussions the students raise questions that help to generate new ideas.
   d- The students choose and prepare the expressions, style, mode of address, and so on related to writing the text, using the model as an information resource.
   e- The students write down as many ideas as possible in the form of lists and notes.
4- The teacher observes the students' work and contributes some ideas, expressions and vocabulary related to the writing task.

Stage Two: Drafting Stage:

Based on the group discussions the teacher asks the students to start writing the first draft.

1- The teacher helps the students to get started by reminding them of the processes of this stage.
   a- Working in groups, the students write the ideas that they have prepared in the form of a number of sentences.
   b- The students study the model in order to look closely at the language used, and underline or make notes regarding any useful sentences, expressions, and conventions that will help them to write the text and to understand how to organize the information.
   c- During the discussion the students choose suitable sentences they have written that express their ideas clearly.
   d- The students compare the sentences they have written with their peers.
   e- The students join the sentences they have written to form paragraphs.
2- The teacher encourages the students to look again at any notes they have made.
3- The teacher contributes some new sentences that will help the students to write the text.

Stage Three: Revising Stage:

1- The teacher asks the students to think about the format, structure and style of their text. It might be helpful to consider the questions during this stage:
   a- Who is the reader? Have his or her expectations been taken into account?
   b- What is the nature of the writer's relationship with the reader? Is this clearly indicated in the mode of address and the language used?
   c- Should the style be formal or informal? Has the appropriate style been chosen?
   d- What is the main purpose of the text? Has this purpose been achieved?
2- The teacher asks the students to discuss the given model to understand its organization, its style and the writing conventions used, and its coherence, in order to apply these in writing the text.
3- The teacher encourages the students to decide how to present their text:

a- The students discuss the possible areas of content and the sentences they need to include to express relevant points in the clearest way.

b- The students, working in groups, arrange the sentences in logical order.

4- The teacher provides suggestions on how the students might revise the text:

a- The students revise the text, paying special attention to the organization of its ideas and its logical structure, and to the clarity of the content and style.

b- The students revise the text to ensure that no parts are vaguely written.

5- The teacher encourages the students to compare what they have written with the given model in terms of the following points:

a- Check the way the purposes are fulfilled and the reader's expectations are considered.

b- Check format (layout), writing conventions, expressions, organization and coherence.

c- Check whether there are any unclear sentences that need to be re-written.

Stage Four: Editing Stage:

1- The students re-write the text.

2- The students compare their text with the given model.

3- The students discuss ways to improve the draft by focusing not only on the organization and flow of the ideas, but also on grammatical accuracy.

4- The teacher asks the students to edit their text: they may consult the teacher or the group members.

5- The students evaluate each other's drafts and correct any spelling and grammatical mistakes.

6- The teacher helps the students with the process by reading and commenting on their drafts and correcting errors.

7- The teacher asks the students to compare for the last time what they have written with the given model, so that they will be able to spot the strengths and weaknesses in terms of writing conventions, style, expressions and so on.

8- The students exchange what they have written with the members of the group and give comments.

9- The students make the final changes and write the final draft before submission.

Conclusion:

In this model lesson we have attempted to show how a combination of both approaches (product and process) might work in practice, and why it is important to use both approaches in teaching Arabic writing for occupational purposes. In short we have attempted to apply a current theory of teaching writing strategies to practice, and to adapt the theory to meet the needs of the students.

Appendix B (English Version[1])

The Main Field Study: Employees' Questionnaire

University of Leeds

Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies

Section A: Background Information about Respondents' Companies/Institutions

1- Name of company/institution----------

2- The sector in which you work (private or governmental).

3- The year the company was established. ----------

4- Number of employees- ----------

❁ Please compete this part of questionnaire (5-17) by indicating with a tick for each question.

5- Instructions are given to employees in:

(please choose only **one** answer)

Arabic	☐
English	☐
Arabic and English	☐
Other	☐

[1] The full Arabic version is available from the researcher.

Section B: Demographic Information about the Respondent

Name (Optional): ----------

6- Age range:

18 - 24	☐
25 - 30	☐
31 - 36	☐
37 - 42	☐
43 - 49	☐
Over 50	☐

7- Gender Male ☐ Female ☐

8- Nationality ----------

9- First language ----------

10- Second language ----------

11- Qualifications:

(please choose only **one** answer)

Secondary or High School certificate	☐
Diploma	☐
University degree and above	☐

12- Your job category is

(please choose only **one** answer)

Senior manager	☐
Middle manager	☐
Executive Secretary	☐

13- You have worked in Kuwait in your current job for

(please choose only **one** answer)

1 - 5 years ☐

6 - 10 years ☐

11- 15 years ☐

16 - 20 years ☐

More than 20 years ☐

14- Was the job that you had before you came to Kuwait similar to your current job in Kuwait?

Yes ☐ No ☐

15- Before working in Kuwait, you had worked for

(please choose only **one** answer)

1 - 5 years ☐

6 - 10 years ☐

11- 15 years ☐

16 - 20 years ☐

More than 20 years ☐

16- You use Arabic most often

(please choose only **one** answer)

At work ☐

Outside work ☐

Both ☐

17- You learned Arabic through

(please choose only **one** answer)

Interaction with others at work ☐

Attending Arabic language courses ☐

Both ☐

Section C: The Need to Learn Arabic

18- Do you need to learn Arabic?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(if yes, answer 19, if no, go to 20)

❁ Please complete this part of the questionnaire by indicating with a tick (✓) how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement made.

19- Your reasons for learning Arabic are:

No.	Motive	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
19/1	To improve your social status				
19/2	It is necessary for your work				
19/3	To improve your career prospects				
19/4	To be effective in your work				
19/5	To work in Arabic speaking countries				
19/6	You enjoy learning foreign languages				
19/7	To understand Arab culture				

Section D: Language Skills Related to the Occupational Field

Language Skills Related

❁ Please complete this part of the questionnaire by indicating with a tick (✓) how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement.

20- From your understanding of the requirements of your job, you consider the following language skills as important for your work:

No.	Skills	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
20/1	Speaking and listening				
20/2	Reading				
20/3	Writing				

21- If you were to take an Arabic course, you would need to learn:

No.	Skills	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
21/1	Speaking and listening				
21/2	Reading				
21/3	Writing				

Section E: The Factors Governing the Writing of Occupational Texts

E/1: Types of Writing Tasks (Writing Content).

❁ Please complete this part of the questionnaire by choosing the appropriate answer from scale (very often to never) and ticking your choice.

22- At work, you write:

No	Text type	Very often	Often	Not often	Never
22/1	Memos				
22/2	Letters and faxes				
22/3	Notes				
22/4	Numerical data (tables and numbers)				
22/5	General reports				
22/6	Emails and web sites				
22/7	Market research reports				
22/8	Financial reports				
22/9	Government department reports				
22/10	Company organization and policy				

23-In dealing with clients and customers, you are asked to perform writing tasks that are related to:

No	Tasks (functions)	Very often	Often	Not often	Never
23/1	Invitations				
23/2	Greetings				
23/3	Thank-you notes				
23/4	Complaints				
23/5	Proposals				
23/6	Requests				
23/7	Apologies				

24- The writing tasks you perform at work require that you:

No	Method	Very often	Often	Not often	Never
24/1	Follow a set models				
24/4	Write without guidelines				

E/2- The Nature of Relationship between Writer and Reader (Context).

❁ Please complete this part of the questionnaire by choosing the appropriate answer from the scale (very often-never) and ticking your choice.

25- At work, you exchange texts with:

No	Personnel	Very often	Often	Not often	Never
25/1	High-ranking management				
25/2	Low-ranking management				
25/3	Colleagues				
25/4	Public officials				
25/5	Private sector companies				

26- When you write texts at work you use:

No	Type of Writing	Very often	Often	Not often	Never
26/1	Formal				
26/2	Informal				
26/3	Both				

E/3- Language Aspects (Language System).

❁ Please complete this part of the questionnaire by choosing the appropriate answer from the scale (very often-never) and ticking your choice.

27- In writing a text related to your work, you need to use:

No	Vocabulary	Very often	Often	Not often	Never
27/1	Specialized				
27/2	General				

28- In writing a text related to your work, you need to use:

No	Form	Very often	Often	Not often	Never
28/1	Statements				
28/2	Interrogatives				
28/3	Conditionals				

29- In writing a text related to your work, you need to use:

No	Voice	Very Often	Often	Not Often	Never
29/1	Passive				
29/2	Active				

30- In writing a text related to your work you need to use:

No	Punctuation	Very often	Often	Not often	Never
30	Full stop, comma, etc				

Section F: Writing Strategies

❁ Please complete this part of the questionnaire by indicating with a tick (✓) how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement.

31- In your work, you are asked to write texts by following fixed, prepared guidelines.

No	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
31				

32- Following and/ or imitating fixed models makes it easier for you to write and makes what you write more effective.

No	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
32				

F/2- Process Approach

❁ Please complete this part of the questionnaire by indicating with a tick (✓) how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement.

33- The nature of what you write at work requires that you prepare and outline your ideas before you actually write them down.

No	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
33				

34-Preparing and outlining a writing task at work helps you produce an effective written text.

No	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
34				

35- Revising what has been written would help you to produce effective texts at work:

No	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
35				

36- It is necessary to edit what you write to make sure that the ideas are clear and the grammar is correct.

No	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
36				

Thank you for filling in the questionnaire

Appendix C (English Version)

The Main Field Study: Observation Tasks

The University of Leeds

Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies

TASK ONE

TOPIC: LETTER OF COMPLAINT

Time: 30 minutes.

Level: Advanced

Subject:

You are having a problem with some goods or services you have paid for. Write a letter of complaint to the organization concerned (governmental or non-governmental), covering the following points:

1- The problem.
2- You have paid the whole amount.
3- Ask the organization to send some information about your rights in this matter.
4- What action will they take to deal with this situation?
5- The action that you will take to deal with this matter if you are not satisfied with their response.

Procedures:

1- Work in pairs or groups to discuss and prepare your ideas.
2- Try to find new ideas that will help you to write your report.

3- Write down some sentences.

4- Compare and discuss what you have written with another group.

5- Revise carefully what you have written in terms of reorganizing the sentences and shifting the emphasis, focusing on the information, the style and the content.

6- Edit what you have written to check the grammar, the vocabulary, and the surface features (punctuation, spelling and layout).

TASK TWO

TOPIC: WRITING A LETTER

Time: 30 minutes.

Level: Advanced.

Subject:

You are the manager of a service department in a car agency. You have received a letter of complaint from a customer who brought his/her car in for maintenance. The customer complains about a problem that has arisen after service by your department. Write a letter to the customer, covering the following points:

1- The excellence of your service.
2- Generally customers are very satisfied with your service.
3- The company is keen to maintain good customer relations.
4- You are going to send a specialist to visit the customer and discuss the whole matter with him/her in order to find a solution.

Write a letter to the complainant using the letter below as a model.

Procedures:

1- Look at the model letter.
2- Look closely at the language conventions, style and layout used.
3- Write your letter using the model as a resource in writing your text.

MODEL

Air-condition Ltd
34 Shāriᶜ al-Burj
Khaldiyah, P.O. 1254
Tel: 4523652
Fax: 4523878
e-mail Habeb@hb.com

Mr Habeb Bader
34 Shāriᶜ al-Taᶜawan
Shāmiyah. P.O. 4687
Tel: 4719876
Fax: 5329870

Dear Mr. Bader,

Thank you for your letter of May 13, informing us of the problems you have experienced with our air conditioning unit. We sincerely regret that our product has not performed to your satisfaction and were, in fact, surprised to hear this since we receive so many letters from satisfied customers who all report not only trouble-free functioning but also lower electricity bills. It is because of our good reputation that we intend to do all we can to ensure your complaint is dealt with immediately.

We shall send our representative, Mr. Kalied Mohammed, to visit you and discuss this problem further. As Mr. Mohammed is a qualified engineer he will also be able to check the faults you claim have occurred since installation. There is likely to be some simple explanation for these.

We would be grateful if you could telephone this office at your earliest convenience to arrange a suitable time for Mr. Mohammed to visit.

In the meantime, we would like to assure you that we will do all that we can to continue to ensure your satisfaction with our products.

Hafez
Customer Service Manager

TASK THREE

TOPIC: PROJECT TO OFFER A COMMERCIAL BID TO IMPROVE CAR MARKETING SYSTEM.

Time: 60 minutes.

Level: Advanced

SUBJECT

You are the manager of the customer relations department in a fairly large marketing company. Write to the sales manager of a car dealership who has asked your company to help improve his company's sales system. The task consists of two parts:

PART ONE

Write a letter to the sales manager, providing him with general information about your company, including:

1- Date of establishment of your company.
2- Size of workforce when your company was established.
3- Size of present workforce.
4- Size of business.
5- Competitive price.
6- Contact number.

Procedures:

1- Look at the model letter.
2- Look closely at the language, conventions and style used.
3- Write a letter giving particular information about your company by following the model below, using it as a resource in writing your text.

MODEL

Al- Najah Imports Ltd.

Tel: 768543

Fax: 657209

e-mail: Farried@AN.com

Mr Ahmed Farried

19 Shāriᶜ al-Badir

Kuwait.P.O 1243.

Dear Mr Ahmed

Thank you for your letter of Feburary 16, asking for general information about our company. I am writing to give you the information you requested.

Our company was initially established in 1960, so we have many years' experience of importing. During the past four decades we have grown the company substantially and we are now one of the best known companies in Kuwait in our field. Our workforce has expanded from only 9 staff in 1960 to 512 in 2001. Our technical staff are well qualified and are known to be highly competent specialists. You may therefore employ our services with complete confidence in our abilities.

As you will see from the enclosed brochure, we offer a very wide range of services, and I would like to emphasize that our prices are very competitive, and that we ensure that our goods are always in perfect condition.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you would like any further information. I can be contacted on the above numbers.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Abdullah Mohammad.

Manager, Customer Relations Department.

PART TWO

Subject:

Write a marketing report about how to improve car sales. Write this report using statistical data in order to show that people prefer your company to your competitors. Also, indicate the reasons for the company's success; you may consider price, quality, service, marketing expertise, optimal dealing etc.

Procedures:

1- Work in pairs or groups to discuss and prepare your ideas.
2- Try to find new ideas that may help you to write your task.
3- Write down some sentences.
4- Compare and discuss what you have written with another group.
5- Revise carefully what you have written in terms of reorganizing the sentences and shifting the emphasis, focusing on the information, the style and the content.
6- Edit what you have written to check the grammar, the vocabulary, and the surface features (punctuation, spelling and layout).

Appendix D (Arabic Version)

The Main Field Study: Observation Tasks

The University of Leeds

Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies

التطبيق الأول

رسالة شكوى

الوقت: ٣٠ دقيقة

المستوى: المتقدم

الموضوع:

لديك مشكلة بخصوص بعض السلع والخدمات التي اشتريتها وقمت بالدفع لها. اكتب رسالة شكوى إلى الهيئة أو المؤسسة المختصة (حكومية أو غير حكومية) موضحاً فيها النقاط التالية:

١- المشكلة.

٢- المبلغ قد دفع مقدماً.

٣- اطلب من المؤسسة/الهيئة المختصة إرسال بعض المعلومات حول حقوقك في هذا الخصوص.

٤- طبيعة الإجراءات التي ستتخذها المؤسسة\الهيئة لمعالجة هذا الموقف.

٥- طبيعة الإجراءات التي ستتخذها أنت لمعالجة هذا الأمر في حالة عدم اقتناعك في الرد، وموقف المؤسسة/الهيئة المختصة.

الإجراءات:

١- من خلال عمل المجموعات أو الأزواج قمْ بإعداد الأفكار المرتبطة بكتابة النص.

٢- حاول إيجاد أفكار جديدة قد تساعدك في كتابة الموضوع.

٣- قارن وناقش ما قمت بكتابته مع مجموعة أخرى في الفصل.

٤- اكتبْ بعض الجمل المرتبطة بالموضوع.

٥- راجِعْ ما قمت بكتابته آخذاً بعين الاعتبار إعادة ترتيب الجمل ومركزاً بشكل خاص على المحتوى والأسلوب.

٦- قُمْ بتدقيق و مراجعة ما كتبته وذلك لتفحص القواعد والمفردات والخصائص الشكلية والأسلوبية للنص (كعلامات الترقيم وتركيب النص).

التطبيق الثاني

كتابة رسالة

الوقت: ٣٠ دقيقة

المستوى: المتقدم

الموضوع:

أنت تعمل كمدير في قسم الخدمات بوكالة سيارات. تلقيت شكوى من قبل أحد الزبائن الذي احضـــر ســـيارته للصيانة مفادها أنه اكتشف ظهور مشكلة في السيارة وذلك بعد إتمام الصيانة لها من قبل قسمكم (قسم الصيانـة).

اكتب رسالة جوابية إلى صاحب الشكوى توضح فيها النقاط التالية:

١- درجة الامتياز والجودة العالية التي يتمتع بها القسم.

٢- بشكل عام هناك اقتناع ورضا من قِبل الزبائن بما يقدم من خدمات.

٣- حرص الشركة على الحفاظ على علاقات جيدة مع الزبائن.

٤- سوف تقوم بإرسال اختصاصي لزيارة الزبون (مقدم الشكوى) ومناقشة المشكلة من أجل التوصل إلى حل.

اكتب رسالة إلى مقدم الشكوى متخذاً الرسالة التالية نموذجاً ومصدراً لكتابة الرسالة.

النموذج

٩-٥-٢٠٠٢

السيد بدر حبيب المحترم

نشكركم على رسالتكم المؤرخة في ١٣-٥-٢٠٠٢ والتي تعلموننا فيها بالمشاكل التي واجهتموها فيما يخص وحدة التكييف. نأسف من أعماقنا لعدم نيل رضاكم بِمُنْتَجِنا. في الواقع أُدْهِشْنا لدى سَماعِنا شكواكم

وخاصة كوننا نتلقى رسائل عديدة من زبائن ابدوا رضاهم بما نقدمه من منتجات وخدمات ليس فقط فيما يخص الآلية العملية للمنتج (الخالية من المشاكل) بل وأيضا ما يخص انخفاض استهلاك الكهرباء كما توضحـــــه فواتـــير الزبائن وذلك بسبب سمعتنا الجيدة وحرصنا على القيام بكل ما في وسعنا لضمان معالجة شكواكم بشكل فوري.

سوف نرسل مندوبنا السيد محمد خالد لزيارتكم ومناقشة المشكلة بكافة أبعادها، ولكون السيد خالد مهندساً مؤهلاً فسيكون قادراً على تتبع الأعطال التي ذكرتم إنها قد حصلت منذ تركيب وحدة التكيف. ومن المحتمـــل أن يكون هناك بعض التوضيحات بهذا الشأن.

وسوف نكون شاكرين لكم إذا ما اتصلتم بمكتبنا لترتيب موعد مناسب لزيارة السيد خالد.

وفي هذه الأثناء يسرنا أن نؤكد لكم أننا سنقدم كل ما بوسعنا لاستمرار ثقتكم بمنتجاتنا.

حفيظ محمد

مدير قسم خدمات الزبائن.

الإجراءات:

١- تمعن في نموذج الرسالة.

٢- تفحص قواعد اللغة والأسلوب والترتيب في النموذج.

٣- اكتب رسالتك متخذاً نموذج الرسالة أعلاه مصدراً لكتابة رسالتك.

التطبيق الثالث

مشروع تقديم عرض تجاري لتطوير نظام تسويق السيارات

الوقت: ٦٠ دقيقة

المستوى: المتقدم

الموضوع:

تعمل مديراً لقسم العلاقات العامة في شركة تسويق كبيرة نسبياً خاطب مدير مبيعات إحدى وكالات السيارات الذي قد طلب من شركتكم المساعدة في تطوير نظام مبيعات شركته.

يتكون هذا النص من قسمين:

القسم الأول

اكتب رسالةً لمدير المبيعات تطلعه فيها على معلومات عامة حول شركتكم تشمل:

١- تاريخ تأسيس شركتكم.

٢- حجم العمالة في الشركة عندما تأسست.

٣- حجم العمالة حالياً.

٤- حجم ونشاط عمل الشركة.

٥- الأسعار التنافسية.

٦- أرقام الاتصال (أو عنوان المراسلة).

الإجراءات:

١- تمعن في نموذج الرسالة.

٢- تفحص قواعد اللغة والأسلوب والترتيب المستخدم في النموذج.

٣- اكتب رسالتك متخذاً نموذج الرسالة التالية مصدراً لكتابة رسالتك.

النموذج

تليفون ٧٦٨٥٤٣

فاكس٦٥٧٢٠٩

٢-٢-٢٠٠٢

السيد فريد أحمد المحترم

نشكركم على رسالتكم المؤرخة في ١٦-٢-٢٠٠٢ والتي تسألون فيها عن معلومات عامة حول شركتنا.

كما واغتنم هذه الفرصة لاطلاعكم على المعلومات التي طلبتموها.

تأسست شركتنا في عام ١٩٦٠ ومنذ ذلك الحين اكتسبنا خبرة واسعة في مجال الاستيراد. فخلال العقود الماضية استطعنا تطوير شركتنا بشكل مميز وها نحن الآن إحدى اشهر الشركات سمعةً في الكويت في هذا المجال. لقد اتسعت عمالتنا من ٩ موظفين منذ تأسيس الشركة إلى ٥١٢ موظفاً في عام ٢٠٠١. ويعتبر طاقمنا التقني مؤهلاً بشكل جيد ويمتاز بجدارة عالية في الاختصاص، وبالتالي يمكنكم توظيف خدماتنا بثقة تامة بقدرتنا.

وكما سترون في الدليل المرفق، فإننا نقدم لكم مجالاً واسعاً للخدمات المتعددة، كما يسرني أن أؤكد لكم أن أسعارنا تنافسية جداً وبأن بضائعنا في حالة ممتازة على الدوام.

الرجاء عدم التردد في مراسلتنا بغية الحصول على مزيد من المعلومات وبإمكانكم الاتصال بنا على الأرقام المدونة أعلاه.

نتطلع لاتصالاتكم في أقرب وقت.

محمد عبد الله

مدير قسم العلاقات العامة.

القسم الثاني

اكتب تقرير تسويقي حول تطوير نظام مبيعات السيارات مستخدماً في ذلك بيانات إحصائية تبين فيها لماذا يفضل الناس (الزبائن) شركتكم فضلاً عن الشركات المنافسة الاخرى. وضح أسباب نجاح شركتكم آخذاً بعين الاعتبار الأسعار و الجودة والخدمات والخبرة التسويقية وكذلك التعامل العالي المستوى مع الزبائن والعملاء.....الخ.

الإجراءات:

١- من خلال عمل المجموعات أو الأزواج قمْ بإعداد الأفكار المرتبطة بكتابة النص.

٢- حاول إيجاد أفكار جديدة قد تساعدك في كتابة الموضوع.

٣- قارن وناقش ما قمت بكتابته مع مجموعة أخرى في الفصل.

٤- اكتبْ بعض الجمل المرتبطة بالموضوع.

٥- راجِعْ ما قمت بكتابته آخذا بعين الاعتبار إعادة ترتيب الجمل ونقاط التركيز وبشكل خاص المحتوى والأسلوب.

٦- قُمْ بتدقيق و مراجعة ما كتبته وذلك لتفحص القواعد والمفردات والخصائص الشكلية والأسلوبية للنص (كعلامات الترقيم وتركيب النص).

Appendix E

The Main Field Study: Observation Checklist

The University of Leeds

Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern

OBSERVATION CHECKLIST: TASK ONE

Observed Behaviours: How often do participants performed the following behaviours?

A	Preparation	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
A/1	Participants communicate in order to understand the writing topic and prepare the main ideas concerning the subject.				
A/2	During discussions some learners talk while others listen and write down notes that are developed into ideas				
A/3	Participants choose and prepare the diction and expressions related to the writing topic.				
A/4	Some participants raise questions that help in developing and generating new ideas.				
A/5	Participants write their ideas as much as they can.				
Total					

B	Drafting	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
B/1	Every participant in the group writes the ideas he/she has prepared in the form of a list of sentences that are not in order.				
B/2	Participants compare the sentences they have written with their peers.				
B/3	Participants communicate in order to choose the suitable sentences that express the subject clearly then write them down.				
B/4	Participants join the sentences they have written to form paragraphs.				
B/5	Participants do not focus while they are writing at this stage on correcting mistakes in spelling, grammar and punctuation				
Total					

C	Revising	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
C/1	Participants revise the text, then link more than one sentence to form one sentence by replacing the unsuitable elements with more suitable ones				
C/2	Participants revise the text and write clearly and logically in order to fulfil the aim of the writing and the reader's expectations.				
C/3	The participants revise the text paying special attention to the organization of ideas and its logic, the clarity of the content and style.				
C/4	The participants revise what they have written to make sure that there are no parts written vaguely.				
C/5	The participants revise what they have written to make sure that there are no words that are used in a wrong way.				
C/6	The participants revise what they have written to make sure that some conjunctions are added to link the text's paragraphs.				
Total					

D	Editing	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
D/1	Participants edit the written text to focus on the spelling.				
D/2	Participants edit the written text to focus on grammar.				
D/3	Participants edit the written text to focus on punctuation.				
D/4	Participants edit the written text to focus on word order.				
D/5	Participants edit the written text to focus on choice of words.				
D/6	Participants edit the written text to focus repetition.				
D/7	Participants discuss what they have written to make sure of its clarity, coherence and logic.				
Total					

OBSERVATION CHECKLIST: TASK TWO

Observed Behaviours: How often do the participants perform the following behaviour?

	Behaviours	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
1	Participants read the model and discuss how to write a new text by following and imitating the model.				
2	Participants manipulate and analyse the model through looking at grammatical structures, vocabulary, and expressions and writing conventions.				
3	Participants produce text by following the model sentences, changing some vocabulary, expressions, grammar, and links.				
4	Participants read what they have written and compare it with the model.				
5	Participants write the final draft according to the model.				
Total					

OBSERVATION CHECKLIST: TASK THREE

PART ONE

Observed Behaviours: How often do the participants perform the following behaviours?

	Behaviours	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
1	Participants read the model and discuss how to write a new text by following and imitating the model.				
2	Participants manipulate and analyse the model by looking at grammatical structures, vocabulary, and expressions and writing conventions.				
3	Participants produce text by following the model sentences, changing some vocabulary, expressions, grammar, and links.				
4	Participants read what they have written and compare it with the model.				
5	Participants write the final draft according to the model.				
Total					

PART TWO

Observed Behaviours: How often do participants perform the following behaviours?

A	Preparation	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
A/1	Participants communicate in order to understand the writing topic and prepare the main ideas concerning the subject.				
A/2	During discussions some learners talk while others listen and write down notes that are developed into ideas				
A/3	Participants choose and prepare the diction and expressions related to the writing topic.				
A/4	Some participants raise questions that help in developing and generating new ideas.				
A/5	Participants write their ideas as much as they can.				
Total					

B	Drafting	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
B/1	Every participant in the group writes the ideas he/she has prepared in the form of a list of sentences that are not in order.				
B/2	Participants compare the sentences they have written with their peers.				
B/3	Participants communicate in order to choose the suitable sentences that express the subject clearly then write them down.				
B/4	Participants join the sentences they have written to form paragraphs.				
B/5	Participants do not focus while they are writing at this stage on correcting mistakes in spelling, grammar and punctuation.				
Total					

C	Revising	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
C/1	Participants revise the text, then link more than one sentence to form one sentence by replacing the unsuitable elements with more suitable ones				
C/2	Participants revise the text and write clearly and logically in order to fulfil the aim of the writing and the reader's expectations.				
C/3	The participants revise the text paying special attention to the organization of ideas and its logic, the clarity of the content and style.				
C/4	The participants revise what they have written to make sure that there are no parts written vaguely.				
C/5	The participants revise what they have written to make sure that there no words that are used in a wrong way.				
C/6	The participants revise what they have written to make sure that some conjunctions are added to link the text's paragraphs.				
Total					

D	Editing	10 minutes	10 minutes	10 minutes	Total
D/1	Participants edit the written text to focus on the spelling.				
D/2	Participants edit the written text to focus on grammar.				
D/3	Participants edit the written text to focus on punctuation.				
D/4	Participants edit the written text to focus on word order.				
D/5	Participants edit the written text to focus on choice of words.				
D/6	Participants edit the written text to focus repetition.				
D/7	Participants discuss what they have written to make sure of its clarity, coherence and logic.				
Total					

Appendix F

The Main Field Study: Learners' Interview

The University of Leeds

Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies

Background Information:

- Name (optional):.....
- Job category:.....
- Nationality:.....
- Gender: .....
- Age.....

1- Did you face any difficulties in writing Part One of your task?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Please explain:.....

2- Do you prefer to follow and imitate a model when writing a text?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Why or why not?.....

3- Do you think that using a fixed model is suitable for all the writing tasks carried out in your workplace?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Why or why not?.....

4- Do you think different readers require different writing styles?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Why or why not?.....

5- Do you think that group discussions with your colleagues helped you in writing Part One?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, how?.....

6- Do you think it was helpful to prepare (ideas, vocabulary, expressions, etc.) before beginning to write Part Two of your task?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Why or why not?.....

7- Do you think it was necessary to revise and edit what you wrote in Part Two of your task?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Why or why not?.....

8- Do you think discussions with your colleagues (in group work) would have helped you in preparing (ideas, expressions, vocabulary etc.), revising and editing what you wrote in Part Two of your task?

Yes ☐ No ☐

How?.....

9- Based on your own writing in Part Two of your tasks, do you think writing is a recursive process?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, how?.....

10-Which do you think served you better in terms of your writing needs: the first task you wrote (Task one or task Two) or the second task (Task Three)?

First task ☐ Second task ☐

Why?.....

Appendix G

The Main Field Study: Arabic Teachers' Interview

The University of Leeds

Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies

1-Age.....

1- Qualifications.....

2- Place of work.....

4 -How long have you been teaching ASL?

☐ 1-4 years ☐ 5-8 years

☐ 9-12 years ☐ More than 12 years

5- To what extent do you think that using the product approach would help your learners to write successfully?

☐ Very helpful ☐ Fairly helpful ☐ Not helpful

Please explain:.....

6- To what extent do you think that using the process approach would help your learners to write successfully?

☐ Very helpful ☐ Fairly helpful ☐ Not helpful

Please explain:.....

7-How far do you support using two teaching writing approaches (product and process) in AFL classes?

- ☐ I support it very much.
- ☐ I support it.
- ☐ I do not support it.
- ☐ I do not support it very much.

Please explain:.....