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**Reading and Writing Integration to Enhance Students'
Performance in Writing: Case Study of Second Year Students
of English at the Teachers' Training School and Mentouri
Brothers University, Constantine 1**

**Thesis submitted to the Department of Letters and English in Candidacy for the Degree
of LMD Doctorate in Foreign Language Didactics**

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DEDICATION

To the dearest person who passed away before I finish this work and make him proud of me, to my grandfather Mehieddine

You have always wondered when I would stop studying while I answered that my passion cannot have an end

To my grandparents Zoubeida FETSI, Latra and Sebti NOUIOUA

To My loving mother who has been the most helpful and encouraging person without whom this work could have never been completed

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ABSTRACT

Reading and writing are often thought of as integrated skills. Some thinkers consider that they ought to be taught as a single subject, while others see the opposite. In our immediate environment, we notice that in the Teachers Training School they are taught as separate modules; while in Mentouri University there is no room for reading. This situation leads us to think that if reading is really indispensable for the mastery of writing, then we are tempted to believe our students are handicapped; in that, they learn writing without reading. This study aims first at shedding light on the different approaches and methods of teaching and integrating reading and writing, as well as assessing the development of the writing skill in the second year students of both departments. Second, it also aims at investigating the potential positive impacts that reading might have on improving the writing skill. We hypothesize that if Reading and Writing were taught as integrated skills, the students' performance in Writing would be enhanced significantly. To test our hypothesis, we have chosen the descriptive method. Teachers and students questionnaires with students' scores in Written Expression and Reading Techniques were analyzed and manipulated with adequate statistical procedures to study the perceptions of the informants and compare the performances of the students in the exams. This revealed that the Teachers Training School students were better writers and readers than Mentouri Brothers University students. Through this study, we assume that reading plays an important role in developing students' writing performance. Hence, we want to prove that reading needs to be taught as a module on its own right in the English Department of Mentouri University to help our students improve their writing skills.

Key words: Reading, Writing, Integration, Reading Techniques, Written Expression, Writing Performance.

ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ENS: Ecole Normale Superieure

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

Fr: Frequency

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

N: Number of Responses

SVO: Subject-verb-object

VSO: Verb-subject-object

TTS: the Teachers' Training School

Univ1: Mentouri University

%: Percentage of responses

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General Conclusion

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General Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

Reading is an activity made up of a large number of skills of both a motor and cognitive kind. Teaching reading implies guiding students towards getting meaning from printed or written material. In addition to facilitating reading comprehension of the written material assigned by teachers, learners should be encouraged to read other materials with ease and enjoyment. Enthusiasm and positive attitudes towards reading, then, play an important role in the act of reading.

With the decline of the Grammar Translation Method and the emergence of the direct method, there has been little attention to the systematic teaching of reading in beginning and intermediate classes. Hence, there were no preparations to facilitate the acquisition of reading fluency in EFL advanced learners.

Shortly after the Natural Approach has proved to be deficient, extensive reading received great emphasis in different teaching methods claiming the need to combine the four skills and never neglect one at the expense of the other. Besides, research has proved the effectiveness of reading in improving the other language skills mainly writing.

However, it is worth mentioning that for the reader, whether hesitant or fluent, reading is the act of engaging in a single coordinated activity which implies that he will depend on written signs to get the meaning. Thus, writing is as important as reading for the EFL student in learning the English language and the teaching of composition is inextricably bound up with the teaching of reading. The old-fashioned claim that reading is passive while writing is an active act has been widely discussed and denied since the reading process encompasses

different mental stages (recognition, association, comprehension) and the reader engages in a reader-text-writer relationship.

When asking the teachers of the English Department of Mentouri Brothers University about the quality of their students' writings, we always get the same answer that most students' written achievements do not meet the requirements of high academic English. The first reason for this deficiency, according to the same teachers, is the lack of reading whose primary benefit is widening the students' language register. So, if reading is of that importance, why do not we integrate it in the curriculum? We know that our students do not tend to work unless they are asked to; thus, adding reading assignments may help them engage in more reading situations. Conversely, in the TTS, where reading complements writing, more teachers are in favor of their students' good quality of writing. This situation leads us to think that the implementation of reading along with writing in the curriculum of second year students of Mentouri University could be beneficial in improving their writing.

Mastering the writing strategies and mechanics is essential to improve students' writing and help them acquire better writing skills. This can also be gained through extensive in-class or at-home reading. Teachers can devote a part of their writing course to read a sample text as a model for writing where the students try to extract and use specific language forms or writing techniques.

2. Aims of the study

The present research work has four aims. The primary aim behind this study is to investigate the relationship between reading and writing and how reading affects writing in the teaching of English as a foreign language. The second aim is to shed light on the different approaches and methods of teaching and assessing writing. The third aim is to investigate how

reading and writing are integrated in a second year English course in both departments in question. The fourth aim is to evaluate the development of both skills in the students of the Teachers' Training School and Mentouri University.

3. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The problem we are confronted with in this study turns around establishing a possible relationship between reading in a foreign language and improving the writing ability for EFL learners. Five questions are to be raised around this problem.

Q1: Is reading comprehension of any help to EFL learners in improving their writing skills?

Q2: Do EFL learners use their previous readings to produce more successful pieces of writing?

Q3: What are the major problematic areas in the students' writing that can be repaired by constant reading practice?

Q4: To what extent does teaching writing on its own right as in the Department of English at Mentouri University or teaching it in combination with Reading Techniques as in the Teachers' Training School, affect the students' performance in Writing?

Q5: What are the teachers' perspectives concerning the amalgamation of reading in teaching writing both in the Teachers' Training School and Mentouri Brothers University English departments?

We start from the hypothesis that:

There would be a significant difference in Written Expression achievement at the end of the fourth semester between second year students of English who have undergone the Reading Techniques subject and those who have not.

4. Means of the research

In order to assess the validity of our hypothesis and achieve the aims of the study, we have chosen the descriptive method. Two questionnaires are to be delivered to both students and teachers of the English Departments in Mentouri University and the Teachers Training School in addition to students' scores which are to be calculated in order to determine the correlation coefficient between reading and writing. The first questionnaire addressed to the students of second year in the TTS and Mentouri University to inspect their attitudes toward reading and writing and their opinion about the connection of both skills. The second questionnaire (the teacher questionnaire) was actually split out into two questionnaires; one that is addressed to the teachers of Written Expression in both English departments and the other one to the teachers of Reading Techniques in the TTS. The major aim behind the teacher questionnaires is to know about their perceptions about the significance of incorporating reading in teaching writing.

The students' scores of Written Expression and Reading Techniques were collected at the end of the second semester of the academic year 2013-2014 so as to compare students' writing performance in both groups besides the association of the TTS students' scores in Reading Techniques and Written Expression to determine the effect of incorporating reading in the second year official program.

5. Structure of the study

The present thesis is made up of eight chapters. The first four chapters are devoted to the fundamental research while the other four constitute the empirical work.

The first chapter is mainly an analysis of the reading skill. Different definitions of reading are inspected in addition to introducing its component skills and process, theories of second language reading along with the affective aspect of reading, which is dealt with under the section of reading attitudes. Reading purposes and strategies are also investigated in this chapter.

In the second chapter, we tried to touch different aspects of the writing skill starting from the writing process to the essentials for good writing until the various types of writing.

This study's main purpose is to prove the effectiveness of using reading to improve writing. Hence, the skill that we want to develop is writing. This made it a necessity to go deep in the methods of teaching this skill and the types of evaluating students' written achievements. These two aspects constitute the third chapter.

The fourth chapter offers a historical overview of how the reading-writing connection was perceived in light of some field works. This connection is actually supported by a set of hypotheses; the directional, bidirectional, and non-directional hypothesis. Likewise, we attempt to demonstrate the value of this connection along with some instructional principles and applications for successful integration tasks.

The fifth chapter initiates the field investigation. It provides definitions of the methodological concepts used in this paper and paves the way to the coming chapter by offering descriptions of the field work procedures.

Chapter six is devoted to the empirical analysis and comparison of the TTS and Mentouri University students' scores in Written Expression to classify both groups in terms of good writing. Moreover, the same TTS students' writing scores are to be compared to their corresponding scores in Reading Techniques as a measure to prove or deny the famous saying that good readers are good writers, and thus, confirm or reject our assumption that reading should be taught with writing to improve students' writing abilities.

Chapter seven provides a presentation and analysis of the research findings in the second means of research, questionnaires, by analyzing, discussing, and linking together the teachers' and students' responses.

The eighth and last chapter is a summary of the main findings of the present study offering answers to the research questions, some pedagogical implications, and suggestions for future research. Further, this study, like any human work, has its limitations which are also clarified in this chapter.

Chapter One

Reading as a Skill

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“To learn to read is to light a fire, every syllable that is spelled out is a spark”

Victor Hugo, Les Miserables (1862)

Chapter One

Reading as a Skill

Introduction

To speak about reading, one has to refer primarily to the very old teaching method which focused on developing the reading skill, namely, the Grammar Translation Method. According to this method, the principal aim behind learning a foreign language was to read its literature. This was the reason why reading and writing were the major focus while little or nearly no emphasis was put on speaking or listening (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

The reading skill has received much interest in the beginning of literature especially that the Grammar Translation Method had focused on its development in teaching or learning a foreign language. Students had to learn first how to read, develop their reading abilities in the foreign language before moving to write in that language which was given less interest compared to reading.

Although the spread of the notion of communicative competence has denied appropriate consideration to the reading competence, many language teachers realize that the mostly needed skill for their students is reading (Dubin, 1982). The reading process, however, has received much interest mainly from a psycholinguistic perspective. Scholars like LaBerge and Samules (1974) and Goodman (1976) have focused on the active cognitive processes of reading and shed light on the complexity of the skill of information processing as well as the interrelations between the different stages of the process of reading. The process of reading along with the component skills incorporated within will be discussed thoroughly in this chapter.

Reading in a second language has received a great interest in literature and many studies have been conducted on the notions of schema theory, automaticity, vocabulary acquisition through reading, and comprehension strategy instruction. The affective aspect in reading also has been emphasized and the factors that influence students' attitudes toward reading have been unveiled to identify the relationship between attitudes and reading achievement. In addition to these elements, this chapter will also illustrate reading purposes, reading strategies, and reading models including the bottom-up model, the top-down model, and the interactive reading model.

1.1. Nature of Reading: A Brief History

In the late twenties, and primarily in the United States and Canada, educators became conscious of the fact that few high school or even college graduated students spoke any foreign language correctly and fluently. Professor Coleman on the head of a commission of American and Canadian educators prepared a report (Coleman, 1929; cited in Finocchiaro, 1982) stating that after long researches and observations, there seems no one could learn to understand or use the spoken language within the short time given in schools for language study. They suggested the reading skill to be emphasized, and that only the grammatical structures contained in the reading selections need to be taught in order to guarantee recognition. With the rise of the Reading Method and the notion of selecting interesting books at the reading level of students, many of them derived a positive feeling of achievement, and this proved its efficacy. Silberstein (cited in Grabe, 1991) notes that reading was considered as little more than a reinforcement for oral language instruction in the mid- to late 1960's. While the audiolingual method was receiving more interest, teaching reading was merely a tool to examine grammar and vocabulary, or as drills for pronunciation practice. In the late

1960's, more advanced academic skills were needed for the university level. Unfortunately, the audiolingual method which focused solely on oral language skills was unable to tackle this need. Hence, ESL instruction was shifted in the early 1970's to emphasize advanced reading and writing instruction (Grabe, 1991).

The spread of the notion of communicative competence, as explained by Dubin (1982:14) has deprived the reading competence of getting appropriate consideration.

[It] has eclipsed attention to the competence required for reading well in a new language. Perhaps in reaction to its apparent association with 'the old-fashioned' grammar-translation method, language teachers have turned away from the reading skill. But today, especially in language programs designed to meet specific needs, many teachers realize that the skill students need the most is reading.

Notoriously, first language research has a longer history than second language research and it has achieved remarkable progress in learning about the reading process. Besides, as claimed by Dubin (1982), learning to read is a process associated with the student's first language instruction. Thereby, the current views of second language reading are bent by research on first language learners. In addition, cognitive psychology has always considered comprehension research as their major domain. Hence, first language reading research is believed to put the finding stones of second language reading research to better understand how fluent L1 readers proceed in their developmental direction of the reading ability, and transfer the data obtained to decide how best to move ESL students in that direction (Grabe, 1991).

1.2. Definition of Reading

Since the past three decades, models of the reading process emphasized the interactive relation of reader and text, claiming reading to be an active complex cognitive process in which reader and text interact to (re)create meaning. Although reading has sometimes been believed as a passive or receptive skill early in 1917, Zamel (1992) and Thorndike (cited in Silberstein, 1994) ascertained the notion of the active participatory process related to problem solving and involving the dynamic contribution of the reader. Considering the psycholinguistic perspective of reading, which has been developed by scholars like Goodman (1967) and Smith (1971), it has also focused on the active cognitive processes of reading. In short, Silberstein (1994) and Widdowson (1979) consider reading as a complex information processing skill in which the reader interacts with the text in order to (re)create effective meaningful discourse. Goodman (1976) delineates reading as ‘a psycholinguistic guessing game’ because it is all about the interaction between thought and language where producing an oral language out of the graphics and building meaning from this act are two tasks for the reader to complete the process of reading:

In oral reading, the reader must perform two tasks at the same time. He must produce an oral language equivalent of the graphic input which is the signal in reading, and he must also reconstruct the meaning of what he is reading.

Goodman (1976: 102)

Grabe (1991-2009) states that reading is *purposeful*; the reader has a purpose for reading (for pleasure, looking for information, research, and so on.). It is also *interactive*; that is to say, the reader uses his background knowledge and the information from the paper to be read. Besides, the fact that many skills work together in a simultaneous course to achieve the process of reading makes its interactivity. Reading is about *comprehending*; the fluent reader

expects to understand everything in the text. Perhaps most importantly, reading is *flexible*; effective reading is achieved through a range of strategies including adjusting the reading speed, skimming, anticipating information to come, and so on. As a final point, reading *develops gradually (an evaluative process)*; fluent reading is not attained at once. It is rather the result of continuing effort and gradual improvement. All these points in reading make its complexity.

To Grabe and Stoller (2001), reading is considered as the most significant academic language skill in the ESL context and the gradual unfolding of meaning resulting in the comprehension of the text. Conversely, Grellet (1987:7) has given reading the notion of “a constant process of guessing”. He goes further to establish that reading is not merely associating the recognized units of text, but also analysis and inference. This notion involves the ability of the reader not only to guess the next unit of the text based on the previously recognized unit, but rather to submerge him/her in the process of analyzing and inferring meaning. Hence, as Zamel (1992: 468) states, “if [reading] is to represent engaged and meaning-making activity, [it] must allow for the ways in which readers contribute to and make connections with the text”.

1.3. The Reading Process

The reading process starts by joining different individual units of the text (Abrar-UL-Hassan, 2005). That is to say, while reading, readers go through different stages before attaining full comprehension of the text in hand; from recognition and combination of the letters to association and reconstruction of meaning. Mayer’s (1984) and Wittrock’s (1990) theories of comprehension say that the reading process involves creating referential connections between the mental representations of ideas or propositions that have been

presented in different modes. They also allege that successful storage of these connections, together with the two forms of mental representation (verbal and visual) of these propositions in long term memory, will certainly result in a better comprehension.

Many divisions have been given to the reading process. Goodman's (1988) cognitive processes include recognition of text and initiation of reading, prediction of the information from the text, confirmation and verification of the predictions, correction if there are disconfirmations, and termination of the reading act. Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000: 119) describes the reading process and the reader's task to: "decode the message by recognizing the written signs, interpret the message by assigning meaning to the string of words, and finally, understand what the author's intention was."

Grabe and stoller (2001) argue that in spite of the complexity of reading and the difficulty to divide it into clear-cut stages, all types of reading involve the same stages in the process. To broadly analyze the reading process, there appear to be three stages of the process: recognition, association, and comprehension.

1.3.1. Recognition

Recognition or initiation for Goodman (1988) entails that the brain must recognize text and initiate reading at the first cognitive phase of the reading process. There are different levels of recognition along the reading process. Gunderson (1997) presents a long list of content reading skills. He includes 'recognizing the significance of the content and important details' of the text on top of his list as the first content reading skills to be mastered by the reader in order to achieve better comprehension. More to the point, this entails recognizing words, structure, and content. As the reader's eye moves through the passage, his brain collects a number of recognized sequenced units that will help later build the meaning. This

idea is scrutinized by Ediger (in Abrar-UL-Hassan, 2005) who claims the ability of fluent readers to recognize and understand printed words and use their prior knowledge of the language structure to ultimately form a mental notion of the topic.

1.3.2. Association

As the recognized units are assembled and outlined, association of meaning is set in motion to draw out different layers of meaning. Once this process is launched, all the units contribute to the development of the meaning of the text and it persists until full comprehension of the text is accomplished. According to Abrar-UL-Hassan (2005), visual channels work out the simple recognition of language, whereas the brain starts the complex phase to derive meaning through context. At this stage of the reading process, the reader puts together his mental abilities in connection with the context to develop the association of the units of meaning. This will provide a clear foundation to the comprehension of the reader.

1.3.3. Comprehension

The ultimate objective of any reading activity is comprehension or the reconstruction of meaning. Hence, in teaching reading, it is more advisable to include a range of comprehension strategies. These strategies are defined by Pardo (2004) as the mental processes that good readers use to understand text. They must be taught explicitly for the purpose of developing independent readers who engage meaningfully with text.

Unlike reading, which starts the moment we put the eye on the first letter or word, the process of comprehension begins before we start to read and continues even after the reading is finished. This process of comprehension can be accomplished by following the most common strategies of reading; pre-reading, during reading, and post-reading. In the pre-

reading stage, Prado (2004) and Abrar-UL-Hassan (2005) affirm that good readers preview the text and identify what it is about by studying the layout, activating the background knowledge (schema) about the topic introduced, and having a quick view on the title and the text in general (skimming or 'First Comprehension'). As to the teacher's role in this stage, s/he activates the schema by introducing the topic and creating a kind of debate with the students about it to help them predict broadly what the piece of reading will be about and what kind of information they will get as they go through the text. During reading, readers find themselves face to face with an amount of information that they must retain and process in order to understand the message and create a chronological picture of the ideas. This can be best achieved when the teacher begins with a purpose and poses questions that students should try to answer as they read. In addition to many other strategies they can use to make meaning during reading itself. In the post-reading stage, the process of comprehension continues when the readers try to generate the information they got from the text and establish deeper comprehension by answering comprehension questions, studying vocabulary, discussing author's purpose and reasoning, examining grammatical structures, follow-up writing or other extension activities like summarizing and paraphrasing.

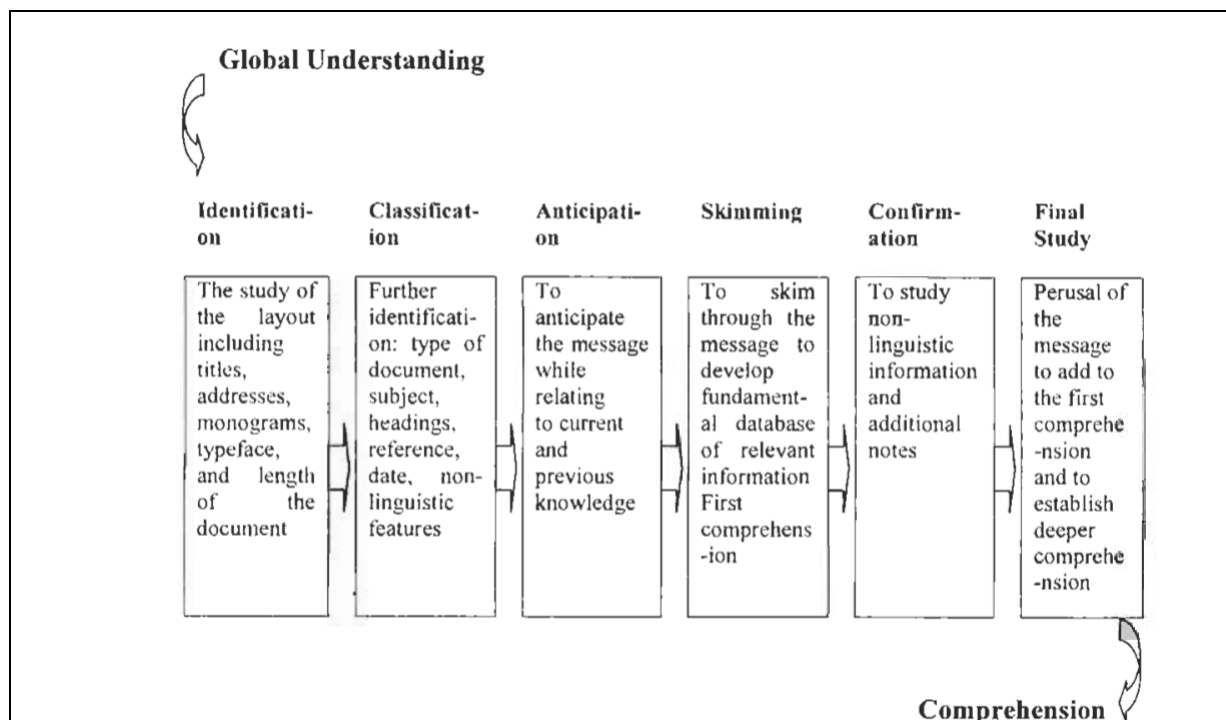


Figure 1.1. The Reading Process

(Abrar-UL-Hassan, 2005: 80)

1.4. Component Skills in Reading

The complexity of the reading process has always fascinated researchers and pushed them to try to understand and analyze the process. It is often divided into lower-level processing skills (identification) and higher-level comprehension and reasoning skills (interpretation). To arrive at a better understanding, Rayner and Pollatsek (1989) and Grabe (1991) subdivided the reading process into at least six general component skills and knowledge areas:

1. Automatic recognition skills
2. Vocabulary and structural knowledge
3. Formal discourse structure knowledge
4. Content/world background knowledge
5. Synthesis and evaluation skills/strategies

6. Metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring

1.4.1. Automatic Recognition Skills

Automaticity refers to the reader's ability to decode and recognize the words. This process of decoding becomes faster with time and practice, i.e. exposure to large amount of texts. Therein, the reader becomes fluent and comprehension is achieved more rapidly. As for Samuels and Flor (1997), it is the ability to perform complex skills with minimal attention and conscious effort. Automatic recognition or perceptual skills have first been considered important in second language reading in the early 1990s. Many cognitive psychologists advocate the effectiveness of automaticity in reading to fluent reading.

Grabe (1991) declares that automaticity is achieved when the reader is unaware of the process and uses little processing capacity. He proceeds that "the primary focus of automaticity research has been on the feature, letter, and word levels, playing a crucial role in descriptions of lexical access skills of fluent readers." (Grabe, 1991: 380)

The theory of automatic processing reveals that word recognition skills are improved when learners read repeatedly and repeated reading improves learners' reading fluency (Therrien and Kubina, 2007). Many researchers believe that fluency problems stem from poor decoding skills in the learners. When the act of decoding is too slow, short-term memory is held back which delays the flow of thoughts and impedes comprehension. Hence, repeated reading develops word recognition and decoding skills by providing students with constant exposure to the same words (LaBerge and Samules, 1974; Therrien and Kubina, 2007). It is then widely believed that automaticity is a necessary skill for fluent readers, and it accompanies them all through the reading process facilitating comprehension and assuring meaning.

1.4.2. Vocabulary and Structural Knowledge

It is evident that vocabulary and syntactic knowledge are at the heart of any reading process. Oakhill and Cain (2007) and Tankersley (2003) include vocabulary knowledge with lower level skills and argue that it has a high correlation with reading comprehension. One cannot read a text and fully comprehend it if they do not have the least vocabulary contained in it. Correspondingly, knowing about the structure of the text facilitates the reading and guarantees comprehension. According to Stanovich (1986), vocabulary knowledge has similarly been recognized as a finding stone of the reading ability. Grabe et al. (2011) focused on the relationship between percentage of vocabulary known in a text and level of comprehension of the same text. They concluded that an amount of 98% of coverage target is required for readers of academic texts to achieve comprehension. In other studies, Grabe (1991-2009) states that first language reading researches have designated an estimation of recognized vocabularies of fluent readers to range from 10,000 words to 100,000 words. As for second language readers, it is far lower, often ranging from 2,000 to 7,000 words. The need to a native-like fluency requires knowledge of vocabulary approximate to the larger estimates for first language readers. Therefore, fluent readers need a thorough knowledge of language structure and vocabulary recognition. However, for the students, they must be encouraged to use word analysis and context clues to derive the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Assuming that there are three main constituents of word identity; phonology, meaning and orthography, some studies have recently spotted their influence on the acquisition of orthographic knowledge using an orthographic learning paradigm. This exemplar emphasizes the idea of orthographic knowledge enhancement with the same word being encountered repeatedly (Hilte and Reitsma, 2011). With the orthographic knowledge, readers can build a

link between the images of the words and their meanings. Experiments in the field have shown that extensive vocabulary promotes comprehension skills (Beck, Perfetti and McKeown, 1982; McKeown, Beck, Omanson and Perfetti; 1983; McKeown, Beck, Omanson and People, 1985; cited in Pressley, 2000: 548; Tankersley, 2003), whereas the failure to recognize even 2% of the words of a given text will hamper comprehension (Wallace, 2007).

1.4.3. Formal Discourse Structure Knowledge

Explicit awareness about formal discourse structure, or formal schemata, is about knowing how the text is organized. Having this knowledge, the readers can make better use of the text organization to construct a meaning-based representation (Oakhill and Cain, 2007). For example, when asked to use the same organization, generally in certain types of text organization like comparison-contrast, good readers appear to recall information and write better than poor readers who are in short of this knowledge (Grabe, 1991). Research in second language contexts has also shown that more specific and logical patterns of organization, like cause-effect, comparison-contrast, and problem-solution, improve recall in comparison to texts with a collection of facts (Carrell, 1984). Awareness of discourse structure is often associated with reading strategies such as recognizing main ideas and inferring connections among parts of the text as declared by Grabe (2009). He perceives to say that this awareness involves applying strategies in order to interpret discourse level paradigms of organization.

1.4.4. Content/World Background Knowledge

Content schemata are the prior knowledge of the information related to the text. They are also critical to the construction of a meaning. They are shown to have a large effect on

reading abilities (Grabe et al., 2011). For instance the case of a scientific text about the function of a given software program with mathematical terms and descriptions like algorithm equations. A reader out of the field, and having no clue about the terminology, will find it difficult, if not impossible, to understand the function of that program. Likewise, cultural knowledge has been shown to strongly influence comprehension (Carrell, 1984). Cultural background of the L2 readers has often posed a problem of understanding. When the readers are unaware of some aspect in the culture of the target language, and they are confronted with some situations, they are likely to fail in building a correct understanding of the case in hand. Consequently, content background knowledge is another finding stone of reading comprehension without which meaning can be destroyed or miscarried.

1.4.5. Synthesis and Evaluation Skills/Strategies

The most subtle strategy is making use of previous knowledge (Grabe, 2009). Even brilliant students find it a tedious and difficult task to read about unfamiliar topics. Competent readers use their prior knowledge about the topic of the text and compare, or synthesize the actual information provided in the text with other sources of information they met before. Grabe (2009) described this skill as complex evaluation and critical reading. This is what makes synthesis and evaluation skills/strategies crucial components of reading abilities. Grabe (1991) reveals in the same contexts that predictions play an important role in promoting the reading ability. He goes on to affirm that if fluent readers are put in the real-time constraints of the reading process, they will not predict the upcoming words; rather, prediction helps them anticipate later developments within the text and foresee the author's point of view regarding the present information and take a position vis-à-vis his intentions.

1.4.6. Metacognitive Knowledge and Skills Monitoring

Metacognition was first described by Flavell (1979) as the individual's knowledge about the cognitive processes and the ability to control the use of appropriate processes to get the most out of learning. This definition is intended to refer to cognition about cognition. As to Grabe (1991) and Schraw (2001), metacognition refers to the individual's knowledge about cognition and self-regulation of cognition. That is to say, recognizing how language functions and how patterns of structure are organized using appropriate strategies to complete specific goals. In the case of reading, Grabe (1991) states that:

[...] this would include recognizing the more important information in a text; adjusting reading rate; using context to sort out a misunderstood segment; skimming portions of the text; previewing headings, pictures, and summaries; using search strategies for finding specific information; formulating questions about the information; using a dictionary; using word-formation and affix information to guess word meanings; taking notes; underlining; summarizing information; and so on.

(Grabe, 1991: 382)

He goes on to say that the competent reader monitors his cognition when he recognizes any problem concerning the information in the text or the inability to understand it. Self-regulation strategies would include combining metacognitive knowledge, planning, monitoring understanding, checking effectiveness of strategies, revising strategies being used, and so on.

Both knowledge about cognition and regulation of cognition are interrelated components of metacognition which are essential for successful understanding and learning (Schraw, 2001). In a reading class, it is necessary to work on both aspects in order to increase learners' metacognition. Wilawan (2013) maintain that metacognitive knowledge or thinking

about thinking includes three components; declarative; knowing what the strategy is, procedural; knowing how it is used, and conditional; when it should be applied.

According to O'Malley, et al. (1985: 561), "students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishments, and future directions". Hartman (2001: 35) reported that college students, who lack metacognitive knowledge and do not know what they are doing when performing a task, generally encounter impediments when performing the following learning tasks:

1. Determining the difficulty of a task
2. Monitoring their comprehension effectively
3. Planning ahead
4. Monitoring the success of their performance
5. Using all relevant information
6. Using a systematic step by step approach to completing a task
7. Curtailing the frequent jumping to conclusions
8. Using adequate or correct representations

On the other hand, earlier research has indicated a positive relationship between students' improved reading performance and their awareness and use of the reading strategies (Carrell, 1991; Pressley, 2000).

The aforementioned component skills are said to be the most effective to reading abilities as indicated by Grabe (1991). As for Grabe and Jiang (2014:14), L1 and L2 research has even highlighted the following factors as strongly impacting reading abilities and explain individual differences in reading comprehension:

1. efficient word recognition processes (phonological, orthographic, morphological, and semantic processing);
2. a large recognition vocabulary (vocabulary knowledge);
3. efficient grammatical parsing skills (grammar knowledge under time constraints);
4. the ability to formulate the main ideas of a text (formulate and combine appropriate semantic propositions);
5. the ability to engage in a range of strategic processes while reading more challenging texts (including goal setting, academic inferencing, monitoring);
6. the ability to recognize discourse structuring and genre patterns, and use this knowledge to support comprehension;
7. the ability to use background knowledge appropriately;
8. the ability to interpret text meaning critically in line with reading purposes;
9. the efficient use of working memory abilities;
10. the efficient use of reading fluency skills;
11. extensive amounts of exposure to L2 print (massive experience with L2 reading);
12. the ability to engage in reading, to expend effort, to persist in reading without distraction, and achieve some level of success with reading (reading motivation).

1.5. Reading Speed

Reading speed is a major factor in competent reading and a source of comprehension impediment. Even native readers of English face this limitation. They often tend to cover

everything in the piece to be read at more or less than 250-400 words a minute (Graesser, 2007), no matter the comprehension attained or the difficulty of the material. Even though, some researchers have noted still higher speeds -like McLaughling (cited in Ferguson: 1969) in his article “Reading at ‘Impossible’ Speeds” who claims that if readers use contextual clues while reading, they can reach speeds up to 800-1000 words a minute-. For Grabe (2009), L2 College students may only read at 80-120 words per minute, even though they perform pretty well on comprehension tests taking enough time to complete the task. As a consequence, for Ferguson (1969), simple materials of little importance are often well comprehended, and complex materials usually of greater importance are left behind. Moreover, concentration is most of the time low for whole sections of the material are read superficially with almost no comprehension.

Reading speed and reading comprehension are two crucial components of skilled reading (Fraser, 2004). LaBerge and Samuels (1974), in their model, developed the idea that reading comprehension and reading speed are two distinct but related factors and both should be incorporated in a reading program. They emphasized the importance of automaticity of certain components of the reading process. On the whole, they conceive that when readers are able to quickly identify words, they will comprehend better because by then, they can shift attention to comprehension, that is to say, the meaning and relationship of the words.

Practically, not all readers get the same information from the same text. Some researchers say that efficient readers read faster and get more information than poor readers. As to Goodman (1973), the proficient reader uses appropriate strategies which give as a result the most trustworthy prediction with minimum use of the information available. He perceives that the reader takes in only a part of what he sees because he knows how to organize his assumptions according to the language structure and meaning, and also he has learnt to shift

his attention from the least important to the most important information. Specifically, it is not necessary to read every word in a text to be a skilled reader, rather if readers do only pick up key words, this will increase their speed and comprehension.

One could argue that slow readers are often embarrassed in front of their fellows. They even feel the reading tasks hard and unpleasant which causes them to fail their reading assignments and not to appreciate the taste of the reading material (Hayland, 1990). Hayland adds that the main reason behind slow reading in students is the classroom methodology in reading lessons. He continues that the texts used in classrooms are only used to present language items like vocabulary rather than the encouragement of the act of reading. This is what makes students feel vulnerable about passing over words and thus unconfident readers.

For Fraser (2004), the lack of extensive exposure to the foreign language is one of the many factors that sustain slow reading. This is what affects their automaticity as well as comprehension (LaBerge and Samuels, 1974; Grabe, 1991). Another factor presented by Fraser (2004) is the large number of unfamiliar vocabulary students stumble upon. She also mentions the lack of automaticity in word recognition and the structural differences between the writing systems of L1 and L2 to be essential factors for reading fluency. Thus, for her, the major goal for educators is to improve reading fluency for L2 learners. Nonetheless, the previously mentioned component skills of the reading ability play also an important role in enhancing the reading speed. In other words, readers with high automatic recognition skills and having a vast bank of vocabulary, which helps them recognize formal discourse, are likely to cover most of the information provided in the text. Not to forget, of course, the impact of content background knowledge, evaluation and metacognitive skills which help save time and keep the readers' attention on comprehending the material.

1.6. Reading in the Second Language

Although Bernhardt and Kamil (2006) argue that the present models of research oversimplify both literacy knowledge (L1 knowledge) and language knowledge (L2 knowledge) to the L2 comprehension process, there is a growing consensus that second language reading is affected by first language reading. There are two main hypotheses representing the relationship between L1 and L2; the linguistic interdependence hypothesis and the linguistic threshold hypothesis. Yamashita (2004) explains that the first hypothesis suggests a correlational relationship between L1 reading ability and L2 reading, and the second hypothesis permits the L1 reading ability transfer to the L2 reading with the learners' linguistic fundamentals as a condition for the transfer to take place. She goes on to say that many attempts to find out which hypothesis explains best the relationship between L1 and L2 reading resulted in supporting the linguistic threshold hypothesis. In their study which investigates the relationship between first and second language reading, Carrell, Eisterhold, Kroll, Kuehn, and Silberstein (1990) sustain this hypothesis and claim that adult language learners can utilize their literacy skills in developing their L2 reading. However, Yamashita conducted a study which focuses the importance of the affective domain in the reading ability of L2 learners, unlike the other studies claiming only the cognitive domain (the linguistic threshold hypothesis). The study has demonstrated that learners' attitudes and feelings towards reading either in L1 or L2 need to be understood to encourage them to get involved in extensive reading. The findings of the study suggest that cognitive and affective domains of reading relate differently in L1 and L2 (Yamashita, 2004).

Koda (2008) stresses the importance of second language reading research in the formation and development of L2 reading skills:

Dual-language involvement is the foremost attribute highlighting the unique characteristic of second-language reading. A clearer understanding of how literacy experiences in two languages interact and coalesce in the formation of second-language reading skills should take primacy in second language reading research.

Koda (2008: 90)

Assuming that most ESL learners are older enough to make use of their L1 reading experience, they have developed a conceptual sense and factual knowledge of the world, and they can make detailed logical inferences from the text. Thus, vocabulary is no more than a matter of relating a second label to a recognized concept. They have also developed their metacognitive strategies which enhance their automaticity and make them more efficient readers. Nevertheless, the variation of phonology, morphology, and orthography across languages may create difficulties for the L2 learners. Learners whose L1 contains less vowels or less consonants than the L2 need to recognize the sounds and their representations in the L2- like Hebrew which does not contain vowels-. The different writing systems also are of a great importance to the mastery of reading- like Arabic and English which are orthographically different-. L1 readers are said to have already a range of 5000 to 7000 words before they formally start a reading instruction class in schools, while L2 readers typically have a small store of oral language vocabulary and a deficient sense of grammar rules. He goes further to establish other aspects causing troubles for L2 learners' reading comprehension; word order variation, relative clause formation, complex noun phrase structures, and most importantly, orthographic differences (Grabe, 1991-2009).

1.7. Second Language Reading Research

1.7.1. Schema Theory

During the learning process, schemas about language components are constructed and stored in the long term memory to be recalled when necessary. Despite the fact that no exact and agreed upon definition has yet been attributed to schemas, Salkind (2008) states that they are well-learned cognitive patterns of specific information of certain domain used as models to help the individuals explain, interpret, perceive, encode, and respond to complex tasks. They also allow the learner to predict for future settings in relation to the particular schema. When learners form meanings from situations, data, and events, they are said to be constructing schemas that may be modified by other information or data. Grabe (1991) describes the schema theory as the mental representation of knowledge which explains well how prior knowledge is integrated in memory and used in higher-level comprehension processes (mainly recognition and interpretation).

The notion of schemata in reading has been described by Pearson (1988) as a mere metaphor. This metaphor has contributed to the establishment of understanding the reason why some readers understand what they read better than others, and it became concrete in that it focuses on the mental representation of the ‘content’ and ‘form’ of the text. She also claims a third type of schema in addition to content and form to which she put the name ‘strategy schema’. She referred to this concept as the generic knowledge about the routine monitoring and repair strategies available during reading.

Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) and Carrell (1984) in their research about the value of the notion of schema theory for second language reading, have found that activating schemas of the content of the reading material is of a great importance to the students’ comprehension and information processing from the text. Silberstein (1994) bolsters this claim and add that

formal schemata, or structures of language knowledge, are major independent contributors to reading ability and a lack of activating the schema is a significant source of difficulties in processing in second language readers. Grabe (1991) asserts that other research has alleged the efficacy of higher background knowledge for L2 readers to surmount linguistic deficiencies. According to Silberstein (1994), Hilte and Reitsma (2011), activating students' prior knowledge before engaging in any reading task is a major factor to help them connect information and construct meaning. If the reading material is all new to the readers and they do not have enough prior knowledge, they should be given some background knowledge as a starting point to help interpret the text.

1.7.2. Automaticity

Automatic processing for Field (2006) is what makes a difference between word recognition and word translation. She emphasizes the difference between knowing the definition and translation of a word and its automatic recognition and processing. She also finds out that reading at level, not beyond the readers' level, boosts their confidence and motivation to read, and since complex words and expressions are absent, there will be no meaning hindrance to slow down their recognition, and thus automaticity will be more developed. Samuels and Flor (1997) state that if there is an automatic performance of the reading sub-skills, higher-order aspects of the task (as comprehension or metacognitive functions) can be performed simultaneously and effectively.

The leading researchers of automaticity research in reading are mainly Anderson, J. R. (1982), Logan, G. (1988) and Stanovich (1990) who agreed on the model of automatic processing presented by LaBerge and Samuels (1974) spotting the light on shifting attention to comprehension after being able to decode and recognize the words. In other words, in

beginning reading, readers switch attention between ‘decoding’ and ‘comprehending’, one task at a time, whereas for fluent readers, decoding is automatic and does not need time like in hesitant readers, so attention is focused only on comprehending which implies that higher comprehension levels are achieved. On the other hand, comprehension begins to break down when students focus on trying to decode or explore the words.

It appears that repeated reading develops instant recognition of words, particularly texts that are relatively easy for the reader, and being exposed to large amounts of reading materials means encountering more words in more times which is a major factor that improves automaticity.

1.7.3. Reading and Vocabulary Acquisition

Bernhardt and Kamil (2006) distinguish three main categories of studies about adult L2 learners learning new words or compensating for unknown words. The first category includes investigating the role of traditional vocabulary lists and dictionaries. Among those studies, Davis (1989) and Harmon et al (2009) found that providing the learners with vocabulary lists before the reading task enhanced their comprehension. On the whole, most investigations designate that dictionary use has positive effects on vocabulary learning, however, some skeptics hesitate about the direct instruction of words with the use of dictionaries. A second field of investigation inspects the acquisition of words with no external support (the polar opposite of the first area). A good number of the studies in this area argue that the acquisition of words meaning is a result of considering the context in which they occur without the need to check for the one-word meaning or translation provided by dictionaries. There is a good deal of evidence that extensive reading fosters vocabulary acquisition. However, Laufer (2003) doubted that large L2 vocabulary can be acquired

through extensive reading. Other studies, e.g., Pulido (2003) noted the importance of L2 proficiency and the nature of L1 as well as culture in associating meaning to new L2 words.

As for the third arena of investigation, it covers learners' use of word-learning aids and the contexts of application as well as the process of intentionally learning new words. Studies have also revealed the importance of repetition of the new L2 words. The study of Hulstijn (1993) examined the conditions under which 82 Dutch learners of English employ word-learning strategies. This study concluded that high literacy level lowers the learners' chances of looking up words.

There is a great deal of evidence for the importance of vocabulary to reading comprehension. McShane (2005) supports this claim and sustains that learners may find themselves stuck in a vicious cycle when their comprehension is hindered by their limited vocabulary and background knowledge, and because of this difficulty, they avoid reading much, thus they do not develop their vocabulary through reading which is the first and foremost method of vocabulary building.

1.7.4. Comprehension Strategy Instruction

As for comprehension strategies, one could argue that beginner readers, whether young or less proficient adults tend to use few strategies in the process of comprehension. On the other hand, good readers are good strategy users (Grabe, 1991). Some L1 researches have considered comprehension strategy training and the contexts in which the strategies help improve comprehension taking into account the learners' age, needs and level to implement appropriate instructions. However, little research on L2 reading instruction is available and L2 students often tend to leave the reading classes after a short period of time, thus it is even harder to trace the progress in L2 reading over a longer period of time. Therefore, results from

L1 research need to be replicated in L2 contexts to see if there are common points between L1 and L2 students in reading instruction training, and if the L1 results can be generalized to L2 students (Grabe, 2009).

It is worth noting that most adult learners may not be aware of the main strategies to use to achieve a better comprehension of the reading material. They just move their eyes through the letters and get the whole meaning without paying attention to the entire process of comprehension. McShane (2005) supports this claim and adds that these learners need to be made aware of the many strategies they can use and this can only be accomplished through instruction. The effectiveness of instruction has been highlighted by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development 'NICHD' (2000) which found that when given cognitive strategy instruction, readers are likely to make considerable gains in understanding compared to students who were trained with usual instruction procedures. By strategy instruction we mean teaching the learning tools regardless of the content. Pre-reading activities may be a kind of instruction to develop learners' awareness and efficiency in using comprehension strategies. They may be asked to consider pictures, headings, or some hints provided by the teacher to predict content. By activating their prior knowledge, teachers guide their learners to effectively use their background knowledge, however limited, in order to achieve better comprehension. A good teacher is the one who knows his students' level and when to interfere during the activity. If he notices that his students are in short of knowledge about the content, he immediately interferes and presents some guidance as a pre-reading activity (warm-up discussions, story-telling, reminders of previous topic-related readings, and so on). In short, all learners who seek enhancing their comprehension need to be guided in order to find the strategies that best help them build comprehension.

1.8. Reading Attitudes

With the increasing technology and development of internet, reading is becoming more and more a boring, time consuming activity, as we often hear our students explain the reason why they do not read a lot. Although many studies have been accumulated in the field of second language reading, the affective domain has been somehow neglected compared to the cognitive domain (Yamashita, 2004; Petscher, 2010). Yet, over the last 20 years, researchers have become ever more interested in children's motivation to read, which is a crucial aspect to reading engagement as described by Seitz (2010) who found that students' attitudes toward reading are multidimensional. She confirms that not only the skill is required to be a proficient reader, but also the will to read, thus the students' attitudes towards reading are a focal point affecting reading performance.

Many conceptualizations have been attributed to 'attitude', most of them related to the psychological state of mind. The earliest definition of reading attitude has been given by Alexander and Filler (1976; cited in Petscher, 2010) stating that it is a variety of positive and negative feelings about reading which makes the learner decide whether to approach or avoid reading. Smith (1990; cited in Yamashita, 2004) delineates reading attitude as the state of mind of the reader along with feelings and emotions which help make reading plausible. It is common sense that reading attitudes are the affective aspect of reading, yet because of the lack of consistency in defining attitudes, many researchers shifted their attention to the cognitive factors of reading. Notwithstanding such consistency, reading educators and researchers agree that the learner's attitude is elementary to the outcome of their work (Parker, 2004; Yamashita, 2004; Petscher, 2010).

1.8.1. Factors Influencing Reading Attitudes

Yamashita's study (2004) supports the model of Day and Bamford (1998; cited in Yamashita, 2004) which advocates that first language reading attitude is an important factor influencing L2 reading attitude. The study shows that students' anxiety, comfort, and self-perception about reading in L1 are higher than in L2. According to Petscher (2010), children's attitudes about a specific reading activity may affect both the amount and achievement of reading. Mckool (2009), in a thorough investigation of the factors influencing students' decision to read, found that fifth grade students in his study spent an average of 17 minutes in out-of-school voluntary reading activities. She attributes this to three important variables; self-concept as a reader, television, and organized activities. The findings of the study revealed a positive correlation between voluntary reading and self-concept, and a negative correlation with television and organized activities. Students, who were involved in the study and spending more time watching TV, were found to do less voluntary reading than students who watched less TV programs and were not engaged in organized activities. Grabe (2009) permits one or two hours of TV watching per day. This limited amount of time did not have negative impacts on American children reading abilities.

McKenna (1995; cited in Petscher, 2010), like Seitz (2010), also conceptualizes reading attitudes as a multidimensional construct and identifies three key attitude components:

- Beliefs about the outcomes of reading, that is, the reader's evaluation of the product of his/her reading.
- Beliefs about the expectations of others in light of one's motivation; the reader is motivated to meet others beliefs and conform to them.

- The outcomes of specific incidents of reading; specific past experiences of reading activities.

Other researchers like Kear and Ellsworth (1994; cited in Parker, 2004) reinforce this model and affirm that at a mature age, learners may find out that other activities, such as surfing on the net and watching television, are more enjoyable than reading, unlike some children, who love reading and are proficient in this area. However, the negative attitudes toward reading are said to be negatively affecting both students' motivation and attention which may hinder comprehension when involved in reading tasks (Petscher, 2010).

Some well-researched factors have been demonstrated to be contributing in the development of reading attitudes comprising instruction ((Saracho & Dayton, 1989; cited in Petscher, 2010), cognitive skills (Cothorn & Collins, 1992; cited in Petscher, 2010), and with time attitudes can be formed (Anderson, Wilson & Fielding, 1988; Cloer & Pearman, 1992; Tunnell, Calder, Justen & Phaup, 1988; cited in Petscher, 2010), either positively or negatively and it is for teachers mainly to direct their students' attitudes. Research (Garrett, 2002; Kennedy and Trong, 2010) suggests some personal and environmental attributes affecting children's attitudes toward reading; ability (when learners face difficulties in a given reading task, they may build a negative attitude, and the opposite), achievement (their good scores may be an incentive for more reading practice), self-concept (their beliefs about their ability to successfully finish a reading task), home environment (some children were raised on the passion to read and may have libraries at their homes), instructional practices (special reading programs may be attractive and enjoyable), gender (girls are said to be better readers and have positive attitudes rather than boy), interests (learners' interests need to be taken into account before assigning a reading task), and testing intelligence.

Motivation also is said to be a key element in gaining positive attitude toward reading. Motivated students are likely to value the reading task and achieve better understanding, thus positive reading achievement. Moreover, highly motivated students proved to be more extensive readers than their less motivated peers (Cummins, 2011; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997).

We could thus argue that, learners' positive feelings about reading facilitate the task of reading and help maintain comprehension besides to transferring the learners to life-long avid readers. Due to the prominent place of reading in learning a second language, many researchers advise that the challenge of teachers is to know their learners' attitudes towards reading in order to make the best use of them and get their learners involved in more pleasurable reading tasks (Yamashita, 2004; Parker, 2004; Petscher, 2010).

1.8.2. The Relation between Attitudes and Reading Achievement

To say that reading achievement is influenced by the learners' attitudes and vice-versa can be justified by the high number of empirical studies which investigated the relationship between the affective aspects and learners' academic achievement (Petscher, 2010). It is widely acknowledged that comprehension is a key component to the reading process (Grabe and Stoller, 2001; Tankersley, 2003), that is to say, if the learner miscomprehends a part of the reading material, the whole process may collapse and thus negative attitudes may occur (Askov and Fishbach, 1973; Boland, 1988; cited in Petscher, 2010). Other studies, such as Cloer and Ross (1996) and Black (2006), scrutinized the effect of previous year's reading achievement scores on students' self-perception and resulted on a correlational relation. Most subjects in both studies who had good scores in the previous years, continued to show

progress in their reading achievement. While those who got low scores and had negative self-perception continued to have bad scores.

Conversely, another relation between attitudes and achievement was examined by Roettger, Szymczuk and Millard (1979; cited in Petscher, 2010). The researchers noticed that fourth- to sixth-grade students' scores were low on an attitude scale whereas they performed well on a basic skills test. Their findings suggest that the increasing negative attitudes towards learning become independent of achievement over time.

Yamashita's study (2004), on the other hand, conveys that not all attitude variables affect students' performance in extensive reading; positive attitudes in the subjects examined in the study, like 'comfort' and 'self-perception', showed significant correlation at the expense of negative ones; 'anxiety' and attaching high 'value' to reading. Yamashita (2004: 12) clarifies this: "although students may not feel anxiety in reading, they may not feel comfortable or happy about reading, either." Hence, experiencing a positive feeling is what facilitates extensive reading even though negative feelings may not be a hindrance.

1.9. Reading Purposes

Much empirical work has been studied with respect to reading purposes and purposeful reading. It is widely acknowledged that we read mainly to get information. Ediger (2006) states that the many authentic purposes for reading, probably the same in L1 and L2, have been given little detailed attention especially in instruction. This does not mean that purposeful reading is not addressed in the literature on L2 reading. Many researchers like Grabe and Stoller (2002) have emphasized the importance of purpose in reading. In most situations, we read for pleasure, information, professional responsibility, or a business activity

(Grabe and Stoller, 2001). Researchers have distinguished at least six purposes for reading. (Grabe, 2009) categorizes them as follows:

Reading for information, we read to get information probably every day. We read to obtain information that we need to accomplish some real world task (Ediger, 2006). Reading a scientific text about the widely discussed topic ‘global warming’ to understand what it is about, or reading a safety awareness section in the guidebook of a new air conditioner are good examples for reading for information.

Reading to skim, mostly when looking for specific information. This speedy reading allows for general meaning by skipping the eyes over sentences with details. The aim behind skimming is to focus on the essential points of the text. An example of reading to skim is when we read the lead paragraph of a newspaper to get the general information.

Reading to learn, or reading for academic purposes which is generally a thorough reading to memorize (such as exams), or generate information for a research paper or dissertation.

Reading to write, this is to read a sample text in order to produce a written piece in the light of its information, style, structure, and so on. We often instruct this strategy in our classes after presenting a model text of any type (e.g. argumentative text), or when the students are asked to write their own version of a story by keeping the beginning and imagining an end for the story.

Reading to critique texts, Grabe (2009) introduces the evaluative purpose for reading as the critical reading for texts where the reader activates more information that will adjust the

actual information in the text. Proofreading purpose is mainly critical as to evaluating a writer's style or correcting a student's written production.

Reading for general comprehension, the original purpose for reading is to manipulate the information gleaned from the text in order to understand what is being read. The case of comprehension check questions in a reading activity.

Clark and Foster's project (2005) examined young people's reading preferences asking the respondents to complete the sentence 'I read because...' with the options:

- It is a skill for life;
- It will help me get a job;
- It teaches me how other people live and feel;
- It helps me understand more of the world;
- It is fun;
- It helps me find out what I want/need to know;
- It gives me a break (escapism);
- I have to;
- It helps me understand more about myself.

The study demonstrated that the majority read because it is a skill for life and will help them in many aspects of their daily life. Almost half of the respondents said they read for fun and to get a job. Two-fifths read because it helps them understand the world better and because it teaches them about other cultures and customs. A third of them read because it is a kind of escape and refuge. The other fifth said that they read because they have to.

In fact, some learners read without any particular purpose at all, or for the same purpose. The case of reluctant readers who read just to answer comprehension questions (Ediger, 2006). There are not much empirical studies that demonstrate the effects of having only one purpose of reading on the learners' reading achievement, yet many researchers examined how reading for different purposes can affect their performance in the coming reading tasks (Grabe, 2009). In a parallel fashion, many researchers refer to the importance of purpose in reading, in that it determines the way in which the reader reads the text. What is meant here is that not every text is going to be read in the same manner. For instance, when the reading purpose is to learn about, say the methodology of research, the reader is going to be analytic and may stop several times at some vague information. Whereas if the purpose is entertainment, he is not going to be that analytic, he will rather enjoy the flow of ideas provided from the reading material. In short, learners should set up their goals before engaging in any reading task in order to determine which strategies to use (Ediger, 2006).

1.10. Reading Strategies

Reading strategies have been conceptualized from various perspectives. Some definitions have considered the academic setting of reading strategies where learners use their learning strategies to comprehend classroom reading materials; in this context strategies are seen as deliberate, goal-directed attempts to control and modify the process of decoding words and building meaning. Pressley (2000) has tackled the strategies from a psychological perspective stressing that they are conscious, controllable process used by the reader to regulate his reading in order to accomplish a cognitive goal.

Considerable amount of research has been directed toward identifying the strategies and techniques used by good readers in any reading situation. Hence, countless strategies have

been demonstrated and advised by researchers (Grabe, 2009). The many strategies addressed to in the literature seem to group themselves around the following ways of reading texts:

Skimming: it is a reading technique that can save time and help get through the text quickly. This strategy is used when the purpose is to get the general overview of a passage or larger chunks of print, not the specific details. Research papers sometimes lend themselves to skimming because the short abstract that introduces them is generally containing the main ideas of the study. The reader's eyes move quickly over the lines and read only what may promote comprehension or the needed information. Skimming is useful as a pre-reading activity to give a more accurate picture of a text to be read later, or for reviewing a previously read text.

Scanning: reading for the purpose of looking for particular information is called scanning. Generally, this strategy is used when the reader has a question in mind about a fact or information he has read recently (Dubin, 1982). We scan the table of content of a book to look for a specific chapter or title. Scanning is of a great use for finding a specific number, name, date, or any important information without being obliged to read the entire text.

Specific Reading: also called receptive reading. This is more close to scanning in that it is used to look for specific information, only that the purpose of search reading is one of search and discovery. This strategy entails skimming, locating, and note taking before returning to thorough reading. When the student is asked to write a research paper, he has first to go through specific reading to generate information from a number of sources. Besides, he needs to reference the materials he uses.

In-depth reading: or thorough reading is the most critical strategy to comprehension. It is about reading the text or passage thoroughly for the purpose of understanding its ideas and

arguments. Accordingly, in-depth reading is slower than skimming and it may require reading a difficult passage several times to attain full comprehension.

Critical reading: a more sophisticated form of in-depth reading is reading critically or ‘reading between the lines’. It involves looking for the hidden meaning behind the authors’ words. The word ‘critical’ here does not necessarily mean looking for mistakes in the text, but rather judging the value of the information it provides.

Synthesizing knowledge: making use of previous knowledge is another essential strategy for comprehension. Dubin (1982) finds it very difficult even for proficient readers to engage in a totally unfamiliar topic. She asserts that the every reader must bring in all his cultural knowledge and real world experiences related to the subject matter for better comprehension achievement.

1.11. Reading Models

It has been proved beyond any shade of doubt that comprehension is the core element needed for any reading situation. Throughout the history of second language reading research, many models of comprehension emerged and have been widely discussed. The most commonly argued models appear to be the metaphorical models as mentioned by Grabe (2009). They are generally known as bottom-up, top-down and interactive models of reading. These models tend to describe how comprehension is carried out.

1.11.1. Bottom-up Model

In the bottom-up model, or part to whole model, the reading material is emphasized. Because the first task of reading is learning the code, the reader needs to identify letter features, link them to recognize letters and combine the letters to recognize words, sentences,

and paragraphs. The principle here is to recognize the smallest linguistic units to decipher and comprehend higher units.

This model has been thoroughly discussed and showed some drawbacks. Grabe (2009) states that the bottom-up model portrays reading as a mechanical process where the reader's sole task is to decode the text letter-by-letter, word-by-word, and sentence-by-sentence to translate the information in the text piece-by-piece. Nevertheless, this underestimates the reader's background knowledge interference and depicts the reader as an automatic machine performing the same process and failing to generate meaning if the codes are mixed or changed their position, like in the example: 'Htsi is a miexd lteter enstcene'. Which stands for: 'this is a mixed letter sentence'.

1.11.2. Top-down Model

Unlike the bottom-up model, the top-down model (whole to part model) emphasizes the contribution of the reader in controlling the comprehension process. This model suggests that the text is being processed in the reader's mind with an assumption about the meaning of what is being read. The main emphasis of the model is what the reader brings to the text. Goodman (1976) states that the top-down model uses print as input and meaning as output. The reader picks up graphic, syntactic and semantic cues to construct meaning. Goodman's psycholinguistic guessing game model is a top-down model (Grabe, 2009) notwithstanding protestations from Goodman who first proposed it in 1967. Its purport is that the reader generates expectations about the information to come next in the text, makes needed samples from the text, confirms his predictions, and then generates new expectations. Just like the bottom-up model, the top-down model in his turn has shortcomings that were highlighted by Grabe (2009: 89): "the model does not clarify what mechanisms the reader uses to generate

appropriate inferences, nor how sampling is directed by the mind or how the mental formation of comprehension works.” In addition, it may be impossible to make predictions when the reading topics are completely new.

1.11.3. Interactive Reading Model

After both bottom-up and top-down models have shown their drawbacks, Stanovich proposed his Interactive Compensatory Model of reading in 1980. This model, while not universally accepted, simply attempts to combine the valid insights of both bottom-up and top-down. Stanovich (1986) believes that the reader relies on both processes simultaneously and alternatively depending on the reading purpose, motivation, schema and knowledge of the subject. He integrates the notion of compensation to his model because he supposes that if there is a deficiency at the early stage of analyzing the words, higher order knowledge structures will attempt to compensate. This model assumes that developing reading skills will decrease readers’ dependence on context facilitation. Consequently, the reading process will be more flexible and comprehension faster (Grabe, 2009).

Conclusion

The growing body of literature in reading theory and research in both L1 and L2 has underlined the importance of the reading process in achieving comprehension by considering the cognitive aspect in the act of reading; that is, what happens in the brain starting from recognition of the smallest units of a text and associating meaning to those units, till the reconstruction of meaning of the whole text.

Research has not overlooked the importance of the component skills in reading. The effectiveness of automaticity in reading is essentially seen in improving readers’ fluency as

advocated by many cognitive psychologists. Recognizing vocabulary and formal discourse structure as well proved to enable the readers to make better use of text meaning and organization. This can be best achieved when background knowledge of the content is activated. Competent readers synthesize the actual information from the text and compare it to other sources of information they met before. The last component skill in reading entails the knowledge of how language functions and how the reader monitors his cognition when he recognizes problems affecting comprehension.

Second language research emphasized some areas in reading. The schema theory, automaticity, reading and vocabulary acquisition, and comprehension strategy instruction have received much interest in the literature. Reading attitudes and their impact on reading achievement were examined in so many studies (Yamashita, 2004; Black, 2006; and Petscher, 2010) and still create a vast area of investigation. Reading strategies (skimming, scanning, and so on) and their effectiveness in promoting comprehension took their important portion in research instruction. Researchers like Dubin (1982) and Presley (2000) emphasized the role of teachers in clarifying the strategies for students and raising their awareness about their importance in comprehension. Reading models (bottom-up, top-down and interactive reading) have been agreed on to be the analysis of the process of comprehension; how comprehension is carried out.

Although reading as a skill has been widely discussed and instructors are always providing new insights for the development of the skill, reading is still neglected by many students and not implemented in the curricular of some institutions and universities.

Chapter Two

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Chapter Two

Writing as a Skill

Introduction

In the long sweep of history, writing in colleges and universities has not been given serious consideration. Written rhetoric grew from the old oral rhetoric which has been traced back to 500 B.C. In the early history of written materials, writing was the art of the noble class because books were only written in Greek and Latin; lower classes did not have the chance to read or write since they only knew vernacular- that is, English. By the turn of the 19th century, there was an increasing need for writing in English with the establishment of new universities and colleges which helped raise the number of students who came from different social classes and who had not studied classical languages.

With writing becoming increasingly important, many educational institutions worked on developing writing classes especially after the results of the entrance exam that was introduced by Harvard University (1874) and which featured a writing requirement. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and syntax errors flawed more than half of the students' exam papers. After five years of observing students' results, a quick decision had to be made as a remedial; a required course in rhetoric that was given in the second year had to be moved to the first year. Many institutions followed Harvard University and integrated writing in the first year. This has soon proved insufficient in providing an instant solution to the problem. Much burden has been added to the teachers who had to respond to students' writings in a detailed manner. There was a need for a method of clarifying the type of error to students

without the need for detailed responses. Thus, a handbook of writing rules and conventions to which teachers could refer in the margins of students' papers was created.

Writing is one of the four language skills which is mostly emphasized in learning a second language and given great attention by both the teacher and the learner. In the Algerian university educational scene, Written Expression is a whole subject in the curriculum to which a volume of three hours to four and half is devoted. In the first year, essentials and mechanics of writing (organization, coherence, cohesion, punctuation, spelling, and capitalization) are emphasized. Besides, an introduction to paragraph writing is illustrated with an emphasis on the sentence level. In the course of second year, paragraph writing is detailed and essay writing is introduced. Types of essays are developed in the third year with more practice.

In this chapter we are going to see the nature and definition of writing, move through the stages of the writing process, clarify writing essentials and mechanics, identify how writing can be acquired in L1 and L2, and at last we will shed light on some types of writing that we should train our students on.

2.1. Nature of Writing

The first writings in the history of mankind date back to the Stone Age where the first man used to convey their thoughts using signs and drawings. Throughout the history, human beings have learnt to communicate effectively using writing which became more and more important in any civilization. It was, and still is, the voice of nations that dates for all aspects of life until it developed into literature.

Cognitive scientists often use the term ‘language’ to ‘spoken language’, not writing, unless specified. Written language is much less frequently discussed and is considered less important. One of the reasons suggested by Sinclair (2010) is the fact that the written language is a finished product and the writing process is internal to the writer which makes it even harder to understand what is happening inside the writer. Whereas for the spoken language, it is an ongoing process where the speaker’s cognitive activity (what he says and how he says it) is easily observed.

With the rise of the Grammar Translation Method, reading and writing were the focal points in learning a second language. Furthermore, formal written examinations were the only means of assessment during the period where the Grammar Translation Method dominated foreign language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). During the 19th century, and with the political and technological developments, academic attention became more and more focused on writing in English, rather than in Latin and Greek due to the growing population of university students who had to write in the vernacular, i.e. English (Clark, 2003).

It has been believed for a long time that students’ proficiency is measured by the number of grammar rules they acquired. Cortese (2001) referred to the works of Flower which distinguish the weak from the proficient student by their thinking which in its turn requires more than a set of grammatical rules. She argues that the importance of writing is stressed by all the current research in communication which also emphasize on the teaching of thinking skills, not just rules of grammar. Early research on composition explored the many areas where writing is important (Faigley and Witte, 1981; Flower and Hayes, 1981; Kroll and Schafer, 1978; Perl, 1979; Sommers, 1980; cited in Clark, 2003). Naturally, the importance of writing in the learning process is too great to be ignored, though writing occupies the fourth position in the sequence of skills development (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)

(Croft, 1972; Clark, 2003). It is by learning to write that we develop active thinking and engage in other learning disciplines, mainly those requiring written response. Emig (1977; cited in Thompson, 2012) asserts that writing serves the learning process in that it possesses a collection of elements corresponding only to certain powerful learning strategies. In a study carried out by Hodgson (2010; cited in Harris and Hodgson, 2012), nearly all the respondents asserted that essay writing was their most significant academic activity and contributed to the greater part of their assessment.

Acquiring writing skills has often been noticed to be the most difficult comparing to the other language skills since writing is an active process that requires careful thinking to attain comprehensive communication. Unlike in spoken language where paralinguistic features help convey the meaning, written language requires careful use of the language system as to compensate for the absence of these paralinguistic elements (Davies and Widdowson, 1974).

2.2. Definition of Writing

It is a commonplace these days that writing, as a productive process, is at the heart of any learning procedure. Putting letters together in harmony to create meaningful messages is what a layman recognizes as writing. Vygotsky (1986; cited in Thompson, 2012) contends that when the child starts learning to write, he must free himself from the sensory aspect of speech and learn to replace words by images of words; that is, to replace the sounds with orthographic symbols.

Conversely, Arapoff (1970) and Davies and Widdowson (1974) stress the fact that writing is way more than the orthographic symbolization of speech. Arapoff (1970) points out that writing at the first place is a purposeful selection and organization of experience. She

adds that writing effectiveness is determined by the clarity of the purpose and the relevance and organization of facts. It follows that learning to write is more than learning the codes and letters; it is, most importantly, learning to select and organize thoughts (facts, opinions, or ideas) according to a certain purpose. Richards (2003: 3) states: “One way to look at writing is to see it as marks on a page or a screen, a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences, structured according to a system of rules.”

Thompson (2012: 85), in his analysis of the Vygotskian approach to writing, argues for writing to be “a specific form of cultural and social activity, through which pupils attempt to communicate meaning, which involves a high level of abstraction.” Kesler (2012), following Vygotsky, considers that learning to write is about learning how to interact with other writers and readers and not just a demonstration of skills. Davies and Widdowson (1974) also attribute the notion of social activity to writing. They go on to say that learning to write involves learning a kind of social behavior. Cortese (2001) conceptualizes writing as a dynamic, non-linear process where the writer is often inspired along with the writing activity and just like in a voyage of discovery, she adds, the writer begins at one point and may eventually find himself somewhere never expected.

2.3. The Writing Process

Throughout the literacy works concerned with writing, the writing process has been receiving much interest for the purpose of understanding how the writer proceeds to get to the final product and identify the difficulties within the process in order to help the student writer reach his main objectives (Kroll, 1990). Earlier research on writing has been considering psychological research on problem solving attempting to understand the process of writing (Galbraith, 2009). Flower and Hayes (1981) in their paper ‘ A cognitive process theory of

writing' described the process of writing from a cognitive perspective as a set of distinctive think processes that are put together in harmony during the act of composing. These processes are orchestrated hierarchically in such a way that any process can be embedded within any other. The writing process, in fact, attempts to bridge the gap between thinking and editing; when the students are used to go through repeated steps of the writing process, they are most likely to develop their thinking as well as their written productions.

The keystone of the cognitive process theory suggested by Flower and Hayes (1981) is the proposition that the act of composing is a goal-directed process; that is, the writer guides this process by his own growing network of goals. Before starting any writing situation, writers tend to engage in the planning process whose major aspect is goal-setting. Dykstra (1972) believes that by setting up subgoals (or objectives within goals), students will get closer to approximations of the ultimate goal; that is to say, if the ultimate goal is a sample writing, students will have certain objectives, such as approximating the structure of the sample, in order to come up to a production similar to the model goal. From a holistic view, Flower and Hayes (1981) demonstrate that writers do not only develop or refine their goals in the first stage of the writing process (prewriting); it is rather an ongoing, moment-to-moment process which increases creativity and distinguishes between good and poor writers. Hence, establishing purpose at the very beginning of the writing act facilitates the process of writing and helps the smooth flow of ideas.

Just like the division of the reading process into three stages given by Davies and Widdowson (1974); recognition, structuring, and interpretation, they distinguished three corresponding stages in the production of writing; *manipulation*, which has to do with the writing system of the language and manipulating the shapes of the letters of English, *structuring*, or reconstructing sentence patterns, and *communication*; delivering the message

is the most important and difficult stage in that written communication does not share the same circumstances with spoken communication. These stages, in fact, do not focus on the process of writing as ideas to be organized for a meaningful communication.

The common division of the writing process today does not recognize the writing production as a linear process but rather a recursive one (Raimes, 1987; Cortese, 2001); that is, the various activities of the writing process are cycled through and repeated many times during the writing process (Irvin, 2010). The division can be expressed as follows: prewriting, writing, and rewriting.

2.3.1. Prewriting

The prewriting stage, or the planning stage, is the first and foremost step in the development of a written piece. At this stage, all the topic-related ideas in the brain, just like a storm of thoughts, are generated and organized. Later, the unnecessary ideas are eliminated and the related ideas are grouped together to shortly after form (a) paragraph(s). The writer may use several techniques at this stage; brainstorming, clustering, listing, mapping, and free-writing. The importance of this stage lies in the preparation and organization it provides for the writer before engaging in the final editing. Likewise, students who are used to pre-writing experiences are said to have better writing achievements than those who engage directly in the work without any preparation (Parson, 1985). Some updated sources also refer to this stage as *invention* (Clark, 2003a). Invention is said to include all what the student does before starting composing a paper. Needless to say that invention is kept all along the process of composing; yet again in this stage of writing the student makes his first inventions (Teaching Writing as a Process, 2014). Five techniques or activities have been attributed to invention:

Reading as a writer; in academic writing, reading about the topic is said to be of a great importance. With this activity, and when reading actively, they widen their knowledge, look for patterns, and start asking questions or challenging the writer and maybe do a little research to clarify some fuzzy points.

Generating ideas; it includes retrieving topic-related information from the long-term memory (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Although prewriting may seem disorganized because the writer might engage in circular thinking and get into dead ends, this stage is said to be productive for discovering ideas (Clouse, 2008). For the purpose of yielding better written pieces, several strategies for generating ideas can be followed. Free-writing, brainstorming, or discovery drafts (a more focused form of free-writing) can be used to gather information about the topic. Instructors also may help in this activity with the old fashioned method; creating dialogues and asking questions which guide the students to a way of interrogating their best ideas.

Organizing ideas; when the relevant information in the writer's memory are not organized according to the current rhetorical task, the sub-process of organizing helps the writer make a meaningful structure of his ideas (Flower & Hayes, 1981). After generating their ideas, some students tend to organize them under formal outlines, i.e. organizing ideas and following the same order when developing. Others prefer informal outlines that they organized while drafting. Some students follow a more scientific method by sketching their papers. They write down a possible thesis and start filling the paper with arrows, circle, or stars to establish connections between their ideas. Another strategy to organize ideas is by jotting down the umbrella ideas and trying to cluster the related ideas underneath them. Clouse (2008) suggests three strategies for ordering ideas; following the *chronological order* (beginning with what happened first), *spatial order* (particular movements across space as

from the outside to the inside, left to right and so on so forth), and *progressive order* (from the least compelling to the most compelling idea). Nevertheless, with the many strategies available, some students rely overmuch on only one strategy and if it does not work, they are trapped. The teacher's role here is mostly needed to display other effective organizational strategies.

Contextualizing ideas; while organizing ideas, students may get stuck with some arguments and cannot find where they fit in their composition. Some research can be helpful; in that, they may find some related writings and get inspired from their patterns. Teachers may also interfere by raising questions like where does this idea come from? What has been said in the light of this idea? In what way does it relate to the other ideas? And so on. Flower and Hayes (1981) emphasize textual decisions in the sub-process of organization. They testify that writers should identify first or last topics, major ideas, and patterns of presentation so as to achieve organization.

Coming up with a working thesis; here is the last step of invention and the first formal step of composing (writing). The working thesis, or thesis question, need to be written on top of the paper where the student can see it in order to stay focus on his/her arguments.

Students need to be made aware of the importance of the prewriting stage and the different activities and techniques within this process in order to push them out of a writing funk (Teaching Writing as a Process).

2.3.2. Writing

Writing, also referred to as 'drafting', is the stage of putting all the ideas together and shaping the first structure of the composition. This stage is writer-based as referred to by

Clouse (2008) since the writer's core objective is to effectively express ideas. According to Flower and Hayes (1981; cited in Nemouchi, 2008), the writing stage -to which they attributed the term 'translating' over other terms, like transcribing and writing, in order to emphasize the peculiar qualities of the task" (Flower and Hayes, 1981: 373) - is a process for executing a pre-set sketch and organizing the information into meaningful clusters, besides linking those clusters together. In their paper entitled 'A cognitive process theory of writing', Flower and Hayes (1981: 373) attributed a metaphoric description to translation: "trying to capture the movement of a deer on ice".

Menand (2000; cited in Cortese, 2001), Harris (2003), Bailey (2003) and Clouse (2008) argue that the student's essay must go through various drafts. Cortese (2001) clarifies that it must not be regarded as a waste of time to undergo several drafts for an essay, but rather it is an ensuring process to develop, shape, organize, and redefine ideas.

When drafting, students should not focus on the writing mechanics and demands (spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and grammar rules). They should rather pay attention to the content and the main ideas because this may be an extra burden for the limited capacity of short-term memory. They might write short notes to be considered later; that is, the first draft does not necessarily need to be well written because they will have time to revise in the next stage (Galko, 2002; Flower & Hayes, 1981).

2.3.3. Rewriting

The last stage rewriting, or revising, as the latter name suggests, entails reading the first draft with the audience eye (potential readers) and trying to correct the mechanical parts and adding the missing information or deleting the unnecessary ones. Revision, as the word implies, means seeing again; that is, the process of revision requires from the writer to look

again at their work from the reader's point of view (Clouse, 2008). Flower and Hayes (1981) contend that reviewing depends on two sub-processes; evaluating and revising. Systematic evaluation and revision allow for new cycles of planning and translating. They may also occur at any stage of the writing process. Flower and Hayes (1981) also described this phase as a series of strategies intended to re-examine and re-evaluate the writer's choices besides minimizing the number of mistakes and inconsistencies.

The student writer should proofread his piece and consider it from the teacher's eye. Reviewing one's draft allows for a new vision and may be a call for some changes or assertions; the student must check if all the information he wanted to include are expressed clearly and appropriately. Most teachers of writing believe and often advise their students that revision is a good critical reading that can improve writing (Harris, 2003; Bailey, 2003). This is based on the evidence brought by Beach's (1976; cited in Harris, 2003) study of self-evaluation strategies of revisers and non-revisers, and Wood's (1993) study about self-correction and rewriting, which revealed that students who often revise their writings were more capable of detaching themselves and gaining aesthetic distance from their writing than were non-revisers. Wood (1993) implied the correction code technique at the University of Kansas and found that it was motivational more than educational; in that, students enjoyed comparing their 'rewrites' with their first drafts. Consequently, the clumsy words, unclear expressions, irrelevant details, and many other problems that can be detected in the first draft, can be converted into a clear reasonable composition through the process of revision. Polished writing, indeed, requires lots of revision (Clouse, 2008; Irvin, 2010). This stage brings about the final editing after all the revision and correction is done. Eventually, the first draft is rewritten.

2.4. Writing Essentials

Comprehensible, well-shaped compositions are the ultimate purpose behind any writing situation. Academic English writing requires specific criteria of great importance to the value of the piece of writing. Expert writers consider many aspects of writing in their productions which enable a characterization of differences between them and other novice writers. Kellogg (2008) states that learning to write a coherent and effective text is a difficult and protracted achievement of cognitive development. A clear and organized paper is easily understood and gets high scores in the classroom. Thus, the vital elements of effective writing comprise the following organization, clarity, word choice, and writing mechanics:

2.4.1. Organization

An organized paragraph or essay is one that respects the flow of ideas and represents them in harmony with the subject matter. Organization is critical to good essay writing in that it guarantees guidance and direction through the writing process especially when bound by time constraints (Starkey, 2004; Clouse, 2008). Being organized in writing implies following specific frameworks to develop the topic-related ideas such as the strategies proposed by Clouse (2008) for ordering ideas (chronological order, spatial order, and progressive order). Starkey (2004: 2) states that: “organization lets you see how your many developing ideas fit within a framework, and clearly maps out any type of essay you are required to write.” He suggests a method of organizing the work by dividing the time offered for the essay into one-fourth for prewriting and organization, half the time for writing, and the other fourth for revising and editing. Not only organization benefits the writer, but the reader as well. An organized essay helps the reader travel through the ideas and visit all supporting details and get the whole meaning at the end of the tour. Starkey (2004) supports this claim and adds that

organization gives direction and purpose to the writing piece and gets the reader to believe the writer's thoughts and follow his path.

To achieve organization, many methods can be used by the student writers after they have been through free-writing, brainstorming, mapping, and other prewriting techniques. Some students prefer to draw outlines where related ideas are grouped together following a logical progression, others use pyramid charts where the thesis statement is on the top and the supporting details are placed underneath according to their importance, while some other students do not prefer the highly structured forms and often opt for listing (Starkey, 2004).

2.4.2. Clarity

It is about getting the story straight and assuring the transmission of meaning to the readers. Good ideas are not always enough for an interesting composition; they have to be well expressed to catch the reader's attention. To achieve clarity, sentences should be well shaped so that they flow well from one to the next. Coordination, subordination, sentence variety, and parallel structure are proved to be achieving clarity (Clouse, 2008). The composition's readability is determined by its clarity and the writer's accuracy; readers may not be able to understand what the writer wants to say if he is not accurate in expressing his ideas. Starkey (2004) recommends five guidelines for the writer to help clarify his writings:

Eliminate ambiguity: students may become overloaded with the storm of ideas they generate in the prewriting stage. This might lead to some confusion between some language patterns and word order, and thus, ambiguity takes place. Starkey (2004) advises that ambiguous language should be avoided, and words or phrases that have various meanings should be evaded. Besides, writers should pay attention to word order because it may convey a different meaning from the one they intended.

Add precision using modifiers: modifiers are said to be clearing ideas and enforcing meaning (Starkey, 2004). Using adjectives and adverbs helps convey the message appropriately and accurately in few words especially when restricted with specific length of the composition. As an example, ‘the characters in the movie were not acting well’ can be best expressed as follows: ‘the characters in the movie were terrible’.

Use powerful, precise adjectives and adverbs: pinpointing is a technique for precise writing. Students are required to precise information as much as possible and to avoid putting the reader in guessing situations (Starkey, 2004; Clouse, 2008). Take for instance: ‘the invention of electricity has helped humanity in many ways’. Why do we leave our readers guessing while we can precise the fields? A better sentence may be: ‘the invention of electricity has helped humanity in developing the industry and boosting up the wheel of technology.’

Be concise: in English we write for economy; that is, the fewer words you use, the better your message is conveyed. Wordy sentences are boring and time/space consuming (Starkey, 2004). In an exam situation, students are restricted with time (90 minutes), and wordiness will not be their support. Some exams (such as SAT and TOFEL) bound the writers with a limited number of words or pages. So, there is no need to use unnecessary sentences to express an idea that can be stated in just one sentence. Starkey (2004) and Clouse (2008) advise to eliminate unnecessary words and phrases and replace the passive voice with the active voice which conveys the message directly and precisely. For example, some expressions like *all of a sudden*, *as a matter of fact*, and *at the present time* may be respectively replaced with *suddenly*, *in fact*, and *currently*.

Avoid unnecessary repetition: repeated ideas or information are a sign of sloppy writing that wastes time and space. Saying the same thing many times with slight changes each time may destroy the ideas and leads to losing the reader's attention and interest in the next ideas. It is always advised to say it once and move on to the next ideas (Starkey, 2004).

2.4.3. Word choice

Words are critical to the transmission of meaning; they are the primary means of communication. Well chosen words are in direct touch with the idea and help keep the readers interest and passion to read the rest of the composition. The notion of word choice does not only imply using appropriate language that is related to content, purpose, audience, and form, but also strong, effective, and precise verbs, adverbs, and adjectives, in addition to proper grammar use (Peha, 2003). Clouse (2008) referred to word choice by the term 'diction' to which she designated three levels; formal, popular, and informal.

The formal level of diction is used when addressing specialist, people of higher positions, and in formal situations such as a letter to the Mayor or the head of department, academic articles, and so on. Formal diction requires careful use of grammar rules and writing mechanics. Long sentences and technical language are preferred, whereas personal pronouns and contractions are disfavored. Clouse (2008) stresses the impersonal, humorless, and unemotional tone to formal diction.

The popular level is usually found in magazines, newspapers, and books. Unlike the formal level, the writer's personality and sense of humor may occur in the popular level of diction. Besides, contractions can be used freely. However, grammar rules must be strictly followed.

The informal level of diction includes short sentences and, sometimes, slang expressions. Grammar rules are not strictly adhered to. This level of diction is not accepted in academic writing, it is rather suitable for friendly communications and personal journals.

Starkey (2004) and Clouse (2008) stressed on the appropriate use of words' connotation; that is, the implied meaning, emotions, and ideas associated with the words. They emphasize that both denotation (literal meaning) and connotation must be considered before choosing the words not to confuse the readers.

2.4.4. Coherence

Coherence can be thought of as how logically ideas and statements relate to each other. In linguistics, coherence is what makes a discourse semantically meaningful. According to Yue (1993), it holds segments of the text together and provides its main thread by showing the persistence of some entity from one moment to another in the semantic process while clarifying meaning. Yule (1996: 84), in his book *Pragmatics*, analyses coherence as a part of discourse and defines it as follows: "Generally, what language users have most in mind is an assumption of **coherence**, that what is said or written will make sense in terms of their normal experience of things."

According to Yule's definition, when sentences, ideas, and details are logically related to each other, listeners or readers can understand the discourse easily. To achieve the purpose of writing, ideas and paragraphs need to be connected smoothly and their relation should be demonstrated. There are two ways to reveal this relation and realize coherence; using transitions and repetitions. Transitions are connective expressions relating ideas. For example, to show addition; 'also', 'furthermore', 'in addition' can be used. To show spatial arrangement, possible expressions can be 'beside', 'below', 'on the side'. Repeating key

words, or their synonyms, clarifies the relations between ideas and paragraphs (Clouse, 2008). As an example, ‘Road rage is very dangerous. This serious problem may lead to deadly accidents in our roads.’ The phrase *this serious problem* in the second sentence refers to the factor described in the first sentence; *road rage*.

2.5. Writing Mechanics

The basic mechanics of writing are first taught at the primary grades of school. They are emphasized to reach automaticity in order to free the working memory for higher order processes (Kellogg, 2008). Spelling and punctuation are parts of the writing system in Mountford’s terms (Mountford, 1990: 379). Teaching punctuation, capitalization, and spelling is one of the most important tasks to Written Expression teachers. These skills are essential to facilitate the reading task. According to Kellaher (2001), no matter how brilliant the ideas are, without these skills, they will not be conveyed effectively.

2.5.1. Punctuation and Capitalization

Punctuation and capitalization rules may seem niggling and exhausting. Yet, they are very critical to effective writing. They allow for a readable and understandable writing. Misusing or eliminating punctuation and capitalization rules affects the meaning and may change it completely. Consider for example this sentence: “Let’s eat grandmother” without the comma, the sentence is meaningless since grandmother is not a meal, whereas “let’s eat, grandmother” conveys the right meaning. Another example for the relation between capitalization and meaning is the expression “ice age”. Capitalized, it means any of a series of cold periods alternating with periods of relative warmth. On the other hand, if used with capital ‘I’ and capital ‘A’, it means the glacial epoch in the history of mankind. Hence, any error in capitalization may affect the intended meaning and mislead the reader.

The colon, comma, hyphen, and apostrophe are types of punctuation marks that people disagree about their use in some situations. Nevertheless, they need careful attention in learning to use them properly. Starkey (2004) contends that proper punctuation allows for more polished and technically correct writing, and will convey the meaning more directly. Clouse (2008: 643) states that: “Punctuation marks aid communication because they signal where ideas end, how ideas relate to one another, which ideas are emphasized, which ideas are downplayed, and which ideas are expressed in someone’s spoken words.”

EFL learners, whose L1 is Arabic, Chinese, or Japanese, may not see the significance of the size difference between capital and lower case letters. Moreover, in French, which is a Romance language, names of languages, religions, nationalities, and days of the week are not capitalized unlike the English language which emphasizes their capitalization (Clouse, 2008). Generally speaking, repeated use of capitalization rules helps the writers become more familiar to the usage and the various cases where capitalization makes the difference until they reach automaticity and the rules are acquired.

2.5.2. Spelling

The conventions governing the relations between graphemes and units of language structure is how Mountford (2005: 380) defines spelling. Spelling is another important factor in writing and one that EFL teachers consider a lot when evaluating their students writings. In a study dealing with EFL students’ spelling mistakes, El-Hibir and Altaha (1993) concluded that EFL students spell as they pronounce disregarding the fact that English spelling and pronunciation do not always overlap. Clouse (2008) argues that the writer seems careless with frequent misspellings in the same paper. She stresses that students who experience persistent spelling problems should study the rules and should use some strategies to memorize them.

They can review the rules and scan the examples and exceptions until they become a kind of habit while writing.

Misspelled words may also change the intended meaning. There are some words in English where changing the order of the letters, or replacing one letter with another, will certainly change the whole meaning. The possessive pronoun “their” is often misspelled as “there” and the verb “hear” is frequently confused with the adverb of place “here”. Starkey (2004) claims that spelling errors make the writer seem sloppy, unprofessional, not as smart, and lazy. For this reason, he joins Clouse (2008) and advises that writers are required to put in little time to improve their spelling.

While composing, and especially in the early stages of the writing process, students do not pay much attention to the spelling mistakes; the fundamental focus is on the ideas. Theoretically, it is at the last stage that the student writers re-read their writings and attempt to correct any potential errors. Bailey (2003: 48) considers ‘proof-reading’ as “the vital final stage of the writing process [which] can prevent confusion and misunderstanding of [the students] work”

2.6. Acquisition of Writing

Throughout the literature, there has been a wide proliferation of research and review papers about the acquisition of written literacy. Kellogg (2008), in his paper examining the cognitive development of the writing skills, pointed out that a typical development of the writing skills can be achieved over a course of more than two decades. Our EFL students are supposed to develop their language skills all through their early years in the middle school where English is integrated in the curriculum as a second foreign language. They are taught about the rules, the patterns, and the different components of the language in such a way that

all the skills are covered and related tasks are introduced and elaborated. In the middle and high school, students are to write simple paragraphs, generally guided ones, about previously explained and detailed topics. They are not likely to acquire the writing skill in the limited time given to the English course (two hours per week for scientific streams and three hours for the literature streams). Whereas at the university level, Written Expression is a vital element in the teaching of English that receives more attention owing to its influence in the other subject matters.

One idea of concern about the acquisition of writing is that our students are not writing their own English words, but rather translating their thoughts from their L1 (Arabic) into the L2 (English) often resulting in grammatically incorrect sentences (Kang, 1993). Students are most of the time given this advice: “think English, write English”, yet they fall in the same mistake, either consciously or unconsciously because they did not develop this skill through reading.

In sum, language is said to be acquired when the user is being competent in receiving and producing the language. Understanding a second language and being able to communicate using that language is not such a great project to realize; many have succeeded and became proficient users and even overpass native speakers like Josef Conrad, the famous Polish-born English author, and Ha Jin who had all his education in China and wrote about the United States in English when he moved there. There are also many outstanding examples of Algerian writers who emerged as French writers like Mohammed Dib and Katib Yacine. Hence, by developing ones level in any foreign language, the writing skill must be built up as well as the other language skills so as to be competent users of the language.

2.7. Types of Writing

The term writing does not always mean the writing act. As referred to earlier in this chapter, writing entails various factors that determine its effectiveness (Writing Essentials and Writing Mechanics). Similarly, different types of writing have different characteristics and require a set of strategies and methods of development. We have chosen to elaborate five types of writing in this section.

2.7.1. Academic Writing

Academic writing is a special type of writing that is used in academic papers and situations. College writings must follow this type due to its characteristics which are required in the evaluation of students' productions nearly in all the discipline. In this perspective, Nordquist (2014) identifies academic writing as the expository and argumentative forms of prose that university students use to convey a body of information about a particular subject. He goes on to say that expectations of academic writing require it to be precise, semi-formal, impersonal, and objective. The definition provided by Wikipedia (2009) emphasizes the feature of impersonality to academic writing since the focus is on the topic not the writer:

Writing in these forms or styles is usually written in an impersonal and dispassionate tone, targeted for a critical and informed audience, based on closely investigated knowledge, and intended to reinforce or challenge concepts or arguments. It usually circulates within the academic world ('the academy'), but the academic writer may also find an audience outside via journalism, speeches, pamphlets, etc.

For Myles (2002) and Irvin (2010), academic writing is a form of evaluation where students are required to use conscious efforts and much practice in certain disciplinary skills

of thinking, interpreting, and presenting in order to express knowledge and proficiency. Academic writing in English, whose objective is informing rather than entertaining, is said to be linear due to the English rule that requires one idea per sentence. That is to say, every part that contributes to the main line of argument has one central point, without digressions or repetitions (Academic writing: Features of academic writing, 2014).

Features of academic writing have been widely discussed. It is somewhat: *complex*; written language is said to be more complex than spoken language in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and discourse features. Second, it is *formal*; specific structure of the composition and the language itself should be formal. Third, it is said to be *objective*; in that the writer's personality should not appear in his writing and the main emphasis should be on the information and the arguments. Fourth, it is *explicit*; in relating the parts of the text together and acknowledging the sources of the ideas. Fifth, it is *hedged*; using cautious language like certain lexical verbs (believe, assume, suggest). Sixth, it is *responsible*; the writer is responsible for any claim he makes and for his own understanding of any source he used. Finally, it is *precise*; the writers need to precise any fact they indicate in their texts, and *accurate*; accurate vocabulary use and word choice are required (Academic writing: Features of academic writing, 2014).

EFL students generally find academic writing extremely challenging. This is mainly due to the fact that it is cognitively complex. On top of the wide range of vocabulary need, they have to learn a series of principles in style, referencing, and organization (Myles, 2002; Bailey, 2003). In a study investigating the standards of academic writing, Thaiss and Zawacki (2006) addressed university teachers at George Mason University and concluded with three characteristics of academic writing: first, the written piece demonstrates the writer's persistency, open-mind, and discipline in the study. Second, reason is clearly dominating

over emotions or sensual perception. Finally, academic writing is addressed to an imagined, coolly rational reader who reads for information, and intends to formulate a reasoned response.

2.7.2. Cognitive Writing

Writing as a process has been the focal point of cognitive research based on the claim that writing is a problem-solving process (Flower and Hayes; 1981, Raimes; 1987, Kellogg; 2008, Galbraith; 2009). Cognitive scientists claim the extraordinarily complexity of the writing process while the representation of the writing problem for good writers is a “complex speech act” (Sinclair, 2010). An expert describes (cited in Sinclair, 2010: 2): “a writer in the act is a thinker on a full-time overload”. The question that has generated a range of response is ‘to which extent does cognition interfere in the writing process?’ Kellogg (2008) determines several cognitive stages while composing. He distinguished between beginner writers, who move from a stage of knowledge-telling, where planning is limited to the retrieved ideas with minimal interaction between planning, translation, and reviewing, to a stage of knowledge-transforming, where all is integrated, and experienced writers, who progress further to a more expert stage of knowledge-crafting in which the working memory manipulates representations of the pre-set content and the potential interpretations of the text the audience may generate.

Unlike the division of the writing process presented by Flower and Hayes (1981) (planning, transcribing, and revising), Kellogg’s (2008:5) division provides thorough information of what happens within each phase:

[T]he stage of knowledge-telling is dominated by the author's representation. By the stage of knowledge-transforming, the text representation is both sufficiently detailed

and stable enough to maintain in working memory to permit an interaction between the author and text representations. Yet, the reader representation is not yet routinely entered into the interaction in working memory until the stage of knowledge-crafting.

The chart below describes the three cognitive stages of the writing skill.

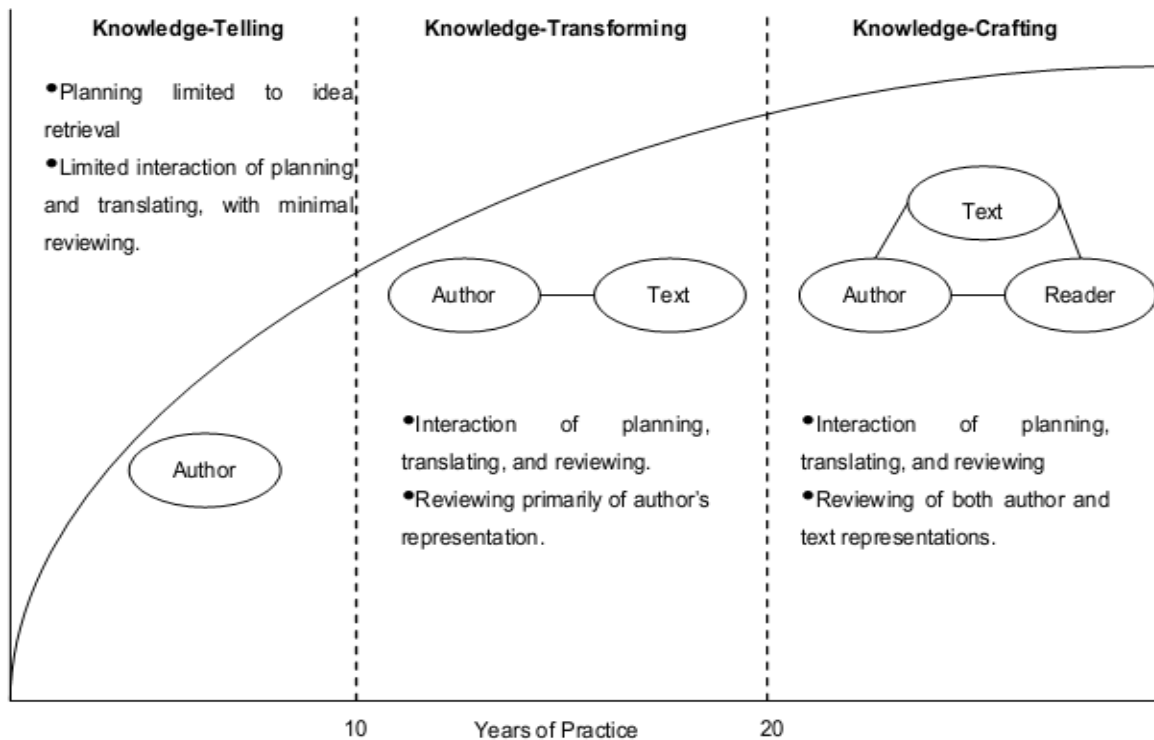


Figure 2.1. Macro-stages in the cognitive development of writing skill. (Kellogg, 2008: 4)

Writing advanced extended texts may be a challenging process to the cognitive systems. This involves using all the accessible information stored in the long-term memory or maintained in the short-term working memory, as well as the thinking strategies which help produce an organized composition (Kellogg, 2008). The importance of memory and thinking in the writing process is as vital as the importance of vocabulary and word choice to verbal and written communication. It is the role of memory to retrieve information and create mental representations of the text and the role of thinking to systematize the ideas and information.

2.7.3. Science Writing

Science writing is generally related to research in scientific fields. It requires specific terminology and language patterns. As science develops, the need for science writing increases and scientists are required to work on their science writing skills. Articles dealing with scientific topics and targeting general audience (such as global warming) are said to be science writing, whereas those intended for scientists and people in the field are said to be scientific writing (Nemouchi, 2008). This implies that science writing uses more simplified terminology than is the case with scientific writing.

Contrary to Arabic, in English we write economically. Yet, in science writing, concise writing is highly recommended. Students are to be made aware that their primary goal is to transmit information as well as facilitating communication, and their best way to achieve this goal is through lucid and exact writing. Word choice is as important as writing itself. Yang (1995) advises science writers to:

- delete uninformative words and avoid redundancy; readability is achieved in fewer words. Why say 'past history' where it is enough to say 'history'.

- use one word to replace a phrase; for instance, 'at this point in time' can be better expressed as 'now'

- avoid grandiloquence; grandiose styles which aim to impress the audience are often regarded as ridicule. Most memorable speeches of effective people in history were modest and to the point.

- avoid clichés and euphemisms; for example, 'owing to the fact that' is better omitted and 'we sacrificed the animal' is better expressed as 'we killed the animal'.

- use synonyms; repeated use of the same terms makes the text tedious. In addition, some synonyms are sometimes expressing meaning precisely. Students should be encouraged to use a thesaurus for more synonyms.

Science is said to be hard to read owing to the intense complexity of scientific data and concepts as well as terminology. Gopen and Swan (1990) notify oversimplifying scientific issues and advise a number of rhetorical principles in order to clarify the message since what matters the most is whether the audience accurately perceives the information rather than putting all the data into sentences and paragraphs.

“If the reader is to grasp what the writer means, the writer must understand what the reader needs.” (Gopen & Swan, 1990: 1). ‘The reader expectations’ is a methodology derived from the idea that the readers make their interpretations based on clues they obtain from the structure of the text. Gopen and Swan (1990) provide an example for clarification. There are two possibilities of presenting the following data:

1) t (time)=15', T (temperature)=32°, t=0', T=25°; t=6', T=29°; t=3', T=27°; t=12', T=32°; t=9'; T=31°

2) time (min)	temperature (°C)
0	25
3	27
6	29
9	31
12	32
15	32

The same information is presented in both formats. However, the second seems to be easier to interpret. Hence, the writer takes this into consideration and uses the second format to facilitate the act of reading and understanding.

Gopen and Swan (1990: 11) suggested the following structural principles to make the scientific text more comprehensible:

1. Follow a grammatical subject as soon as possible with its verb.
2. Place in the stress position the "new information" you want the reader to emphasize.
3. Place the person or thing whose "story" a sentence is telling at the beginning of the sentence, in the topic position.
4. Place appropriate "old information" (material already stated in the discourse) in the topic position for linkage backward and contextualization forward.
5. Articulate the action of every clause or sentence in its verb.
6. In general, provide context for your reader before asking that reader to consider anything new.
7. In general, try to ensure that the relative emphases of the substance coincide with the relative expectations for emphasis raised by the structure.

Science writing is a means of communicating scientific discoveries and researches which makes science within the easy reach of the simple person. The explained subjects are the results of thorough research and experiments simplified by science writers whose primary aim is to facilitate communication and transmit information.

2.7.4. Creative Writing

‘Be original, be creative’, that is how we often advise our students in the writing tasks. But what is the originality or creativity we are seeking here? University students have developed a certain luggage of vocabulary that enables them to express themselves in almost every topic they are exposed to in their Writing class. Yet, not every assembling of words and sentences is to be called a good piece of writing. Teachers look for their students fingerprint in their compositions; something original of each one of them, unlike the classic essays following the same ideas and patterns.

There are a quite good number of topics where students feel motivated to bring about their original ideas and express themselves creatively. Constantly, students reveal a pretty good style and production when they are writing about their own experiences or describing someone they cherish or something they are eager to reach and realize. They are motivated to use more beautiful and expressive words to portray their feelings in their writing. Poetry is the best example of creative writing since the writers try to retrieve their most elegant words and expressions from the long term memory and put them together in a stylish harmony to produce an impressing poem. Fiction can qualify creative prose writing for there is an emphasis on narrative craft and character development according to the definition of creative writing provided by Wikipedia the free encyclopedia (2014).

Writing creatively is a way of unlocking one’s imagination and sailing in the oceans of literature. There is no exact definition to creative writing for it is a subjective pursuit as referred to by Donovan (2009). She goes on to assert that what can be determined as creative writing by someone, cannot be seen so by someone else although there are some types of writing that can never be called creative such as encyclopedia articles, and a few types that

consensus regard as creative. Autobiographies, or memoirs, personal and journalistic essays, epic, novels, and flash fiction are all agreed on to be creative writing when they achieve the essential elements of creative writing represented in the following: character, point of view, plot, setting, dialogue (for fiction), style (for fiction), theme, and motif (Wikipedia, 2014).

Teaching creative writing may seem a difficult task since the teacher cannot get in the students' minds and force them to imagine. Nevertheless, they can guide them and provide them with sample compositions to enhance their store of imagination directions. The first and foremost tip of creative writing is by following the golden rule: showing, not telling; do not tell what is happening, show it to the reader and let him see the images you create. Burns (2003: 6) refers to creative writing as vivid writing (especially for fiction) and provides a set of advice in order to avoid the pitfalls of 'telling' rather than 'showing':

- Use strong, specific verbs, and avoid overusing adverbs.
- Provoke emotions through character reactions and vivid writing; don't simply tell readers how to feel.
- Use well-placed details to bring scenes to life.
- Use expressive dialogue to show characters' emotions and attitudes.

2.7.5. Cooperative Writing

Although writing is meant to be individual, especially when it is to be graded, more benefits can be achieved from a cooperative writing activity. For one, the amount of material retained by students working in groups has been proved to be way more than is achieved by students working on their own, in addition to improving the motivation to learn and students' self-esteem when they feel the appreciation of their peers towards what they add to the group discussion (Calderon, 1989; cited in Gold & Pintozzi, 2000). Educational researchers and

practitioners agree that working together in small discussion groups help EFL learners build their written language skills ((Díaz, 1988; Dupuy, 1996; Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991; Ferris & Tagg, 1996; Thonis, 1994; cited in Gold & Pintozzi, 2000).

Cooperative writing may not achieve the intended goals if the activity rules are not clear for both students and teachers. Calderon (1989; cited in Gold & Pintozzi, 2000) emphasized on a set of requirements for cooperative writing to be more effective and beneficial. First and foremost, students need to understand and be prepared for collaborative groups. Teachers also need to understand that they are now facilitators of the learning process rather than senders of knowledge in that they control the groups and follow the process of writing. Clear assignment of roles to the group members also needs to be taken into consideration; students need to be in tune with each other to make the discussion fruitful. There has to be a leader, time keeper, arbitrator, and recorder. Finally, Calderon (1989; cited in Gold & Pintozzi, 2000) stresses the role of feedback and clarifying assessments in helping the students in the upcoming activities. Richards (2003) focuses on the importance of teacher's feedback in shaping students productions. Harmer (2006) and Nunan (1991) support Calderon's claim and asserts that students find the writing activity motivating while engaged in a group work especially when they embark on the research, discussed on the topics, had peer evaluation and achieved the group's goal.

The primary aim of the cooperative writing is to get all the group members involved in the activity and encourage them for equal active contributions in adding, editing, and eliminating text. Every contribution from any member should motivate the others to participate and enrich the discussion. When each participant makes a unique contribution to reach a general vision or goal statement, successful collaboration is said to be achieved (Nemouchi, 2008). The difficulty of the cooperative writing then resides in the equal

contribution in the activity. If one student is not contributing, not interested, or is kept aside, the activity loses its value and the goal is not achieved for all the members. The growing number of students in the classrooms makes it difficult for the teacher to control the groups and guarantee the contribution of all the members. Hence, it is both the teacher's and students' responsibility to make cooperative writing activities an effective educational approach to improve the students' achievement in writing.

Conclusion

So far, we have gone through the different steps of writing development and integration the educational programs throughout the history. We have also seen the nature of writing, what writing is, writing processes, essentials, and mechanics. We shed light on the process of acquiring writing as well as the different types of writing; from academic, to cognitive, to science writing, to creative and cooperative writing.

The process of writing has been tackled from the cognitive perspective by many scholars like Flower and Hayes (1981), Raimes (1987), and Cloose (2008). There have been many divisions for the process of writing, but the most common one included three stages being *pre-writing*, *writing*, and *re-writing*. For the pre-writing stage, it consists of generating ideas, organizing and contextualizing them until they come up with a working thesis for their composition to start the writing phase. In the latter, students put their ideas together according to an organized outline. Finally, they revise their first draft for possible errors, correct them and rewrite their final paper.

Originally, for a successful written piece, it must obey to some rules and criteria including the form, the content, and the language. Writing essentials (organization, clarity,

word choice, and coherence) as well as writing mechanics (punctuation, capitalization, and spelling) determine the extent to which a student has been successful in his/her composition.

Naturally, research has unveiled so many areas of writing and provided instructors and teachers with a wide range of types of writing to train students and put them in different situations similar to those they are going to face in the real world. Academic writing trains students to the accepted language in academic settings with the objective of informing rather than entertaining, while cognitive writing goes in deep and examines what happens in the brain all along the writing process. On the other hand, science writing trains students to the terminology and language patterns needed in scientific fields like writing scientific papers in the field of Biology or Computing.

Although teaching creative writing seems to be an easier-said-than-done task for teachers since they cannot get into their students' minds and force them to imagine, yet they can guide their imagination and provide them with sample compositions about outstanding topics and styles (especially fiction). Finally, we have dealt with cooperative writing and clarified its positive impact on developing students' writing after interacting with each other; the weak students take advantage from the good students when working in groups. They will get to write in a less stressing environment with their peers, each will have equal chance to contribute in the production of the composition.

In sum, writing is a reflective act that is meant to communicate and convey ideas. It requires a different type of mental process with more time to think about the topic, generate ideas, jot them down, and revise for correcting mistakes and changing ideas or expressions. Hence, for a successful communication to be achieved, students' writing needs to be shaped

and polished in order to help them bring out the best of what they have in their minds in a more accurate and skilful manner.

Chapter Three

Approaches and Assessment of Writing

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Chapter Three

Approaches and Assessment of Writing

Introduction

Teaching writing has assumed huge importance in recent years in response to the countless EFL learners around the world who are seeking fluency in the principles of academic English writing. For Hyland (2003), not only EFL or ESL learners find writing a challenging aspect of second language learning; even for native speakers, effective writing is a quite difficult task that requires extensive and specialized instruction.

Originally, writing in another language different from one's mother tongue creates some difficulties and the process of acquisition may take longer than it takes in the L1. The difficulty may rise from the complexity of the different orthographic systems between L1 and L2, in addition to the intricacy of the cognitive processes involved in the act of writing itself. Galbraith (2009) maintains that writing is thinking and not only a matter of translating thoughts from one language into the words of another language.

Teaching writing to second and foreign language learners now occupies a central position in the field of foreign and second language teaching than it was thirty or forty years ago. This may be due to several factors, mainly the fact that good writing skills are seen as vital in the twenty-first century to training learners for success, and the need for effective written communication of ideas and information through the global digital network (Hyland, 2003). Therefore, new theoretical approaches to the teaching of second language writing have come to assume a vital place in second language theories and research.

Raimes (1983) presented six approaches being: the controlled-to free approach, the free-writing approach, the paragraph-pattern approach, the grammar-syntax-organization approach, the communicative approach, and the process approach. There are also other approaches that proved to be successful in teaching writing like the product approach, the power writing approach, and the genre-based approach. These approaches are to be dealt with along this chapter in addition to the methods of assessment followed by English teachers to assess students written productions. In fact, writing proficiency has been conceptualized in a number of methods and approaches. Jeffery (2009) hypothesized that exploring the relationship between the genre demands of a particular form and the criteria used to assess the written production would be one way to establish how writing proficiency is conceptualized.

3. 1. Approaches to Teaching Writing

Teaching writing is an important task that requires deep attention and knowledge about the different methods and approaches studied and applied in the field by many researchers and scholars. We have tried to focus on the mostly used ones like the Controlled and Free Writing Approaches and the famous Process and Product Approaches.

3.1.1. The Controlled-to-Free Approach

The period between 1950's and 1960's witnessed the rise of the Audio-lingual method which emphasized speech. This method was characterized by the notions that language is speech (from structural linguistics) and that learning is habit formation (from behaviorist psychology). Therefore, writing was regarded as a secondary concern and served basically as reinforcement for oral habits, as claimed by Silva (1990). He adds that learning to write in a second language is an exercise in habit formation, and the writer is a mere manipulator of previously learnt language structures, whereas the reader is the ESL teacher as an editor or

proofreader. The teacher should not take into consideration the quality of ideas or expression; he rather should be concerned with formal linguistic features. In the mid sixties, there was awareness that controlled composition alone was not enough and that a bridge between controlled and free writing was needed.

In essence, writing activities were meant to reinforce grammar and perfect the use of its rules. As a technique to develop students' mastery of the grammatical and syntactic rules, there emerged the so called controlled-to-free approach, a sequential approach which consists of providing students with modals for writing in the first phase. They may be fragments of sentences and the students' task is to use them in complete sentences such as adverbs modifying adjectives, prepositions of time and place each in a meaningful sentence. They may also manipulate sentences or paragraphs grammatically in that they change the tense, questions to statement, singular to plural, words to clauses, or combine sentences. This controlled stage allows for errors-free writing practice which enhances students' confidence in their writing skills. Next, teachers move to the second phase after the students have reached an intermediate level of proficiency. Students have to use the modal pieces of writing given to them in the controlled phase to write their own sentences or compositions.

Between the controlled and the free phase, there is a gradual shift in the teacher's control from the first to the last exercise (Nemouchi, 2008). Say for instance, the teacher is dealing with the comparison-contrast type of writing where new vocabulary and expressions used to compare "similarly", "like", "whereas", and "in contrast" are emphasized. The teacher may first introduce a paragraph with highlighted words. The paragraph may be comparing farming life with city life for kids.

“Farm kids are too busy with farm work to get into trouble with drugs and alcohols like a lot of city kids do. ...”

The students’ first task is to organize the advantages and disadvantages of both living in the farm and the city for the kids after they have read the paragraph and gone through a reading comprehension session. Then, they will be asked to use specified patterns such as “farm kids have...”, “city kids have...”, “farm kids do not have...”, “city kids do not have...” and complete the sentences.

The next task is to arrange the sentences using a provided list of key words in order to create comparison-contrast. Later, the sentences are combined into a meaningful paragraph.

Finally, and based on what have been learnt before, students are required to write a paragraph comparing life in the farm and the city in terms of jobs provided. One of the significant attributes of this activity is that it helps develop students’ confidence in their writing skills from high beginners to low intermediate levels.

It is worth noting here that the first phase of the controlled writing should not take one exclusive method for practicing writing in order to motivate students each time with a new, sometimes, entertaining activity. Teachers also should encourage their students to engage into creative free writing to get more self-directed writing practice.

3.1.2. The Free-Writing Approach

While the controlled-to-free writing entails teacher’s interference in the activities, regardless of the degree of interference between the phases, the free-writing approach is basically students-centered and requires little interference of the teacher in terms of grammatical accuracy after the ideas are transcript; content and fluency are the focal points

more than form and grammar. From the affective angle, this approach is said to be very effective in helping intermediate to advanced students prevail over their natural fears of making mistakes, and thus they can express themselves fluently (Sastoque, 2010).

The free-writing approach allows for extensive practice and long pieces in that it focuses on quantity rather than quality. The purpose is to let students write as much as their imagination allows them to, with little interference from the teacher and no reference to the usual obstacles being grammar rules or writing techniques. Furthermore, with extensive practice and through making mistakes, students learn to raise their grammatical control and the sense of self-correction.

Raimes (1983) introduced two types of free writing; focused and unfocused. In the focused writing, the student proposes a topic or a question and answers it. The teacher interferes only at the beginning of the exercise to give his instructions and then allows his students to free-write. Again, grammar mistakes are not to be corrected; only the ideas are commented and discussed. When students are given the freedom to choose the topic, their motivation to write is increased and they give the most of what they believe in.

Unfocused writing depends on putting on paper anything that comes to the student's mind which can be short coherent, or in most cases, incoherent passages. Yet, the critical advantage of this method resides in the spontaneity and fluency it adds to the students' writing.

Advocates of the free writing method strengthen the aspect of freedom and encourage students to just go on the act of writing even if the ideas do not sound right and forget about the rules (Anderson, 1992; cited in Nemouchi, 2008). Hence, to raise students' motivation and

confidence, teachers should opt for this method from time to time to release their students from the boundaries of rules and techniques and allow for the flow of ideas.

3.1.3. The Paragraph-Pattern Approach

In this approach, paragraph organization is the primary concern of teachers rather than accuracy of grammar or fluency of content. The principle here is that organization differs from one culture to another in that communication is constructed and organized in different ways. In this line, Kaplan (1966) presented paragraph patterns of written discourse for different languages. He claimed that English discourse patterns are expressed in a straight line, Semitic writing in a zigzag line, Oriental writing is spiral, while Romance and Russian are described in a digressive pattern as shown in figure (3.1).

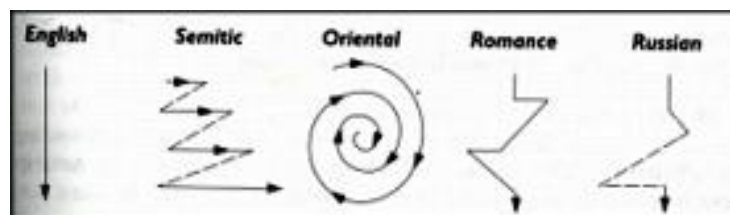


Figure 3.1. Patterns of Written Discourse (Kaplan, 1966:14)

Originally, paragraphs are the first necessary step to be mastered in any type of composition. Students may practice large drills of putting together necessary units of a paragraph in the right order. They may be given sample paragraphs to copy, analyze, and then imitate them besides identifying general and specific statements, inserting or deleting sentences to paragraphs. Topic sentences are given much emphasis since they direct the paragraph and tell about its theme (Ghaith, 2002; Sastoque, 2010).

Exercises of this approach imply putting sentences or larger chunks of writing into organized paragraph units. These exercises can be directly or indirectly linked to ordering; like teaching about the linking devices and practicing them in many different ways.

Similarly, working on essays implies arranging sets of scrambled paragraphs to reconstruct the original essay, analyze, and explain the organization of the paragraphs. This approach helps students manage their own ideas and build unified, coherent, well-written compositions.

3.1.4. The Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach

As the name suggests, this approach stresses working on different features of writing. Advocates of this method consider that writing is not composed of separate skills which are to be taught sequentially; they teach grammar and syntax along with organization. The approach's principle is the use of forms at the sentence level with the clearest and most accurate meaning. The idea of working on different aspects of writing by including grammar and vocabulary items in the writing activities will exercise students' ability to manage all the features of writing while composing.

Putting specific vocabulary items, structural elements, and organizational features in the appropriate place is a common activity of the Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach. The activity below is divided into two parts and explains the principle of the approach:

A- Put the following link words in their appropriate place to make a coherent paragraph: (moreover- because- when- although- and). Some words can be used many times.

1-..... the United States has become an advanced technological country, many old-fashioned superstitions still remain.

2- walking down a street in New York City past ingeniously built skyscrapers, you might see a sophisticated New Yorker walk around instead of under a ladder because he or she knows that walking under a ladder brings bad luck.

3-, when a black cat wanders in the street, some people would cross to the other side of the street to avoid letting a black cat cross their paths.

4- It is true that most buildings in the United States do not have a thirteenth floor many theatres do not have a thirteenth row a lot of people know that thirteen is an unlucky number.

The organized paragraph would be as follows:

Although the United States has become an advanced technological country, many old-fashioned superstitions still remain. **When** walking down a street in New York City past ingeniously built skyscrapers, you might see a sophisticated New Yorker walk around instead of under a ladder because he or she knows that walking under a ladder brings bad luck. **Moreover**, when a black cat wanders in the street, some people would cross to the other side of the street to avoid letting a black cat cross their paths. It is true that most buildings in the United States do not have a thirteenth floor **and** many theatres do not have a thirteenth row **because** a lot of people know that thirteen is an unlucky number.

Belkharouché (2014: 22)

3.1.5. The Communicative Approach

Needless to say that language is communication, and the four language skills are meant to develop communication and facilitate comprehension. Writing in its turn is said to be an interactive process; that is, there should be a kind of communication between the writer, the reader, and the text. This implies students' awareness of the audience and the purpose of a

piece of writing. Students, in this approach, are encouraged to act like writers in real life with real situation tasks which is said to be motivating and helping students do their best. At the very beginning of the writing task, students should ask themselves two crucial questions:

Why am I writing this?

Who will read it?

By answering these questions, writing becomes truly a communicative act with students writing for real readers.

Traditionally, the teacher is the reader of students' writings which may narrow students' interest while writing to avoiding mistakes and trying to get a good mark. However, the audience should include more people than just the teacher since expanding the audience is so important in the communicative approach. For example, the teacher may have students write to each other, provide an alternative ending to a given story, or write a letter to an author of a story to make the act of writing more authentic because this approach focuses also on responding to other people's writings and commenting on content without referring to correcting errors (Massi, 2001; Ghaith, 2002; Sastoque, 2010).

To achieve the purpose of the communicative approach, Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (1992) presented some suggestions to be implemented in the writing class:

- Group-brainstorming on a given topic; students form groups (the group members may be self-selected or by the teacher) and work cooperatively to write down all the ideas that come to mind and in relation to the topic.

- Whole class discussion of how a particular text might need adjustment according to the audience it is addressed to; for instance, a complaint letter to the head of department should include formal expressions unlike a letter to a friend which can be informal.
- Collaborative writing; students work together to write what they have agreed on previously in their group work.
- Whole class text construction and composing on the blackboard; the teacher may invite a student to write on the blackboard what his group agreed on, or make the whole class contribute to writing a new text combining ideas from all the groups writings.
- Writing workshop or in-class writing; students check with each other and co-construct texts. The teacher's role is that of a facilitator, he moves around and provides necessary feedback, answers questions about grammatical patterning, lexical items, the force or validity of an argument, the organization of ideas and so on. The teacher records their most frequent questions, doubts, and inaccuracies for a future 'error analysis session'.
- Group research on a text topic; students divide out the responsibility for information-gathering stage, each group member searches for a different aspect and then they collect their results and work together to plan a text, which may be collective or individual.
- Peer-editing; by exchanging their first drafts, students act like each other's editors, they spot vocabulary repetition, grammar and spelling mistakes and so on.
- Whole class examination of texts produced by other students (with names removed, photocopied or displayed on an overhead projector) for the purpose of analysis of specific aspects; unlike peer-editing, this activity is done with the whole class, choosing some writings

and analyzing them in terms of ideas development, text structure, cohesion, grammar, or adequacy of context.

- Specification of an audience and purpose of a text by making the situation real; such as exchanging emails with other English speaking students, working on a class newspaper to be read by family and friends, discussing a topic another class is actually studying, and so on.

Interactive writing is then an important approach that makes writing communicative and purposeful and enables students discard the traditional boring topics they are usually writing about in the classroom. This requires from the teacher to be creative in order to promote creativity and enthusiasm in his students' writings.

3.1.6. The Power Writing Approach

The term "Power Writing" was first used by Sparks (1989) as the title of his book in which he studied many non-fiction writers from Aristotle to contemporary authors. He observed that in all the studied texts there were a main idea and supporting details. He came then with a method of writing which assigns numerical values to the main idea, major and minor details. The benefits of this method comprise providing a clear formula for writing paragraphs and compositions as well besides helping students in identifying the main idea and the supporting details of the reading texts (Nemouchi, 2008).

The power writing approach employs a numbered structure to the paragraph's framework instead of labeling each part with ambiguous terminology. This numerical approach makes it easier for students to remember numbers attributed to each concept and learn how to organize their thoughts before engaging in writing. In the power writing approach, according to Poulton (2004), teachers assign age-appropriate exercises to practice

these concepts in order to assure that students have power over the skills to expand complexity in their thinking and writing.

She proceeds in her book “Power Writing Plus” to combine the other traits of effective writing with the power writing approach creating an integrated system for teaching students to write using rich words, fluent sentences, adequate ideas and content, organized structure, voice, and appropriate conventions. She introduced the numerical structure as *Power 1* for focus, main idea, topic sentence, or thesis statement; *Power 2* for major supporting ideas which talk about Power 1; *Power 3* for details, elaboration, and examples which talk about the Power 2s; and finally *Power Zero* for voice or extra information.

This division organizes the piece of writing and helps weak writers bring out appropriate ideas in a well-organized composition or paragraph. Thus, it brings both quality and quantity to the students’ productions in each type of writing. A simple paragraph using this method can be a Power 1221, i.e. containing a well-written topic sentence with two major supporting details related to the topic sentence, and a concluding sentence which is a restatement of the topic sentence. Once this basic structure is mastered, students can begin their second draft being Power 12323 with Power Zero as extra information or the writer’s voice whenever possible.

A sample paragraph was written by a second year English student from the English department of Mentouri University. The number sequence for the paragraph is Power 12231.

“(P1) To convince the interviewer that you deserve the job, you should let a good impression at the interview. (P2) So, the first thing you have to do is to get well dressed. (P2) Then, your skills in talking must be of a good level; (P3) you have to know how to say and what to say in an intelligent way. (P1) At the end, you must be sure that you gave him smart

answers and you have done your best to give him the appearance that he needs for the job.”
(Fayrouz Mekhnane, 2012)

The following paragraph contains more details. The number sequence for the paragraph is Power 123221 with a Power Zero.

“(P1) Sentence to death penalty is a very just penalty. (P2) First, the world has known lots of crimes; raping, kidnapping, and robberies. (P 3) But in the case of homicides, killers are not stealing money but taking lives and chances of people to live a long life time. (P2) Second, most of those criminals did not respect the feeling of the victims’ families who suffer from losing their relatives. (P Zero) Do they think of their crimes’ results? (P2) Finally, Islam and the Quran confirmed that the killer should be killed if he did his crime on purpose. (P 1) I think that all criminals should pay for their own crimes with the right punishment, sentence to death.” (Bernou Badre-Eddine, 2012).

3.1.7. The Product-Oriented Approach

Since the very first teaching methods, teaching a foreign language was based on imitation. Writing came second after speaking; there was much emphasis on imitating models of spoken passages where the most important factors were correctness and copying models. Similarly, the teaching of writing followed the same method of teaching speaking. A model text was to be studied and analyzed from different perspectives: grammar structures, content, organization of sentences, and rhetorical patterns. Next, students were given a new topic and asked to write a text in a parallel manner. Obviously, a model text accompanies the students from a departure point till the end of the task which results in the correct use of form. Yet, it does demonstrate the organization of the written text, the style, the form, but not the process which led the original writer to that particular product (Nemouchi, 2008).

The product-oriented approach emphasizes the final product of any writing task. It is concerned primarily with classroom activities which engage students in imitating and transforming model texts. Specifically, the product approach focuses its study on model texts analysis to raise students' awareness of the text features besides analyzing their points of strength and weakness in writing (Badger and White, 2000). Emphasizing language structure as a basis for teaching writing, as claimed by Hyland (2003), is typically a four-stage process. The first stage that the students have to go through is *familiarization* which aims to raise students' awareness about certain features of a particular text; certain grammar and vocabulary are presented to the students through a text. The second and third stages are *controlled writing*; fixed patterns are manipulated often from substitution tables, and *guided writing*; model texts are imitated. In these two last stages, students practice the skills with increasing freedom until they are ready for the fourth stage; *free writing*, where the writing skill is used as part of a genuine activity such as a letter, story, and so forth; the previously developed patterns are used to write a composition.

A typical product class using the model-text approach might involve the students' familiarization with a set of favored characters or persons for the purpose of describing people, by identifying for instance the adjectives, the roles of these people in their societies, their moralities, and so on. At the controlled stage, the teacher might have students produce some simple sentences about famous characters from a substitution table like 'He was born poor', 'She had a good heart', etc. The learners might then compose a piece of guided writing based on a brief description of a certain character provided by the teacher in the form of notes to be extended and illustrated or as scrambled sentences to be arranged and linked using previously highlighted connectors. Finally, at the free writing stage, they may describe their

avored character or a person who marked their lives following the same structure of the model text.

Hyland (2003) suggests 'slot and filler' frameworks for instruction where sentences with different meanings are generated and words in the slots are changed to illustrate grammatical structure. He continues:

Writing is rigidly controlled through guided compositions where learners are given short texts and asked to fill in the gaps, complete sentences, transform tenses or personal pronouns, and complete other exercises that focus students on achieving accuracy and avoiding errors. A common application of this is the substitution table which provides models for students and allows them to generate risk-free sentences. (2003: 4)

Pincas (1984) refers to learning as 'assisted imitation' in that the teacher, by using many techniques such as substitution tables, provides a stimulus and the students respond to it. Nevertheless, she points out that at the free writing stage, students should feel they are creating something in their own way.

Advocates of this approach argue that the organization of the ideas is more important than the ideas themselves and that the end-product must be compared to the model text in its form by reproducing some of the expressions, structures, and skills taught just previously. On the other hand, some proponents point out that models are sometimes very long and do not tackle students' writing weaknesses and problems. Besides, the detailed analytical work encourages students to see form as a pure shape to pour content in without any personal touch. They see that imitating models inhibits writers rather than liberates them. Moreover, the over-emphasis on accuracy and form can lead to serious 'writing blocks' and 'sterile' and 'unimaginative' pieces of writing (Halsted, 1975 & Mahon, 1992 cited in Nemouchi, 2008).

Naturally, many L2 students are accustomed to write in this way; most of their writings are to be graded by the teacher after giving them a topic with a specified amount of time (in-class or at-home tasks). The teacher grades the final piece of writing regardless of how it was produced. This may lead to many drawbacks in that structural orientation encourages explicitness and accuracy and neglects the fundamental goal of writing which is communication. Students will be like writing engines; when the words or expressions are familiar; they suggest “do you want to say...?” whereas if they are put in an unfamiliar situation, they are trapped and cannot express themselves. Likewise, Hyland (2003) points out an important hindrance about formal patterns which are often presented as short fragments based on the perceptions of materials writers rather than the analyses of real texts. These short fragments can mislead students when put in other situations because they are not used to all the situations where these patterns are employed.

3.1.8. The Process Approach

After the product-oriented approaches were criticized and proved insufficient in helping students improve their writing skills, many voices raised to change the perception of writing by focusing more on the process leading to the final product rather than the product itself. By the early 1980s, there was an important shift from the product approach to the process approach, and thus, the central focus shifted from the finished text to the steps that the writer follows to produce the text.

Over the past forty years, the main emphasis of the discipline of rhetoric and composition moved from considering the end product to helping students become active participants in learning to write. One of the key important goals of the current writing class is

to enable students to develop an effective writing process which does not end in the class; rather they can continue to learn after the writing session has ended (Clark, 2003a).

In process approaches, writing is much more about linguistic skills, for instance planning and drafting, while less emphasis is put on linguistic knowledge, for instance knowledge about grammar and text structure. In the process approaches, the writer is an independent producer of texts and the teacher is a facilitator who accompanies the process and provides help and guidance whenever necessary. Grammar or spelling mistakes or even inappropriate structures are not very important and the teacher should not put much emphasis on them in order to allow for a smooth flow of ideas, rather he must recognize the importance of developing students' abilities to plan, define a rhetorical problem, and propose and evaluate solutions. A process orientation is adopted by a significant number of writing teachers since the main focus of the approach has had an important impact on writing research and teaching in North America. Consequently, developing students' metacognitive awareness of their processes, i.e. their ability to reflect on the strategies they use to write, became a priority of teachers in this orientation. As indicated in the second chapter, the most common division of the writing process and which was also established by Flower and Hayes (1981) is the original planning-writing-reviewing framework. This division considers writing as a non-linear and recursive process (Hyland, 2003). Below is an illustrated process model of writing instruction which explains the process of writing.

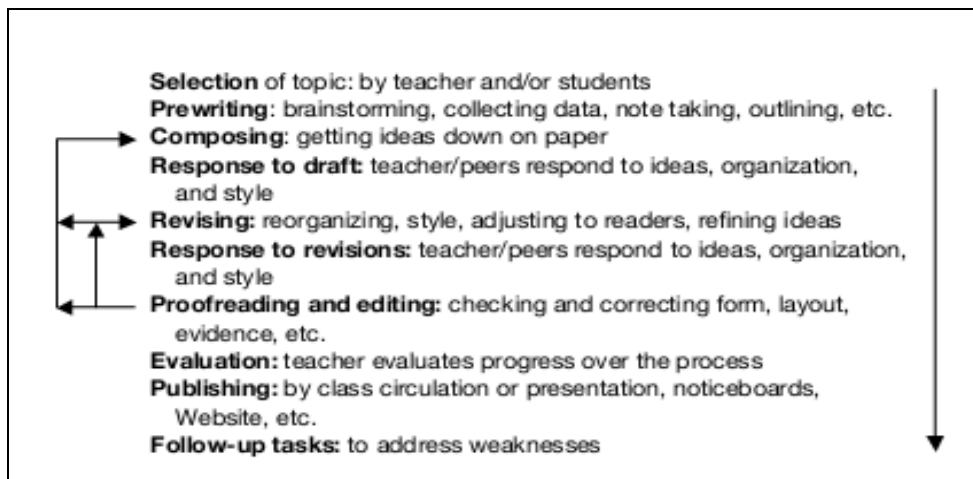


Figure 3.2. A Process Model of Writing Instruction (Hyland, 2003: 11)

Clearly, Figure 3.2 shows that planning, drafting, revising, and editing are not in a neat linear sequence, yet they are recursive, interactive, and potentially simultaneous. In other words, the student writer can move from the planning stage to drafting and then go back to change his plan and all the work can be reviewed and evaluated before the final text is produced.

Before writing, a topic is selected by the teacher, the students, or they have agreed on it, say for instance describing their favored person or their idol. They start brainstorming and generating ideas about a certain character. At the composing or drafting stage, they would gather the results of the brainstorming after filtering them and deciding on what fits the topic and what does not. After this, the first draft of a description of a favored person is composed and can be discussed with the teacher or the peers in terms of ideas, organization, and style. Next, they can revise their drafts, reorganize or refine the ideas. Finally, they can rewrite and edit their final product after having checked and corrected what they have missed in the previous stages (form, layout, evidence, etc.).

However, this model cannot always be applied on all students with different writing abilities. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) have argued that at least two process models are to

be considered for the skilled writers' process can differ from that of novice writers. They suggest the 'knowledge-telling' and the 'knowledge transforming' models. The first deals with the fact that novice writers tend to plan less, revise less or sometimes neglect the revising step, have limited goals, and their primary aim is to generate content and tell the reader what they know about the topic. The latter shows the skilled writers' strategies of analyzing problems, reflecting on the task, and setting goals to change both their text and ideas whenever a problem is spotted, and thus they transform their knowledge through the different steps of the writing process into a neat piece of writing. The model is highly recommended by writing teachers because it helps them understand where their students face intricacies related to task complexity and lack of knowledge about the topic. It encourages reflective thought, feedback, and revision in the process of transforming content and expression. It also stresses the importance of engaging students in cognitively challenging writing tasks to help them develop their writing skills.

First language acquisition theory implies that babies and young children develop their mother tongue rather than learn it. Likewise, in the process approaches, second language learners develop their writing skills rather than consciously learn them (Badger and White, 2000). By extensive practice, and with the teacher as a facilitator and a guide through the process of writing, students will gain automaticity in following the steps of the process and they will be accustomed to them. In short, process approaches tend to exercise students' linguistic skills and regard the writing development as an unconscious process.

3.1.9. The Genre-Based Approach

This approach was developed in Australia as an attempt to help improve native speakers' as well as non-English speaking migrants' writing after the dissatisfaction with the

process approach. One of the problems that EFL and ESL students experience in writing is their inadequate understanding of texts organization. This approach has been found effective in encouraging non-native students to think, plan, and work at the whole-text level (Kongpetch, 2006).

Hyon (1996: 696), being influenced by Halliday's systematic functional grammar, presented a definition of 'genre' as "systematic functional linguistics that is concerned with the relationship between language and its functions in social settings". That is, in a particular setting like scientific papers, the passive voice is main feature, a narrative text is characterized by the use of the past tenses, and a professional letter contains always the object of the letter and the greetings. Hence, we can say that genres expose many types of texts which students need to master in specific settings such as English for academic purposes and English for professional communication classrooms.

As the name indicates, the genre-based approach consists of teaching particular genres needed in different situations to help students generate a set of language and discourse features of the various text genres focusing on both the content and the context of the text. Kim (2007) asserts that there are certain conventions or rules associated with the writer's purpose such as personal letters which tell about the writer's private stories. Most genres use communicative purposes conventions. For instance, the letter's purpose is to maintain good relationships, so it starts with a cordial question in a friendly mood, and an argumentative essay aims at making an argument and defending an idea, so it focuses on its thesis.

Lin (2006) argues that genre-based approaches emphasize the social purposes of language, and not just form. He goes on to mention the widely known broad categories of genres such as 'Narratives', 'Description', 'Persuasion and Argumentation' and so on. Since

the primary concern of the genre-based approach is to achieve social purposes; and for an act of communication to achieve its purpose, the whole text must be considered to get the complete message. Therefore, the focal point of the genre-based approach is the whole text as rather than the sentence. This approach is said to facilitate clear links to students' purposes for writing outside the classroom. For this reason, a balance of selected text types in the curriculum must be guaranteed to allow for a practice of a broad range of social purposes for writing in English in the future.

However, some limitations in this approach have been noticed and discussed by Badger and White (2000). They mentioned the fact that students are being passive when modeling a given text type. Besides, writing skills are undervalued; the genre-based approach neglects the role of the student and sees him as largely passive. Furthermore, this approach focuses on textual knowledge and social-cultural knowledge which makes it difficult for teachers to identify the necessary prior knowledge to teach. In addition, non-native teachers may find it difficult because they may lack the cultural and social knowledge.

3.1.10. The Process Genre Approach

The process genre approach is a hybrid of the process approach, and the genre approach. It is true that the genre-based instruction appeared after the process instruction proved insufficient in helping student writers develop their language though it provided motivation. Therefore, genre theorists, teachers, and even parents in Australia opposed to the institutionalization of process writing into the school-based curriculum. Foo (2007) conducted an experimental study to investigate the effects of adopting a process-genre approach to writing instruction in a Malaysian ESL teaching and learning situation providing explicit instruction in process-genre writing strategies. He found that students who received writing

instruction in the process-genre approach achieved sustainable improvement in their total essay scores, developed more writing strategies, and widened their sense of awareness of the reader and the purpose of writing than those who received product oriented instruction.

Badger and White (2000) recommend incorporating the insights of product, process, and genre approaches for effective instruction in writing. They suggest starting with one approach and adapt it by adding some techniques to overcome its shortcomings. For instance, the process approach lacks input; group work and conferencing may solve the problem since input is provided by other learners and by the teacher. This development may vary from one group of learners to another; experienced learners in a particular genre, who may know about the production, may need little or no input. Others may lack knowledge of the appropriate language to a particular audience. Thus, these learners may need some kind of input concerning the language fitting a particular audience, or the skills that allow them to decide whom the potential audience may be.

Like the eclectic method of teaching which consists of considering the benefits of all methods and approaches and taking the best points of each, Hyland (2003: 26) suggests a synthesis of various writing orientations to better understand writing and learning to write and stresses that: “teachers should focus on increasing students’ experiences of texts and reader expectations, as well as providing them with an understanding of writing processes, language forms, and genres”.

3.2. Assessment of Writing

As explained earlier, teaching writing has undergone different stages and various methods have come to be applied. The methods that were criticized or proved somehow

inadequate were first evaluated by scholars and instructors by collecting information about students' performance and checking whether the goals of the course were achieved or not.

According to Cumming (2009), regular written examinations were established in the seventeenth century in Catholic then secular schools in France and in other European nations while in Elizabethan England, written exams replaced oral exams when students' abilities in spoken Latin decreased. Moreover, the validity of earlier methods of selecting personnel for employment or students for higher education was argued and tests were suggested as alternatives. This makes clear the existence of well established pedagogical conventions of language learning and assessing writing which also show the constant debates over uses of assessment to maintain standards of writing quality through valid assessments.

In the nineteenth century, essay placement exams were first used at Harvard University in response to the raising voices claiming that students were underprepared for the requirements of writing in university. Huot (2002) contends that the assessment of writing has never been central to its teaching nor has it ever been claimed as a part of the teaching of writing. He justifies that the notion of assessment as a step done to reveal a scarcity in student training or teacher responsibility is still dominating instructors' thoughts instead of using writing assessment to promote teaching, which is the most crucial aim behind assessment. Moreover, He argues that students should be taught how to assess their own writing in order to help them write successfully.

Recently, students' writing in higher education became at the heart of the teaching and learning processes where the main function of writing seems to be gate-keeping and assessment (Hyland, 2013). However, assessment is often seen as an unwelcome task by many teachers and students, in that it creates an atmosphere of anxiety and sometimes

incertitude in addition to consuming a large proportion of the time allocated to writing. In-class writings, when controlled by the teacher, may be of less pressure on students especially when the teacher's role is that of a facilitator regardless of the many mistakes in students' writings. When the students are used to writing under such circumstances, they may feel more fretful and unconfident since their writings are scored and their mistakes are analyzed.

Conversely, and just as important as needs analysis, designing courses, and selecting materials, assessment provides an understanding of individual students' skills and capacities as well as a measurement of students' progress in any course.

Assessment is the process of gathering data about the way of teaching and the students' learning process. Hyland (2003: 213) defines assessment as "a variety of ways used to collect information on a learner's language ability or achievement...as once-only class tests, short essays, long project reports, writing portfolios, or large-scale standardized examinations". He also reveals five main reasons for evaluating learners being: *placement*; i.e., the tests may serve as a means to allocate students to appropriate classes, *diagnostic*; i.e. to identify points of strength and weakness in students' writing as well as the areas where remedial actions are needed, *achievement*; i.e. to demonstrate to the learners the progress they have made in writing during the course, *performance*; i.e. to reveal students ability to perform particular writing tasks in real life settings, and *proficiency*; i.e. to assess students' general level to get a certification for employment or so on.

To achieve the aims behind assessment, it is necessary to be conscious and knowledgeable of its procedures to ensure that teaching has reached the desired impact and that students are being judged fairly. Moreover, Lippman (2003) notes that there has been a shift in the focus of assessment over the last 60 years from the evaluation of students'

academic progress to the assessment of programs; that is, measuring how well a program as a whole is working by focusing on the outcomes that the program can demonstrate. Yet, although writing assessment has gone through different changes, some universities and language institutions are still administering objective grammar tests as part of institutional exit exams, while others use portfolio assessment, holistic assessment for scored essay exams, programmatic assessment, or a combination of assessment techniques.

Generally, when reading about assessment, we encounter the term evaluation. They are most of the time used to refer to the same procedure. Still, some scholars refer to a number of differences especially when applied to students or academic programs. Evaluation is often related to grading students by giving scores or final results to determine the level of students in a given course. Whereas assessment is a continuing process that can be used as a part of evaluations of programs (Nemouchi, 2008). Hence, evaluation employs any judgment to determine the general value of an outcome based on the data provided by assessment. In this chapter, both terms are used to refer to the same concept following the tendency of the general literature.

There is certainly a misunderstanding of the value and role of assessment in teaching writing amongst our students since they carry with them the negative notion of grading and scoring. It is the role of the teacher to select the best method of assessment which can cater for appropriate instruction. In short, assessment should be an important component of academic research as well as an integral and vital part of the effective teaching of writing in order to ensure a constant check up of students as well as programs outcomes.

3.3. Methods of Assessment

For many years, scholars and instructors oriented their researches toward writing assessment and different methods have come to be used in the field. Some modes were judged to be objective, others were considered as subjective, formal or informal, formative or summative, etc.

To achieve the crucial purpose of assessment, which is improving instruction for each student in order to develop their writing; various methods are used now by teachers of Written Expression not only to put marks on papers, but also to follow the progress of students and their tendency to follow the steps of the writing process so as to come up to a well written piece. Bachman (1990), in an authoritative analysis of the communicative models of language assessment, defends the priority of the direct assessment of writing performance over the indirect test of knowledge about writing and claims that multiple sources of evidence are needed to cater for writing assessments and see if they meet their anticipated purposes.

Naturally, not all types of assessment can fit all types of activities. Bachman and Palmer (1996) presented a framework with six qualities of test usefulness: *Reliability*; determining if we can rely on the test to give the exact level of students, *Construct Validity*; if the test is used correctly to measure the right aspects of composition, *Practicality*; in terms of test facility, accessibility, and duration, *Impact*; the effect of the test scale(s) on the placement of students according to the diagnostic information from the test (fair or unfair), *Authenticity*; the evaluator is being natural in his evaluation or not (e.g. White (1995) argues that holistic reading is more natural than analytic reading), finally, *Interactiveness*; it refers to the interaction between the test taker and the test, which may be influenced by the rating scale if clarified with the test question(s), i.e. the students know the way and the scale which they are

going to be evaluated with. Jeffery (2009) stresses this point and recommends that teachers should explain the theoretical assumptions underlying the writing assessment design. She also emphasizes that transparency is fundamental for valuable assessment practices.

Traditionally, a student's writing performance was compared to others under what is called *norm-referenced* tests. This has also led to the *criterion-referenced* method which implies the evaluation of each essay on its own according to some external criteria, such as coherence, grammatical accuracy, and so on (Hyland, 2003). It is worth noting here that various modes can be used to different activities and whatever method that fits that activity may not fit the other one. More details are provided below with the illustration of each method.

3.3.1. Formative Evaluation

The many forms of feedback that one can get in real life situations may serve as motives to change or to keep up the good work. Feedback may take the form of instruction or responses (written or oral) that may come from classroom peers, parents, and teachers (Nemouchi, 2008). In the writing classroom, formative assessment is a form of non-graded feedback or response to students' written products during the instructional process while learning is taking place. According to Scriven (1991), formative evaluation takes place naturally during the development or improvement of a program, product, person, or so on. Lippman (2003) stresses this point and adds that formative assessment is a form of feedback given when students are still engaged in the writing process. Teachers might follow the activity of writing by commenting on first drafts to allow the students to take these suggestions into account before moving to editing the final drafts.

Not only formative evaluation does assess the students' progress, it can also measure the teacher's progress as an instructor. Teachers can use their observations, questionnaires and surveys, or even open-ended critiques or reports to generate data in order to help them decide whether or not an activity is appropriate or needs to be modified. Formative evaluation also, according to Taras (2005), requires feedback indicating that there is a gap between the actual level of the assessed work and the required standard.

Formative evaluation is meant primarily to decide on the effectiveness of a training program and provide its staff with useful information to improve it. As for its effectiveness on the students' performance, Trupe (2001) provides a set of advice to teachers in order to give appropriate feedback and constructive comments. Most importantly, the teacher should respond as a real reader rather than being authoritative; comments should be only on what interests the teacher. These comments need to be encouraging, so the teacher should make as many positive comments as he can because so many negative comments may make the student feel stupid. Moreover, being specific in the comments helps the students know in what area they succeeded or failed. It is true that writing "Good" on a student's paper is a motive for him/her, yet he/she needs to know what exactly the teachers judges as "Good". Using the margin to point out students' pitfalls as well as making suggestions on the content or organization may help students in their coming writings.

Formative evaluation has many positive effects, in that it encourages the student to read and consider the teacher's comments by applying them to other writing assignments. In addition, students are given more time to think and write about the assigned topics which also helps them develop a sense of criticizing their own writings, thus aiding them become better writers as well as revisers of their own writing.

There are different types of formative evaluation that can be used by the teachers to test students' knowledge and learning progress. Observations during in-class activities, homework, conferences between the teacher and the students, as well as students' feedback and self-evaluation are the most important and useful types.

3.3.2. Summative Evaluation

As the name indicates, summative evaluation comes at the end of the learning process to provide data in order to sum up the teaching and learning process. At this stage, no learning is taking place (except for new information that occurs during the assignment). This method of evaluation often takes place at the end of a semester or a course to assess the extent to which a subject has been learnt. Grades are given to determine the level of students and decide whether they can move to the next course or academic level.

While formative evaluation is a process-oriented, summative evaluation is a product-oriented in that it focuses on the final product which cannot be revised by the students after grades are put on, unlike the formative evaluation which allows for revision after considering the teacher's comments. Besides, summative evaluations are more formal and specific as declared by Nemouchi (2008). He goes on to say that generating data and analyzing them is crucial to show the objectives have been reached and the students enrolled in the program achieved progress more rapidly than those who were not in.

Final examinations are the most common type of summative evaluation where students take an assignment that summarizes all what the material that they have been exposed to during the course. For instance, the final examination of the fourth semester in Written Expression, which is in the form of an essay, may assess students' performance on the

sentence level, paragraph organization, unity, coherence, and cohesion, since these are the main points they have been taught during the second year (third and fourth semesters).

Students' evaluation of the course could be a type of summative evaluation to determine the effectiveness of the teaching method and material. This may also serve as a method of judging the effectiveness of a program. When teachers give questionnaires to their students at the end of the course or the semester to evaluate their teaching, students feel concerned and realize their role in the improvement of the teaching/learning process. They can give their opinion about the way of teaching, the material used, and also they can express their satisfaction or dissatisfaction about the topics and the activities. By doing so, teachers get to know where they did well and where change has to be made.

3.3.3. Holistic Scoring

From the literal meaning of the word 'holistic', which relates to the functional relations between parts and the whole, we can say that holistic scoring looks at the piece of writing as a whole section of discourse where the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. White (2000), Nakamura (2004), and Nemouchi (2008) stress the reliability of holistic scoring when large numbers of papers are to be evaluated in a relatively short time. As for Lippman (2003: 227):

A holistic scale is based on a single, integrated score of writing behavior. This method aims to rate a writer's overall proficiency through an individual impression of the quality of a writing sample. This global approach to the text reflects the idea that writing is a single entity which is best captured by a single scale that integrates the inherent qualities of the writing.

Overall performance is judged objectively in students' compositions using a simplified scale rather than scoring each aspect of writing alone. This quick approach gives the teachers

a general impression about the piece at hand that allows him to put a score or a grade on the paper according to the norm-referenced test. They may also follow a scoring guide which focuses on specific features like the clarity of ideas, organization, and vocabulary without giving each item a separate score. In fact, putting in mind those criteria, while evaluating the composition as a whole, helps the teacher decide on a fairer score or grade for the student's performance. Inexperienced teachers may use the scoring guides or rubrics to develop their confidence and skill to score after agreeing with other teachers on specific criteria corresponding to particular proficiency. Most of holistic rubrics have four to six ranges of scale.

Lippman (2003) and Hyland (2003) agreed on some points of evaluation being:

- Grade A (Excellent paper): it has clear, organized, and coherent ideas with excellent choice of vocabulary and very few grammar, spelling, and punctuation errors.
- Grade B (A good paper): with fairly clear, organized, and coherent ideas. Good vocabulary and few grammar, spelling, and punctuation errors.
- Grade C (A fair paper): the strengths and weakness are about equal balanced. It has unclear ideas, the essay is not very well organized and coherence is somewhat lacking. There is average vocabulary, some major grammatical errors, with a number of spelling and punctuation mistakes.
- Grade D (A weak paper): the weaknesses outweigh the strengths. Ideas are hardly identified or not related to the development. The essay is poorly organized and relatively incoherent. It has weak vocabulary and frequent grammatical, spelling, and punctuation

errors.

- Grade E (A poor paper): the weaknesses outweigh the strengths in most ways. The main idea is missing and the essay is poorly organized and incoherent. It contains very poor vocabulary and is also plagued with grammatical, spelling, and punctuation errors that make it unintelligible.

Nakamura (2004) suggests that it is very risky for one classroom teacher to evaluate his students using a holistic rating system although it can be used for practical and economical reasons. Moreover, a single score may cover an irregular writing profile and may lead to misleading placements. Hence, the best practice is to have multiple scores and multiple scoring items.

3.3.4. Analytic Scoring

Unlike a single holistic scoring scale, analytic scoring procedures provide more information about students' performance according to a set of criteria. Each category is given a specific score; a numerical value is assigned to the various aspects of evaluation like content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics. This characteristic allows the analytic method to be more reliable in giving detailed information and a useful diagnostic and teaching tool (Hillocks, 1995). Using explicit elements of scoring related to what have been taught makes it easier for teachers to discriminate between students' performance in writing as well as uncovering writing weaknesses for a clear and detailed feedback. Naturally, students should be informed before the assignment about the way their papers are going to be scored.

Nakamura (2004) followed a four point scale to rate five criteria being the originality of content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and cohesion and logical consistency. The table below summarizes the procedure.

	Originality of content	Organization	vocabulary	Grammar	Cohesion and Lexical Consistency
4 points	interesting ideas were stated clearly	Well organized	Very effective choice of words	Almost no errors	sentences logically combined
3 points	interesting ideas were stated fairly clearly	Fairly well organized	Effective choice of words	Few minor errors	sentences fairly logically combined
2 points	ideas somewhat unclear	Loosely organized	Fairly good vocabulary	Some errors	sentences poorly combined
1 point	Ideas not clear	Ideas disconnected	Limited range of vocabulary	Many errors	many unfinished sentences

Table 3.1. Features of the analytic rating scale (adapted from Nakamura, 2004)

On her turn, Wiseman (2012) revealed in an analysis of the performance of the analytic and holistic scoring rubrics that the analytic scoring rubrics produced 6 statistically distinct levels of proficiency (same as the number of categories used to score the analytic scoring rubric domains), whereas the holistic scoring rubric was found less effective at separating examinees and produced only 3 statistically distinct levels. Hence, the study concluded that the analytic scoring was more sensitive to distinguishing the differing levels of ability in the examinees.

Although the analytic scoring encourages raters to deal with the same features and allows more diagnostic reporting, it is time consuming and burdensome. Hyland (2003) highlights some advantages of analytic scoring such as its reliability since the student gets

several scores and can compensate the whole score, and the fact that teachers can prioritize specific aspects. Whereas the disadvantages of this method may be shifting the attention from overall essay effect, favoring essays where scalable information is easily expected, the possibility of ambiguity or overlap between descriptors, and most importantly, it takes longer than holistic scoring. In addition, writing is way more than being just the sum of its parts. Consequently, as suggested by Nakamura (2004), the next best practice is to have one overall evaluation item and multiple scores, i.e. to mix the principles of both analytic and holistic scales.

3.3.5. Portfolio Assessment

Portfolio assessment is an approach of collecting and organizing information about an individual, class, or a program. It consists of evaluating a collection of students' works (essays, projects, assignments, and so on) in order to provide the teacher with information about students' progress and their points of strength and weakness over a period of time. Lippman (2003) adds that portfolios may be used by instructors to build formative assessment into the course design. This may be the ideal assessment tool since the teacher acts like a 'coach' providing feedback to be used by students in their revision which often results in adding a reflective essay to assess their development over the course.

A precise and clear explanation of portfolio assessment is given by Hyland (2003) who defines portfolios and emphasizes their purpose in his book "Second Language Writing":

Portfolios are multiple writing samples, written over time, and purposefully selected from various genres to best represent a student's abilities, progress, and most successful texts in a particular context... Essentially, the purpose of portfolios is to obtain a more prolonged and accurate picture of students writing in more natural and less stressful contexts. (2003: 233-4)

Portfolios do not only provide the teacher with information about his students' level and documentation of their progress; even the students themselves will have the opportunity to observe their assembled texts over a period of time and scrutinize changes in their work. Huot (2002) argues that portfolios should be used in a conscious attempt to achieve their primary consideration which is to combine teaching and assessment in order to get new potential for assessment in and about the writing classroom. They are not just a tool for organizing students' writing to judge them and put marks on papers. In fact, an evaluation based on students' portfolios is completely different from that based on an individual student text. It is true that teachers can put grades on each text within a portfolio, yet this may freeze student work and teacher commentary. Huot (2002) continues that responding to students' writings without grading them in portfolios directs the notion of evaluation toward the evolving written product with the opportunity given to students to explore, experiment, and compose without receiving a summative evaluation of their work.

Leki (1990: 65) raises the issue of responding to student writing in grades and contends that "many writing teachers experience intense discomfort when forced to evaluate students with whom they feel they have been collaborating". She further suggests some solutions to the issue like grading based on the completion of a minimum number of assignments, the portfolio approach, and grading the overall performance in class rather than papers.

Like any other method of evaluation, portfolio assessment has advantages and disadvantages. The table below summarizes some of them:

Advantages	Disadvantages
<p>Multiple samples provide more valid information about students' progress.</p> <p>Portfolios support reflective writing and connect teaching and assessment to learning.</p> <p>They enable teachers to provide more assistance in areas of weakness.</p> <p>They are more broad and fairer than exams.</p> <p>Different texts with different genres allow students to reflect on the relation between the genres and how one interacts with the others.</p>	<p>Scoring a portfolio may be time consuming and even harder from scoring a single piece.</p> <p>It may be difficult for teachers to assign a single grade for a set of tasks in addition to problems with setting scores to different elements of the text. They are less reliable than test scores.</p> <p>Clear goals and criteria of evaluation are needed which adds heavy workloads on teachers.</p>

3.3.6. Self-assessment

Engaging students in the process of assessment and making them aware of the importance of looking again at their productions from the reader's point of view may be a crucial step to familiarize them with the process of evaluation and help them get an idea of how the teacher is going to look at their papers.

For the students' evaluation of their own work to be effective, teachers need to put some rules and train their students for objective evaluation. According to the National Capital

Language Resource Center (2004), a successful use of student self assessment depends on three key elements: goal setting, guided practice with assessment tools, and portfolios.

Goal setting:

When students are in front of targets against which they measure their performance, they can evaluate their progress more clearly and their motivation increases when their learning goals are made clear. Teachers and students may have contracts where they agree on the number and type of assignments that are required for a particular grade. For instance, after describing the levels of quality by the instructors, a student may agree to work toward the grade of “B” by completing a specific number of assignments at that level.

Guided practice with assessment tools:

Students need to be taught strategies for self-assessment and self-monitoring. The teacher may provide a model of a technique of evaluation such as a checklist or rubric, and then explains how this technique can be used to assess a certain task (by evaluating a model text). The next step is to get students try the technique themselves and apply the criteria of evaluation on their own works. Finally, a discussion about the effectiveness of the technique and the points to avoid next time is held between the students and the teacher. This practice helps raise students’ awareness about their learning progress and provides the teacher with feedback about course content and instruction.

Portfolios:

As described earlier, portfolios are a collection of students’ works over a specified period of time. They allow for assessment of process and product. The process portfolio serves the purpose of assessing the classroom level without necessarily awarding grades

(formative assessment), while the product portfolio addresses the major evaluation of the students' level and is often followed by an oral presentation of the content (for example a Master's Viva) which makes it more summative in nature. In this type of assessment, the students participate in the selection of portfolio content, the development of guidelines for selection, and the definition of criteria for judging merit (National Capital Language Resource Center, 2004).

Additionally, in a presentation of various activities for improving writing, Kuta (2008) introduces the 'letter of self-evaluation to the teacher' which serves both as a practice for the business letter format for communication and an evaluation of the students' own learning. She explains the activity and devotes the first paragraph of the body to the students' materials to be used as supportive details, the second paragraph presents an assessment of their skill growth, and in the third paragraph students are invited to speak about their weaknesses or lack of understandings and areas of future improvement. This activity offers valuable feedback for teachers when done before the final examination in that they can picture the areas of strength and weakness that may need special consideration, and when done at the end of the grading period, teachers can set new goals for the new academic year based on the data they collect from the self-evaluation letters.

3.3.7. Peer-evaluation

Group work is one of the most useful and widely advised strategies for helping students interact with their peers in a less stressing environment. This strategy may be used in evaluation in order to give students more opinions about their work and help them gain awareness of audience. Lippman (2003) affirms that peer evaluation is a type of formative assessment which provides response while students are still engaged in the writing process.

Clark (2003b) describes her practice in her classroom and states that she makes her students bring in several copies of their first draft and devote the session for peer review under her assistance and control. She emphasizes the importance of a pre-set list of questions to guide students and keep them focused on the assignment rather than focusing on stylistic or grammatical concerns.

As for the questions, they may be asked on the degree of agreement with the writer's point of view or experience, the extent to which they like a specific point in the writing. They may also ask the writer for clarification about what is written and give their suggestions about the written work to be improved. This enables the writer to understand what the readers want to know and what information needs to be added.

In order for peer evaluation to offer constructive feedback, instructors must clarify expectations at first and make their students understand what to look for in their peers' work. This can be achieved through a practice session with this type of evaluation. In the practice session, a sample writing task is provided, and together students determine what should be assessed as well as the criteria for a successful piece of writing. After that, a sample completed assignment is given to students to be assessed using the criteria they have developed and clear feedback is conveyed to the pretended student. This practice session makes students familiar with the techniques of evaluation to use when evaluation their real peers' papers. However, there must be a supportive and comfortable environment where students are being honest and trust each other's feedback. Small groups who are used to work together all along the semester can serve as a comfortable setting to develop trust among the group members ((National Capital Language Resource Center, 2004).

Conclusion

Through this chapter, we have examined some approaches to teaching writing starting from the controlled-to-free approach, to paragraph pattern approach, to the product and process oriented approaches, till the process-genre approaches. In fact, countless are the approaches of teaching writing that research has provided for instructors. We have emphasized the most common and applicable ones in our immediate level, i.e. in the English department of Brothers Mentouri University.

Teachers and instructors must consider the available methods and approaches and try to take the best of each and consider what fits their classrooms. An eclectic teacher collects the principles and takes the advantages of a range of methods and matches each task with the appropriate method baring in mind the major findings from research on teaching writing. The teacher also must not isolate himself from the process of writing; rather he must be a guide and a facilitator providing help whenever necessary.

Later, we have gone through a set of writing assessment methods clarifying their principles and the techniques that underlie them from the formative/summative evaluations, to the holistic/analytic scorings, to portfolios, to self and peer evaluations. Naturally, every type of evaluation has some advantages and disadvantages which were noted earlier in the explanation of each method. Hence, it is the teacher's role to settle on a type (or types) that he considers effective and matches his content and classroom needs. Huot (2002) contends that writing assessment has to be claimed for teaching writing in order to promote both the teaching and learning of writing.

Teachers and students are now both responsible for the act of evaluation. Teachers put their comments, scores, or grades to help students recognize their level and their weaknesses

as well as strengths. Leki (1999) stresses the need for effective and efficient ways to respond to students' writings and claims that students deserve these responses to know where they stand and what to develop.

By engaging students in the process of evaluation and making them aware of the criteria of rating using which they are going to be scored, they will be more sensitive and reconsider their work before handing it out to be evaluated.

In fact, and with the many methods of assessment, teachers should opt for those that teach their students to achieve the ultimate goal of assessment more than just give a score that may be hurting and consequently hinders their improvement. Additionally, assessment serves at placing students in distinct groups according to their achievement and ability in writing. According to Wiseman (2012), accurate placement brings about more homogeneous groups of learners and a more effective learning environment.

Chapter Four

Reading-Writing Integration

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Chapter Four

Reading-Writing Integration

Introduction

Writing in a second language is considered as a vital phase of the learning process. Teachers and instructors are in a constant search for new activities which provide input and practice to the writing class not only focusing on sentence structure, organization, or grammar rules. Naturally, many questions were raised about the nature of input needed to inform learners written texts. The first and foremost element of the language that was recommended was reading. Providing reading models in the writing classroom is widely understood as input for the acquisition of writing skills. Through these reading models, learners can learn and infer the writing skills, techniques, and strategies for any type of writing.

Reading and writing are fundamental skills to the building of language comprehension. However, reading has received less interest in the nineteenth century where writing dominated the language classes. It was until the turn of the century that both skills were connected in the curriculum in different universities like Harvard which declared that reading was critical to learning to write.

The acquisition of writing through reading seems to be relatively similar to the notion of second language acquisition presented by Krashen. That is, writing ability improves in the same way like second language proficiency with reading as the comprehensible input for writing. Yet, we cannot say that literacy acquisition is synonymous with language acquisition simply because a given language (first or second) can be acquired without being learned (such as the case of bilingual individuals).

Comprehension is identified by Krashen (1981) as the keystone of the language acquisition process and acquisition occurs when learners are exposed to language that is a little beyond their level of competence. In other words, when a learner of a second language is put in the linguistic bath of the target language which provides authentic input, he/she gains knowledge of language patterns and learns how to imply them (listening and speaking to native speakers, reading authentic texts like newspapers and writing job applications). Therefore, with reading materials as comprehensive input, learners are likely to use information from the reading texts (content, writer's techniques, expressions and so on) in their writings.

4.1. The Nature of the Reading-Writing Relationship

The first published work related to reading writing connections, according to Tierney (1992), dates back to 1929. It was until the 80's and the 90's that the relation between the reader and writer was investigated and no attempt at linking reading to writing was made before due to the belief that reading is a receptive skill while writing is a productive one. Hence, both skills were commonly taught as independent subjects (Nelson and Calfee, 1988) in terms of the methods of teaching and assessment. Reading performance, according to Tierney (1984), was scored with MCQ's (mainly true or false), while written performance was scored using qualitative comparison (norm-referenced).

Reading and writing were considered as simply behavioral responses and separate acts before theories of causal relationships were studied. The question was: which leads to the other, reading or writing? Until recently, the movement of 'reading and writing are related activities' showed with many studies that each may help the other (VanDeGrift, 2005). This

implies that both skills are interrelated and each one informs the other. In this chapter, we will focus on one direction; how reading influences writing.

Advocates of the idea that reading influences writing claim the aspect of inspiring and introducing students to new ideas, and even give them something to write about. They believe that both skills are to give better results when one informs the other. Much empirical work has been studied with respect to the relationship between reading comprehension processes and written texts production from the same cognitive perspective (Eisterhold, 1990; Parodi, 2007).

Emam and Farahzad (2010) maintain that the way reading and writing might reinforce or accelerate the learning of content, the development of literacy skills, as well as the acquisition of language abilities has attracted researchers interest and reading-writing interactions has then become a topic of interest in both L1 and L2 settings. Essentially, and historically speaking, the relationships between reading and writing have been conceptualized by a complex set of theories and approaches. Traditionally, reading and writing were regarded as individual skills, each taught within its own independent skills and strategies.

In a comprehensive review, Stotsky (1983) described early correlational studies which, at that time, revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between reading ability and writing quality. These studies were categorized under three groups: (1) studies dealing with the correlation of measures of reading achievement with measures of writing ability; (2) others with the correlation of measures of reading experience with measures of writing ability; and (3) those with the correlation of measures of reading ability with measures of syntactic complexity in students' compositions. The premise of all these studies is that reading and writing are parallel processes which need thorough investigation to draw conclusions about their interactive effects.

Despite the fact that the integration of reading and writing is critical to academic success and that empirical evidence suggests that both skills are “parallel processes”, interrelationships between them are still a relatively underexplored area of research (Tierney, 1992; Hirvela, 2004; Parodi, 2007; Emam & Farahzad, 2010; Grabe & Zhang, 2013). However, there emerged a set of hypotheses about the reading-writing relation in both L1 and L2 settings. An illustration of the different hypotheses is provided below.

4.1.1. Reading-writing Relationship in the First Language

In the first language literature about reading-writing relations, we find three interrelated hypotheses presented by Eisterhold (1990) and reflecting the direction of transfer from one discourse mode to the other. She chose to label them according to the direction in which input is understood when transferring from one modality to the other. The directional hypothesis implies that reading informs writing and the direction cannot be reversed. While the nondirectional hypothesis claims that transfer can occur in both directions, the bidirectional hypothesis comes with the idea that reading and writing might be interactive but also interdependent.

4.1.1.1. The Directional Hypothesis

In academic settings, the question of which skill has to precede the other in order to guarantee better results has been always the concern of teachers and practitioners. The directional hypothesis is said to be helpful in deciding which skill to precede the other. For Eisterhold (1990), there are similar structural components between reading and writing that whatever is acquired in one modality can then be applied in the other but this transfer of structural information is a one-direction transfer most of the time occurring from reading to

writing; the reading-to-writing model. In this model, reading is said to influence writing, yet writing knowledge is not necessarily useful in reading.

Naturally, when advising our students of ways to ameliorate their writing, the first thing we say is: ‘read a lot’. Stotsky (1983) reviewed a set of studies that revealed that reading was more effective in improving writing better than other language components or extra writing practice. This can only happen if instruction in reading focuses on a common element between both skills such as sentence or paragraph analysis. In the same vein, Kintsch (1982) reinforces the need for parallel strategies use and asserts that the model of written production has to deal with the same levels of processing as the model of reading in terms of analysis of surface structure, construction of semantic representation, integration of knowledge, and formation of macrostructure.

On the other hand, the writing-to-reading directional model cannot be neglected in that writing activities can be useful for improving reading comprehension. Activities such as summarizing and paraphrasing teach students how the writer organized the content and how important expressions were used to reinforce meaning. Besides, they improve retention of information when jotting down or outlining the ideas.

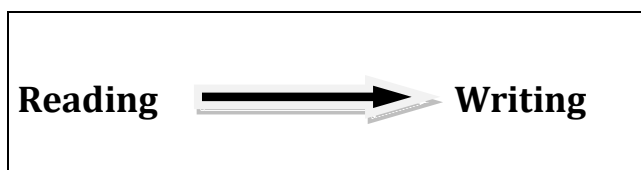


Figure 4.1. The Directional Hypothesis.

4.1.1.2. The Nondirectional Hypothesis

Another view of the reading-writing relationship proposes that it is nondirectional. This interactive model implies that there is a common link between both modalities being the

cognitive process of constructing meaning which suggests their possible relation. Besides, the interactive nature of both processes makes it possible that instruction in one would lead to increased ability in the other as declared by Shanahan (1984).

Eisterhold (1990) sustains that transfer in the nondirectional model can occur in either directions and the fact that there is a single cognitive proficiency underlying both reading and writing makes the improvement in one domain results in improvement in the other. This clarifies the difference between the directional model which suggests that transfer occurs in only one direction (either reading to writing or writing to reading) and the nondirectional model which claims both directions are accepted. The figure below illustrates the direction in this model.

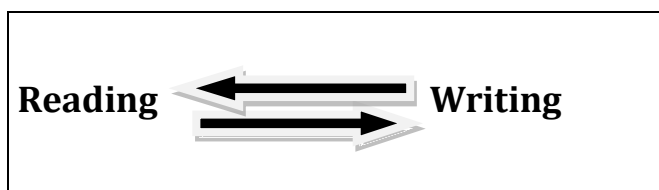


Figure 4.2. The Nondirectional Hypothesis.

Eisterhold (1990) claims that most researches in the field have explored the directional model, yet she surveyed a set of studies providing evidence for the nondirectional hypothesis such as Gordon and Braun's (1982) study which concluded that when explicit instruction is designed to deliberately enhance and facilitate transfer, subjects in the study (fifth graders) readily apply story schema to related reading and writing tasks. She also mentioned the study of Hiebert, Englert, and Brennan (1983) which investigated the relationship between the recognition and production of different text structures by college students. They found that the relationship between reading and writing was significant for all the text structures (sequence, enumeration, and comparison and contrast) except for description. In addition, they found that

students' writing performance was a better predictor of reading achievement than the ability to recognize details.

The aforementioned studies not only support the nondirectional model, but they also sustain the directional model since the result of improvement in one skill is shown on the other. Yet, in the nondirectional model, there is a single underlying system that is acquired in one domain (reading or writing) and transferred to the other (writing or reading).

4.1.1.3. The Bidirectional Hypothesis

This model, being the most complex one, claims that reading and writing are interactive but interdependent at the same time. In other words, they inform each other but with qualitatively different stages of development. The quality of knowledge gained at one stage of development can be different from that gained at the other. Consequently, the bidirectional model implies that there exist multiple relations between reading and writing and that the nature of these relations might change with development. It also allows for separate subsystems and some common underlying proficiencies (Eisterhold, 1990).

The exploratory analysis of the nature of the reading-writing relationship conducted by Shanahan (1984) found that reading and writing were significantly related for both second and fifth graders group samples. His findings support directly the bidirectional hypothesis in that while subjects in the study have shown increased proficiency as they moved through the grades; the nature of the reading-writing relationship seemed to change erratically depending on the measures employed in the study. Besides, separate subsystems and common underlying proficiencies have been noticed for both groups. As for second graders, the relationship of reading and writing was based on word recognition and spelling ability since this is what their

level incorporates, whereas for fifth graders the relation was based mainly on reading comprehension, organizational structure and vocabulary diversity.

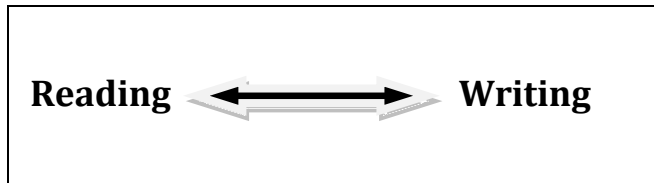


Figure 4.3. The Bidirectional Hypothesis.

Grabe (2001: 19) describes the best theory of integration and speculates the importance of reading practices and tasks in increasing writing abilities as well as the value of writing tasks in developing reading abilities. He further states:

A strong theory of learning . . . will highlight the need for exposure to print through reading practice; the learning of a large vocabulary; fluency in reading; practice and assisted learning with more complex and difficult texts and tasks; practice in using strategies to understand the text, establish goals, and monitor comprehension processes; and supporting interaction and discussion around textual meaning . . . Writing about what is to be read or has been read is also a very good way to develop advanced academic reading abilities.

In sum, the first model focuses on input and the role of reading as a source of information in the writing class, the second highlights the common underlying cognitive processes in both reading and writing with the perspective that writing abilities develop alongside reading abilities, whereas the third one emphasizes the multiple relations and interrelated processes in the reading-writing relationship and the possibility that this relationship might be qualitatively different at different stages of development. These three models help the writing teachers (both in L1 and L2) opt for an eclectic approach in their classrooms with a variety of activities according to the reading-writing interactions.

4.1.2. Reading-writing Relationship in the Second Language

Originally, L1 and L2 research has proved that there exists transfer from L1 to L2 since all languages share similar elements and some languages are more similar to each other than they are to others. In fact, L2 learners come with relatively developed language skills in their L1. If this is achieved in reading in L1 with learners having easier time learning to read in L2, then positive transfer is said to take place. If they find difficulties in learning to read in L2 than L1 learners, then we can say that there is negative transfer. Similarly, the language interdependence principle claims that transfer of universal, conceptual aspects of language proficiency occur automatically after linguistic surface features of the L2 are acquired (Bernhardt & Kamil, 2006).

In this line, after L2 learners have developed a certain proficiency in the two interrelated language skills, transfer between comprehension and production can naturally occur. Evidence showed that there is a cognitive/academic proficiency that is common to all languages and that it allows for across languages transfer of literacy-related skills (Carson et al, 1990). However, for transfer capability to occur, Cummins' (1981) *interdependence hypothesis* suggests that literacy transfers from L1 to L2 at the time when learners start an intensive exposure to L2. This will allow for development of similar literacy ability in L2. In fact, transfer and non-transfer of literacy skills from L1 to L2 literacy activities have been a concept of interest of many other studies based on Cummins' hypothesis (Raimes, 1987; Carson et al., 1990; Carrell, 1991; Eisterhold, 1991; Emam & Farahzad, 2010).

Not all studies, however, support Cummins's claim. There emerged another hypothesis emphasizing that students should attain a certain threshold level of L2 proficiency to permit cognitively demanding language use, i.e., to transfer literacy from L1 to L2. Koda

(2005, 2007, 2016)'s view of *the Language Threshold Hypothesis* implies that exposing students to adequate amount of reading in L2 results in reading more strategically and transferring L1 strategic reading to L2 reading settings. He conceptualizes transfer as the automatic activation of well-established L1 competences set off by L2 input. He further states:

In all studies, L2 variables were found to have a stronger impact, overriding the variance attributable to L1 experience. Thus, although L2 print information processing is guided by insights stemming from literacy experiences in the two languages, L2 print input appears to be the dominant force in shaping reading subskills in that language.

(Koda, 2007: 29)

The *Language Threshold Hypothesis* requires from L2 readers to have enough L2 knowledge in terms of vocabulary and structure in order to allow for effective use of L1 reading strategies and skills to achieve comprehension of the L2 reading texts. Considering that not all L2 readers have the same L2 knowledge, topic knowledge, and L2 reading experience, we can say that the threshold will vary according to the reader, the level of difficulty of the text, the topic, and, sometimes, the task (Bernhardt, 2011; Grabe, 2009). Hence, individual and experiential differences between L1 and L2 readers play an important role in the process of transfer. Students come with different levels of L1 reading proficiency, different motives for reading in the L2, not the same amount of exposure to L2 reading, besides there are different kinds of texts in L2 contexts, and this may influence L2 reading comprehension.

The nature of the relationship between reading and writing has been investigated in many directions and many hypotheses have been raised across languages (transfer from L1 to

L2) and across modalities (reading-to-writing and writing-to-reading). Tierney and Leys (1986) address the most popular issue in correlational studies; whether improvement in reading performance results in improvement in writing ability and vice versa. They argue that it is impossible to separate these processes because they are interrelated and working together to achieve information storage and retrieval, discovery and logical thought, communication, and self-indulgence.

Petrosky summarizes the relationships and states that:

One of the most interesting results of connecting reading, literary, and composition theory and pedagogy is that they yield similar explanations of human understanding as a process rooted in the individual's knowledge and feelings and characterized by the fundamental act of making meaning, whether it be through reading, responding, or writing. When we read, we comprehend by putting together impressions of the text with our personal, cultural, and contextual models of reality. When we write, we compose by making meaning from available information, our personal knowledge, and the cultural and contextual frames we happen to find ourselves in. (1982: 34)

In sum, the reading-writing relationship has been addressed with two points of interest; the interlingual (transfer across languages L1 to L2) and intralingual (transfer across modalities) aspects of the issue in addition to the directionality of transfer between reading and writing. These issues have been subjects of discussions of reading-writing relations. Consequently, relating theory and pedagogy in the field of reading-writing relationships may lead teachers and practitioners to draw conclusions about interactive effects and use them effectively in their classrooms.

4.2. Related studies

As a response to the basic writing ‘crisis’, Goen and Gillotte-Tropp (2003) presented ‘the Integrated Reading/Writing Program’ to help at-risk students of San Francisco State University after they failed in basic writing. This program was implemented to place these students into a single year-long course where reading and writing instructions are interconnected unlike the basic writing program where reading instruction is isolated from writing instruction. After two semesters, students could accomplish the requirement of first year written composition. In fact, they could complete in two semesters what would normally take three semesters to fulfill. The program planners agreed on the principle that for the course to be integrated truly, reading should not always precedes writing. This could reduce writing to a simple act after reading is complete and comprehension is achieved whereas even writing can contribute to the development of reading. The aim was to engage students in an exploratory study of text (including their own writings as well as their classmates’ and other authors).

Similarly, Parodi’s (2007) research on reading-writing connections focused on assessing correlations between discourse comprehension and production by evaluating psycholinguistic variables that account for the microstructural, macrostructural, and superstructural levels of comprehension/production processing. Subjects in the study (439 eighth graders) were required to write argumentative texts as well as answering comprehension questions related to argumentative reading texts in their L1. The study concluded that there is a positive correlation between comprehension and production and proved that there is a potential existence of a general common cognitive system for both skills. He also suggests that the processes involved in both activities (reading comprehension

and written production) share some common knowledge-based strategies. Results from this study confirmed the bidirectional hypothesis since the texts and tests were in students L1.

On the other hand, research on reading-writing relationship did not neglect the improvement of L2 reading-writing skills. A recent study by Zhang (2012) examines the effects of synthesis writing instruction with EAP students. Over a course of 15-week semester, an experimental class emphasized explicit instruction in synthesis-paper writing with examples and models of synthesis writing provided, while the control group followed the reading and writing curriculum defined by the course textbook. This study revealed a significant quality of synthesis writing task as well as on measures of organization in writing and the use of text information from reading resource materials from the part of the experimental group subjects better than those enrolled in the other class. The study concluded that by giving explicit instruction about synthesizing information from two different texts, providing sufficient intense practice to improve synthesis writing skills, and raising students' awareness of the task demands and the writing processes involved in synthesis writing, students are likely to show improvement in writing achievement.

The influence of reading on writing is often said to be a positive one. Reading informs writing, that is to say; learners get a number of benefits from reading a text. They may learn new styles, new vocabulary and expressions, or even correct their false ideas or grammar mistakes. This area of research is described by Grabe et al. (2013:9-10) as:

[...] relatively underexplored even though it is commonplace in most academic contexts and critical for academic success... Survey studies have shown that teachers, institutions, and students all recognize the importance of learning to write from reading input of various types.

Cobine (1995) argues that when learners are encouraged to write about their readings, this will result in fulfilling a large set of learning styles. It is by synthesizing ideas and assessing them critically that university students learn to read texts and skillfully write about them. Hirvela (2004) asserts that it is impossible to be a skilled writer without being a skilled reader. She also considers reading at the heart of writing.

The idea of transferring knowledge and strategies from one skill to the other has been widely discussed reporting that more common transfer occurs from reading to writing because reading texts are generally taken as models for writing. Research emphasized the necessity for direct instruction which is actually an integral part to raise learners' awareness of the structural components both in reading and writing (Eisterhold, 1990; Kroll, 1993; & Hirvela, 2004).

4.3. The Value of Connection

Obviously, researchers and instructors in the field of reading-writing connection were and still are looking for the beneficial aspects of interrelating reading and writing in instruction. The learning outcomes which accrue from this link have been discussed by Tierney and Leys (1986) starting from the questions: (a) Do gains in overall reading performance contribute in gains in overall writing performance? and (b) How does writing influence reading and how does reading influence writing?

It was until the 80's that researchers began to consider how reading influences revision, how writing informs reading, and how reading is used in critical writing. We will focus on the variety of ways where reading contributes to writing. Tierney and Leys (1986) surveyed a number of experimental studies which investigated both the negative and positive influence of reading experiences upon writing. For example, in terms of vocabulary usage,

they mentioned the works of Dixon (1978) and Eckhoff (1983) which have looked at the negative impact of being exposed to the stilted language and format on first and second grade readers. Evidence in the latter showed that children who read series of stilted language and format tend to write in the same stilted language and format.

The aforementioned survey also demonstrates studies that dealt with the influence of selected formats of text and rhetorical features upon the writing of students at various levels like the investigation of Geva and Tierney (1984) where high school students had to read in different types of comparison/contrast texts and then write summaries or recalls. Consequently, the study revealed that students written productions were in the same format of the texts provided for reading.

Highlighting structural characteristics of stories also have been found useful in promoting students' writing. Gordon and Braun (1982) conducted a comparison study on two groups of fifth graders providing both groups with series of stories. The experimental group was taught about the structural characteristics of stories, while the control group had just to read and discuss the stories. Instruction in the experimental group helped improve students' comprehension as well as production of stories.

Not only the writing style, genre, and vocabulary of the reading texts can inform students' writings. Students can also benefit from new topics they read about to produce similar compositions. For instance, more informal or self-selected topics can nudge students out of a writing funk; not always writing about the same repeated topics of pollution or global warming. A student may read in the newspaper about a homeless mother who has been thrown in the street by her sons and daughters and this story may induce him/her to write about motherhood starting the essay with the previous anecdote or just report the story in

his/her own words and humanitarian imagination. Besides, titles of books or stories give sometimes hints for a new composition. An attractive title, like for example “Great Expectations” by Charles Dickens, may give the student an idea to write about his/her expectations of his own future, or expectations about the impacts of an important event to come either on his personal life or on his country.

Tierney and Leys (1986) studied the effects of reading on writing in third graders and found that students used genres and formats based on what they have read. Besides, by encouraging them to do so, they could compare their own writing with the plot or character development of the stories they have read and use their reading to discover new topics, ideas, and stylistic options. They also claim the influence of reading on writing strategies by mentioning the results of the studies conducted by Birnbaum (1981, 1982 cited in Tierney and Leys, 1986) which concluded that students who have a greater ability to comprehend the reading materials could write more organized, connected, and of higher content quality than those who have a less ability to comprehend. Moreover, more proficient readers could direct their thinking while reading and writing to more appropriate and useful aspects which resulted in a quality of writing close to the quality of the reading. In this instance, Hirvela (2004: 2) confirms that:

Exposure to texts through reading has probably contributed to their [students'] acquisition of understanding about writing and those features that constitute writing: the rhetorical strategies, cohesive devices, and other tools of writing that writers use to present their ideas. Acquiring such knowledge from reading should eventually assist students while writing by equipping them with helpful knowledge of writing strategies and techniques.

From another perspective, and in academic writing, we find paraphrasing and summarizing as clear pictures of the reading-to-writing direction of influence. In any

academic paper, the first thing to do is to read about the topic, collect information necessary for the study, and then plan for writing based on what has been read and the writer's own perspective. While writing, the student writer paraphrases and summarizes chunks of the reading materials. He/she may use the same expressions and quote the authors, or just reproduce their ideas in his/her own words and refer to the sources. These techniques may create troubles in relying only on reformulating what has been read, and thus hampering creativity. Students may also fall in the trap of plagiarism which is sometimes a disadvantage of the reading-to-write proposal.

In fact, some readings tend to stimulate students to write and value the act of writing either the topic is of interest to the students, the author's style is attractive, or so on. With more writing that follows extensive reading, students may gradually feel that they acquired the writer's craft and built their own writer's personality and perspectives.

It is now clear that most reading is said to inform students' writing. Yet, the question that arises here is: what do students read? For many of them, the period of their most reading is in school or college, i.e., textbooks in schools or specified assigned texts in the university curriculum. However, textbooks are often confusing in their structures and sometimes they contain errors or may not be at the appropriate level of the students the reason why they are replaced and changed constantly (Armbruster, 1984). On the other hand, the reading material in college or university may be that of handed copies of lessons in any subject matter (Linguistics, Literature, Psychology, and so on). With this in mind, if textbooks or lessons in any subject matter were models of writing, then we cannot expect our students to perform well or at least to be creative in their writings since the only input they are exposed to is restricted to classroom reading materials.

4.4. Instructional Principles for Teaching Reading-Writing Connection

In considering reading-writing connection, a large body of literature has focused on their relation in students' L1 giving slight interest to L2 settings. Yet, though L2 reading-writing connection research is relatively at its infancy comparing to L1, Krashen's (1981) theory of Comprehensible Input has been the foundation of most research conducted in the field of L2 reading-writing connection. Over the past 30 years, there has been an upsurge in the number of journal article and survey studies investigating types of reading/writing tasks. Grabe and Zhang (2013: 12) synthesized the findings of these studies and listed some of the integrated reading/writing tasks in the university settings:

1. Taking notes from a text (both at home and in class).
2. Summarizing text information.
3. Paraphrasing textual resources.
4. Combining information from multiple text sources in a synthesis task.
5. Comparing multiple points of view from written texts and producing a critical synthesis.
6. Answering essay exam questions in writing (both at home and in class).
7. Writing an extended research paper or literature review.
8. Responding to assigned texts (summary and then critique).

4.4.1. Shanahan's Instructional Principles

Shanahan (1988) proposed seven instructional principles explaining the best way of combining reading and writing in the classroom to enhance literacy learning.

Principle 1: Teach both reading and writing; both skills are so closely related and their integration in the curriculum would have positive impacts both on achievement or instructional efficacy.

Principle 2: Introduce reading and writing from the earliest grades; children are introduced to reading and writing even before they start going to school or kindergarten. They meet print in daily life (parents reading bed stories and environmental print). Though the premise good writers must be good readers seems to be incorrect in the case of children since they can learn to write with limited knowledge of reading, yet research has demonstrated that reading and writing are related since their earliest stages and any delay in the introduction of one skill reduces the possibility of transfer between both modalities.

Principle 3: Instruction should reflect the developmental nature of the reading-writing relationship; reading and writing are developmental processes, i.e. learnt over time, and knowledge gained at one point can differ in nature from what is learnt at another as confirms the study of Shanahan (1984) on second and fifth graders.

Principle 4: Make the reading-writing connection explicit; instruction should clarify the need for the connection and encourage students to think about both skills simultaneously. Teachers should explain how specific skills and information could be used in both skills.

Principle 5: Instruction should emphasize content and process relations; product knowledge relations (including phonemic awareness, word structures, word meanings, sentence structures, cohesion, and passage organization) needs to be distinguished from process knowledge (including strategies and procedures for problem solving or for carrying out complex activities such as revising their own writings and discussing the process of their writing from planning to editing).

Principle 6: Emphasize communications; reading and writing are communication processes, writers communicate with readers through their texts and consider their audience's potential points of views. Equally, a good reader is a critical reader who considers the author's intentions as well as the accuracy and quality of a text. A simple activity to do achieve this principle is to raise classroom discussion about authors' purposes and the delivered messages through the texts.

Principle 7: Teach reading and writing in meaningful contexts; selected topics should be related to various real subjects reflecting various situations and purposes. For example, having students write for the school magazine will provide them with a meaningful context for writing and searching information (through reading) in addition to involving them in the conception, drafting, revising, illustration, and publication of their works. It is then necessary for teachers to introduce their students to a wide range of literacy uses to experience the reading-writing relation in as much areas as possible.

4.4.2. Goen and Gillotte-Tropp's Objectives and Principles

Goen and Gillotte-Tropp' (2003) study, which was detailed earlier, suggested an integrated curriculum for teaching reading and writing together, but for the course to be truly integrated, they emphasized that reading should not always precede writing in order to avoid the perception that writing is a simple act for checking comprehension after the reading is complete. They stressed on the point that writing promotes working through a text, analyzing it, and arriving at a full understanding of the reading. Hence, both skills should have equal chances of development in the curriculum. Their curriculum was designed to meet a set of objectives in order to assure active integration.

- First objective was to *understand the ways that readers read and writers write in and beyond the university, across a range of tasks* by requiring a wide range of texts (expository, fiction, poetry, and hypertext) written from different perspectives. Besides, the course instruction aimed at helping students set goals for their readings in and beyond school, and learn to apply effective strategies to comprehend reading and generate ideas for writing.
- Second objective was to *develop a metacognitive understanding of the processes of reading and writing* by raising students' awareness of their own mental processes and creating opportunities for students to comprehend and experience composing strategies.
- Third objective was to *understand the rhetorical properties of reading and writing, including purpose, audience, and stance* by emphasizing writing tasks (freewriting, planning, drafting, revising, practicing sentence combining, and editing essays) as well as reading tasks (practicing methods of raising reading rate and enhancing comprehension, developing recall and interpretation skills, using efficient study techniques, and experiencing the relation between reading and writing in all the disciplines) in addition to highlighting purposeful reading and writing, making students aware the audience to which they write and their expectations.
- Fourth objective was to *understand and engage in reading and writing as a way to make sense of the world, to experience literacy as problem solving, reasoning, and reflecting* by providing topics for both reading and writing that are related to current social issues and exposing students to community-building exercises.
- Fifth and last objective was to *develop enjoyments, satisfaction, and confidence in reading and writing* by encouraging student self-assessment and giving them the opportunity to assess their progress, evaluate what has changed in their performance, and what needs to be improved in the future.

For an effective teaching of reading and writing and to assure interaction between both skills, Goen and Gillotte-Tropp (2003) set six principles extracted from more than thirty years of research on basic writing and reading being:

- *Integration*; both skills must be taught together,
- *time*; this integration reduces the time of teaching every subject alone (two semesters instead of one),
- *Development*; teachers follow the development of their students' learning activity and decide who needs small group and/or individual tutoring,
- *Academic membership*; the integrated course satisfies the freshman composition requirement for graduation,
- *Sophistication*; teachers can help students engage in sophisticated literate activities required for success at the university,
- *Purposeful communication*; the curriculum was designed to guarantee communication in the class not only teach about the language. This program proved successful when 97% of the enrolled students passed the integrated course and were ready for the next level course.

Rasinski and Padak (2004: 98) substantiate the need for response to reading through writing and state:

When students read a text they should be asked to respond to their reading through writing – responding in a journal, composing a poem that reflects their thoughts on the piece, developing a written script on the text that will later be performed for an audience, or writing their own version of the story by changing one aspect of the story and keeping the other factors constant.

Unfortunately, SL/ FL students are not exposed to a sufficient amount of integrated reading and writing practice. There exist a variety of tasks that require reading-writing

integration such as summarizing, paraphrasing, synthesizing information, writing critical responses to reading materials, or writing a research paper. Yet, these tasks require a great deal of practice for students to gain the essential proficiency (Grabe & Zhang, 2013).

4.5. Difficulties with Integration Tasks

Naturally, L2 adult students come with a certain level of proficiency in reading and writing in their L1. This proficiency allows them to start reading and writing from a level that is a little beyond L1 children who are in their first contact with print. However, their ability to connect reading and writing in their L1 does not necessarily allow for an equal reading-to-writing transfer in L2. In academic contexts, L2 students find some critical difficulties in integration tasks. This might be due to their limited reading and writing practice. Most of our students rely only on what is assigned in the classroom and do not read or write for other purposes (like entertaining or searching for further information on a given topic introduced in the classroom). This will reduce their reading and writing proficiency, and thus, little inferencing is likely to take place.

Additionally, L2 background knowledge plays an important role in tasks that require integration of both skills. Students who have narrow background knowledge of L2 will find difficulties in understanding some types of texts and topics to which they have few or no information at all. Therefore, responding to the reading text will be a more difficult task as they may not find what to write or even they may fall in contradictions or redundancies.

The difficulty of integrated reading and writing tasks in academic settings has triggered the attention of many researchers such as Ferris (2009; cited in Grabe & Zhang, 2013: 11) who synthesized research explorations and listed a number of difficulties that L2 students face with integration tasks. These key issues are listed below:

1. Less writing practice with L2 academic writing tasks.
2. Weaker and widely varying L2 reading skills in English.
3. Limited experience with extensive reading and/or application of information from reading-for-writing tasks.
4. Limited vocabulary knowledge in comparison with L1 students.
5. Limited grammatical accuracy.
6. Differing motivations for being in a classroom requiring L2 reading/writing tasks.
7. A relative lack of tacit knowledge about how L2 texts are organized and how they should be organized while writing (i.e., L2 intuitive knowledge and extensive practice is largely missing).
8. Limited fluency in English writing; thus, composing takes longer and proceeds with more fits and starts, and L2 students do not produce longer automatic phrasings while writing.
9. Less L2 cultural and background knowledge to draw on.

4.6. Instructional Applications for Successful Reading-Writing Tasks

Recently, there has been a remarkable upsurge in the volume of instructional research addressing both reading and writing. After the connection between both modalities has proved its efficacy in developing students' thinking as well as their proficiency in the second language literacy, research orientations have gone deeper in analyzing the results of transfer between modalities in the second language as well as from students' L1 to L2.

To help EAP students overcome the aforementioned difficulties and succeed in the acquisition of reading and writing together, it is the teacher's role to provide support through raising their awareness about the usefulness of learning and linking both skills together and motivating them to engage in integration tasks. To achieve this, instruction plays a crucial role. Below are some suggested reading support activities to encourage students read for comprehension, as well as reading-writing support activities to help them fuel their writing

through reading. These practices are inferred from the study of Grabe and Zhang (2013) and other research implications (Stotsky, 1983; Grabe and Stoller, 2001; Johns, 1997).

- Well written course readings are the primary opportunity for students to analyze the reading models and they should be discussed thoroughly in terms of what makes the writing good, how the arguments are constructed, how the ideas are connected and organized in the specified pattern of paragraphs related to the text's genre (for instance, they will have to differentiate between the paragraph patterns of argumentative compositions and those in the comparison/contrast essays).
- Students' self and peer-evaluations may serve as a remedial for their own problems when they look at their work and their peer's from a reader's view. In addition, analyzing model writing assignments (Grabe and Zhang, 2013), preferably anonymous, may help students spot the error and get the correction rightly after.
- A reading journal where students write freely about what they have been reading, reflect on text's issues, and write overall comments, is another tool to engage students in the writing process to expand their comprehension of the reading material.
- Response papers to short passages (better to be chosen by the students themselves in order to give them more freedom in the task) persuade students to express themselves about what they have read and understood. These responses can be used in classroom discussions and teachers may mention some interesting observations on the text or stylish expressions in the students' writings. Johns (1997: 19) maintains: "We should encourage the investigation and critique of the literacy practices of others, particularly of more advanced students and faculty."
- Free-writing assignments call for students' previous readings; that is, they go back to their topics' repertoire which they gathered from their readings and according to their

background knowledge, they will write their own essays based on others' writings. Hence, reading will be informing writing.

- Choosing carefully reading texts and crafted writing assignments to engage students in different contexts and practice writing for a variety of audiences.
- Encourage in-class and at-home extensive readings with topics of interest to the students and related to the course themes and later ask students to write summaries or short reports.

These practices and others are required in the integration classroom along with teachers' creativity in choosing the materials and adapting them to the curriculum. Moreover, practicing both reading and writing has been emphasized in most research addressing the issue of integration, yet it is worth noting that neither extensive exposure to reading texts, nor high number of assigned writing tasks given alone is sufficient; they have to accompany each other. A review of the literature on developing reading-writing relationships suggest a practical approach to instruction which entails launching instruction on reading-writing tasks "much earlier, much more explicitly, and with much more iterative practice." (Grabe and Zhang, 2013: 19).

Conclusion

This chapter has identified and explained the nature of the reading-writing relationship both in the first and second language settings. Hypotheses addressing the issue have been analyzed and sorted out in terms of directionality of transfer across modalities (the Directional, Nondirectional, and Bidirectional Hypotheses presented by Eisterhold (1990)) and across languages transfer (the Independence Hypothesis of Cummins (1981) claiming the automaticity of literacy transfer from L1 to L2 and the Language Threshold Hypothesis which

argues against a certain threshold level for transfer to occur). Related studies to the field of reading-writing connection have been highlighted and their results demonstrated through various elements of the chapter to ensure a diversity of perspectives in the different research areas presented.

The importance of connecting both skills in instruction so that they fuel each other has been a central point in the literature review and suggested principles for making literacy connection reinforced this value. This chapter has also dealt with some instructional principles for teaching reading and writing together from the points of views of Shanahan (1988) and Goen and Gillotte-Tropp (2003).

Finally, some difficulties with the integration approach have been identified by different studies, and as a remedial, some instructional applications have also been established to help students carry out reading-writing tasks successfully. However, for integration to be successful, teachers as well as students need to understand the processes involved in both skills in order to recognize what instruction is appropriate at each stage and how to deal with the task at hand.

Chapter Five

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Chapter Five

Research Methodology and Procedures

Introduction

Research methodology and procedures of conducting a given study are the main parts of the research which indicate the validity of the study as well as the research hypothesis, which in its turn is conceived as the starting point of the research.

The current study follows a quantitative approach of research methodology. Theoretically speaking, a quantitative analysis consists in calculating the different units of analysis specified earlier in the proposal (Brause, 1999). In the same vein, Chen (2005: 21) describes a typical quantitative study and states that it includes:

[...] quantification of constructs related to research interest, data collection through experimental or nonexperimental designs, statistical data analysis and presentation of findings related to research hypotheses.

In the present chapter, the overall methodology has been highlighted and the different steps constituting the process of conducting the study have been detailed. Mainly, this chapter focuses on the procedure of carrying out the current research from piloting the study until the main study. Moreover, descriptions of the participants (students and teachers from both English departments in the Teachers' Training School and university of Mentouri), the research tools (questionnaires and Written Expression scores' analysis and comparison), in addition to the statistical methods based on which the analysis and comparison of the scores has been calculated to test the research hypothesis.

5.1. Research Methodology

The descriptive method has been chosen in this research. The procedure of the present research concerning sampling and data collection and analysis are to be detailed below.

5.1.1. Sampling and Research Participant

In methodology and research design, the notions of sample and population are of paramount importance. According to Miller (1974: 45), “the term population is used in statistics to refer to all possible objects of a particular type.” He adds that the number of objects in a population can be finite or infinite, yet it is not necessary to study all the objects even if the number is finite. In order to carry a study on a particular population, the next step, after identifying the population, is to take individuals from the whole population sharing the same characteristics and having equal chances of inclusion in the sample. Swetnam (2004: 42), in his turn, defines sampling as the act of obtaining “a manageable part of an object or a population that supposedly possesses the same qualities as the whole.” He goes on to identify four criteria of sampling adequacy that the researcher should consider while deciding on the sample:

- The sample should be large enough to be significant.
- It should be as representative as possible.
- Its defects should be acknowledged.
- A rationale for the sample should be produced.

Accordingly, sampling can be done following two techniques, namely probability sampling and nonprobability sampling, in order to get fully representative samples. The difference between probability and nonprobability samplings lies in the chance of

participation in the sample. Probability sampling, according to Jackson (2011) is a technique that offers each member of the population an equal chance to be included in the sample while the nonprobability sampling is a technique that denies the equal chance of being selected to all the individuals of the population. Additionally, probability sampling consists of three types: *random sampling*; an equal chance of selection is given to each individual, *stratified sampling*; the whole population is divided into characterized small groups and a random sample is taken according to the groups' specific features, and *cluster sampling*; the whole population consists of different groups or clusters, one or more groups are taken randomly as samples. Likewise, nonprobability sampling includes two types: *convenience sampling*; which considers the conveniently available individuals, and *quota sampling*; which presets certain characteristics for the individuals to fulfill the study requirements.

5.1.1.1. Students Participants

The present research studied second year LMD students of the English department at the university of Mentouri and the Teachers' Training School (L'Ecole Normal Supérieure 'ENS') during the academic year 2013-2014. The aim behind the selection of second year students is the belief that they already have a certain level of proficiency in reading and writing that enables them to use the least of what they read in their writings. Besides, in this year, students are introduced to the requirements of essay writing after they have gone through the basics of writing and paragraph organization in their first year. Accordingly, second year students seem to be the best population that fits this study since instruction needs to take place at the beginning of the course (in this case, the course is Essay Writing) in order to enable the students to focus on more important aspects in the higher level.

The Algerian educational system engages the learners in at least seven years of studying English from middle school to high school. With the first year at university, subjects of the selected population would have had eight years of formal English. In the middle and high school, subjects have been enrolled in topic-focused courses with relative emphases on the four skills. At the university level, all English students go through the same courses during the first and second year namely Written Expression, Oral Expression, and Grammar as the fundamental unit, in addition to Literature, Civilization, English for Specific Purposes, and some other subjects. The third year is the year where students are oriented to three branches (Applied Linguistics, Language Sciences, and Literature and Civilization) receiving different courses related to their specialties and preparing for their graduation. This makes the choice of the population of second year students the most convenient one since they are accustomed to the learning process at university and do not have any commitment toward graduation.

As for second year students of the TTS, they have to go through three years of common branch, and then some of them get oriented to a fourth year class to prepare them to be Middle school teachers while others continue till the fifth year to get certificates of High school teachers. During the three first years, the students enroll in the same courses of Written Expression, Oral Expression, Reading Techniques, and Grammar besides to Linguistics, Phonetics, Civilization, and other subjects similar to those taught in the University of Mentouri except for Reading Techniques which is taught only in the TTS.

During that year, the entire population of second year students at the University of Mentouri comprised a total of 800 students clustered over fourteen groups while in the TTS the population of second year students contained 93 students clustered over four groups. The sample of the current study, whose scores were subjects of analysis, consisted of 70 students from each institute.

In fact, most experimental comparative studies include two groups; a control and experimental group. Gosling and Noordam (2006: 30) define a control group as follows:

A control is an additional experimental trial or run. It is a separate experiment, done exactly like the others, except that no experimental variables are changed. A control is simply a neutral 'reference point' for comparison that enables you to see the effects of changing a variable by comparing it [to] the experiment in which you change nothing.

From the previous definition, we can refer to the experimental group as a group of participants receiving a certain treatment where an experimental variable or more are changed in order to compare the effects of such changes on the behavior of both participants from the control and experimental groups.

In the research at hand, students from the University of Mentouri were considered as a control group for they did not have a Reading Techniques course, while students from the TTS were considered as the experimental group which received the treatment (though the teacher researcher did not incorporate any treatment since Reading Techniques was already included in the curriculum).

However, for the questionnaire, two groups from each institute were chosen (94 from the University of Mentouri and 46 from the TTS). The difference in the percentage of both samples compared to the both populations can be due to the fact that the English department in the University of Mentouri witnesses at that period of the year a large movement of experimental studies carried out by many doctorate and Master's candidates. Accordingly, this has created a sort of heavy burden on both teachers and students to respond to the large numbers of questionnaires. Hence, the researcher could not enlarge the sample in the University of Mentouri.

5.1.1.2. Teachers Participants

Essentially, this study could not rely only on the students' perceptions of the connection between reading and writing. The participant teachers added more value to the study and served also as references to students' responses. The twelve (12) informants from the Mentouri University were mainly either MA holders (holding a Master's or a Magister degree and preparing their doctorate thesis) or PhD holders from the Mentouri University and all the twelve (12) teachers from the TTS were MA holders.

As for the population of Mentouri University teachers, it is worth noting that the number of teachers preparing for their PhD and teaching part time is way higher than full time teachers which had influenced the researcher's choice of having equal numbers of both degrees holders (there were 9 MA teachers and 3 PhD holders or professors), in addition to the large movement of experimental studies explained earlier which also was burdensome on the teachers who sometimes had dozens of questionnaires to respond to. The selected teachers were either teaching or have taught Written Expression in the department of English and having varying years of experience in teaching the module (from one year to more than 20 years).

In the Teachers' Training School, the researcher has experienced some difficulties in administering the questionnaires to Written Expression and Reading Techniques teachers for the reason that the same teachers are teaching the same modules each year, especially Reading Techniques. This would have affected the researcher's choice of including more teachers. Hence, the study included 6 Written Expression teachers (one of them has taught in both institutes and was asked to respond according to her experience in the TTS) and 6 Reading

Techniques teachers. All the respondents shared the same level of qualification; they were all MA holders.

5.1.2. Research Design

Originally, Experimental psychology suggests theories of human behaviors and uses various methods to test the validity of those theories. Miller (1974: 2) describes a psychological theory and says that: “[it] has to fit the facts of behavior as derived from systematic observations taken in carefully controlled conditions.” The methods used to test psychological predictions need to be planned to facilitate the process of collecting the data in order to determine the relationship between the variables; dependent or independent. Research design is concerned with the planning of relevant data collection. The independent variable is “the factor that the experimenter can manipulate or arrange” (Chen, 2005: 25) while for the dependent variable, the experimenter cannot arrange the values since they can only be obtained from the participants.

The current research investigates the influence of teaching Reading, which is the independent variable, on the students’ performance in Writing, which is the dependent variable for the teacher researcher can manage the teaching of reading but cannot arrange the students’ scores in the writing achievement exam. Furthermore, the independent variable, being teaching writing through reading, consisted of a control group who received no change in the method of teaching writing and an experimental group who had Reading Techniques and Written Expression as two courses integrated in the curriculum. The researcher speculated that the TTS students were exposed to more reading materials than did their duplicates in the Mentouri University. She has, therefore, taken the implementation of Reading in the

curriculum of second year in the TTS as the intended treatment and wanted to test the influence of Reading on Writing achievement when taught together.

5.1.3. Research Methods

Methodically speaking, there are two major approaches to data gathering and analysis: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative approaches to research design, data collection procedures, and methods of data analysis are the dominant paradigm in the field of empirical research (Adams, Fujii, & Mackey, 2005). Moreover, quantitative approaches give detailed presentations of findings related to research hypothesis (Chen, 2005). The nature of the current research implies the need for a quantitative approach.

5.1.4. Data Collection Instruments

Research instruments are said to be of a critical value to determine the validity as well as reliability of the results they offer. Experimental design allows for a wide range of research instruments, each is specific to a certain type of data. The researcher in the present study opted for a collection of students' scores in the fourth semester exam of Written Expression in addition to the student and teacher questionnaires. The reason behind choosing these two instruments is to build an idea about the level of students in writing, compare the performance of both groups to confirm or reject the research hypothesis and answer the research questions. Furthermore, comparing the results obtained from both instruments may confirm the overall results of the research.

5.1.4.1. Written Expression and Reading Techniques Exam Scores

In order to measure the performance of a given group in any discipline, assessment is a way to collect data about individuals' learning progress as detailed in chapter three of the

review of the literature in this study. In our immediate level, students' achievement is often measured using scores especially in formal examinations. The researcher collected second year students' scores in the academic year 2013 and 2014 from the TTS and the Mentouri University for the purpose of comparing Written Expression performance in both groups and Reading Techniques with Written Expression performance in the TTS students. The collection of scores took place after the fourth semester exam for the reason that in that semester students are exposed to expository writing and essay writing requirements are introduced.

5.1.4.2. Student and Teacher Questionnaires

Questionnaires have been used widely to investigate ranges of questions in L2 research; most of the time inspecting learners' motivation in L2 learning and their learning experiences, in addition to teachers' perceptions on their learners' education. Originally, there are two types of questions; close-ended and open-ended questions. As for close-ended questions, respondents are provided with options of answers for selection, whereas in open-ended questions, more freedom is given to the respondents in answering the questions and their answers are not directed with choices (Adams et al., 2005).

The current study included two questionnaires. The first one addressed to the students of second year in the TTS and the Mentouri University to scrutinize their attitudes toward reading and writing as well as their perception of the connection of both skills. The second questionnaire was addressed to the teachers of Written Expression in both institutes and Reading Techniques teachers in the TTS. It is worth noting that there were two teacher's questionnaires; one was particular for Written Expression teachers in both institutes and another one only for Reading Techniques teachers with a difference in the section of Reading

(for Reading Techniques teachers) and Writing (for Written Expression teachers). All the questionnaires will be described in details throughout this chapter.

5.1.5. Statistical Methods

Descriptive and inferential statistics have been judged adequate for this research. Their notions are to be explained and reasons behind using them are to be detailed in the followings.

5.1.5.1. Descriptive Statistics

Statistics help reduce the volume of data in an experiment by referring to them with characteristic numbers known as descriptive statistics. They are used to provide descriptions of the data collected in research studies and examine possible relationships between the variables under observation. Katz (2006: 31) states: “statistical analysis takes the data pile and orders it and then offers numerical descriptions of the ordered data.” The importance of descriptive statistics lies in offering a direct intuitive feel for the research data rather than seeing them as a large number of passive values.

5.1.5.1.1. Central Tendency

The central tendency of a distribution is the typical or most representative value in the distribution. There are three most widely used measures of central tendency, the mean, median (or middle value), and mode. This study was demonstrated through two middles; the mean and the mode. The mean in descriptive statistics is the value obtained by adding all the scores together and dividing them by the total number of scores. Katz (2006: 31) refers to the mean as ‘the center of mass’ and ‘the balancing point of the data’ while he adds for the mode to be: “the data value that occurs most often. It is the data pile’s maximum height.”

5.1.5.1.2. Dispersion

Dispersion refers to the variability of the data, i.e., how the scores are spread out on either sides of the central value. Miller (1974), Chen (2005), and Katz (2006) agree that the compactness of dispersal of the data pile is determined by the degree of variation in the numbers. If the numbers are heterogeneous, then the pile will be spread out and the difference may have just arisen by chance, while if the opposite is true and the numbers are homogeneous, then the pile will be compact and the difference between the means will be more convincing.

5.1.5.2. Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics consists of the procedures that allow the researcher to generalize his/her findings from a sample to the entire population by testing the hypothesis (Chen, 2005). It also helps the researcher decide “whether the results confirm the predicted effects of the independent variable” (Miller, 1974: 38). These procedures are done in the mathematical universe by inferring the mathematical formula from the real world sample, working on the formula in the mathematical universe (Katz, 2006), and draw conclusions about the experiment results.

5.1.5.2.1. The Statistical Test

Quantitative studies are often undertaken using specified statistical tests. Choosing the appropriate statistical test may be a difficult step in research methodology, yet Chen (2005) clarifies two types of research interests based on which a researcher can decide on the test that best fits his/her data and variables: *comparing group differences* and *examining relations between variables*. The *t* test is one procedure for group comparison for mean differences

which assumes that the scores of the two groups come from normal populations with equal variance and the measurements are on an interval scale (Miller, 1974). In the current research, the independent-samples t test seems to fit the data. It consists of “a comparison of the performance between an experimental group and a control group to evaluate the effectiveness of a certain treatment.” (Chen, 2005: 34).

Based on the aforementioned description, the researcher plumped for the independent-samples t test to discover the possibility that the difference between the means of the TTS and Mentouri University students’ scores arose by chance or by implementing Reading Techniques as a subject in the curriculum of second year along with Written Expression.

Furthermore, this area of statistics suggests two types of tests: one-tailed and two-tailed tests. The one-tailed test is appropriate when the direction of the difference between two conditions is specified, i.e., the influence of the dependent variable on the independent variable is predicted. Whereas the two-tailed test fits situations where the influence cannot be predicted or specified. In the case of the present research, the researcher predicted that teaching reading and writing together would have a positive impact on second year students’ writing achievement. Thus, the direction of influence predicted is a positive one which requires a one-tailed test.

5.1.5.2.2. T -test for Independent Samples

This test consists of calculating the value of the observed t , comparing it to the value of the tabulated t , and then according to the level of significance, the degree of freedom, and the direction of the hypothesis, one can decide whether to retain or reject the null hypothesis. In the present study, the researcher was 95% convinced that the results were attributable to the implementation of the Reading Techniques along with Written Expression in the curriculum

of second year. The remained 5% (or 0.05) refer to the probability that the results occurred by chance.

The t test for independent samples involves a set of formulae for calculating the degree of freedom, the mean, the variance, and the t value. The steps of calculating the independent t test are detailed below with the significance of the abbreviations used in the formulae:

Abbreviations:

N_1 = the number of participants of the first group.

N_2 = the number of participants of the second group.

\bar{X}_1 = the mean of the first group.

\bar{X}_2 = the mean of the second group.

S_1^2 = the variance of the first group.

S_2^2 = the variance of the second group.

df = the degree of freedom.

General Procedure:

1- Calculating the two samples means \bar{X}_1 and \bar{X}_2 using the formula: $\bar{X} = \frac{\Sigma X}{N}$

$$\bar{X}_1 = \frac{\Sigma X_1}{N_1} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{X}_2 = \frac{\Sigma X_2}{N_2}$$

2- Calculating the two sample variances S_1^2 and S_2^2 using the formula: $S^2 = \frac{\Sigma X^2}{N} - \bar{X}^2$

$$S_1^2 = \frac{\Sigma X_1^2}{N_1} - \bar{X}_1^2 \quad \text{and} \quad S_2^2 = \frac{\Sigma X_2^2}{N_2} - \bar{X}_2^2$$

3- Calculating the observed t for independent samples using the formula:

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2} = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) \sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2) N_1 N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1^2 + N_2 S_2^2) (N_1 + N_2)}}$$

4- Finding the number of degrees of freedom using the formula: $df = N_1 + N_2 - 2$

5- Determining the value of t needed for the chosen level of significance using the statistical table of independent samples t test depending on the number of degrees of freedom and the directionality of the hypothesis (a directional hypothesis requires a one-tailed test while a non-directional hypothesis entails a two-tailed test).

6- Comparing the observed value of t with the critical value. If the obtained t value is greater than the critical value, then the researcher can conclude that the independent variable influences the participants' behavior. If the opposite is true, then the null hypothesis is retained, i.e., the independent variable does not influence the participants' behavior.

5.2. Research Procedure

After setting up the research design and having settled on the data collection instruments as well as the statistical methods to be used for testing the research hypothesis, the researcher had to move on to the application of these procedures. However, for the purpose of checking the validity of the research instruments and avoiding any unexpected hitches or shortcomings in these procedures, a pilot study has been carried out before starting the main study.

5.2.1. Pilot Study

Because of the complexity of an experiment and to avoid any unexpected problems during the processes of gathering and analyzing the research data, a pilot study is the first advisable step a researcher may take in order to ensure the adequacy of the research design (Singh, 2006). In other words, the pilot study is conducted to determine the extent to which the research instruments measure what they are supposed to measure and whether they are applicable to the research direction and answer the research questions.

5.2.1.1. The Study Direction: Identification of the Problem

Before starting any research in any area, the investigator has first to identify the research problem and specify the factors of difficulty. The identification of the problem is not the mere selection of the research topic or statement of the problem. “The problem concerns with the functioning of the broader area of field studied whereas a topic or title or statement of the problem is the verbal statement of the problem.” expresses Singh (2006: 23). Moreover, one of the major sources to which a researcher may proceed for an adequate research problem to commit oneself to is the personal experience in the field of education. Several problems can occur in the learning environment which may be the basis of a more appropriate investigation since the problem stems from the researcher’s own teaching experience.

In the present study, the teacher researcher started the pilot study at the end of 2011. In fact, she was fortunate to teach two groups of adult Algerian learners of English who were employees at the Algerian telephone company “Ooredoo” (Ex. Wataniya Telecom Algérie, “Nedjma”). Most of the learners were computer and network engineers, in addition to some administration coordinators. The first group learners enrolled in a twenty-week Listening and Speaking course and were subjects of the teacher researcher’s first study in partial fulfillment

for the requirements of the Master degree in Language Sciences. The second group, which inspired the present study, had a Reading and Writing training during the same period following the North Star program for level two (on a scale of five levels suggested by the program designers). At the end of the course, the eight (08) learners have shown development in their writing (according to the results of their achievement tests) which has been informed by the reading materials provided in each unit (the course contained 10 units). All the learners passed to the next level successfully. The teacher had them evaluate their process of learning during the course as well as the course materials. All the comments have shown their satisfaction from the course and the reading materials which have provided them with ideas and types of essay development and organization. They have also highlighted the importance of those authentic reading texts in providing them with new vocabulary and characteristics of the American culture as well. This was the first step to consider the topic of this research and decide on the direction of investigation. It is worth noting here that this phase of the pilot study has taken place seven months after the course has ended and the participants were interviewed in their work place while two of them were absent during the interview, yet they have sent their comments via email.

5.2.1.1.2. Research Instruments

5.2.1.1.2.1. Comparing Students' Scores

Later on, at the beginning of 2012, and after deciding on the topic, the teacher researcher has discussed the research tools with three teachers from the English department of Mentouri University and two teachers from the Teachers' Training School. All the teachers argued that the TTS second year students' level of writing was higher than that of Mentouri University students and claimed that they are better readers as well since they have reading as

an independent subject matter unlike students of the same level in the English department of Mentouri University. This has given the researcher a support to her idea of comparing the scores of Written Expression achievement. The researcher, then, could choose second year students from both institutes to be the research case study. A case study is a study in depth; the intensive study of a phenomenon, as referred to by Singh (2006) and it is considered as a method and a tool of research. Among the types of case studies, causal comparative studies consider causal relationships between the variables and analyze them by means of the descriptive research methodology for the purpose of answering the research problems.

Moreover, during the same academic year, the researcher was teaching Written Expression to a group of second year students in Mentouri University and was collecting their writings (in-class and at-home assignments) for the purpose of comparing them to the TTS students' writings. Unfortunately, she could not have the opportunity to teach any group in the Teachers' Training School for the PhD candidates were not allowed to be part time teachers there to conduct their experiments. Therefore, she chose to compare a random collection of Written Expression scores attributed by other teachers from both institutes.

As a first step in the procedure of testing the research hypothesis, the researcher had a random selection of 20 scores of students from both institutes (10 from the TTS and 10 from Mentouri University). The computation of the t test for independent samples revealed a significant difference in the level of performance of both groups. For 18 degrees of freedom corresponding to 0.05 level of significance, the observed value of $t = 3.65$ is greater than the critical value 1.74 which implies that we should reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternate hypothesis. More precisely, the experimental group which received the treatment (Reading Techniques along with Written Expression) was found to have performed better

than the control group which did not receive the treatment. The table including the students' scores in the pilot study is displayed in Appendix E.

5.2.1.1.2.2. Student and Teacher Questionnaires

In addition to the comparison of students' scores, the first versions of the teacher and student questionnaires have also been delivered during that year to test the validity of the questions and the informants' preferences towards the types of questions. The teacher questionnaires were delivered to three Written Expression teachers from the English department of Mentouri University, one Reading Techniques teacher, and another Written Expression teacher from the TTS. At this stage, there was only one questionnaire form including four sections; *general information, reading, writing, the reading-writing connection*. The same questionnaire was administered to all the teachers. However, some teachers of Reading Techniques could not respond to certain questions concerning writing, while most teachers of Written Expression found some questions on reading irrelevant since they did not teach Reading Techniques especially at Mentouri University. Hence, a separation of the questionnaires was needed.

The student questionnaire has been delivered to nine students from the English department of Mentouri University and four students from the TTS. Both students and teachers seemed to prefer multiple choice questions rather than open-ended questions which require more time to reflect and produce answers since that period of the university year (second semester) is the period of delivering questionnaires by Master's and Doctoral researchers and both teachers and students are generally overloaded with many questionnaires. Hence, the teacher researcher has taken this point into consideration while preparing for the final versions of the research questionnaires.

5.2.2. Conducting the Main Study

The main study followed the pre-described data collection instruments and statistical method. The procedures with their descriptions are presented below.

5.2.2.1. Written Expression and Reading Techniques Students' scores

As the pilot study revealed a significant difference in the performance of both groups, the teacher researcher assumed that this difference is due to the implementation of Reading Techniques in the curriculum of second year students. To reinforce the results of the pilot study, she decided to enlarge the sample from 10 to 70 students from each institute. The whole population of the TTS involved 93 students while in the Mentouri University the number of second year students reached 800. Obviously, there seems to be a large difference in the number of students in both institutes and the amount of 70 subjects does not reflect the exact percentage of each sample comparing to the entire populations. However, the researcher thought it was better to take the same number of subjects in this phase for the reliability and validity of the t test.

It is worth mentioning here that the scores were taken randomly from different groups. The researcher had three lists of corresponding Reading Techniques and Written Expression scores of the four groups from the TTS and drew random circles around the scores until they reached the required number. Similarly, she circled Written Expression scores from six groups from Mentouri University and took the required number randomly. The comparison of the scores is computed using t test for independent samples. Computation and analysis details are displayed in the next chapter.

5.2.2.2. Teacher Questionnaires Description

The present study included two teacher questionnaires. They were administered in March 2013 to teachers of Written Expression from both institutes and TTS Reading Techniques teachers respectively. The questionnaires are designed mainly to find out about teachers' perception of incorporating reading in the teaching of writing. Written Expression teachers' questionnaire comprises three sections; they are as follows:

- General Information: including two questions about the respondents' degrees and experiences in teaching Written Expression.
- Writing: including thirteen questions mainly on the teachers' methods of teaching and perception of their students' level, difficulties, and ways to overcome these difficulties.
- Reading-Writing Connection: including nine questions about teachers' opinions concerning the importance of relating reading and writing, their cooperation with other teachers of Reading Techniques or Literature to share their experiences in dealing with students' weaknesses, in addition to their observations regarding students' usage of forms and styles from their readings.

On the other hand, Reading Techniques teachers' questionnaire includes the same first section. The second section; Reading, includes sixteen questions mainly about teachers' perception of the reading process, their students' level, their strategies in selecting and presenting reading texts, as well as in-class and at-home assignments. as for the third section; Reading-Writing Connection, they are nearly the same questions except for question 22 which asks whether the Reading Techniques teachers collaborate with Written Expression teachers to unveil and treat their students' weaknesses in writing. Therefore, Written Expression

teachers' questionnaire contains 26 questions and Reading Techniques teachers' questionnaire encompasses 28 questions with two more questions in the second section.

5.2.2.3. Student Questionnaire Description

The main purpose of designing student questionnaire is to identify students' attitudes toward the implementation of reading in the curriculum as a tool for improving writing. Students' questionnaire includes 24 questions clustered under three sections:

- Section one: Reading: aims at determining students' behavior towards reading, their attitudes, preferences, strategies, and their estimation of their level in reading.
- Section two: Writing: tackles students' problems in writing, their awareness of the audience, task preferences, respect of writing stages, and their estimation of their level in writing.
- Section three: Reading-Writing Integration: investigates students' awareness of the importance of connecting reading and writing, the degree to which they apply structures and styles from reading texts in their writings, and their perception of the effectiveness of developing reading on writing.

Most questions were close ended; students were required to respond to 'yes' or 'no' questions, tick the appropriate answer from a suggested list. Some questions were open ended; required students' opinions, specifications of other options not included in the suggested lists of options, or rationalizations of choice. Furthermore, students were given a scale of items to pick up the appropriate degree of agreement/disagreement on certain statements as well as the frequency of some aspects.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the overall research methodology has been described and the steps of the procedure have been detailed. The study was mainly a descriptive one following the quantitative method of data collection. The research instruments, being students' scores and questionnaires for both teachers and students, were opted for as implies the descriptive nature of the research design. As for the statistical methods, descriptive statistics was used to determine the central tendency (mean and mode) and dispersion of the scores. In addition, inferential statistics suggests *t* test for independent samples as the statistical test corresponding to the research data to calculate the significance of the results. After the research methodology has been clarified, the procedures followed in the pilot and main studies were specified.

Chapter Six

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Chapter Six

Results and Interpretation of Students' Scores Comparison

Introduction

This chapter aims primarily at putting into practice the research methodology and procedures described in the previous chapter in addition to reporting data analysis and interpretation of the results obtained from the descriptive and inferential statistics. In accordance with the analysis and interpretation of the results, the relation between reading and writing will be emphasized through the students' scores comparison. Throughout this chapter, the researcher tried to determine the correspondence between the teaching of Reading Techniques together with Written Expression and students' achievement in writing through the comparison of Written Expression exam scores between TTS and Mentouri University students as well as associating TTS students' scores in Reading Techniques with their corresponding scores in Written Expression. Initially, the results of the descriptive statistics in terms of general tendency and dispersion are displayed and analyzed to show the students' overall behavior in the Written Expression exam. Next, an analysis of students' scores grouped from 0 to 5, 6 to 10, 11 to 15, and 16 to 20 is demonstrated and discussed. The research hypothesis is tested using t test for independent samples to determine the significance of incorporating the treatment. After that, students' performance in Reading Techniques is to be compared to theirs in Written Expression through the same statistical procedure. The data obtained from the comparison of students' scores and testing the research hypothesis allow for possible interpretations concerning the direction of transfer from reading to writing; and thus, drawing conclusions about the efficacy of teaching writing through reading. In other words,

the comparative analysis seeks to identify the possible reflection of the teachings of reading in writing.

Before introducing the statistical data, an emphasis on the importance of both reading and writing and their interaction in the curriculum is summarized below since the major aim behind this step in the methodological design is to clarify the effect of teaching reading along with writing on the writing proficiency of second year students.

6.1. The Importance of Reading and Writing Together in Mentouri University Curriculum

Reading is a complex process of meaning making and re-creation of a written text in a reader's mind (Walter, 1982). It consists of a number of component skills subdivided by Rayner and Pollatsek (1989) and Grabe (1991) as detailed in chapter one; the Reading Skill. This complexity is mainly cognitive and what happens in the reader's mind during and after reading is said to affect his/her writing ability. Moreover, models of reading texts are widely advised in the writing classroom as comprehensible input for the acquisition of writing skills.

Second language learners come with a certain proficiency of reading and writing in their L1. This, according to Cummins' (1981) interdependence hypothesis suggesting literacy transfer from L1 to L2, will allow for development of reading and writing in L2. After the transfer of literacies between the languages, and as soon as the learners reach a certain threshold level of reading in the L2, they can transfer their knowledge gained from reading to writing. In fact, knowledge and strategies transfer from one skill to the other has taken a large portion in the studies investigating the connection between both literacies. However, many studies (Eisterhold, 1990; Kroll, 1993) have reported that more transfer occurs from reading

to writing since reading texts are the primary comprehensible input taken as models for writing.

Reading is said to be at the heart of writing (Hirvela, 2004). Consequently, many studies have investigated the effect of incorporating reading with writing either as an independent subject in the curriculum or integrated in the writing classroom. Both orientations seek the benefits of both skills on each other. In his book “Techniques in Teaching Writing”, Raimes (1983) devoted a whole chapter talking about using readings in writing classes as an instructional technique for teaching writing. She stresses the importance of written forms of the target language as a source of language input in contexts where students have limited access to the spoken language. In addition, by using reading, students become more familiar with different language features like vocabulary, idiomatic expressions in their meaningful contexts, paragraph organization, and the cultural assumptions of the target language native speakers. Similarly, Cobine (1995) asserts that writing about previous readings results in fulfilling a large set of learning styles; that is, synthesizing ideas along with critical assessment of these ideas enables university students to read texts and skillfully write about them as detailed in chapter four in the literature review of the present study.

In our immediate level, the English department of Mentouri University receives yearly thousands of acceptance requests from new bachelors who seek to learn the language and about the language. They come with a certain level in the English language acquired from their seven years of studying English in the middle and high school. The curriculum of secondary education (middle and high school) is based on teaching the four skills according to the available materials, yet the listening skill may not receive adequate emphasis due to the large number of students per class which makes it difficult to use listening materials. When

they enter to university and in their first two years, students of English face new subjects mainly Written Expression, Oral Expression, and Grammar. Little emphasis is put on reading and how to develop this skill except for some assigned at-home readings from the part of the Literature teacher. Differently, in the Teachers' Training School, second year students are fortunate to have a Reading Techniques subject which helps them shape and improve their reading skill which in its turn is said to influence the writing skill. Comparing both situations, the researcher saw a need for investigating this relationship.

Tierney and Leys (1986) studied the learning outcomes emerging from the link between reading and writing. Their first question was: Do gains in overall reading performance contribute in gains in overall writing performance? The present study followed this question in the assumption that teaching both Reading Techniques and Written Expression for second year students at Mentouri University would result in improving their writing performance. The researcher chose to compare the written performance of second year students in the Teachers' Training School with that of the same level students of Mentouri University through their obtained scores from the second semester exam of the academic year 2013-2014.

Nonetheless, Silberstein (1994) draws teachers' attention to the pitfall to avoid when teaching reading which is using reading as 'grist for a writing mill', i.e., using reading activities as mere information sources to use in writing. According to her, this would be not be motivating as the students would neglect the primary aim behind reading, which is comprehension, and focus only on what to take from reading to use in writing. Yet, when designing any curriculum, reading components should focus on how to help students become better readers first.

Furthermore, early studies by Birnbaum (1981, 1982 cited in Tierney and Leys, 1986) concluded that students' ability to comprehend the reading materials can enable them to write more organized, connected, and of higher content quality compared to those with a less ability to comprehend. Correspondingly, the researcher in the current study decided to compare the performance of second year students in the TTS both in Reading Techniques and Written Expression to find out any possible correspondence between both subject matters.

6.2. Students' Overall Performance in Written Expression Exam

	General tendency		Dispersion			
	Mean	Mode	Low	Frequency	High	Frequency
University students	10	08	03	01	15	01
TTS students	11.01	13	06	02	15	01

Table 6.1. Students' Overall Behavior in the Written Expression Exam

Table (6.1) demonstrates that the mean score of the overall performance of the TTS students (11.01) is relatively higher than that obtained by Mentouri University students (10.00). This indicates that TTS students performed better in the Written Expression exam than Mentouri University students. Likewise, the mode shows that TTS students' most frequent score is (13), while in Mentouri University students it is (8). Dispersion also designates a similarity in the highest score and its frequency in both groups (the score 15 was obtained by only one student from each group). However, the lowest scores were (6) and (3) for TTS students and Mentouri University students respectively. While the lowest score in the TTS group was obtained only once, it was recorded twice in the group of Mentouri University.

The comparison of the central tendency aspects, means and modes, and dispersion indicators, highest and lowest scores' frequency, signifies that TTS students have displayed a relatively higher level in Written Expression exam than Mentouri University students. This may be attributed to the teaching of Reading Techniques which helps students in many ways like enlarging their vocabulary and imagination through texts analysis. Hence, the students of the TTS may have transferred the teachings of Reading Techniques to their writings.

6.3. Students' Score Range between both Groups

The analysis of students' score range of both groups has been done according to a scale from 0 to 5, 6 to 10, 11 to 15, and 16 to 20, i.e., from the weakest to the highest score ranges as indicated in the following table.

Scores Range	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Total
University students	10%	44.28%	45.72%	0%	100%
TTS students	0%	37.14%	62.86%	0%	100%

Table 6.2. Score Range between the TTS and Mentouri University Students

From table (6.2), we notice that (10%) of Mentouri University students got scores between (0-5) while no student from the TTS scored less than (06) in the Written Expression exam. The majority of students' scores were in the range of (6-15) with a percentage of (90%) and approximately equal shares for both categories (6-10) and (11-15). No student from both samples scored more than 15 in the Written Expression exam. This may be attributed to the top grading limit set by teachers of Written Expression which usually does not exceed 17 for masterpieces. Moreover, TTS students scores were above the first range and most students got scores between (11 and 15). To say it differently, only (37.14%) of the TTS students scored in

the range of (6-10) between those who got the average (10) and those who scored less than the average. The highest percentage (62.86%) was in the range of (11-15) for TTS students, which is more than that obtained in the same range by Mentouri University students (45.72%). This difference indicates that most TTS students' level is upper-intermediate in writing, whereas Mentouri University students' level ranges mainly between intermediate and upper-intermediate with few beginners (10%).

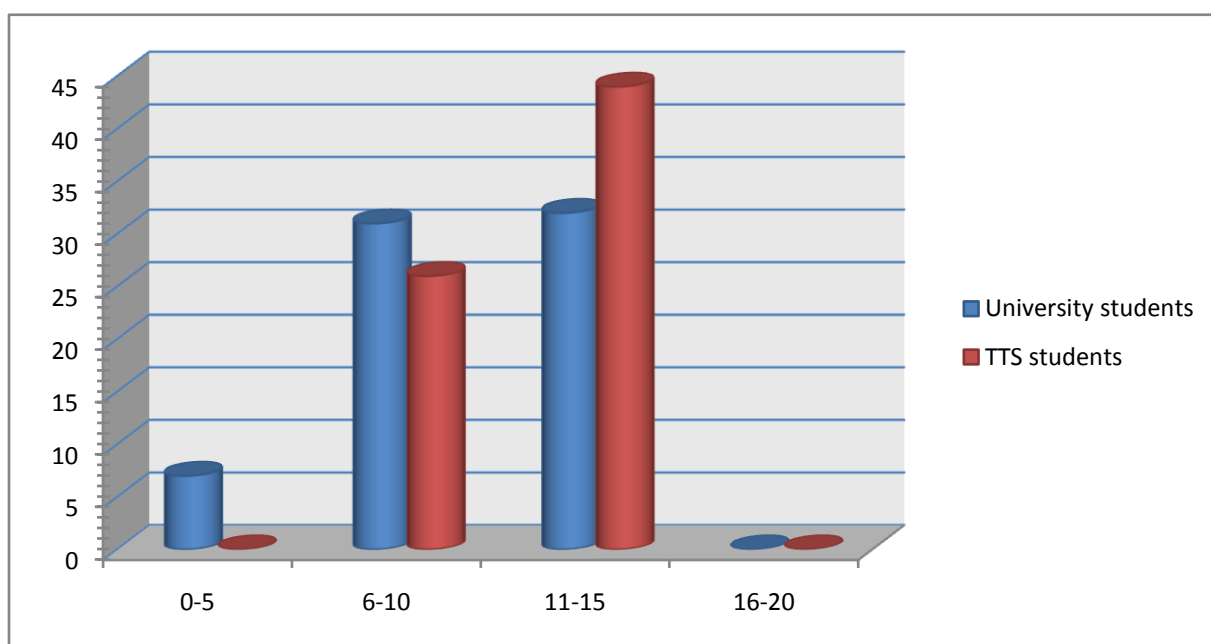


Figure 6.1. Writing Scores Range in the TTS and Mentouri University students

6.4. Testing the Research Hypothesis

Initially, the first step to test a hypothesis is to state both the null and alternative hypotheses (Miller, 1974). They are as follows:

- Null hypothesis (H_0): There would be no difference in Written Expression achievement at the end of the fourth semester between second year English students who have undergone the Reading Techniques subject and those who have not.

- Alternative hypothesis (H_1): There would be a significant difference in Written Expression achievement at the end of the fourth semester between second year English students who have undergone the Reading Techniques subject and those who have not.

The procedure of the t test for independent samples which is apt for the research data is displayed below.

6.4.1. t-test for the Experimental and Control Group Scores' Comparison

The tables with students' scores and the data needed for the procedure from both the experimental group (TTS students), and the control group (Mentouri University students) are included in Appendix F.

1- Calculating the means:

$$\bar{X}_1 = \frac{771}{70} = 11.01$$

$$\bar{X}_2 = \frac{700}{70} = 10$$

2- Calculating the variances:

$$S_1^2 = \frac{8811}{70} - 11.01^2 = 4.65$$

$$S_2^2 = \frac{7865.75}{70} - 10^2 = 9.18$$

3- Calculating the t value:

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2} = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) \sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2) N_1 N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1^2 + N_2 S_2^2) (N_1 + N_2)}}$$

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2} = \frac{(11.01 - 10) \sqrt{(70 + 70 - 2) 70 \times 70}}{\sqrt{(70 \times 4.65 + 70 \times 9.18) (70 + 70)}}$$

$$= \frac{1.01 \sqrt{676200}}{\sqrt{(325.5 + 643.25) \times 140}}$$

$$= \frac{1.01 \times 822.31}{\sqrt{135625}}$$

$$= \frac{830.53}{368.27}$$

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2} = \mathbf{2.25}$$

4- Calculating df:

$$df = N_1 + N_2 - 2 = 70 + 70 - 2 = 138$$

For 138 degrees of freedom corresponding to a 0.05 level of significance, and for one-tailed hypothesis, the tabulated t value for independent samples is 1.65. The results reveal a genuine and reliable difference between the levels of performance in the two groups since the observed value of $t = 2.25$ is greater than the critical value of 1.65. Consequently, we reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative hypothesis stated earlier. That is to say, there is a significant difference in Written Expression achievement at the end of the fourth semester between second year English students who have undergone the Reading Techniques subject (TTS students) and those who have not (Mentouri University students).

6.4.2. Interpretation of the Statistical Results

The descriptive statistics which was used to compare the overall performance of both groups in Written Expression exam showed that the participants' level is nearly approximate since the average of the control group was 10 and that of the experimental group was 11.01. However, the observed difference in the mode and the frequency of low scores besides the percentage of score range may indicate a relative difference in the performance. Apparently, students' score in the TTS were relatively higher than those of Mentouri University. This may be attributed to the treatment that TTS students had (a Reading Techniques subject) and Mentouri University students were deprived of. Yet again, we cannot neglect the fact that different teachers were teaching the different groups and not all the teachers follow the same

criteria of assessing Written Expression; that is, different methods of assessment may lead to different results. Basically, in both institutes, students' exam scores are not their final grades. In fact, they are paired with another grade for each student given the label "TD Mark" (TD stands for the French words 'Travaux Dirigés') and then divided by two to get the average of the subject matter. The TD mark in its turn is variable from one student to the other and so are the criteria of giving this mark among teachers. Some teachers relate this mark to the attendance of the course and participation, others prefer to assign homework or even in-class activities and score them, while some others give this mark to a test or more as a continuous assessment. This variability made the researcher opt for the collection of only the exam marks since they measure students' performance directly regardless of the disadvantages of exams' evaluation (for more information on the disadvantages of assessment, see chapter three Approaches and Assessment of Writing).

The comparison of Written Expression scores for both institutes' students revealed a significant difference in the students' written performance. The results obtained from the comparison of the score ranges as well as the inferential statistics; by computing the value of t and concluding that there is a significant difference in the written performance of both groups, may lead us to understand that Written Expression achievement of second year English students who have undergone the Reading Techniques subject (TTS students) is higher in quality than that of those students who have been deprived of that subject (Mentouri University students).

6.5. The Importance of Reading Techniques in the Curriculum

Since reading is recognized as a complex information processing skill where interaction between the reader and the text occurs and aims at (re)creating meaningful

discourse, and as the reader is known to be an active, problem-solving entity who uses a range of skills and strategies for the purpose of achieving comprehension (Silberstein, 1994), teaching this skill becomes compulsory to guide EFL/ESL learners to strategic improvement of their reading abilities. Besides, reading instruction needs to be emphasized in any reading program by setting the goal of developing fluent and independent readers able to use their own strategies to fulfill the reading process successfully. Here comes the role of the teacher of reading which is that of a facilitator and guide. The teacher introduces the learners to the techniques of good and effective reading without putting much emphasis on the theoretical terminology, but on practicing the techniques and strategies through texts. Clarke and Silberstein (1977: 135) described the role of the reading teacher and stressed that it is "... to train students to determine their own goals and strategies for a particular reading...to encourage [them] to take risks, to guess, to ignore their impulses to be always correct."

Clearly, for teaching any language skill, there must be a well designed and appropriate plan with specific activities related to the teaching goals of each lesson. Reading Techniques activities focus on the usage of different techniques and strategies which help students comprehend and become independent users of the language. Hence, a range of reading tasks is required to guarantee thorough practice. *Skimming*, or quick reading, is the first strategy generally used to obtain the general sense of the text content. Students read quickly (not necessarily every word) and let their eyes run over the text to get the gist without any of the details. Moreover, *reading for thorough comprehension*, or detailed reading, allows students to manipulate the authors' ideas, paraphrase them, and answer comprehension questions. For tasks that require extracting specific information from the text, *scanning* is the strategy to be used. There are different ways for meaning inference; word analysis, contextual clues, semantic information, and so on. This can be done through *critical reading* where students

draw inferences and recognize implicit relationships between the text's features to create meaningful discourse (for more details on reading strategies, see chapter one).

However, not all text types lend themselves to the same types of tasks with the same techniques and strategies needed for comprehension. Silberstein (1994) maintains that to encourage students to use reading strategies effectively, teachers should vary the activities for the reading passages. She emphasizes that:

Individual texts will suggest particular teaching activities. ... one would not encourage students to undertake a careful syntactic analysis of a passage that merited only rapid scanning for a single piece of information.

Silberstein (1994: 11)

Therefore, appropriate reading activities for teaching reading techniques are suggested by the reader's goals and the text's characteristics.

In terms of the value of reading, students can learn very much from the written text; the author's methods of dealing with the problem and introducing the content, the organization of the ideas, and choice of phrases and expressions. In order for the students to get these benefits, Raimes (1983) suggests two types of reading activities; extensive reading and close reading. Extensive reading activities require reading for global understanding of the context and the meaning whereas close reading activities, usually with short reading passages, entail close attention to both intrasentential features (word choice, grammatical structures, and so) and suprasentential features (like content and the organization of the text).

In the Teachers' Training School, Reading Techniques is taught right from the first year by introducing students to the theoretical concepts and terms concerning the techniques and strategies to be used when reading a text besides practicing them in appropriate contexts.

In the second year, more practice is carried out. Through texts' analysis, and with the teacher's guidance, students learn and memorize the different techniques and strategies; they are encouraged to use their own strategies and the appropriate techniques for every reading task.

As for second year writing program which deals with expository prose, it is particularly worthwhile to work with the rhetorical patterns of different types of expository reading passages. For example, in the comparison and contrast type of organization, students are to examine the passage and find the items being compared and the areas of contrast. A possible task can require from the students to separate the similarities from the differences in an accompanying table. The same thing can be done with cause and effect texts besides the evaluation of the degree of conviction of the author's claims. In fact, students can better interpret English expository prose, as claimed by Silberstein (1994), when they are exposed to the conventions that govern these texts. Moreover, by practicing these patterns, they will understand the relationship of ideas within the text after fulfilling related activities such as filling in diagrams, creating semantic maps, understanding parts of the text, or recreating a process they have read about (for instance, how to manipulate a given digital device).

In conclusion, the primary aim behind reading a text is to gain information. This information is to be used as background knowledge in writing. By recognizing conventions of the texts, students get to understand the meaning and to reproduce it in their writings as well. Likewise, by being critical towards others' writings, students learn to evaluate their own writings.

6.6. Comparing TTS Students Overall Performance in Reading Techniques and Written Expression

This part of the research consists of gathering the same TTS students' scores in Written Expression analyzed earlier in this chapter and comparing them to their corresponding scores in Reading Techniques, i.e., the same students who were subjects of the comparison of Written Expression scores between the TTS and Mentouri University are now used to be analyze and compared with Reading Techniques scores.

	General tendency		Dispersion			
	Mean	Mode	Low	Frequency	High	Frequency
Reading Techniques	11.24	11.5	4	1	15.75	2
Written Expression	11.01	13	6	2	15	1

Table 6.3. TTS students' overall behavior in Reading and Writing

The table above illustrates that there is almost no difference in the mean score of the TTS students' overall performance in Reading Techniques and Written Expression exams. The mode of Reading Techniques shows that the most frequent score is (11.5) while that of Written Expression is somehow higher (13). The dispersion factors indicate that the lowest score in Reading Techniques was (4) obtained by only one student whereas in Written Expression it was (6) and got by two students. As for the highest scores, they were 15.75 obtained by two students and 15 by only one student in Reading Techniques and Written Expression respectively.

Although the comparison of the central tendency and dispersion aspects may indicate a wide range in Reading Techniques scores (from 4 to 15.75) more than Written Expression

scores (from 6 to 15) with different modes for each subject matter, a thorough analysis of scores is required to fully understand the relation between students' performance in both Reading and Writing.

6.7. Comparing Students' Overall Score Range in Reading Techniques and Written Expression

Scores Range	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Total
Written Expression	0%	34.28%	65.72%	0%	100%
Reading Techniques	1.43%	25.71%	70%	2.86%	100%

Table 6.4. Score Range in Written Expression and Reading Techniques

Observing the first line of table (6.4), we notice that the rank of students in Writing is higher in the range of (11-15) with more than (65%) whereas it is (34%) in students having (6-10). In other words, (65%) of the students obtained scores above the average and (34%) got the average or below. However, the second line of the table shows that (72.86%) of the students got scores above the average in Reading Techniques and (27.14%) got the average or below. Furthermore, two students from a total of (70) scored more than (15) in Reading Techniques, while no student could do it in Written Expression. This is not surprising since the highest score in Writing is (15) and in Reading Techniques is (15.75) and both scores are approximate. An overall observation of the table indicates that TTS students performed nearly the same level in Reading Techniques and Written Expression since only three students (4.29%) scored in the ranges of (0-5) and (16-20) in Reading Techniques. A possible explanation could be that TTS students do transfer the teachings of the different reading techniques to writing and that they could build an analytic sense of their own writings from the extensive texts' analyses they had in Reading Techniques.

6.8. Corresponding Score Range between Reading Techniques and Written Expression in the TTS Students

In the table below, the scores were grouped under four categories; from 00 to 05, from 06 to 10, from 11 to 15, and from 16 to 20. For the purpose of investigating whether students who ranked in a given group of Reading Techniques were ranked in the same or different group of Written Expression, this type of analysis is opted for. To say it differently, the researcher wants to check if the level of students in Reading Techniques is the same in Written Expression and whether students got similar scores in both subjects. It is worth noting here that different methods of evaluation may lead to different results and the present study does not focus on the methods of assessing each subject, it rather examines the general performance which is scored by different teachers. Other researches may also bring about different results, but since both subjects were taught by two teachers for each in the TTS, the researcher assumed that there would be cooperation between teachers of the same subject in terms of criteria of evaluation. However, one limitation of this aspect of comparison is that the type of assessment of Reading Techniques in the TTS is not the same as Written Expression since the latter is often scored holistically while the former entails specific responses.

Reading Techniques Score Range	Percentage of Students in Writing Score Range				
	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Total
0-5	0%	1.43%	0%	0%	1.43%
6-10	0%	24.28%	7.14%	0%	31.42%
11-15	0%	8.57%	55.72%	0%	64.29%
16-20	0%	0%	2.86%	0%	2.86%
Grand Total	0%	34.28%	65.72%	0%	100%

Table 6.5. Corresponding Score Range between Reading Techniques and Written Expression

The analysis of the students' scores as displayed in table (6.5) has been made according to equal score ranges from the weakest to the highest. Every line of the previous table is to be analyzed and discussed alone in separate tables to fully understand the correspondence of the scores between Reading techniques and Written Expression.

6.8.1. Findings and Discussion

	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Total
0-5	0%	1.43%	0%	0%	1.43%

Table 6.6. (0-5) Range in Reading Techniques

Table (6.6) shows that none of the TTS students is ranked in the (0-5) range both in Reading Techniques and Written Expression. Likewise, both ranges (11-15) and (16-20) reveal that there is no chance for students who got scores between (00) and (05) in Reading Techniques to get good marks in Written Expression. That is to say, there is no room for accidental success in writing for students who failed in reading. However, the table also shows that (1.43%) of the same students ranking in the first category obtained scores between (06) and (10) in Written Expression. Yet, this ratio refers to only one student who got (04) in Reading Techniques and (07) in Written Expression

From the values obtained, we can say that Reading Techniques scores correspond logically to Written Expression scores and reveal that the level of students in both subject matters is closely related. These results are relatively significant and somehow prove the claim that poor readers are seldom good writers.

	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Total
6-10	0%	24.28%	7.14%	0%	31.42%

Table 6.7. (6-10) Range in Reading Techniques

Table (6.7) exhibits a clear and logical correspondence between students' scores ranked in the (6-10) range in Reading Techniques and Written Expression with more than (24%) of the students. That is to say, these students achieved nearly the same level in both Reading Techniques and Written Expression. Only (7.14%) of the sample who were ranked in that range could perform better in writing; they scored between (11) and (15). However, this ratio does not imply that students who got less than the average in Reading Techniques could get good marks in Written Expression since the majority had close scores in both exams. For example a student who got (09) in Reading Techniques, had (10) in Written Expression, another one scored (9.5) in Reading Techniques and (12) in Written Expression. None of the students from this range could score more than (12) as displayed in the table of comparison in Appendix F. Moreover, the table above shows that there was no chance for students who got between (06) and (10) in Reading Techniques to score between (16) and (20) in Written Expression which implies that bad readers in the TTS could not be good writers. Likewise, the second column of the table indicates that mediocre readers are often mediocre writers and seldom good writers.

	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Total
11-15	0%	8.58%	55.72%	0%	64.30%

Table 6.8. 11-15 Range in Reading Techniques

When we observe the rank of students belonging to the same category of (11-15) in Reading Techniques and Written Expression, we notice a logical correspondence between the

percentages. More than half of the students (55.72) obtained similar or close scores in both subject matters while only (8.58%) could rank in the intermediate row of Written Expression and got the average or less as displayed in table (6.8). However, a deeper observation of the scores revealed that the (6-10) scores obtained in Written Expression are closer to (10) than to (06). On the same table, we notice that no student was ranked on both extremes of the same line since the lowest score in writing is (06) and the highest is (15).

In general, a total of (64.30%) of the sample could achieve a good level in both reading and writing together which proves the claim that good readers are good writers because they develop the ability of using previous readings in their writings in addition to the techniques and strategies they have learnt in Reading Techniques.

	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Total
16-20	0%	0%	2.86%	0%	2.86%

Table 6.9. 16-20 Range in Reading Techniques

Again, the same logical correspondence occurs here in table (6.9) which reveals that (2.86%) of the sample who ranked in the (16-20) category of Reading Techniques could score between (11) and (15) in Written Expression. To be more precise, this percentage refers to two students who both got (15.75) in Reading Techniques and scored (13) and (13.5) in Written Expression exam. Yet again, same as the results observed till now, no student from the (16-20) category of Reading Techniques scored between (00) to (10) in writing which may indicate that good readers are rarely bad writers. Equally, the fact that the best mark in Written Expression was (15) reduced students' chances to be ranked in the same category of reading and writing.

However, one may say that accidents do happen and good readers may face obstacles the day of the exam or some external factors which may affect their performance. Although we did not notice such results, it is worthwhile to mention this point for other researches under some other circumstances may reveal different results.

6.9. Interpretation of the Results Obtained from the Scores' Comparison

The comparison of the general tendency and dispersion factors for Reading Techniques and Written Expression fourth semester exam scores revealed that students' level in Reading Techniques was approximate to that of Written Expression. We should denote, here, that the students' mean score in both subjects was nearly equal with (11.24) in Reading Techniques and (11.01) in Written Expression. Additionally, more distribution of scores in Reading Techniques was observed than in Written Expression. This is mainly owing to the system of evaluation used in each subject; Reading Techniques tests are often criteria-referenced (CRT) while students' written performance is generally measured using the norm-referenced tests (NRT). These two types of tests are detailed in chapter three 'Approaches and Assessment of Writing'. Naturally, the CRT sets separate scores for each item to be evaluated and the final score is determined by adding together all the scores attributed. The use of the CRT in Reading Techniques' evaluation explains the diversity in students' scores (they ranged from 04 to 15.75) and provide a possible rationalization to the fact that many recorded scores are displayed with (.25) and (.75) after the exact number.

After comparing the overall performance of students in Reading Techniques and Written Expression in terms of score ranges, we obtained results showing that TTS students exhibited nearly the same level in both subject since (95.71%) of them ranked in the Reading Techniques categories of (6-10) and (11-15) with (100%) in the same categories of Written

Expression scores. The remaining percentage (4.29%) reflects (03) students over (70), two of them got the highest score in Reading Techniques (15.75) and one had the lowest score (04). This logical correspondence point to a possible explanation that students were affected by the teachings of Reading Techniques, used them in their writings, and could, therefore, balance their level in both subjects.

A detailed analysis of the score ranges in Reading Techniques and Written Expression made it clear that most students who ranked in the intermediate or upper-intermediate levels of Reading Techniques were correspondingly in the same levels of Written Expression. The results are not surprising and the logical correspondence we observed in the overall score ranges is confirmed in every raw. Although writing is a creative act, unlike reading, and as creativity tasks cannot be evaluated as objectively as comprehension tasks, the results we obtained from the comparison of students scores were ideally supporting the claim of many researchers, like Stotsky (1983) and Grabe (1991), that good readers are good writers and bad readers are bad writers focusing on reading and writing as ‘mutually reinforcing interactive processes’. Yet again, this point is still controversial since some researchers voiced against this assumption.

In sum, the fact that the majority of students scores (55.72%) dangle between (11) and (15) both in Reading Techniques and Written Expression taken together makes the findings of this comparison seem more perfect for an ultimate conclusion that reading informs writing and the teachings of Reading Techniques are reflected in students’ writing.

Conclusion

This chapter has addressed the subject of Written Expression in the English departments of the Teachers' Training School and Mentouri University besides the influence of incorporating the Reading Techniques subject in the TTS as a treatment for improving students' written performance. First, the importance of Reading and Writing together in Mentouri University has been highlighted before embarking in the analysis of students' writing scores in terms of overall performance descriptive statistics and score ranges between both groups. After that, and by means of inferential statistics, the research hypothesis was tested applying the formulae of t test for experimental and control group scores' comparison which revealed a significant difference in students' written performance. More precisely, TTS students exhibited higher level in writing than Mentouri University students. This answers the third research question of this study which addresses the place of Reading Techniques in the TTS and the impact of its absence in Mentouri University on students' writing achievement.

The other aspect of comparison dealt with in this chapter was intended as a further check for the previous statistical results, but before starting this procedure, the place of Reading Techniques in the curriculum of the Teachers' Training School has been highlighted with an emphasis on its importance as an independent subject reinforcing students' reading abilities as well as writing achievement. Subsequently, The TTS students' scores in Written Expression examined earlier were subjects of another comparison with their corresponding scores in Reading Techniques to see whether they correlate and reflect the famous saying that good readers are good writers and bad readers are bad writers. The comparison was done in terms of descriptive statistics of the overall performance as well as the overall and corresponding score ranges of both Reading Techniques and Written Expression fourth

semester exams. One immediate conclusion we can draw from this brief comparison suggests a logical correspondence between students' performance in both subjects and that Reading Techniques and Written Expression go hand in hand. This may also suggest that both skills inform each other. However, conclusions such as these are not without their limitations. A more thorough analysis of the correlation between specific aspects of reading and writing, or even the impact of age, gender, or the measures of comparison employed may reveal some fluctuations in the extent of the correlation.

Even though L1 researchers have largely mentioned the high correlation between good writers and good readers, there were raising voices claiming the inexactitude of the former saying. For example, Tierney and Leys (1984) were among the first researchers to consider the possible relationships between reading and writing and pointed out to the numerous correlational studies which suggested a modest general correlation between overall reading performance and writing achievement. On the other hand, there emerged many studies revealing marked differences in reading and writing achievements like their study which concluded that students who were ranked as good readers were not necessarily good writers and vice versa.

Chapter Seven

Teachers and Students Questionnaires

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Chapter Seven

Teachers and Students Questionnaires

Introduction

The analysis of this study is based on two research instruments (the statistical procedures for scores' comparison and the questionnaires) as described in chapter five. As the first practical step of this research, the statistical data was analyzed and discussed in the previous chapter and the research hypothesis was tested and proved. Likewise, in this chapter, the data obtained from the teachers' and students' questionnaires are to be scrutinized and discussed with a summary of the main findings of each questionnaire to follow. The data analysis will allow the researcher to come up with answers to the research questions which are put as follows:

Q1: Is reading comprehension of any help to EFL learners in improving their writing skills?

Q2: Do EFL learners use their previous readings to produce more successful pieces of writing?

Q3: What are the major problematic areas in the students' writing that can be repaired by constant reading practice?

Q4: To what extent does teaching writing on its own right as in the Department of English at Mentouri University or teaching it in combination with Reading Techniques as in the Teachers' Training School in Mentouri, affect the students' performance in Writing?

Q5: What are the teachers' perspectives concerning the amalgamation of reading in teaching writing both in the Teachers' Training School and Mentouri University English departments?

7.1. Teachers Questionnaire

7.1.1. Analysis and Discussion of the Results

Section One: General Information

Question 1: Degree held: a- BA b- MA c- PhD

Degree	Informants Univ 1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
BA	0	0	0	0
Ma	9	75	12	100
PhD	3	25	0	0
Total	12	100	12	100

Table 7.1. Informants Degrees

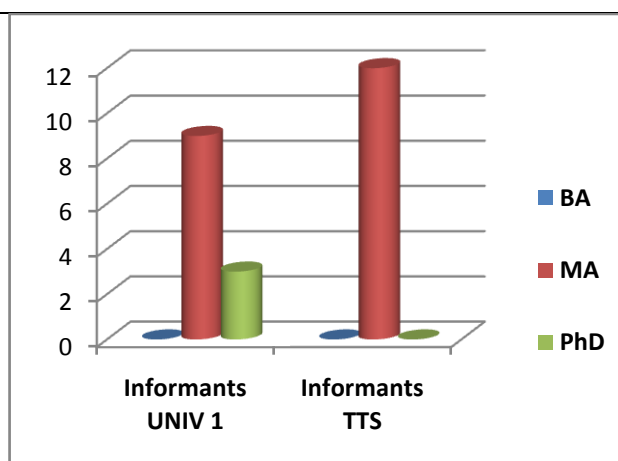


Figure 7.1. Informants Degrees

The first item in this section is meant to get general information about the teachers' degree held. The statistics show that 75% of the respondents (09 teachers) from Mentouri University (referred to as "Univ1" in the tables and figures) hold an MA degree (both Master and Magister) and 25% (03 teachers) hold a PhD (to be more precise, the three of them are Professors). None of the respondents holds a BA because the new regulations of the English department at Mentouri University deprive BA holders from teaching, only MA holders are allowed to teach there.

As for the Teachers Training School respondents, they all have an MA level. However, an immediate conclusion that the level of Mentouri University teachers is higher than that of the TTS teachers is not without its limitations. Actually, many teachers from Mentouri University were teaching in the TTS at some point of their career (among them PhD holders). Hence, the fact that the researcher did not encounter any PhD holders there does not mean that the only teachers are only MA holders; she might have chosen the day where they were not teaching to deliver the questionnaire. Besides, in the TTS, nearly the same teachers are teaching the same subjects every year, especially for Reading Techniques which is given to two teachers, two groups for each. This is also a reason why the researcher could not enlarge the sample of the teachers.

Question 2: How long have you been teaching Reading Techniques / Written Expression?

Years of Experience	Informants Univ 1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
From 1 to 5	6	50	7	58.33
6 to 10	3	25	5	41.67
11 to 15	0	0	0	0
16 to 20	1	8.33	0	0
More than 20	2	16.67	0	0
Total	12	100	12	100

Table 7.2. Informants Years of Experience

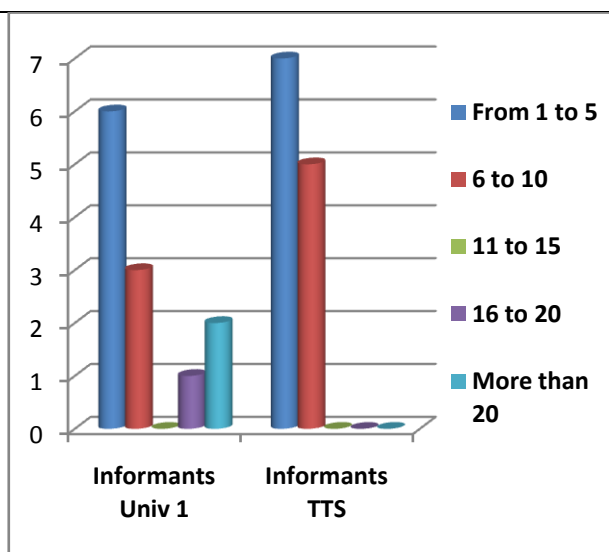


Figure 7.2. Informants Years of Experience

This second question serves as a follow up for the previous one to find out about the number of years of teaching Reading Techniques and Written Expression. As displayed in table (7.2) and illustrated in figure (7.2), there seems to be an apparent difference in the years of experience between the TTS teachers and their coordinates in the Mentouri University. As

for Mentouri University teachers, their experiences vary from two years to more than 20 years with 50% (06 teachers) having a modest experience between one and five years, 25% (03 teachers) having taught Written Expression for six to ten years, 8.33% (one teachers) with an experience between 16 to 20 years, and more than 16% (02 teachers) with the highest number of years; more than twenty years of experience. Among the informants, there are teachers whose years of experience count for teaching at both institutes and whose valuable contribution would certainly be highly beneficial to this research. Beyond the previous table, and taking individual answers into consideration, we can get a total of 119 years of experience for all the informants from Mentouri University. This is very important in inferring their contribution to the teaching of writing in the English department.

On the other hand, the years of experience of the TTS informants (both Reading Techniques and Written Expression teachers) do not exceed 10 years. More than 58% (07 teachers) can be considered as relatively beginners since their experiences range between one and five years, whereas nearly 42% (5 teachers) have taught for six to ten years. The most experienced teachers in Written Expression have nine and ten years of experience in teaching this subject whilst for the Reading Techniques teachers, they reached eight and ten years. The total of the years of experience for Written Expression teachers makes 30 years and that of Reading Techniques teachers gets to 31. Again, this does not necessarily mean that their humble experience does not qualify them to be good teachers. In fact, the TTS is considered as a very strict school where only the elite of the new bachelors can be accepted with an entrance test which qualifies or disqualifies them. Similarly, the teachers who are to teach the cream of the crop need to be the best and generally they ranked the first when they were students and among the top ten in the Magister exams.

Section Two: Reading (For Reading Techniques teachers at the TTS)

Question 3: Do you think that reading is?

a- an active process

b- a passive process

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	5	100
B	0	0
Total	5	100

Table 7.3. Informants Perception of Reading

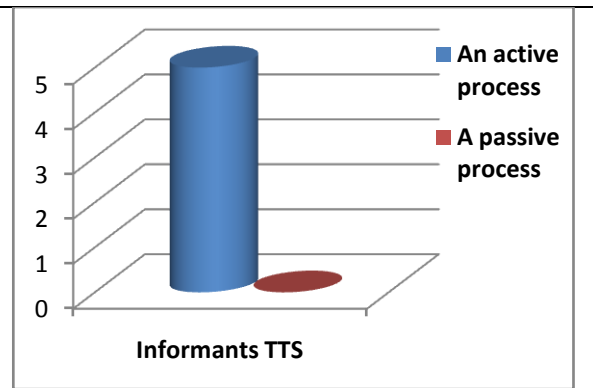


Figure 7.3. Informants Perception of Reading

In this question, the TTS participants were invited to show their perception of the reading process as an active or passive one. The main purpose behind this question was to check whether the teachers treat their students as passive readers or active ones; that is, whether they involve them in the act of reading right from the beginning or they just read without being critical.

Teachers who believe reading is a passive process may think that the act of reading entails only the visual movement of the eye on the arranged words in a given text, regardless of the different steps and efforts that the students make to achieve comprehension. In effect, no one of the respondents thinks so; nearly all of them agree that reading is an active process (see table 7.3) except of one teacher who had a different opinion and did not tick any option reporting that reading is an interactive process. This answer leads us to think of classroom interaction with its different forms and different roles (active or receptive) of the teacher and students.

In this vein, Penny Ur in her book *A Course in Language Teaching* (1999) described the patterns of classroom interaction where the teacher and students exchange roles by being active at some points and receptive at others. She gave codes for teacher-students interaction in each pattern as follows:

TT= Teacher very active, students only receptive.

T= Teacher active, students mainly receptive.

TS= Teacher and students fairly equally active.

S= Students active, teacher mainly receptive.

SS= Students very active, teacher only receptive.

The patterns of interaction are described below:

Group work

Students work in small groups on tasks that entail interaction: conveying information, for example, or group decision-making. The teacher walks around listening, intervenes little if at all.

Closed-ended teacher questioning

Only one 'right' response gets approved. Sometimes, it is cynically called the 'Guess what the teacher wants you to say' game.

Individual work

The teacher gives a task or set of tasks, and students work on them independently; the teacher walks around monitoring and assisting where necessary.

Choral responses

The teacher gives a model which is repeated by all the class in chorus; or gives a cue which is responded to in chorus.

Collaboration

Students do the same sort of tasks as in ‘Individual work’, but work together, usually in pairs, to try to achieve the best results they can. The teacher may or may not intervene.

(Note that this is different from ‘Group work’, where the task itself necessitates interaction.)

Student initiates, teacher answers

For example, in a guessing game: the students think of questions and the teacher responds; but the teacher decides who asks.

Full-class interaction

The students debate a topic, or do a language task as a class; the teacher may intervene occasionally, to stimulate participation or to monitor.

Teacher talk

This may involve some kind of silent student response, such as writing from dictation; but there is no initiative on the part of the student.

Self-access

Students choose their own learning tasks, and work autonomously.

Open-ended teacher questioning

There are a number of possible ‘right’ answers, so that more students answer each cue (Ur, 1999: 102).

Question 4: Please justify your answer.

This question completes the previous one; it aims at relating teachers’ choices to possible reasons.

Nearly all the respondents believe that reading is an active process because the reader does not only receive passively what has the writer encoded, rather he responds to the writer's ideas, feelings, ideology, and culture. In addition, the reader always tries to reconstruct meaning and make sense of the reading material in his own manner each time he reads a text. Moreover, the reading process entails different stages through which the reader is expected to perform certain activities starting from recognition to interpretation, until comprehension.

Only one respondent did not agree on either choices and preferred to say that reading is:

"[...] an interactive process based on the reader-text relationship, reader-author relationship, and reader-life relationship. It is a meaning making process related to linguistic, cognitive, and social factors. It cannot be passive or just active."

This perception sees reading from a different angle, an angle that tackles the various contributors to comprehension. This teacher has a modest experience in teaching Reading Techniques (two years), yet could see with fresh eyes and add another valuable concept to this item. According to her, the reader builds a kind of relationship with: (a) the text which enables him/her to be familiar with the topic, (b) the author to understand his style and ideas, (c) the reader's life, i.e., the reader tries to connect what is being read with his/her own experiences in the real life situations which in turn entails using real-life-related reading materials to put students in meaningful contexts. The aforementioned teacher refers also to reading as a meaning making process as described by Petrosky (1982). Grabe and Stoller (2001) also referred to it using the term 'gradual unfolding of meaning' which results in comprehension. Moreover, Silberstein (1994) described the reading process as an active participatory process related to problem solving with the reader being dynamic in his/her

contribution and Goodman (1976) in considering reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game focuses on the active cognitive processes of reading which are involved the (re)creation of meaning. More details can be found in chapters one and four of the present study.

Question 5: Do you use comprehension questions after reading every text?

a- very often

b- often

c- rarely

d- never

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	3	50
B	3	50
C	0	0
D	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.4. Frequency of Using Comprehension Questions

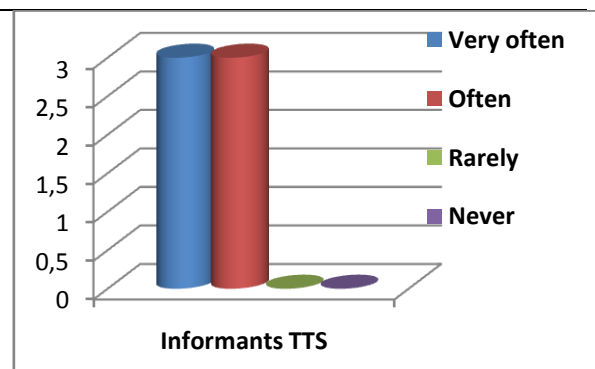


Figure 7.4. Frequency of Using Comprehension Questions

On the basis of exploring Reading Techniques teachers' emphasis on reading comprehension, they were asked to indicate the frequency of using comprehension questions after every reading in their classrooms and for the purpose of investigating whether they assess their students' comprehension and help them correct or clarify any possible points of misunderstanding.

All the respondents seem to use comprehension questions in their classes with equal choices between 'very often' and 'often' (results are displayed in table 7.4). This indicates that comprehension questions are indispensable for any reading activity in the classroom in order for the teacher to guarantee that his students get the message properly.

Comprehension questions can be used in classroom discussions either orally or in written forms requiring written responses. Actually there are various purposes for asking these questions not only checking the comprehension of the reading material. Ur (1999) suggests some reasons for teacher's questioning such as:

- Guiding the students thinking,
- finding out something from them (facts, ideas, opinions),
- checking their knowledge or skill,
- Encouraging active learning,
- Directing students' attention to the topic being learnt,
- Using the answers of stronger students as a source of information rather than the teacher's input,
- Engaging weaker students in the topic discussion,
- Encouraging students to express themselves and communicating to them the teacher's interest in their ideas.

Moreover, she set six criteria for effective questioning being: *clarity*; the question should be clear enough to enable the learners grasp its meaning and what kind of an answer is required, *learning value*; the question needs to stimulate thinking and to contribute to further learning of the material not a time-filling question, *interest*; it should be an interesting and challenging question to stimulate students' responses, *availability*; it should be at the level of all the students; not only the advanced learners can answer it, *extension*; it should open up the possibility of extended and varied answers, and finally, *teacher reaction*; the teacher should ensure for his/her learners that their answers are to be respected, not to be put down, however inappropriate.

Kuta (2008) goes further with comprehension questions and suggests engaging the students in making the comprehension questions as a means to increase comprehension. She calls the activity ‘Asking questions to find the main idea and details’. The main purpose of this activity is to have students read for a purpose; when they are to write comprehension questions, they have to focus on the important points to ask questions on, and then they will have to write answers to their questions in their own words and record details to support the ideas. By doing so, the students get to take ownership of their readings and read for deeper meaning extraction. She also presents another activity focusing on comprehension labeled ‘Reading critically for understanding’. The activity’s overall purpose is to give students repeated practice with deeper meaning comprehension skills. Ultimately, students will get to find main ideas, observe illustrations, connect information, ask questions and find answers, and then they record, discuss their findings, and learn from each other.

Question 6: What aspect do you emphasize most when presenting a model text?

a- meaning

b- structure

c- style

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	5	62.5
B	3	37.5
C	0	0
Total	8	100

Table 7.5. Most emphasized Aspect of Text Presentation

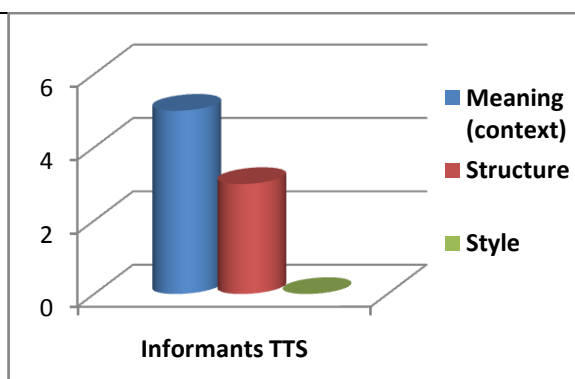


Figure 7.5. Most emphasized Aspect of Text Presentation

This question seeks to determine the teachers’ orientations concerning the aspect that is mostly emphasized when presenting a reading material.

As demonstrated in table and figure (7.5), the highest percentage is given to ‘meaning’ with more than 62% of the answers (05 teachers), then comes the structure of the text with more than 37% (03 teachers). It is worthwhile to mention that two respondents chose both meaning and structure as very important factors to emphasize when they present their model texts.

A model text is generally presented to give students new ideas and guide them to write in the shadow of the writers’ thoughts, style, or the text’s structure (example: agreeing/disagreeing with the writer’s point of view, writing in response to a romantic story, modeling an argumentative essay, and so on). The respondents from the TTS focus more on clarifying meaning and exploring the structure of the text to introduce students to different structures in order to make them write using similar structures. None of the respondents chose the style. This might be due to the belief that every student has a preferred style and can develop it on their own, or it might be that the writers’ styles are difficult to teach due to the abstract notion underlying them, besides the aspect of creativity in the writing styles; we cannot teach students to be creative, yet we can help them develop their imagination.

Question 7: New vocabulary teaching takes a substantial part in your lesson plan.

a- strongly agree

b- agree

c- disagree

d- strongly disagree

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	3	50
B	2	33.33
C	1	16.67
D	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.6. The Importance of New Vocabulary

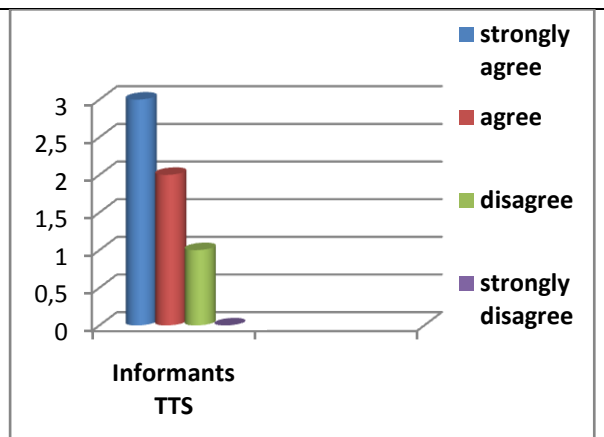


Figure 7.6. The Importance of New Vocabulary

What is expected from this question is to highlight the teachers' orientation towards teaching new vocabulary items while reading the materials.

Comprehensible vocabulary is a key factor of effective reading and comprehension to take place. Teachers should encourage their students to use strategies for understanding new words or expressions like inferring the meaning from the surrounding text, or ignoring them and trying to understand the rest of the text to get the general meaning, and if these strategies do not help, they can use the dictionary if time allows to. The students should not feel helpless in case of incomprehensible vocabulary items because this may stop them from trying to understand the whole text. Hence, the teacher's guidance is of vital importance.

Table (7.6) shows that 83.33% (05 teachers) confirm their agreement with the statement: "New vocabulary teaching takes a substantial part in your lesson plan"; half of the respondents (03 teachers) strongly agree while more than 33% (02 teachers) simply agree. Only one teacher representing 16.67% of the respondents did not agree which indicates that this teacher is not interested in clarifying new vocabulary items and leaves it to the students to understand and memorize them by themselves. This may be due to time constraints and the amount of information that needs to be presented in the lesson, or the teacher's belief that at

this stage of their learning process, students need to be autonomous and use their problem-solving strategies. The results, on the whole, exhibit the teachers' awareness of the importance of vocabulary in achieving comprehension using the students' reading strategies such as making intelligent guesses for word meanings, analyzing vocabulary in terms of prefixes, suffixes, roots, grammatical function, and so on.

By teaching vocabulary in a reading class, students are exposed to implicit training in an accidental fashion. Concordance of words in the context and teaching vocabulary in a contextualized, meaningful manner are two major current issues in the field. Actually, vocabulary teaching is underlined by a set of principles that can be summarized as follows:

- Allocating specific class time for vocabulary learning is very important.
- Vocabulary should be learnt in context whatever approach is used since retention is said to be higher wherein real-world situations.
- Bilingual dictionaries do not help long-term retention and use, thus they should be de-emphasized.
- Encouraging meaning inference strategies.
- Students' questions about unplanned vocabulary should not be neglected since some necessary vocabulary may appear in context. (Fulbright, 2011)

The vital role of vocabulary in language teaching and learning determines the necessity for effective ways of presenting the meaning of new items. Teachers can provide a concise definition of the new item, a detailed description with a possible illustration such as picturing the concept, acting, or using mimes, giving synonyms or antonyms, referring to the context or association ideas, and finally translating the word if it is too complex and the previous ways do not work.

In a study demonstrating how to teach vocabulary recognition strategies, Williams (1985) presented five important points in teaching these strategies. First of all, the strategies introduced in his paper are: inferring from context, identifying lexical familiarization, unchaining nominal compounds (words such as ‘garden fence’ which means a fence around the garden), searching for a synonym, and finally word analysis (trying to break down the unfamiliar word into digestible chunks to come to the word meaning by assembling the meanings of its component chunks). At the end of his paper, Williams, first, emphasized the importance of exercise types in reading comprehension and that they should come as close as possible to the cognitive reality. Second, he suggested the use of symbols representing the cognitive processes involved in vocabulary recognition strategies and marking up a text using those symbols. Third, he mentioned the importance of using texts or text fragments in teaching vocabulary since vocabulary is found in texts, its natural habitat, and vocabulary recognition strategies cannot be taught using vocabulary lists. Fourth, he claims that the quantity of reading is vital while class time is limited, so extensive reading should be actively encouraged. Finally, he encourages learners to acquire a set of strategies that can be applicable to all types of texts so that they can selectively employ them during the natural process of reading.

Question 8: What strategy do you opt for to present the reading text?

a- reading aloud

b- reading silently

c- both

The aim behind this question lies in the attempt to understand what strategy better suits the presentation of the reading materials according to the TTS teachers of Reading Techniques since the students differ in their orientations; some prefer reading silently and

others find it more helpful to read aloud. Thus, we wanted to see whether the teachers take this point into consideration in their classrooms.

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	1	16.66
B	1	16.66
C	4	66.67
Total	6	100

Table 7.7. Strategy of Presenting Reading Texts

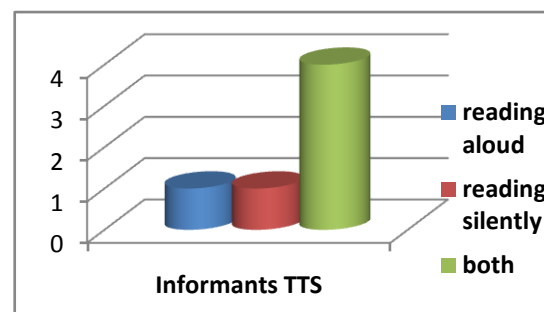


Figure 7.7. Strategy of Presenting Reading Texts

The above table and figure point out that more than 66% of the respondents (04 teachers) selected the third option while only one teacher opted for the first and another one for the second. These results can be attributed to the teachers' awareness of the importance of both strategies in promoting comprehension besides their understanding of students' different learning styles and strategies. As for the two teachers who chose either silent or outloud reading, they might have studied their students' preferences and classroom needs, and so decided on what is more adequate to the setting.

There are many benefits that students can get from sustained silent reading such as student autonomy, improved identification and interpretation skills, vocabulary gain (Krashen, 1993), as well as improved spelling and a sense of enjoyment toward reading (Krashen, 1982). Furthermore, timid students may feel more comfortable when reading silently and can cover their reading deficiencies or pronunciation errors.

On the other hand, Samaranayake (2015) questions the effectiveness of outloud reading for intermediate learners and claims its usefulness only with children and beginner readers. He founds his claims on some reasons:

1. Reading is an activity of the eye and the brain but reading aloud is more concerned with ear and the brain.
2. Most EFL/ESL students cannot read aloud effectively and this may provide a poor model for the other students in the class.
3. Reading aloud sometimes helps in pronunciation. But there are other ways of teaching good pronunciation which could be done when the class time is allocated for oral skills.
4. The reading speed of an effective reader is much faster than his/her speaking.
5. Reading aloud focuses the reader to move only in one direction, whereas in real reading, we often look back and forth while we read.
6. Vital skills of reading such as selecting and interpreting meaning are ignored in loud reading (Samaranayake, 2015: 5).

However, reading aloud in some activities which necessitate one or two students to read out their answers, for instance, should not be neglected and sometimes the nature of the activity requires the whole class reading out some sentences. Yet again, this does not mean that the old-fashioned method of students reading one after the other can be used again.

Question 9: Please, explain your choice.

Obviously, teachers who opted for one strategy or both of them have come to this decision with an awareness of the benefits they bring to their classrooms. This question seeks to determine their reasons behind following these strategies and their perceptions of their usefulness.

Teachers who opt for both strategies believe that they are of equal importance; in that silent reading promotes comprehension and outloud reading develops reading fluency. More precisely, they confirm that silent reading builds students' own understanding of a text, while outloud reading helps correct wrong pronunciations they may utter.

On the other hand, the one respondent who prefers to use reading aloud thinks that the time allocated for the reading and the number of students do not allow for both strategies. So, students are asked to read the text at home to construct meaning and when they come to class, they directly read it aloud. This is a quite interesting perspective; the teacher thinks of using the most of what time he has in teaching the techniques and strategies not only focusing on one or two strategies, thus assigning at home readings would help students read silently for deeper comprehension so as not to waste class time on both reading silently and aloud. This response does not neglect the usefulness of silent reading, yet it confirms it for promoting comprehension. The problem then with silent reading is that it consumes a valuable time that can be better used in other aspects of the lesson plan.

The other respondent who opts for reading silently justifies this choice with the idea that students at this level (second year) are trained to be independent, not guided, and modeling reading is best suited for lower levels of instruction. This teacher's view falls in with Samaranayake's (2015) evaluation of outloud reading for intermediate levels. In fact, leaving this strategy for this reason may sound logical. Originally, the students were accustomed to reading aloud in the middle and high school. Some of them even used to take it as a challenging task to show off and impress their teachers and classmates which in turn can move away the act of reading from its ultimate purpose; in that the students will only focus on the pronunciation and the sonorous voice. Hence, it would be only the eye and the ear that are engaged in reading and less cognitive processes would operate in brain.

Question 10: How often do you devote time to extended silent reading in every class session?

a- very often

b- often

c- rarely

d- never

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	0	0
B	4	66.67
C	2	33.33
D	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.8. Frequency of Using in Class Silent Reading

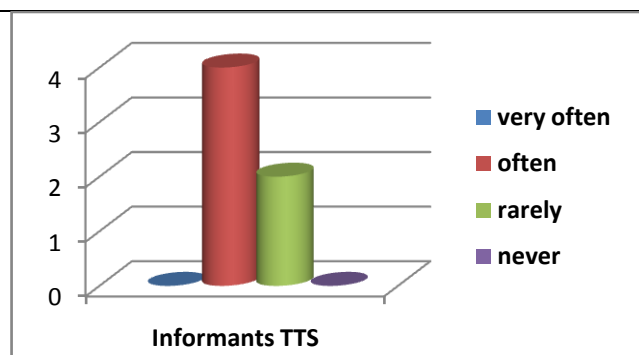


Figure 7.8. Frequency of Using in Class Silent Reading

This question is related to the previous one and intends to investigate whether the teachers allocate a specific amount of time for extended silent reading especially when the reading material is relatively difficult and necessitates deeper understanding.

Critical reading is often done silently especially in the classroom. The overall principle of silent critical reading is to give students repeated practice with deeper meaning comprehension skills in order to train them to use their comprehension strategies on their own to be able to comprehend other reading materials they may meet outside the classroom.

We notice that 66.67% of the respondents (04 teachers) revealed the frequent use of extended silent reading in their classrooms while 33.33% (02 teachers) of them reported that they rarely do that. None of the respondents confirms the two extremes ‘very often’ and ‘never’ which makes it inevitable that silent reading does have a relatively important place in the reading class.

Question 11: When selecting the reading material, do you take into account.....?

a- students' needs

b- students preferences

c- both

d- others

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	1	16.67
B	0	0
C	5	83.33
D	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.9. Criteria of Selecting the Reading Material

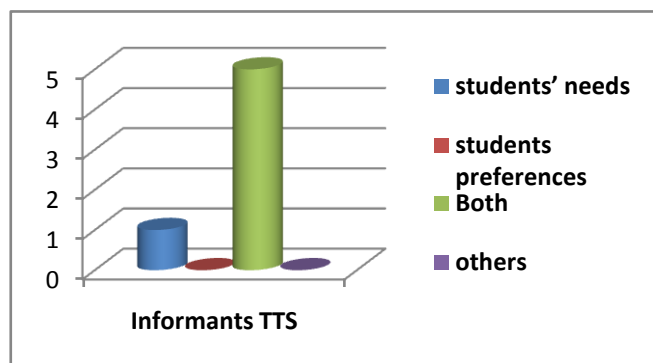


Figure 7.9. Criteria of Selecting the Reading Material

This question implies a matter of readiness of the teachers of Reading Techniques to take the students needs and preferences or others as criteria of selection of the reading materials to be used in the classroom. Naturally, every student has some orientations concerning the type of reading, the style, and even the topic. The teacher's role is to investigate his students' preferences and needs and try to accumulate them in a manner that promotes their motivation to read and at the same time accomplishes the lesson objectives. This is the first and foremost task for any teacher to conduct at the very beginning of the course and which is known as needs analysis and mostly done through questionnaires and interviews.

In his lesson plan, the teacher delineates a set of objectives which serve the ultimate aim of the course. These objectives are to be fulfilled using pre-defined materials, preferably authentic (like novels and journals) or semi-authentic (like text books designed for learning purposes) ones to approximate classroom readings to real life settings (the notion of authenticity will be dealt with thoroughly in question 16).

The results tabulated above report that quasi totality of the teachers (more than 83%= 5 out of 6 teachers) consider both students' needs and preferences while selecting the reading material. The remaining teacher opts for students' needs only and neglects their preferences. If we are to describe both categories of teachers, we can say that those who have selected the option 'both' are authoritarian in their teaching; in that they are proponents for the idea of tolerating students' rights by respecting their preferences and considering their duties simultaneously by committing them to tasks serving their needs. As far as the teacher who picked the first option 'students' needs', he can be referred to as an authoritative teacher because the most important aspect of the lesson plan in his point of view is to present the material that fulfills the lesson objectives. By doing so, this teacher neglects the causal chain between the lesson objectives and the course objectives; that is, when some objectives are attained and others are not, this will affect the chain and reduces the possibility of achieving the ultimate objective of the course. Moreover, when students are obliged to deal with topics of less interest to them, they may be discouraged to read and may even build a negative attitude towards reading itself. Notwithstanding the fact that students' reading should be purposeful and serving their needs, yet motivation also plays an important role in engaging students in the process of reading and facilitating comprehension. Hence, this aspect should not be neglected in the lesson plan.

Question 12: Do you believe at-home readings help students improve their reading skills?

a- Yes

b- No

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	6	100
B	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.10. The Importance of at-home Readings in Improving the Reading Skill

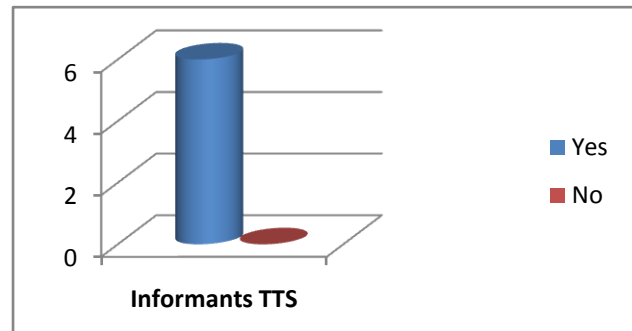


Figure 7.10. The Importance of at-home Readings in Improving the Reading Skill

It is clear that this question seeks to determine the Reading Techniques teachers' view point concerning the importance of at-home readings. Originally, when the learners are given enough time to read and reflect on their reading, they will achieve better comprehension. When reading at home, and ideally speaking, students would be put at ease and out of any stressful situation. This would be a beneficial point for them and for the teacher, in that they would find an adequate atmosphere to fulfill the task, unlike in the classroom where they may be affected by noise or any other feature of distraction, besides gaining valuable time in the classroom when all the students are having at least a general idea of the material.

When all the Reading Techniques teachers agree on the importance of reading at home, this leads us to think that it takes a substantial part in the assignment section of their lesson plans. The next question will confirm or refute this assumption.

Question 13: How often do you assign at-home readings?

a- very often

b- often

c- rarely

d- never

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	4	66.67
B	2	33.33
C	0	0
D	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.11. Frequency of Assigning at-home Readings

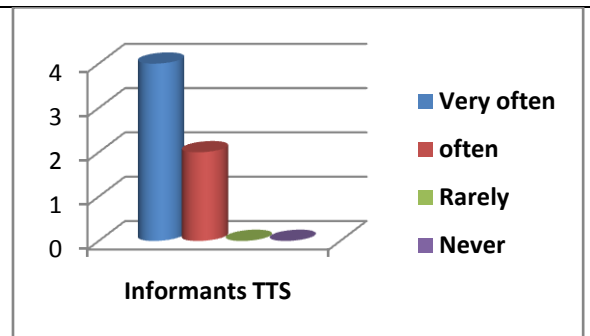


Figure 7.11. Frequency of Assigning at-home Readings

This question completes the previous one and aims at finding out whether those teachers who believe in the importance of at-home readings in promoting students' reading skills do assign extra reading materials outside the classroom.

All the teachers affirm that they do in fact assign extra reading to be done at home. A percentage of 66.67% of the informants (04 teachers) declared that they do it very often, while 33.33% (02 teachers) said that this type of homework is often assigned. These results confirm the findings and the assumption made in the previous question and reveal the teachers' awareness of the practicability of dividing reading assignments between homework and classroom tasks.

Question 14: Do you feel your students are motivated to read?

a- Yes

b- No

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	6	100
B	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.12. Informants' Perception of Students' Motivation to Read

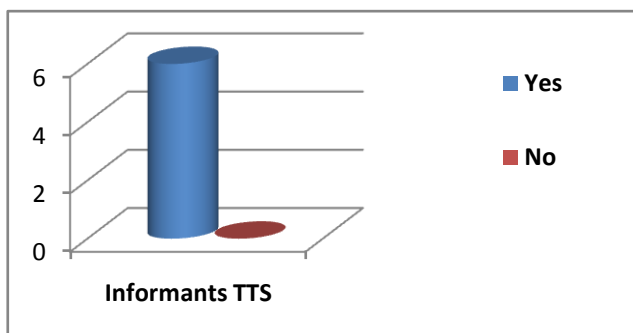


Figure 7.12. Informants' Perception of Students' Motivation to Read

For the purpose of identifying whether the TTS students are motivated to read, we asked their teachers what they think of this matter. Unexpectedly, all the respondents confirm their students' higher motivation to read. Accordingly, one can assume that in this institute, students take the reading class seriously and are aware of its importance. Similarly, teachers can be described as completely devoted to their profession since they could assert the existence of the motivational aspects in their classrooms. Moreover, being exposed to exciting reading classes regularly is a motivational aspect in itself; that is the students will be waiting eagerly for the reading session to discover the new material (in terms of topic, discussion, and interesting activities). This may lead us to think that the implementation of Reading Techniques in the curriculum of second year students promotes their motivation and engages them more in reading.

Question 15: If 'No', what do you use as incentives to make them read?

This question is related to the previous one and was meant to identify teachers' strategies to enhance their students' motivation to read. However, all the respondents to question 14 agreed that their students do not lack motivation; hence this question was not answered by any of them.

Question 16: How often do you use authentic texts in your classroom?

a- very often

b- often

c- rarely

d- never

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	5	83.33
B	1	16.67
C	0	0
D	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.13. Frequency of Using Authentic Texts

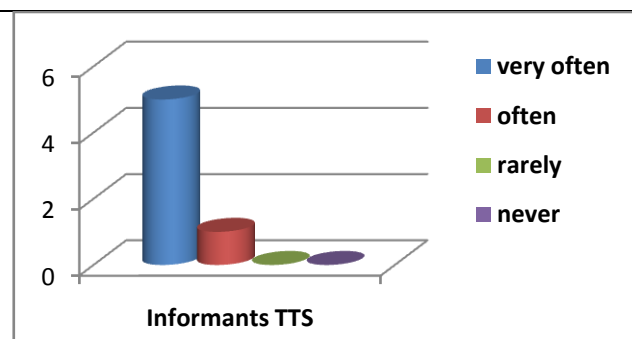


Figure 7.13. Frequency of Using Authentic Texts

Traditionally, it has been widely acknowledged that the language presented to learners needs to be simplified and at their level or a little beyond ($i+1$). Therefore, texts which were designed for learning purposes had to go through a refinement to adjust them to the learners' level as well as the course requirements. Some scholars voiced against this method and claimed that it was depriving students from being exposed to natural language produced in natural settings. For this reason, Reading Techniques teachers were asked to determine the frequency of using authentic materials in their classrooms.

The term 'authenticity' in itself is controversial. Researchers could not agree on one definition, some even went to set different levels of authenticity like authentic, semi-authentic, and non-authentic, while others were less tolerant and restricted the notion of authenticity to the language that is produced by and for native speakers of the target language and not made for pedagogical use (Miller, 2007). This point of view is strengthened by Berardo's (2006) claim which argues that authentic materials are produced to accomplish a

social purpose using real and natural language whereas non-authentic texts are artificial and unvaried in their language. She goes on to say that:

The artificial nature of the language and structures used, make them very unlike anything that the learner will encounter in the real world and very often they do not reflect how the language is really used. They are useful for teaching structures but are not very good for improving reading skills (for the simple fact that they read unnaturally). They can be useful for preparing the learner for the eventual reading of “real” texts (p. 62).

If we take this strict definition and perspective, then we are tempted to think that scope of reachable authentic materials apt for ESL learning settings is very narrow. On the contrary, we can find a wide range of authentic materials which lend themselves to this definition like newspapers, magazines, advertising leaflets, and literature in general. These materials are nowadays very available especially with the internet and its continuously updated information.

All the teachers revealed that they use authentic reading materials; quasi totality of them (five teachers out of six) said they use them very often, while one teacher picked the second option ‘often’. These results are not surprising since the teachers do not follow specified textbooks, they rather collaborate with each other and decide on the authentic material to analyze in their reading sessions. This is due to the fact that at this level the students, who are going to be future teachers of the language and almost the only source of the spoken target language in middle or high school, need to be well trained on the natural language in order for them to acquire the natural production of this language.

Question 17: How would you describe your students in reading?

a- avid readers

b- reluctant readers

c- indifferent

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	6	100
B	0	0
C	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.14. Description of Students as Readers

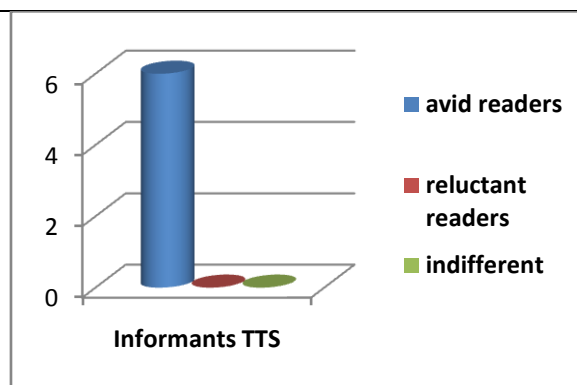


Figure 7.14. Description of Students as Readers

For the purpose of determining the teachers' perception of their students will to read, this item was put. Generally, we hear teachers complaining about their students' deficiencies and carelessness about different subject matters. This is absolutely not the case with Reading Techniques teachers of the TTS since all the informants agreed that their students are avid readers who like reading and are always motivated to read. These results are to be compared with those of the students to prove or disprove the teachers' perception.

Question 18: How would you estimate their level in reading?

- a- Excellent b- Good c- Average d- Weak e- Very weak

Options	Informants TTS	
	N	%
A	0	0
B	5	83.33
C	1	16.67
D	0	0
E	0	0
Total	6	100

Table 7.15. Informants' Perception of Students' Level in Reading

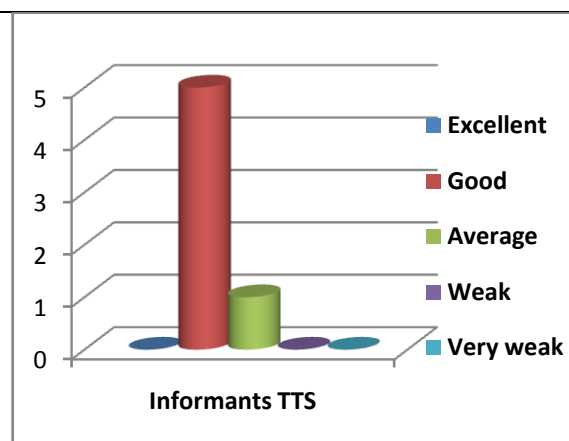


Figure 7.15. Informants' Perception of Students' Level in Reading

In this item, and following the previous one, we sought to know about the actual reading level of the students from the teachers' standpoints. This may substantiate to some extent the findings of the previous chapter. As was expected, the teachers indicated that the TTS students' level in reading is between good (83.33%) and average (16.67%). These results are due to the amount of reading they are exposed to in class and the assigned at-home readings. Besides, the Teachers Training School is a strict institution with an average of 23 students per class to help the teacher monitor the class and create a proper environment for learning, unlike in Brothers Mentouri University where the number of students may exceed 60 students per class which makes it impossible for the teacher to follow each and every student. Again, these results are to be compared to the students' responses in the students' questionnaire analysis.

Section Three: Writing (For Written Expression teachers at Mentouri University and the Teachers Training School)

Question 19: Do you think that the amount of time devoted for Written Expression is enough to develop your students' ability? a- Yes b- No

Options	Informants Univ 1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	2	16.67%	3	50%
B	10	83.33%	3	50%
Total	12	100%	6	100%

Table 7.16. Sufficiency of Time Advocated to Written Expression

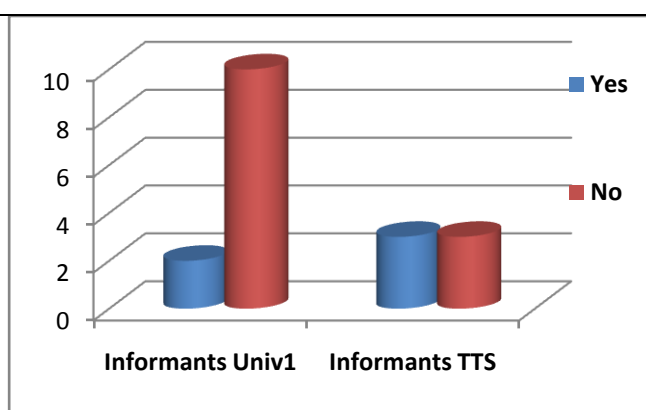


Figure 7.16. Sufficiency of Time Advocated to Written Expression

This question was designed to find out about the teachers' perception of the sufficiency of the time advocated to Written Expression each from their own position in their institutes and the results were intended to support a recommendation to extend the hours of teaching this module. It is worth mentioning here that when we delivered the questionnaire, the amount of time devoted to writing in the English department of Mentouri University was only 3 hours, i.e., two sessions per week, now it is raised to 4 hours and a half; three sessions per week.

The obtained responses reveal that most Mentouri university teachers (ten teachers out of twelve = 83.33%) are not satisfied with the 3 hours while two teachers expressed their satisfaction. Although claiming extra hours for such an exhausting subject may add more burdens on the teachers, they did not deny they were compulsory for the development of their students' writing abilities especially with the huge number of student per class with makes it impossible to follow each and every student.

On the other hand, TTS teachers gave equal chances for both options. Three teachers representing half of the total respondents report that the advocated time for writing is not sufficient, while the other half accept the allocated time. Looking at the class size, we can understand why these last teachers are satisfied with the schedule of Written Expression since small classes are easy to manage and the lesson objectives can be fulfilled in due time, unlike in large classes where unexpected events do occur and disturb the flow of the lesson. However, it may be also the teachers' unwillingness to add extra hours which means that they would be obliged to teach more than three days per week in case of teaching more than one group.

Question 20: What teaching approach do you go for?

a- product approach

b- process approach

d- both product and process

Options	Informants Univ 1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	0	0	0	0
B	0	0	3	50
C	12	100	3	50
Total	12	100	6	100

Group	Product approach	Process approach	Both
Informants Univ1	0	0	12
Informants TTS	0	3	3

The objective behind this question is to come to an understanding of whether all the teachers follow the same approach of teaching writing, or different teachers have different orientations. Actually, different methods of teaching may yield different results. Hence, we expect from the teachers who coordinate with each other to use the same method.

The product and process are the mostly used approaches among teachers of Written Expression. Some teachers believe that the end product of the student determines his capacity, while others emphasize every step of the writing process and prefer to accompany their students from the beginning of the writing activity until the final written product. Both approaches proved to be successful with some limiting conditions, like time constraints for the process approach and the teacher's absence during the act of writing for the product approach. The number of students also determines what approach to use. More details about both approaches and others are displayed in chapter three.

All the teachers of Written Expression from Brothers Mentouri University and 50% of the TTS teachers use both approaches, while the other half said that they follow the process approach. The results show that the orientation of Mentouri University teachers is the same and also reveal their awareness of the importance of both approaches, so they are being eclectic in managing the principles of both approaches, i.e., they follow the process of writing, guide their students and provide assistance whenever possible, and at the same time they do not neglect the importance of the end product which is to be graded in exams. Accordingly, when the students notice the teacher's interest in both the process and the product of writing, they will be more sensitive towards following the steps of good writing and bettering their final product. On the other hand, although the process approach is the most popular one nowadays, yet the teachers are bound with time constraints and classroom size which make it nearly impossible to follow this approach exclusively. Hence, the teachers resort to balancing between the process and product approaches to take the benefits of both of them.

As for the TTS teachers who chose the process approach, we cannot say that their choice is inadequate and that they neglected the importance of the final product. In contrast, these teachers are aware of the importance of following the act of writing right from the first stage 'brainstorming' to the final stage of 'editing' and engaging the students in different activities which encourage them to use the language regardless of the rules. Unlike the product approach which is teacher-centered and focuses on the quality of the product, the aim behind the process approach is to offer extensive writing practice for the students following the writing stages which serve to help the students produce well written pieces.

Question 21: Please explain the reasons behind your choice.

Both approaches are important and complementary; ‘a good successful product is related to a good planning’ as agreed by all the respondents of the English department at Mentouri University. That is to say, the quality of the product is determined by how well the act of writing was planned. Besides, in the second year, students are at their training stage, so they need to learn to generalize their ideas, plan, draft, and redraft to come to their final products so that teachers can recognize their students’ weaknesses and help them ameliorate their writing.

However, although they chose the third option (both approaches), two teachers said that they use the product approach more than the process approach due to time constraints and the overcrowded classes which make it difficult to follow each and every student’s writing process and final product. In addition, the process approach requires conditions that are not available in our classes.

On the other hand, Teachers’ Training School informants have another point of view concerning the process approach since three of them opt for it. They believe that the writing steps need to be emphasized so that students become aware of the importance of each step and its positive effects on the development of the writing skill. Likewise, the process approach engages students in the writing task so deep that their product would improve automatically. The other three teachers who opt for both approaches agree with Mentouri University teachers in the importance of both approaches together.

Question 22: Do you practice more ... tasks?

a- Controlled

b- free

c- both

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	9	75	3	50
B	1	8.33	2	33.33
C	2	16.67	1	16.67
Total	12	100	6	100

Table 7.18. Mostly Used Written Expression Tasks

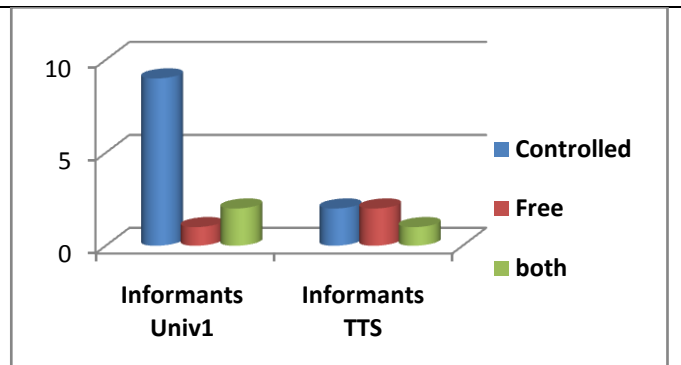


Figure 7.18. Mostly Used Written Expression Tasks

Asking this question to the teachers may provide an idea about the types of tasks that are generally used in the writing classrooms of both institutes.

Looking at table (7.18), one can notice that the majority of Mentouri University teachers (75%) use controlled more than free tasks, that is they prefer to assign pre-defined topics for writing rather than giving freedom of choice with more options to their students. While only 8.33% of the informants (one teacher) from the same department opt for free writing tasks more than guided ones, 16.67% (two teachers) indicated that they use both tasks with nearly the same degree. However, with the TTS teachers, responses differ somehow in the percentage. Half of the respondents said they use controlled tasks frequently, whereas 33.33% (two teachers) do use free tasks more, and the other remaining teacher is the only one who uses both tasks together.

Naturally, both tasks have their benefits and limitations as well. Teachers who opt for controlled tasks know that their students need to practice special types of writing and if they gave them the freedom to choose what to write about, most of them would write about their mothers and lovers. Nonetheless, by choosing to assign free writing more than guided writing, the teachers may have noticed their students' disappointment whenever the same topic of pollution and global warming is suggested. Whereas teachers who choose both tasks know

that giving too much freedom to the students in choosing the topic may result in shaping their writing in a narrow angle and neglecting other important topics. Hence, by balancing between controlled and free tasks, the students will have greater opportunity to meet their needs and preferences together. The same question was asked to the student and their results will be compared to their teachers' responses.

Question 23: Do your students follow all the stages when involved in the act of writing (pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing)?

a- Yes b- No

Options	Informants Univ 1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	2	16.67	5	83.33
B	10	83.33	1	16.67
Total	12	100	6	100

Table 7.19. Students' Tendency to Follow the Writing Stages

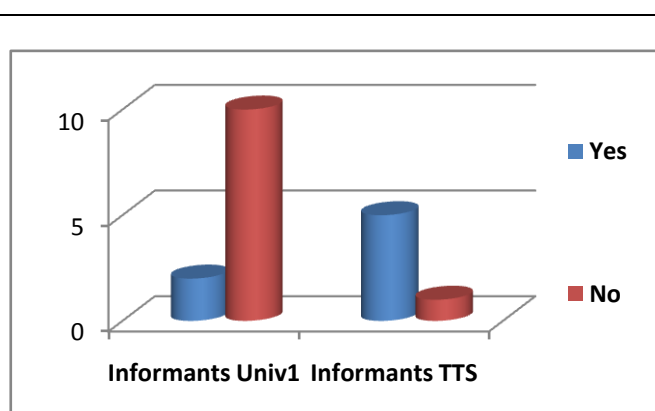


Figure 7.19. Students' Tendency to Follow the Writing Stages

This question is somehow related to question 20 in that it aims at determining whether the students do follow the stages of the writing process since the teachers who consider the process approach important also emphasize these stages as criteria for good writing.

Table (7.19) reports a total difference in the responses between the teachers of Mentouri University and the TTS. Quasi totality of Mentouri University informants (83.33%) confirm that their students do not follow all the stages, whereas the same percentage of the TTS informants approved their students' obedience to the different steps of writing. 16.67% of Mentouri University informants believe their students do follow the stages, while the same

proportion from the TTS informants disproved it. These results are quite surprising since in question 20; all Mentouri University teachers indicated that they follow the process approach along with the product approach, which means that they teach the stages of the writing process. Hence, the question which poses itself here is why do the students of Mentouri University neglect these stages while the TTS students do follow them? Attempting to answer this question, we should go back the same deficiency that we recorded in Mentouri University which is related to the classroom size. Although the teachers do their best in teaching the stages and following their students' writing process, but a class with 60 students makes it unattainable to manage the whole class and follow all the students.

Question 24: If 'No', what is/are the mostly followed stage(s)?

By asking this question, we aim at deducing from the teachers' standpoint the stages that students follow while writing. Some students may find it quite exhausting to plan, draft, revise, and edit in a restricted amount of time, especially in exams which are their ultimate concern, and thus they neglect some stages of the writing process.

Drafting and editing are the mostly followed stages by Mentouri University students while pre-writing is almost neglected as declared by the ten respondents who answered 'No' in the previous question. One of the teachers attributes this to the fact that students are unaware of the importance of these stages in shaping their final products. This is completely true because most of the students, although taught using a process-product approach, still do not focus on the process and think only of finishing the task with the most of what language luggage they have. Moreover, they may think that following all the stages is a sophisticated act that is designated merely for beginners and their ego holds them back from lowering their level to this stage. As for the only teacher from the TTS who responded negatively to the

previous question, he agreed with Mentouri University teachers on drafting and editing to be the most popular stages for students tend to start writing directly without brainstorming or jotting down the fresh ideas that come to their minds, so their first draft is considered both as a pre-writing and drafting stage while revising is almost absent as the students are tempted to hand out their writings once the editing is accomplished.

Question 25: Do you provide assistance to your students in any classroom writing task?

a- very often

b- often

c- rarely

d- never

Options	Informants Univ 1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	7	58.33	3	50
B	5	41.67	3	50
C	0	0	0	0
D	0	0	0	0
Total	12	100	6	100

Table 7.20. Frequency of Teacher Assistance in the classroom

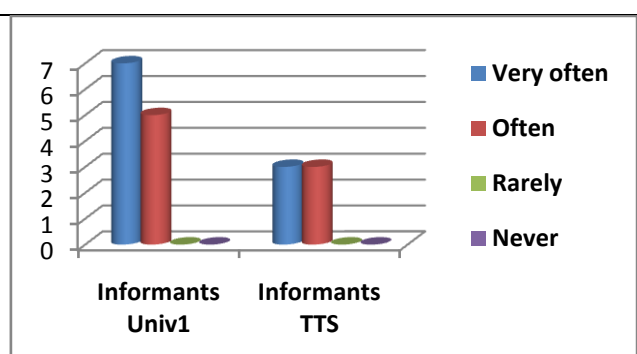


Figure 7.20. Frequency of Teacher Assistance in the classroom

The traditional methods of teaching foreign languages differed in their perceptions of who is the center of the teaching act; some were teacher-centered and others student-centered. As the names indicate, the teacher-centered methods perceive the student as a mere recipient of the input while the whole burden of teaching is put on the teacher. The student-centered methods emphasize the importance of engaging the student in the teaching-learning process by providing guidance and assistance whenever possible. Teaching writing using the process-product approach makes the student in the center with the teacher being active also by following the writing stages and guiding the process until the final product is ready to be corrected or evaluated either by the teacher or the students' themselves (peer and self-

evaluation). Hence, this question was meant to check whether the teachers of writing in both institutes do provide assistance to their students as implies the principles of the method of teaching they are using.

It is evident from table and figure (7.20) that all the teachers from both institutes confirm their participation in the writing process as assistants. The responses of Mentouri University teachers were divided between the two options 'very often' and 'often' with a percentage of 58.33% (07 teachers) for the former, and 41.67% (05 teachers) for the latter. The TTS informants' responses did not differ much in the rate; they were of equal chances for both options. Therefore, the obtained results indicate that the teacher is always there when the students are given writing tasks in the classroom.

This issue of students not following the writing process stages has been dealt with by Pea and Kurland in their 1987's paper entitled "Cognitive Technologies for Writing". They asserted that most novice writers' difficulties reside in the cognitive process model which they outline in four major points being: planning (generating ideas, organizing, goal setting), translating, reviewing (evaluating and revising), and monitoring. As for the first point, they declared that generating ideas from the long-term memory is often a hard task for the learner, and even after coming up with some interesting ideas, they may fall in the problem of organization, i.e., how to assemble related ideas so that they serve the unity and coherence of the text as a whole. Moreover, looking at the novice writers' production, it is often clear that explicit writing goals are seldom set. As far as translating is concerned, they affirm that students often do not care about whether the information is new to the reader and do not tend to clarify their ideas; they rather overstress correcting their errors during the text generation process. In addition, the reviewing stage is often neglected, and if it is done, they find difficulties arranging the ideas and sentences in terms of their imagined effect on the reader;

they rather leave them in their first order of recall. Most of all, monitoring the writing processes creates a major problem in that students find it difficult to manage the deployment of the different mental processes involved in writing in relation to the previously mentioned stages of writing. This is due to the students being unaware of the fact that writing is a multistage process that can be done in parts (stages) rather than in parallel.

Question 26: Where do you see your students' severe problems in writing?

a- vocabulary b- grammar c- spelling d- writing techniques e- others

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	9	21.95	4	22.22
B	10	24.39	3	16.67
C	9	21.95	4	22.22
D	9	21.95	5	27.87
E	4	9.76	2	11.11
Total	41	100	18	100

Table 7.21. Informants' Perception of Students' Problems in Writing

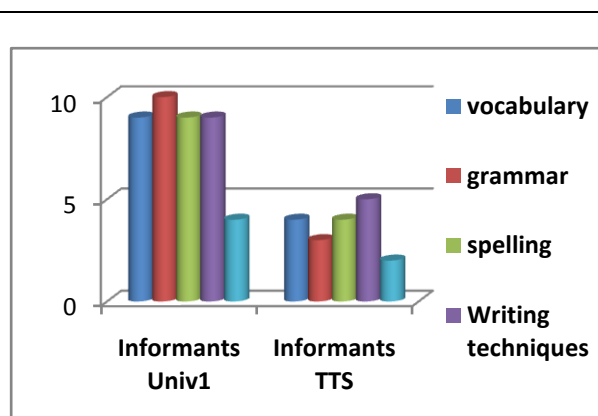


Figure 7.21. Informants' Perception of Students' Problems in Writing

By this question, we seek to determine the most obscure aspects of writing that teachers feel their students are weaker in so that we can come up with some useful recommendations.

According to Mentouri university twelve informants, and as displayed in table (7.21), all the first four problems have nearly similar chances of occurrence; vocabulary, spelling, and writing techniques were mentioned nine times, whereas grammar was mentioned ten times. On the other hand, the six TTS teachers of writing put much emphasis on the writing

techniques which was mentioned five times, vocabulary and spelling four times for each, and grammar was cited thrice.

If we question why is vocabulary problematic in both institutes? The most obvious answer is that vocabulary cannot be taught like grammar rules or writing techniques, yet it is acquired gradually within the process of learning. Hence, the teacher is not supposed to pour lexis in the students' brains; they rather should work on it by themselves with some help from the teacher's part whose role is to select appropriate activities for vocabulary teaching as a part of the lesson objectives, especially that the TTS Reading Techniques teachers said that vocabulary takes a substantial part in their lesson plan.

Grammar was not very emphasized by the TTS teachers unlike with Mentouri University teachers, this needs some deep reflection. Initially, grammar is taught since the very first year in the middle school and is given much interest in the university level, specially the first and second year, in that it is, as a subject, included in the fundamental unit of learning with a high coefficient and has an allocated time of three hours per week. These criteria are defined according to the importance of grammar in learning any language, thus if all this emphasis is put on teaching this subject, why do we still clam our students' pitfalls in grammar rules? This question cannot be left unanswered. Actually, students do often complain about the difficulty of grammar rules to retain particularly when they are similar or having many irregular forms. This issue can be related to the method of teaching grammar, though not investigated in this study, but what makes Grammar a boring, mathematic-like subject is the way of presenting the rule on the board and expecting the students to learn it by heart and practise it in the immediate exercises provided. Actually, grammar has to be taught in a more enthusiastic and animated manner to motivate the learners and help them acquire the rule without forcing them to consciously learn it (the idea of acquisition versus learning).

In relation to the problem of spelling, one can say that students' inattention or rush to finish the writing task may make them fall in the trap of spelling errors which in fact they can correct if they seriously revise their written productions, unless they are spelling mistakes and the students are not aware of the correct form of the word. Here comes the teacher's role to clarify the errors and mistakes and draw the students' attention to these pitfalls which may affect the meaning that the students want to convey like in car and care, found (the verb) and found (the past participle of to find).

As for the writing techniques such as topic sentences, paragraph organization, punctuation, coherence, cohesion, unity, etc, they are considered as crucial features of a well written piece of writing and are taught in the first year as essentials of writing, besides in the second year they are more practised in paragraph and essay writing. However, they remain problematic as denoted by the teachers of writing. In fact, our teachers used to instruct us to think in English and write in English letting go of our Arabic reflections and generation of ideas. This valuable instruction is very wide in its purposes. When thinking in the mother tongue, students are likely to bring the same language structures (like the sentence order in grammar which differs from one language to another; in English it is SVO while in Arabic it is VSO) and writing forms of their L1 (such as the form of the Arabic introduction which tends to be long and spiral in its development). In addition, punctuation markers differ in their use between Arabic and English which make the learners fall in long and vague sentences.

As far as the last option is concerned, we wanted to give teachers more freedom to add any other problems they notice in their students' writing. For Mentouri University respondents, they stated organizing ideas, style, conventions of the English writing system, and sentence structure. The latter is very critical in that most of the time the teacher finds himself in front of scrambled sentences where he has to guess the meaning. One teacher from

the TTS added content (topic analysis) and style as severe problems faced by the TTS students in writing.

The problems stated above and others not mentioned here, necessitate deeper analysis and constant instructional support from the teacher's part. One promising way to help raise the students' awareness of their pitfalls is to let them speak up and express their points of weakness mainly through anonymous self-evaluation letters which help both the teachers and the students spot the deficiencies and work on them.

Question 27: How would you estimate your students' level in writing?

a- Excellent b- Good c- Average d- Weak e- Very weak

Option	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	0	0	0	0
B	0	0	0	0
C	7	58.33	6	100
D	4	33.33	0	0
E	1	8.33	0	0
Total	12	100	6	100

Table 7.22. Informants' Perception of Students' Level in Writing

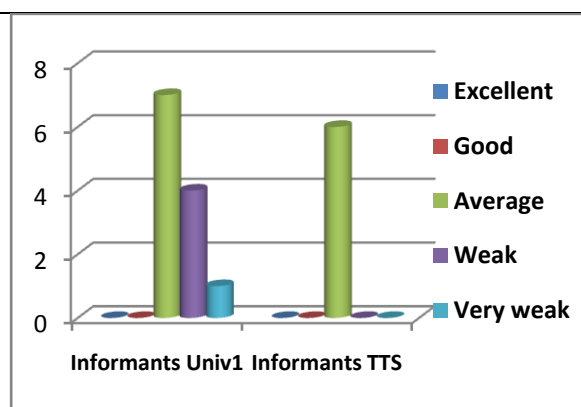


Figure 7.22. Informants' Perception of Students' Level in Writing

For the purpose of checking teachers' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their students' level in writing, we asked them to evaluate them on scale from excellent to very weak.

While all the TTS teachers affirmed their students' level in writing was average, only 58.33% (07 teachers) from the other institute agreed with them; 33.33% (04 teachers) claimed

their students were weak and another teacher (representing 8.33% of the total respondents) went further to say it was very weak.

From these opinions, we notice a disparity in the level of Mentouri University and TTS students in Written Expression. When asked personally in the piloting stage of this research, all the teachers from Mentouri University agreed that the level of TTS students is higher than their students' (it is worth noting here that some of these teachers were previously teachers in the TTS). They attributed this to the strict instructions and the adequate environment including the small groups in the TTS. Moreover, the results obtained from the statistical procedures detailed in the previous chapter confirm that since the mean of TTS students' scores was 11.01 and that of Mentouri University students was 10. Therefore, as far as our research aims and questions are concerned, we can pace the events and put a possible conclusion that by being exposed to reading frequently in the Reading Techniques class, TTS students could develop their writing skills.

Question 28: Some teachers complain about poor writings in style and techniques. In your opinion, what is this poorness due to?

Owing to the wide range of possible causes of poorness in students' writings in terms of style and techniques, we decided to give more space to the teachers to cite the main causes they believe are affecting students' acquisition of good style and appropriate use of writing techniques. The answers of both institutes' informants were grouped under nine important factors stated below:

1. Mother language interference; as explained earlier in question 26.
2. Lack of reading; which deprives students from meeting new styles of writing and being acquainted to sophisticated writing.

3. No desire to write; lack of interest and motivation which makes the act of writing more like jotting down scrambled sentences just to finish the task.
4. Teachers' over attention to grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics on the cost of style and writing conventions; again when we go back to question 06, we notice that no Reading Techniques teacher admitted their concern in style when presenting reading materials.
5. Lack of writing practice; students generally do not practise writing unless assigned by their teachers.
6. Lack of grammar knowledge; see question 26 and the analysis that follows.
7. Students' irresponsibility; they do not care about how good and stylish their writing is, their ultimate objective is to finish the task and hand out the paper.
8. Students are not patient while writing; they do not revise and give more time to read their pieces, so their first draft is most of the time the last one.
9. Lack of teachers' effective feedback; teachers often use their red pen to spot some mistakes generally related to grammar and sentence structure, they rarely comment on their students' poor style.

Question 29: In your opinion, how can we improve students' writing skills?

a- through practice

b- through reading

c- both

d- others (specify)

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	3	20	0	0
B	1	6.67	0	0
C	8	53.33	6	85.71
D	3	20	1	14.29
Total	15	100	7	100

Table 7.23. Informants' Perception of How to Improve Writing Skills

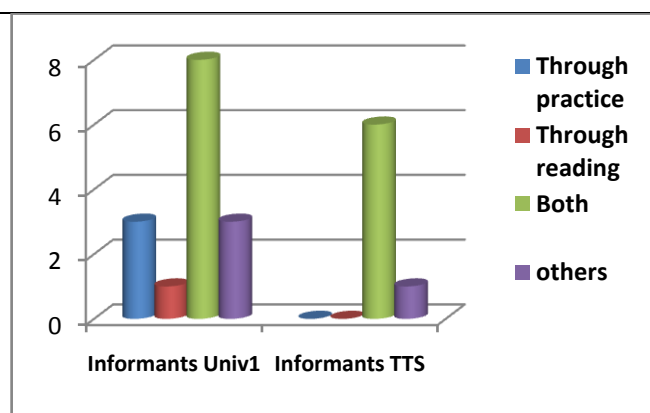


Figure 7.23. Informants' Perception of How to Improve Writing Skills

In an attempt to generate teachers' ideas about the solutions to help students' overcome their writing problems and improve their writing skills, this question was dictated.

The majority of the teachers from both institutes (eight out of fifteen responses from the part of Mentouri University teachers and six out of seven from the TTS teachers) opt for the third option stressing that through reading and practicing writing students will be able to develop their writing abilities. While no respondent from the TTS selected the first and second options alone, 20% of Mentouri University informants (three teachers) claimed the first one and only 6.67% (one teacher) crossed the second. These results reveal the teachers' tendency to emphasize both reading and writing practice, however, quite frequently, we hear students complaining that they read a lot, write frequently, yet their writing is still poor. One possible answer we can offer here is that acquiring good writing is not a matter to be achieved over night; it is a gradual process just like the process of learning a foreign language. Of course we are not simple-minded to believe some booklets' titles and headings propagate for learning English in two weeks. Likewise, good writing needs patience and strong will to achieve the best level. On the other hand, students may be exhausting themselves in reading trying to memorize everything they read in terms of vocabulary, sentence structures, author's organization of ideas, and so on. This is going to be like conscious learning which is most of the time to be stored in short-term memory unless practised immediately and constantly. Whereas, if they leave it for chance, learning new writing items from reading will be more natural and likely to be stored in the long-term memory with regular reading practice.

As far as the last option is concerned, it opens the door for other solutions to be suggested. Table (7.23) reports that three teachers from the English department of Mentouri University added other aspects for improving students' writing; teacher's instruction was mentioned twice with an emphasis on integrating effective writing tasks to motivate students

to write more and thus promote their writing skills. One teacher from the TTS mentioned effective feedback as a tool to improve students' writing skills besides to ticking the option 'Both'. When the students receive effective feedback from their teachers, they will be trained to recognize their mistakes and try to work on improving their deficiencies.

Question 30: In the second year Written Expression classes, do you devote a part of your session to reading?

a- Yes

b- No

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	9	75	5	83.33
B	3	25	1	16.67
Total	12	100	6	100

Table 7.24. The Place of Reading in the Writing Class

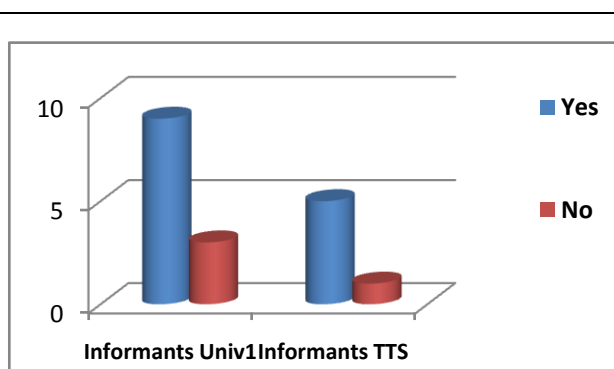


Figure 7.24. The Place of Reading in the Writing Class

This question aims at investigating whether writing teachers do integrate reading in their classes.

Looking at the table above, we can deduce that most teachers confirm the presence of reading in their writing classes; 75% of Mentouri University informants and 83.33% of the TTS informants are advocates of the idea of incorporating reading in teaching writing. However, 25% of Mentouri University and 16.67% of the TTS teachers denied this. Actually, there exists a growing consensus among language teachers that reading informs writing and the teachers who were subjects of the present study confirmed this in their previous responses. Hence, why do not we find all the teachers integrating reading in their writing classes? One

possible answer to this question is that teachers are restricted by time and the class size as detailed earlier in previous questions' analyses. This makes them focus on the aspects of writing in the process of writing itself because reading consumes much time which leads some teachers to give reading materials to be read at home and analyzed in class as the least help they can offer. Another probable reason may be that writing teachers do not feel the responsibility to teach reading since the students do have a separate subject dealing with the matter (Literature and Reading Techniques). However, this should not be the case since the importance of reading in the learning of a foreign language entails its continuous presence in all the stages of the learning process. All the teachers should encourage reading, just like other teachers of Literature, Psychology, Civilization, and so on, do emphasize on writing and give it a separate grade when evaluating their students' performance in the exams.

Question 31: If 'Yes', is it designed in the syllabus for ?

a- One semester

b- Both semesters

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	3	33.33	0	0
B	6	66.67	5	100
Total	9	100	5	100

Table 7.25. Writing Timing in the Syllabus

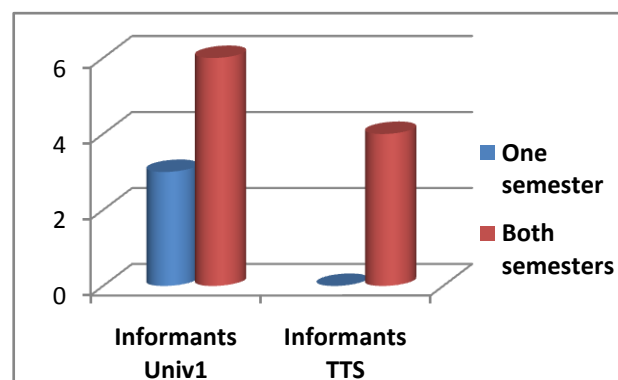


Figure 7.25. Writing Timing in the Syllabus

The purpose of this question is to investigate whether the teachers of Written Expression use reading materials in their classes in only one semester or both semesters of the

academic year. This question was not put randomly, as we have mentioned before that in the second year, the first semester is devoted for paragraph writing while the second one in for introducing the requirements of essay writing with the different types of composition. Hence, we seek to explore the teachers' orientations towards using reading to reinforce either steps or only one which is, undoubtedly, essay writing.

The results obtained from table (7.25) denote that more than 66% of Mentouri University informants, who answered positively in the previous question, opt for using reading materials in both semester, i.e., both when teaching paragraph patterns and essay writing requirements. 33% of the same group of informants declared using reading in only one semester. The third column of the same table reveals that all the TTS informants who ticked an option in this question proclaim the use of reading in both semesters. It is worth noting here that one teacher from the TTS did not choose any option and said that integrating reading is a personal designation and it is to the teacher of writing to decide when and where to use it.

Section Four: The Reading- Writing Connection

Question 32: While writing, students are inspired by what they read. Do you agree?

a- strongly agree

b- agree

c- disagree

d- strongly disagree

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	6	50	6	50
B	5	41.67	6	50
C	1	8.33	0	0
D	0	0	0	0
Total	12	100	12	100

Table 7.26. Students are Inspired by what they Read

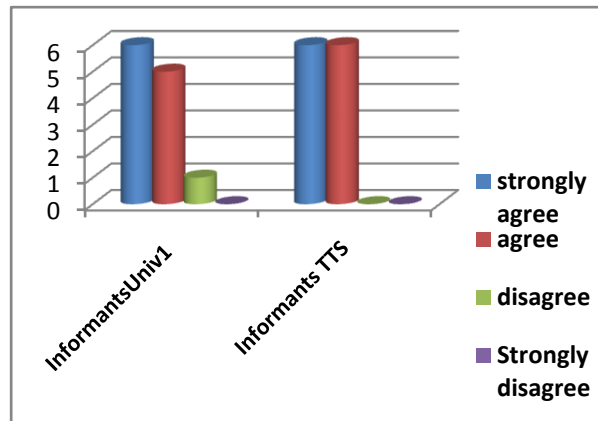


Figure 7.26. Students are Inspired by what they Read

In this question, the informants are invited to show their agreement or disagreement on the idea that students' readings inform their writings in terms of inspiration.

It is common sense now that reading feeds the soul by introducing the reader to new cultures, ideas, and for some people, reading becomes a way of life and refers to a daily activity without which they cannot take a rest at night. As the above table makes it clear, all the teachers from both institutes, except one from Mentouri University, agree with the statement with little difference in voices given to both options; 'strongly agree' got half the portion of responses in both institutes while more than 41% of Mentouri University teachers and 50% of the TTS informants ticked 'agree'. The results demonstrate that the teachers or Written Expression and Reading Techniques do believe that students get inspired by the new ideas, writers' styles, expressions, and motivation to write as well, that is why good readers are said to be good writers.

Question 33: Would you draw a clear-cut boundary between reading and writing?

a- Yes

b- No

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTs	
	N	%	N	%
A	1	8.33	0	0
B	11	91.67	12	100
Total	12	100	12	100

Table 7.27. Reading and Writing are not Related

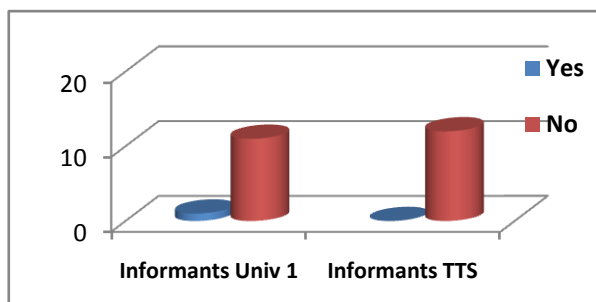


Figure 7.27. Reading and Writing are not Related

By dictating this question, we seek to find out whether the teachers' of writing and reading consider these two skills as independent; every skill can be developed on its own, or interdependent; in that they overlap and one serves the other. Tierney and Leys (1986) addressed this issue and argued that these processes cannot be addressed discretely because they are confounded.

All the teachers from both institutes (except one from Mentouri University) agree that reading and writing cannot be apart one from the other; they should rather be interconnected in instruction in order to get the most benefits from both skills when taught simultaneously. They see that both skills are related and one informs the other. As for the one and only teacher from Mentouri University who responded positively claiming the existence of some boundary between reading and writing, she may be taking this from the old perspective that reading is a receptive skill while writing is a productive one. In fact, they are interconnected process since reading is nowadays thought of much more as an active participatory process that is related to the notion of problem solving and the involvement of the reader's dynamic contribution as Silberstein (1994) puts is.

Question 34: If 'No', to what extent do you think reading and writing overlap?

a- a lot

b- average

c- a little

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	9	81.82	12	100
B	2	18.18	0	0
C	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	12	100

Table 7.28. Reading-Writing Degree of Overlapping

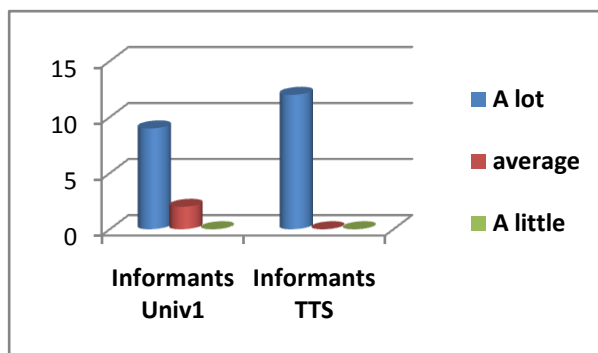


Figure 7.28. Reading-Writing Degree of Overlapping

This question is meant to confirm the results obtained from the previous one and see whether the teachers think that reading and writing are very connected or has a different degree of correlation. While all the TTS teachers revealed a total harmony in their responses, 81.82% (nine out of eleven) of Mentouri University informants opted for the first option and stated that both reading and writing overlap a lot. However, we notice that the remaining two teachers picked the second option ‘average’, yet again this is not going to affect their previous answer since they still mean that there exists a kind of relation between both skills. In this vein, Tierney and Leys (1986) declare that:

[...] we might conclude that reading and writing appear to be either strongly or weakly related for some individuals, depending upon the measures which are employed to assess reading and writing performance. Changes in the strength of this relationship by individuals suggest that other factors may intrude -such as a reader or writer's instructional history, the extent to which students have opportunities to read and write, or the extent to which reading and writing opportunities are coordinated (p. 17).

Parodi (2007), on the same line, asserts that researches on the relation between Reading and writing have not been subject to a consensual framework or unified theory of language processing, which makes the standards used to correlate them not

necessarily comparable and sharing common ground of similarity. Researchers are now more concerned with the mental processes involved in the written discourse and the role of reader's/writer's background knowledge. Hence, what causes some dilemma in deciding on the degree and nature of relationship between both skills can be traced to a kind of disagreement about the theoretical definitions or theories underlying reading and writing, in addition to issues with the compared measures when focusing on diverse linguistic construct.

Question 35: Do you collaborate with teachers of Reading Techniques or Literature in order to unveil and treat students' weaknesses in writing?

a- Yes

b- No

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	1	8.33	6	50
B	11	91.67	6	50
Total	12	100	12	100

Table 7.29. Collaboration with Teachers of Reading Techniques or Literature

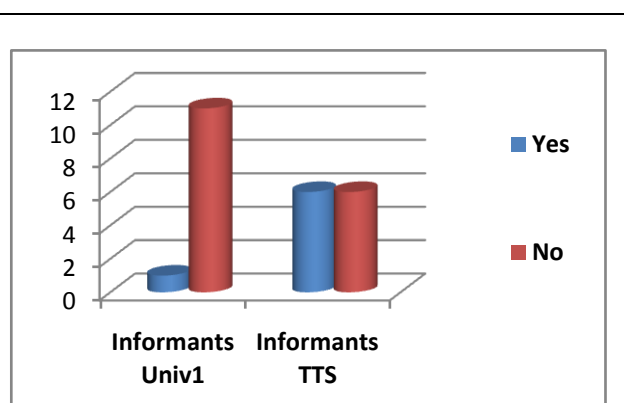


Figure 7.29. Collaboration with Teachers of Reading Techniques or Literature

This question aims at investigating whether the teachers of Writing, with their recorded awareness about the usefulness of reading in promoting writing skills, do collaborate and discuss their students' problems in writing with other teachers whose subject matters entail reading.

Quasi totality of Mentouri University informants (91.67%) said that they do not meet either teachers and they do not tend to collaborate with them. The informants of the TTS,

however, did not settle on a unified answer; their responses were equally divided between both options. Hence, we can say that the teachers of written Expression in the TTS and Mentouri University with some of Reading Techniques teachers are not predisposed for coordinating with other teachers to try to come up with solutions for their students' pitfalls. Actually, in every department there is a responsible for each module who organizes the staff meetings in order to discuss current issues and present the material to be taught. Therefore, teachers of the same subject do collaborate with each others. These meetings may be held once a month or more depending on the teaching circumstances, this may be one reason why the informant teachers do not collaborate with other teachers of Literature and Reading Techniques since they may not have enough time to do so, besides workloads. Another reason for the eleven teachers of Mentouri University to deny collaboration is that the teachers of Reading Techniques are actually teaching in a separate institute far from their central university, while the teachers of Literature who are teaching with them in the same department may not be aware of the students' problems in writing since they only see their productions when answering exam questions in short sentences.

Question 36: If 'Yes', how often?

a- very often

b- often

c- rarely

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	0	0	2	33.33
B	1	100	4	66.67
C	0	0	0	0
Total	1	100	6	100

Table 7.30. Frequency of Collaboration with Reading Techniques or Literature Teachers

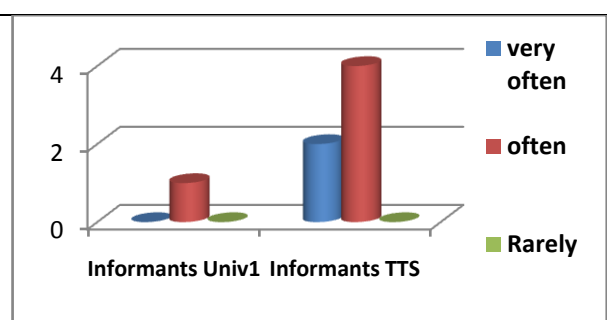


Figure 7.30. Frequency of Collaboration with Reading Techniques or Literature Teachers

This question is related to the previous one and seeks to determine the frequency of collaboration, if it exists, between the informants and other teachers who teach reading. The only teacher from Mentouri University who responded positively to the preceding question confirms his/her collaboration and says that it is done often. The other respondents from the TTS also do confirm their previous answers with 66.67% of the responses to the option ‘often’ and 33.33% for ‘very often’.

Question 37: Do you refer to some writing techniques during the activity of reading?

- a- Yes
- b- No

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	9	75	10	83.33
B	3	25	2	16.67
Total	12	100	12	100

Table 7.31. Informants' Reference to Writing Techniques

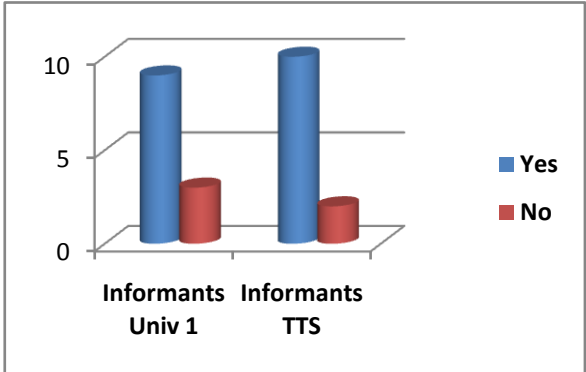


Figure 7.31. Informants' Reference to Writing Techniques

Aiming at unveiling the teachers’ readiness to teach writing techniques while in reading (either for writing teachers who use reading materials in their classes, or for reading teachers whose subject obviously entails reading). If we relate this question to question 30 which revealed that 75% of writing teachers from Mentouri University and 83% from the TTS do use reading materials in their classes, we notice a clear consistency with the results displayed in table (7.32). The majority of the informants do refer to writing techniques during a task of reading, only three teachers (25%) from Mentouri University and two (16.67%) from the TTS replied negatively to this question.

Reminding students of previous information when occurring again in another task, often helps them recall and connect the tasks. For instance, when dealing with a comparison-contrast essay, we draw our students' attention to the expressions that indicate comparison and those indicating contrast. Moreover, the writer's technique in comparing point by point, then contrasting point by point as well can serve as a practice for this type of essays.

Many studies have investigated the importance of providing reading materials to promote writing abilities (Berardo, 2006; Parodi, 2007; Samaranayake, 2015). They have emphasized the role of extensive reading in raising students' awareness of how English is used in written discourse, in addition to providing constant exposure to the language structures and features of good writing. Therefore, teachers of writing or reading should not feel irresponsible for refereeing to the good writing requirements wherein reading because this may be a more natural way to teach them rather than only dictating the rules.

Question 38: Do your students transfer what they learn about reading techniques in their writings? a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	1	8.33	1	8.33
B	4	33.33	6	50
C	5	41.67	5	41.67
D	2	16.67	0	0
Total	12	100	12	100

Table 7.32. Students' Frequency of Applying Reading Techniques in Writing

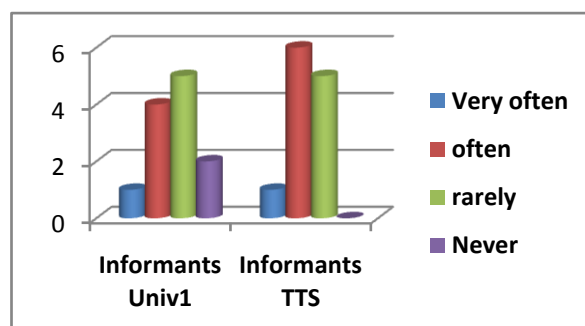


Figure 7.32. Students' Frequency of Applying Reading Techniques in Writing

After questioning the teachers about their tendency to refer to writing techniques in reading tasks, we decided to ask them about their students' readiness to use some reading

techniques like skimming and critical reading in their writings; that is to seek whether reading informs writing in terms of reading techniques not only vocabulary, ideas, and so on. One possible situation of applying reading techniques to writing is when students review their productions; they skim to check that all the ideas were presented properly, and they scan or read critically for correcting different types of errors. Actually, by teaching reading and writing in tandem, students get more opportunities to train their integrating skills.

The results tabulated above do not indicate any harmony in the answers of Mentouri University informants, in that only 8.33% of them reported that their students used reading techniques very often in their writings, 33.33% said they did it often, 41.67% mentioned rarely, while 16.67% denied their students' use of reading techniques in writing. The TTS informants on the other hand showed a little more harmony in their responses since 58.33% (8.33% opted for the first option and 50% for the second) confirmed the students' constant use of reading techniques in writing while 41.67% gave it a less degree and said that they rarely do.

Question 39: "Good readers are good writers".

a- strongly agree

b- agree

c- disagree

d- strongly disagree

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	7	58.33	9	75
B	3	25	3	25
C	2	16.67	0	0
D	0	0	0	0
Total	12	100	12	100

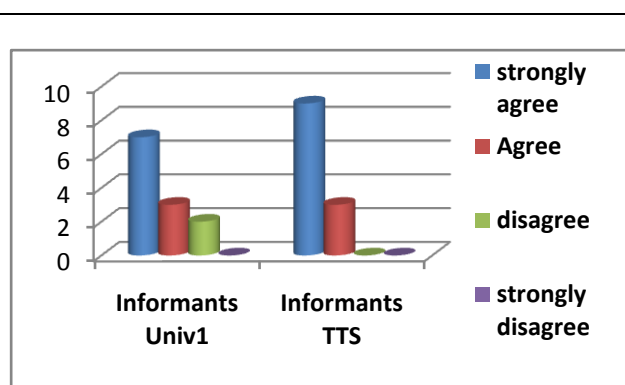


Figure 7.33. Informants Opinions on "Good Readers are Good Writers"

In order to investigate teachers' perception of the effectiveness of reading in shaping good writing, we asked them to give their opinion on the statement "Good readers are good writers". From table (7.33), one can denote that all the TTS teachers agree on the previous statement; 75% strongly agree and emphasize this saying whereas 25% demonstrated that they simply agree. However, and unexpectedly, we notice a disagreement from the part of 16.67% of Mentouri University teachers while the others do confirm the statement with different degrees of agreement (58.33% ticked 'strongly agree' and 25% picked 'agree').

In fact, even some researchers could disagree with this statement and proved the opposite in their works. One would ask the question: how could these researchers prove that good readers are not always good writers? The answer is provided by Tierney and Leys (1984):

When we read studies which show that good readers are also good writers we are not surprised for it seems intuitively correct that reading and writing skills develop together or are so entangled that they appear inseparable. In contrast, if we read research suggesting that good readers are not necessarily good writers, we might initially question such a finding. For example, we might ask: What definition of reading and writing had been used? Or, what instrument was used to measure reading and writing performance? On further reflection, we can all recall individuals who were good readers, but poor writers (p.16).

Question 40: Do you have any other suggestions related to reading and writing connection?

All the respondents to this question, both from the university and the TTS, agree that reading has a great importance as a subject. Besides, students should undergo a Reading Technique class since their first year at university in order to experience the real language and take the given reading texts as models for their writings. Some teachers described their students as 'lazy and irresponsible' and whatever method they used to persuade them to read

did not work, yet others insisted on the need to revive the habit of reading in their students and give it a great importance in the curriculum. They also emphasized the written response to reading which encourages learners to respond whenever they read and keeps them always aware about the strong connections between reading and writing.

In general, most teachers believe that reading and writing should be taught in close connection because one does not go without the other, and they recommend the implementation of an integrated reading-writing instruction where the two skills are melted in integrated classroom activities. Consequently, when students feel the importance of the connection, they become aware of the necessity of both skills together to the betterment of their written productions as well as their language.

7.1.2. Summary of the Main Findings

The findings of the above discussion of the teachers' questionnaire are summarized below:

- Nearly all the Reading Techniques teachers believe that reading is an active process where the students' role is as important as the teacher's.
- For most TTS reading teachers, comprehension questions are substantial in teaching reading and 'meaning' is the focal point when presenting any reading material while style is totally neglected.
- The significant majority of Reading Techniques teachers implements vocabulary teaching in the reading lesson plan.
- Most Reading Techniques teachers try to balance between silent reading and outloud reading to meet the preferences of all the students and manage their class time.
- All the reading teachers do assign at-home reading frequently.

- Students' motivation to read is confirmed by all the reading teachers who described their students' level in reading as good.
- The reading materials used in the TTS are all authentic.
- The majority of Mentouri University writing teachers is not satisfied with the amount of time attributed to teaching this crucial skill.
- The process-product approach to teaching writing is used by all the teachers of Mentouri University teachers while half of the TTS teachers opt for it. The other half prefers to work with the process approach.
- Mentouri University writing teachers are being more authoritarian than TTS teachers who give more space for free writing.
- Quasi totality of TTS writing teachers confirms their students' respect of the writing stages while the same percentage of Mentouri University teachers denies it for their students.
- Vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and writing techniques are given nearly equal voices by all the respondents for being the most problematic aspects in students' writing.
- While all the TTS teachers confirmed the findings of the descriptive statistics of this study and said that their students' level in writing is average, Mentouri University teachers' responses ranged between average, weak, and very weak.
- Lack of writing, reading practice, and teacher's effective feedback are the foremost sources of writing problems.
- Implementing reading in the writing classes is a personal orientation of the writing teachers and not officially integrated in the curriculum.
- Nearly all the teachers surveyed believe that reading and writing are two interrelated language skills and reading inspires students' writing.

- Few Mentouri University teachers tend to collaborate with other teachers of reading or literature to discuss students' difficulties in writing.
- The majority of the respondents do refer to writing techniques during reading as a reminder to their students and to teach them critical reading.
- All the teachers of Reading Techniques and Written Expression agree that reading and writing should be taught in tandem.

7.2. Students' Questionnaire

7.2.1. Analysis and Discussion of the Results

Section One: Reading

Question 1: Do you like reading at all?

a- Yes b- No c- Indifferent

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	49	52.13	30	65.22
B	16	17.02	02	4.35
C	29	30.85	14	30.43
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.34. Students' Attitude toward Reading

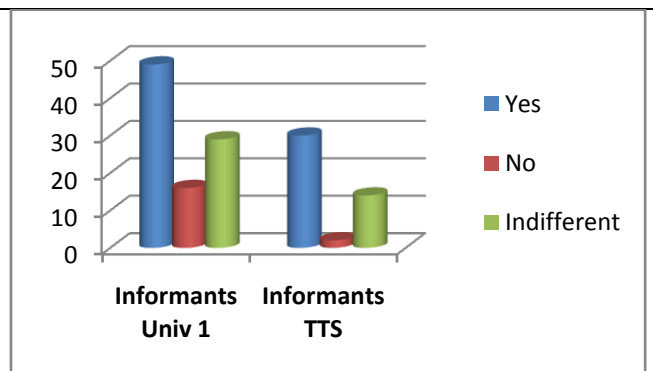


Figure 7.34. Students' Attitude toward Reading

This question was initially intended to find out about students overall attitude towards reading. As shown in table (7.34) more than half of the students from both institutes (52% of Mentouri University and 65% of the TTS informants) expressed their positive feelings towards reading. The results obtained in answer to this question denote that the percentage of

the minority who conveyed their aversion towards reading between both institutes was higher in Mentouri University than in the TTS (17% for the former and 4% for the latter). As for the third option 'indifferent', we recorded a correspondence in the students' answers with 30% from each group of respondents.

Looking at the results of this question, one can reflect on the reasons why there is a difference in the amount of students who dislike reading between both groups. This may be attributed to the fact that Mentouri University students are not motivated enough to read since they do not have a subject matter devoted only for reading unlike the TTS students who practise reading weekly in the Reading Techniques session. Besides, in our department we rarely encounter a student reading a short story or a novel in the corridors while in their free time. In addition to this, the amount of subject matters and their constant homeworks or projects may be consuming a large portion of students' time which, in turn, obliges them to neglect reading for the only reading they benefit from is restricted to their fields of study, i.e., no time for entertaining reading. Even the assigned readings in the Literature class may not be cheering; the students always feel the pressure to read them analytically and memorize every bits and pieces of the literature aspects related to these readings for they will be questioned about them in the exam. McKenna, Conardi, Lawrence, Jang, and Meyer (2012) conceptualize this idea using the term 'literacy purpose'. They maintain that students do distinguish between reading they have to do and reading they want to do, in other words, in-school versus out-of-school literacies (although not necessarily related to the physical spaces, but to the purpose for which students read; either for entertainment or for study purposes).

The 30% of the informants who feel indifferent about reading are in fact those students who have not yet developed their positive attitudes towards reading. Actually, these students may or may not develop this attitude; this depends on different factors like teachers'

encouragement, types of reading, enthusiastic activities or even games, and so on. Now, can we say that the students who do not like reading can sooner or later change their attitude? A large body of research indicated that the amount of out-of-school reading predicted reading achievement growth. The role of the teacher is often emphasized in these cases as McKenna et al. (2012) put it:

[...] teachers are often encouraged to interweave students’ out-of-school literacies with in-school practices. Specific suggestions have included affording students more choice in book selections and incorporating more popular literature into the classroom (p. 288).

If we relate this suggestion to the answers of the TTS Reading Techniques teachers on question 11 when asked about what aspects they consider when selecting the reading materials, we find that they are really aware about this procedure since 83% of them revealed that they try to adopt the selection according to both the students’ needs and preferences. Actually, not neglecting the affective aspect in selecting the reading and giving much interest in developing students’ positive attitudes is shown in the responses of TTS students to this question (only 4% said they dislike reading).

Question 2: How often do you understand the general idea of the texts you read?

- a- Very often b- often c- rarely d- never

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	44	46.81	22	47.83
B	50	53.19	24	52.17
C	00	0	00	0
D	00	0	00	0
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.35. Students' Frequency of Retaining the General Idea

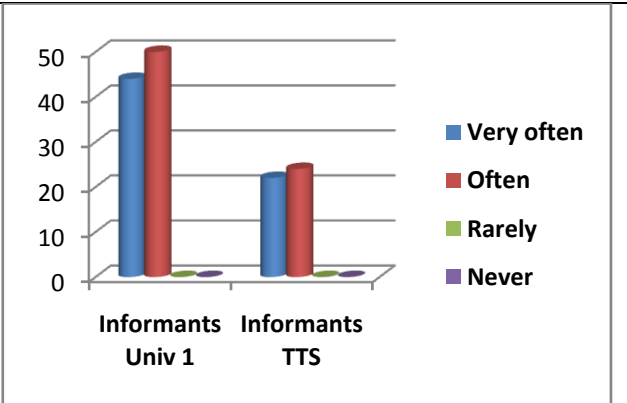


Figure 7.35. Students' Frequency of Retaining the General Idea

This question aims at finding out about students' ability to understand the general idea of any text they read, in other words, to check whether their reading ability corresponds to their overall language level (intermediate). All the students indicated their ability to understand what they read on the whole. The answers were homogeneous and convergent, in that they were divided between the first two options (very often and often) with nearly equal percentages (47% for the former and 53% for the latter).

These results indicate, first, that the reading they do is generally at their level of understanding, which is actually a beneficial point in that it maintains the students' desire and readiness to read. When students meet comprehension obstacles, they may lose their motivation to read, and thus they tend to build negative attitudes towards reading. Shapiro and White (1991) reported that the negative attitudes towards reading do in fact affect students' motivation and attention, which are both critical to successful achievement in the school setting. Boland (1988 cited in Petscher, 2010) also investigated the relationship between comprehension and attitude and concluded that comprehension significantly correlates with the formation of reading attitudes. A deeper analysis on the relationship between attitude and achievement in reading may relate students' reading difficulties at an early age to their belief of their constant negative achievement which also lowers their expectations of future achievement as proposed by Wigfield and Eccles (1994).

Question 3: How often do you find difficulties answering comprehension questions related to the text you read? a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	07	7.45	03	6.52
B	28	29.79	17	36.96
C	43	45.74	24	52.17
D	16	17.02	02	4.35
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.36. Frequency of Comprehension Difficulties

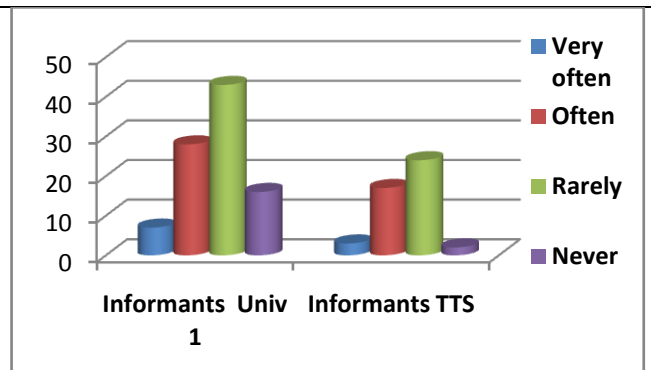


Figure 7.36. Frequency of Comprehension Difficulties

After questioning them about comprehending the general idea of the reading materials, we sought to identify the frequency of comprehension questions difficulties that the students encounter. On a scale of four options; very often, often, sometimes, and never, and considering the second column of table (7.36), we notice that Mentouri University students' highest rate of responses 45.74% was attributed to the third option 'rarely', then comes the second option with 29.79%, and the fourth with 17.02%, and finally the first option 'very often' was only given 7.45% of the voices. To gather all the answers in two main categories; those who find difficulties and those who do not, we can say that 62.76% of Mentouri University informants do not really find difficulties with comprehension questions while 37.24% actually do face these difficulties.

The third column of the same table indicates a slight difference in the total responses. 43.48% of the TTS students opt for the first two options (6.52% for very often and 36.96% for often) whereas 56.52% of them said that they either rarely (52.17%) or never (4.35%) face these difficulties.

When comparing the results on the whole, we do not notice an important difference in the students' responses as far as the three first options are concerned. However, we find that the number of students who chose the fourth option 'never' from Mentouri University is

higher than that of the TTS students (17.02 > 4.35%). Yet again, this difference does not change the overall results that more than half of the students from both institutes do not find severe problems in responding to comprehension questions of texts in their actual language level.

In fact, comprehension questions are used in teaching English from the very beginning levels. Our students are accustomed to these types of questions which focus on the meaning and checking the degree to which the readers have understood the reading material. Generally, in a reading comprehension section, students are asked few questions on the main and supporting ideas, required to confirm or deny some statements related to some details in the text by saying true or false, and sometimes given some words or expressions to clarify their meanings or extract it from the text. Every year, from middle school till university, answering these questions becomes a matter of habit and students develop their strategies to do these tasks faster; that is, they are more and more familiar with the types of questions like: what is the text about? They will know that the answer resides in the first paragraph of the essay, more precisely, in the thesis statement which is generally the last sentence of the introductory paragraph. Therefore, when the students reveal that they do not have problems with comprehension questions, we are tempted to believe that their reading, indeed, achieves the basic requirements for comprehension.

Question 4: Where do you find difficulties while reading?

a- meaning b- structure c- style d- vocabulary e- others

(specify)

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	24	22.02	05	8.62
B	05	4.59	03	5.17
C	22	20.18	10	17.24
D	51	46.79	29	50
E	07	6.42	11	18.97
Total	109	100	58	100

Table 7.37. Students' Most Occurring Reading Difficulties

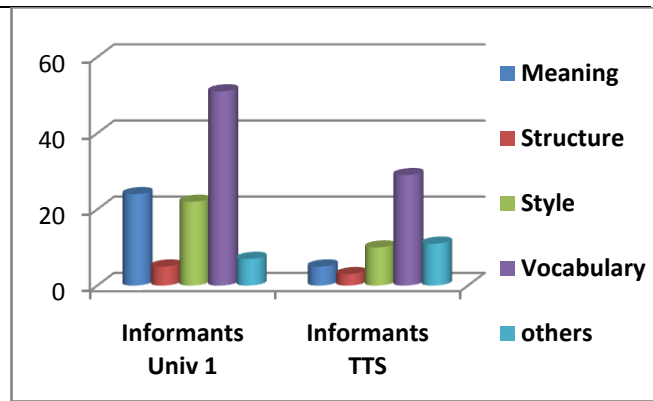


Figure 7.37. Students' Most Occurring Reading Difficulties

By asking this question, we seek to detect the most striking points in reading where the students feel their weaknesses. This question was also dictated to the teachers of Reading Techniques with only the first three options. They were required to mention which aspect they emphasize the most when they present a reading material. The results showed that most TTS teachers' interest was on the meaning then the structure. We are now to analyze and compare the students' responses from both institutes and see whether the TTS students' responses reveal their teachers were lucky in their choices.

The results tabulated above indicate that TTS students do not have real problems with meaning and the structure of the text since only 8.62% of them referred to meaning and 5.17% to structure. However, the writer's style seems to be more problematic since 17.24% of the informants expressed its difficulty. These results correspond positively to the teachers' perspectives of emphasizing meaning and structure in presenting the reading material. In other words, by doing so, the teachers contributed in facilitating these two striking points As for Mentouri University informants, we notice from their answers that meaning and style are of nearly equal degree of difficulty with 22% of the responses to meaning and 20% for style. Like the TTS students, Mentouri University informants indicated that they do not really face

problems with the text structure since only 4.59% of them checked this option. Now we move to the highest percentage in both groups which was given to vocabulary with 46.79% from the part of Mentouri University students and 50% from the TTS informants.

These responses make us think that the author's style and vocabulary are the main pitfalls that our students suffer from and which contribute, in one way or another, in misleading their understanding, if not breaking it at all.

In the option 'others', which offers more space for the students to express their difficulties, we recorded additional problematic features which are put as follows:

From Mentouri University, seven students stated the following problems:

- *I put myself strongly in the midst of the story that sometimes I forget the last sentence or two I read.* This student faces a difficulty in concentration and keeping the thread of ideas together. In fact, this may be a negative impact of outloud reading as we have mentioned in the teacher's questionnaire analysis (question 8).
- *The old English words.* Old English, like Shakespeare's, is often problematic since it is rarely used in real language settings, besides students do not tend to read classical literature due to its complexity which creates a strong hindrance for them.
- *Generally meaning in scientific texts and novels* (put by two students). Scientific language is often a problematic aspect for students who come from literary streams since not only the terminology is new, but also the concepts. That is why ESP (English for Specific Purposes) is implemented in the curriculum of first and second year to introduce the student to some necessary terminology introduced in reading materials.
- *I prefer to read scientific texts.* This student contradicts the previous one and states that scientific texts are more interesting for him/her. He/ she might have come from a

scientific stream and is interested in science and technology. Hence, students' preferences and scope of interest may lead them to developing negative attitudes towards other readings of less interest to them, and thus their performance will be reduced.

- *I have difficulties while reading outloud.* An example of a difficulty stemming from outloud reading is indicated in the first statement of this list.
- *Sometimes I find it difficult to understand what is between the lines.* Reading between the lines or critical reading helps enlarge comprehension and when the reader is unable to understand what the writer wants to convey, he/she might not get the intended message.

From the TTS students responses we collected the following:

- *In fact I find it difficult to understand the meaning of new words each time I stop to make a check in the dictionary. Therefore, I get easily bored and I stop reading.* This is the effect of dictionary checking. Students should not go back to the dictionary every time they face new vocabulary items; they should use other strategies that we discussed earlier in the teacher's questionnaire analysis (question 7).
- *Some words are difficult even when I use context clues and word analysis.* In this case, if the available quick strategies do not work, checking the dictionary or asking the teacher will do the job.
- *When there are a lot of figurative terms.* This enters in section of new vocabulary items, but those which might not be found in the dictionary, yet they can be acquired only by reading a lot in order to meet them constantly and memorize them.
- *Sometimes, when I read, I cannot understand from the first time; I should reread.* Some students are less attentive by nature and need to repeat the information more than once to retain it. Sometimes, the text difficulty requires special attention and several readings.

- *It depends on what the author wants to convey (the aim behind the ideas) and his literal level.* (Put by two students).
- *When I read old English I find a difficulty in understanding the writers' expressions.*
- *In relating ideas and events to each other (from one paragraph to another).* (Put by two students). This is also a matter of concentration.
- *I find it difficult to read a boring story* (put by two students). Enthusiasm towards reading plays an important role in overcoming various difficulties, like new vocabulary; the reader will not pay much attention to understand individual items, he/she will rather try to enjoy the reading and the new vocabulary items are to be understood from the general meaning and acquired with constant practice.

Question 5: What strategy do you find yourself relaxed at?

a- reading silently

b- reading aloud

c- both

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	56	59.57	33	71.74
B	35	37.23	12	26.09
C	3	3.19	1	2.17
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.38. Students' Favored Reading Strategies

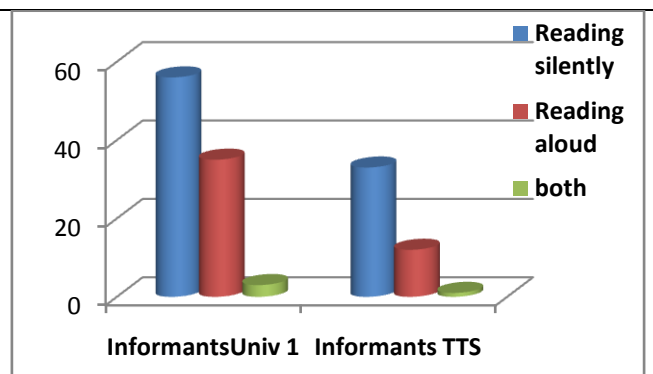


Figure 7.38. Students' Favored Reading Strategies

In this question we sought to inspect the students' most preferred reading strategy between reading silently, aloud, or both in order to identify the differences between them and relate them to the teachers' orientations revealed in the teacher's questionnaire analysis (questions 8, 9, and 10).

Table (7.38) displays that the highest percentage of responses was given to silent reading; 59.57% of Mentouri University and 71.74% of the TTS respondents. Reading aloud was chosen by 35 students (37.23%) from Mentouri University and 12 students (26.09%) from the TTS. Only few students (03 from Mentouri University and 01 from the TTS) opted for both strategies. These results demonstrate that the majority of second year students prefer to read silently and find themselves better at ease than to read aloud. However, those who like reading aloud are not to be neglected since this learning style is personal and helps in developing their learning abilities. Therefore, both strategies need to be taken in consideration to help both types of students attain their learning objectives. For this reason, we compared these results with those of the teachers and found that the majority of Reading Techniques teachers (66.67% = four teachers out of six) use both types of reading in their classrooms in order to cover their students preferences and give space for every student to read in his/her own relaxing manner.

Question 6: Please, explain why.

This question is related to the previous one and seeks to investigate students' justifications for opting for reading silently, aloud, or both. The students' responses were grouped according to their sameness. For those students who prefer reading silently, they attributed this orientation to seven main reasons being:

1. Promoting comprehension.
2. Keeping concentration and focus on what is being read not dividing attention between hearing and reading.
3. Night reading necessitates silence.
4. Hiding pronunciation problems and other mistakes.
5. The possibility of repeated silent reading for deeper comprehension.

6. Avoiding confusion.
7. Feeling involved in the story.

As far as reading aloud is concerned, the students provided the following motives:

1. Keeping concentration.
2. Improving comprehension.
3. Raising self-esteem when hearing one's voice and feeling others' attention.
4. Correcting mistakes.
5. Remembering vocabulary.
6. It is a matter of habit.
7. Promoting the feeling of involvement in the story.

Four students from both institutes ticked the third option 'both' and justified their choice in the following statements:

1. *If it is a novel, I read silently, but if it is a lesson, I read it aloud because it helps me remember.*
2. *I read silently, but if I do not understand, I start reading aloud.*
3. *I like them both because I enjoy reading especially alone.*
4. *It does not matter.*

Some of the reasons provided by the students who opted for different strategies actually seem similar, like keeping concentration and promoting comprehension. Every student has chosen his/her strategy according to the benefits they get from it and the ultimate objective of reading is achieving comprehension. Some students develop the reading aloud learning style from their beginning stages of learning (in the primary school) when they learn

by heart and when this strategy proves efficient, they develop a positive attitude towards using it in reading to better comprehend the reading material.

Looking at the teachers' responses on question 9, we notice that their reasons behind using both strategies are attributed to their importance in that reading silently promotes comprehension and reading aloud develops reading fluency, in addition to managing the class time between both strategies (reading silently consumes time more than reading aloud).

Question 7: How often do you find the texts you tackle in the classroom of any interest to you? a- Very often b- often c- rarely d- never

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	10	10.64	09	19.57
B	55	58.51	25	54.35
C	25	26.59	11	23.91
D	04	4.26	01	2.17
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.39. Frequency of Interesting Classroom Readings

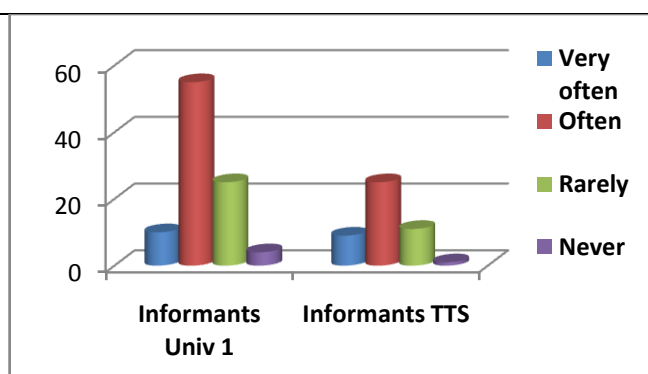


Figure 7.39. Frequency of Interesting Classroom Readings

In order to check the students' opinions about the significance of the reading topics they tackle in the classroom, we have put a scale of frequency starting from *very often*, *often*, *rarely*, and closing by *never*. Table (7.39) above indicates some kind of correspondence between the responses of both groups. Two thirds of the total responses were given to the first two options revealing students' constant interest in the topics they deal with in the classroom. Although we notice a slight difference in the percentage indicating more interest from the part of the TTS informants (69.15% of Mentouri University and 73.92%). Whereas, a minority of 4.26% and 2.17% from Mentouri University and the TTS respectively expressed that the topics are never interesting. These results correlate with the teachers' responses on question

11 which showed the teachers' interest in adapting the selection of topics to both the students' needs and preferences. We can say here that the teachers of the TTS were successful in bringing interest and motivation to their classrooms.

Question 8: When do you find yourself motivated to read?

a- reading for pleasure b- attractive style c- topics related to your field of study

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	49	50.52	26	50
B	24	24.74	18	34.62
C	24	24.74	08	15.38
Total	97	100	52	100

Table 7.40. Aspects of Reading Motivation

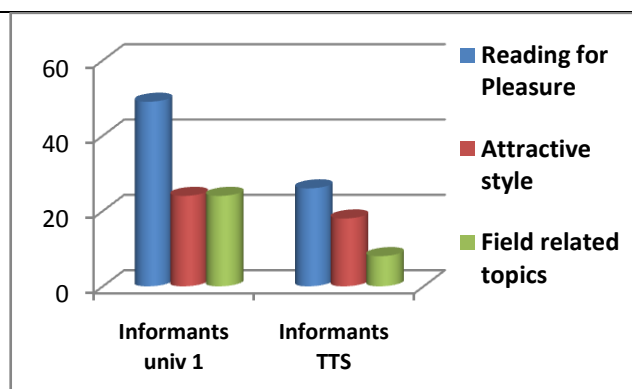


Figure 7.50. Aspects of Reading Motivation

Looking at table (7.40), one can deduce that half of the students are motivated to read for entertainment purposes. 24.74% of Mentouri University students feel motivated with attractive styles and 34.62% of the TTS informants opted for the same option. The same rate of Mentouri University responses (24.74%) was attributed to topics related to the field of study, whereas fewer responses were recorded in this option from the part of TTS informants (15.38%).

Motivation depends from one individual to another. When we talk about personal motivation, then we refer to intrinsic motivation which includes beliefs, personal goals, and attitudes (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Reading for pleasure is a type of intrinsic motivation to read since it satisfies their personal enjoyment of the act of reading. Believing in a writer's attractive style makes the students seek frequent and long-term engagement in reading

activities in these particular styles. For instance, some students like to read romance stories and novels, while others prefer suspense and action in detective stories. Additionally, intrinsically motivated students set their goals and become eager to achieve them. When their learning goals entail mastering a given field, they become motivated to do any activity or task that satisfies their needs and help achieve their learning objectives. Students who are interested in psychology may become avid readers in this field, and students whose aim is to major in American literature, will be attracted by and tend to read a lot of novels or poems in order to gain some background knowledge to qualify them in their field of study.

Question 9: Do you practice more reading at home in order to improve your reading skills?

a- Very often b- often c- rarely d- never

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	10	10.64	08	17.39
B	39	41.49	17	36.96
C	34	36.17	19	41.30
D	11	11.70	02	4.35
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.41. Frequency of at-home Readings

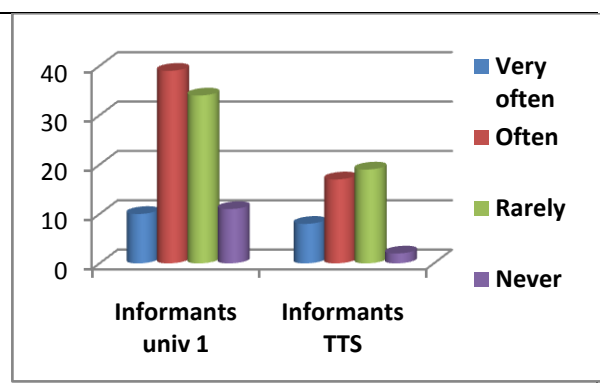


Figure 7.41. Frequency of at-home Readings

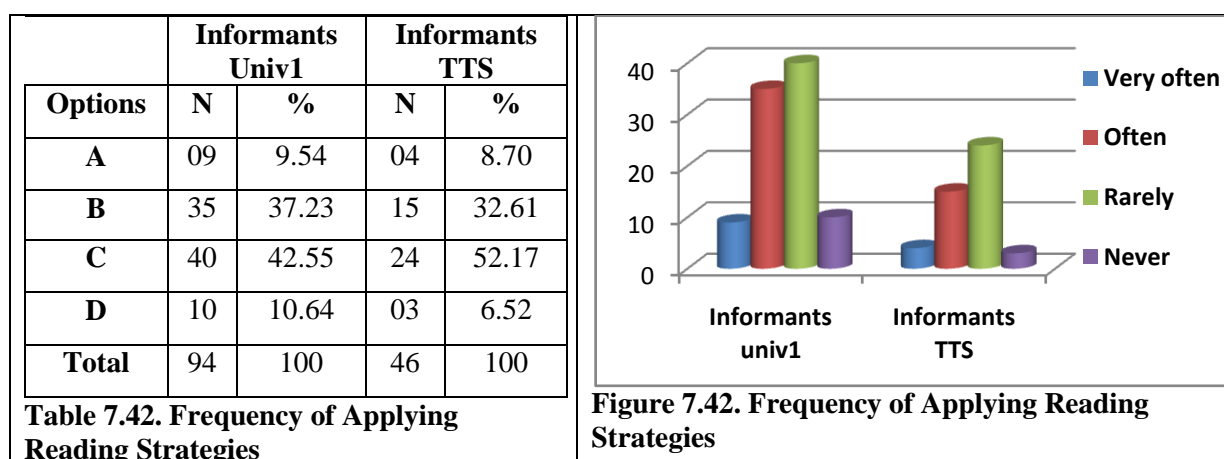
For the purpose of examining students' awareness and readiness to embrace at-home readings, we asked them to identify their frequency of reading at home.

More than 50% of the students from both institutes ticked the first two options and expressed their frequent use of at-home readings. While 36% of Mentouri University students said that they rarely do, more than 41% of the TTS students agreed with them. The least rate of responses was recorded in the last option 'never' where Mentouri University respondents with 11.70% and TTS students with 4.35% stated that they do not read at home at all.

These responses, if compared to the teachers' responses on questions 12 and 13, will demonstrate both teachers' and students' awareness of the usefulness of at-home readings in promoting reading skills since all the reading teachers agreed on this point and confirmed their frequent assignments. Moreover, we can say that the teachers' orientation contributed to encouraging students to perform this task especially in the TTS where only 4.35% of the students do not practice reading at home.

Question 10: How often do you apply reading strategies (skimming, scanning, etc)?

a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never



This question was put to examine students' tendency to apply the different reading strategies which help in achieving comprehension.

TTS students are introduced to the reading strategies in a Reading Techniques course right from their first year, while Mentouri University student, who do not have this subject, do practise them in a first year Methodology class and sometimes in the writing class when using reading for writing. Table (7.42), however, indicates some discrepancy, in that the highest numbers of responses were given to the option 'rarely' while little emphasis was put on the first option 'very often'. 37% of Mentouri University and 32% of the TTS students said that

they often apply the reading strategies. Yet, the 42% and 52% of the answers which indicate students' rare use of these strategies seem to be alerting and raise the question: Why do our students neglect the reading strategies while they know their effectiveness in promoting comprehension? One can think first that the reading materials are very easy to comprehend that the students rarely go to apply these strategies. However, when they were asked about their sever problems in reading; many students indicated 'meaning' and 'vocabulary'. These two aspects, in fact, necessitate using some reading strategies like meaning inference. It might be that the question was not clear enough to the students and they replied only on the two strategies indicated between brackets. Maybe we had to cite more strategies such as meaning inference and word analysis to clarify our perspective.

Question 11: How would you estimate your level in reading?

a- excellent b- good c- average d- weak e- very weak

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	03	3.19	01	2.17
B	32	34.04	17	36.96
C	49	52.13	26	56.52
D	09	9.57	02	4.35
E	01	1.06	00	0
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.43. Students' Perception of their Level in Reading

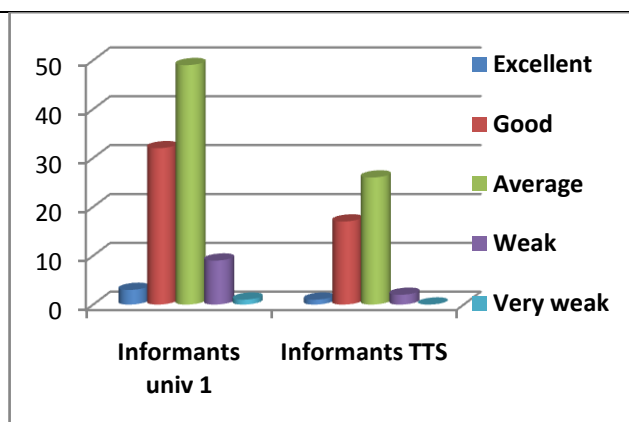


Figure 7.43. Students' Perception of their Level in Reading

In question 18 of the teachers' questionnaire, we noticed that the reading teachers described their students' level as being 'good' with only one teacher saying they were 'average'. We questioned the students and collected somehow different answers. On a scale ranging from excellent, good, average, to weak, and very weak, more than 52% of Mentouri

University students tended to depict their level to be average with an agreement of 56.52% of the TTS students. 34% and 36% of Mentouri University and the TTS students respectively said they were good readers whereas few students (03 from Mentouri University and 01 from the TTS) had higher self-esteem and expressed that they were excellent readers. 10.63% and 4.35%, as the sixth line of the above table reads from left to right, indicated their weakness in reading.

In fact, students' self image does reflect their achievement like we have discussed earlier in question 02 as far as reading comprehension is concerned. Students' attitudes and their level of achievement are said to correlate both positively and negatively as put by Wigfield and Eccles (1994) who studied students' attitudes and their relation to their achievement in reading and proved that when students get good grades, their self-esteem gets higher and their expectations of similar achievements are promoted. However, if they develop a negative attitude from bad achievement, the possibility to score same grades or even less gets higher. There is also evidence on the relation between reading enjoyments and specific achievement tests such as text comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary expansion (Clark & Zoysa, 2011).

Section Two: Writing

Question 12: Do you notice any problems or stuck points in your writing?

a- yes b- no c- sometimes

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	23	24.47	18	39.13
B	10	10.64	00	0
C	61	64.89	28	60.87
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.44. Students Face Problems in Writing

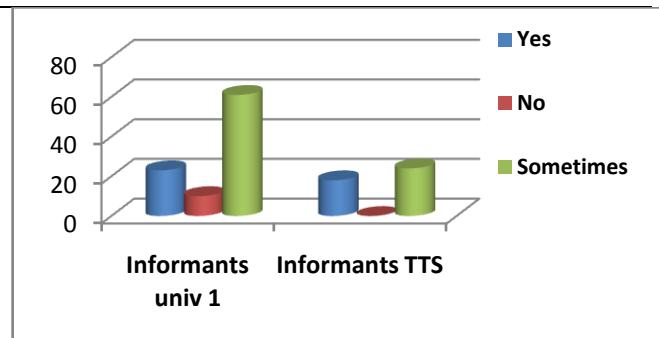


Figure 7.44. Students Face Problems in Writing

By asking this question we aim at unveiling students' awareness about the existence of any problems in their writing. The table above exhibits that more than 60% of the students from both groups do sometimes notice some stuck points while 24% of Mentouri University and 39% of the TTS respondents confirmed with more certitude. 10.64% of Mentouri University students said that they do not notice any problem.

The results obtained from this question show that the majority of students are aware of their writing problems which means that at least they try to overcome them. Yet, when reflecting on those students who do not notice their problems, can we say that they do not have any writing problems? This might be true as it might not. In fact, these students either cannot figure out their problems, or are in a denial state that their egos do not allow them to confess. The questions below will clarify this point.

Question 13: Where do you see your severe problems in writing?

- a- vocabulary b- grammar c- spelling d- writing techniques e- others (specify)

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	53	35.33	30	30
B	34	22.67	26	26
C	25	16.67	10	10
D	20	13.33	22	22
E	18	12	12	12
Total	150	100	100	100

Table 7.45. Students' Severe Problems in Writing

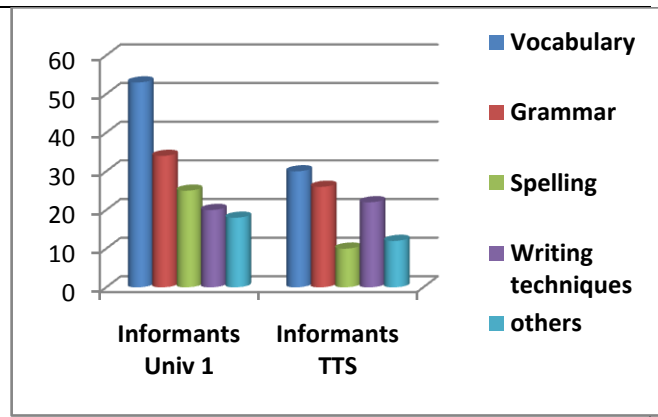


Figure 7.45. Students' Severe Problems in Writing

This question was asked to the teachers also (question 26) and their responses are to be compared to the students'. It aims primarily at finding out about the students' difficulties in writing from their own perspectives, then to relate them to the teachers' perspectives.

Looking at the tabulated results, one can notice that students severe problems lie primarily in vocabulary with more than 35% of the responses of Mentouri University students and 30% of the TTS students. Then, grammar comes second with more than 22% of Mentouri University responses and 26% of the TTS. Spelling seems more problematic for Mentouri University students with 16% while in the TTS students it got 10% of the responses. On the other hand, writing techniques appear to create more difficulties for the TTS students than Mentouri university students who mentioned them 22% and 13% of the recorded responses respectively.

As to compare the previous results with those of the teachers, we notice that Mentouri university teachers attributed 24% of their responses to grammar while it received the lowest percentage in the TTS teachers' responses (16%). Both groups of teachers gave the same amount of answers to vocabulary and spelling ranking them second. However, TTS teachers gave the highest percentage to writing techniques which corresponds to their students'

responses. Originally, writing techniques define a good piece of writing. A composition that is badly punctuated or lacks unity is likely to lose its quality although the quantity of information is fine.

The last option gives the students the freedom to specify other problems in their writing. The results are grouped according to their similarity in the following points:

1. Style.
2. Less interest in the topics assigned.
3. Insufficient background knowledge especially with unfamiliar topics.
4. Mother tongue interference.
5. Time constraints affect the quality and flow of ideas.
6. Too many ideas with many details which may lead to out-of-topic compositions.
7. Redundancy.
8. Coherence.

With this question related to the previous one, we find that those students who said that they do not notice any problems in their writings have actually ticked or stated at least one problem. Again, this might be attributed to their egos or they were just ticking answers without concentrating on the question being asked.

Question 14: Can you figure out what these problems are due to?

This question, in relation to the previous one, was put to identify the possible causes of the previously cited problems from the students' standpoints. In fact students' responses to this question were varied and revealed their awareness about where they stand and what needs to be done. The majority of the responses were circling around these ideas:

1. Lack of reading, writing, and grammar practice.

2. Lack of interest in reading.
3. Confusion between similar words (spelling problems).
4. Insufficient linguistic register.
5. Giving much interest to vocabulary, grammar, and spelling while forgetting about writing techniques.
6. Fewer tendencies to put in practice the new vocabulary, which leads to forgetting both the spelling and the meaning.
7. Lack of concentration while reading or writing.
8. Preferring free-writing rather than instructional topics.
9. Negative attitudes towards one's previous writing achievements.
10. Neglecting the phase of revision after finishing the writing.
11. Powerless ideas and difficulties in expressing them properly.
12. The traditional boring method of teaching grammar.

Question 15: Do you consider, before or while writing, the reaction of your reader(s) towards what you have written? a- yes b- no

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	69	73.40	36	78.26
B	25	26.60	10	21.74
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.46. Students Consider their Readers' Reactions

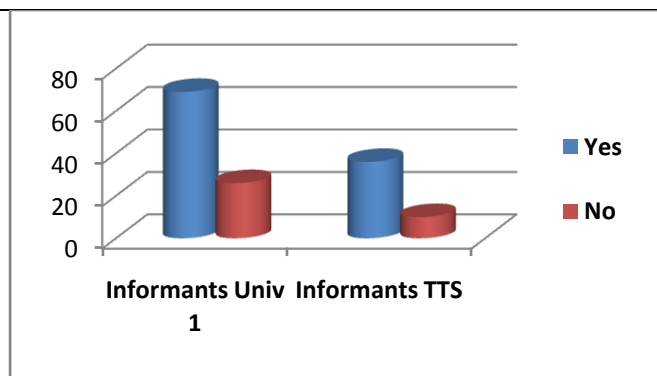


Figure 7.46. Students Consider their Readers' Reactions

In order to identify students' awareness about their audience before or while reading, we dictated this question. The results obtained from table (7.46) makes it clear that more than

two thirds of the students in both institutes do consider their readers' reaction towards their writings.

Initially, the notion of audience was highlighted by researchers both in reading and writing, as well as in their interconnection. Tierney and Leys (1986) questioned whether readers who are critical of the author's craft and have a sense of audience do actually prove to be writers with a rich sense of their readers. In other words, are good critical readers likely to be good writers considering their readers' reactions? Accordingly, they maintained that writers who do read their own writings, either to revise, understand, or enjoy their own productions, are more likely to improve a high sense of their audience since they put themselves in the position of their readers and look at their compositions from critical reader's eyes. Their data suggest that: "[...] successful writers have a better sense of the needs of their audience and tend to be less localized or sentence-bound in their approach as they read over their own writing." (p. 24).

In the case of these students, most of their writing is to be evaluated by their teachers who are, in fact, their audience. Therefore, the students when considering their teachers' expectations while reading their productions may tend to focus on what guarantees a good score in terms of correcting some writing techniques related errors, such as punctuation, and forget about the quality of ideas and their organization. However, when the students do have little problems with writing, their awareness of teachers' expectations of good quality writing is higher, and thus they work on creativity.

Question 16: Do you prefer? a- controlled tasks b- free tasks

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	30	31.91	19	41.30
B	64	68.09	27	58.70
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.47. Students Favored Writing Tasks

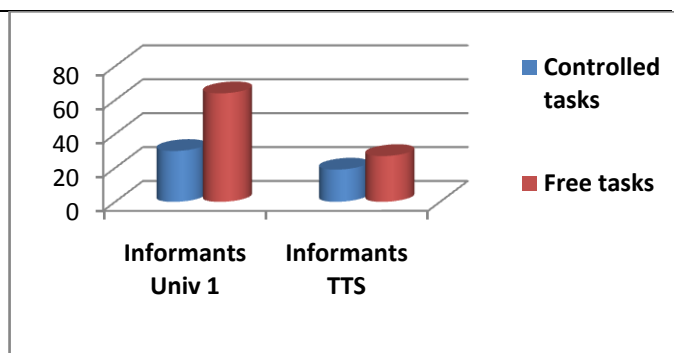


Figure 7.47. Students Favored Writing Tasks

Students do have varying preferences in reading as well as in writing. We have seen that reading teachers do respect their students' preferences when selecting reading materials. Correspondingly, TTS writing teachers confirmed that they give some space for their students to write freely by assigning free tasks. As we recorded two thirds of Mentouri University teachers' responses which deny giving this opportunity due to some previously mentioned causes (see question 22 in the teacher's questionnaire analysis), we notice here from table (7.47) that this teachers' orientation makes their students (68.09%) more eager for free tasks and rejecting the constant controlled tasks. Yet, from the TTS we recorded a relatively smaller rate (58.70%) for free tasks whereas 41.30% of the responses were given to controlled tasks. Hence, we can say that more TTS students have the tendency to accept controlled tasks than do Mentouri University students. This is to be attributed to the teachers' perceptions of implementing these types of tasks, in that Mentouri University teachers tend to impose more controlled tasks than do TTS teachers.

Question 17: Pre-writing, drafting, revising, and editing are stages of writing, do you

follow.....? a- all of them b- most of them c- none of them

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	11	11.70	05	10.87
B	66	70.21	35	76.09
C	17	18.09	06	13.04
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.48. Students' Tendency to follow the Writing Stages

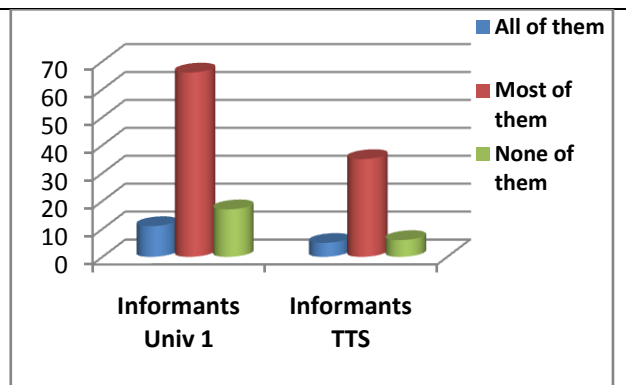


Figure 7.48. Students' Tendency to follow the Writing Stages

This question aims at distinguishing between students who apply all the writing process stages, most of them, or no stage at all. In fact we have questioned writing teachers of both institutes about their students' readiness to follow these stages and the results revealed a discrepancy in the responses of both groups; quasi totality (83%) of the TTS teachers confirmed that their students do follow the stages while the same percentage of Mentouri University teachers denied it.

Table (7.48) demonstrates that 70% and 76% of Mentouri University and the TTS informants respectively do follow most of the stages while 11.70% and 10.87% said they respect all the stages. Quite interesting results, but do they correspond to what the teachers' admitted? If we take the TTS informants' (teachers and students) responses, we observe a logical consistency in that quasi totality of both responses proves that the TTS students follow the writing process stages. Conversely, Mentouri University informants' (teachers and students) responses seem to be contradicting each other since the majority of the teachers denied what their students acknowledged. This is quite a striking situation. Originally, a poorly written piece reveals how much writing stages were followed and with experience teachers become more sensitive to the degree to which they were respected in any written piece. More specifically, a paragraph or an essay that is full of errors of inattention, like the

's' of the present or capitalization of the first letter in a sentence, reveal that the students skipped the revision phase. Furthermore, scrambled ideas, non-unified paragraphs, or out-of-topic compositions may stem from unplanned writing. Hence, this situation leads us to think of two possible explanations; either the students are following the stages but in an inappropriate manner (like planning in their heads and revising while writing), or they do not follow them at all and they just tried to impress the researcher.

Question 18: In your opinion, how would you overcome these problems and improve your writing? a- through practice b- through reading c- both

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	46	48.94	16	34.78
B	21	22.34	19	41.31
C	27	28.72	11	23.91
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.49. Students' Perception of the Means to Overcome Writing Problems

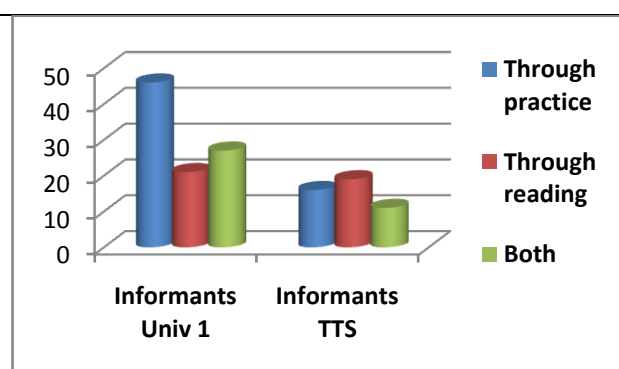


Figure 7.49. Students' Perception of the Means to Overcome Writing Problems

Through this question, we aim at figuring out the students' awareness about the best way to improve their writing and help them overcome their writing problems. The results tabulated above denote that 48.94% of Mentouri University and 34.78% of the TTS students think that only by practicing writing they can improve their skill whereas 22.34% and 41.31% of the students from both institutes respectively do believe that reading is the solution. 28.72% of Mentouri University and 23.91% of the TTS students consider both solutions as very useful in promoting writing skills. Therefore, we notice that the students of the TTS consider reading more important than do Mentouri University students. In fact, from the previous questions results, we observed a difference in perceiving the importance of reading

among the students of both institutes. TTS students showed more awareness of the effectiveness of reading than did Mentouri University students. This is due to the constant exposure to reading in-school and out-of-school that the TTS students are used to more than Mentouri University students.

Question 19: How would you estimate your level in writing?

a- excellent b- good c- average d- weak e- very weak

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	00	0	00	0
B	28	29.79	08	17.39
C	62	65.96	35	76.09
D	03	3.19	02	4.35
E	01	1.06	01	2.17
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.50. Students' Perception of their Own Level in Writing

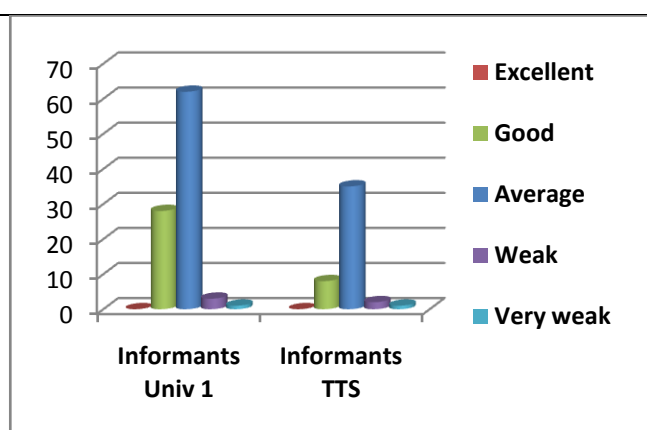


Figure 7.50. Students' Perception of their Own Level in Writing

In an attempt to find out about students self-evaluation of their level in writing, this question was dictated. Unlike the recorded responses in the question about their level in reading where we noticed few responses in the first option, in their evaluation of their writing, no student dared to say their writing was excellent. This may be because, in their opinions, writing can be scored while reading fluency cannot be.

Table (7.50) indicates that 29.79% of Mentouri University students and 17.39% of the TTS students described their writing as good while the majority (65.96% Mentouri University students and 76.09% of the TTS students) said it was average. Only few students from both institutes avowed they were either weak or very weak in writing. The teachers' responses on

question 28, then again, reveal that the TTS teachers were more general in considering all their students to be of average level, whereas the teachers of Mentouri University could refer to those students of weaker levels. To relate these findings to the previous chapter analysis of students' scores, we can say that they are in some way consistent, in that the TTS lowest recorded score in writing was 06/20 and in Mentouri University it was 03/20, while the means of both groups were average (11.01/20 and 10/20 respectively).

Section Three: Reading-writing integration

Question 20: "I am often inspired by what I read". Do you agree?

a- strongly agree b- agree c- disagrees d- strongly disagree

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	18	19.15	11	23.91
B	63	67.02	28	60.87
C	12	12.77	00	0
D	01	1.06	07	15.22
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.51. Students' Perception of Reading Inspiring their Writing

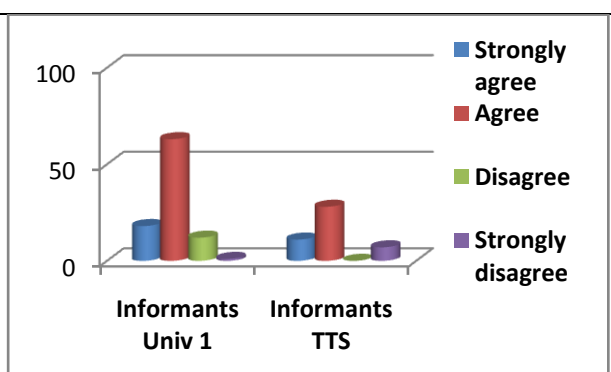


Figure 7.51. Students' Perception of Reading Inspiring their Writing

This question seeks to verify whether students use their readings in their writings. The statement above entails focusing on the inspirational aspect of reading. To say it differently, how reading inspires writers with new ideas and topics to write about. Quite frequently, we hear students defending some kind of reading and writing, like affective topics, these students tend to write in their same preferred topics of reading.

Table (7.51) reports that quasi totality of both institutes' informants (86.17% of Mentouri University and 84.78% of the TTS students) agree with the statement and do

actually get inspired by what they read. Conversely, we recorded 13.83% and 15.22% of the responses which disagree with the aforementioned statement. Although they are few in number, these students who do not consider reading as inspiring may be those students who dislike the act of reading and think it is often a boring task. In relation to the majority who believes in the inspirational aspect of reading, their awareness of its utility in bringing up new thoughts to their writing allows them to take the most of what benefits there are in the reading materials.

Question 21: Do you use structures or styles of the readings you had in the Literature class?

- a- Very often b- often c- rarely d- never

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	03	3.19	12	26.09
B	37	39.36	22	47.82
C	36	38.30	12	26.09
D	18	19.15	00	0
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.52. Frequency of Using Literature Items

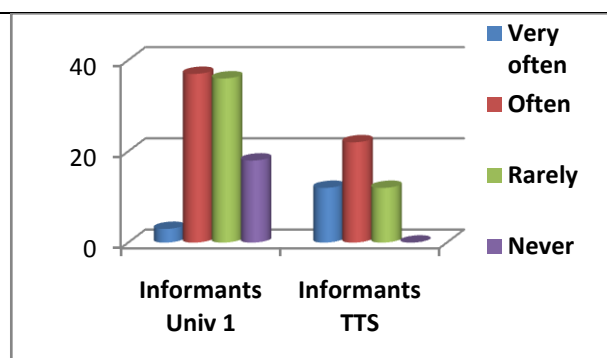


Figure 7.52. Frequency of Using Literature Items

By asking this question, we sought to investigate the frequency of using reading structures or styles of the previously studied readings in the Literature class by the students of both institutes.

The obtained results reveal that most Mentouri University students' responses were equally divided between often and rarely (39%) whereas we notice the same equality in the TTS students' responses but between very often and rarely (26%). On the whole, the second option received the highest percentage. However, a number of eighteen students from Mentouri University (19.15%) indicated that they never tend to use newly learned structures

or styles from the reading material in the Literature class. These results might be attributed to the fact that the readings of the Literature class are most of the time classical like Shakespeare’s plays and poetry with their difficult terms and old language use. Therefore, the difficulty of the material, besides imposing their reading for they will be tested on, diminish students’ interest and motivation to read or even pay attention to the beauty of style and language. The aspects of interest in reading and motivation to read play an important role in these situations as we have discussed before in questions 1 and 8. Moreover, the teacher’s role in giving more emphasis on students’ preferences in the selection of the topic to read about or write about is also critical as claimed by McKenna et al. (2012).

Question 22: Do you use your critical eye while reading and analyze the writers’ techniques and style?

a- Very often

b- often

c- rarely

d- never

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	06	6.38	08	17.39
B	40	42.55	27	58.70
C	34	36.17	09	19.56
D	14	14.89	02	4.35
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.53. Frequency of Analyzing Writers' Techniques and Styles

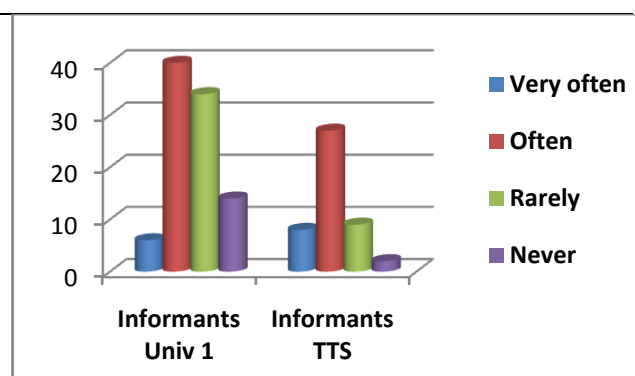


Figure 7.53. Frequency of Analyzing Writers' Techniques and Styles

Looking at table (7.53), we observe that Mentouri University students’ responses were divided between ‘very often’ and ‘often’ with a total of 48.94% and ‘rarely’ and ‘never’ with a total of 51.06%. Which indicates that their analysis, if do it, is random and lacks instruction. On the contrary, TTS students’ responses reveal their systematic analysis of writers’

techniques and styles in that 76.09% of them confirmed that they do this constantly while only 19.56% said it is rarely done and fewer students (4.35%) denied it. One possible explanation of this disparity is that the TTS students are used to critical reading in a Reading Techniques session, whereas Mentouri University students, who are deprived of this subject, do not even have the tendency to read their own writings critically as they skip the revision phase of the writing process.

Question 23: “Good readers are good writers”. Do you agree?

a- strongly agree b- agree c- disagrees d- strongly disagree

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	24	25.53	26	56.52
B	45	47.87	13	28.26
C	22	23.41	07	15.22
D	03	3.19	00	0
Total	94	100	46	100

Table 7.54. Good Readers are Good Writers

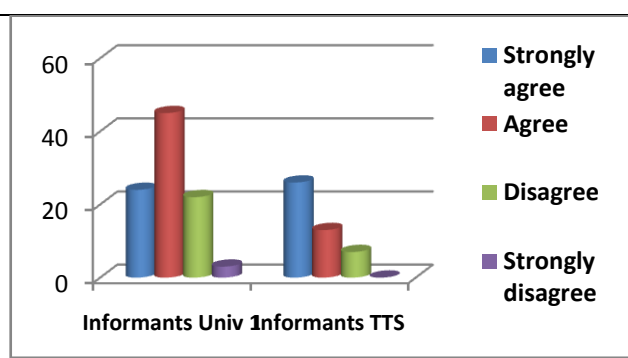


Figure 7.54. Good Readers are Good Writers

This statement, which was also dictated to the teachers, aims at finding out about students’ opinions on whether reading makes good writers or not.

It is evident from table (7.54) that most students agree with the statement. 73.40% of Mentouri University students and 84.78% of the TTS students confirmed it while only 26.60% and 15.22% from both institutes respectively responded negatively. This same question was asked to the teachers (question 39) and we noticed that only 16.67% of Mentouri University informants disagreed and their disagreement could be attributed to the difference in perceiving the definition of reading and writing among individuals or the diverse

measurements thought of when relating reading to writing. (More details in this point are displayed in the analysis of question 39 and in chapter four of the present study).

Naturally, the major aim of reading is comprehension of ideas while writing is meant to produce ideas and arguments. This makes both skills related since the writer writes and reads his writing and the reader reads what is written and may even write about it. We can think of some acquaintances who are actually good readers but their writing is relatively poor due to the fact that they draw a separate line between both skills and they do not tend to use their readings in their writings (for example, they do not memorize the new vocabulary or structures). Yet, one cannot think of good writers who are poor readers because good writing necessitates at least a fair level of reading ability (Tierney and Leys, 1986).

Question 24: Do you think that developing the reading skills may have a positive impact on the writing skills? a- yes b- no

Options	Informants Univ1		Informants TTS	
	N	%	N	%
A	87	92.55	45	100
B	07	7.45	00	0
Total	94	100	45	100

Table 7.55. Students' Perception of the Positive impact of Reading on Writing

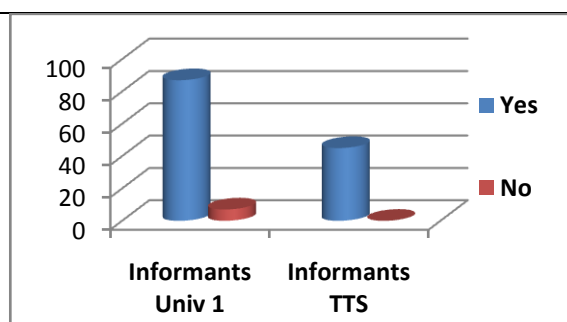


Figure 6.55. Students' Perception of the Positive impact of Reading on Writing

To further check students' awareness of the usefulness of working on both skills especially reading which serves as a reservoir for writing, we asked them about their opinion concerning this direction, i.e., if reading helps develop writing. The obtained responses confirm that students are aware of the utility of developed reading skills in developing writing skills. All the students of the TTS (100%) with more than 92% of Mentouri University

students responded positively while only 7.45% offered negative answers. It is worth noting here that the total of TTS students indicated in the table (45) lacks one answer which was not classified within the table since that student was not sure of the relation between reading and writing; he/she did not check either options and wrote “perhaps”.

Actually, the presence of previously read information in the students’ writings cannot be denied, in that the least information we can notice in a student’s written piece and which reflects some kind of reading can be pictured in their thesis statement or topic sentence that answers the topic of writing. In other words, by reading the topic instruction, which is in itself a kind of reading, the student starts imagining the situation and reformulates the instruction’s expressions to use them as an answer to the task’s topic.

7.2.2. Summary of the Main Findings

The main findings of the students’ questionnaire can be summarized in the subsequent points:

- Reading practice promotes students positive attitudes towards the act of reading, in that they to overcome their previous negative assumptions which might affect their achievement.
- Teaching vocabulary within the reading material and in its natural context helps improve comprehension as well as students’ abilities to infer meaning in different ways.
- The writer’s style, though not emphasized in teaching reading, has a crucial impact on students as readers and writers.
- Students’ learning styles in reading differ between reading silently and reading aloud.
- Many participants in this study feel interested in the classroom reading materials due to their diversity and teachers; tendency to adjust them to their needs and preferences.

- A significant amount of students expressed their motivation to read for enjoyment purposes and are often attracted by the writer's style.
- At home reading, although proved useful in developing reading skills, is not given sufficient practice by the students since only half of the respondents confirmed its use.
- Most students' sever problems in writing stem essentially from lack of reading, writing, and grammar practice.
- A significant majority of the participants revealed their awareness of their audience (most of the time it is the teacher), and thus when they, write they pay attention to what their teacher is expecting from them.
- Free writing tasks are more popular among second year students.
- A high percentage of the students confirm applying the different stages of the writing process.
- TTS students are more aware of the effectiveness of reading practice in improving writing.
- Literature class reading materials do not really trigger students' attention to use them as sources for inspiration in terms of writing structures and styles.
- Many students tend to read critically and analyze the readings in terms of writers' techniques and styles.
- Nearly all the students surveyed from both institutes expressed their agreement about the effectiveness of developing reading skills in promoting their writing skills.

Conclusion:

In this chapter, where the questionnaires' yielded data were displayed, analyzed, thoroughly discussed, and sometimes related to other researchers' findings, the researcher tried to provide explanations to the students' pitfalls in writing and solutions to help overcome

them from both the teachers' and students' standpoints. In relation to the previous findings and discussions of both questionnaires, the first and second research questions which respectively address the effectiveness of developed reading comprehension skills in improving EFL learners' writing and whether they tend to use their previous readings to produce more successful pieces of writing can be confirmed. The students' responses to questions related to these issues revealed that comprehensible reading texts help them acquire positive attitudes towards reading which in turn informs their writing. As for the third research question, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and writing techniques are the major problematic areas that second year students of both institutes suffer from in addition to ideas organization and style, as sustained by the surveyed teachers. The students also on their parts added topic interest, mother tongue interference, and redundancy among other problems of their writing. The fourth research question concerning the place of Reading Techniques in the TTS English department and the impact of its absence in the same department of Mentouri University on students' writing achievement can be answered according to the teachers' proclamation for the necessity of integrating the teaching of reading with writing for the former informs the latter and contributes in its development. This last point has also been proved by the results of the statistical test in the previous chapter. Finally, the teachers' perspectives on integrating reading and writing in both institutes shared the same orientation that both skills should be taught in tandem in order to benefit from both instructions when applied together.

Chapter Eight

Overall Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

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Chapter Eight

Overall Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

Introduction

This study examined the relationship between written achievement and the incorporation of reading as a subject in the curriculum of second year in the TTS. The guaranteed place of reading in the TTS was compared to its absence in the English department of Mentouri University which was considered as the main problem for this research to bring solutions to. The major aim of this study was to investigate this relationship and how reading affects writing in the teaching of English as foreign language. The secondary aims were to explore the different approaches and methods of teaching writing and integrating it with reading as well as evaluating the development of both skills in the TTS and Mentouri University second year students. For these reasons, a comparative study analyzing the students' scores both in Written Expression and Reading Techniques was carried out which results were displayed in chapter six. Additionally, two representative samples of teachers and students from both institutes were subjects of a qualitative analysis presented in the form of two questionnaires for Reading Techniques and Written Expression teachers and one questionnaire for the students of second year in both departments. The results obtained from the questionnaires were demonstrated in chapter seven with their immediate discussions.

This concluding chapter is a review and summary of the present research major findings which were obtained from the data collection instruments presented in chapter five and discussed in chapters six and seven. The Primary aim of this chapter is to discuss the research findings which provide answers to the research questions asked in the introduction of

this thesis. Next, and based on the previous discussions presented throughout this research, some implications for teaching and for further research are to be suggested.

8.1. Overall Discussion of the Major Results in Relation to the Research Questions

Based on the findings of both research instruments used in this study, the following are possible answers to the research questions stated at the first introduction of this thesis.

Question One

Is reading comprehension of any help to EFL learners in improving their writing skills?

At the outset, the Teachers' Training School and Mentouri University students' scores in Written Expression were collected and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics to determine which group performed better. The mean scores of both groups show that the TTS students performed better in writing (11.01) than did Mentouri University students (10.00). Moreover, we recorded a difference in the mode (13 for the former and 08 for the latter) and frequency of low scores (06 for the former and 03 for the latter). The percentage of Written Expression score ranges also indicate a relative difference in the performance of both groups; most TTS scores (62.86%) were classified in the category 11 to 15 while only 45.72% of Mentouri University were ranked in the same category. On the basis of inferential statistics and the results obtained from testing the research hypothesis, there seems to be a significant difference in the written performance of both groups, in that the TTS students exhibited higher level in writing than did Mentouri University students. We should note here that the TTS students are fortunate to have a Reading Techniques subject where they practice reading which is widely recognized as a source of inspiration to writing.

Furthermore, the results obtained from comparing TTS students' fourth semester scores of Reading Techniques and Written Expression in terms of descriptive statistics reveal that the students' level in both subjects is nearly the same, in that the mean score in former was 11.24 and in the latter it was 11.01. Besides, the comparison of the overall performance of the TTS students in both subjects shows that they exhibited nearly the same level in each. In other words, and in relation to the score ranges analysis, most students who were ranked in the intermediate (24.28%) or upper-intermediate (55.72%) levels of Reading Techniques were equally classified in the same levels of Written Expression.

The importance of comprehension questions in any classroom reading is made clear through the Reading Techniques teachers' responses on questions 5, 12, and 13 where they all indicated that they do use them after every reading and they often assign at-home readings for better comprehension practice. Besides, when asked about their students' level in reading, 83.33% (5 out of 6) of the Reading Techniques teachers claimed it to be good while when they were asked about their level in writing, all the TTS teachers agreed it was average and the writing teachers of Mentouri University said it ranged from average to very weak. Additionally, the majority of the teachers surveyed confirmed that reading informs writing and that there would be no clear-cut boundary between both skills. For that reason, quasi totality of the informants indicated that they do refer to writing techniques during the activity of reading. Accordingly, they agreed that good readers are good writers.

When they were asked about the frequency of encountering comprehension difficulties, most surveyed students expressed that they rarely or never did. However, on another question about their most occurring reading difficulties, 22% of Mentouri University students referred to the meaning of the texts while only 8.62% of the TTS students indicated it which means that more TTS students are able to comprehend the reading material than

Mentouri University students. Additionally, the students' responses on their preferred reading strategies revealed that they opt for the best strategy (according to them), either reading silently or aloud, that helps them the most in promoting comprehension. This indicates that they tend to work on their reading comprehension and seize the opportunity whenever possible.

Question Two

Do EFL learners use their previous readings to produce more successful pieces of writing?

From the students' questionnaire findings, there appears a general tendency to consider different structures, strategies, and techniques that the students encountered in their previous readings in order to use them in their writings. To start with, many students sustained that reading is the best solution to overcome their writing problems such as the insufficient language register and background knowledge given that reading provides more practice for the written language which is often taken as a model for writing. Moreover, quasi totality of the students and their teachers agreed that reading inspires their writing. More precisely, the students' awareness of their audience while writing stems from their previous critical readings where they analyze the author's intentional meaning, style, techniques, and so on. Further, being aware of who is to read and evaluate their papers (generally the teacher who scores their writing performance), the students are likely to focus on the teacher's expectations of a good piece of writing. In other words, if the teacher is used to focus on the writing techniques, the students will tend to pay more attention to them while writing, whereas if creativity and high quality writing is emphasized, the students are more likely to work on these aspects by reading a lot.

Additionally, more TTS students (about 74%) tend to transfer literature items from the readings of the literature or Reading Techniques classes into their writings than do Mentouri University students (only 43% of them confirmed the transfer). Likewise, more TTS teachers (58.33%) believe that their students do transfer what they learn in Reading Techniques in their writings while 41.66% of Mentouri University teachers agree with them. On the whole, the majority of the respondents (both teachers and students) agree that good readers are in effect good writers in that their effective reading inspires their writing (this point was also proved by the scores correspondence in reading and writing displayed and discussed in chapter six). Besides, they believe that working on the reading skills will have positive impacts on developing the writing skills as well.

Question Three

What are the major problematic areas in the students' writing that can be repaired by constant reading practice?

The questionnaires analysis revealed some major points creating writing difficulties for second year students, both in the TTS and in Mentouri University. Given the choices of vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and writing techniques, both teachers and their students agreed that the first two options (vocabulary and grammar) were more problematic while for the TTS respondents (teachers and students) writing techniques were the most awkward area in students' writing. The writing teachers even went further and identified some precise aspects in grammar and writing techniques like sentence structure and organization of ideas in addition to poor style and content. Some students also mentioned these points and added others such as less interest in the topics assigned, insufficient background knowledge

especially with unfamiliar topics, mother tongue interference, coherence, redundancy, and time constraints (especially in exams) which affect the quality and flow of ideas.

These problems and others can be attributed mainly to less reading and writing practice as admitted by the majority of the teachers surveyed who emphasized the utility of constant practice for both skills to develop them simultaneously since one does not go without the other. Reflecting on how reading helps the students overcome the aforementioned problems, and based on the teachers' and students' responses, we can summarize that vocabulary is learnt in its natural context through reading, and thus the students' language register will get wider. Grammar rules and the spelling of the words also can be acquired unconsciously when meeting the patterns constantly. Besides, some writing techniques, like punctuation, paragraph organization, or essay requirements of the different types, are to be practiced while reading the model texts.

Question Four

To what extent does teaching writing on its own right as in the Department of English at Mentouri University or teaching it in combination with Reading Techniques as in the Teachers' Training School in Mentouri, affect the students' performance in Writing?

The students' scores analysis showed clearly that the TTS students who study Reading Techniques as an integrated subject in the curriculum performed better in writing than did Mentouri University students who are deprived of this subject. Both the descriptive statistics (difference in the mean scores, 11.01 and 10.00) and the inferential statistics (the *t*-test confirmed the research hypothesis) answer this question and demonstrate that there is a significant difference in the level of writing of both groups. In other words, the TTS students' writing was better than that of Mentouri University students according to their teachers'

second exam evaluation. Additionally, the score ranges' comparison revealed that more TTS students' scores were beyond the average while Mentouri University students' scores were more diversified ranging from 03/20 to 15. The teachers of writing confirmed this point when all TTS teachers claimed their students writing to be average while Mentouri University teachers' responses were divided on three levels from the highest to the lowest percentage; average, weak, and very weak.

Theoretically speaking, and with reference to the teachers' comments that we recorded in the pilot study before conducting the main study, students who read a lot and who have developed good reading skills tend to produce well written pieces and their writing level reflects their reading as well. On that basis, we have compared the TTS students' scores in Reading Techniques and Written Expression. The statistical procedure followed in their analysis has revealed that transfer from reading to writing occurs in a satisfactory image. This has led to a conclusion that the TTS students' level in reading was approximate to their writing level since the majority of the students exhibited nearly the same level in both subjects especially those ranked in the 11 to 15 category which comprised the highest percentage of scores (55.72%).

Question Five

What are the teachers' perspectives concerning the amalgamation of reading in teaching writing both in the Teachers' Training School and Mentouri University English departments?

It has been made clear through the teachers' questionnaire that all the respondents agree on the importance of reading in promoting students' writing skills. To say it clearly, nearly all of them believe that both skills are interconnected and one should not go without

the other especially that reading is the best source available for comprehensible written input in our classrooms. Both the teachers and the students surveyed have also expressed the importance of reading in the language register which creates their major pitfall while a writing task. Moreover, the time allocated for writing in the second year schedule did not seem to be satisfying for the majority of the teachers who declared that they often integrate reading in their writing classrooms as a personal designation. These teachers' belief that reading informs writing and their determination to implement it has consequently led them to time inconsistencies. They suggested giving sufficient time for the writing class in order to allow them to use useful reading materials and work on the production of similar types of texts. Further, they have also recommended a Reading Techniques subject in the English department of Mentouri University where reading is to be practised thoroughly in addition to its amalgamation in the writing program as integrated reading-writing instructions.

The teachers' orientation towards this issue shows that they are au courant of the latest research findings and pedagogical recommendations in the field of language skills' teaching. However, we recorded some of the teachers' responses which deny the implementation of reading in their writing courses, or if found, it is rarely applied. This disparity could be attributed to the fact that the teachers are not bound with a specific reading-writing program to follow as well as the time constraints and the classroom size (mainly for Mentouri University where the number of students may reach sixty students per class).

Ideally speaking, in the LMD (License, Master, and Doctorate) system, the student is the center of the teaching situation. To achieve this requirement, small classes for more effective discussions are advised. In our immediate level, and with the increasing numbers of new bachelors every year, especially those interested in studying English, this requirement could not be achieved (at least for the time being). Hence, even if the teachers' theoretical beliefs are in favor of the incorporation of reading in a writing course or teaching both skills together in an integrated course to

assure mutual advantages, they actually find themselves in front of some obstacles hampering them from putting in practice these useful pedagogical implications.

8.2. Pedagogical Implications

8.2.1. Implications for Teaching

In the light of the literature review and the empirical results displayed through the various chapters of the present study, some pedagogical implications concerning the teaching of reading and writing are to be put along the following lines:

8.2.1.1. On the Place of Reading in a Writing Program

Many researches in the field of reading-writing connections recommend reading as the first and foremost language element which can serve as comprehensible input for writing activities. Providing reading models in a writing class is said to be of an inspirational value to the students in terms of presenting them to new ideas and giving them something to write about (Eisterhold, 1990; Parodi, 2007), as well as practicing particular types of writing.

In our department, all the teachers who responded to the questionnaire reported that they follow both the process and product approaches trying to interweave their principles and advantages in the teaching of writing. Initially, the focus of the process approach is on the act of writing and the development of the cognitive processes along with the different stages of the process. For instance, in the first phase of the writing process; planning, the student is confronted with a rhetorical problem to solve which needs first certain background knowledge for generating ideas. This background knowledge can be taken from different sources such as information given by the teacher, heard in media, or read in books or any other reading materials. One implication here lies in the notion of information transfer from one modality to

another, in our case from reading to writing. In fact, reading materials are not only a source of ideas, but also techniques and strategies of writing. By observing and reading the material critically, students will develop a sense of analytic reading which will be used in revising their first writing drafts before handing them to the teacher. The teacher's role during the process of writing with reading models is to trigger their attention to the different writing techniques and essentials such as how the text is organized and how the link words are applied to achieve coherence. This will offer the students a plan for writing and organizing their information as well as reducing the time of feedback at the end of the activity since most students' difficulties were simplified within the reading model analysis. Accordingly, the correction of the final products will be grounded on the previously explained features of writing related to the model text and the students will have a vivid environment for discussion.

Another important recommendation to state here is to leave a space for the students to read each others' productions and evaluate them (peer-evaluation) at the end of the activity as a kind of engagement in the feedback section. By doing so, the students will put themselves in their teacher's shoes; read the written productions critically and sometimes score them. This will raise their awareness of their errors while or after writing in addition to reducing their anxiety and fear of the teacher's response.

8.2.1.2. On the Effectiveness of Reading in Repairing Writing Pitfalls

The present research has revealed the importance of reading in fixing many writing problems. Following are some implications on the effectiveness of reading as a remedial for writing difficulties:

- Vocabulary has been denoted by both the teachers and the students involved in this study as the most problematic issue of writing. Insufficient language register, in fact, results in

poor, less informative, and very simple pieces of writing. It is true that vocabulary cannot be taught like grammar rules or writing techniques, yet the best way for teaching vocabulary, according to many researchers, is to teach the items in their natural context; the reading texts. Teachers are to provide appropriate activities for teaching new vocabulary items along with the reading-writing tasks. The selected reading material should be a little beyond the actual level of the students as put by Krashen (1982) ($i+1$) where “ i ” represents language at the students’ current level.

- Reading should also be incorporated in teaching grammar rules. By intensive reading, the students will meet different language patterns, and when exposed to the grammatical patterns constantly, they will internalize them either consciously or unconsciously. As for the inductive method of teaching grammar which emphasizes the use of language for better acquisition and where the rules are drawn from practice, the teacher provides some sentences or extracts from reading texts for analysis and rule derivation.
- The problem of misspelled words in students’ writing is often embarrassing them especially when it is not related to their inattention or rush while writing. Sometimes the students get confused of some utterances like “which” and “witch” and the teacher’s feedback cannot not always repair this type of errors since the English language conventions are not bound with specific rules to learn. Hence, extensive reading which serves as a reservoir for writing could be a suitable environment for acquiring the English language morphological system properly.
- Most importantly, correct use of the writing techniques such as accurate topic sentences, well-organized paragraphs and compositions, punctuation, coherence, and so on can be achieved through practicing reading and analyzing model text while presenting the

specified writing technique. It is a matter of fact that our students accuse grammar rules for being motionless and so are the writing techniques if presented in the form of rules to be memorized. Accordingly, a more vivid environment of teaching these techniques is required and reading models may serve the case.

- As far as the findings of the questionnaire analysis are concerned, many students reported that they often use their critical eye while reading. This provides the students with training for depicting their own errors while reading their productions for revision. Therefore, critical reading, if used effectively, helps the students in correcting their errors by themselves before handing out their compositions to the teacher.
- Last but not least, the findings of this research have also uncovered the importance of using authentic materials as reading models in order to provide the students with the natural language and train them on the natural production of this language. This, in turn, will help them overcome some difficulties in their writing such as mother tongue interference and the incapability of thinking in the target language.

8.2.1.3. On the Relation between Attitudes and Reading/Writing Achievement

Students' attitudes towards reading and writing can be either constructive or destructive. If the students like reading, they are likely to give more attention and practise to this skill. In a survey of the literature on the factors influencing reading attitudes, Petscher (2010) mentioned instruction, cognitive skills, and time as important factors shaping students' attitudes towards reading. Starting from these three points, we can say that the teacher's role is very crucial in developing positive attitudes in his/her students. To say it clearly, the

teacher's effective instruction and choice of activities is as important as the act of reading itself in developing this skill. When the teacher considers the students' needs and preferences and tries to bridge the gap between motionless instruction and motivating reading materials, students' interest and attention are to be raised, and thus positive reading attitudes will be improved.

Naturally, not all the students have the same cognitive abilities which are clearly shown in their achievements. The students' failure in their early reading experiences is said to be a destructive factor in that some students tend to generate their previous reading achievements to any new reading experience. Nonetheless, recent studies have shifted from the cognitive skill profiles to the motivational components (McKenna et al., 2012) which proved to be of great help in promoting not only the cognitive profiles but also reading comprehension and achievement. Additionally, students' reading attitudes can be developed gradually and more time should be spent on promoting positive reading attitudes which, in turn, will lead them to seek more reading opportunities to work on their reading skills.

Similarly, students' negative attitudes towards writing can affect the quality of their written productions. Many students who have been through bad experiences with writing achievement, especially in their early learning stages, are more likely to develop negative attitudes towards their future achievements. A possible suggestion in this case is for the teachers to vary their assessment methods in order to give the students more chances of fair evaluation. For instance, the teacher may be more explicit and less negative in the written feedback on the student's paper so as to put the student's finger right on what should be done as well as raising in them a sense of positiveness towards their achievements. Moreover, and as detailed in chapter three of the current study, peer and self-evaluations have been proved effective in promoting students' written achievement, in that in these two types of evaluation,

they will notice their peers' errors as well as theirs while reading critically. This will help them become more sensitive towards the different errors while writing.

The mostly used teaching approach by the teachers surveyed in this study, the process-product approach, seems also to be of a motivational value. The teacher follows the process and provides his assistance whenever needed. This will put the students at ease and create an environment of confidence that the teacher will facilitate any writing issue until the final product is ready for correction. Besides, the fact that errors are not emphasized during the writing process lowers the students' fear and anxiety, and thus their first focus will be put on the act of writing until the last phase which allows for revising the final piece. Hence, the process-product approach is another means for developing students' positive attitudes towards writing.

8.2.1.4. On the Significance of Teaching Reading and Writing in Tandem

Historically speaking, and before the emergence of causal relationships theories, reading and writing were considered as simply behavioral responses and separate acts claiming that the former is a receptive skill while the latter is a productive one. Accordingly, no attempt at linking both skills' instructions was made before the 80's. Recently, and with the growing number of studies in the field, there appears a large body of literature on the interrelation of reading and writing and that each skill may inform the other. Three hypotheses were put on the direction of transfer between both skills; the directional hypothesis (reading is a source of information in writing), the nondirectional hypothesis (writing abilities develop alongside reading abilities), and the bidirectional hypothesis (reading and writing are integrated processes with multiple relations varying at different stages of skill development). In this paper, we have emphasized the first hypothesis so as to stress the need for the

implementation of a reading course in the English department of Mentouri University. However, the second and the third models indicate that reading and writing need to be taught together for the sake of enriching both skills and developing them at a similar rate.

In view of that, an integrated course of reading and writing would be recommended in any teaching situation not to emphasize one skill at the expense of the other. Hence, reading should take its prominent place in the said department and the teachers of writing or reading both are responsible of orchestrating suitable activities for integration in their classrooms.

8.2.2. Implications for Further Research

The present study was based on some research questions basically targeting the effectiveness of integrating reading in the curriculum of second year. The study examined the case of second year students at the English department of the Teachers' Training School who had reading and writing as two important subject matters and the same grade students at the English department of Mentouri University who, conversely, had to undergo a sole writing course and were deprived of a reading subject.

The results obtained from the data analysis and discussion of the research findings have revealed that the TTS students were fortunate to have developed both skills in nearly equal degrees as their reading and writing scores appear to have a high correlational degree. Moreover, the comparison of writing scores for both groups has demonstrated that TTS students' written performance was somehow better in quality than Mentouri University students. This also confirms the teachers' first claims in the pilot study that the writing level in the TTS is higher than in Mentouri University. Similar research can consider an experimental and a control group where the treatment is implemented by the teacher researcher who may design two separate courses for reading and writing, specify the areas of

interconnection to be measured, and then compare the writing outcomes of the control group, who had a writing course only, and the experimental group, who has been through both courses.

It is worth mentioning here that the first objective of this study was to teach writing to at least two groups from both institutes in order to observe and compare the students' abilities directly and analyze the students' written productions in terms of what has been taught. Unfortunately, the researcher could not have this chance and managed to teach only in the English department of Mentouri University where an official reading program is absent. Future research may be conducted at the level of both institutes comparing the students' readiness to transfer particular writing features from the reading materials they have in the Reading Techniques course taught by the same teacher of writing (the teacher researcher) and at the same time examining the occurrence of these features in the control group who only studies the writing course.

Another possible area for future research could be concerned with the relation of students' reading attitudes and their achievement in writing. In this respect, students could be provided with a set of enthusiastic and tedious reading materials as model for writing activities. Next, a comparison of the results of both types' productions can be analyzed to examine using which reading models students could write better.

This research has adopted the reading-to-writing direction of transferability following the directional hypothesis which was explained in chapter four of the present study. Future research may tackle the inverse direction, writing-to-reading, or the area of research may be widened to adopt the bidirectional hypothesis and investigate the degree of transferability between both skills, in other words, how reading informs writing and how writing informs

reading and the impact of the integration of both skills together in a single course on their development.

8.2.3. Limitations of the Study

Stemming from our belief that no research is far-fetched from shortcomings, we should acknowledge here that this research, too, is not without its limitations. The first limitation to state is that it does not investigate the degree of transfer of specific reading and writing features in both groups' performances; the analysis was restricted to the overall performance in the exams. Second, the comparison of scores between Reading Techniques and Written Expression at the level of the TTS does not consider the difference in the methods of assessment used to evaluate both subject matters, nor does it consider the diversity of teachers' perceptions in giving scores to written productions. Nonetheless, we also believe that the reliability of the data collection and analysis contributes to some extent in providing the teaching community with objective general results on the importance of incorporating reading in a writing program. Accordingly, this research needs to be completed by other future explorations for more specified analysis and results.

Conclusion

Through this chapter and based on what has been investigated in the literature survey and the empirical evidence displayed in chapters six and seven, we answered the research questions posed at the very first introduction of this thesis. We also suggested some recommendations for teaching concerning the place of reading in the writing course, the effectiveness of reading in repairing students' writing pitfalls, the relation between attitudes and reading/writing achievement, as well as the necessity of teaching reading and writing together in an integrated curriculum. Further, this research opens itself for more areas of

future investigations as the two language skills examined in this study share the same importance in the teaching of EFL and more emphasis should be given to their development for the sake of achieving the main purpose of the dominant language teaching method (CLT) which is effective communication.

General Conclusion

This research has been carried out to explore a more appropriate methodology for teaching EFL writing which is to use reading for the betterment of students' writing outcomes. Initially, the absence of an official reading program in the department of foreign languages at Mentouri University has been the starting point of this investigation. Most of our students do not seem to undertake any reading activity unless assigned by the teacher and this absence of formal reading instruction has made them more hesitant readers. Through this research, we aimed at collecting data from different sources (quantitative and qualitative data) in order to compare the written performance of Mentouri University students who are deprived of a reading program and the Teachers' Training School students who have been engaged in a reading course since their first year at the school. This procedure's main objective was to discover the effectiveness of incorporating reading in the teaching curriculum of the TTS and recommend an immediate reform in the department of our concern (the English department of Mentouri University).

Before embarking in the empirical analysis of data and hypothesis testing, this paper provides some theoretical concepts based on which the study has been executed. The literature survey tackles the variables of this research (the reading and writing skills) in a thorough presentation of their nature, definition, acquisition, and types. The first theoretical chapter introduces reading in terms of its component skills and process, theories of second language reading, attitudes, purposes, and strategies of reading. The second chapter, in its turn, moves around the writing process, essentials for good writing, and types of writing. The importance of the written achievement in communicating the language in addition to its vital place in the current research made it necessary to add another chapter dealing with the

methods of teaching and types of assessing written productions since these two aspects enclose several types. The last chapter of the literature review is directly related to the research ultimate aim; the connection of reading and writing. A historical overview of the perception of both skills together in the light of field researches is provided along with the different hypotheses underlying the connection. Moreover, the value of connecting reading to writing is demonstrated with some instructional principles and applications for successful integration task.

The field investigation has been established through various stages. First, an introductory part to the methodological concepts used in this paper is displayed in chapter five. Chapter six deals with the empirical analysis and comparison of the TTS and Mentouri University students' scores in Written Expression to determine which group performed better. Besides, an additional comparison of the TTS students' scores in Reading Techniques and Written Expression which has been carried out to prove that students who perform well in reading do similarly in writing and those with poor achievement in the first are likely to perform equally in the last. Next, the teachers' and students' questionnaire have been analyzed and discussed in chapter seven to give more accurate explanation for the results obtained in chapter six. The last chapter summarizes the research findings and provides answers to the research answers posed in the general introduction of the current thesis. In addition, some pedagogical recommendations and suggestions for further research are also delineated at the end of this chapter.

The findings of the empirical analysis support the research hypothesis that TTS students' written performance is higher than Mentouri University students and that the incorporation of an official reading program along with a writing course results in similar level of performance between Reading Techniques and Written Expression in the case of TTS

students. Originally, when there is a logical correspondence between the students' scores in two subjects, there is a reasonable assumption that transfer exists between both subjects. The findings of the teachers' and students' questionnaires give support to this claim and maintain that reading is indispensable for successful writing stressing the necessity for an integrated reading-writing program not only the incorporation of a reading subject in the curriculum of second year at the English department of Mentouri University.

Finally, after answering the research questions as a first step in the concluding chapter (chapter eight), some pedagogical implications for teaching and further research have been articulated. The pedagogical guidelines have been presented according to some fundamental aspects discussed throughout this paper. First, the place of reading in a writing program has been emphasized. Next, the pedagogical committee's attention has been drawn towards the effectiveness of reading in repairing students' writing pitfalls in addition to the importance of considering students' reading and writing attitudes and their impact on their achievements. Last but not least, the significance of teaching reading and writing in tandem has been highlighted and extremely recommended in any teaching situation. Furthermore, this paper has been concluded with some suggestions for more areas of investigation in relation to the current research.

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Appendix A: Student Questionnaire

Dear students, you are kindly requested to fill in the present questionnaire which is a part of a research work on the effect of reading on writing and how reading interferes in the students' written products. Thank you for your collaboration.

Reading :

1- Do you like reading at all?

- Yes No Indifferent

2- Do you understand what the text is about (general idea)?

- Very often often rarely never

3- Do you find it difficult to answer comprehension questions related to the text you read?

- Very often often rarely never

4- Where do you find difficulties while reading?

- meaning structure style vocabulary others

(specify)

5- What strategy do you find yourself relaxed at?

- reading silently reading aloud

6- Please, explain why.

.....

.....

7- Do you find the texts you tackle in the classroom of any interest to you?

- Very often often rarely never

8- When do you find yourself motivated to read?

- reading for pleasure attractive style topics related to your field of study

9- Do you practice more reading at home in order to improve your reading skills?

- Very often often rarely never

10- How often do you apply reading strategies (skimming, scanning, etc)?

- Very often often rarely never

11- How would you estimate your level in reading?

- excellent good average weak very weak

Writing

12- Do you notice any problems or stuck points in your writing?

- yes no sometimes

13- Where do you see your severe problems in writing?

- vocabulary grammar spelling writing techniques others (specify)

.....

14- Can you figure out what these problems are due to?

.....

.....

15- Do you consider, before or while writing, the reaction of your reader(s) towards what you have written? yes no

16- Do you prefer? controlled tasks free tasks

17- Pre-writing, drafting, revising, and editing are stages of writing, do you follow.....?

- all of them most of them none of them

18- In your opinion, how would you overcome these problems and improve your writing?

- through practice through reading others (specify)

.....

19- How would you estimate your level in writing?

- excellent good average weak very weak

Reading-writing integration:

20- “I am often inspired by what I read”. Do you agree?

- strongly agree agree disagrees strongly disagree

21- Do you use structures or styles of the readings you had in the literature class?

- Very often often rarely never

22- Do you use your critical eye while reading and analyze the writers’ techniques and style?

- Very often often rarely never

23- “Good readers are good writers”. Do you agree?

- strongly agree agree disagrees strongly disagree

24- Do you think that developing the reading skills may have a positive impact on the writing skills?

- yes no

Appendix B: Reading Techniques Teacher Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is a part of a research work on the effect of reading on writing and how reading interferes in the students' written products. We would be so grateful if you could fill in the present questionnaire. Your valuable input will be of a great help and importance for reaching the aim of our study.

Thank you, in advance, for your time and collaboration.

Section One: General Information

1. Degree(s) held:

BA MA (Master/Magister) PhD

2. How long have you been teaching Reading Techniques? years.

Section Two: Reading

3. Do you think that reading is?

a- an active process

b- a passive process

4. Please justify your answer.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

5. Do you use comprehension questions after reading every text?

a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

6. What aspect do you emphasize most when presenting a model text?

a- meaning (context) b- structure c- style

7. New vocabulary teaching takes a substantial part in your lesson plan.

a- strongly agree b- agree c- disagree d- strongly

disagree

8. What strategy do you opt for to present the reading text?

a- reading aloud b- reading silently c- both

9. Please, explain your choice.

.....
.....
.....
.....

10. Do you devote time to extended silent reading in every class session?

a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

11. When selecting the reading material, do you take into account.....?

a- students' needs b- students preferences c- both d-

others

(specify).....
.....

12. Do you believe at-home readings help students improve their reading skills?

a- Yes b- No

13. How often do you assign at-home readings?

- a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

14. Do you feel your students are motivated to read?

- a- Yes b- No

15. If 'No', what do you use as incentives to make them read?

.....
.....
.....
.....

16. How often do you use authentic texts in your classroom?

- a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

17. How would you describe your students in reading?

- a- avid readers b- reluctant readers c- indifferent

18. How would you estimate their level in reading?

- a- Excellent b- Good c- Average d- Weak e- Very weak

Section Three: The Reading- Writing Connection

19. While writing, students are inspired by what they read. Do you agree?

- a- strongly agree b- agree c- disagree d- strongly

disagree

20. Would you draw a clear-cut boundary between reading and writing?

a- Yes b- No

21. If 'No', to what extent do you think reading and writing overlap?

a- a lot b- average c- a little

22. Do you collaborate with teachers of Written Expression in order to unveil and treat students' weaknesses in writing?

a- Yes b- No

23. If 'Yes', how often?

a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

24. Do you refer to some writing techniques during the session of reading?

a- Yes b- No

25. Do your students apply what they learn about reading techniques in their writings?

a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

26. Do your students use structures or styles of readings they had in the literature class?

a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

27. "Good readers are good writers".

a- strongly agree b- agree c- disagree d- strongly

disagree

28. Do you have any other suggestions related to reading and writing connection?

.....
.....
.....

Thank you for your precious collaboration.

Appendix C: Written Expression Teacher Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is a part of a research work on the effect of reading on writing and how reading interferes in the students' written products. We would be so grateful if you could fill in the present questionnaire. Your valuable input will be of a great help and importance for reaching the aim of our study.

Thank you, in advance, for your time and collaboration.

Section One: General Information

1. Degree(s) held:

BA MA (Master/Magister) PhD

2. How long have you been teaching Written Expression? years.

Section Two: Writing

3. Do you think the amount of time devoted for Written Expression is enough to develop your students' ability? a- Yes b- No

4. What teaching approach do you go for?

a- product approach b- process approach d- both product and process

5. Please explain the reasons behind your choice.

.....
.....
.....

.....
.....

6. Do you practice more ... tasks?

- a- Controlled b- free

7. Do your students follow all the stages when involved in the act of writing (pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing)? a- Yes b- No

8. If 'No', what is/are the mostly followed stage(s)?

.....

9. Do you provide assistance to your students in any classroom writing task?

- a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

10. Where do you see your students' severe problems in writing?

- a- vocabulary b- grammar c- spelling d- writing techniques e- others
(specify).....
.....

11. How would you estimate your students' level in writing?

- a- Excellent b- Good c- Average d- Weak e- Very weak

12. Some teachers complain about poor writings in style and techniques. In your opinion, what is this poorness due to?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

13. In your opinion, how can we improve students' writing skills?

- a- through practice b- through reading c- other (specify)

.....
.....

14. In the second year Written Expression classes, do you devote a part of your session to reading?

- a- Yes b- No

15. If 'Yes', is it designed in the syllabus for ?

- a- One semester b- Both semesters

Section Three: The Reading- Writing Connection

16. While writing, students are inspired by what they read. Do you agree?

- a- strongly agree b- agree c- disagree d- strongly disagree

17. Would you draw a clear-cut boundary between reading and writing?

- a- Yes b- No

18. If 'No', to what extent do you think reading and writing overlap?

- a- a lot b- average c- a little

19. Do you collaborate with teachers of Reading Techniques or Literature in order to unveil and treat students' weaknesses in writing?

- a- Yes b- No

20. If 'Yes', how often?

- a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

21. Do you refer to some reading techniques during the session of writing?

- a- Yes b- No

22. Do your students transfer what they learn about reading techniques in their writings?

- a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

23. Do your students use structures or styles of readings they had in the literature class?

- a- very often b- often c- rarely d- never

24. "Good readers are good writers".

- a- strongly agree b- agree c- disagree d- strongly disagree

25. Do you have any other suggestions as to the relation between reading and writing?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you for your precious collaboration.

Appendix D: Students' Scores (Pilot Study)

TTS Students Scores	TTS scores Squared	Mentouri University Students' Scores	Mentouri University scores squared
14,5	210,25	14,5	210,25
15	225	5	25
11,5	132,25	14	196
8	64	7,5	56,25
13	169	12	144
11	121	3,5	12,25
9	81	8,5	72,25
8,5	72,25	13,5	182,25
13	169	6	36
6	36	12	144
$N_1 = 10$	$N_2 = 10$	$N_1 = 10$	$N_2 = 10$
$\Sigma X_1 = 109,5$	$\Sigma X_1^2 = 1279,75$	$\Sigma X_2 = 96,5$	$\Sigma X_2^2 = 1078,25$
Mean $\bar{X}_1 = 10,95$	Mean $\bar{X}_1^2 = 127,975$	Mean $\bar{X}_2 = 9,65$	Mean $\bar{X}_2^2 = 93,12$
Mode = 13	Mode = 169	Mode = 12	Mode = 144
Low score = 6	Low score $^2 = 36$	Low score = 3,5	Low score $^2 = 12,25$
High score = 15	High score $^2 = 225$	High score = 14,5	High score $^2 = 210,25$
$t = 3.65$	$df = 18$	$p = 0.05$	Critical value = 1.74

Appendix E: Students' Scores (Main Study)

TTS Students' Scores	TTS scores Squared	Mentouri University Students' Scores	Mentouri University students' scores squared
12	144	7	49
12	144	14	196
11	121	14,5	210,25
8	64	15	225
7	49	11,5	132,25
11	121	5,5	30,25
13	169	9	81
11,5	110,25	14,5	210,25
10	100	13	169
10	100	11	121
7	49	11	121
8	64	3	9
15	225	5,5	30,5
8	64	11	121
10	100	3,5	12,25
13	169	9	81
13	169	11,5	132,25
12,5	156,25	8	64
12,5	156,25	12	144
13	169	13,5	182,25
8	64	14	196
14	196	14,5	210,25
11	121	7	64
11	121	13,5	182,25
10,5	110,25	9,5	90,25
12,5	156,25	4,5	20,25
7	49	13	169
11,5	132,25	8,5	72,25
12,5	156,25	11,5	132,25
12,5	156,25	13,5	182,25
12,5	156,25	14	196
9	81	11	121
12	144	13,5	182,25
6	36	3,5	12,25
8	64	6	36
8,5	72,25	8,5	72,25
10	100	12	144
10	100	10	100

13	169	14,5	210,25
10	100	7,5	56,25
13	169	10,5	110,25
12	144	8	64
6	36	12,5	156,25
10	100	8,5	72,25
14	196	9	81
13,5	182,25	8,5	72,25
11	121	12	144
12,5	156,25	11,5	132,25
13	169	10	100
12	144	13,5	182,25
11	121	5	25
10	100	7,5	56,25
12	144	8	64
8	64	8	64
11	121	9	81
10	100	11,5	132,25
13,5	182,25	8	64
10,5	110,25	9	81
14	196	7	49
11	121	8	64
13	182,25	11	121
12,5	144	11	121
14	196	9	81
7	49	8	64
7	49	15	225
13	169	8	64
11	121	10	100
13,5	182,25	11	121
12	144	9	81
13	169	10	100
N=70	N=70	N=70	N=70
$\Sigma X_1 = 771$	$\Sigma X_1^2 = 8811$	$\Sigma X_2 = 700$	$\Sigma X_2^2 = 7643,25$
Mean $\bar{X}_1 = 11,01$	Mean $\bar{X}_1^2 = 125,87$	Mean $\bar{X}_2 = 10$	Mean $\bar{X}_2^2 = 109,18$
Mode = 13	Mode = 169	Mode = 8	Mode = 64
Low score = 6	Low score $^2 = 36$	Low score = 3	Low score $^2 = 9$
High score = 15	High score $^2 = 225$	High score = 15	High score $^2 = 225$

RÉSUMÉ

La lecture et l'écriture sont souvent considérées comme des compétences intégrées. Certains penseurs considèrent qu'ils devraient être enseignés dans un seul module, tandis que d'autres voient le contraire. Nous constatons dans l'Ecole Normale Supérieure qu'ils sont deux modules séparés; alors que dans l'Université des Frères Mentouri il n'y a pas de place pour la lecture. Donc, si la lecture est vraiment indispensable pour la maîtrise de l'écriture, nous sommes tentés de croire que nos étudiants sont handicapés parce qu'ils apprennent l'écriture sans la lecture. Cette étude vise premièrement à focaliser sur la relation et la façon d'interaction entre la lecture et l'écriture dans l'enseignement de l'anglais comme une langue étrangère. Deuxièmement, elle vise aussi à clarifier les différentes approches et méthodes d'enseignement et d'intégration de la lecture et l'écriture, ainsi que l'évaluation du développement de l'habileté d'écriture dans les étudiants de deuxième année des deux départements. Nous posons l'hypothèse suivante: si la lecture et l'écriture ont été enseignées en tant que compétences intégrées, la performance des élèves en écriture serait améliorée d'une manière significative. Pour tester notre hypothèse, nous avons choisi la méthode descriptive. Deux questionnaires doivent être remis aux étudiants et professeurs de l'Université des Frères Mentouri et l'ENS. En outre, les notes des étudiants doivent être calculées afin de trouver la relation entre l'enseignement des techniques de la lecture en même temps que l'expression écrite et le niveau d'écriture des étudiants en utilisant la comparaison des notes de l'Expression Ecrite de l'examen des étudiants des deux départements. L'étude dévoile une différence significative dans la performance des étudiants en écriture; Les étudiants de l'ENS ont été jugés meilleurs écrivains que les étudiants de l'université des Frères Mentouri. De plus, la comparaison des notes des Techniques de lecture et de l'Expression écrite confirme que les bons lecteurs sont de bons écrivains.

Mots-clés : Lecture, Ecriture, Intégration, Techniques de la lecture, Expression écrite, Performance en Ecriture.

المخلص:

يُعتقد في كثير من الأحيان أن القراءة والكتابة من المهارات المتكاملة كما يرى بعض المفكرين بضرورة تدريجهما في موضوع واحد، في حين يتجه آخرون إلى عكس ذلك. في سياق ذي صلة، نلاحظ أن في المدرسة العليا للأساتذة تدرس هاتان المهارتان في مادتين منفصلتين بينما في جامعة الإخوة منتوري ليس هناك مجال للقراءة. هذا الوضع يقودنا إلى الاعتقاد أنه إذا كانت القراءة لا غنى عنها فعلا لإتقان الكتابة فأنا نضيق قدرات طلابنا إذ أنهم يتعلمون الكتابة بدون القراءة. وتهدف هذه الدراسة أولاً إلى بحث العلاقة بين القراءة والكتابة وكيف تؤثر الأولى على الأخيرة في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. ثانياً، ترمي هذه الدراسة إلى تسليط الضوء على مختلف المناهج وطرق تدريس ودمج القراءة والكتابة وكذا تقييم وتطوير مهارة الكتابة لدى طلاب السنة الثانية في كل من القسمين محل البحث. لافترض أن تدريس القراءة والكتابة لمهارتين متكاملتين من شأنه أن يُعزز أداء الطلبة في الكتابة بشكل ملحوظ. لاختبار فرضيتنا، اخترنا المنهج الوصفي. يتم تسليم إستياريين لكل من الطلاب والأساتذة من جامعة الإخوة منتوري والمدرسة العليا للأساتذة. علاوة على ذلك، فإن نقاط طلبة كلا القسمين ستدرس و تتم مقارنتها لاستخلاص النتائج. وكشفت الدراسة عن اختلاف كبير في أداء الطلبة في الكتابة. لقد وجدنا أن طلاب المدرسة العليا للأساتذة أفضل من طلاب جامعة الإخوة منتوري. وعلاوة على ذلك، فإن المقارنة بين درجات مادتي تقنيات القراءة و التعبير الكتابي تؤكد القول الرائج بأن أحسن قراء هم أحسن كتاب.

الكلمات المفتاحية: القراءة- الكتابة- الدمج بين المهارات- تقنيات القراءة- التعبير الكتابي- الناتج الكتابي.