



University of Mentouri Bros. Constantine1
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language



N° order : 113/DS/2018
N°serie : 06/Ang/2018

**Modelling Strategy Use for Enhancing Coherence in
Foreign Language Writing
The Case of Second-year Students of English
at Laghouat University**

Thesis submitted to the Department of Letters and the English Language, University des Frères Mentouri, Constantine, in candidacy of Doctorate es-Sciences
In Linguistics and Applied Language Studies

Submitted by

Mrs. Souhila Korichi

Supervised by

Prof. Nacif Labeled

Board of Examiners

Chairperson	Prof. Riad Belouahem	Prof.	University of Constantine 1
Supervisor	Prof. Nacif Labeled	Prof.	University of Constantine 1
Examiner	Prof. Yousef Beghoul	Prof.	University of Constantine 1
Examiner	Prof. Nawel Abdelatif	Prof.	University of Setif 2
Examiner	Dr. Nadhir Kaouli	MC	University of Batna
Examiner	Dr. Saliha Chelli	MC	University of Biskra

2017-2018



University of Mentouri Bros. Constantine1
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language



**Modelling Strategy Use for Enhancing Coherence in
Foreign Language Writing
The Case of Second-year Students of English
at Laghouat University**

Thesis submitted to the Department of Letters and the English Language, University des Frères Mentouri, Constantine, in candidacy of Doctorate es-Sciences
In Linguistics and Applied Language Studies

Submitted by

Mrs. Souhila Korichi

Supervised by

Prof. Nacif Labeled

Board of Examiners

Chairperson	Prof. Riad Belouahem	Prof.	University of Constantine 1
Supervisor	Prof. Nacif Labeled	Prof.	University of Constantine 1
Examiner	Prof. Yousef Beghoul	Prof.	University of Constantine 1
Examiner	Prof. Nawel Abdelatif	Prof.	University of Setif 2
Examiner	Dr. Nadhir Kaouli	MC	University of Batna
Examiner	Dr. Saliha Chelli	MC	University of Biskra

2017-2018

Dedication

I dedicate this work to

-The memory of my mother,

-My father, a courageous man who has instilled within me the passion for learning that will be with me forever,

- My husband whose encouragement and care have been the most valuable in my life, and to my daughter who is the true joy and inspiration for every day of this project.

Acknowledgments

I confess that I could not do anything without insight and energy that Allah gave me.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Nacif Labeled for his continuous professional support and encouragement. With his guidance, mentorship, and endless patience, this thesis was made possible.

Thanks are owed to Prof. Ahmed Moumène, my former supervisor, whose comments were highly important and beneficial.

I wish to express my warm thanks to the committee members whose valuable insights and contributions will help increase my knowledge and improve the quality of this work.

I feel really indebted to all second-year students who dedicated a considerable amount of their time helping me complete this research.

My deepest gratitude should be to my father, Slimane, for his constant and immeasurable love. I owe him my well-being and my inspiration.

Thanks are due to my family members. Words are not enough to express my feelings of respect and sincere gratitude for their everlasting love, support and guidance.

Lastly, and most importantly, I thank my loving husband, Professor Mohammed Kouidri, who has set a good academic example for me. He has been by my side, sharing my hopes and dreams, always unwavering in his love and support for everything I do.

Abstract

This research aimed at exploring the effect of implementing a model-text based instruction in promoting EFL students' awareness of coherence and further improving their writing. It emphasised the importance of reading-writing connections, and suggested a remedial procedure that would help learners express themselves in better English. In order to explore the impact it is hypothesised that If second-year students at the Department of English at Laghouat University looked at finished pieces of writing (as models) and saw how ideas were constructed and developed, this would enhance their achievement of paragraph unity and connectedness in their written performance. To check the hypothesis, quantitative and qualitative methods were adopted. An experimental design, a questionnaire and follow-up questions were used. A sample of forty-six second-year university students of English at Laghouat University (Algeria) was randomly chosen. These students were divided into control and experimental groups of 23 students for each. Data were collected from in-class on an assigned topic on paragraph writing with comparison and contrast method of development. To compare the achievement of the two groups, a pre-test and a post-test were carried out. Students' compositions were rated and analysed by the teacher of writing using an analytic scoring rubric for coherence traits. The treatment was followed by follow-up questions with the Experimental Group members who were asked about their experiences, opinions and how they handled modelling strategy. The results demonstrated that the treatment group achieved significant progress, with post-test scores which were higher than both their pre-test scores and post-test scores of the Control Group. The researcher validates the hypothesis (H_1) and accepts that a model-based instruction has influenced positively EFL students' paragraph writing achievements.

List of Figures

Figure 1.1	Textuality Standards.....	12
Figure 1.2	Written Text Production Framework.....	27
Figure 1.3	Methods of Paragraph Development.....	31
Figure 2.1	Paragraph Common Transitions.....	73
Figure 2.2	Criterion-referenced Assessment Forms.....	87
Figure 3.1	The Writing Process Activities.....	111
Figure 3.2	Comparing Product, Process and Genre Approaches	124
Figure 3.3	Genre and Schemata by Swales	126
Figure 4.1	Procedure for Sample Selection.....	145
Figure 4.2	Components of the Writing Task.....	148
Figure 4.3.	Modelling Strategy Procedure.....	150
Figure 5.1	Groups' Statistics of Total Post-test Scores	222
Figure 5.2	Experimental Group and Control Group Post-test Total Scores in Paragraph Coherence.....	224
Figure 5.3	Pre-test and Post-test Total Scores of Paragraph Coherence of the Experimental Group.....	236

List of Tables

Table 4.1.	Pilot Students' Difficulty in Writing the Essay.....	133
Table 4.2.	Pilot Students' Proposals to Overcome Problems in Writing.....	133
Table 4.3.	The Pilot Study Analytic Scoring Rubric of Coherence 20 Marks.....	135
Table 4.4.	Pilot Study Experimental Group Members' Frequency in Achieving Traits of Coherence.....	137
Table 4.5.	Pilot Study Control Group Members' Frequency in Achieving Traits of Coherence	138
Table 4.6.	Elements from the Models Help in Writing Assignments.....	139
Table 4.7.	Respondents' Motivation to Write in English.....	154
Table 4.8.	Students' Frequency of Practising Writing in English.....	155
Table 4.9.	Students' Approach to English Writing Practice.....	156
Table 4.10.	Genres Enjoyed Most by Students in Writing.....	161
Table 4.11.	Respondents' Proposals of Writing Genres.....	164
Table 4.12.	Respondents' Self-evaluation of Writing Improvement.....	165
Table 4.13.	Control Group Proposed Methods for Improving Writing.....	166
Table 4.14.	Experimental Group Proposed Methods for Improving Writing.....	167
Table 4.15.	Students' Degree of Difficulty of Organisation Aspect.....	170
Table 4.16.	Students' Degree of Difficulty of Content Aspect.....	173
Table 4.17.	Students' Degree of Difficulty of Language Aspect.....	176
Table 4.18a.	Degree of Difficulty in Paragraph Global Coherence.....	179
Table 4.18b.	Degree of Difficulty in Paragraph Local Coherence.....	183
Table 5.1.	Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Form Aspect in Paragraph.....	192
Table 5. 2.	Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Topic Sentence Aspect in Paragraph.....	193
Table 5.3	Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Developing Sentences Aspect in Paragraph.....	195
Table 5.4	Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Concluding Sentence Rubric in Paragraph.....	196
Table 5.5	Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Thematic Progression Rubric in Paragraph.....	198
Table 5.6	Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Transition Use Rubric in Paragraph.....	199
Table 5.7	Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Referencing Rubric in Paragraph.....	200

Table 5.8	Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Repetition Rubric in Paragraph.....	201
Table 5.9	Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Synonyms' Use Rubric in Paragraph.....	203
Table 5.10	Groups' Statistics of Total Pre-test Scores.....	204
Table 5.11.	Total Scores of Coherence in Pre-test Paragraphs of the Control the Experimental Groups	205
Table 5.12	Groups' Pre-Test Total Statistics.....	206
Table 5.13	Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Form Aspect in Paragraph.....	209
Table 5.14	Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Topic Sentence Rubric in Paragraph	210
Table 5.15	Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Detailing Sentences in Paragraph.....	211
Table 5.16	Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Concluding Sentence Rubric in Paragraph.....	212
Table 5.17	Experimental Group and Control Group Post-test Scores of Thematic Progression Rubric in Paragraph.....	214
Table 5.18	Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Thematic Progression in Paragraph.....	215
Table 5.19	Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Transitions' Use Rubric in Paragraph.....	216
Table 5.20	Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Referencing Rubric in Paragraph.....	218
Table 5.21	Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Repetition Rubric in Paragraph.....	219
Table 5.22	Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Synonyms' Use Rubric in Paragraph.....	220
Table 5.23	Groups' Statistics of Total Post-test Scores.....	221
Table 5.24	Experimental Group and control Group Post-test Total Scores in Paragraph Coherence	223
Table 5.25	Groups' Post-test Total Statistics.....	224
Table 5.26	The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Form Rubric.....	226
Table 5.27	The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Topic Sentence Rubric.....	227
Table 5.28	The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Developing Sentences Rubric.....	228

Table 5.29	The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Concluding Sentence Rubric.....	239
Table 5.30	The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Thematic Progression Rubric.....	230
Table 5.31	The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Transition Use Rubric.....	231
Table 5.32	The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Referencing Rubric.....	232
Table 5.33	The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Repetition of Key Words Rubric.....	233
Table 5.34	The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Synonyms' l Rubric.....	234
Table 5.35	Pre-test and Post-test Total Scores of Paragraph Coherence of the Experimental Group.....	235
Table 5.36	Paired Samples Statistics of Experimental Group.....	237
Table 6.1	Transitions Commonly Used in the Experimental Group and the Control Group Post-test.....	251
Table 6.2	The Frequency of References Commonly Used in Groups' Post-test	256
Table 6.3	Experimental Group Value to Models' Use in Writing.....	269
Table 6.4	Experimental Group Selection to Sample Paragraphs.....	270
Table 6.5	Areas Noticed in Models Helpful to the Experimental Group in Writing Assignment.....	271
Table 6.6	Experimental Group Value of Tutor's Support during the Writing Task.....	274
Table 6.7	Tutor's Types of Support for the Experimental Group.....	275
Table 6.8	Experimental Group Comments on Models' Usefulness.....	276
Table 6.9.	Control Group Values to Models' Use in Writing.....	277
Table 6.10.	Areas of Models' Help to Control Group in Writing Assignment.....	278
Table 6.11.	Control Group Value of Tutor's Support during the Writing Task.....	281
Table 6.12.	Tutor's Types of Support for the Control Group.....	282

Acronyms

ALM	Audio Lingual Method
CP	Constant Progression
CR	Constructive Rhetoric
CR	Consciousness- raising
DHP	Derived Hyper-thematic Progression
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
ETS	Educational Testing Service for Scoring
EWP	Extended Writing Project
FL1	French Language
FL2	English Language
FSP	Functional Sentence Perspective
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LMD	Licence, Master, Doctorate
LR	Literature Review
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TBA	Task-based Approach
TP	Thematic Progression
TSA	Topical Structure Analysis
TWE	Test of Written English

List of Appendices

Appendix 1	Students' Questionnaire	311
Appendix 2	Experimental Group's Follow-up Questions on Modelling Strategy use.....	314
Appendix 3	Sample Paragraphs for the Main Study.....	315
Appendix 4	An Analytic Scoring Rubric (proposed by Hyland 2003).....	319
Appendix 5	Marking Scale for Essay Coherence Evaluation (Pilot Study).....	320
Appendix 6	Coherence Criterion-based Evaluation Scale (Pilot Study).....	321
Appendix 7	Marking Scale for Paragraph Coherence Evaluation (Main Study)..	322
Appendix 8	An Analytic Scoring Rubric of Paragraph Coherence (Main study).....	323
Appendix 9	Model-essays for Pilot Study.....	324
Appendix 10	Pre-test Groups' Total Statistics	328
Appendix 11	Post-test Groups' Total Statistics.....	329
Appendix 12	Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Comparison.....	330
Appendix 13	Samples of the Students' Written Paragraphs (Post-test).....	331

Table of Contents

Dedication.....	i
Acknowledgments.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
List of Figures.....	iv
List of Tables.....	v
Acronyms.....	viii
List of Appendices.....	ix
General Introduction.....	1

Chapter One Written Text Analysis

Introduction.....	10
1.1. Defining Text.....	10
1.2. Written Text Analysis.....	13
1.3. Features of Written Text.....	17
1.4. Written Text Analysis and Contrastive Rhetoric.....	21
1.5. Teaching Text Interpretation.....	23
1.5.1. Top-down and Bottom-up Text Processing.....	25
1.5.2. Types of Texts.....	27
1.5.3. Patterning in Text.....	35
1.5.4. Formal and Informal Text.....	37
1.6. The Elements of Good Writing.....	39
Conclusion	44

Chapter Two

Coherence in Writing: Background and Significance

Introduction.....	47
2.1. Defining Coherence.....	47
2.2. Coherence and Cohesion Interrelationships: Studies and Perspectives.....	58
2.3. Controversies in Teaching Coherence.....	65
2.4. Achieving Paragraph Coherence.....	70
2.5. Coherence Problems in EFL Writing.....	74
2.6. Assessing Coherence in EFL Writing.....	85
Conclusion.....	91

Chapter Three

Modelling Strategy in EFL Writing

Introduction.....	93
3.1. Modelling Strategy: Significance and Background.....	93
3.2. Model-texts and Authenticity.....	100
3.3. Approaches to Writing Instruction: Major Precursors.....	103
3.4. Reading-Writing Connections.....	113
3.5. Facilitating Modelling through Genre-based Approach to Writing.....	117
3.6. Textual Organisation in Genre Analysis	125
Conclusion.....	129

Chapter Four

The Experiment Procedure

Introduction.....	131
4.1. The Pilot Study.....	131
4.1.1. The Pilot Questionnaire.....	132
4.1.2. Pilot Study Procedure.....	134
4.1.3. Results of The Pilot Study.....	134

4.1.4. Analysis and Discussion of the Pilot Study Results	140
4.2. Context of the Main Study.....	141
4.3. Population and Sampling.....	144
4.4. Methodology and Tools of Research.....	145
4.4.1. The Pre-test.....	146
4.4.2. Conducting the Experiment.....	146
4.4.3. The Post-test.....	151
4.5. The Main Study Students' Questionnaire	151
4.5.1. Description of the Questionnaire.....	152
4.5.2. Analysis of the Questionnaire.....	152
Conclusion.....	187

Chapter Five

Pre-test and Post-test Data Presentation

Introduction.....	190
5.1. Description of the Pre-test.....	190
5.2. Administration of the Pre-test.....	191
5.3. Analysis of the Pre-test.....	191
5.4. Analysis of Post-test.....	207
5.4.1. Comparison of Coherence Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group and the Control Group	207
5.4.2. Groups' Statistics of Total Post-test Scores.....	220
5.4.3. The t-test Values between Post-tests of the Experimental and the Control Groups.....	224
5.5. Comparison of the Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores	225
Conclusion.....	237

Chapter Six
Data Discussion and Analysis

Introduction.....	240
6.1. Discussion of Coherence Rubrics in Students’ Writings.....	240
6.1.1 Discussion of Organisation Rubrics.....	240
6.1.2. Discussion of the Thematic Progression Rubric.....	246
6.1.3. Discussion of Transitions’ Use Rubric.....	249
6.1.4. Discussion of Referencing Rubric.....	253
6.1.5. Discussion of Repetition Rubric.....	257
6.1.6. Discussion of Synonyms Rubric.....	258
6.2. Discussion of Coherence Problems in Students’ Paragraphs.....	258
6.3. Discussion of Other Problems in Students’ Writings.....	264
6.4. Analysis of Post-experiment Questionnaire on Modelling Strategy Use.....	268
6.4.1. Analysis of Post-experiment Questionnaire to the Control group.....	268
6.4.2. Analysis of Post-experiment Questionnaire to the Experimental Group.....	277
Conclusion.....	283
General Conclusion and Recommendations.....	285
Bibliography	290
Appendices.....	310

General Introduction

General Introduction

Writing is one of the major courses required for university students learning English as a foreign language that is considered as a complex task to develop. Learners assert that they meet major difficulties when writing in English. On their part, teachers pinpoint the low level of their students' assessed written works. Most students argue that their difficulty in writing lies in expressing their ideas into an acceptable flow of clear, concise and well-connected sentences that are understood by the reader. In effect, students are in need for guidance towards achieving written communicative competence.

1. Statement of the Problem

The need for this study arises from the following reasons. First, many teachers of English at Laghouat University have noted that developing the writing skills seem to be more laborious and demanding for their students, notably producing a coherent piece of writing which has been considered as an enormous challenge. Second, while evaluating students' writing, it was noticed that most of them could not express themselves clearly in well-organised and coherent pieces written on their reflective teaching practices. This may be magnified by the fact that the rhetorical conventions of English texts—the structure, style, and organisation—often differ from the learners' first language. Third, students often complain about their modules' courses, tests and essay-writing exams they say they are not given any guidance or feedback.

This study attempts to reconsider what makes a piece of writing coherent, and determines whether there is a simple way to teach students to write coherently. Virtually, however, EFL teachers, in the Department of English at Laghouat University focus mostly on sentence level problems and try to correct the students' written compositions word by word. A priority is given to the importance of the reading-writing nexus that would

develop the students' skills involved in EFL writing from multiple model-sources. The teacher must consider both reading and writing as interactive processes involving the writer, the reader as well as the text, and offer specific strategies which students can easily understand and apply. If second-year students of English at Laghouat University considered finished pieces of writing (as models) and noticed how ideas are constructed and developed, this would enhance their achievement of paragraph unity and connectedness in their written performance.

2. Aim of the Study

This study incorporates the process and genre-based approaches into the teaching of extended writing tasks, viewing whether the written models given to students would be a helpful aid that complements the learner's ideas and helps produce effective writing. The purpose of such an inquiry is two-fold. One is to define the concepts of text, coherence, genre and modelling, and formulate the theories of these notions in multiple levels. The other is concerned with providing implications for English writing instructions. To fulfil the intended goal, EFL teachers should create a classroom setting that enables students to understand what makes a text coherent, and teach these students ways of improving their writing skills to reach proficiency/coherence in writing.

3. Background and Significance of the Study

Considerable space of research has been devoted to investigating both the problems and facilities that enhance the effectiveness of any text to foster communication and develop procedures for the teaching of the writing skill. Being a fundamental dimension in foreign language writing, coherence has been regarded as an important quality of effectiveness as well as a complex concept that is agreed to be difficult for researchers and teachers to study and teach (Bamburg. 1984; Richards. 1990; Roberts & Kreuz. 1993; Qaddumi. 1995; Lee. 2002; Aldera. 2016).

Focusing on macro-linguistic problems in English writing, Ahmed (2010) investigates cohesion and coherence problems that Egyptian student-teachers of English have when they write an English essay. To conduct his study, a mixed method research design was used including a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The findings reveal that students encounter serious problems in the cohesion and coherence of their essays.

Having a similar focus, Fareh (2014) attempts to identify and explain the macro-linguistic errors that Arab university freshmen and sophomores who are enrolled in different majors at the University of Sharjah, in Jordan, make in writing English essays. For the purpose of her study, five hundred written paragraphs and essays were collected from Academic English writing classes, where the focus of instruction was on developing reading and writing skills. The samples were either assignments that the students were asked to do at home or paragraphs and essays they wrote in class. In addition, the sample included 60 examination papers where students were asked to write essays. Her analysis revealed that Arab learners of English encounter major macro-linguistic problems in writing English essays, including coherence problems, cohesion problems, unawareness of logical relations between sentences, run-on sentences and poor paragraph development.

Of concern, Aldera's (2016) study analyses cohesion and coherence in chosen texts written by eight female advanced learners of Master Degree (M A) in the Department of English at Najran University, KSA. The study follows content analysis method. Results show that writing for these Arab students of English is still of great difficulty even at a relatively higher level of education. Their basic weakness is mainly in logical thought and organisational pattern. The rules of syntax, inter-sentence relations, cohesive devices and other advanced methods of composition are to be revised. It is also found that students are not aware of a clear-cut model of standard written English which they could follow and emulate. The study recommends that if transitions between sentences in a paragraph and between paragraphs in a composition are effectively used, paragraphs will be well-

structured and well written. Hence, it will be easy for learners to write long discourses if they maintain logical development, structural organisation, and satisfying conclusion.

As for the usefulness of model-texts in teaching writing, Sahebkhair's (2011) study aims at investigating the effect of model essays on EFL learners' noticing different aspects of language which are classified into four categories (lexicon, grammatical form, discourse and content). His study attempts to find out the effect of modelling of native speaker writing on developing accuracy and complexity of EFL learners' writing.

Thus, the present work casts some light on the role of coherence in text construction. The focus is on teaching students to manage the processes involved in a reading-writing task. It tries to look for how much students' written performance can be improved with reference to reading and analysing selected model paragraphs. This is done with a specific method of development which is comparison and contrast, in terms of exploring, discovering and generating what they want to write and how they want to go about it. The present study explores the efficiency of implementing modelling strategy to achieve coherence in paragraph-writing.

4. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The present study poses the following questions.

- 1.** Why do university students of English at Laghouat University encounter coherence problems in paragraph-writing which hinders their writing effectiveness?
- 2.** To what extent does a model-text based instruction in EFL writing classes help overcome the students' problems in achieving a coherent whole?
- 3.** In the model-texts, which of these areas is the focus of students: content and the logical progression of ideas, organisation or language use?

In the light of these questions, it can be hypothesised that if second-year students of English at Laghouat University were taught English through exposure to multiple written

paragraph models this would enhance their achievement of paragraph coherence and result in writing effectiveness.

5. Population and Sampling

To achieve the objectives of the study and to check the hypothesis, the researcher carries out an experiment. The sample of the study consists of two groups of second-year students out of four, majoring in English at the University of Laghouat, Algeria, during the academic year 2014-2015. The sample consists, then, of 46 students. The sample has been divided into an Experimental Group (N=23) to whom coherence is taught following the modelling strategy, and a Control Group (N=23) who are taught following the conventional teacher-based instruction.

6. Tools of Research

The researcher relies on three research instruments to maximise the accuracy of the data and the transferability of the results. These include: A pre-test, a post-test and a pre-experiment questionnaire devoted to the participants in both groups, in addition to a post-experiment questionnaire to measure the students' appreciation of the strategy used. With such a form, the study is a mixed-method research that crosses the quantitative-qualitative technique. The quantitative data includes students' ratings in pre-and post-tests, and the qualitative data includes students' written responses to the questionnaires' open-end questions on coherence achievement. Before the experiment, a pilot study has been carried out in which the researcher has used the same instruments except that the focus has been on essay-writing. The pilot study helps in getting a flavour of what the main experiment would be like.

For the main experiment, it is chunked into three phases corresponding to the ultimate aims of the study. In the first stage, the students in both groups are exposed to a pre-test through which they exhibit their writing skill. The pre-test is carried out to check the

students' paragraph-writing levels and abilities. In the second stage (intervention), the experiment is conducted through presenting two categories of courses about characteristics of comparison and contrast method of developing the paragraph in English. The first series was in the conventional way for the Control Group; while for the Experimental Group, it was through a model-based instruction. The third stage is the post-test for both groups which takes place after experimenting. Results are compared to measure the effectiveness of the strategy utilised to enhance coherence and effectiveness in writing.

To interpret the data collected, the researcher relies on the descriptive analysis techniques to interpret the frequencies of the tests scores. Statistically, the paired t-test sample procedures are used to compare the scores of both groups in pre-test and post-test. The scores are compared in terms of mean, p-value and t-value.

Due to the nature of the topic, the findings of the study apply to written performance under similar writing conditions. Thus, some limitations are to be considered. First, the study is based on compositions written by a particular group of Algerian EFL learners, at a particular university. The findings may not be applicable to other groups of EFL learners. Second, the study involves only a small number of writing samples; more studies need to be conducted to make possible generalisations to the broader population of Algerian learners. Third, the study focuses on one element of textuality—coherence. The other standards are excluded, since each can be a topic for a separate research. Moreover, nothing of the language accuracy has been disregarded in the students' paragraphs, and the research merely concentrated on coherence features including organisation. Finally, the study involves only one evaluator (teacher) for evaluating the students' written papers. More evaluators would help validate the findings and make more generalisations possible.

7. Structure of the Study

This thesis is of six chapters. The first three chapters are devoted to the literature review for the theoretical platform. The other three chapters are for the experiment presentation and data analysis. Chapter One highlights a scholarly set of concepts on the written text analysis. It traces out a thorough description of the notion 'text', and its various types and functions. The chapter is terminated by a description of written texts' interpretation and organisation. Chapter Two is an overview of the theoretical synthesis to define the construct of coherence. This chapter provides a discussion of the major linguistic features as well as the various linguistic perspectives from which cohesion and coherence are viewed. Chapter Three explores the challenges that EFL university students deal with when they are expected to complete writing assignments that involve source material. Chapter Four starts the practical part of the dissertation. It gives detailed information and description of the sample involved in the study, procedures undertaken to collect data and the measuring tools utilised. This chapter also presents the results obtained from piloting as well as the main study questionnaire. Chapter Five presents the results obtained from the pre-test and the post-test. The results are tabulated, described and analysed using specific assessment tools. Finally, Chapter Six discusses the results obtained, identifies the areas which are difficult to achieve to the participants and examines the extent to which exposure to multiple written paragraph models on comparison and contrast would enhance coherence and effectiveness of their writing quality. This dissertation draws at the end the teachers' attention to some pedagogical implications and future research which are presented in the general conclusion.

Chapter One

Written Text Analysis

Introduction.....	10
1.1. Defining Text.....	10
1.2. Written Text Analysis.....	13
1.3. Features of Written Text.....	17
1.4. Written Text Analysis and Contrastive Rhetoric.....	21
1.5. Teaching Text Interpretation.....	23
1.5.1. Top-down and Bottom-up Text Processing.....	25
1.5.2. Types of Texts.....	27
1.5.3. Patterning in Text.....	35
1.5.4. Formal and Informal Text.....	37
1.6. The Elements of Good Writing.....	39
Conclusion	44

Chapter One

Written Text Analysis

Introduction

The study of structures of texts, cohesion and coherence and meta-textual features are put within the scope of text analysis and linguistics of texts. Text analysis has proved to bring to the forefront valuable considerations that may be of use in terms of the students' use of the target language. In this sense, it has given the teacher new tools with which to cater for students' needs and ensure to acquire the skills necessary for successful formal communication in writing. This chapter highlights a scholarly set of concepts on text analysis. First, a thorough description of the term 'text' is presented including examples of its various types and functions. Then, light is spot on how scholars have become interested in the ways of applying the theory of text analysis to teaching various aspects of language, emphasising the interpretation of written texts. Understanding these concepts should improve learners' writing skills as they would become aware of the traits essential for a good written text.

1.1. Defining a Text

Being important for analysis, a 'text' has been defined in various ways. To Halliday and Hasan (1976:2), a 'text' as a passage of English that contains more than one sentence is "SEMANTIC unit: a unit not of form but of meaning" (Authors' capitals). They take the view that a set of sentences constitute a text if cohesive relationships within and between the sentences exist, creating texture. They argue that "a text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text" (ibid). Van Dijk (1977:3), on his part, describes a text as 'the abstract theoretical construct underlying what is usually called a DISCOURSE' (Author's capitals), and discourse as a "sequence of utterances" which have

“textual structure”. Meanwhile, and in determining text and discourse, de Beaugrande (1980:1) sees texts as “meaningful configurations of language intended to communicate”, and discourse as “a set of different texts”.

Distinguishing between discourse and text, Edmondson (1981:3-5) considers the features (+-) as a useful factor of distinction. He argues that the text is a supra-sentential unit, but it does not represent use. On the other hand, the utterance represents use, but it is not a supra-sentential unit. Discourse, by contrast, is a supra-sentential unit and represents use. Consequently, Edmondson (ibid) distinguishes two approaches to analyse a stretch of language, and argues that:

A text is a structured sequence of linguistic expressions forming a unitary whole, and a discourse a structured event manifest in linguistic (and other) behaviour. There is no absolute option here; at issue are two different approaches to the analysis of supra-sentential stretches of language.

(p.04)

For communication by means of language to occur, then, Widdowson (1996: 38) asserts that it should involve the use of “linguistic rules” for meaning negotiation and extinction of shared conventional knowledge. He further refers to text as ‘the overt trace of an interaction, which can be used as a set of clues for reconstituting the discourse’. For him, ‘text’ can be recorded or transcribed and studied in detachment, and it is the source of evidence about the linguistic rules used in the mediation of meaning.

As a communicative occurrence, a written text needs seven criteria of textuality to be fulfilled. These are cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informality, situationality, and intertextuality. Add to these three relative principles of textual communication: efficiency, effectiveness, and appropriateness (de Beaugrande & Dressler. 1981; Renkema. 2004). This can be better illustrated in the following diagram.

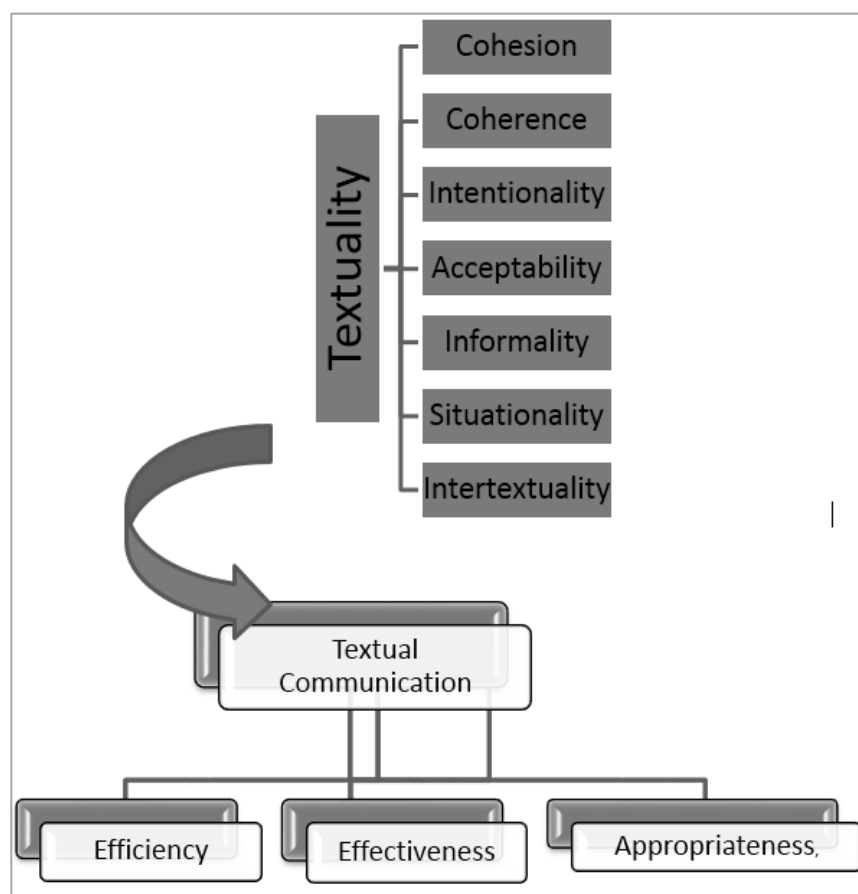


Figure 1.1 de Beaugrande & Dressler (1981) Textuality Standards

These standards can be explained briefly by de Beaugrande (1980) as follows:

- **Cohesion**- grammatical relationship between parts of a sentence essential for its Interpretation. It refers to the way in which ideas and meanings in the surface-level features of the text relate to each other using cohesive ties: reference, repetition, substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions (Halliday & Hasan. 1976).
- **Coherence**- the order of statements relates one another by sense. It is the reader's understanding of the text as a coherent entity.
- **Intentionality** - the message has to be conveyed deliberately and consciously
- **Acceptability** - indicates that the communicative product needs to be satisfactory in that the audience approves it.
- **Informativeness**- some new information has to be included in the discourse

- **Situationality**- circumstances in which the remark is made are important
- **Intertextuality**- reference to the world outside the text or the interpreters'

Schemata

Accordingly, during the operation of writing, the writer constantly has to select for the intended purpose, the best words, the most effective structure and the best way of organising the text to easily convey the intended meaning. These factors draw the analyst into a wider perspective which locates texts in a world of communicative purposes and social actions, identifying the ways that texts actually work as communication. It has also been settled that what is essential to be successful in language learning is interaction in written form. In addition, students' failures in communication which result in negotiation of meaning, requests for explanation or reorganisation of message contribute to language learning.

1.2. Written Text Analysis

Learning to write implies both an understanding of a range of conventions which have to do with accepted ways of organising thought and formulating intention, and an ability to give these conventions expression in the process of enacting a relationship between writer and reader, i.e. putting them into practice (Tribble. 2003). Practically, the objective of writing research is to move beyond simple dichotomies, as Grabe and Kaplan (1996) put it, and gain a better understanding of writing and writing development: the nature of coherent written text which is appropriate to the task, topic, genre and audience.

Written texts differ from one another not only in genre and function, but also in their structure and form, which is of primary importance to language teachers, as the knowledge of arrangement and variety of writing influences readers' understanding, memory of messages included in the text, as well as the speed of perception. Moreover, written texts' analysis provides teachers with systematic knowledge of the ways of describing texts.

Thanks to such an analysis, teachers can make their students aware of essential features of discourse to which the learners should pay particularly close attention, such as cohesion and coherence. In that type of analysis, scholars do not evaluate the content in terms of literary qualities, or grammatical appropriateness, but they do in terms of how readers can infer the message that the author intended to convey (Trappes-Lomax. 2004:133).

In effect, effective writers learn about their audience, which will be receptive to their ideas. Several important questions need to be asked. For example, to whom this piece of writing will be composed? What do the readers already know about the subject? Any number of factors could be important in determining how a writer chooses words and presents ideas. Thus, writing differs from one situation to another depending upon the addressee and the topic you are writing about. Widdowson (1996:44) assumes that “the students should know who he is meant to be addressing and why”. For example, if the readers are small children, the vocabulary and ideas of the piece will have to be age appropriate: simple words and plain style. On the other hand, if the readers are professionals who want to increase their knowledge in a certain field, the writer will be expected to know and use the terminology of that field (Scarry & Scarry. 2011).

One of the major concerns of written text analysts is the relation of neighbouring sentences and, in particular, factors attesting to the fact that a given text is more than only the sum of its components¹. It is only with written language analysis that certain features of communicative products are to be satisfactorily described, despite the fact that they are present also in speech, like for instance the use of 'that' to refer to a previous phrase, or clause (McCarthy. 1991:37). Thus, written language is achieved by more frequent use of some cohesive devices -which apart from linking clauses or sentences are also used to

¹ The idea of the whole is more than the sum of its parts was first introduced by the Gestalt Theory which was able to throw light on perceptual and cognitive learning by “demonstrating the subjective cognitive experiences of the learner with such concepts as ‘whole and part’, ‘integration and differentiation’, ‘figure and ground’, ‘field’, ‘structure’, and ‘organisation” (Stern. 1991, p. 307).

emphasise notions that are of particular importance to the author and enable the reader to process the chosen information at the same time omitting needless sections (Salkie. 1995: XI).

It is obviously possible to find various types and classes of text depending on their purposes. The examination of written language is easier to conduct since more data is available in different genres, produced by people from different backgrounds as well as with disparate purposes. It has been of core interest not only to linguists but also language teachers and literary scholars. Each of them, however, approaches this study in a different way, reaching diverse conclusions.

Most recent publications treat text linguistics as an analysis of written texts that extends beyond the sentence level considering the importance of the context. Hadley (1995), for instance, asserts that:

(..)What is missing is a larger model of what goes into successfully handling text itself. This larger framework where we find solutions to understanding and teaching text beyond the sentence level is called written discourse analysis.
(p. 33)

Widdowson (1978) asserts that the kind of investigation into formal structure of a piece of language might be called 'text analysis'. Its purpose is to discover the patterning of linguistic elements beyond the limits of the sentence. In other words, the distribution of linguistic elements in extended texts, and linking them with their contexts (McCarthy. 2001). However, and in the course of events, two terms came to be used in parallel fashion in different disciplines, in the late 1960s and through 1970s: text linguistics and discourse analysis. The first analysis focuses on written texts from a variety of fields and genres (sentences' linguistic and functional interconnection, texts' typology); on the other hand, the latter entails a more cognitive and social perspective on language use and communication exchanges, including both spoken and written discourse (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000:4).

In terms of written language, the work of text grammarians, such as Van Dijk (1972a), de Beaugrande (1980), as well as Halliday and Hasan (1976) have contributed a great deal to the analysis of written text (McCarthy. 1991:6). With written discourse/text, analysts focus their attention on the description and analysis of language beyond the sentence level and the contexts which affect language in use. They are concerned with “the principles of connectivity which bind a text together and force co-interpretation” (Brown & Yule. 1983:190).

The sociocultural component of text analysis has been the focus of de Beaugrande (1980), who argues that social conventions apply more to texts than sentences, and peoples’ social awareness applies more to occurrences than to grammatical rule systems. It is within this frame that inter-textuality is achieved; since it presumes relationships between a given text and other relevant texts which one has encountered in prior experience. The key concept in de Beaugrande’s theory is that a text occurs in communication (McCarthy. 2001:97). Moreover, Van Dijk’s contribution to the field of text analysis is substantial. Concerned with the cognitive processing of extended written texts, in his 1982 study, Van Dijk stresses the importance of viewing a theory of discourse, mainly local and global coherence, as an integration of several phenomena including opinions and attitudes.

Depending on the form, linguists distinguish various kinds of communicative products. It would seem clear that in terms of analysis, a sentence will be a more effective unit within written text, but in terms of written text analysis a paragraph or a longer section may prove to be more effective. Assuming that text of any kind can be fragmented into sections, understanding the meaning of text requires that the segments not only explain the purpose, but that they must be coherent to avoid misunderstanding the message. Millward (2005) explains that these segments must be signalled to ensure that different readers understand them as such. The use of cohesive devices, or clues in text can therefore serve

to send signals as to the fact that these sections are differentiated, and as to how this should be interpreted. Teachers, then, should help their students to edit their own texts, develop accuracy to master the most common academic text features, as well as to acquire the lexical and grammatical chunks most frequently used in academic writing.

1.3. Written Text Analysis and Contrastive Rhetoric

Most native English speakers become familiar with appropriate conventions through their long educational experience. However, this may not be assumed for non-native speakers, whose literacy skills were acquired in a different culture. In teaching English as a foreign language, students often come across the difficulty they encounter when reading or writing texts of different types, since they come from a cultural background with different coherence conventions from those in Western rhetorical tradition. In this respect, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 148) state that “problems of this sort are dealt with systematically in the subfield of written discourse/text called contrastive rhetoric”. Contrastive rhetoric, then, has been a paradigm for discussing foreign language composition for several decades.

Research in contrastive rhetoric (Silva. 1993; Connor. 1996; Grabe & Kaplan. 1996; Grabe. 2001; Shukri. 2014) hypothesises that rhetorical patterns could differ between languages and cultures. Students learning a foreign language may organise their paragraphs and essays using a pattern that could violate native readers’ expectations. In foreign language education, it is generally recognised that academic writing involves the use of elements of composition which are distinct from other forms of writing in English (Hyland. 1994; Gutierrez. 1995). When writing does not exhibit these features, it is negatively regarded as disorganised and incoherent (Hinds. 1990; Silva. 1997). Resolving the issue of rhetorical difference is of particular importance to the teaching of writing, since awareness of any variation is crucial to the development of communicative competence in language learners.

Contrastive rhetoric was initiated by studies in L2 writing, which identified problems in compositions of EFL students by comparing their thinking patterns with those of English rhetorical conventions (Connor. 2002). Differences were found in rhetorical conventions across cultures, which were identified as the causes that made EFL students' writing look different from the native perspective (Latief. 1990; Mustafa. 1990). Furthermore, Connor (2004a) has explained contrastive rhetoric as the examination of similarities and differences in writing across cultures.

The cultural differences in writing are manifested in two aspects: what is written and how it was written. Contrastive rhetoric, as a sub set of text linguistics, examines the dynamics of writing between different language systems and cultures. It studies rhetorical patterns in different cultures and languages, and investigates how two languages interact in the writer's production when the writer knows two or more languages. According to Purves (1988), rhetoric is the choice of linguistic and structural aspects of text to produce certain effects on readers as opposed to those that are determined by lexical and grammatical structures. Hence, genre, topic, and register of texts in these different languages should be controlled and compared. Moreover, Purves highlights a key overarching point: different cultural groups have different ways of using and perceiving written texts.

In relating culture to written text, it has been argued that Anglo-American academic conventions privilege deductive forms of text which should be direct, explicit and linear. That is, "it is organised according to time, space, or logic" (El-Aswad. 2002: 123), in which an argument is clearly stated at the beginning, sections are signalled explicitly, evidence is presented and counter-arguments refuted. The English language evolves out of a particular Anglo-European cultural pattern. The expected thought sequence is linear in its development (Hinkle. 2002).

In written communication in English, for example, the paragraph most of the time begins with a topic statement and then proceeds to develop that statement using examples and illustrations. The central idea is related to all other ideas in the whole essay, and, therefore, a good piece of writing is considered to be unified, with no superfluous information. A deductive pattern of topic introduction gives the main point first, and then develops the argument by providing details and reasons. The most important information is provided upfront; supporting information is given afterwards. This is the pattern preferred by Anglo-Americans in speaking and writing: the writer presents the main point first, and then adds the relevant supporting details (Hinds. 1990).

Noticeably, Arabic language can considerably influence Arab students' learning of English as a foreign language. Arab students, Algerian students are one case, tend to approach the foreign language (FL1 or even FL2) meanwhile they approach their native language. They rely on memorisation in their learning of foreign language when they write essays (Shukri. 2014). The influence of the native language manifests itself on the two major levels of language: first, at the level of word and sentence whose influence appears from the early stages of foreign language learning, second, at the level of discourse or text within which Arab students often make grave deviations from the norms of foreign language. These derivations are due to the major rhetorical and textual characteristics pertaining to Arabic and English languages (Latief. 1990; Mustafa. 1990; El-Aswad. 2002; Mohammed. 2003; Ramadan. 2003; Ahmed. 2010).

The study undertaken by Ramadan's (2003) resulted in the conclusion that most of the Jordanian students' written errors at the discourse level and their incompetency in the writing skill can be attributed to the rhetorical problems they encounter. Thus, the cultural and linguistic disparity that exists between the two languages will always leave traces of interference from both students' culture and native language. El-Aswad (2002) confirms this view considering Arabic language as 'a highly additive: extensive use of "wa" (and),

more “aggregative” than “analytic” by using more synonymous pairs of lexical items, and Arab students and writers tend to repeat lexical items rather than use ellipsis’ (122). This can be manifest in the way learners express themselves through the foreign language. Unavoidably, cultural behaviour interferes with linguistic behaviour of foreign language. This is not negative if the students are aware of the cultural differences between their mother tongue and the foreign language they study.

In short, rhetoric can be referred to as that dimension of language use and its analysis which is concerned with the effective and goal-oriented structural organisation of text in order to produce an intended effect on its receiver (listener or reader). Thus, rhetoric comprises the organisation of texts to accommodate any of these purposes, and focuses on the text as being embedded in a context of social interaction. Thus, it is clear from the analysis of written language that when people produce discourse they focus not only on the correctness of a single sentence, but also on the general outcome of their production (Connor. 1996; Cumming et al. 2005).

It is generally agreed that “an ideal written English text is a syntactically cohesive surface representation of a semantically coherent unit of sense” (Sa’Adeddin. 1989:37, Qtd in Latief. 1990: 61). Some insights into the nature of rhetorical coherence, then, are inevitable. The adequate approach to teaching foreign language writing should concentrate not on creating grammatically correct sentences only, but pay sufficient attention to regularities on more global level of discourse/text to achieve communicative purpose (Cook. 1989; McCarthy. 1991; Salkie. 1995). The goal of the teacher of English is to enable students to produce fluent, accurate and appropriate written English. For this end, there are a number of aspects or features that need to be considered.

1.4. Features of Written Text

In the field of text linguistics, researchers have typically categorised specific text features to compare groups of compositions judged to differ in quality or to represent different stages of learning or writing ability. According to Cumming (2001), there are examples of cross-sectional research designs (e.g. Laufer & Nation. 1995, Cumming & Mellow. 1996, and Grant & Ginther. 2000). Other researchers, Cumming adds, have studied the texts of particular learners as they progress in their writing over time in longitudinal research designs, e. g, Hood & Knightley 1991; Bardovi-Harlig 1997. Moreover, researchers in linguistics, according to Cumming, have examined the processes of composing and of social interaction that influence people's textual choices to understand why and how people may change their writing behaviours. Accordingly, considerable research has viewed writing improvement in terms of features of the texts that foreign-language learners produce.

In discussing writing features, Halliday (1989) highlights that writing displays a greater degree of lexical density. By lexical density, he is referring to the proportion of structure words (including items as: articles, pronouns, modal and auxiliary verbs, prepositions and certain verbs) to content words (an open category by which is meant that addition can be made). This means that information is more densely packed into writing than into speech (Harris 1993: 6). Furthermore, Widdowson (1996: 42) implies that:

[The written text] has to be tidy, correct and well formed (...). Accuracy, in this way, becomes a necessary condition for fluency.

Writing develops in space and it needs a means to carry the information. The author of the text does not often know who is going to read the text; as a result, he/she cannot adjust to readers' specific expectations. In this respect, Chakraverty and Gautum (2000: 01) define writing as “a reflective activity that requires enough time to think about the specific

topic and to analyse and classify any background knowledge. Then, writers need a suitable language to structure these ideas in the form of a coherent discourse”.

Syntactically, Abisamara (2001: 01) regards writing as “a process of natural generation of ideas with focus on meaning and communication that precedes concerns about form and grammar”. Furthermore, the reader might not instantly respond to the text, ask for clarification; hence, neat message organisation, division to paragraphs and layout are of vital importance to make comprehension easier. Raimes (1983: 3) posits that “how to communicate when the other person is not right there in front of us, listening to our words, and looking at our gestures and facial expressions”. The writer is frequently able to consider the content of his/her work for almost unlimited period of time which makes it more coherent, having a complex syntax. In this regard, Harmer (2001:256) displays:

A written text has a number of conventions. Apart from grammar and vocabulary, there are issues of letter word, and text formation manifested by handwriting, spelling, layout and punctuation.

Surprisingly, thus, as students learn to write in a foreign language, their written text displays more sophisticated and complex syntax and morphology. It contains a greater range of vocabulary and improved command over conventional rhetorical forms and over ways of signalling the relations. The ability to write well is not naturally acquired, but learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments (Burns & Sinfield. 2008).

1.5. Teaching Text Interpretation

Interpretation of a written text in text linguistics can be defined as the act of grasping the meaning that the communicative product is to convey. It is important to emphasise that clear understanding of writing is reliant on not only what the author puts in it, but also on what a particular reader brings to this process to negotiate meaning. Painstaking research

into schemata theory that refers to the generally accepted ways of organised ideas which provide a basis for the readers' expectations of how a text will be developed (Cook. 1989: 68-74) made it apparent that mere knowledge of the world is not always sufficient for successful discourse processing. Consequently, scholars in the field of text analysis redefined the concept of schemata dividing it into two: content and formal schemata. Content, as it refers to shared knowledge of the subject matter, and formal, because it denotes the knowledge of the structure and organisation of a text. Schemata are rhetorical constructions used to establish meaning relevant to a particular text.

A variety of approaches have tried to discover how writers organise language to produce coherent, purposeful prose. The early contribution of the 'Functional Sentence Perspective' (FSP) of the Prague School sought to describe how a text is structured to represent the assumptions about what is known (Firbas. 1986). This was taken up and elaborated in the work of Halliday's (1970) meta-functions of language, dealing with the concept of theme-rheme structure, which proves to help writers organise clauses into information units that push the communication forward through a text and make it easy for readers to follow (Halliday & Matthiessen. 2004).

A different strand of research has tried to identify the rhetorical functions of particular discourse units, examining what pieces of text are trying to do and how they fit into a larger structure. Winter (1977) and Hoey (1983), for example, distinguish several text patterns which they label problem-solution, hypothetical-real and general-particular. They show that even with no explicit signalling, readers are able to draw on their knowledge of recognisable text patterns to infer the connections between clauses, sentences or groups of sentences-some underlying principle of ordering which supports coherence. Similarly, Sperber and Wilson (1986) argue that readers construct meanings by comparing the information they find in a text with what they already know about the context to establish meanings that are relevant.

Noticeably, when readers interpret a text, they assume that the writer is being cooperative by thinking of what they need to know to fully understand what is going on. So, readers look for ways of interpreting what they read as relevant to the on-going discourse in some way (Hoey. 1983). Reading has been considered as "an interactive process in which the author's perspective, point of view, allusions or arguments are all interpreted through the reader's experiences, perspectives, cultural orientation and bases" (Barnett. 1989: 42).

In these theories, interpretation depends on the ability of readers to supply needed assumptions from memory, but the text itself also plays an important part in this process. Kramersch (1997) argues that the construction of meaning from texts is a rhetorical and not just a cognitive process, and proposes seven principles of text interpretation.

Principles of a rhetorical approach to text interpretation:

1. Texts both refer to a reality beyond themselves and a relationship to their readers.
2. The meaning of texts is inseparable from surrounding texts, whether footnotes, diagrams or conversations. Intertextuality refers to the extent our texts echo other texts.
3. Texts attempt to position readers in specific ways by evoking assumed shared schemata.
4. Schemata are created by relating one text or fact to another through logical links.
5. Schemata reflect the ways of thinking of particular communities or cultures.
6. Schemata are co-constructed by the writer in dialogue with others.
7. Schemata are rhetorical constructions, representing the choices from other potential meanings.

Kramersch (1997:51–2)

Thus, readers attempt to interpret texts by evoking assumed shared schemata which reflect the ways of thinking of particular communities. These schemata represent the reader's knowledge and pre-existing concepts about the text to be read which are stored in his/her memory. In other words, cultural knowledge interferes in the comprehension of

texts, and difficulty of understanding may arise if the text is beyond the reader's cultural setting (Mebarki. 2008). In this regard, Nuttall (2005: 20) explains that many writers go back to the text again and again, changing decisions to be more accurate or more elegant, simplifying things for the reader to help him/her in text interpretation. Thus, a text can be understood as a relatively self-contained unit of communication.

1.5.1. Top-down and Bottom-up Text Processing

Distinguishing noticeably different approaches to text processing may lead to the distinction of manners of attending to written communicative products. Apparently, Top-down and Bottom-up Text Processing have been identified. The first looks like 'building up a wall from the individual bricks', Scrivener (2011:257), which implies building up the messages from the individual small pieces or constituents. The second is associated with making use of what is already known to predict the structure and content of the text, getting an overall impression of the message.

Bottom-up processes are those which are involved in assimilating input from the smallest chunks of discourse: sounds in speech and letters in texts, afterwards moving to more and more general features. The combination of these small constituents result in the construction of whole sentences, which combine in their turn to form larger stretches of language (Chaouki. 2009). This technique is frequently applied by lower-level learners, who turn much attention to decoding particular words meanings, thus losing the more general idea- the meaning of a given piece of writing. In the same constructive way, learning a new language begins: first the alphabet, then words and short phrases, next simple sentences, finally elaborate compound sentences to reach paragraphs. While it is considered to be as a good way of making learners understand the language, a wider perspective is necessary to enable students to successfully produce comprehensible discourse (Cook. 1989, McCarthy. 1991, 2001; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000).

Alternatively, top-down processing starts with general features of a text, moving gradually to the narrower. This approach considers all levels of communicative products as a total unit whose elements work collectively. Not only does the information in a text enable readers to understand it, but it also has to be confronted with recipient's former knowledge and expectations which facilitate comprehension. Students instead of decoding every element, they attempt to situate the whole text at hand in its appropriate setting, bringing about those non-linguistic clues in their process of text interpretation and understanding (Chaouki. 2009).

It is important to make students aware of these two ways of dealing with written discourse and how they may be exploited depending on the task. When learners are to get acquainted with the main idea of a particular communicative product, they should take advantage of top-down approach; they should get the gist of the text by skimming it to have a broad understanding. In this respect, Chaouki (ibid: 24) asserts that:

Before getting students parse acts into isolated functions, it would be a much rewarding strategy to let them look at pieces of discourse, as one coherent piece of discourse, serving a communicative purpose.

However, when answering detailed true-false questions, they would benefit from bottom-up reading (Cook. 1989; McCarthy. 1991). Similar tasks include written activities where the students are asked to produce stretches of sentences of formal components similar to those accounted for and pointed out in a text they have read with the teacher many times and checked how sentences are constructed. It appears, then, that these two processes are liable to raise students' awareness to use language appropriately for a particular communicative purpose. Top-down and bottom-up processes can be better understood in the following diagram.

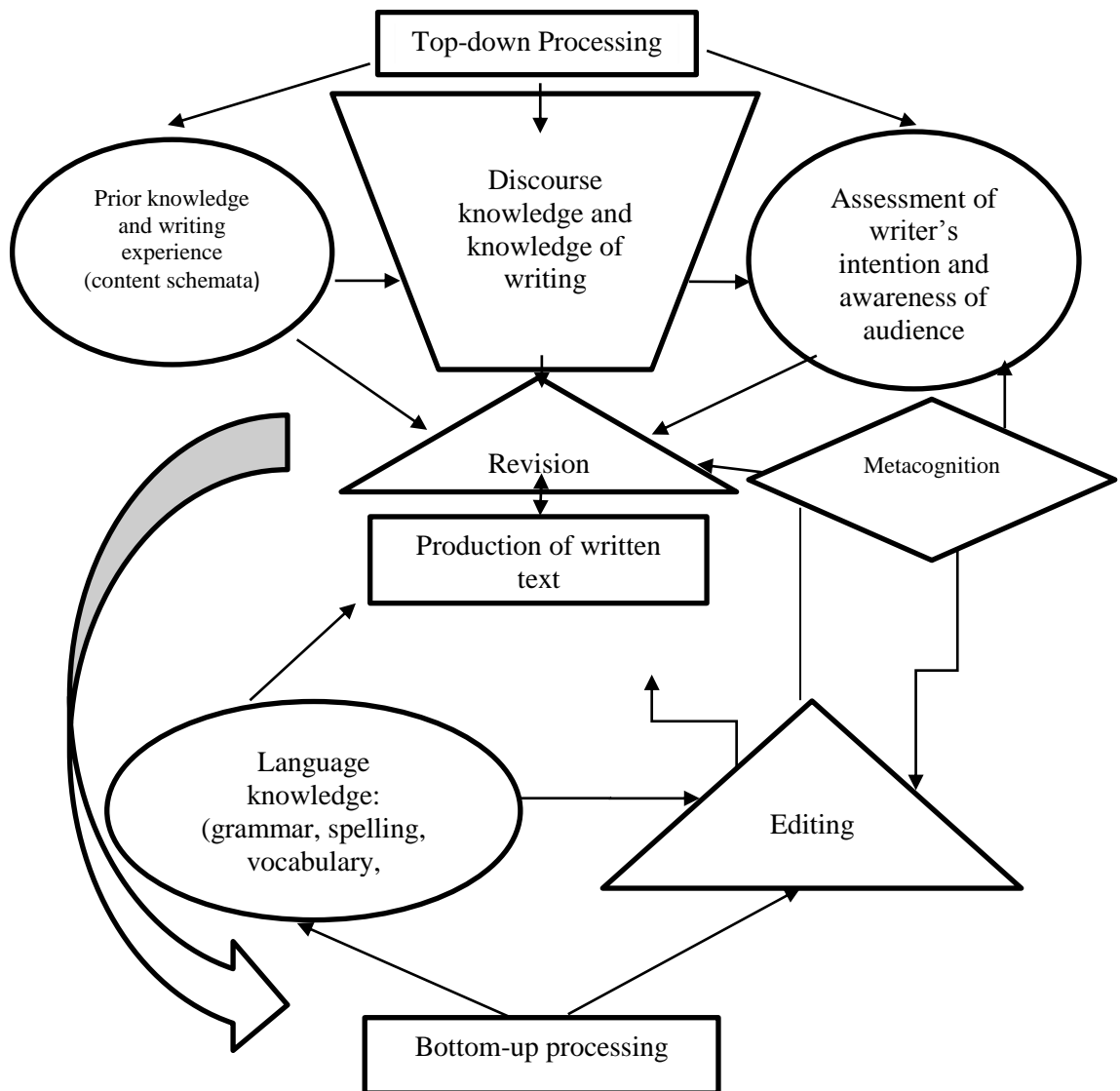


Figure 1.2 Written Text Production Framework (Celce-Murcia (2000:144))

1.5.2. Types of Texts

All texts have a certain feature in common, namely they are intended to convey some meaning. This function, however, might be fulfilled in a number of different ways: a road sign 'stop', a five-sentence paragraph, a six-paragraph essay, a twenty-six pages short story, and a five-hundred pages long novel are all texts which might serve that purpose. Yet, there are certain characteristics that distinguish them. Three types of written text have been distinguished, depending on the aspect of language emphasised in the text. If the relation to the context is prevailing, it conveys some knowledge; thus, it is an informative or

expository type. When the stress is on a symptom aspect the fulfilled function is expression, which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information, as a result the text type is narrative or descriptive. Finally, yet importantly, in this division is the argumentative text, which helps students to defend or oppose an opinion and convince the reader to agree with them, using examples, reasons and evidence (Soleymanzadeh & Gholami. 2014). Based on the text's title, learners should be able to predict its content, or even make a list of vocabulary that might appear in the communicative product. With teacher's tutelage such abilities are quickly acquired which improves learners' skills of interpretation and test results (Cook. 1989; McCarthy. 1991; Crystal. 1995; Nuttall. 2005; Scrivener. 2011).

1.5.2.1. Argumentative Texts

A text is argumentative or persuasive when it expresses an opinion, and when it contains quality-attributing statements. An argumentative text is concerned with an abstract and a general idea. It aims at presenting evidence intended to convince the reader that the writer's position is valid. An argumentative text should be written according to a logical plan containing introduction, which acquaints readers with the topic to be discussed followed by a body, with the set of the arguments, and a conclusive part to restate the most important points.

In persuasive writing the main goal of any author is to convince a reader to see, think, or believe in a certain way. Kinneavy (1971) argues that the focus of persuasive writing is the reader because the writer's role is to persuade the audience and try to elicit a reaction or an emotion on their part. Similarly, Grimes (1975) describes persuasion as a type of discourse where a number of points logically relate to a conclusion which usually aims at altering the behaviour of the reader. Brinker (2005, in Saihi Kihal. 2015) refers to 'argumentation' as a type of thematic development of coherence relations, and explains

that it occurs when the speaker or writer introduces an argument and backs it up by supporting facts or other pieces of evidence. As such, an argument seeks to change the reader's mind or confirm beliefs already there, and, often, the conclusion pleads for a plan of action to be taken.

For achieving an effective persuasive writing, Scarry and Scarry (2011) argue that there are some techniques to be stressed and followed by an effective writer. Recognising these techniques of persuasion and how to use them in writing is inevitably important. To present an argumentative text successfully, writers should (1) state a clear thesis; (2) give evidence or reasons for their own beliefs, since evidence is the heart of the text; (3) use examples, without which essays of persuasion would be flat, lifeless, and unconvincing; (4) use opinions from recognised authorities to support the points; (5) appeal for logic, emotion and worthiness, and (6) point out in the conclusion the results, make predictions, or suggest a solution.

Thus, a persuasive text is said to present evidence intended to convince the reader that the writer's position is valid. Evidence can include personal observation, facts, statistics, testimony, expert opinion, examples and the support of recognised authorities. The writer may appeal to logic, emotion, and worthiness. In fact, evidence is the heart of the essay or paragraph, showing that the wisdom of the writer's reasoning is available.

1.5.2.2. Informative Texts

Most of the writing most students do in school and university will be informational in nature. Informative or expository writing is understood to be the standard academic writing that is used in a lot of academic settings (William. 2001). In school, learners take written tests and write papers to explain what they know about a subject. In formal writing, these explanations can be developed in more than one way, depending on the type of information required.

In this type of writing, the text is organised around one topic or theme and developed according to one pattern or combination of patterns. Roy and Laney (2012: 14) state that ‘the word “expository” comes from “expose”. When you expose something, you show what it really is (...). Different types of expository essays expose different things’. Moreover, Brown and Yule (1983:103) describe informative language as “*transactional*” because it conveys information and it is message-oriented. Information was more characterised as the aspect of “*newness or variability that knowledge has in some context*” (ibid) than as the knowledge that makes the content of communication.

Importantly, Kinneavy (1971) examines the logic of informative discourse according to factors like factuality, comprehensiveness, and surprise-value. Factuality, according to him, concerns verifiability of facts, while comprehensiveness pertains to readers’ expectations of the topic; writers need to examine carefully the characteristics of their audience. The surprise-value aspect corresponds to the unpredictability and improbability of information. Mustafa (1990: 92) concludes that comprehensibility, as distinct level of communicativeness, is the reader’s actual comprehension of the meaning intended by the writer; i.e., a receiver finds the written text acceptable or not. This depends on the “unique features of textuality that are built into text” (p.91). These features include linguistic explicitness and rhetorical organisation.

Several methods of development can be categorised within this type, as put by Brinker (2005, in Saihi Kihal. 2015) as well as Scarry and Scarry (2011). These include illustration (giving examples), narration (telling a story using a sequence of events, where in the elements are usually ordered according to the linear order of the events described . description (using sensory images to create a picture with words, process (explaining how to do something), comparison or contrast (showing similarities or differences), cause and effect (examining reasons or outcomes - a link that is logically deduced from the relationship between the theme and its propositions as in expressing results or

consequences, definition and analysis (analysing at some length the meaning of a word or concept), and classification (putting material into mutually exclusive groups). These methods can be summarised in the following figure:

Figure 1.3. Methods of Paragraph Development

Narration:	the oldest and best-known form of verbal communication. It is the telling of a story using a sequence of events.
Description:	“to portray people, places, things, moments and theories with enough vivid details to help the reader create a mental picture of what is being written about” (Ghaith 2001, in Saihi Kihal. 2015:122).
Process:	to provide a step-by-step explanation of how something is Done- directional , or how something works- informational (Scarry & Scarry. 2011).
Illustration or example:	to clarify the idea, make the idea more convincing, or make an abstract idea more concrete by providing one or more instances of that idea.
Comparison/contrast:	to highlight similarities and differences between two or more items, ideas, trends and works, using one of the two patterns: block method or point-by-point method.
Cause and effect:	to demonstrate the causes of the phenomenon and its results, and explains the situation then traces back the causes (Bah 2001, in Saihi Kihal 2015), in two kinds of patterns for organisation: block or chain organisation.
Extended definition:	to analysing at some length the meaning of a word or concept. “It is used in courses to define terminology” Lindner (2005: 276, in Saihi Kihal. 2015).
Classification:	to separate a large number of items into categories or types, to understand the material in a more manageable way (Scarry & Scarry. 2011).

After editing each paragraph, the writer has to examine the overall organisation of the text. The method of organisation can be for/against, pros/cons, similarity/contrast, cause/effect, before/after, linear/flashback, and so on (Gabrielatos. 2002). The writer, then,

revises (as part of the writing process) his piece of writing, putting stress on logical and systematic way of progression and order of the paragraphs, as well as checking whether they stress, illustrate or prove the claim of the thesis.

A narrative paragraph, for instance, is most distinctively used in fiction. It usually describes a series of events one after another in a chronological order and relates events connected by time. When the students use this technique, they integrate all the elements of storytelling: plot, character, setting, climax and ending. It recreates the characters in an authentic way, so the readers can understand and visualize the people or animals of the story (Wyrick. 2010). It is a useful tool for sequencing or putting details and information into some kinds of chronological order. Narrative writing is shaped in forms of anecdotes, autobiographies, memories, biographies, novel and short stories.

Another type of text frequently used in academic contexts is the description paragraph. Unlike the aforementioned type, “in a descriptive text there is no single event which will keep the reader in suspense” (Abid & Ridha. 2006: 55). However, readers’ interest is raised depending on a detailed descriptive and interesting picture about persons and objects. The first paragraph presents the topic in general, then details are to be followed in the next paragraphs or sections. To write coherently, the student should place old information first then follows it with the new one. In class situations, it is believed that this type allows for a great deal of artistic freedom and encourages the student’s ability to create a written account of a particular experience (Baker. 2010).

Earlier on, Van Dijk (1977:105-6), Abdul-Razzaq and Al-Hassan (2000:30) shed some light on certain orderings of descriptions. They hold that the normal ordering of state descriptions is determined by certain constraints, such as general-particular, whole-part/component, set-subset-element, including-included, large-small, outside-inside, possessor-possession, and familiar-unfamiliar. The normal ordering of descriptions in terms of the above constraints is not based on constraints of semantic information distribution

only, but also on general cognitive principles of perception and attention. In describing a whole scene, it is usually best to work from big to small and a whole object before its parts (William. 2001).

Details are important elements in description. But what is more important is the accuracy of the image they represent and transmit to the reader who obviously sees what the writer shows him. Descriptive writings generally follow a natural starting point based on the topic described. It is sometimes poetic in nature in which the author is specifying the details of the event rather than just the information of what event happened. Raising the readers' interest depends entirely on the details (Abid & Ridha. 2006).

Moreover, Smith and Liedlich (1977) emphasise that in the descriptive order the paragraphs are arranged to give readers a clear picture of what is being described. They assert that for achieving an effective description, one of these grouping patterns can be used:

1. Introduction: forming a conclusion depending on former fact or
2. Deduction: forming a conclusion derived from a generalisation.
3. Number: indicating whether the meaning of a certain word refers to singular or plural.
4. Climatic: organisation of the details beginning from the least important ending with the most important.

On the other hand, a comparison and/or contrast text may discuss similarities and/or differences between two items or more. Lindner (2005: 266, in Saihi Kihal. 2015:131) asserts that:

This method is frequently to highlight similarities and differences between literary features in English classes. In psychology, it is used to compare theories and treatments. It is also used in history class to compare great leaders and their actions.

This kind of method development can be organised in one or more types of patterns in one paragraph. The first pattern is the block method which presents details about the first compared or contrasted item, and so does with the second item. The second pattern is the point-by-point method which tends to present a point of similarity or difference of the first compared or contrasted item, and then it moves to the second point of similarity or difference. When comparing or contrasting two items, to consider exactly which points should be compared is needed. In effect, comparison or contrast method uses a logical process that helps student-writers think through the critical similarities or differences (Scarry & Scarry. 2011).

Much of the difficulty in writing a paragraph of comparison or contrast is caused by having a two-part topic. Careful thought, therefore, must be given to creating the topic sentence of that paragraph. One must select a two-part topic that has a sufficient number of points to compare or contrast, but two-part topics that would have so many points to compare or contrast must be avoided, since to discuss all the material in one paragraph would be difficult.

Accordingly, the different types of written text vary greatly according to context, task, audience, and purpose (Rivers. 1981; Grabe & Kaplan. 1996). Thus, written communication can be divided into three categories: Personal writing or private correspondence, literary writing, and institutional writing. However, most of the writing is done in the institutional field and obeys a certain number of conventions, like history, science and mathematics; or in the case of foreign language learning- in topics as linguistics, civilisation, or literature. Different writing goals require different writing styles. Paquarelli (2006) insists on the need of enhancing the students' writing skill on the bases of being knowledgeable of purpose, audience, and word selection whether writing for academic, practical or creative purposes. Students need to decide whether the goal is to inform, persuade or entertain, and will then adapt the right style to fit with the situation

they are evolving in. The text the student writes “needs to forge a coherent unity from the many diverse elements of language and thought that go to make it” (Taylor. 2009:04).

1.5.3. Patterning in Text

Several studies have attempted to examine patterns that are visible throughout written communicative products. Patterning in texts contributes to their coherence, as it is thanks to patterns that writing is structured in a way that enables readers to easily confront the received message with prior knowledge. Salkie (1995) indicates that the majority of readers unconsciously make use of tendencies of arranging texts to approach information.

A group of researchers, particularly Hoey (1983), have studied the rhetorical functions of particular text units and tried to identify the functions of different parts of a text and how they fit into the entire text. Their main focus is on the relationships between clauses within written texts, without considering the purpose for which they were written (Tribble. 2003). Knowledge of how texts are structured internally is required. The text is organised with a set of typical textual patterns signalled by specific lexical markers (cohesive ties) or with the usual stages of development of different text types. Hyland (2002) demonstrates that even without explicit signposting, readers can easily draw the semantic connections between clauses, sentences or groups of sentences through recognisable text patterns.

For instance, in a general-particular text, the reader would expect to find the introductory part of the text more general and the following supporting parts more specific, so that the pattern is complete. In this regard, Hadley (1995:33) argues that “written text conforms to rule that most successful writers unconsciously follow and native readers unconsciously expect to find”.

Virtually, however, an English essay, consists of a group of paragraphs in which each paragraph contains one main idea which is developed by a group of sentences. Almost

every piece of writing that is longer than a few sentences should be organised into paragraphs. Baker (1962:16) describes this unit as a collection of connected sentences which show building blocks of solid ideas that are organised smoothly around one single idea in the paragraph. Illustrating this, the frequently occurring arrangement of texts that is based on general-specific pattern is thought to have two variations. In the first one, a general statement is followed by a series of more specific sentences referring to the same broad idea, ultimately summarised by one more general remark. Alternatively, a specific statement after which several more sentences ensue, each of which is more precise than its predecessor, finally going back to the general idea (Arnaudet & Barrett. 1990; McCarthy. 1991; Owl. 2009), might follow a general statement at the beginning of a paragraph.

As McCarthy (1993) points out, the structure of patterns is fixed; yet, the number of sentences or paragraphs (chunks) in a particular part of a given arrangement might vary. The patterns of paragraph vary as the styles of the essay are different. Therefore, the writer must organise the paragraph in an accurate pattern in accordance with the purpose of the writing as well as the style of the essay (Scarry & Scarry. 2011). Furthermore, one written text might contain several commonplace patterns occurring consecutively, or one included in another. Therefore, problem-solution pattern present in a text might be filled with general-specific model within one paragraph and claim-counterclaim one another. The desired elements should be always found in well-formed texts. Thus, by studying the textual and lexical elements of these texts, one can learn to regularly recognise the overall structure of a text (Hadley. 1995; Salkie. 1995; Tribble. 2003).

Moreover, the writer can illustrate his viewpoints through the pattern of subject by subject or point by point. Whatever pattern the writer employs, his attitude can serve as the topic sentence of the paragraph or even the theme of the essay. Thus, the learners can ask several helpful questions to decide which pattern can be used, such as does each paragraph have a topic sentence which reflects back or explains a point of the paper's overall thesis?

Is there specific supporting evidence to support the argument? Or are there too many points or examples within each paragraph? These questions can be altered as the pattern and style of the essay vary (Harmer. 2004; Scarry & Scarry. 2011).

The linguistic patterns of texts point to contexts beyond the page, implying a range of social constraints and choices which operate on writers in any situation. The writer has certain purposes and intentions, certain relationships to his/her readers, and certain information to convey, and the forms of a text are mediators used to accomplish these.

1.5.4. Formal and Informal Written Text

When the structure of text is taken into consideration, more essential division into formal and informal communicative products gains pivotal importance. The relation of the producer of the message and his/her receiver, the amount of addressees, and factors such as public or private occasion are the most important features influencing selecting either formal or informal language. The skilled writer learns how to choose an appropriate and consistent voice, depending on the purpose of the writing.

Formal/academic written text is stricter. It requires the use of the passive voice, absence of contracted forms (don't, 'haven't', 'I'll') together with impersonality, complex sentence structure and well-chosen vocabulary. Moreover, the choice of personal pronoun is determined by the appropriate level of formality needed between the writer and the writer's audience. For academic writing, 'he, she, it' are chosen. Thus, formal communicative products are more governed by strict rules as they are meant to be used in official and serious circumstances and academic contexts. Taylor (2009: 232) asserts that:

Academic language need not be stuffy. (...) Good language thrives on variety and freshness, but what is fresh and acceptable in one context might be simply gauche in another.

As examples of formal/academic text, there are university written exams and tests wherein the students' main objective is to learn the proper standards for writing academic and work-related assignments.

Informal written text, on the other hand, is not so hard to accomplish. It makes use of active voice mainly with personal pronouns and verbs which show feelings such as *'I think', 'we believe'*. A writer chooses a pronoun that fits the subject and the audience ('I or we' in a more personal and casual writing, like a diary or a memoir; 'you' in informal situation that needs more casual language from superior to inferior, giving advice or direction; In addition, contractions are frequent in informal writing. Consequently, it may be said that informal communicative products are to a great extent loose (Scarry & Scarry. 2011).

Generally, at an advance level of language learning, students learn to visualise themselves in the setting they are describing each time they are asked to write, and brainstorm words that concisely convey vital elements of that setting. Good choice of words: suitable verbs, concrete nouns and specific adjectives help the reader visualise the sentence and follows the writer in the flow of the idea he is generating (Raimes. 1983). Appropriate choice of words produces a voice in writing which is an element of style that reveals the writer's personality.

Accordingly, voice that reveals an attitude toward the audience ranges from very formal to less formal. In general, writing that seeks to inform is usually more objective than writing that seeks to entertain or persuade. Hence, it seems rational, as Cook (1989:50) suggests that teaching all varieties of language relies on authentic written texts.

1.6. The Elements of Good Writing

EFL writing has always been considered as an important skill in teaching and learning. Students in EFL contexts need English writing sub-skills ranging from simple

paragraph writing and summary skills to the ability to write essays and professional articles. Academic writing is linear; it focuses on one central point or theme with every part contributing to the main line of argument without digression or repetition. Rao (2007) comments that it is useful since it motivates students' thinking, organising ideas and developing their ability to summarise, analyse and criticise, and it strengthens their learning, thinking and reflecting on the English language. Thus, in their learning to write, students need to achieve accurate and useful English in an effective piece of writing. Some crucial elements, hence, should be valued.

1.6.1. Unity: All Parts Relating to the Central Theme

In a piece of good writing, every sentence serves the central theme, with every detail directly related to the main idea. All of the parts go together to make up a whole. The result is a sense of wholeness. By the end of the piece, the writing feels complete and the reader has no trouble grasping the writer's main point (Scarry & Scarry. 2011). As a key quality of an effective writing, a paragraph sticks to one topic from the beginning to the end, with every sentence contributing to the central purpose and main idea of that paragraph. Moreover, the subordinate ideas should contribute in a way or another to this topic, otherwise they should be omitted.

Arnaudet and Barrett (1990:8-9) make clear that a unified paragraph is that one in which all the sentences, facts, supporting details, and examples lead directly to the topic sentence without going off it. As the topic sentence provides the unifying idea, it should be clear and concise. However, a strong paragraph is more than just a collection of loose sentences. Those sentences need to be "*clearly connected*" so that readers can follow along, recognising how one detail leads to the next (Owl. 2009: 40). Thus, unnecessary details are eliminated and necessary ideas are clearly indicated within sentences.

The paragraphs of an academic document do not contain more than one central idea, and its ideas are connected in understandable way. In spite of its importance, unity does not necessarily lead to coherence which is located not only in the text but is also the result of a successful interaction between the reader's knowledge about the content and the text (Attelisi. 2012).

1.6.2. Coherence: Clear and Logical Progression of Thought

A piece of writing needs careful organisation of all its parts, so that one idea leads logically to the next. A paragraph with clearly connected sentences is said to be coherent. Thus, two elements should be present in a paragraph or an essay if good compositions are sought and desired: unity and coherence. Unity is when everything necessary is included, and coherence is the sequence of the parts that is intelligible and meaningful to the reader. In this concern, Taylor (2009: 16) demonstrates:

A well-organised piece of writing reveals that the writer has established a pattern of relationships between the individual parts and between the parts and the whole composition.

To Tichy (1966), every paragraph should maintain unity and outlining to possess coherence regardless of how it is developed, because coherence will lead to the improvement and clarity of style. He asserts that “as soon as the paragraph is unified and organized, the supplement of transition will be very easy”. Thus, to make all the parts relate to one another, writers use important techniques like repetition of key words, use of synonyms and pronouns to refer to key words, and careful choice of transitional expressions to show how the different ideas relate to each other to help the reader move forward through a sequence of events.

Since the mid-1970s onwards, it has been progressively assumed in foreign language teaching of writing that a coherent text is more than a series of grammatical sentences lined

up one after another. Rather, these sentences interlace, each sentence building on the preceding ones while at the same time advancing the discourse (Widdowson. 1978; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000). Nunan (1993:59) believes that “coherent texts are distinguished from random sentences by the existence of certain text-forming, cohesive devices. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion is the surface links between sentences of a text that holds the text together. These words can be described as “cohesive devices or ties” because they create links across the boundaries of mere fragments, or can chain related items together such as using pronouns, reference, substitution and ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical relationships (repetition of key words, and synonyms).

Moreover, the coherence of each passage depends on the degree of connectedness within each paragraph of the text. The reader, as an essential part of successful communication, has to move smoothly from one sentence to the following, which are to be related to each other, leading to easier and more effective interpretation of the text. According to McCarthy (1991:26), coherence is “the feeling that a text hangs together, that it makes sense, and is not just a jumble of sentences”. In fact, coherence quality refers, as Latief (1990: 8) argues, to the sense of ‘*wholeness*’ and ‘*interconnectedness*’ among sentences and ideas within a paragraph or among paragraphs in a longer piece of discourse. A string of sentences that displays surface cohesive features may not be coherent if it does not make sense together. Coherence of a text is a major component of a discourse analysis approach to the study of language (Wang. 2008).

Writers, then, must continually work to achieve coherence. Even professional writers work on more than one draft because they see room for improvement as they move from one idea, one sentence, or one paragraph to the next. Coherence will be the main focus of the study and the main variable that will be measured to represent the writing quality.

1.6.3. Paragraph Development and Completeness

A perfect paragraph is described as a unified, coherent, developed and complete one. Solid and specific illustration plays an important role in supporting and developing the central idea of the paragraph. Details and particulars can also support and develop the topic sentence since a paragraph with little and general information may not be adequately developed. Moreover, clearness and precision are important aspects of a paragraph which reflect the writer's concern. Ambiguity and generalisation should be supported with details, analysis and examples to clarify the intended central idea; otherwise, the idea will become unclear to the reader (Owl. 2009:49). Moreover, sufficient concrete reasons, data, and evidences help to support a claim raised in the topic sentence. This should be discussed honestly and adequately guiding the reader to a complete and persuasive point in the paragraph (Tribble. 2003; Abid & Ridha. 2006; Scarry & Scarry. 2011).

1.6.4. Information Structure

To achieve an appropriate academic style, writing should be clear and concise and EFL students make sure that they get the ideas over in a comprehensible form. According to Strong (2001), a sentence may state the main idea first and then modify it. The most important thing to remember is generally to try to avoid everyday language and informal words. Clauses are organised by the writer in the way that thematic choices are related to ideas presented in the theme or rheme of an earlier clause.

Writers put the theme first and this orients the reader to what is about to be communicated. The rheme –called also “the comment” (Nuttall. 2005: 27), or the rest of the clause, tells the reader something about the theme. According to Halliday (1994), theme is a structural category realised by the first constituent of the clause in English (not taking into account any initial discourse marker such as however or probably); the remainder of the message, the part in which the theme is developed, is called rheme.

Theme and rheme work harmoniously to form series of coherent ideas in a text (McCarthy. 1991; Martin & Rose. 2003; Halliday & Matthiessen. 2004). In this way, the reader can use old information as a context to facilitate his or her understanding of the new information.

According to McCabe's (1999) thematic (theme-rheme) patterns include: (1) Constant progression: in this case the theme of the first clause is selected as the theme of the subsequent. (2) Simple linear progression: where the rheme of the first clause becomes the theme of the coming clauses. (3) Derived hyper-thematic progression: the themes of the subsequent clauses are derived from a main or overriding theme, and (4) Split Progression: in this type, the rheme of the first clause is split into two items which in turn become the theme of the subsequent clauses (Soleymanzadeh & Gholami. 2014).

One of the most effective methods for helping students achieve coherent paragraphs and essays is sentence fluency. A variety of sentences with different lengths and rhythms produce different styles (Danes. 1974). For instance parallel structures within sentences and paragraphs are used to reflect parallel ideas. Loose sentences are avoided and extraneous words are deleted. This is an easy task for native writers or for experts. In the case of foreign language, many students initially write with an informal and oral style, adding words to the end of a sentence in the order they come to their minds (Wood. 1999). In academic styles, students are required to choose their words carefully, delete redundancies, make vague words more specific, and use subordinate clauses and phrases to rearrange their ideas for the easiness of reading.

Students have to be careful not only to the lexical density of the sentence but also the distribution of its elements. Stylistic choices could be influenced by the type of the discourse and the general culture of the time (Williams. 2000). Additionally, students need to learn the styles and formats for a variety of writing purposes by choosing the appropriate lexical and grammatical terms that in a way or another persuade their teacher and /or examiner and should never automatically assume that they

share the same background information with their audience and tailor what they say to him /her . The teacher is, above all, a person with certain knowledge, assumptions and attitudes, and whose role is to help his/her students produce better and improved pieces of writing (Ouskourt. 2008).

On the whole, in a more practical way, in order for students to communicate their ideas clearly, fluently and effectively, some elements should be respected. First, students should avoid some aspects of informal English; instead they should make writing more formal and impersonal. Second, they ought to be more precise and concise. Third, students should structure their writings carefully, and write in complete sentences. Additionally, they should divide writing up into paragraphs, and use connecting words and phrases to make writing explicit and easy to follow. The writer, then, as pointed by Bell and Barnaby (1984), is required to demonstrate the control of a number of variables at the sentence level, such as control of content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and letter formation. While beyond the sentence, “the writer must be able to structure and integrate information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs and texts’ (Nunan. 1989: 36). As such, writing requires an understanding as well as a thorough mastery of all the aspects, which make up writing both at the sentence and the discourse levels.

If the students manage to express their ideas and communicate them clearly, concisely and understandably, it reflects the good mastery of the language. Such an objective is reached only if much practice is done through activities and exercises with a focus on ideas and organisational skills.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that writing is an important skill to be taught to foreign language learners through giving them the best possible training. These learners should be as simple

and clear as possible in their writing, so as to avoid ambiguity, loose writing, or any other difficulty. The main focus of this study is directed towards communicative occurrences which students of English at University encounter in their written products, especially on coherence. Yet, the reason for adopting the findings of such analysis is to provide a greater knowledge of the mechanisms that can be used to improve and heighten writing quality, and to take part in directing language teaching towards meeting the special needs of students, to prepare them for their encounter with the language in use.

Chapter Two

Coherence in Writing: Background and Significance

Introduction.....	47
2.1. Defining Coherence.....	47
2.2. Coherence and Cohesion Interrelationships: Studies and Perspectives.....	57
2.3. Controversies in Teaching Coherence.....	65
2.4. Achieving Paragraph Coherence.....	70
2.5. Coherence Problems in EFL Writing.....	74
2.6. Assessing Coherence in EFL Writing.....	85
Conclusion.....	91

Chapter Two

Coherence in Writing: Background and Significance

Introduction

Throughout the course of years, the study of both cohesion and coherence in foreign language context has become a favourite field of research among linguists, since producing a coherent, fluent and extended piece of writing is somehow difficult to achieve in foreign language. Indeed, the reader has to comprehend what has been written without asking for clarification from the writer's tone of voice or expression. This chapter spots light on the notion of coherence, its major linguistic features as well as the various linguistic perspectives from which cohesion and coherence are discussed and attended to as two main requirements in building up learners' written discourse competence. Additionally, the chapter highlights the major coherence problems that foreign language students encounter when they are required to write coherent paragraphs and essays in their exams in their different modules. This chapter evenly looks for whether coherence can be considered as an aspect that evokes EFL writing errors which are judged as the most serious.

2.1. Defining Coherence

Attempting to present their ideas in writing tasks, FL students need to ensure a text flow through sequence of sentences. Thus, students' attention should be directed to the ideas they wish to express, as well as the sentences they use to express those ideas. Various definitions of coherence in writing have emerged due to the ongoing research about teaching English as a foreign language by various scholars and practitioners. Besides, varieties of coherence theories have been developed and implicated (Gutwinski. 1976; Buckingham. 1979; Mann & Thomson. 1988; Kehler. 2002; Kibble & Power. 2004).

Studies concerned with putting forward theoretical assumptions began early in 1960s when Tichy (1966) claims that coherence presence in paragraphs improves the style of the writer so markedly, making it so easy and smooth. To Tichy (op. cit), writers should look at coherence mainly when revising their drafts, in which transitions can be added where necessary. These transitions can be used between sentences within the same paragraph or between paragraphs within the whole text, but their usage between paragraphs is normally stronger because a new paragraph always begins a new idea, and so the break between ideas is usually greater than between the related sentences.

In a similar vein, Hulon (1969) states that coherence between paragraphs, contributes in the organisation of the whole paper. The word ‘coherence’, according to him, comes from the Latin *co*, meaning together, and *haerere*, meaning to stick. Hence, coherence literally means ‘*sticking together*’. In writing, Mann and Thomson (op. cit) further add that coherence means “the quality of being integrated, consistent, and intelligible. The paragraphs of a paper are coherent when they are closely and logically joined together.” Coherence, then, requires a close and proper fitting of the parts that are mutually dependent, regarding their ability to form the whole.

Meanwhile, to Halliday and Hasan (1976), writing is seen in terms of cohesion and coherence. To them, coherence refers to the internal elements of a text, consisting of cohesion and register. They further add that a text is a passage of discourse which is coherent with respect to the context of situation, therefore consistent in register, as well as with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive. Halliday and Hasan (1976) said that considering a text as a unit of language in use “which is seen to be some kind of a grammatical unit that is longer than a sentence, is misleading” (12). So, a text must be regarded as a semantic unit. It can be either spoken or written and of any length, normally longer than one sentence. They commenced by defining text as being not just a string of sentences. “It is not simply a large grammatical unit, something of the same kind as a

sentence, but differing from it in size--a sort of supersentence a semantic unit” (p.291). Thus, because the text is a semantic unit, its texture (the state of being a text) is dictated, then, by its interpretation within a particular context, or environment.

In Gutwinski's (1976) view, coherence refers to a more global concept, to unity or togetherness of a text. He states that:

A paragraph is said to have coherence when its sentences are woven together or flow into each other. If a paragraph is coherent, the reader moves easily from one sentence to the next without feeling that there are gaps in the thought, puzzling jumps, or points not made. (p. 27)

Hence, the meaning of a sequence is not merely the sum of the meanings of individual sentences. The semantic property of a sequence is what Van Dijk (1977) refers to as *coherence*, which is based on “the interpretation of each individual sentence relative to the interpretation of other sentences” (p. 93). In fact, meanings of sentences are ordered, so there is a meaning of the whole which can be attained.

Clarifying the notion of coherence, Smith and Liedlich (1977), additionally, assume that for paragraphs to be clear, they must be coherent besides being unified and well-developed. Students’ task must focus on the smooth connection of the sentences together. Each sentence should take the reader easily to the progression of thought, and to achieve this, sentences must be arranged in an order exhibiting the connectives between ideas. Smith and Liedlich (1977) further mention that coherent paragraphs have to be arranged in a logical and reasonable order, which, certainly, depends on two elements: The writer’s purpose and the material’s nature, which can be presented in different ways.

Furthermore, in order to extend and develop these sentences in advanced stages, Buckingham (1979) believes that students should consider the idea that any piece of language should be complete within its context. They ought to realise that any idea is just

one part of a much larger picture that is structured in such a way that enables the reader to distinguish the exact part of this picture.

In this perspective, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) add that the overall coherence of a longer text depends on the coherence within each paragraph or section of the text. For example, in expository writing, coherence is an essential feature that links ideas or information in different parts of the text so that the reader can understand the entire text easily. Each sentence in this type of writing is related to both previous and subsequent sentences. In addition, the purpose and the intended audience of an expository text also play a crucial role. Each of these text types follows certain writing conventions. While a popular newspaper is intended to convey information to the public in general, a linguistic textbook and a scientific or medical journal are intended for students who are being introduced respectively to the subject area, and doctors who are specialised in the field. Therefore, coherence can create a logical progression in a text so that the reader can comprehend through the connectedness among the propositions presented in the text while relating the content of the text to his/her proper knowledge of the world.

From another perspective, a text has been regarded by de Beaugrande and Dressier (1981) as a “communicative occurrence” which meets seven standards of ‘textuality’. These are cohesion, *coherence*, *intentionality*, *acceptability*, *informality*, *situationality*, and *intertextuality*. If any of these standards is not satisfied, the text will not be communicative and are treated as non-texts. One of the above-mentioned seven standards a text must have to be treated as one whole is precisely coherence, which de Beaugrande and Dressier (1981) define as

the ways in which the components of the TEXTUAL WORLD, i.e., the configuration of CONCEPTS and RELATIONS which underlie the surface text, are mutually accessible and relevant.” Therefore, coherence is based on the structure of the text itself, on the writer’s intention to produce a cohesive and coherent text, and on the reader’s acceptability and assumption of the text as cohesive and coherent. (p.4) (Author’s capitals)

Interestingly, Goodin and Perkins (1982) assert that if we can define composition as the arrangement of information, the rhetorical composition can be defined as the arrangement and sequencing of sentences besides the art of coherence. To develop this coherence, they advise students to:

1. Smoothen their paths through the concentration on what they are saying and not on spelling, punctuation, and other matters.
2. Consider and go back to their previous sentences when they stop and wonder what to say instead of looking out of the window or at the ceiling.
3. Be suspicious of sentences which can be removed or relocated without affecting the composition as a whole in and during post stages of writing and revision. (p.57)

Despite that, they mention about achieving coherent prose that

Just as we can't get students to write consistently grammatical sentences by teaching them any system of grammar, we should not expect them to write consistently coherent prose by teaching them any system of discourse grammar or rhetoric.

(Goodin & Perkins. 1982:60)

Proposing a pragmatic function of coherence, Grabe (1985) has examined its characteristics, claiming that coherence establishes the relationship between propositions leading to the overall theme. He identifies three features that are essential to coherence: 1. a discourse theme, 2. a set of relevant assertions relating logically among themselves by means of subordination, coordination and super-ordination, and 3. an information structure imposed on the text to guide the reader in understanding the theme or the purpose of the author. Similarly, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) argue that a cohesive and coherent piece of writing contains surface features which connect the discourse and an underlying logic of organisation which go beyond the meanings of the individual sentences. Thus, from this linguistic perspective, coherence is primarily text-based. A

piece of writing is said to be coherent if its sentences or paragraphs are related locally and globally to facilitate the reader's interpretation, strengthening by that Van Dijk's (1977) view on coherence. To prove that coherence is text-based, Johns (1986), following Grabe's (1985) proposal, considers the following interacting features:

- a. Discourse theme or thesis (purpose),
- b. A set of relevant assertion relating logically among themselves, by means of subordination/coordination and superordination,
- c. An information structure imposed on the text to guide the reader in understanding the theme or intent of the writer. (p.110)

On the other hand, to show that coherence is reader-based, Johns (1986) states that a text is established 'if there is a successful interaction between the reader and the text' (p.250). Regarding this view, the reader's ability to grasp and then understand the exact meaning and the structure of the text will depend on whether his selected schemata¹ or his expectation in his prior knowledge are in congruence with those of the text. Thus, when text structure is familiar to the reader, the text is comprehended easily (Carrell. 1984b). The reader and the writer, in such a case, share similar background knowledge, or belong to the same discourse community, and hence the writer does not need to use so many textual cues (Attelisi. 2012).

The question of how sentences are shaped so that they can fit their context remains of concern. Lautamatti (1987) has examined how the reader is able to understand a text and the discourse theme or topic. Coherence is, according to her, based on a clear topic sentence. Using the terms 'topic' and 'comment' (also called theme and rheme), she proposed an approach to the analysis of textual flow. Lautamatti (1987) defines the term 'topic' as what the sentence is about and the term 'comment' as information about the

¹ Schemata (singular: schema) refers to a pre-existing knowledge structure in memory which involves the normal expected patterns of things and is crucial to discourse processing (cf. Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000:241).

topic. All sentence topics are related in certain ways to the global discourse topic of the text. The patterns of relations between text topics, and subtopics are called topical development of discourse. This development is represented as three types of progressions: (1) parallel progression, with the identical topics in the subsequent sentences; (2) sequential progression, with the comment of the preceding sentence becoming the topic of a new one; and (3) extended parallel sequence, representing a parallel progression that is interrupted by sequential progression (see information structure in chapter one).

In text linguistics, Enkvist (1990) has tried to broaden already-established viewpoints concerning coherence by integrating three conceptualised facets of coherence for a text: (1) cohesion (lexical and grammatical links, which Enkvist used as a foundation from the ponderings of Halliday and Hasan, (1976), (2) plausibility or interpretability (semantic association between the old and the new information), and (3) justifiability (logic). In Enkvist's theory (1990), plausibility or interpretability referred to the quality of a text enabling readers to build associations between the new knowledge and the old so that text could be comprehensible. This facet focuses upon the semantic relationships between topics in sequential sentences of a text. Thus, topical structure analysis (TSA), as proposed by Lautamatti (1987), is a good fit to inspect this facet of coherence. Topical structure analysis² and Toulmin's model³ have been recognised as effective strategies for teaching academic writing (Hegelund & Kock. 2003; Attelisi. 2012).

Qaddumi (1995) compares the writings of a group of Arab students at the University of Bahrain in both Arabic and English to investigate the possible sources and solutions to the problem of textual incoherence and deviation. His major conclusion, in this

²It focused upon the meaning delivery and semantic relationships between topics in sequential sentences of a text, including Parallel progression, sequential progression, and extended parallel progression. It has been suggested as a means to teach coherence in EFL classes (Connor & Farmer. 1997; Lee. 2002).

³Toulmin's (1956) Model is also called the informal logical model since it presents an inverse order of syllogism. It is composed of 6 parts: claim, data, warrant, backing, qualifier, and rebuttal. It was identified by Connor (1990) as the best predictor of writing quality for students' compositions (in Gao, L. 2012:24)

study, is that there should be more concentration on the preservation of topic unity in teaching writing. He asserts that students' texts are weakened by topic shifts and lack of features of creativity. To solve such a problem, an emphasis should be placed on the sentential level and the confinement of students' thinking ability to consider one point at a time when writing. According to Qaddumi (1995: 39), textual coherence can be defined as

A logical connection of meaningful sentences and ideas expressed in the text to guide the reader towards the purpose of the message intended by the writer using developmentally various creative organizational methods at the sentential and suprasentential level to signal unity and integrity of the text.

A study by Rogers (2004) was designed to develop a method to analyse written discourse, and determine empirically whether there is any correlation between coherence and overall writing quality in academic essays by EFL and native-speaking students (NS). Her study reveals a strong correlation between topic continuity and quality. The markers of overall writing quality in this study seem to value paragraphs that stick to a single topic. In terms of coherence, she has argued that the best scripts (EFL and NS high rated essays) appear to be judged similarly.

Hinkel (2004) further puts it simply and defines coherence as the extent to which the reader is able to infer the writer's communicative intentions; it is 'in the eye of the beholder' (p.367) i.e. the reader's interpretation. Thus, coherence, according to her, is more subjective. A text may be coherent to someone (reader A), but not coherent to another (reader B). Hinkel (2004) also acknowledges that students need to master the rhetorical aspects and discourse-level features of writing in order to be successful in academic contexts. She adds that "if FL writers do not learn the syntactic and lexical skills that they need, their texts will remain incoherent" (p. 368). Then, FL writers should learn the language tools with which to build the text through effective instruction, linking accuracy

to fluency and logic to rhetoric. These tools, according to Hinkle (*ibid*), include: cohesive ties, lexical substitutions, useful transitions and the art of combining sentences.

Synthesising theoretical analysis in texture and schemes of the text, as a writing teacher and researcher, Lee (2002) has proposed operational features to define coherence for EFL students to refer to. Since their own L1 rhetorical conventions may be different from the English ones, Lee's (2002: 139) proposes the following:

1. Connectivity of the surface text evidenced by the presence of cohesive devices as proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976).
2. An information structure which guides the reader in understanding the text and contributes to the topical development of the text (Grabe. 1985; Firbas. 1986; Johns. 1986; Lautamatti. 1987; Connor & Farmer. 1997).
3. Connectivity of the underlying content evidenced by relations between propositions and overall discourse (Van Dijk. 1977).
4. A macrostructure with a characteristic pattern or shape appropriate to its communicative purpose and context of situation (Hoey. 1991).
5. Reader-based writing signalled by appropriate meta-discoursal features.

Henceforth, the notion of coherence has been regarded as to capture text relatedness at the level of sentence-to-sentence transitions (*local*), which is undoubtedly necessary for achieving the global or overall coherence of the whole text (Lapata. 2003). According to Crystal (2003), coherence refers to the main principle of organisation postulated to account for the underlying functional connectedness or identify of a piece of [spoken or] written language (text, discourse). It involves the study of such factors as the language users' knowledge of the world, the inferences they make, and the assumptions they hold and in particular the way which coherent communication is mediated through the use of speech acts.

The above definitions have attempted to illustrate the concept of coherence as discourse features, which were, however, not so specified as to be categorised. In discussing a theory of coherence relations, Kehler (2002), for instance, identifies three broader types of connection among ideas; these include ‘specifically *Resemblance, Cause-Effect, and Contiguity*’ (p.15). By synthesising studies about coherence and analysing natural language, Wolf and Gibson (2006) have found eight kinds of coherence relations, representing coherence structures. These are 1. cause–effect, 2. violated expectation, 3.condition, 4.similarity, 5.contrast, 6. elaboration, 7. Attribution, and 8.temporal sequence. These eight types of coherence relations, indicating the eight types of logical relations between sentences and theme development or the discourse segments are conducive to understand such a discourse phenomenon.

Above all, Raimes (2008) attempts to explain what coherence implies. She mentions that when a student-writer develops their performance or text, “readers expect to move with ease from one sentence to the next, and from one paragraph to the next, following a clear flow of argument and logic” (p.35). She further uses a specific meaningful expression to express the readers’ attempt to understand the piece of writing, saying that readers should not be forced to ‘grapple with “grass-hopper prose”, which jumps suddenly from one idea to another without obvious connections. Instead, she maintains, writing must be coherent, with all parts connecting clearly to one another, using transitional expressions and linking words.

Mostly, a key requirement for any system that produces text is the coherence of its output. Coherence, then, can be considered as the link in a text connecting ideas and making the flow of thoughts meaningful and clear for readers. Therefore, it accounts for the meaningful and logical relationship among elements in a text, which stems from thematic development, organisation of information, or communicative purpose of the particular discourse. Knowing the elements helps writers select the structure and rhetorical

features that accord with them. Accordingly, it is essential to teach these strategies to EFL student writers, to enhance their ability to communicate with their readers (teachers in our case).

2.2. Coherence and Cohesion Interrelationships: Studies and Perspectives

Several linguists agree that cohesion and coherence are two closely related terms in writing composition that interact to a great degree, without substituting one another (e.g. Winterowd. 1975; Halliday & Hasan. 1976; Van Dijk. 1977; Witte & Faigley. 1981; Qaddumi. 1995). What raises conflicting debates among researchers is whether or not cohesion is a sufficient criterion for textual coherence. This question caused much concern on the functional connection between cohesion and coherence and seemed controversial enough to shape disagreements. Apparently, linguists are divided into two groups; the first asserts that coherence is established because of the use of the cohesive ties and elements in the text, while the second asserts that such cohesive elements and devices are used as writers try to make their paragraphs effective and coherent; therefore, coherence is mentioned whenever cohesion is discussed.

Winterowd (1975) argues that though both “*cohesion*” and “*coherence*” are derived from the same Latin word “*cohaerere*” meaning “to stick” possess distinctive features. While cohesion deals with the inter-sentential semantic relations, coherence involves the overall connectedness of the ideas in a text rather than only semantic relations between sentences. In a broader sense, coherence deals with discourse as it is regarded as ‘the internal set of consistent relationships perceived in any stretch of discourse.’

To enhance the connectedness of sentences in a text, writers may use ‘cohesion’ to join ideas between sentences to create texture. Halliday and Hasan (1976) supporting the view that cohesion provides connections between ideas in sentences, and the various sections of a paragraph are linked together by cohesive ties introduced this idea.

Coherence, on the other hand, is the result of employing these cohesive devices, which are, regarded as linguistic features; result in a quality that is known as “*texture*”. The text has to function as a unified whole in its environment to be well comprehended and gain the successful interaction with the reader.

Advocating this view, Van Dijk (1977) further claims that the normal ordering of meaning relations is based on constraints of semantic information distribution and on general cognitive principles of perception. Cohesion deals with superficial textual connectivity, but coherence involves organisational and content-based connectivity. The mutual dependency between coherence and cohesion presents a continuum of ‘gradability related to textual connectivity’. Thus, a good text must be both coherent and cohesive; a poor text achieves neither coherence nor cohesion.

Witte and Faigley (1981) also assert that although an important property of writing quality, cohesion does not concern what a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice. Thus, Witte and Faigley (1981) add, while “cohesion defines those mechanisms that hold a text together, (...) coherence defines those underlying semantic relations that allow a text to be understood in the real-world” (p.202), To allow communication to occur between writer and reader, besides explicit links within a text, a text must conform to the reader’s expectations for particular types of texts and the reader’s knowledge of the world. Moreover, Witte and Faigley (op. cit) observe that even though:

Cohesive relationships may ultimately affect writing quality in some ways, there is no evidence to suggest that a large number (or a small number) of cohesive ties of a particular type will positively affect writing quality. (p.202)

On their part, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) state that a piece of discourse needs to be coherent; all sentences or utterances hang together and relate to each other,

contributing to the unity of the whole. This unity or relatedness depends on the presence of linguistic devices that strengthen global unity and create local connectedness that help in forming recognisable organisational pattern for the propositions and ideas in the passage, generic or specific to a particular communicative purpose and discourse community. In this regard, Widdowson (1978) asserts that:

cohesion, then, has to do with the way propositions are linked together by a variety of structural operations to form texts, coherence has to do with the illocutionary function of these propositions, with how they are used to create different kinds of discourse: reports, descriptions, explanations and so on.
(p.51)

From a pragmatic perspective, coherence is said to be based on coherent sequencing of given-new information and on the relevance of one sentence to the next. This builds “a set of what we might call ‘coherent relations’ that ultimately produce coherence for an entire discourse” (Williams. 1985: p.476). According to Williams, it is relevance, both textual and contextual, which is “the fundamental relationship between individual propositions and global propositions” (ibid). It is “the vertical link” that joins language to the semantic sphere.

Introducing and discussing another circumstance for coherence, Gorrell et al. (1988) declare that the text is coherent if its parts hang together, one sentence flows from the other. The guarantee to this flow and the automatic development of coherence is the use of cohesion devices and continuity which, in their turn, show and simplify the movement of thought through the text, directing the reader through the sequence of commitment and responses.

The idea held by Halliday and Hasan (1976), Van Dijk (1977), and Witte and Faigley (1981) that coherence presupposes cohesion as its main and sometimes unique component seems to be challenged by other researchers. Brown and Yule (1993) are of an almost

opposite view. To them, a text can be coherent without being cohesive, and vice versa. Thus, the reader can still perceive coherence in a sequence of clauses and sentences even if the semantic and syntactic ties connecting them are missing.

Of concern, some very revealing data were obtained by Tierney and Mosenthal (1981) who conducted a study to examine whether the cohesive ties used to measure and evaluate text cohesion, might have an effect on the quality of the produced piece of writing. For this purpose, they asked twelve students of the twelfth grade to write about certain topics. Results proved that the topic had an effect on the cohesive patterning, whereas the familiarity of the topic had no significance effect on cohesion. Then, essays were rated and given ranks according to their level of coherence in order to be compared to the ordering of texts according to the cohesive analysis. Findings of this comparison showed that there was no relation between the coherence ranking and the cohesive patterning.

Thus, cohesion does not fully explain but contributes to the quality of coherence in texts. True, they interact to a great degree, but cohesive items, though necessary, are not sufficient, nor do they explain what makes a text coherent (Bamberg 1984:308). The two “terms are not synonymous”, Williams (1985:475) says. Carrell (1982) further states that “cohesion is not coherence, and neither does it measure the coherence of a text” (p.479). It is a consequence of coherence rather than its cause. Accordingly, cohesion, which depends on the lexical and grammatical ties that make a passage a unified whole, can be often mistaken for coherence. According to Kehler (2002), it is the reader who tries to find out the possible connections between the sentences to make them appear in a logical stream of idea. Even if the sentences are unrelated linguistically, they still may become coherent.

Having a different point of view about cohesion and coherence and the relation between them, Farghal (1992) claims that to make text cohesive enough, writers tend to use a set of those cohesive ties. This action, which will inevitably lead to the work of a random imposing of those ties on the piece of writing, but still this mere imposition, will not make

the text more effective although it is cohesive. Furthermore, cohesion in this case will be the main concern of writers who will be forced to ignore the final aim that is coherence. Therefore, Farghal (1992) assumes that cohesion should be seen as a subservient of coherence rather than its controller. Besides, writers should account for the cohesive harmony that plays a major role in the grading scheme. That is, the higher the cohesive harmony is the more coherent the text will seem, and vice versa. This harmony, thus, can be achieved when one is aware of the acquisition order of the various cohesive devices.

As already mentioned, in EFL writing classes coherence appears to be mistaken for cohesion, namely, for the linguistic links which connect sentences and paragraphs, and for this reason it is generally not formally addressed, or addressed in vague terms. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) state that “there is little consensus on the matter of an overall definition of coherence” (p.67). In spite of the fact that cohesion and coherence being so intertwined are not easily distinguished and defined as separate entities. In fact, cohesion theory cannot be “the ultimate solution to EFL/ESL reading/writing coherence problems at the level of the text” (Carrell. 1982:486). It has been proven that although EFL writing teachers teach cohesion, their students' compositions do not become more coherent: Cohesion is the effect of coherence. Importantly, Yule (2000) defines coherence as the familiar and expected relationships in experience that the writer uses to connect the meanings of utterances even when those connections are not explicitly made. As such, Harmer (2001) explains that it is perfectly possible to construct a text which is although rich in such devices makes little sense because it is not coherent. Hence, coherence has been conceptualised as the quality of the text with respect to the effects of the text on the reader.

In other words, a text may be cohesive (linked together), but incoherent (meaningless); and coherent, sometimes, even though there are no obvious links between its parts. It is coherent because we can easily imagine a context in which it would make sense. A

coherent text should be logical enough to make the reader follow with ease the meaning; even if there are no cohesive ties. Harmer (2004) argues discussing this point that:

For a text to be coherent, it needs to have some kind of internal logic which the reader can follow with or without the use of prominent cohesive devices. When a text is coherent, the reader can understand at least two things: the writer's purpose and the writer's line of thought. (p.24)

Hinkel's (2004) point of view on this concern is crucial. He mentions that cohesion is a formal feature of texts, compared to coherence which depends basically on the reader's interpretation. Thus, cohesion, unlike coherence, is objectively verifiable. Still, however, with cohesive devices, like *but*, *so*, *and* can make it easier for the reader to process and to make sense of what they read. Nonetheless, a text that is poorly organised is not going to be made more coherent simply by peppering it with *moreover*, *however*, and *so on*. This means "over-egged texts with many cohesive markers, over-emphasis on linking devices at the expense of other ways of making texts cohesive (lexis)" (p.369). Hence, in order to avoid a choppy style and making it easy to express complicated ideas, learning how to combine simple sentences correctly by using coordination is needed.

To understand coordination, any writer should be sure he/she knows the meaning of the following three terms: a clause, independent clause and a compound sentence (Wen. 2007). Much earlier, Palmer (1992) argues that in EFL classes students should understand the use of cohesive linkers in the texts; he further adds that they should pay special attention to any logical pattern which could help them organise the text in such a way that could be understood by any reader.

Thus, for truly accessible writing cohesion and coherence are needed to be considered. Indeed, lucid writing is only possible when writers have clarified their own thinking on the subject and know how to present, as well as develop their argument, using discourse relation of texts, i.e., the way their different parts relate to one another. Writers should

direct the readers' interpretations by means of explicit lexical signals or devices (Grabe & Kaplan. 1996; Liu. 2000). A coherent text should be, well cohesively structured. Harmer (2001, 2004) further distinguishes two types of cohesion: lexical and grammatical which are agreed upon by several researchers (Thornbury. 1997; Nutall. 2005; Prasad. 2008). In fact, textual cohesion is best achieved through paying close attention to the way sentences are linked in texts.

Noticeably, cohesive devices may help to bind elements of a text together to know what is being referred to and how the phrases and sentences relate to each other. In this respect, Prasad (2008) explains cohesion in a text as the creation of sentence-connection rules, considering the sentence as a grammatical aspect formed with the combination of words under certain rules of grammar. He further adds that sentences “have a force which is vital for understanding their meaning. These forceful utterances combine to create coherence.” (p.154)

The cohesive devices which are agreed upon are summarised as follows.

1. **Lexical cohesion** is a semantic relation between words. It provides the semantic context for text by giving interpretation to all the elements like words, concepts and sentences. It does not guarantee unit, but it is a device for creating unit by means of getting the text stick together to function as a whole (Harmer. 2001). Lexical cohesion is divided into two types: reiteration and collocation. Halliday and Hasan (1976) refer to reiteration as the class of general nouns have the same reference as the items they presupposed, usually accompanied by a reference item. It involves the repetition of lexical item, on one hand and use of a general noun to refer back to a lexical item on the other hand. It comprises the repetition of the same item, the use of synonyms, superordinate, near synonyms, and the use of general noun, while collocation is expressed by the occurrence of lexical items which stand to each other in the same recognisable lexical–semantic relation (ibid). According to Cruse (2006), the term collection is used in two main ways. First, it is used to refer to any grammatically

well-formed sequence of words that go together without oddness. Second, it is used to refer to a sequence of words that are compositional. It includes opposites, antonyms, converse, ordered lexical items and unordered lexical sets.

2. **Grammatical cohesion** is achieved when texts are produced with respect to logical and structural rules (morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics) that govern the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language (Michael. 1991). It is achieved in a number of different devices such as pronoun and possessive reference, article reference, tense agreement, linkers or logical connectors, conjunctions, substitution, ellipsis, and deictic⁴.

To sum up this section, cohesion differs from coherence and each of them deals with specific elements that finally lead to well-developed and written paragraphs. In this sense, coherence deals with the understanding and the functioning of the text as a unified whole; it is implicit. It refers to and signifies the relationships of ideas in addition to their ability to hang together to convey well the intended meaning. Therefore, when the coherence pivotal importance mechanism is lacking, ideas become very difficult and cannot be comprehended by the reader. Furthermore, cohesion refers to something more specific in the text. It represents explicitly the importance of the inter- and intra-sentential links between the textual units. Hence, coherent writing makes sense because one can follow the separate of ideas and points. Nevertheless, in order to examine coherence in students' English compositions, as Gao (2012) asserts, cohesive devices should be integrated and evaluated as part of the mechanism to look at such a textual phenomenon in students' compositions.

⁴In discourse and pragmatics, a text that tells about past-time events requires the past tense, and formal contexts of writing require different types of lexis than informal discourse. In all languages, utterances and discourse are always deictic (indexal) in regard to their time, place, and the participant role of the writer and the audience (cf. Hinkel. 2002:343).

2.3. Controversies in Teaching Coherence

Another important question has been dealt with is the following: Is it possible to teach students to write coherently? Recent research agrees in considering it as controversial. Some researchers point out to the difficulty of teaching the concept of coherence (Witte & Faigley. 1981; Pringle. 1983; Williams. 1985; Lee. 2002). Others disagree, stressing the importance and possibility to familiarise learners with such a concept (Fahnestock. 1983; Bamberg. 1984; Johns. 1986).

For some researchers, it is a hard task to make students produce a native-like piece of writing. Witte and Faigley (1981) say that in L1 context, “if cohesion is often implicitly incorporated in writing curricula, coherence is often ignored”. The same is true in the EFL writing class, they further argue, where teachers tend to refer to ‘coherence’ in abstract terms without making a systematic attempt to explain and to teach it, saying for instance, ‘*your writing is not coherent*’, ‘*it lacks unity*’, or ‘*ideas do not hang together and are disorganised*’. Similarly, Pringle (1983) argues that it is not possible to teach students to produce literary writing in any prescribed manner; rather, he asserts that “they will do so primarily on the basis of what they have acquired...from reading good, relevant models [that] are interesting, intellectually engaging, exciting, [and] new” (p.94). To Williams (1985), the conceptual difficulty of the study of coherence may be due to “the frequent conflation of cohesion and coherence” (p.94). In fact, as a rhetorical principle, coherence does not deal only with connection at the sentence-level and with paragraph unity. Unlike cohesion, there are not specific textual features we can link coherence to. Coherence is ‘a pragmatic component related to relevance and semantic fit’ (ibid: 474). As such, Lee (2002) has considered coherence as an ‘abstract and fuzzy concept which is difficult to teach and difficult to learn’, and whose ‘pedagogical implications and applications have not been fully explored’ (p.94).

Besides, teaching coherence has been viewed differently by some other researchers, such as Fahnestock (1983), who believe that coherence can and should be taught. Fahnestock claims that “helping students understand coherence in terms of the lexical ties and semantic relations possible between clauses and sentences (...) makes the process of creating a coherent paragraph less mysterious” (p.415). Johns (1986) joins her in claiming that it is possible to take the mystery out of producing coherent prose by offering students specific definitions and sequential, task-dependent exercises to improve their coherence. She (ibid) asserts that:

In successive task-dependent activities, the class is asked to consider coherence systematically in terms of prompt requirements, thesis development, the relationship among assertions and to the thesis, and the adequacy of the information structure. Only in the final stages do students edit for sentence-level errors. (p. 94)

Johns (1986) teaches coherence from the top down, namely, from global to local considerations. Because she considers understanding what the prompt requires the most difficult phase of writing, Johns (1986) makes students “deconstruct” the title of the assignment and identify a thesis. Then, guided by questions, students examine the thesis and the relationships among the assertions in the essay, and finally the information structure.

Accordingly, it seems obvious that when teaching composition, coherence cannot be taken for granted. In fact, teaching both L1 and FL students to write coherently is an important aspect of teaching writing which becomes ‘essential if writing is to communicate its intended meaning to a reader’ (Bamberg. 1984:305-6). For them, to teach coherence effectively, teachers need not only

a better understanding of the linguistic features and rhetorical structures that create coherence,” i.e., sentence-level connectedness and paragraph unity, but also “greater insight into the problems students experience in trying to use them.
(p.306)

Students will certainly not ‘improve the coherence of their writing just by being told in vague terms that their writing is not coherent’ (Lee. 2002: 136). Though a difficult concept to handle, all of Witte (1983), Bamberg (1984), Connor and Farmer (1997), Allison et al. (1999), Sengupta (1999), Lee (1998, 2002) recommend helping students become aware of reader’s expectations and acquire rhetorical awareness to improve coherence in their texts. For this, Witte (1983) suggests topical structure analysis at the level of sentence and discourse “as a way to understand some textual cues which may prompt revision and as a way to describe the effect of revision” (p.314). Similarly, Connor and Farmer (1997) consider this analysis as a revision strategy to help students check the coherence of texts and offer it as “a supplementary procedure that would encourage students to consider and reconsider the text as a whole and to allow them to gauge for themselves the relative coherence of their writing” (pp. 126-7).

Sengupta (1999), in her turn, recommends raising rhetorical consciousness as essential to develop EFL literacy, i.e., “how information can be presented, arranged, and interpreted” (p.295) in a written text. Maimon (2001) suggests the Cross-cultural Revision strategy, based on contrastive rhetoric and metacognition⁵, to enhance students’ metacognitive cross-cultural knowledge and their metacognitive⁶ revision strategies. Accordingly, students should first become aware of cultural differences in rhetoric by reading passages that follow different rhetorical patterns; then, they are provided with opportunities to improve their cross-cultural metacognitive strategies by revising their compositions focusing on contrastive rhetoric.

For teaching students a simple definition of coherence which they can use to revise their own prose, Williams (2000) provides clear principles to diagnose, analyse, and revise their

⁵ Knowledge of the mental processes that are involved in different kinds of learning; metacognitive knowledge is thought to influence the kinds of learning strategies learners select (see Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000: 239).

⁶They are defined as higher order executive skills that may entail paying attention, consciously searching for practice opportunities, planning for language tasks, self-evaluating progress and monitoring errors (see Chamot and O’Malley (1990). *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: CUP).

writing to make it coherent. Teaching students to identify their topics and ensure that they relate to one another, they are boosted to improve the coherence of their writing. Following her operational definition of coherence, Lee's (2002) study clarifies how coherence can be taught using a text analysis approach to sensitize students to the needs of the readers, who also play a role in the construction of coherence. According to her, "through text analysis, students can examine the uses of particular linguistic structures, transition devices, information structures, etc., and how these features function in the context of the entire text" (p. 140).

In her study, Lee (2002) focuses on macro-elements first, next on purpose, audience, context of situation, and macrostructure⁷, then on micro-elements, namely, cohesion, information distribution, propositional development, and meta-discourse⁸. Her students felt that the teaching of coherence had enhanced their awareness of what effective writing should entail. The paper concludes with insights gained from the classroom inquiry.

Text linguistics, the branch of linguistics that studies specifically the ways the parts of the written texts are organised and related to one another, teaches that coherence is not only a local feature, but it interests the whole text (Richards, Platt, & Weber. 1985). To understand what coherence is, it is essential to have clear what a text is (McCarthy. 2001).

Wen (2007), assumes that it is hard for beginners to achieve coherence due to cultural and linguistic disparity between Chinese (the students' first language) and English (the students' second language). These learners, he assumes, need some support and guidance on this aspect. He further proposes some specific training methods for achieving coherence.

⁷Macrostructure: The underlying high-level structure that accounts for the overall organization of a text or discourse (see Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000: 239).

⁸Meta-discourse 'refers to linguistic material (...) that guide the reader through the text, linking individual propositions so that they form a cohesive and coherent whole', Lee (2002:39). They are also called discourse markers or transitional words.

1. Using participles, clauses and conjunctions to combine simple sentences and render complex sentences.
2. Inserting linking words, signposting expressions, and transitional signals into a text in relation to the time sequence or the logic.
3. Creating a paragraph or text by ordering jumbled sentences so as to achieve expressiveness.
4. Creating a text in a logical sequence by ordering jumbled paragraphs.
5. Dividing a text into sections or paragraphs in a more logic and systematic way.

(p.56)

Eventually, the need to operationalise the concept of coherence in order to generate more knowledge in the process of dealing with it, or illustrate it in writing instruction becomes inevitable. Students should see coherent frameworks rather than a fuzzy and an abstract concept. Assuming that a piece of writing needs careful organisation of all its parts so that one idea leads logically to the next, it is important, hence, to reconsider what Harmer (2001) displays about coherence. It is thought to be reflected through cohesion (surface or explicit representation) which is that part of grammar or syntax that helps the reader to make the right connections between ideas.

Thus, coherent writing makes sense because you can follow the separate of ideas and points. To help all the parts relate to one another, student-writers have to be taught to use some important techniques, such as “repetition of key words, use of synonyms and pronouns to refer to key words, and careful choice of transitional expressions” (Scarry & Scarry. 2011). All writers must continually work to achieve coherence. Even professional writers work on more than one draft because they see room for improvement as they move from one idea, one sentence, or one paragraph to the next. If something is unclear or lacks logical sequence, they revise.

2.4. Achieving Paragraph Coherence

A paragraph is a group of sentences that develops one main idea. A paragraph may stand by itself as a complete piece of writing, or it may be a section of a longer piece of writing, such as an essay. In all cases, it is argued that a paragraph which is too short can make a reader think that some basic information is missing. On the other hand, a paragraph that is too long will likely make a reader lose interest. Then, for a paragraph to be effective, it must be long enough, about five to ten sentences, using suitable techniques and helpful tips to develop the main idea the writer is expressing.

Since coherence reflects the concrete and logical structure of text or discourse, thus, a paragraph, as a piece of discourse, is coherent if it is a complete unit in which there is a logical arrangement among the sentences which flow together. In this respect, Baker (1962) describes a coherent paragraph as a collection of connected sentences which show building blocks of solid ideas that are organised smoothly around one single idea, like “a family in which all members are related; likewise, all sentences in the paragraph are related” (Owl. 2009:40).

Hence, paragraph coherence can be achieved through using a number of techniques which help in making bridges among the sentences inside the paragraph. McCloud-Bondoc (2009) indicates that a coherent paragraph flows because it is arranged in a definite plan, picturing three main components. The first component is the introduction which displays the specific topic. The second component is the body which presents information in a logical sequence to convince the reader. The final component is the conclusion which summarises the whole paper or displays the final comment. For this definite plan, techniques were proposed (Tichy. 1966:274; Meyers. 2006a:75-84; McCloud-Bondoc. 2009:33), which help in connecting the sentences together leading the reader to a coherent paragraph. The most salient ones are as follows.

1. Precise Reference: The most common reference markers are pronouns which take the place of nouns in the antecedent sentences. As a result, all these references tie sentences together keeping the reader's mind on the idea being discussed. It is important to make sure what noun (antecedent) the pronoun is pointing to or one can cause confusion instead of coherence in the paragraph. Examples of these pronouns and demonstrative adjectives include '*this, those, you, they, them*'. Johnson (2002) agrees with Brown and Yule (1983) in saying that an item in one sentence is encoded by referring to another portion in another sentence.

2. Parallelism: It means using similar parallel constructions in a series of consecutive sentences in the paragraph so that one can notice parallel relationships among these sentences more easily and clearly with necessary details. Moreover, Meyers (2006a) states that such kind of technique captures one's attention to the ideas that support the topic sentence as it adds a pleasing rhythm to them.

3. Repetition: It involves the repeated use of key words and phrases in a number of times in a paragraph. Tichy (1966) considers word echo, the use of synonyms or what is known as the repetition of key words as a common transitional method, where main words are repeated, and the central idea is stressed with the result that coherence and emphasis reinforce each other. Repetition helps in making a connection between sentences and maintains continuity among these sentences, holding the readers' attention at the idea being dealt with (Scarry & Scarry. 2011).

4. Transitions: Transitional words and phrases are used to link parts of a paragraph to help one sentence glide into another as well as shift the ideas from one to the next. These transitions show the logical relationships among the sentences in the paragraph. An accurate use of transitions leads to a coherent paragraph; on the contrary, inaccurate use of them leads to a doubtful text. Coherence, thus, is achieved through the careful use of transitions. Applied linguists and text analysts give considerable attention to transitional

signals. Halliday and Hasan (1976:249) refer to them as conjuncts by using terms connectives, and conjunctions. According to Conner (1996:49), conjuncts help to notice how texts are recognized and how various parts of the text are linked together functionally and semantically. These signals are style-sensitive devices referring to the way speakers and writers arrange information in discourse, and the constraints that control this process. Synthesising what Nuttall (2005), Meyers (2006a) and Scarry & Scarry (2011) have proposed as common transitions, a list is arranged according to meaning and presented in Figure 2.1 below.

Dealing with coherence techniques, Scarry and Scarry (2011) put it clear considering the fact that any piece of writing needs careful organisation of all its parts so that one idea leads logically to the next. They further assert that to help all the parts of the paragraph relate to one another, writers should use three important techniques: repetition of key words, use of synonyms and pronouns to refer to key words, and careful choice of transitional expressions. They state that

All writers must continually work to achieve coherence. Even professional writers work on more than one draft because they see room for improvement as they move from one idea, one sentence, or one paragraph to the next. (p.27)

Meaning		Transitions
Enumeration (or counting)		first, second, third, next, then, after that, finally.
Space		above, around, behind, below, beneath, beyond, close by, farther away, in front of, in the front(back, near), in the middle(centre), inside, on the inside(outside), nearby, next to, to the left (right), to the north (south),on the right(left, bottom, top), outside, over, under, underneath.
Time	(1) in sequence	after, after a while, afterward, and then, an hour (a day, a week) later, eventually, finally, first (second, third), later(on), next, soon, still later, the next day(week, year), tomorrow
	(2)simultaneous or close in time	as, as soon as, at that moment, during, immediately, meanwhile, suddenly, when, while
	(3) previous time	before, earlier, last night (month, year), yesterday; (4) at a stated time: in March, in 2016
Addition		additionally, also, and, furthermore, in addition, moreover, too.
Comparison		in the same way (manner), likewise, similarly, again, like, likewise, as well as, both, the same, equally, similar to, similarly, just as.
Concession		as you probably know, certainly, naturally, no doubt, of course.
Contrast		although, but, despite, even though, however, nevertheless, nonetheless, on the contrary, on the other hand, yet, otherwise, different from, still, except for, unlike, whereas, in contrast with.
Emphasis		above all, especially, indeed, in fact, in particular, most important
Illustration		as an example (illustration), for example, for instance, in particular, such as. Another example is..., to illustrate, ..., a personal anecdote that, an illustration of this is ..., illustrates this point is ..., one such case is...
Qualification		maybe, perhaps, possibly.
Reason		as, because, because of, for, one reason for this is, since, caused by, results from, the reason is that, for this reason.
Effect		accordingly, as a result, resulted in, consequently, since, so, so that, then, therefore, thus.
Summary /conclusion		and so, in other words, in short, in summary, to summarize, to sum up, thus, therefore .

Figure 2.1. Paragraph Common Transitions (Nuttal. 2005; Meyers. 2006a; Scarry & Scarry. 2011)

An ideal written English paragraph is a surface orthographic representation of a linearly-developed, logically coherent and syntactically cohesive unit of sense (Sa'Adeddine. 1989, in Latief. 1990). For this written product to be effective, it must be clear enough to comprehend, reflect linguistic as well as textual maturity, and cooperate in

passing meaning to the reader who is supposed to gather meaning from the linguistic and textual representation (Mustafa. 1990).

2.5. Coherence Problems in EFL Writing

Writing is seen to help and contribute in the learning process by reinforcing the grammatical structure, vocabulary being learnt, and getting involved with the new language. Nevertheless, it is common to see learners with years of foreign language instruction experience still encounter considerable difficulties when they have to write for communication in the target language. The reason for this common failure is certainly multifaceted.

Learning writing in English is not a simple task to EFL learners. In effect, academically involved writing requires conscious effort and much practice in composing, developing and analysing ideas. Raimes (1983) states that “the effort to express ideas and constant use of eye, hand and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning” (p.3). In their attempt to master the writing skill, EFL learners inevitably make errors. Thus, these learners face constraints deriving from potentially limited linguistic abilities in the L2 such as vocabulary, language structure and so on, in addition to limited communicative abilities. In this concern, Rivers (1981) asserts that:

Unfortunately, examination papers in composition the world over are, with few exceptions, disappointing. Many college and university students with four, five, six or more years of study of another language behind them are still unable to express themselves in a clear, correct, and comprehensible manner in writing. (p.291)

Analysing the overall quality of writing from a variety of first language backgrounds such as Arabic in the learning of English as a foreign language, both holistically and analytically, it has been discovered that one of the major difficulties lies first in the grammar of the language. The learners do make various types of grammatical errors in

their written products e.g. overuse of the present continuous which is a common mistake with Algerian learners of English (Abderrahim. 2006), and grammatical accuracy is an essential feature of standard written English.

However, with the increased interest in communicative competence and teaching language for communication, the focus of attention has shifted from mere grammatical accuracy to comprehensibility or communicative effectiveness as the major criterion in error correction or evaluation (Burt. 1975; Vann, Meyer, & Lorenz. 1984; Johns. 1986; Mustafa. 1990). Error gravity studies have attempted to determine what types of errors significantly hinder communication or cause the greatest difficulties for comprehension.

Burt (1975), for example, found that wrong word order affected overall sentence organisation and significantly hindered communication. Errors such as noun and verb inflections and articles, on the other hand, affected only single elements in a sentence and did not hinder communication. Later researchers such as Vann, Meyer, and Lorenz (1984) have confirmed what Burt (1975) has found. A word order error significantly hindered communication and was judged as least acceptable by native speakers of English. By contrast, article errors did not detract from comprehensibility and are judged as tolerable. Hence, language learners indispensably need to write coherent and cohesive texts if they wish to prove to be qualified English writers, whether they are EFL or ESL learners. This is the case in EFL contexts in which there is little direct exposure to English.

In the same token, Johns (1986) admits that textbooks do not provide students with sufficient introduction to the depth and variety of coherence features that are necessary for proficient writing. She states that these ESL textbooks present sentences according to the grammar level which just teach students to provide supporting examples and details without examining the multitude of coherence features.

Research in the field of cohesion and coherence in the English texts has indicated that FL writers should always keep in mind that readers would not be able to trace the ideas in

any written text, unless they signal the interconnections of the preceding and following pieces of the message through contextual clues. Selinker (1994) emphasises how the foreign language learner passes through a stage of inter-language in which systematic errors of various kinds occur in foreign language learning and learner's production; many of his followers support the claim that the errors made by inter-language writers are systematic. Their contributions make it possible for the attempt to relate the EFL abstract cohesion and coherence deficiency to the systematic problems from the perspective of intercultural communication to better text qualities.

In this respect, Widdowson (1996) argues that communicating in writing is not only a matter of learning to produce correct linguistic structures, but also that of learning the rhetorical conventions appropriate to different kinds of discourse. The FL learners have already learnt how to write in their own language. This implies that "they will have acquired the essential interactive ability underlying discourse enactment and the ability to record it in text" (p. 45). Their problem, then, "is how to textualize discussion in a different language" (ibid). Thus, Widdowson (1996) emphasises the inter-relationship that should exist between the writer, audience or reader and context. He states that the student

must be aware of the function of language or a device for negotiating the transfer of information by referring to shared knowledge. This means that the student should always have some idea of who he is meant to be interacting with, of what shared knowledge he can assume; including knowledge of conventions of rhetorical organization which characterise different types of discourse. (p.44)

Many students, unfortunately, as Harouni (1998) explains, do not always succeed in selecting what is appropriate to the context. Accordingly, learners' written production often sounds unidiomatic and non-native. When attempting to write a new language, the students find it difficult to express themselves. They often load their writings with poorly

disguised translations of their first language experience; whereas writing well in the target language means thinking in its forms, its approach to logic, and the development of ideas, in addition to the adoption of its semantic distinctions and syntactic structures (Raimes. 2008; Aldera. 2016)

Much earlier, Nunan (1999) maintains that producing a coherent, fluent and extended writing piece is likely the most difficult thing in language since the reader has to comprehend what has been written relying on his interpretation without referring to the writer's clarification. In order for communication to be successful, Harmer (2001) asserts that the written discourse has to be structured in such a way that it will be understood by the readers. Truly accessible writing has to be both coherent and cohesive. To achieve this end, the writer needs to master adequate skills in making each paragraph cohesive, a stepping stone to a coherent text.

Thus, the research findings show that grammaticality of the structure and the appropriate use of mechanics of writing received the main concern of EFL teachers. On the other hand, texts were suffering from weaknesses belonging to coherence more than to the grammar and mechanics of writing. This tends to "perpetuate a situation reflecting an insufficient preparation for academic activities at higher level" Bensemmane (2003:73). In this concern, Widdowson (1996) asserts that it is not enough to know the linguistic rules, but also to know how to use them. To communicate effectively, a writer must know what to put onto paper, to whom, when, and where. Thus, students should learn to identify, in addition to grammar and sentence structure, cohesive ties, make lexical subordinations, improve transitions and combine sentences to create information flow and theme, to achieve cohesion and coherence for a general discourse which are especially useful to teachers to explain why a passage can be unclear (Hoey. 2000; Zhu & Yan. 2001; Hinkel. 2004).

Importantly, Basturkmen (2002) has earlier on assumed that FL learners may misuse or overuse these cohesive devices like conjunctions. She further asserts that one major source of coherence derives from the relationship of ideas. She intends to refer to the use of sequences typical in English written text-clause relations and macro patterns. She describes some instructional activities designed to help students achieve greater cohesion and coherence in their writing, illustrating the problem of using conjunctions, with examples from the writing of two advanced non-native speakers (NNS) students.

Due to the different ways of thinking between English and Arabic, Arab learners, have some trouble in achieving sentence coherence (Kharma. 1985; Qaddumi. 1995; El-aswad. 2002). They are liable to use simple sentences rather than compound sentences, and they are unable to use linking words to achieve clarity and coherence. Undoubtedly writing as one of the foreign language skills is really arduous. According to Richards and Renandya (2002) the difficulty emanates both from generating and organising ideas and translating these ideas into readable text.

To illustrate, Kharma (1985) attributes the problems of writing composition in English as a foreign language to the whole discourse and not only to the sentence or paragraph-levels. He (1985) finds that the major causes of writing problems may include the following:

- Nature of the teaching process
- Idealization of the teaching materials
- Lack of motivation
- Limited exposure to authentic English
- Inadequate command of the foreign language
- Tolerance of students of discourse mistakes
- Differences between the native and foreign language rhetoric (p.101)

Additionally, Al-Sharah (1988) investigated the rhetorical problems which were grouped into six major sectors, thesis statement, unity, coherence, completeness,

organisation, order and wording. According to him, coherence is a basic element that can determine whether the parts of the composition are well-sequenced, so that the reader can find them meaningful and intelligible. When analysing these compositions for coherence, it was found that the good sequence of the parts, careful placement of the paragraphs and the use of transitional phrases were absent. Coherence devices such as coordinating conjunctions, conjunction adverbs and transitional phrases, and cohesive ties, such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion, were nearly absent or misused. There was more coordination than subordination in students' compositions due to the frequent use of "and" to link sentences or ideas.

In his study, Shakir (1991a) attempts to discover the extent to which teachers' worries regarding coherence coverage or diverge with the perceptions of text linguists who believe that the text is coherent if it fulfils the following four conditions:

1. It manifests the characteristics of the modality whether written or spoken, through which it is intended to be conveyed.
2. The topic development displays an awareness of the audience's anticipations of how such a text of such a function would unfold.
3. Content progression is maintained within constraints imposed by nature of the rhetorical function of the task in question. In such a text, grammatical structure and cohesive connectives are seen as entailed by the rhetorical function which the text is undertaking, and as configurations of underlying relationships that pull the components together.
4. Content organisation can lend itself to hierarchical structure in which the recipient can perceive super and subordinate sentences; developing a given topic with the latter being generated to substantiate the former, and without which the text would seem as a list of discrete points.

Moreover, in another analysis, Shakir (1991b) has found the results indicated below:

- Teachers of English as a foreign language were concerned with weaknesses in the sentence rather than with those at over sentential level.
- Teachers were aware of weaknesses related to global coherence in texts.
- The concern with the mechanics of writing generated the highest percentage of teachers' remarks.
- "And" as a cohesive connective was widely used while other connectors were missing and misused if employed. This difficulty exactly agrees with what Al-Sharah (1988) pointed out.

Al-Abed Al-Haq and Ahmed (1994) examined the discourse problems in argumentative writings of Saudi University students of English and found out that their overall written performance was discouraging. They found that the sample failed to write a clearly stated thesis statement that was well supported, developed and qualified. The lack of clarity, development and support also applied to the topic sentences controlling the paragraphs. Moreover, students' treatment of arguments lacked coherence. The intra and inter-sentential transitional devices were not properly employed. These difficulties and low performance in argumentative writings were referred to the fact that such writing requires the following ingredients (ibid: 316):

- Ability to build up arguments and furnish counterarguments, which requires rich and varied sources of knowledge,
- Ability to support or rebut arguments,
- Ability to persuade logically and convincingly,
- Ability to organise and develop arguments coherently and to write cohesively.

Having the same concern, Qaddumi (1995) compares the writings of a group of Arab students at the University of Bahrain in both Arabic and English. His main purpose is to investigate possible sources and solutions to the problem of textual incoherence and deviation. To this end, four hundred and sixty composition papers have been reviewed and thirty texts were analysed in both languages to discover possible interference at the linguistic, cultural and rhetorical levels. The study explores coherence from different perspectives such as cohesion, recoverability, continuity, development of topics, role of lexis, text structure and organisation. The analysis of texts reveals that repetition, parallelism, sentence length, lack of variation and misuse of certain cohesive devices are major sources of incoherence and textual deviation in students' writing. The study concluded that there should be more concentration on the preservation of topic unity in teaching writing.

Moreover, El-Alswad (2002) has examined the writing processes of Libyan University students' writing processes and discovered that EFL students' difficulty appears when performing the written task in developing a connection between sentences in a logical order, which facilitates communication between the writer and the reader. FL students, according to him, lack the ability to use the conventional patterns of organisation, which are different in the target language. These learners also encounter difficulty to choose appropriate grammatical and lexical systems when composing in English. Moreover, a more difficult aspect of writing relates to the whole discourse style, since traditional Arabic punctuation is much skimpier than in English, with sentences often linked simply by the equivalent of "and", covering whole paragraphs, advocating Al-Sharah's (1988) and Shakir's (1991b) findings. Strengthening this finding, Dickins (2010) considers the dense use of coordination between clauses, and also at the start of sentences and even paragraphs: "*fa- "so/and"*", as well as *'tumma "then"*' (p.1095) towards the end of the text, is a typical feature of Arabic.

Recently, a study conducted by Saihi Kihal (2015) aims to set an essay writing instruction for third-year students of English at Biskra University, in Algeria, in the light of the tenets of process-genre approach. Her findings show that the students face challenges at mastering the features of academic writing and the essay format, vocabulary use, language use, mechanics, and mainly its content development and organisation. She also finds that when FL students write their essays, they do not pay much interest to the purpose of writing that is mainly academic. Since the teacher is their only audience in terms of classroom activities and exam tasks, they write personal written production instead of academic. Consequently, they produce essays with irrelevant content, loose organisation, less academic vocabulary and poor sentence constructions.

In his study, Aldera (2016) analyses cohesion and coherence in selected discourses, written by advanced MA students in the female section in the Department of English at Najran University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Following content analysis method, his study aims to help EFL Saudi teachers to address the problems of cohesion and coherence at discourse level and take pedagogical precautions to prevent them. The results indicate the learners' inefficiency at the application of language as well as the basic mechanics of writing. They lack the fundamental knowledge of the rules of syntax, inter-sentence relations, and cohesive devices. They also show weakness in logical thought and organizational pattern. The analysis shows that students are not aware of a clear-cut model of standard written English which they could follow and emulate. On the basis of these findings, Aldera (2016) recommends giving the students ample drilling in the use of these cohesive devices and providing them with the format, structures, model, and brainstorming activities while teaching discourse writing. According to him, problems of cohesion and coherence may be overcome by using effective transitions, and maintaining logical development, structural organisation and satisfying conclusion.

Consequently, students who speak more than one language draw from multiple cultures and language practices as they write (Coady & Escamilla. 2005). This influences the choice of topic, words, organisation, and many other aspects of writing. Accordingly, selecting the appropriate word or expression for a specific situation in the context may convey easily the meaning and transmit the message, as Rivers (1981) states that “students must learn to select from among possible combinations of words and phrases those which will convey the meanings they have in mind.” (p.295)

Of a non-Arabic background, Gao (2012) studies the concept of coherence in the research context of contrastive rhetoric, comparing the coherence quality in argumentative essays written by undergraduates in Mainland China and their U.S. peers. Five linguistic theories of coherence have been synthesised in order to analyse the concept of coherence: Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) cohesion theory, Carroll’s (1983) theory of coherence, Enkvist’s (1990) theory of coherence, Topical Structure Analysis and Toulmin’s (1956) Model. Hotelling t-test statistical analysis was conducted to predict differences in argumentative coherence between essays written by two groups of participants, using 30 interviews of the writers in the studies. The study found that American students made use of more pronominal reference, while Chinese students adopted more lexical devices of reiteration and extended paralleling progression. Moreover, the interview data implied that the difference may be associated with the difference in linguistic features and rhetorical conventions in Chinese and English.

Thus, apart from grammatical problems, difficulties in EFL writing may be rooted in the discourse aspect of the language. Students with syntactic maturity may not be able to produce well-written essays or paragraphs because they do not know how to express their thoughts or organise well their ideas in writing. It is significant for EFL teachers, then, to ensure that the learner exhibits successful performance at both grammatical and discourse levels, grammatical competence and communicative competence (Hymes. 1971,

Widdowson. 1978). Furthermore, in order to assist the learners in improving the quality of their writing and achieving more proficiency as EFL writers, these teachers should be provided with insights into various features which contribute to writing quality that need to be taken into account in assessing students' writing.

Taking a non-linguistic stand in discussing EFL learners' problems in writing, Hedge (1991:6) asserts that to a preponderance of EFL learners, nothing is more discouraging than doing a writing task and knowing that it will come under the eyes of the teacher, who will consider it as a source of errors to be corrected. Thus, the nature of writing itself is not interesting enough to motivate learners of English to practice regularly. In this respect, Hamp and Heasley (2006) state that

Few people write spontaneously and feel comfortable with a formal writing task intended for the eyes of someone else. When the "someone else" is the teacher, whose eyes may be critical, and who indeed may assign an individual assessment to the written product, most people feel uncomfortable. (p.2)

In fact, several students find themselves in a hide-and-seek game with ideas since they normally have to write about what is assigned by their teacher rather than about what bears much relevance to them. On this basis, Byrne (1991) pronounces that "being at a loss for ideas is a familiar experience to most of us when we are obliged to write" (p.2), and Tho (2000) echoes that "non-native writers may not have enough ideas to write down or, even worse, they have nothing to say" (p.36). This fact is widely spread among foreign language learners who find themselves engaged in looking at the roof (ceiling) of the room or out of the window rather than really being in contact with their pen and paper.

Above, and beyond the dearth of motivation, time pressure hinders learners' writing effectiveness. In the EFL classroom, students tend to be compelled to perform their writing tasks within a certain period. Almost of them cannot follow the writing process stages,

jumping directly to the final draft without any revision; they even do not care about the use of a suitable prewriting technique to gather, generate and organise ideas. This step is a waste of time for them. On FL students' writing problems, Chanderasegaran (2002) indicates that in the writing classroom, some students take much longer time than others to write the whole essay; while others never finish their writing in class. This may be due to time devoted to thinking, planning or revising, and speed in handwriting. In this respect, Weir (1990) gives an understanding glimpse:

Time pressure is often an unrealistic constraint for extended writing and writing timed essays is not normally done outside of academic life. For most people the writing process is lengthier and may involve several tasks before a finished version is produced. (p.61)

In sum, as students learn to write in a foreign language, they learn how to plan, revise and edit their texts, to search for appropriate words and phrases, and to tail their ideas in respect to the forms of the intended language. Teachers, have to be satisfied when their students are able to write what they want to express with clarity and precision (Rivers. 1981).

Thus, writing is a complex process which requires many skills. Carrell (1983a) suggests distinguishing three writing skills:

1. Knowledge of the language → a certain level of competence is needed to start with;
2. Context → knowing to whom and why you are writing; and
3. Knowledge of convention → expectations of the content and style (background knowledge of the rhetorical structures of texts).

2.6. Assessing Coherence in EFL Writing

Assessing student's written performance as a crucial aspect of teaching, and a formative process closely linked to the planning, design, and teaching strategies becomes essential. In

FL classroom, assessment is not simply a matter of setting exams or tests and giving marks. Scores and evaluative feedback contribute enormously to the learning of individual students and to the development of an effective and responsive writing course. As a result, an understanding of assessment procedures is necessary to ensure that teaching is having the desired impact. Without the information gained from assessments, it would be difficult to identify the gap between students' current and target performances and to help them progress.

In this concern, Brindley (1989) argues that assessment is an integral part of instruction into the learning process of any language as a tool for communication rather than a language knowledge as an end in itself "relevant to immediate learning" (Carr & Harris. 2001:35). In the same vein, Moir (2004) asserts that a range of on-going assessments in educational settings "provides consistent guidance for planning and instruction" (p.14). Teachers should help determine what the students have mastered, what they still need, and what will need next. They should assess what and how students choose to write (Harmer. 2001).

Traditionally, a student's writing was judged in comparison with the writing of others, i.e., ranking learners in relation to each other (student X came in the top 10 per cent) as explained by Brindley (2001). This is a norm-referenced method that has largely given way to criterion-referenced practices where the quality of each essay is judged in its own right against some external criteria such as coherence and grammatical accuracy. Brindley (1991) refers to criterion-referenced assessment as the "implicit understanding of the domains of language use those need to be informed by explicit criteria (standards) that attempt to embody multiple perspectives on communicative ability." (p.14) Norm-referenced tests are especially useful in selecting relatively high and low members of a group; while criterion-referenced tests are useful in specifying those who meet or fail to

meet a standard of performance. The key requirement of any assessment is that it should assess consistently the students' abilities (Brindley. 2001).

Criterion-referenced procedures take a variety of forms and fall into two main categories: Holistic or global and analytic. The first assesses a product based on an overall impression or its overall effectiveness; the second, however, is based on separate scales of overall writing features (Harmer. 2001; Weigle. 2002).

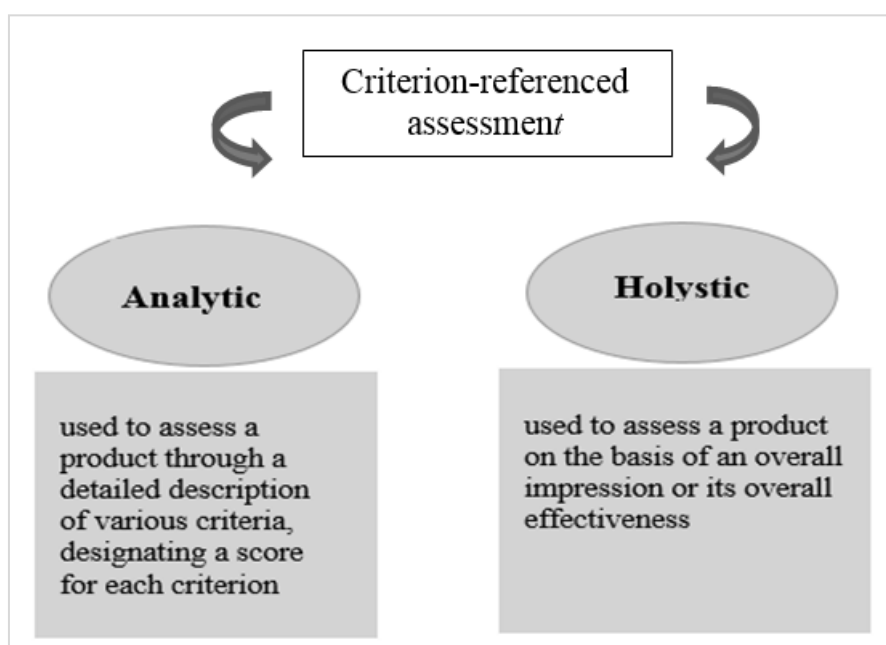


Figure 2.2. Criterion-referenced Assessment Forms

The holistic approach considers things as complete units, as wholes (White. 1985). This kind of assessment is based on the view that there exist inherent overall quality of writing which is greater than the sum of constituents (Hamp-Lyons. 1997), and thus, writing should be evaluated as a single entity. Holistic ratings may be assigned on the basis of general impression scoring or may be based on a scoring guide, which consists of specific linguistic and rhetoric features that need to be taken into account while rating a piece of writing (Charney. 1984).

Moreover, because this approach requires a response to the text as a whole, readers must be carefully trained to respond in the same way to the same features. Scoring guides,

called “rubrics”, are used to aid raters by providing bands of descriptions corresponding to particular proficiency or rhetorical criteria. They are used to formalise the evaluation process and provide fair and clear results to students. Most holistic rubrics have between four to six bands⁹. Rubrics are designed to suit different contexts, and seek to reflect the goals of the course. A common procedure for measuring writing proficiency relies on what Hamp-Lyons (1991) refers to as “focused holistic scoring” (p.244), where a single score, tied into a descriptor of expected performances at different levels, represents the overall quality of the writing. The strength of holistic scoring lies in its practicality, but is only really effective with fairly advanced levels of writing. Educational Testing Service (ETS) developed a well-known holistic scoring system for ESL writing in 1986 for scoring the Test of Written English (TWE). It uses a six-point scale based on a criterion-referenced scoring guide developed to ensure consistency in scoring and high inter-rater reliability.

In the analytic rubric, several sub-categories are scored individually. Analytic scoring is somewhat less practical than holistic scoring because it takes more time to apply the criteria to each script to be marked. Contrary to the holistic approach, the analytic approach of assessing writing involves an “itemized analysis and is commonly used to identify weaknesses in a student's writing” (Klimova. 2011). It considers things to be made up of various parts, and the knowledge of each constituent part will lead to understanding the whole. The analytic writing assessment is thus based on the assumption that each feature of writing should be scored separately and the final score is made up of the sum of separate scores (White. 1985). Implicit understanding of the domains of language use need to be informed by explicit criteria (standards) that attempt to embody multiple perspectives on communicative ability (Brindley. 1991). Criteria identified do not focus on form (word

⁹Further examples can be found in Hamp-Lyons (1991) and White (1994).

choice, spelling, paragraphing and sentence variety) to a greater degree than on the students' development of ideas in their writing.

The use of explicit and comprehensible descriptors, which in part relate to what is taught, allows teachers to target writing inadequacies precisely and provides a clear framework for feedback and revision. Favouring this scoring for foreign language learners, Weigle (2002) argues that

Analytic scoring schemes...provide more detailed information about a test taker's performance in different aspects of writing and are for this reason preferred over holistic schemes by many writing specialists. (pp. 114–115)

One of the most frequently used models of analytic assessment is the Topical Structure Analysis (TSA). Recognised as a good strategy for EFL students to revise their compositions, the topical structure analysis has been applied to discriminate the writing quality of essays (Connor & Farmer. 1997). In persuasive writing, for instance, Conner (1991) developed a set of six measures for analysis and evaluation, measuring three major variables: syntax, coherence, and persuasiveness. The coherence scale includes three variables related to topic development based on Topical Structure Analysis: parallel progression (PP), sequential progression (SP), and extended parallel (EPP) progression (Conner. 1991). This technique of assessing coherence has gained the favour of many EFL researchers because of its practicality and simplicity.

Several researchers have utilised this technique in comparing sets of texts or examining the topical structure of selected samples written by EFL students (Fakhri. 1995; Simpson. 2004; Atelisi. 2012). Atelisi (2012) has attempted even to investigate the impact of teaching topical structure analysis (TSA) on the writing of Libyan EFL university students, and the way they react to and cope with it, highlighting the causal relationship

between the teaching of the TSA technique and the quality of the written products of the students.

Apart from the aforementioned analytic scoring scales, there are also analytic scoring instruments designed for assessing essays of all kinds, based on recognised characteristics of effective writing common to all genres. An example of multi-trait (analytic) scales is the Michigan Writing Assessment Scoring Guide (Hamp-Lyons. 1991). Its framework contains three 6-point scales that cover three aspects of communicative effectiveness: Ideas and arguments, rhetorical features, and language control (Weigle. 2002). Recently, multi-trait scoring rubrics are developed to provide more useful diagnostic feedback about the examinees' writing skills (Hamp-Lyons. 1991; Bacha. 2001). This can be particularly true for foreign language learners who may have uneven profiles of performance across different aspects of writing (Weigle. 2002).

In relation to essay evaluation of a sample of final exam essays written by Arab students of English attending the Freshman English I course in the EFL programme at the Lebanese American University, Basha (2001) investigated two important issues: the choice of an appropriate rating scale and setting up criteria based on the purpose of the evaluation. The results indicate that more attention should be given to the language and vocabulary aspects of students' essay writing, and a combination of holistic and analytic evaluation is needed to better evaluate students' essay writing proficiency. In the final analysis, relevant evaluation criteria go hand in hand with the purpose upon which the criteria, benchmark essays and training sessions are based.

Accordingly, the reliability of rating scales could vary considerably depending on the writing task involved (Schoonen. 2005). While holistic scoring is appropriate for scoring first-language (L1) essays, multiple-trait scoring has higher validity and reliability when rating FL essays (Hamp-Lyons. 1991), because different learners have different levels of proficiency in different aspects of FL writing. In effect, integrated assessment

methods are expected to augment authenticity and better elicit the academic writing construct.

Conclusion

In the light of what has been presented in this chapter, coherence contributes to the overall unity of a piece of discourse or text when sentences hang together and relate to each other. This unity and relatedness is partially a result of a recognisable organisational pattern for the ideas in the passage. Coherence also depends on the presence of linguistic devices that strengthen global unity and create local connectedness. In addition, there is the presence of a conventional scheme or organisation that is recognisable as generic or specific to a particular communicative purpose and discourse community.

One important feature of discussion in this chapter is that many elements are interrelated and connected with each other, having pivotal roles in the creation of textual coherence. Thus, the overall coherence can be achieved, as Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) have explained, depending on the degree of coherence within each paragraph or section of the text, leading the reader toward an easier and more effective interpretation of this text. When students present their ideas in writing tasks, they need to ensure a text flow through a sequence of well-connected sentences. For that, the writers' attention should be directed to the ideas they wish to express, as well as the sentences they use to express those ideas. To enhance the connectedness of sentences in a text, several successful strategies have been utilised in the classroom by the teacher as well as the learner such as modelling.

Chapter Three

Modelling Strategy in EFL Writing

Introduction.....	93
3.1. Modelling Strategy: Significance and Background.....	93
3.2. Model-texts and Authenticity.....	100
3.3. Approaches to Writing Instruction: Major Precursors.....	103
3.4. Reading-writing Connections.....	113
3.5. Facilitating Modelling through Genre-based Approach to Writing.....	117
3.6. Textual Organisation in Genre Analysis.....	125
Conclusion.....	129

Chapter Three

Modelling Strategy in EFL Writing

Introduction

The ultimate goal of foreign language classrooms is to promote a comforting, encouraging and engaging atmosphere of learning. To this end, teachers have to develop effective methods of teaching the different skills including writing, explicit and achievable through more successful teaching materials. However, university EFL students are facing noticeable challenges in completing writing coherent, effective and convincing assignments to the teacher or to the reader at large. To clear such challenges, EFL writing teachers would probably agree that student-writers must be given in-or-out class opportunities to study examples of the genre they are trying to write in. Teachers can help learners with noticing tasks to learn to be able to predict all the useful language needed to recreate a coherent text of their own.

This chapter pinpoints the main terms and concepts used to describe the process of writing from sources which vary but overlap. Many studies highlight the importance of the recursive reading, thinking and planning processes essential to the meaningful transformation of source texts in specific communicative contexts. For successful creativity to occur, it is needed to look at finished pieces of writing and to see how ideas are put together and developed for taking them as a model.

3.1. Modelling Strategy: Significance and Background

Writing from source samples is a common academic task that requires students to select, organise, and connect language as well as content from different sample texts as they compose their own writing. The idea of using model paragraphs and essays to improve novice writers' writing abilities and style has been a core interest of several

researchers in the field of EFL learning (Hillocks. 1986; Smagorinsky. 1992; Spivey. 1997; Hedge. 2000; Bagheri & Zare. 2009; Abbuhl. 2011). Research in EFL learning indicates that natural and selected model-texts for a particular genre are useful as they provide content to react to and a piece of communication to respond to. In effect, modelling can be regarded as a method of instruction that refers to the presentation of model pieces of writing such as works from authors or expert writers in order to exemplify the characteristics of good writing (Zampardo. 2008). Teaching EFL writing through a model-based approach or samples' presentation through a negotiation of texts by learners and teacher for an independent construction of texts by learners is expected to play crucial roles to foster learners' awareness of target language writing.

Evidence supporting the central place of models' use in teaching writing can be traced back to antiquity (Smagorinsky. 1992:172). The use of model paragraphs or whole essays to teach writing is commonly used by teachers instructing native English speakers in writing classes (Bagheri & Zare. 2009). Abbuhl (2011) reports that model-texts are commonly used in both L1 and FL classes to assist novice writers. Writing teachers agree that students must be given the opportunity to study exemplars of the genre they are attempting to write in. Richards (1990:114-115) addresses this as follows

The effective writing teacher is not one who has developed a 'method' for the teaching of writing, but one who can create an effective environment for learning, in which novice writers feel comfortable about writing and can explore the nature of writing –and in so doing discover their own strengths and weaknesses as writers.

Earlier on, Hillocks (1986:154) has stated that “the writer must be familiar with examples of the type and know the parts of the type and their relationships”. In the same token, Greene (1993:34), points out that reading plays an important part in the writing class ‘because we believe that students can learn about writing through imitating models of well-

wrought prose'. At any rate, EFL learners have to recognise the conventions of the target language which help them to be creative and, thus, achieve effective written communication. In this regard, Nunan (1991) agrees that without models, learners would be less able to identify these boundaries and conventions, and less able to understand what they are writing. He further (1991:88) adds that:

Creativity and creative freedom can only exist within certain boundaries and conventions if communication is to be effective, and a major task confronting the learner of a second or foreign language is to identify the boundaries of his or her new language.

Hence, if writing is meant to be communicative, the writer must communicate in an appropriate way. With guided tasks, such as discussing one's personal reaction, analysing style and register, and analysing coherence and effectiveness, the learner gets first-hand experience, and can exploit this experience and identify himself with when writing.

Of concern, Badger and White (2000) have considered modelling to be as one stage of the teaching procedure for a process-genre approach they have suggested, in addition to other five stages (preparation, planning, joint constructing, independent constructing, and revising and editing). They assert that after that the instructor helps students to perceive the structural features of the genre, he presents, at the modelling step, a model of the genre or type and asks students consider the purpose of the written text (argumentative, informative or entertaining). The teacher explains how this model-text is organised and how its structure contributes to accomplish its purpose.

In this respect, Hedge (1991) sees that the analysis of the final product or a finished piece of writing may lead to greater understanding of its main features, and overall organisation and development and to comprehend also the intended purpose for which it is written. She explains that "in order to appreciate the skills needed for successful crafting, it is useful to look at finished pieces of writing and to see how ideas are put together and

developed” (p.89). Hedge further adds that models could inform learners about cohesive devices in a text. For example, clear usage of reference markers and their referents can give learners a deeper understanding of how to manipulate words for better cohesion when they write. Thus, models that are “concrete, observable, analysable, comparable, improvable and breakable”, Gobel (2004: 2), help both teachers and learners understand how the target language functions.

Accordingly, an important feature of the use of models in EFL writing classes now is their application in the analysis of texts. According to Bagheri and Zare (2009:3), by ‘analyzing the text of model essays, FL writers become aware of how particular grammatical features are used in authentic discourse contexts’. On his part, Abbuhl (2011:2) believes that this analysis fits in with “the genre-based approach to writing instruction”, and, hence, by analysing texts for their “organizational, lexico-grammatical, and rhetorical features, students are sensitized to the genre’s social context”. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that natural and selected model-texts often have useful language for a particular genre. Teachers can help learners with selected model-texts to “make better use, for acquisitional purposes, of all the language which they meet accurate of noticing of lexical chunks, grammatical (...) patterns” (Lewis. 1993:53).

Regarding models’ use in EFL context, Yang and Zhang’s (2010) study examines the effectiveness of reformulation and model text in a three-stage writing task (composing–comparison–revising) in an EFL writing class in a Beijing university. Their study documented 10 university students’ writing performance from the composing and comparing stages, where students compared their own texts to the reformulated versions and a model text, to the improvement of the written product in the post-test stage. The findings suggest that the students made more effort in finding the proper language to express their ideas at stage 1 and were able to notice most differences between their original text and the reformulated one at stage 2. The participants were allowed to notice

their improper language uses, and be exposed to richer language input of native-like use, resulting in better performance in their revised writings at the post-test. After reading through their students' written comments, Yang and Zhang have found that the students appreciated having an opportunity to read both the reformulated text and the native model text for a broad range of language input. Though the context in China (English is L2) is different from that in Algeria (English is L3), the stages followed by Yang and Zhang, their goals and findings are useful in this area of research.

Hence, the samples' use and analysis is one of the techniques that enable the preparation and presentation of a target language learning activity. Engaging receptively with these tasks enables EFL learners to "begin to focus their attention on trying to understand what is written, thereby initiating their noticing of what forms are used in what ways" (Norris. 2009: 583). White (2000:63) gives an example of a Polish student whose task was to write a reply to a complaint. Lacked experience with writing such a genre, the learner "was to make use of a model-text from a published source" (p.64). The learner sought comfort and encouragement from the model presented.

Flowerdew (1993) observes that even native speakers often "make use of others' writing or speech to model their own work in their native language where the genre is unfamiliar. It is time that this skill to be exploited as an aid for learning." Thus, teachers can use models to meet this natural and logical choice learners may make on their own, keeping these models as helpful mental representations. Crinon and Legros (2002) claim that modelling, in its real sense, helps the student-writer create a mental model of the genre required to respond to.

However, the creation of a "model need not be a totally teacher-centred activity, and can involve contributions from all the class" (Vince. 2004:5). Involving their contributions, Vince further suggests asking learners to gather models and samples themselves from Internet research, and authentic published material such as magazines and newspapers.

What the learners may find tends to be as valuable as models the teacher has. This may help motivate learners to want to write. At beginning stages, teachers can even ask their students to collect from authentic published material such as books and magazines, complex and compound sentences as well as passages containing different types of connectors to explain later their appropriate use in context.

Additionally, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) agree on the usefulness of models as an autodidactic strategy in writing. They argue that this strategy involves using “well-written passages from literature, or passages written by others, as models for one’s own writing” (p.158). These models serve, as they further add, as ‘stimuli’ to write and compose, since they provide content to react to and a piece of communication to respond to. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain give the example of bringing brochures intended for tourists and other descriptions of towns throughout the world, which would provide a variety of models or sample writings for learners who are asked to write on the following topic: “*Describe your home town.*” They mention a point saying that:

This kind of activity alerts students to the reading audience since they themselves act as readers and can be critical of the way in which the sample information is being presented.
(Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. *ibid*)

Virtually, however, within the product approach to teaching writing in the 1960’s, students were encouraged to slavishly imitate the model essays they were given Abbuhl (2011). The main charge against their use in such a manner is that students were not aware of the processes involved in their production and that this encouraged mindless imitation (Zamel. 2001). Another objection voiced by Hirvela (2004:128) is that in a second language context “confusion may result from students juxtaposing their native language schema about written texts against what they are learning from target language models”. The result is erroneous and incoherent compositions.

Having known that, in today's classroom, approaching writing via model texts is not to encourage passive and blind imitation, but rather to emphasise the importance of studying different genres. Representative samples of the target language discourse can be analysed, compared and manipulated in order to sensitise students to the fact that writing differs across genres and even cultures, and that they may need to draw on the particular structures and language features under study to achieve their writing goals (Hyland. 2003:87). On this concern, Bhatia (1993:6) insists that:

Writing instructors should tie the formal and functional properties of a target language together in order to facilitate students' recognition of employing linguistic conventions in particular rhetorical effects.

Furthermore, Hyland (2004) advocates models' use for raising the visibility of rhetorical conventions. Hyland assumes that the model-text provides students with "clear goals and a sense of how language, context, content, genre, and process are connected and relate to their work in the writing class". Similarly, Macbeth (2010) claims that their use can alleviate the apprehension associated with learning to write. Therefore, students who read extensive written materials are more believed to be proficient writers. This implies that they have a good command of the linguistic resources necessary for the creation of textuality and an effective control over its various sources such as cohesion and coherence (Mustafa. 1990). This fact was admitted by most successful learners in our university EFL classes. Strauch (1997) believes that instructors must help their students 'by making basic organizational patterns explicit' (p. 8), and this is done by including short models in writing classes.

This approach to teaching writing is known as consciousness-raising CR (Swales. 1990; Swales & Feak. 2000). It is a process that helps students both create text and reflect on writing, with much focus on how a text works as discourse rather than on its content.

This process provides the opportunity to teach explicitly vocabulary and concepts, together with the text structure to the students who are expected to produce. CR is a cognitive approach, as Abderrahim (2006: 102) displays, which “represents a wide range of activities where the focus is on noticing, a cognitive ability that leads to awareness about the use of a language structure”.

Thus, novice writers need a special pedagogy and programme of committed reading that increases their appreciation of the target language, provides inspiration for their own creative efforts and reinforces the teaching of basic rhetorical strategies (Buscemi. 1999). Guiding and training learners to exploit language in texts helps both the immediate need of having useful language, and for their long term expansion of language tools and refinement of their interlanguage¹.

3.2. Model-texts and Authenticity

Typically, in model-based tasks, learners are to examine several examples of a particular genre to identify its language structure, pattern and the ways meanings are expressed, as well as to explore the variations that are possible. Materials used as models may help teachers to increase learners’ awareness of how texts are organised, coherence is achieved, and how purposes are realised as they work toward the independent creation of the genre. To fulfil this end, Swales (1990) proposed that the texts selected should be both relevant to the students, representing the genres they will have to write in their target contexts and authentic, created to be used in real-world contexts rather than in just classrooms.

¹The term interlanguage was first used by Selinker (1969) to describe the linguistic stage second language learners go through during the process of mastering the target language. Since then, it has become a major strand of second language acquisition research and theory. According to Selinker (1972), interlanguage is a temporary grammar which is systematic and composed of rules. These rules are the product of five main cognitive processes: overgeneralisation, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of Second Language Communication and language transfer (see Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Error analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition* (31-54). London: Longman).

According to Morrow (1977: 13), authentic material can be defined as “a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to carry a real message of some sort”. In the same token, Jordan (1997) thinks that authentic material can be regarded as being a significant educational tool that makes the learner exposed to the real language, and then it increases students’ motivation for learning. Richards (2001) holds a similar opinion and believes that if appropriately conducted, authentic materials make learners feel that they are learning the 'real' language, have a positive effect on learner motivation, provide exposure to real language, relate more closely to learners' needs, and support a more creative approach to teaching.

In the same vein, Sun (2010) argues that EFL teachers should encourage their students to be exposed to authentic English widely inside and outside the classroom so as to have the established native linguistic expressions to imitate in their English writing and avoid the appearance of their L1 expressions. Imitation based on wide reading, he further adds, can help the students use less avoidance strategy. Thus, as long as EFL students try to read extensively and make adequate summaries, they can produce more native-like English passages.

From another perspective, authentic materials have to be selected in terms of their language and content. There are many things a native speaker says but foreign language teachers do not wish to introduce in their classrooms. Sometimes this is a question of cultural values and moralities FL learners can regard embedded in the academic texts of the target language. Different cultures attribute different meanings to events and human relationships, and these cultural frames, as Hyland (2003:41) explains, “influence what we find comfortable to write about”. Furthermore, Sukari (2014:195) posits that “cultural patterns and values nevertheless influence the character of the content through which second language writing skills are taught”. In FL writing classrooms, teachers often serve as explainers and mediators of cultural values.

A teacher can always select and introduce best examples of the foreign language which agree with the learner's general setting and overall background. It is more a fact of adapting language to situations than adopting a language of a situation. An effective way of making models relevant to learners, according to Swales (1990), is to distribute and analyse exemplary samples of student writing, collected from either the present or previous courses, or even previous years of other promotions. Clarke (1989:73) observes that authentic materials have come to represent almost a "moral imperative" for language teachers for simplifying a text involves altering its syntax and lexis to improve readability or to highlight a given feature which may alter the fundamental nature of the genre.

In effect, there are considerable difficulties in maintaining cohesion, coherence, and rhetorical structure when rewriting. Students may then fail to see how the elements of a text work together to form text structure. It also needs to be borne in mind that unlike simulated, authentic texts carry considerable information about those who write them, their relationship to their audience, the culture of the community in which they are written, and the general contexts in which the genre is used. Thus, effective FL writing instruction can make schemata differences explicit to students. Accordingly, authentic models are important to every writer to be familiar with the conventions and expectations that operate in different cultural settings, and add to the ideas and practices he/she brings with him/her, others to his/her repertoire to effectively participate in new situations (Hyland. 2003). When authentic texts appropriately integrated into the context of the writing process, they become a powerful and effective teaching tool.

Nevertheless, authentic texts may not always be good models and teachers should be careful to weed out those that are poorly structured and incoherent. Even where authentic texts are available, exploiting these creatively and effectively to engage learners and maximise the potential of the material can be a burden on teachers. Finding authentic texts of the right length, the right level of comprehensibility- the reader's actual comprehension

of the meaning intended by the writer- and with an accessible degree of cultural reference can be extremely time consuming, especially when teachers need to develop relevant and interesting teaching materials for their activities that will make their most effective use (Gower. 1998). To the teacher, the problem is to control the difficulty of the material while maintaining authenticity.

Thus, to attain a good command of a foreign language, learners should either be exposed to it in genuine circumstances and with natural frequency, or painstakingly study lexis and syntax assuming that they have some contact with natural input. The greatest opportunity to store, develop and use the knowledge about the target language is arisen by exposure to authentic text in the target language (Dakowska. 2001). Although the need of ensuring that students would have good writing models, teachers should also take care that the level of the materials is not so far beyond them. This could make them become disheartened and narrow their focus to the single words or phrases that they do not understand, rather than looking at the text as a whole.

Indeed, in language teaching, we adapt a single and most of the time simple model of the language which has little or no variation according to the learner who is being taught, the topic discussed, the setting in which the language is being used, and all the other factors in stylistic variation. Students eventually need to be encouraged to form habitual strategies to regulate their language in the same way that the native speakers do, appreciating the foreign language styles' diversity. Yet, for McKay (2000), authentic materials may be in a way confusing to EFL students thanks to their varied range of styles.

3.3. Approaches to Writing Instruction: Major Precursors

Writing has been defined as the act or art of forming letters and characters on paper, for the purpose of recording the ideas or of communicating them to others by visual signs (Widdowson. 1996). A review of literature revealed that with the increasing awareness of

foreign language (FL) students' needs to write for academic purposes in the target language, a writing-based pedagogy has evolved, and several major approaches to teaching writing in the FL language classroom have emerged. They have attempted to study the organisation of text construction processes, developing ways and techniques of teaching the writing skills to FL learners. All these approaches address the writer, the reader, the text, and the context, but differ from one another in the way they regard each of these four basic elements in FL writing instruction.

The last recent years have witnessed the birth and growth of a new ambition to make the orientation of writing more effective and persuasive. Research has demonstrated that writing, both as a cognitive activity and a communicative skill, goes far beyond lexicon and grammatical knowledge, but rather involves many complex processes, requires special treatment and needs to be taught and nurtured for its own right. In this respect, language teachers need to know current research and research-supported approaches to FL writing so that they will be better prepared to teach writing. Four central orientations have been identified: (1) Controlled Composition, (2) Current-traditional Rhetoric, (3) the Process Approach, and (4) English for Specific Purposes (Silva. 1997; Selviera. 1999).

The Controlled Composition approach sees writing as a means of practising structures and vocabulary learned in the classroom. Therefore, the context for writing is the classroom and the audience is the teacher. The main teaching method used by this approach was controlled composition, the philosophy of which grew directly out of the Audio-lingual Method (ALM). Rooted in a behavioural theory of learning² and a structural view of language. The ALM viewed language learning as a habit formation (Zen. 2005),

²It is also called S-R theory (Stimulus-Response theory); it is characterised by its emphasis on externally observable responses (R) to specific stimuli (S), an empirical and experimental approach, and the avoidance of subjective or 'mentalist' concepts. The psychology of learning, according to this viewpoint, therefore, is a study of learning phenomenon which disregards the intentions, the thinking, the conscious planning, and internal processes of the learner.

and “emphasized the teaching of correct oral language through the study of pattern practice, pronunciation, and grammatical structures” (Reid. 1993:22).

Basically, a controlled composition consists of a written model with directions for specific language manipulations in rewriting the model. In Hyland’s (2003) opinion, the degree of control lies the type of manipulation the student is asked to execute on the model. This type of composition needs no particular context and focuses on sentence-level structure. In controlled composition, students are not to make mistakes. Hence, most of them avoid making writing errors.

Writing is viewed as simply a means of assessing students’ ability to manipulate the structures practised in the classroom. It is a tool to demonstrate their knowledge of form in their texts, which are created through their awareness of the system of rules (Scott. 1995). As such, teachers in FL contexts tried to judge texts in terms of the number of the grammatical errors they had without paying attention to the existence of logic and meaning within the sentences and paragraphs. Focus is placed on form and accuracy rather than on discourse level (Abed Al-Haq & Ahmed. 1994:307). The teacher's main interest is not the quality of ideas or expressions, but the correct use of formal linguistic features (Kroll. 1997). The criteria of good writing in this approach were best explained by Hyland (2003: 3) as follows:

Foreign or second language writing mainly involves linguistic knowledge and the vocabulary choices, syntactic patterns, and cohesive devices that comprise the essential building blocks of texts.

The late 1970s and early 1980s saw an increasing awareness of the need for EFL learners to write extended discourse in the target language. In response to this situation, writing activities that aimed at providing students with some free writing experience began to appear. Apparently, the Current-traditional Rhetoric orientation, or what has come to be

known as the “pattern-product” approach evolved. Like Controlled Composition approach, the product-oriented class instruction places writing in the limited context of the classroom, and the teacher as the target audience.

What differentiates this orientation from the preceding one is its emphasis on text organisation. It places primary emphasis on learning “patterns”, “the method of organizing syntactic units into larger patterns” (Silva. 1993:13), and “products”, i.e. the final completed pieces of writing. For instance, ‘Dicto-comps’ and ‘sentence-combining’ were among the widely used writing activities (Raimes. 1983:107). The former requires learners to recreate a short passage from memory after listening to it several times, and the latter requires combining basic or main sentences into one longer compound or complex sentence. These exercises were designed to help students improve the sophistication of their sentence structures, and eventually improve their composition (Reid. 1993). Written language was considered as more syntactically complex, and discrete instruction at the sentence level was needed. This approach sees functions as the means for achieving the purpose of writing. Certain communicative functions are performed by particular language forms, and “students can be taught the functions most relevant to their needs” (Hyland. 2003:6).

One of the main aims of this approach is to enable students to create different types of paragraphs effectively through the production of sentences, supporting sentences, and transitions. Moreover, students practise free writing through reordering sentences in scrambled paragraphs, selecting appropriate sentences to complete paragraphs, and writing paragraphs from provided information, with clearly defined “topic sentences, supportive sentences and concluding sentences” (Matsuda. 2003:67). Students may also read and analyse a model and then create a piece of writing of their own applying the structural knowledge gained. Certain structural entities such as ‘Introduction-body-conclusion’ are the major components of texts, and students are taught to write with particular

organisational patterns or modes, "with exposition typically seen as the most appropriate for use by university-level second language writers" (Silva. 1997:14).

Viewing writing as a matter of arrangement, students have to learn how to identify, internalise and execute prescribed patterns. Teachers, however, assign vast amounts of free writing on a given topic with few considerations of the product quality. Students need to find expression for their experience in the target language and exploit them better (Hyland. 2003). Therefore, the difficulty FL learners experience in writing is largely due to a lack of understanding of these structural characteristics native speakers would typically use in their writing (Zen. 2005).

It is worth noting that in product-oriented class instruction, Badger and White (2000) list four main steps in teaching writing. First, students are exposed to a model text, and their task is to pick out grammar or lexical points. They study model texts where the features of the text are highlighted. Teachers should involve their students in reading and discussing the text sample. Second, students practise using grammar and vocabulary drills which are the focus of the lesson, and substitution drills might also be used in this stage. Students may be asked to practise the language used in the model text to produce their own text. Third, students practise writing longer pieces at the levels of paragraph and essay using the target grammar and vocabulary. At this stage, the instructor has to control form, usage and meaning. Those who favour this approach believe that the organisation of ideas is more important than the ideas themselves. Fourth, the instructor allows the students to write with much more freedom although the focus is still on form and usage. This is the final product of the learning process, and students individually use grammar and vocabulary structures that they have been taught to produce their texts.

While this pattern-product oriented approach took a writing class one step further toward writing in its real sense, it was soon criticised for its emphasis on product only and on its nature of control and manipulation (Zen. 2005). Silveira (1999) maintains that in the

Controlled Composition and Current-traditional Rhetoric approaches to writing, students are expected to reproduce sentences and rhetorical patterns, respectively, based on a model presented by the teacher. In these approaches, revision is focused on mechanics, grammar, or organisation of texts, while content is disregarded. Furthermore, if students fail to eliminate the problems in these three areas, they are thought to have learning problems (Bartholomae. 1988). On this basis, Widdowson, Kinneary, and Rose (in Shakir. 1991b: 9) criticise the emphasis on the grammaticality and mastery of sentence structure. They all agree on the fact that such an emphasis leads to the neglect of discursive aspects, and the inability “to produce persuasive and satisfactory writing” (Silva. 1997:13). Earlier on, Zamel (1985:86) maintains that:

What is particularly striking about these ESL teachers’ responses (...)is the teachers overwhelmingly view themselves as language teachers rather than writing teachers; they attend primarily to surface-level features of writing and seem to read and react to a text as a series of separate sentences or even clauses, rather than as a whole unit of discourse.

Since then, language teachers began to realise that language-based writing activities were not adequate in helping students to develop writing competence. This realisation has led to the development of a new writing pedagogy that advocates teaching writing beyond language skills.

An attempt to reduce the emphasis on the formal aspect of writing and to enlarge the context and audience of writing is known as the Process Approach. Different from Controlled Composition and Current-traditional Rhetoric, the Process Approach focuses on writers and the process they undergo while composing written texts. Writing is thought to convey meaning and is a “complex, recursive, and creative process” (Silva. 1997:15). Rather than simply focusing on accuracy, the process approach aims at developing students’ composing process in a holistic fashion. This goal implies that students need to

acquire experience in writing for several purposes, in various contexts, and addressing different audiences (Hairstone. 1982). In this respect, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000:146) elaborate that “The writer makes plans, considers the context, chooses and generates alternatives, presents arguments-giving them the proper support –and arrives at a well-supported conclusion.”

The advocates of the Process Approach view writing as a creative activity. This cognitive process consists of several identifiable stages: careful planning and pre-writing, drafting, revising and painstaking editing. Writing teachers need to look beyond the products of students’ writing and to understand what happens when students write, in order to provide assistance and guidance students need to develop their writing competence (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000). Students are provided with ample time and freedom to write topics of their own choice. Students are allowed to write the same topic in multiple drafts. Peer review and teacher conferencing are adopted to provide student writers with feedback for revision. Fluency is emphasised over accuracy, because writing as a process implies that what writers first put down on paper is “not necessarily their finished product but just a beginning” (Raimes. 1983:10). Elbow (1996:89) regards writing as ‘an organic, if not mysterious process, springing from a creative source it was the writers’ vehicle for self- expression’. To Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000:146), writing is seen as an act that encourages ‘self-discovery’ and emphasises fluency.

In addition to stressing that a writing class is a place of for self-discovery, Graves (1983) and Calvins (1986) emphasise that writing is a problem-solving activity. Writing, according to Silva (1993:16), “entails developing an efficient and effective composition process”, and teaching writing implies increasing students’ awareness of their own writing process and helping them develop viable strategies for getting started. Thus, the Process Approach has extended the purpose of writing to be a vehicle with which writers express

personal feelings, experience, and reactions in a suitable environment and given the time and freedom to write without any constraints of formality (Zamel. 1983; Zen. 2005).

The writing process is regarded as recursive; that is, a writer does not move from one stage to the next in a linear fashion. He rather may move back and forth between stages i.e., between the already written and the emerging text, as meaning is shaped through text (Smith & Elley. 1997; Ouskourt. 2008; Manchon et al. 2009). The mastery of writing requires an understanding of how the writing process works, emphasising not only the product (output), but also the different stages, the learner goes through (input). The overlapping and recurring activities that writing involves in the Process Approach can be summarised by several researchers (cf. Raimes. 1983, 2008; Buscemi. 1999) as follows:

1. **Planning:** finding topics, generating ideas and information. Critical thinking and reading determining purpose, voice and media, as well as prewriting techniques;
2. **Drafting:** encouraging multiple ideas;
3. **Revising:** adding, deleting, modifying, rearranging ideas, and working on style revising for clarity, coherence and unity; and
4. **Editing:** attending to vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar and mechanics, as well as proofreading, designing the document and composing drafts.

It is through these different stages that the student develops his ideas on the topic and the text at the same time. Being aware of how students process writing would help teachers raise students' awareness and promote a better understanding of the different strategies used throughout the process of composing. Raimes (2008: 3) displays that writing "does involve several overlapping and recurring activities". She further illustrates with the following diagram.

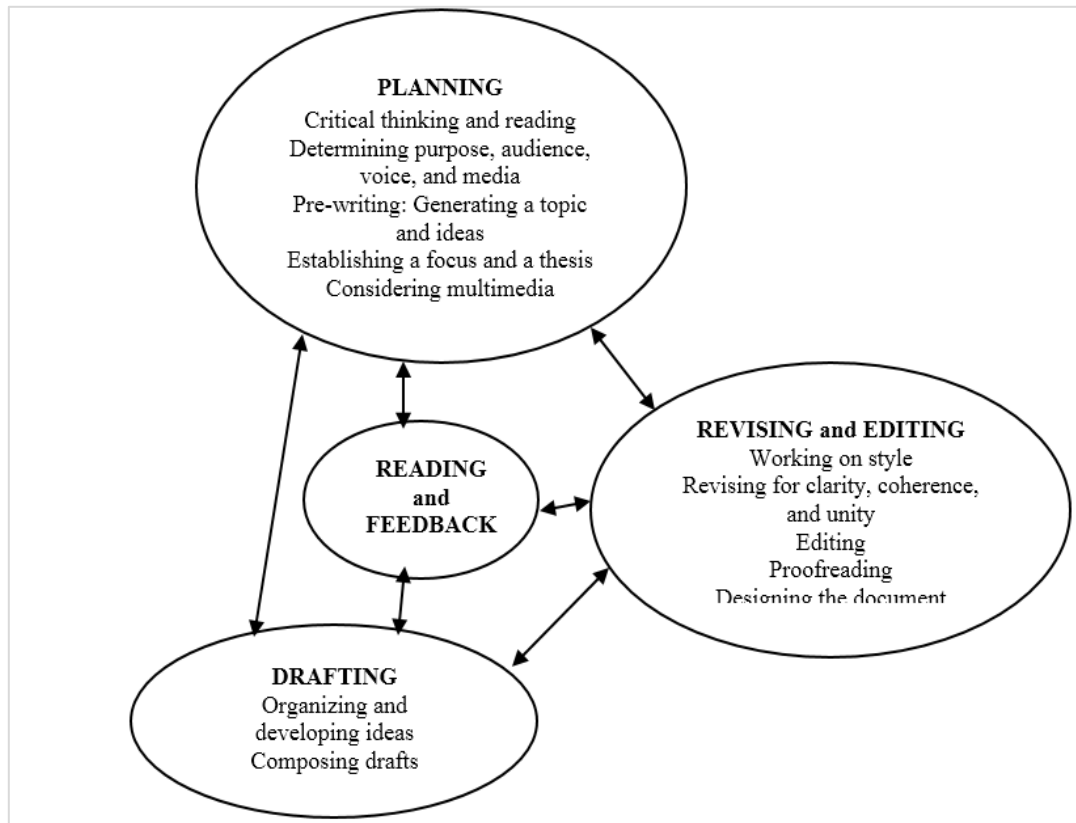


Figure 3.1. The Writing Process Activities (Raimes. 2008:3)

Regarding the positive points of the product approach, Hillocks (1986), in turn, proposes a process-product combination as the best approach to writing instruction. Hillocks (1986) and Dyer (1996) refute two of the principles of the process writing approach. To them, (1) the writing ability is gained through practice, and (2) The writing process is a basic skill that generalises to various contexts. Hillocks and Dyer believe that students need to be prepared for specific writing tasks that they will come across, and that “there are as many different writing processes as there are academic writing tasks” (Dyer. 1996:313). The idea, then, is to add to process writing the concept of task-based approach, which takes into account students’ specific needs and has them perform tasks that are similar to the types of texts they are actually required to write. Hence, process approaches can be best defined ‘not as a theory or pedagogical approach, but as a set of pedagogical practices that can be adapted to any pedagogical approaches’ (Matsuda. 2003:78).

Similar to the Process Approach, the orientation of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which includes the Task-based Approach (TBA) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), is concerned with the production of writing within a specific context and is directed to pre-defined readers. While the former approach aims at wider contexts and audiences, the latter is characterised by specific targets such as the academic or the business world, and the audience may be the members of the academic community (EAP) or business people (EB). Since ESP aims at enabling students to produce written texts that will be accepted by experts in their fields, courses based on this approach try to “recreate the conditions under which actual (...) writing tasks are done” (Silva. 1997:17), and have students practise genres and tasks commonly required in their jobs or educational environment. Therefore, ESP focuses exclusively on the production of writing within a specific context, and it is mainly concerned with the reader’s reaction towards the written text.

In sum, while traditional writing activities are necessary and have their merits in a language class, it is obvious that they are not sufficient to develop students’ writing competence. Above all, language is essentially a tool for communication (Widdowson. 1996; Zen. 2005), and, therefore, foreign language learning is best facilitated through communication, that is, through meaningful use of the language. While contrasting these approaches to the study of writing, one can notice that each approach tends to emphasise a specific aspect to writing instruction — the writer, the audience, the text, or the context (Flower & Hayes. 1981). However, considering the interaction between the four elements in the foreign language writing context is essential. If writing is an important skill to develop, then the question is how the writing competence can be developed.

Thus, to foster communicative competence, teachers should have sufficient knowledge of the target language. They should develop the skills and strategies that enable the learner to use the language effectively and appropriately in various socio-cultural contexts, both

orally and in its written form (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000:3). For writing to be effective, successful writers should be sensitive to the reader, to background knowledge, potential content and schemata, and thus be able to use elaboration skills to create a text that is comprehensible and communicative (Eisterhold. 1997; Connor & Farmer. 1997; Hyland. 2003). These skills ought to be practised through training, instruction, experience and purpose (Grabe & Kaplan. 1996:6). Hence, it is the writer's responsibility to create a communicative text. Yet, this task seems laborious in a context wherein English writing is used just in classrooms with the teacher being the sole audience, as it is the case in Algeria.

3.4. Reading-writing Connections

The connection between reading and writing has been well established by cross-sectional studies, and many scholars have shown that reading and writing are indeed associated, and cannot be separated from each other (Krashen. 1984; Juel. 1988; Ehri. 1989; Elbow. 1996; Grabe. 2001; Spack. 2001). These studies suggest that reading and writing are perceived to be interconnected, share common underlying components and depend on similar cognitive abilities, and knowledge representations at various linguistic levels (phonemic, orthographic, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic). Reading in an EFL classroom, as Ouskourt (2008) puts it, is understood as the appropriate input for acquisition of writing skills, assuming that reading texts will function as primary models for which writing skills to be inferred.

A review of literature provides evidence that reading skills are good predictors of writing performance. In regarding the craft of writing the result of reading, Krashen (1984:23) claims that the 'ability to write is hypothesised to be the result of reading'. Similarly, Juel (1988), in a longitudinal study, has shown that poor readers are poor writers; whereas good readers become better writers during the first four years of school, mainly in spelling and writing fluency. In strengthening this view, Elbow (1996) says that

reading and writing should work together to be productive and to reinforce each other. Additionally, results from the Stahl, Pagnucco and Suttles (1996) suggest that success in reading was associated with writing success, and good readers were more likely to become good writers. Spack (2001:101) backs up this view by stating that “to become better writers, then, students need to become better readers”. For Grabe (2001), reading and writing relationships can be extremely useful for effective instruction in writing. He asserts that “good readers make good writers” (p. 15).

Pedagogically speaking, integrated reading and writing tasks should be designed for students in classrooms to be well prepared for better communication. Importantly, Kwan (2008) tracks the complex recursive processes involved in thesis writing. Her work focuses on the literature review (LR) as genre. She states that “students need to be shown how reading, writing and research develop in reality and more importantly, how they constrain each other” (p.52). Like Kwan, Delaney (2008:148) argues for an “integrated pedagogy of reading and writing”.

Moreover, Delaney (2008), following Spivey (1990, 1997) takes a constructivist position on reading-writing, according to which “meaning construction occurs by means of three key textual operations: organizing, selecting, and connecting” (p.141). Her research indicates that in summary writing, the activity of meaning construction, or what she calls the “reading-writing construct” is a “unique construct” (p.140).

The Reading-writing construct, however, is a widely accepted axiom which is true also for FL learners. The research available on the connection has shown that also in FL contexts, extensive reading correlates extremely with improved writing performance. On that, Carson and Kuehn (1992) say that reading is not only a cognitive activity that helps the student to learn, but also a process important for developing and improving writing abilities.

Johns (1998), in another perspective, insists on the necessity of helping foreign language students become effective readers as a prerequisite for their writing proficiency. According to him, EFL students need to understand how written discourse in English works for them to become good writers. Therefore, wide and meaningful reading is fundamental for helping FL students to acquire not only more language in terms of vocabulary, grammar and syntax, but also in terms of foreign language patterns of written rhetoric (Ferris & Hedgcock. 1998). Accordingly, reading skills, for Saihi Kihal (2015), should be reconsidered and integrated in the core courses of EFL classes to promote writing proficiency, starting from their first year at university.

Moreover, foreign language students need to develop a fundamental rhetorical principle such as coherence by consciously analysing how the native writer has organised and presented information in the text. Sengupta (1999) contends that students need to acquire rhetorical awareness, and that linked reading-writing activities are the means necessary to help students create effective texts in

the development of L2 literacy it is essential to include rhetorical consciousness raising to enable students to understand, articulate, and reflect on reader-related concerns in written discourse from the vantage point of their own experience as readers and writers. (p.291)

She (ibid: 310) further recommends that “explicit and sustained teaching” should be based on students’ texts, specifically of the genre they have to produce. Thus, if reading is seen to be part of a process that includes thinking and writing, students should be able to approach the task in an active frame of mind. Through conscious reading students seek to discover the target language structure, organisation, style and culture. Negotiating and adapting new schemata, students think and plan for composing their own written texts.

In order to aid students to develop necessary reading and comprehension skills, attention has to be paid to aspects concerning the whole system of a text, as well as crucial grammar structures and lexical items. McCarthy (1991) points out that reading is an exacting action which involves recipient's knowledge of the world, experience, ability to infer possible aims of discourse and evaluate the reception of the text. Importantly, Harmer (2001) adds that more proficient student-writers are those who do read a lot of written materials to have a better command of the linguistic resources necessary and an effective control over the various sources necessary for the creation of cohesion and coherence in texts.

Earlier on, Mclinn (1988) believes that there exists a kind of relation between reading comprehension, cohesion and coherence. This relation enjoys an important role in the successful interaction between the reader and the writer. To support her view, Maclinn conducts a study aims at investigating coherence, cohesion and syntax in the writing of eighth grade students at various reading comprehension levels, using the holistic scoring. The study also aimed at investigating text structure patterns in these essays, on the basis of coherence levels. The results below were revealed by this study:

- a. Better readers produced the more coherent essays.
- b. The more coherent essays were found to possess a larger number of cohesive chains.
- c. Variety of vocabulary in the cohesive chains and coherence totals did not distinguish between good and weak writers, because students were asked to write about a previously limited topic.
- d. There was a significant difference in the number of T-units in essays and the coherence totals among the groups of students.

Hence, it could be agreed upon that effective writers are those who try to build coherence into their texts by using various structural relations. Both writers and readers play a role in making a text coherent. To illustrate this, Roberts and Kreuz (1993:461) see

that some writers may be better communicators because maybe “they are better at signalling how their message coheres. Similarly, some readers may be better in comprehension because “they are better at deciphering the explicit and implicit devices” that signal text coherence. To achieve this goal, EFL teachers, then, should enhance learners’ awareness and understanding of the conventions of writing and provide students with how an entire text is structured and organised in relation to its purpose, audience and message. They have to emphasise the structure and organisation of all parts of the text such as sentences and paragraphs so that students could craft well-formed texts that are effective and communicative.

Indeed, the two skills are so closely related. Any communicative writing course should contain a large component of reading comprehension practice. “It is reading that gives the writer the “feel” for the look and texture of reader-based prose” Kroll (1997: 88). Moreover, there is a close and interdependent relationship between the four skills when language is studied, listening, speaking, reading and writing, and language cannot work without the integration of all of its whole components. Leki (1991:8) suggests that “writing is the natural outlet for the students’ reflections on their speaking, listening and reading experiences in their L2”.

3.5. Facilitating Modelling through Genre-based Approach to Writing

In the light of what has been investigated in the field of writing instruction and the techniques used to help foreign students approach writing tasks, a key teaching activity is proposed which is modelling. This strategy is based on the facilitation of model-based writing tasks, as students are expected to read, analyse and negotiate selected texts on a particular genre and go on to shift from knowledge display to knowledge construction. Thus, teaching at this level is commonly approached via genre. The goal of this approach

is not to encourage passive imitation (product approach) but rather to emphasise the importance of studying different genres in the process of writing.

Genre is a term for grouping texts together, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations. Every genre has a number of features which make it different from other genres. Each has a specific purpose (the writer's intention), an overall structure (pattern), and specific linguistic and conventional features. It is a concept which helps organise and categorise texts in reference to the situations in which they occur. The specific purpose, pattern and linguistic features help readers know immediately, whether a text is a recipe, a short story, a timed composition in one of the students' required modules, or a love letter and, hence, can respond to it and write a similar one if they need to.

Studies on writing instruction in EFL writing classes have emerged in the late 1960s, and most early efforts have been centred on techniques for teaching writing. These efforts have focused on the nature of writing in various situations which give birth to Genre Approach (Swales. 1990). It is an approach to writing which is based on models and key features of texts, considering their purpose and audience. In the Genre Approach to writing, samples of a specific genre are introduced to grasp some distinctive features of a given genre: academic, creative and business. Such an investigative approach, as put by Tribble (2003: 85), considers 'modes of rhetoric (...) as examples of ways of writing that students should be aware of'. Therefore, EFL students are expected to decide their texts' audience and purpose at early stages of writing.

Several useful definitions have been used to clarify the pedagogical goals underlying this approach in an EFL class. The genre approach, thus, is defined as "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (Swales. 1990: 58). In language teaching, Bruce (2008: 06) asserts that this approach "refers to pedagogy that involves examining and deconstructing examples of genre

(categories of texts)". In other words, the Genre Approach to writing involves teaching a range of text types such as essays, final reports and business letters so that students can understand the distinctions in structure, form and components to gain the required information to be able to write their own texts of the same type (Belbase. 2012). The importance of genre in writing classes has been supported by several other researchers interested in the field (cf. Watson-Todd. 2003; Tardy. 2006; Cheng. 2007).

It has been advocated that different academic discourse genres can be introduced to EFL students and be taught in the writing class. Crinon and Legros (2002) claim that genre helps students create a mental model for future use. Hyland (2004) who assures that genres encourage learners to look for organisational patterns, or the ways that texts are rhetorically structured to achieve a social purpose provides further support for their application in writing classes. Such structures can be found, as he further adds, in even the most apparently personal and expressive kinds of writing, such as the acknowledgements in the opening pages of a student thesis or dissertation. Indeed, without noticing how the different parts of a doctorate dissertation are made, this work could not see light. In this concern, Reid (1993:38) assumes that to achieve effective writing, students should be aware of some "specific skills, such as the synthesis of multiple sources, the connection of theory and data, the summary of and reaction to readings, and the report on a participation experience".

Thus, genre theory emerged and became increasingly central in EAP research and pedagogies. An 'ESP' perspective, developed on constructing English for specific purposes written texts, sees genres as a set of structured communicative events connected by broad communicative purposes shared by the members of a specific discourse community which "exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience" (Swales. 1990:58). Moreover, Hammond and Derewianka (2001) consider genre approach to writing as a promoter for students and writing instructor, for it combines

students' understanding of genre with their writing instruction in EFL classes. It has been also called "English for Academic Purposes Approach" (Silva. 1997:16-17) or the "English for Specific Purposes Approach" (Dudley-Evans. 1997), for it stresses on producing each text genre according to its purpose and audience. Thus, genres can be useful in learners' daily life because they provide them with resources that appropriately help them respond to various recurring situations. Such situations range from shopping lists to job applications, and they are elucidated by genre analysts for the teaching of writing.

Contrasting the Genre Approach to the Product Approach, Badger and White (2000) proclaimed that the latter emphasises linguistic competence; however, it differs in its focus on social context. This reflects the linguistic and the social dimensions of the Genre Approach to writing. In other words, it aims to use vocabulary and grammar for a certain audience. The linguistic and social aspects of text are not the only measurements that decide the text genre. The theme links between the writer and the reader, and the organisation pattern also decides on the text genre. In the Genre-based Approach, writing is, thus, considered as a set of linguistic and social features that distinguish a text from another on the bases of its purpose and its audience. Hence, to be socially a good communicator, EFL students must develop their writing proficiency that respond to the community conventions that uses writing to communicate either at university or outside.

To this end, the Genre-oriented Approach to writing provides opportunities to students to discuss audience and purpose of their written pieces: how language works in a given context, and how it can be employed to meet particular goals. Sengupta (1999:292) asserts that reading activities enable students to become aware of how "information can be presented, arranged and interpreted within given contexts in the FL". Furthermore, Hyland (2011: 31-32) asserts that writing's aim is to achieve purposes through genres. Hence, EFL teachers should provide learners with "a metalanguage for

identifying genres and their structures, through analysis of authentic texts and modelling genre stages”.

It is worth noting that reading models only is considered insufficient to ameliorate the writing quality. While reading is important in preparing writers as Krashen (1984) points out, to Eskey and Grabe (1988) reading needs to be extensive to be fruitful, because it envelops the reader in the written form of the language, which Krashen (1984) sees as essential to learning the discourse rules for writing. Abbuhl (2011:2) also provides support for the view that reading models alone is not sufficient and believes that the teacher must “include consciousness-raising activities to draw learners’ attention to the target rhetorical features”. Accordingly, if models are to be used effectively, students have to do more than just reading them. According to Rose (1983:116):

The two most natural ways to assimilate or learn these [written discourse] patterns are by reading a good deal of discourse containing them, and experiencing the need for them as one encounters barriers while writing

Hammond (1992:202), on his part, proposes “a wheel model of a teaching learning cycle’ which is composed of three stages: 1. modelling, 2. joint negotiation of text by learners and teacher, 3. the independent construction of texts by learners. The three stages are linked together and come in a sequence of activities. In the first stage, Modelling is related to the time when the writing instructors introduce the target genre that students should construct. At this stage, discussion focuses on the educational and social functions of the text genre, and analysis focuses on the text structure and the language used. In the second stage, students carry out exercises that manipulate relevant language forms. It fosters a negotiating process between the writing instructors and their students. This stage involves reading, research, and disseminating information, and the text genre is dependent on those activities. In the third stage, the independent construction of texts is the final

phase in which students produce actual texts through activities such as choosing a topic, researching and writing.

Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) consider genre approach as more suitable for EFL students at beginning or at intermediate levels of proficiency rather than those at advanced levels because it releases them from deep anxieties about their writing tasks. When they are exposed to a new text, they commonly search for samples to follow, especially in writing tasks which are more demanding than other language skills, EFL students at low level of proficiency need something to rely on for they have little exposure to English writing.

With the modelling technique within a genre-orientation in approaching writing, students are required to use their knowledge of format and topic to predict all the language needed to recreate a coherent text of their own, carry out the activity (Hyland. 2003). Alkhuli (2006:93) sees that:

It is advisable that the teacher exposes his students to model paragraphs and helps them to analyse such paragraphs so as to let them get a clear idea of the factors that secure paragraph effectiveness.

The model-text, then, is seen to encourage and guide learners to explore the key lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical features of a text and to use this knowledge to construct their own performance. Thus, an eclectic use of product, process and genre approaches to teaching EFL writing is of concern.

A great deal of the literature on process-genre approaches to the teaching of EFL/ESL composition skills has received attention (Badger & White. 2000; Flowerdew. 2000; Tribble. 2003). Furthermore, the key academic activity of reading to write has been largely relegated to the analysis of target genres which are seen as the means to raise awareness of “the resources used to create meaning in context” (Hyland. 2007:158). Thus, genre knowledge does include process knowledge, and rhetorical and subject-matter knowledge,

along with formal knowledge. In fact, genre-based instruction, as explained by Macbeth (2010), advocates the explicit study of text types with the belief that sample texts' analysis can uncover the features for writing in specific disciplines and discourse communities. However, the fact of providing explicit instruction in authentic procedural knowledge, while in classrooms, the focus which is usually on the formal knowledge involved in linguistic structures remains questionable.

However, there exists a conflict between a process-genre approach to teaching writing and a product-based approach and timed essay for assessment in EFL departments. Evaluating the student's writing has been, until now, through a timed essay. This fact has been highlighted by Porto (2001) and Cushing (2002) who argue that they have been teaching one thing and testing another. Discussing this problem, Walker and Perez Riu (2008) devised the Extended Writing Project (EWP) as an alternative evaluation mechanism, which required students to write an extended text in consecutive sections that would be drafted and revised with external help. At the marking stage within the EWP, the final version is compared with the drafts to gain an insight into the development of both content and language from the planning stage to the final version. This mechanism allowed the incorporation of process into the assessment of writing skills, and increased learner autonomy. Hence, in evaluating a final written product, the ability of the writer to make use of all available resources—including social interactions to create a text that appropriately meets the needs of the audience and fulfils a communicative goal. In this regard, Tardy (2006) argues that 'Although some procedural knowledge may be developed through exposure to model texts, genre instruction is shown to be "most beneficial in facilitating the development of declarative knowledge" (p.92). Thus, in line with genre-based approaches to the teaching of writing, students are also required to take both the reader and the purpose of the text into account.

Yet, Badger and White (2000) argue that “the conflict between the various approaches is misguided and damaging to the classroom practice”. They have further proposed to examine the weaknesses and strengths of the three approaches to adapt one eclectic and effective methodology for writing. The following figure summarises what Badger and White (ibid) examination of the three approaches.

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Product Approaches	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The need for learners to the linguistic knowledge is recognised. - Imitation as one way of learning is valued. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Process skills (e.g. planning a text) are given a small role. -Learners’ skills and knowledge brought to the classroom are undervalued.
Process Approaches	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The skills involved in writing are importantly understood. - What learners bring to the writing classroom is recognised as a contribution to the development of writing ability. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The same set of processes is regarded to all writing productions. - The kinds and purposes of texts writers produce are given insufficient importance. - Insufficient input in terms of linguistic knowledge is offered to learners to write successfully.
Genre Approaches	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Writing as a reflection of a particular purpose, which takes place in a social situation is acknowledged. - Learning writing is recognised as the result of conscious imitation and analysis. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The skills needed to produce a text are undervalued (learners are seen as largely passive).

Figure 3.2. Comparing Product, Process and Genre Approaches
(Adapted from Badger & White, 2000:157)

A synthesis of the three approaches product, process and genre is thus inevitably important in an EFL classroom. In writing instruction, it is possible, then, to draw on the strengths of the three approaches and do not regard them as incompatible (Tribble, 2003). This three-fold approach works effectively. Badger and White (2000) affirm that “the three approaches are largely complementary” (p.157). Hence, the process-genre-based approach embraces teaching the appropriate language along with using a set of revision processes by which a final draft can be produced. Tribble (2003) comments:

By having access to paper or electronic corpus materials which allow for the investigation of how texts work in genres, students can add to their own imaginative resources and come to an awareness not only of how to write, but of what to write. (p.61)

This combined approach ensures that the writing task is reviewed from both the viewpoint of writer and of readers at the same time.

3.6. Textual Organisation in Genre Analysis

Textual organisation cannot be studied without considering the variability between text genres. The concept of genre can contribute to an understanding of the relation between text structure and functioning of the text in its context. The variation between text genres can be relevant for the relational structure and the importance of lexical cohesion and overall coherence. In particular, some texts are argumentative; they are organised around a central purpose, e.g. a claim that is argued for or a request or proposal the text is intended to support. On the other hand, descriptive or expository texts are usually organised around a central theme, moving through sub-themes or aspects. Studying the configurative aspects of relational and lexical structures in a variety of text types has been proved to be influential in the process of learning a foreign language.

Two conceptions are introduced in order to define and characterise the *modus operandi* of genres. First, genres and the texts which belong to them are defined by a ‘social’ (Eggins. 1994) –or ‘communicative’ (Swales. 1990) –purpose, which are closely linked to communities of text users. Second, the given genre that a particular text belongs to, fulfilling its communicative purpose, is conventionalised within the discourse community owning that genre. Moreover, texts realise some schematic structures imposed by the genre: content schema and formal schema. The first ‘refers to background information on the topic’; while the second consists of “knowledge of discourse organisation or macrostructure with respect to different genres, topics and purposes” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000: 237). Swales (1990) provide an illustrative figure to show how prior knowledge and experience of the world and of texts combine to produce sets of schemata of a particular genre.

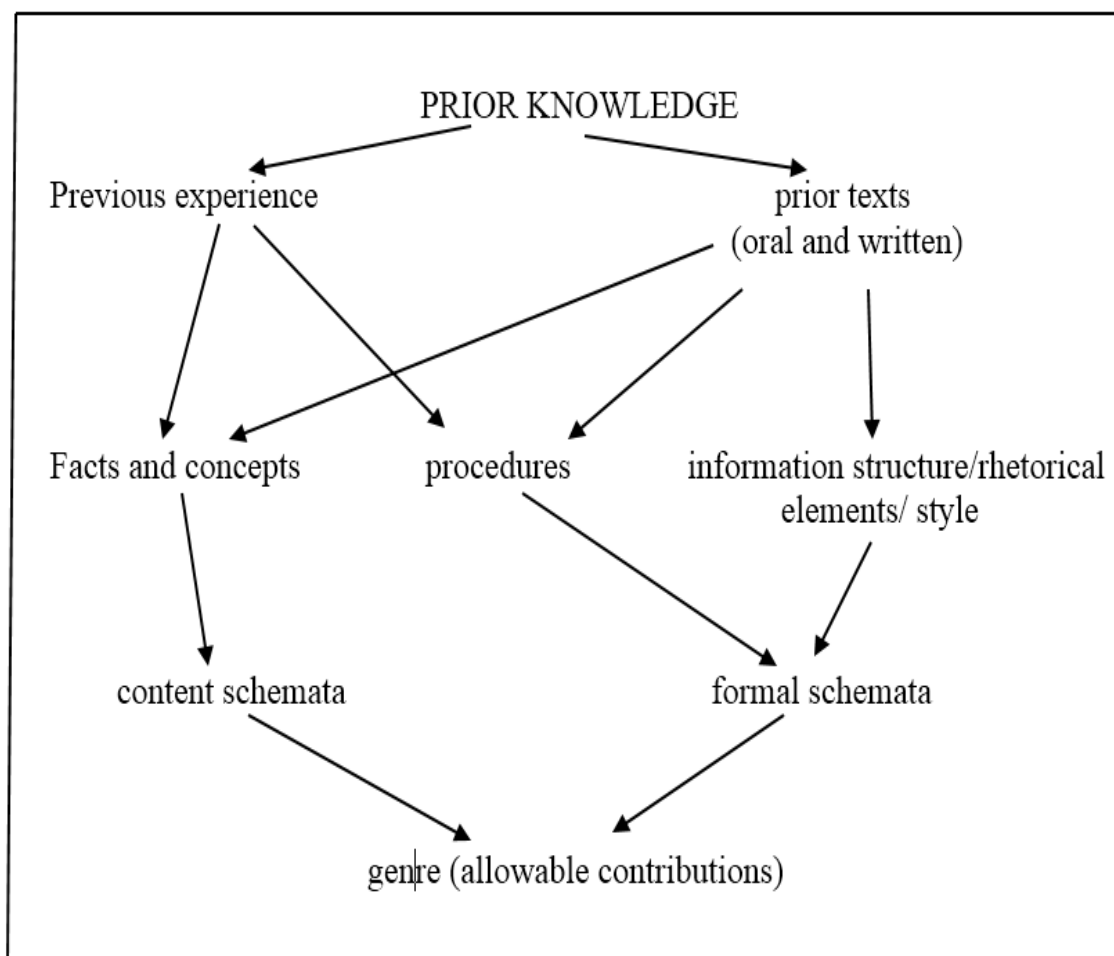


Figure 3.3. Genre and Schemata by Swales (1990: 84)

Such structures can be formulated as sequential models of text organisation, realising functionally distinct stages towards the accomplishment of the communicative purpose intended (Swales. 1990; Harmer. 2001; Tribble. 2003). As such, texts are rhetorical instrumental devices since they serve the interaction between writer and reader, which is expressed in their communicative purpose. Therefore, interaction through texts, according to Hoey (2001:2), “always draws on the intertextual context of the genre.” In this vein, Manning (2008:7) stresses that “it is essential that we build these schemata in students before exposing them to new information (...)”. An effective way for teaching FL students to write the different types of texts is, thus, ‘through familiarising them with the “rhetorical structures” which are part of the meaning of texts’ (Boukezzoula. 2016:108).

From a socio-cognitive perspective, Kucer (1985:329-330) identifies two fundamental strategies integral to both text comprehension and text construction: ‘macro-generating’, which produces ‘macro-propositions’ and is followed by ‘macro-integrating’, as a ‘dynamic and evolving’ macrostructure emerges; and ‘micro-generating’ which provides ‘local details, specifics, and particulars’. Kirkland and Saunders (1991:110) provide other terms to these notions: ‘super-ordination’ and ‘transformation’. On the other hand, the processes that Spivey (1990: 279) identifies are ‘organizing, selecting and connecting’, and these apply equally to the comprehension and construction of texts. Spivey (ibid) asserts that “Two important kinds of inferences that compress the text: inferring a superordinate item to subsume items in a list and inferring a macro-proposition to replace several propositions.” All these authors pay attention to the importance of readers and writers’ understanding of how the ‘patterning of discourse’ relates to the ‘preferred forms’ (Spivey. 1990: 262) or ‘formal expectations’ (Kirkland & Saunders. 1991).

Thus, in its global sense, coherence can be established through a particular configuration of the text surface. This is done by considering the interaction of structures and functions at three distinct levels of text organisation: On its most basic level of organisation, a text can be seen as a ‘syntagm’ of grammatically defined units generated by syntactic components such as clauses, clause complexes and sentences. These units are referred to as ‘micro-units’ (Van Dijk. 1977). They have a propositional sense, and, hence, they can form a coherent structure, displaying a ‘continuity of senses’. On a higher level of textual organisation, micro-units combine to larger units, possessing coherence. These are referred to as ‘macro-units’. They are ‘macro’ because they are secondary entities: Their extent is not defined by the grammatical system, but exclusively through their function (coherence). Macro-units are meaningful only in the functional context of the text whose representation has been considered as a unit of interaction as belonging to a distinct level of text organisation, which is the global level.

As such, coherence, as continuity of senses, can be seen as grounded partially in meanings represented in the text (Grabe. 1985). Therefore, coherence of any text belonging to any genre is encoded in a system of social meanings proper to that genre and thus related to the genre's constitutive communicative purpose. It is what the reader creates while reading a text and involves the reader's effort to arrive at the writer's intended meaning in producing a discourse (Brown & Yule. 1983). In addition, it is "governed by the writer's purpose, the audience's knowledge and expectations, and the information to be conveyed" (Witte & Faigley. 1981: 202). In EFL classrooms, courses based on this type of instruction would help "recreate the conditions under which actual (...) writing tasks are done" (Silva. 1997:17), and have students practise genres and tasks commonly required in their educational environment.

In sum, for writing instruction to be effective, Hyland (2011: 31) points out five kinds of knowledge to be involved in the learning to write task:

1. Content knowledge: the ideas of the topic the text will address.
2. System knowledge: the syntax, lexis, and appropriate formal conventions needed.
3. Process knowledge: the way and steps of preparing and carrying out a writing task.
4. Genre knowledge: communicative purposes of the genre and its value in particular contexts.
5. Context knowledge—readers' expectations, cultural preferences and related texts.

Writing instructors can benefit from these approaches and theories, especially in term of academic paragraph and essay instruction. The contributions of the scholars of writing have pushed forward writing instruction for more updates along the history of teaching writing in higher education. Their approaches have paved the way to the main focus of the present study, especially the process-genre-product oriented approach to writing which is adapted to conduct the present work, and experiment participants are exposed to it. Writing teachers, then, should help students produce their written compositions step by step

through reading and noticing, and consider the skills that help students develop their writing linguistic as well as communicative competence.

Conclusion

The act of writing is a complex process which requires the coordination of numerous skills and sub-skills. It is an intricate form of expression that requires writers to generate and organise ideas, plan, and review and revise what has been written, while monitoring one's own performance. Writing is a multidimensional process that involves knowledge of genre components, language skills (grammar and syntactic awareness), vocabulary, mechanics (spelling and punctuation), conventions of print, cognitive abilities (working memory), and audience awareness (Lesaux, Koda, Siegel, & Shanahan. 2006).

Many EFL novice writers report on the difficulties they encounter in sitting down to initiate a writing task or to carry out a final reformulation of something that has already been written in draft form. They continue to approach writing tasks inappropriately, constructing their paragraphs and essays with difficulty. In general, most students perform badly in these tasks; sub-sections and paragraphs lack coherence and cohesion, and were in many cases made up of fragments.

To this end, modelling in a particular genre in classroom may help overcome the students' problems in achieving a unified whole and logical progression of their written products. Reading model-texts and passages that match students' interests and English proficiently provide learners with new vocabulary and their appropriate use and make them acquainted with the syntax and style of the language. Still, however, the students' position of their authority vis-à-vis the source text and the way the teacher approaches this remains challenging.

Chapter Four

The Experiment Procedure

Introduction.....	131
4.1. The Pilot Study.....	131
4.1.1. The Pilot Questionnaire.....	132
4.1.2. Pilot Study Procedure.....	134
4.1.3. Results of the Pilot Study	134
4.1.4. Analysis and Discussion of the Pilot Study Results	140
4.2. Context of the Main Study.....	141
4.3. Population and Sampling.....	144
4.4. Methodology and Tools of Research.....	145
4.4.1. The Pre-test.....	146
4.4.2. Conducting the Experiment.....	146
4.4.3. The Post-test.....	151
4.5. The Students' Questionnaire	151
4.5.1. Description of the Questionnaire.....	152
4.5.2. Analysis of the Questionnaire.....	152
Conclusion.....	187

Chapter Four

The Experiment Procedure

Introduction

Students in contexts where English is considered as a foreign language (EFL) will need English writing skills ranging from a simple paragraph to the ability to write whole essays and research papers. Foreign language students in Algerian universities are in need of composing expository, argumentative or narrative pieces of writing during the course and under exam conditions, in addition to formal letters, research reports and lesson plans. University students' mastery of these writing skills will be transferred to their future students when they graduate as English language teachers. The growing challenge in EFL educational context is to develop the skills necessary for students learning English to write effectively correct English paragraphs and essays. This study is concerned with exploring the difficulties FL students at the Department of English at Laghouat University encounter with coherence when writing. The study carries out an investigation into the importance of using model texts as a strategy to enhance coherence and effectiveness in writing.

4.1. The Pilot Study

A pilot study was carried out one year before collecting data for the main study. The pilot study was conducted in a writing course at the Department of English at University of Laghouat, Algeria. Second-year undergraduate students majoring in English during the academic year 2013-2014 were required to take compulsory English courses in writing. The participants were divided into a Control Group and an Experimental Group of 22 students for each. Each class met twice a week for an hour and a half over the course of 14 weeks and were instructed by the same teacher. A piloting questionnaire was designed and

administered to students to get more information about their background knowledge which would help in the interpretation of results.

4.1.1. The Pilot Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered to the sample of the pilot students during a session that preceded the writing task to understand their background before the pilot study started. The questions were about the students' improvement and motivation in writing in English, and their major difficulties while composing to achieve coherence. The questionnaire's findings were in part useful for making the necessary adjustments. The results yielded are the following.

First, almost all students participated in the study positively stated that their writing had improved throughout the course of the year but still have problems in the overall quality of their English writing. When asked about their major problems while composing, the respondents' replied that they have difficulty in writing the (thesis statement, basic sentence skills, punctuation, grammar, unity, developing the theme, generating relevant ideas and ordering them logically, spelling, wording and the overall form of the essay, and coherence –of concern in this study.

In effect, on coherence, (90.90%) of the respondents in the Control Group, and (59.09%) in the Experimental Group consider it as a difficult area to handle. Although they had had courses on coherence, students confess that they are aware of being poor in having a native-like command of English language writing. They say they need to be able to effectively develop the point, develop the specific details relevant to support the main theme and reach a unified whole.

In addition to coherence, (36.36%) of the respondents in the Control Group and (40.90%) in the Experimental Group consider other problems as basic sentence skills, such as parallelism, and inconsistency in voice and; (59.09%) of students in the Control Group

and (40.90%) in the Experimental Group) said they have problems with grammar and punctuation, including subject-verb agreement, verb tense and form, and run-on sentences (59.09% and 40.90%). Data gathered from the questionnaire is presented with percentages in the following table.

Areas of Difficulty	Control Group	Experimental Group
Punctuation	13	9
	59.09%	40.90%
Grammar problems	13	6
	59.09%	27.27%
Basic sentence skills	8	9
	36.36%	40.90%
Spelling	9	9
	40.90%	40.90%
Developing your theme	11	6
	50%	27.27%
Content of the essay	9	6
	40.90%	27.27%
Writing the introduction	10	6
	45.45%	27.27%
Achieving coherence	20	13
	90.90%	59.09%

Table 4.1. Pilot Students' Difficulty in Essay Writing

To overcome these discursal and mechanical inadequacies and reach the desired proficiency level, (90.90 %) of the respondents in the Control Group compared to (59.09 %) in the Experimental Group proposed reading model essays with the teacher in class to enhance coherence in writing what needs according to them too much practice. The results are in part used in analysing the written assignments of the students.

Proposal	Control Group	Experimental Group
Reading model essays with the teacher	20	13
	90.90%	59.09%
Practice	19	12
	86.36%	54.54

Table 4.2. Pilot Students' Proposals to Overcome' Problems in Writing

4.1.2. Pilot Study Procedure

The corpus of the pilot study consisted of an essay-writing exercise. First, a pre-test was carried out to measure the students' writing abilities, mainly on coherence. Second, the students had had sufficient input, throughout several weeks, on the process of writing from beginning to end, showing its component parts, including envisaging what to write, planning an outline, drafting, revising and rewriting the whole text, and finishing it in an appropriate form. The sample had also been familiar with the major elements to achieve coherence and essay writing effectiveness. Third, a post-test was designed where each student was required to write one descriptive composition about 'their first year experience at university'. Unlike the Control Group, the participants in the Experimental Group read and analysed two academic written essays of descriptive type selected according to their level (cf. Appendix 9). They were required to analyse the model-essays' content, organisation and mainly the flow of ideas, and to discover the materials used to construct a coherent descriptive essay. The analysis of this material provides the means for guiding students' understanding of this particular genre. The task was done in class, and the compositions were collected by the teacher at the end of the session to be, then, corrected and analysed focusing on coherence problems.

4.1.3. Results of the Pilot Study

For assessing coherence in students' compositions, the modified Hyland's (2003) Analytic Scoring rubric (cf. Appendix 4) is maintained; it is criterion-referenced evaluation. The profile is divided into eight major criteria or standards (cf. Appendix 5); these include message clarity, organisation, logical progression and thorough development of ideas, paragraphs' unity, referencing, and using transitions; in addition to using synonyms and adequate repetition of key words which are added as essential elements in coherence following Scarry and Scarry (2011). Each criterion has four rating levels: *very*

poor, poor to fair, average to good, and very good to excellent. A specific score is given for each level, respectively: 1 to 5.75, 6 to 10.75, 11 to 15.75 and 16 to 20 (cf. Appendices 5 and 6). After commented on, the compositions are then grouped into four categories: A, B, C, and D, following Hyland (2003) rubric. The frequency and percentage have been used to account for the number of the students who managed or failed to achieve coherence in writing. Results obtained from the evaluation of the 44 copies in both the experimental and control groups are presented in the following table.

Scores out of 20		Control Group	Experimental Group
excellent to very good A	16 – 20	6	9
		27.27%	40.90%
good to average B	11 – 15	11	12
		50.0%	54.54%
fair to poor C	6 – 10	3	1
		13.63%	04.54%
inadequate D	1 – 5	2	0
		09.09%	00.00%

Table 4.3. The Pilot Study Analytic Scoring Rubric of Coherence 20 Marks

Table 4.3 shows the overall situation of the pilot study participants' achievement of coherence in writing in all of the Control Group and the Experimental Group. (27.27%) of the respondents in the Control Group who tended to be highly successful in having effective written performance due to their coherent pieces, compared to (40.90 %) in the Experimental Group. These students were quite informed and well-trained of the concept of coherence as the most important textual feature of successful written performance. This fact is, also, felt in the quality of other (50 %) in the Control Group and (54.54 %) in the Experimental Group, having the grade B- good to average. The overall message in almost these scripts can be followed with ease and progression of content seems logical. Most students in grades A and B in the Control Group argued that what helped them write successfully had been reading model essays out of class; in addition to their teacher's suitable and valuable instruction in class about tips of achieving a coherent piece of writing.

The students with grade A and B in the Experimental Group, however, had their good results due to their exposure to the model given by their teacher in class, and the precious help and guide they got from the instructor during the noticing task. Yet, most of them still encountered some problems in generating ideas and supporting with much evidence their central themes. This result can be depicted more in the scripts of the grade B than in those of grade A, which made writing quality between the two grades a little bit different.

Noticeably, (13.63%) of the respondents in the Control Group wrote unsuccessful pieces, and (09.09%) were very poor and incoherent. While just (4.54%) of the Experimental Group seemed suffering in their writing. These students appeared to have little control of the topic; their ideas were very limited, either repeated or general. Their compositions were too short to show a clear order of ideas, or there was no clear sense of a beginning and if they wrote a beginning and an ending, one or both is too short or too long.

In brief, the Experimental Group scores in achieving overall coherence were a little bit higher (95.44%), compared to the scores of the Control Group (77.27%). This fact helped conclude that modelling strategy proved its efficiency with the pilot students.

To know which area in coherence was causing difficulty to the students, a separate score (out of 20) to each criterion was assigned. Each component had clear descriptors of the writing proficiency for that particular level as well as a numerical scale. For example, very good to excellent organisation had a minimum score of 5/20 and a maximum of 7/20 of the total of 20 marks, indicating essay writing which is “well-organised with indented paragraphs and thorough development through introduction, body, and conclusion”; while very poor organisation had a minimum score of 0,5 and a maximum of 2 points indicating essay writing with “little evidence of organisation-introduction and conclusion may be missing –or not adequate to evaluate” (Hyland. 2003). The numbers of students who managed or failed to achieve each of the traits of coherence in both the Experimental Group and the Control Group are shown, respectively, in the following tables.

Grade Area		Grade A	Grade B	Grade C	Grade D	Not found
Organisation 7/7	Form	18	1	3	0	0
		81.81%	4,54%	13,63%	00.00%	00.00%
	Th.S.	11	6	3	1	1
		50%	27,27%	13,63%	04,54%	00.00%
	T.S.	13	4	3	1	1
		59.09%	18.18%	13.63%	04.54%	00.00%
	Intro	15	5	0	0	2
		68.18%	22.72%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
	Body	11	11	0	0	1
		50%	50%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Conc.	20	1	0	0	1	
	90.90%	04.54%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	
Thematic Progression 6/6	Dvp.	0	13	9	0	0
		00.00%	59.09%	40.90%	00.00%	00.00%
	Ord.	13	7	2	0	0
		59.09%	31.81%	09.09%	00.00%	00.00%
	Unity	0	20	2	0	0
00.00%		90.90%	09.09%	00.00%	00.00%	
Trans. 2/2		2	8	6	6	0
		09.09%	36.36%	27.27%	27,27%	00.00%
Ref. 2/2		17	4	1	0	0
		77.27%	18.18%	04.54%	00.00%	00.00%
Rep. 2/2		17	5	0	0	0
		77.27%	22.72%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Syn. 1/1		0	0	3	9	10
		00.00%	00.00%	13.63%	40.90%	45.45%
Th.S. =thesis statement; T.S. =topic sentence; Intro. =introductory paragraph; Body =body paragraphs; Conc. =concluding paragraph; Dvp. =development of ideas; Ord. =ordering of facts; Trans. = transitions; Ref. =referencing; Rep. repetition of key words; Syn. = Synonyms						

Table 4.4. Pilot Study Experimental Group Members' Frequency in Achieving Traits of Coherence

Table 4.4 indicates the Experimental Group's achievements of the different traits of coherence. Noticeably, almost the participants' scores were registered between 'very good' to 'fair'. This fact was clearly seen in organisation, including writing the conclusion (90.90%), then having a good form of an essay (81.81%), followed by writing the introduction with (68.18%) scoring 'very good' and then writing the thesis statement as well as the topic sentences of (50%) of the respondents (N=11) having a very good score. In addition to organisation, scores in referencing and repetition of key words were also high, 77.27%. These areas seem the easiest areas for the students to achieve- The students' use of these elements helped them to a great extent have messages followed

almost with ease (40.40% in grade A, and 54.54% in grade B). On the other hand, progression of content- including development of ideas and essay unity seem to be the source of much problem to the participants.

Yet, using and selecting the appropriate transitional signals was a source of trouble to some students. Importantly noticed, using synonyms as a means to achieve coherence was avoided by a great number of students (45.45 %). This fact, however, could not hinder (40.90%) of students in Grade A and (54.54%) in Grade B to achieve coherence and, thus, communicative effectiveness. Evidence of well-planned essay-level was almost found in these scripts. The essays are clear, focused, and details are carefully selected; each of the scripts has a clear beginning and a satisfying ending. As a reader, I can follow the order of the ideas, paragraphs and sentences that flow smoothly. These results seem similar to the results of the Control Group, though a little difference can be noticed.

Grade		Grade A	Grade B	Grade C	Grade D	Not found
Organisation 7/7	Form	15	1	2	0	4
		68.18%	4,54%	09.09%	00.00%	18.18%
	Th.S.	10	3	3	5	1
		45.45%	13.63%	13,63%	22.72%	4.54%
	T.S.	11	1	3	3	4
		50%	4.54%	13.63%	13.63%	18.18%
	Intro	14	3	0	0	5
		63,63%	13.63%	00.00%	00.00%	22.72%
Body	10	7	5	0	0	
	45.45%	31.81%	22.72%	00.00%	00.00%	
Conc.	21	0	0	0	1	
	95,45%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	4.54%	
Thematic Progression 6/6	Dvp.	0	9	12	1	0
		00.00%	40,90%	54.54%	4.54%	00.00%
	Ord.	5	11	6	0	0
		22.72%	50 %	27.27%	00.00%	00.00%
	Unity	5	10	6	1	0
		22.72%	45.45%	27.27%	4.54%	00.00%
Trans. 2/2		5	9	7	1	0
		22.72%	40.90%	31.81%	4.54%	00.00%
Ref. 2/2		14	5	3	0	0
		63,63%	22.72%	13.63%	00.00%	00.00%
Rep. 2/2		17	3	2	0	0
		77.27%	13.63%	09.09%	00.00%	00.00%
Syn. 1/1		0	1	5	7	8
		00.00%	4.54%	22.72%	31.81%	36.36%
Th.S. =thesis statement; T.S. =topic sentence; Intro. =introductory paragraph; Body =body paragraphs; Conc. =concluding paragraph; Dvp. =development of ideas; Ord. =ordering of facts; Trans. = transitions; Ref. =referencing; Rep. repetition of key words; Syn. = Synonyms						

Table 4.5. Pilot Study Control Group Members' Frequency in Achieving Traits of Coherence

Table 4.5 reveals the most areas of coherence that the students in the Control Group found easy or difficult. What can be drawn is that the trait of repeating key words was the easiest area for the students to achieve (77.27%), followed by referencing (63.63%), organisation (52.59%), then transitions' use (22.72% in Grade A and 40.90% in Grade B). The students' messages followed almost with ease (18.18% in grade A and 40.90% in grade B). On the other hand, similar to the Experimental Group, progression of content on the Control Group seems to be the source of much problem to the participants; (45.45%) of them had fair to poor levels. Importantly noticed, using synonyms as a means to achieve coherence was avoided by (36.36%) of students. Evidence of well-planned essay-level, again, was found in these scripts. The essays are clear, focused, and details are carefully selected; each of the scripts has an inviting and clear beginning and a satisfying ending.

The participants in the Experimental Group were asked about their opinions about the usefulness of model-essays presented to them in class and the extracted elements that helped them write their own compositions. Their responses are tabulated as follows.

Elements	Proportion
Language features	13
	59.09%
Vocabulary expressions	14
	63.63%
Form	13
	59.09%
Coherence techniques	15
	68.18%
Connectors use	15
	68.18%
Others	introduction /style /topic sentence/skill of building sentences

Table 4.6. Elements from the Models Help in Writing Assignments

Table 4.6, coherence techniques and connectors were the major areas that the participants extracted from the models (68.16% of students); since this is what they found most difficult. Importantly, vocabulary as well as the form of the essay were also considered by (63.63%) as of worth noticing. In addition to the elements proposed, the

students argued that writing the introduction, using appropriate style, the topic sentence in each paragraph and the skill of building the sentences are among the elements that can be noticed how they are done in the models.

4.1.4. Analysis and Discussion of the Pilot Study Results

In the light of the results presented, it can be detected that the subjects succeeded in writing coherent, unified and well-organised essays. Evidence of well-planned paragraph-level discussion was found in these scripts, in both groups of study. This valuable result indicates that these students had understood and assimilated the thesis statement, topic sentence and topic development; moreover, they had an idea about how to achieve coherence using some useful textual properties, such as repetition of key words, referencing, using synonyms and transitional signals, key factors in successful academic writing. Their high-frequent use in the written assignments can also be found in other scripts of grade B, with little difference in terms of quality and appropriateness. This showed that the students did their best to implicate what they had learnt concerning coherence, mainly the use of such attainable devices.

Noticeably, in the Control Group, though they had no models, they could write acceptable essays. This is the result of the good instruction presented, as well as to the good level of the students. However, most of these students asserted that with the presence of a model essay given by the teacher, they would write better. One student argues that she depended on herself to read and analyse a model-essay out of the class. Her piece of writing was interesting. In these scripts, the use of transition is clearly felt, topic sentences are present, and form is respected. This indicates that the teacher's instruction in class was necessary.

On the other hand, the Experimental Group students were not as good as the Control Group in terms of language proficiency. Yet, due to their exposure to model-essays, they

succeeded in achieving coherent writing: respected form, appropriate transitions, effective topic sentences, and developed ideas. The participants depended also on the models for vocabulary choice and sentence structure.

The pilot study helped the researcher to reconsider the procedures for administering the main study. The treatment was to be reconsidered, and then the series of lessons would help raising the students' awareness of academic writing genre mainly related to its features. In the pilot study, the pre-test was mentioned as a measuring tool; however, it was totally neglected in practice. This fact would be considered carefully in the main study.

4.2. Context of the Main Study

This study underlies the difficulties faced by second-year university students of English in their composing tasks. Thus, in the light of the main principles relevant to the analysis of written academic text, common problems are discussed. As a basic assumption, it is regarded in this study that FL writing classrooms are typically a mixture of more than one approach. Most teachers frequently combine these orientations in imaginative and effective ways. An eclectic approach, hence, in teaching writing to the sample classes has been adopted, which overlap all of the process, product and genre orientations to fulfil some pedagogic tasks, designed to develop their genre knowledge and composing skills. A synthesis of different writing orientations means that a focus should be placed on increasing students' experiences of texts and reader expectations, as well as providing them with an understanding of writing processes, language forms, and genres. Finally, as teachers, we need to be sensitive to the practices and perceptions of writing that students bring to the classroom, and build on these so that they come to see writing as relative to particular contexts. This ensures that "students can understand the discourses they have to write, while not devaluing those of their own cultures and communities" (Hyland. 2003:27).

In the Process Approach, for instance, the students are encouraged to feel free to convey their own thoughts or feelings in written messages by providing them with plenty of time and opportunity to reconsider and revise their writing. Based on the Process Approach, with its three steps of prewriting, drafting and revising, the students are considered as independent actors, and they actually work on their writing tasks from the beginning stage to the end of the written product. O'Brien (2004) assumes that the Process Approach helps instructors encourage students not to deem writing as grammar exercises but rather as discovery of meaning and ideas.

Hence, the approach adapted to teaching writing skills aims at strengthening these points.

- Learners should get an adequate understanding of the processes of text creation, the purposes of writing and how to express these in effective ways through formal and rhetorical text choices; and the contexts within which texts are composed and read, mainly with the experimental group.
- Learners need to gain control of five areas of writing knowledge to create effective texts: knowledge of the ideas and topics to be addressed (content), knowledge of the appropriate language forms to create the text (system), knowledge of drafting and revising (process), knowledge of communicative purpose and rhetorical structure (genre).
- Ensuring that learners will move from what is easy to what is difficult and from what is known to what is unknown (Bloom's taxonomy).

Accordingly, the participants were taught writing skills following the phases of the Process Approach. The focus was, in addition to the development of students' linguistic knowledge, on developing their writing abilities, with specific regard towards coherence. In the first two sessions, emphasis was placed on the usefulness of the pre-writing techniques such as free writing, brainstorming, clustering and outlining as the first step to generate and organise ideas. It is in this stage that the students were taught the principles of

coherence (cf. Lee. 2004), mainly the progression of thought and flow of ideas on a particular topic. Furthermore, according to Hsiao and Oxford (2002:372), strategies can “pave the way toward greater proficiency, learner autonomy, and self-regulation”. This combined way emerges the necessity for involving all the actors of the writing process: student-writer and reader (instructor or peers), inside and outside the classroom. Both groups were taught by the same teacher but in a different manner since the Experimental Group only who receives the treatment, the Control Group does not.

The following two sessions were devoted to clarify the essential key elements to obtain a successful piece of writing. The participants were taught six important features to be recognised when writing, since the following stage in the writing process is drafting. Following Scarry and Scarry (2011), these elements are subject, purpose, audience, voice, unity and coherence. In the end of these sessions, the learners would be able to recognise what makes their compositions -in whatever genre acceptable in the readers’ eyes. Again, the students’ products are of much importance in a Product Approach environment that depends on end-term assessment and timed exams.

Meanwhile, both groups were given some knowledge about the paragraph as the fundamental unit of constructing any piece of writing. The focus was on the paragraph structure, its main components, and the basic requirements that all students must be able to meet in order to do university-level work, mainly paragraph coherence techniques. As students in both groups had sufficient instruction about the paragraph, they would pass to see and discuss the different methods of paragraph development in thorough detail. The starting point was going to be the comparison/contrast method. This type of paragraph was selected to be the focus of the study. The participants argued that they had little knowledge about this genre of paragraph writing.

As part of the adopted and adapted approach, the instructor analysed with the students the concept of text, and discussed De Beaugrande’s and Dressier’s (1981) seven standards,

focusing especially on coherence. The teacher-researcher insisted on the importance of paragraphs in a text in English, not as mere graphic devices, but on the way paragraphs are structured and are placed in relation to each other in order to form an organic and coherent whole. The other fact that moving from one point to another is never sudden, but obvious, since any new paragraph in one essay contains a point which is logically connected to what was stated before and comes after. Because students in both groups complained about how difficult it is to write in English, she-the teacher- tried to show them how paragraphing could actually help them to organise their ideas in a coherent way. An emphasis on the function of the introductory sentence in a paragraph and the introductory paragraph in an essay has been regarded in presenting the controlling idea; the aim for the entire composition, and the concluding sentence or the concluding paragraph in being able to close the discussion. Because of the way information is organised in English written discourse, the participants are informed about the pivotal value of planning.

4.3. Population and Sampling

The sample of the study consists of 46 second-year LMD students in the Department of English language at the University of Laghouat, Algeria. The students follow compulsory English sessions in writing for about 24 weeks, with two sessions per week, distributed into two semesters, and each session is one hour and half. They follow a programme that says that by the end of the term, students will be able to write coherent and meaningful academic essays. The study is pursued during the first semester of the academic year, which is devoted to paragraph writing. The students are divided into two intact classes of 23 (N=23) each; one is the Control Group, and the other the Experimental. They share the same cultural background, coming from southern regions as Laghouat, Aflou, Djelfa and Guardaya. Both groups enjoy a full command of Arabic as their first language (L1); they know French as their FL1, and a great desire to pursue their studies in

English (L3) as a third language to reach competency since it is the language of globalisation. Sample selection is illustrated as follows.

Population → 58			
	Control Group		Experimental Group
Total number	33		25
Excluded students (Absent or repeated the year)	10		7
Selected sample	23	+	23 = 46

Figure 4.1. Procedure for Sample Selection

The figure above shows the subjects' demographic information. What is noticed is the exclusion of ten students in the Control Group, and seven others in the Experimental Group from participating in the study. This was either because they repeated the first or second year, and hence they had much exposure to English, or were absent during one of the tests done. Thus, from a total population of fifty-eight students (58), forty-six (46) represent the sample of the study.

4.4. Methodology and Tools of Research

This study is a mixed-method research that crosses the quantitative-qualitative technique. Quantitative data for the present study includes students' ratings in pre- and post-tests, and qualitative data includes students' written responses to open-ended questions of the questionnaire on coherence achievement and the follow-up questions to get the students' perceptions on modelling strategy use. It is an empirical study that is chunked into three stages corresponding to the aims of the study. In the first stage, the students in both groups sit for a pre-test through which they exhibit their writing skill. The pre-test is carried out to check the students' writing levels and abilities before the study will be carried out. In the second stage, the experiment is conducted through presenting

two categories of courses. For the first category, it is a series of four lessons about the characteristics of comparison /contrast method of developing the paragraph. For the Control Group, the lessons will be presented in a conventional way. The second category is on the same topic of comparison /contrast method of developing the paragraph, but through presenting models as a strategy to improve writing effectiveness. This will be carried with Experimental group who will receive the treatment. The third stage is the post-test which takes place after the treatment, and is directed to both groups who are to demonstrate the effects of modelling-strategy instruction on their paragraph writing. Hence, the dependent variables are coherence and effectiveness in the writing of the students, while the independent variable is the exposure to coherent and effective model paragraphs on comparison and contrast.

4.4.1. The Pre-test

To obtain information about students' previous writing experience, learners in both groups were engaged in paragraph writing (a pedagogic task). This task was designed to offer background knowledge and a vehicle for the presentation of further appropriate input in the target language to these learners to ensure, later on, to what extent the new tool used to enhance coherence in writing this genre (comparison and contrast method) would be useful. This written assignment had been given to subjects a week before the experiment was conducted. Each student was requested to write a comparison/contrast paragraph on a free topic. The test was tailored to focus more upon checking the knowledge of the students on the elements of coherence and to how they employ them in a composition.

4.4.2. Conducting the Experiment

The participants in the Control Group were given a detailed instruction of how to write successfully comparison and contrast paragraphs, but without illustration or supportive samples. This had lasted for completely two sessions (three hours). On the other hand, the

students in the Experimental Group had had their instruction with the same teacher, accompanied with the task of reading and analysing academic written samples, selected according to their level on the genre aforementioned. Eight model paragraphs were selected from different written sources (cf. Appendix 2). They provide the means for guiding students' understanding of particular genres. Text selection is, therefore, an important first consideration, as materials need to assist learners toward control of the rhetorical and grammatical features of relevant texts.

Having chosen as suitable input, these texts were presented as model samples to highlight certain features in the text structure. Students of the Experimental Group were required to notice, analyse and discover the materials used to construct an effective coherent paragraph of their own on the genre given as a model (comparison and contrast). This involves considering how a text is organised in relation to its purpose, audience, and message, then, working on how all parts of the text are structured, organised and coded so as to make the text effective as written communication. Following Johns' (1986) perspective, the students were asked to examine the sample texts from global to local considerations. As students gained familiarity with the type of writing, and had knowledge of purpose, structure and language, they can move away from noticing models to constructing their specified texts.

The purpose of having several models was to avoid a blind imitation of one particular example. The students were to reconstruct their own paragraph, using the same successful tips presented in the samples, but not copies, i.e. without being dependent on those models. Leki (1993) reveals that exercises of writing with texts should allow student-writers to find a relevant but unique interpretation of texts without being dependent on them.

During the modelling stage, the teacher's role was directive as she presented the written exemplars, identified the basic elements of each text, and explained the task to compose. Because students were still struggling with generating and organising ideas in early drafts,

the teacher's response focused on helping them explore and develop their ideas. Ideally, the EFL teachers' input should help students to discover new ideas and because of which, to reconsider their positions and to feel free to change course when the new thoughts occur. The EFL teacher has to be extremely careful not to confuse students, as they cannot handle much information at a time. The teacher, then, has an encouraging and monitoring role, advising, assisting, and providing feedback on drafts, making some elicitations and supplements if necessary. The procedure of the experiment, thus, can be summarised in the following figure.

Input: Eight compare/contrast paragraphs in English language extracted from several relevant textbooks (used as models) in addition to teacher instruction
Goal: Writing a compare or contrast paragraph: Individual work in class. Using models to help students with what to write and how to write it. Explicit instruction was intended to encourage students to develop their language knowledge alongside genre knowledge.
Roles: Student: Conversational partner and individual writer Teacher: Explainer, controller, monitor, and facilitator
Tasks: - Read models or examples presented. - Look for models of the kind of writing you want to do. - Keep a file of these so you will have them when you need them. - Think about the content (the information included, and the ideas mentioned). - Look closely at the language used. Underline or make notes on any useful expressions. - Look closely at the organisation of ideas. - Focus on what makes the text coherent. - Focus on the flow of information. What transitional signals were used to connect paragraphs, which words introduced the topic, and how the writer began and ended the text. - Students carried out discussions in pairs first and then as a whole class. -The students were asked to write a compare/ contrast paragraph following the models given.
Time: three sessions: two successive sessions for providing input and another, a week later, for the students to compose their own paragraphs (post-test).

Figure 4.2. Components of the Experiment Group Writing Task

Learners' attention was drawn to the structure and language of the genre through the samples' analysis moving from consciousness-raising through model manipulation to

gaining control of the genre and type confidence in writing. Students' growing understanding allowed them to create a target text in collaboration with the teacher and their peers. They were guided throughout all steps of planning, drafting and developing their texts, and evaluating their progress in terms of the characteristics of the texts they had studied. The fact of using the Process Approach gives the chance to focus on the students' coherence problems. Exactly because this approach considers writing as a recursive process and is therefore based on drafting and revising, it seems particularly suited to teaching students of English "coherence-aiming revision strategies" (Connor & Farmer. 1997:126).

Accordingly, as Johns (1986) suggests, several steps are pursued in the writing task. First, a focus is placed on coherence starting from global considerations (top-down process), then moving to local ones (bottom-up process). Understanding what the prompt really requires is an especially difficult phase for EFL students. These latter are required to practise by deconstructing the titles of the texts at hand, identifying the topic sentence with its two-part topic and controlling idea, then considering coherence in terms of "topic development, the relationship among detailing sentences and to the topic sentence, and the adequacy of the information structure" (Johns. 1986: 252). Subsequently, they had to deconstruct the texts selected as samples, highlight key words and reference use to help create a plan for writing any composition alike. This strategy is to encourage students to consider and reconsider their paragraphs as a whole and allow them "to gauge for themselves the relative coherence of their writing", as Connor and Farmer (1997: 127) said. In sum, the steps followed to analyse the samples are as follows:

1. Identification of topic sentence
2. Determining sentence progression
3. Annotating at the side of each model-paragraph and then transferring the strategy to their compositions once they start composing.

4. Enhancing students' "metacognitive cross-cultural knowledge by comparing various rhetorical patterns" (Maimon. 2001:41); to this end, eight different sample texts are selected regarding authenticity.

The following diagram summarises the procedure undertaken by the researcher to do the treatment using modelling strategy.

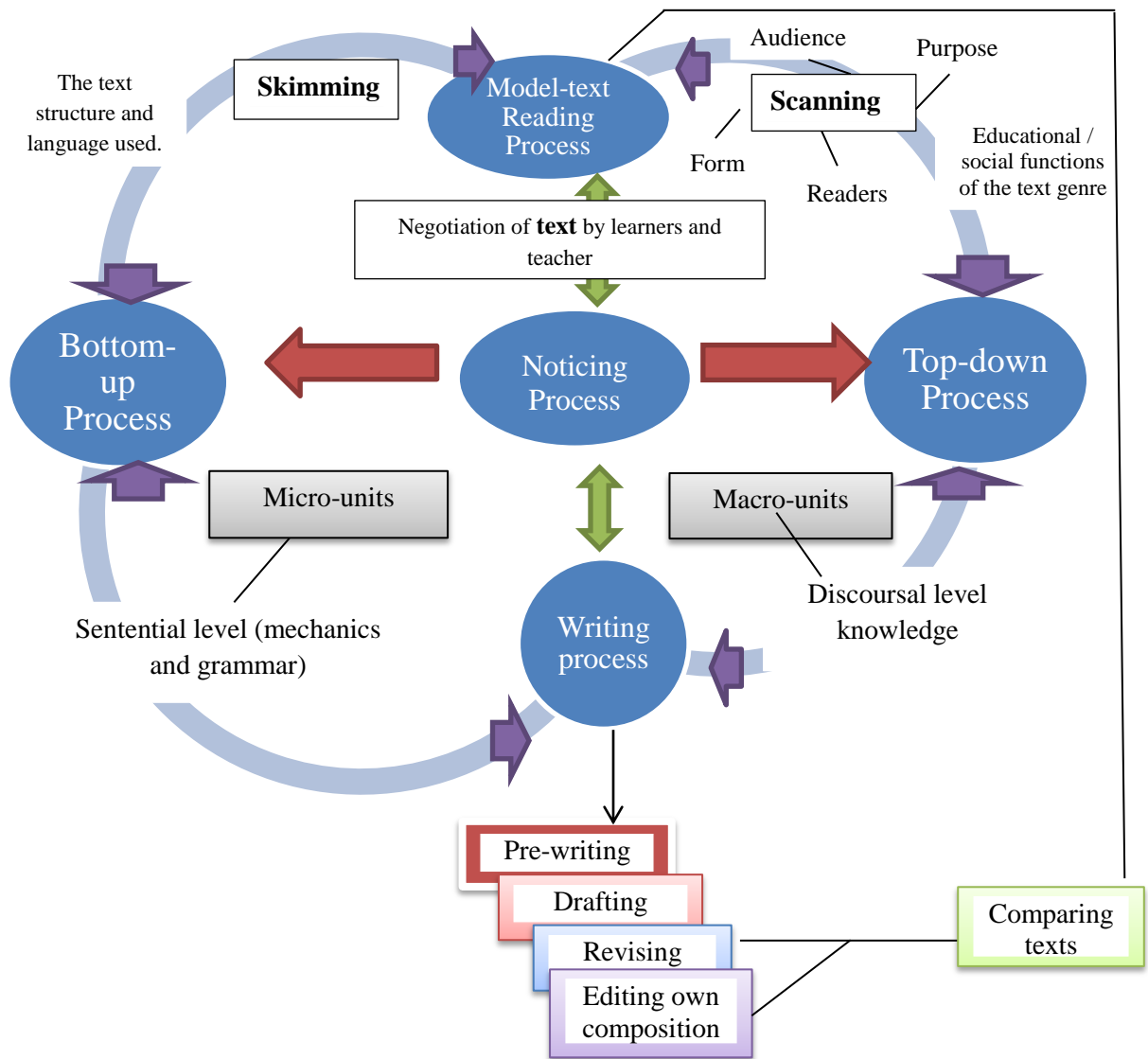


Figure 4.3. Modelling Strategy Procedure (designed by the researcher)

4.4.3. The Post-test

The corpus of the study consists of a paragraph-writing activity. Each student is required to write a comparison and contrast paragraph on a topic assigned by the teacher so that the participants write on one common topic. The written activity had been carried out throughout several weeks after the students had sufficient input, on the process of writing from beginning to end, showing its component parts. The parts include envisaging what to write, outlining, drafting, revising and rewriting the whole text, and finishing it in an appropriate form.

The sample population had also been familiar with the major elements to achieve coherence and paragraph writing effectiveness. So, the written work was considered as a 'post-test'. The activity was carried out in class, and the compositions were collected by the teacher in the end of the session. The copies were corrected and analysed focusing on coherence problems, using a modified Hyland's (2003) analytic scoring rubric (cf. Appendices 4, 7 and 8). Because students were still struggling with generating and organising ideas in early drafts, the teacher's role would be to help students explore and develop their ideas and write them coherently.

4.5. The Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire sought to probe the students' viewpoints concerning their background knowledge about English language writing. The questionnaire was also designed to get information about the participants' motivation, preferred genres and linguistic background knowledge in writing; in addition to their perception towards their teachers' roles as motivators to make them achieve their goals in EFL writing (cf. Appendix 1). The students' major problems in writing, and specifically, in coherence, were the focus of this pre-experiment questionnaire.

Forty-six questionnaires were handed out to the participants in both groups of study. In a writing session of one hour and a half (90 minutes) that precedes the conduction of the experiment, the participants in two different classes and, in two following days, were asked to read each statement or question in the questionnaire carefully and tick or answer what best corresponded their view of it. There were no correct or incorrect responses, only their opinions.

4.5.1. Description of the Questionnaire

Nine questions construct the questionnaire: a set of six questions to get knowledge about the writing background and experience of the participants; two questions about the participants' major composing problems in English to test their knowledge on structuring the academic paragraph. This questionnaire was made up of different question-types. First, among the nine questions designed in this questionnaire, two were 5-Likert-scale questions in which responses should be ranked from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' in the measurement of student's emotion and feeling towards writing in English, and the different genres enjoyed most. Second, two other questions had 4-likert scale of a rank-order type of questions which requested the respondent to rank the rating difficulty from 'least' to 'most difficult' in the measurement of the student's problems in writing in English. Moreover, two other questions had 3-Likert-scale of 'very much', 'moderate' and 'not much', to measure the students' motivation and evaluation of their writing improvement. In addition to that, three open-ended questions were designed to elicit the student's strategies and/or suggestions on improving writing task. Thus, the questionnaire contributed to an insight into the study and data.

4.5.2. Analysis of the Questionnaire

Based on deeper reading into the theories of foreign language teaching and learning in general, and writing development in particular, the researcher designed her questionnaire.

The analysis of the questionnaire allows us to make a summary of the students' needs and difficulties in writing English as a foreign language at Laghouat University. The needs of second-year students vary as their approaches to writing tasks vary, but almost all of them have the motivation needed to accomplish their intended goals in achieving communicative as well as linguistic competence in English language.

4.5.2.1. Personal Information

The informants were asked about their personal information and their learning background. Of twenty-three (23) students in each group, three were male, while twenty were female; they were within the age range of 20-23 years. For the student's English language experience and knowledge, a question was asked; it is about the respondents' experience with English at University of Laghouat. Results obtained are presented as follows.

Q1. How long have you been learning English at university?

All the students (N=46) have been learning English at university for two years. This was already identified while selecting the sample. This fact implies that they had all shared the same first year writing course content. This helps in the interpretation of any progression or development on the part of these learners.

4.5.2.2. Experiencing Writing in English

The second interest of the questionnaire was concerned with the participants' experience in writing in English, attitude, motivation and feeling. How much do they like to write in English? How often do they write? How do they feel about writing in English? And which genre in writing they enjoy most? There were no correct or incorrect responses, only their opinions. Teachers, in fact, all dream to have motivated students.

Q2. How much do you like to write in English?

The relationship between motivation and the process of learning English as a foreign language, particularly the writing skill is very strong. To be motivated is “*to be moved to do something*” (Ryan & Deci. 2000:54). A motivated learner is the one who has the need, drive as well as the desire to do something and achieve a specific goal; they devote considerable effort and practice to fulfil it. The following table presents the students’ responses towards their love to write in English.

Degree	Very much	Moderate	Not much	Total
Control Group	10	12	1	23
	34.47%	52.17%	4.34%	100%
Experimental Group	11	12	0	23
	47.82%	52.17%	00.00%	100%

Table 4.7. Respondents’ Motivation to Write in English

As it can be noticed, of the participants in each group (34.47%) to (47.82%) said that writing was important to them, and they like practising it. In each group, (52.17%) were moderate in their attitudes; while (34.47%) confessed that they like to do the writing task very much. This desire stemmed from the need to improve their writing level which would be relevant to their future careers. According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1991), students may want to learn the foreign language to achieve a practical goal such as a job promotion or to obtain course credit.

Q3. How often do you write in English?

This question is designed to get an idea about the participants’ English language writing practice outdoors. One pivotal parameter to success in learning a foreign language is practicing it. The participants are given choices of times to do writing tasks (day, week, month and year) out of class. They have to select one or all choices and give the number of times in each case. The following table displays the obtained results.

Times	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Yearly
Control Group	10	9	4	-
	34.47%	39.13%	17.39%	-
Experimental Group	4	14	5	-
	17.39%	60.86%	21.73%	-

Table 4.8. Students' Frequency of Practising Writing in English

Table 4.8 shows that the students' responses in both groups seem similar. 60.86% of the respondents in each group were practising writing in English; if it was not daily, it would be weekly. The Control Group appeared better in terms of the number of times per day. Of all the respondents of the Control Group (N=23), 34.47%, were practising EFL writing on a daily basis; while (39.13% practise writing weekly, once or twice per week). 17.39 % said they practised writing once a month.

In the Experimental Group (N=23), 60.86% said they practised writing at most three times per week, and 21.73 % [twice] per month. These results can be regarded as a positive finding regarding the number of times that most participants used to practise EFL writing per day or week, in favour of the Control Group members.

Q4. How do you feel about writing in English? Please circle the number that reflects the degree to which you agree with the statement.

In this question, there were statements with which the participants were invited to agree or disagree. All the statements were positively phrased. They were related to the key strands of the research questions. Results are tabulated as follows.

Degree of Response		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Statement						
I think I need to improve my English writing.	Ctrl. Grp.	17 73,91%	3 13,04%	3 13,04%	0 00%	0 00%
	Exp. Grp.	16 69,56%	4 17,39%	2 08,69%	1 04,34%	0 00%
I believe , I need to be exposed to English writer' styles	Ctrl. Grp.	5 21,73%	9 39,13%	6 26,08%	2 08,69%	0 0%
	Exp. Grp.	5 21,73%	6 26,08%	11 47,82%	1 04,34%	0 00%
I think, I need to know how to express what I really want to say easily	Ctrl. Grp.	12 52,17%	5 21,73%	3 13,04%	3 13,04%	0 00%
	Exp. Grp.	10 43,47%	8 34,78%	2 08,69%	2 08,69%	0 00%
I practise English writing regularly to be a good writer	Ctrl. Grp.	4 17,39%	5 21,73%	7 30,43%	6 26,08%	1 04,34%
	Exp. Grp.	5 21,73%	11 47,82%	4 17,39%	3 13,04%	0 00%
I only write to my English writing teacher.	Ctrl. Grp.	7 30,43%	0 00%	3 13,04%	7 30,43%	6 26,06%
	Exp. Grp.	5 21,73%	3 13,04%	3 13,04%	5 21,73%	5 21,73%
My good writing in L1 makes me love writing in English	Ctrl. Grp.	6 26,08%	3 13,04%	5 21,73%	3 13,04%	6 26,06%
	Exp. Grp.	6 26,08%	3 13,04%	6 26,08%	6 26,08%	2 08,69%
I think I need to read texts written by native speakers.	Ctrl Grp.	16 69,56%	4 17,39%	2 08,69%	1 04,34%	0 00%
	Exp. Grp.	13 56,52%	7 30,43%	1 04,34%	2 08,69%	0 00%

Table 4.9. Students' Approach to English Writing Practice

For each statement in Table 4.9, five options of responses were used to show the degree to which the participants agreed with the statement in a 5-likert scale. These include 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'uncertain', 'disagree', and 'strongly disagree'. The interpretation of each statement is presented as follows.

1. I think I need to improve my English Writing.

Most of the respondents, in both groups, strongly agreed with the idea of improving their writing in English. Their results about this statement seemed similar. (73. 91%) in the Control Group compared to (69. 56 %) in the Experimental Group strongly agreed with the

statement; while (13.04%) to (17.39%) in each group just agreed. A similar percentage of (8.69 %) to (13.04%) in each group appeared to be uncertain. On the other hand, only one respondent in the Experimental Group disagreed with this statement. She must have misused the word; so instead of choice (4) that stands for agree, she selected number (2). The misuse appeared well in her following responses. Apparently, (0 %) seemed to mark strongly disagree. These results indicate that students in both groups would like to improve their writing competency in English to be up-to-date for future careers.

2. I believe; I need to be exposed to English writers' styles.

As for the second statement proposed, both groups respond similarly with varied answers in each. Not all the students appeared to understand the intended meaning underlying this statement. This fact made (47.82 %) of the respondents (N=23) in the Experimental Group and (26.08%) in the Control Group to be uncertain. While, (39.13%) and (26.08 %) in the Control Group and Experimental Group respectively agree with being exposed to English language as a way to foster their learning. This idea was even strongly agreed upon by (21.73%) of the respondents in each group. On the other hand, just (4.34 %) to (8.69 %) in both groups disagreed totally with that statement; they appeared to misunderstand the meaning intended.

3. I think I need to know how to express what I really want to say easily while English writing.

Positively, most students in both groups did agree with this statement. And even their responses seemed similar in terms of frequency. (52.17%) in the Control Group strongly agreed with the need to know how they could easily express themselves in English writing, and similarly (43.47%) in the Experimental Group did. However, (21.73%) and Experimental Group selected 'agree', respectively in the Control Group and the Experimental Group. On the other hand, Experimental Group were uncertain and

Experimental Group disagreed in the Control Group; compared to (8.69 %) who appeared uncertain, while (8.69%) disagree in the Experimental Group. Thus, (73.90%) to (78.25%) of the participants in the Control Group and the Experimental Group respectively found that the way of expressing their ideas (generating and developing) a serious concern.

4. I practise English writing regularly to be a good writer.

As indicated in Table 4.9, the Experimental Group responses seemed to be more positive compared to those of the Control Group. With (69.55%) of the respondents in the Experimental Group agreed with the statement and declared that they used to practise English writing regularly, hence more motivated to be good writers, since practice makes perfect; (47.82 %) strongly agreed with the statement and (21.73%) agreement was also positive. On the other hand, (17.39 %) students strongly agreed and (21.73%) agreed with that statement in the Control Group. As for those who were uncertain, their number seemed bigger in the Control Group with (30.43%) compared to just (17.39%) in the Experimental Group. Yet, the respondents who really disagreed of practising English writing regularly appeared much more in the Control Group (26.08%) disagreed and strongly disagreed than in the Experimental Group (13.04%).

5. I only write to my teacher of English writing.

To strengthen the previous responses, this statement was posed. Answers obtained validated the responses gained from the aforementioned statement. The purpose of practising writing, in fact, goes beyond simply satisfying the students' teachers, or passing the course. About (30.43%) who disagreed and (26.06%) strongly disagreed in the Control Group. On the other hand, (43.47%) of the participants in the Experimental Group appeared to disagree and strongly disagree with the statement, with (21.73%) of students for each degree. Those who were uncertain, however, represented only (13.04%) of the total population of each group. An equal percentage of (21.73%) can be noticed for those

who strongly agreed with writing only for the teacher. This type of students appeared to seek their teacher's approval; they were mainly syllabus-dependent girls.

6. My good writing in L1 makes me love writing in English.

Looking for their background (previous knowledge) effectiveness on English writing process, students were given such a statement to know whether there appears any L1 influence in terms of motivation, love and competency in English writing in general. In fact, a good writer in L1 would be a good writer in or EFL or any other foreign language. Kroll (1990) argues that there is a positive relationship between the competency of L1 writing and EFL writing accuracy. As results showed, there was no clear difference in responses between the two groups. In fact, (26.08%) in each group strongly agreed with the statement and, hence, asserted that they love L1 writing as they did with English. This view was also shared by other (13.04 %) in each group again who appeared to agree with the fact. (21.73%) to (26.08%) of students in the Control Group and Experimental Group were obtained for those who were uncertain; they might be confused or really did not know what to answer. On the other hand, (26.06%) in the Experimental Group compared to (13.04%) in the Control Group appeared to disagree, and considered their love to English as special, and not necessarily due to their L1 influence. This opinion was also noticeably found in the responses of (26.08%) in the Control Group who strongly disagreed compared to (8.69%) in the Experimental Group. Consequently, both groups seemed similar in their opinions towards L1 influence on writing in English, with an equal number of students who agree and those who disagree.

7. I think I need to read texts written by native speakers.

The term '*being exposed*' that appears in Item 2, Table 4.9, (I need to be exposed to English writer' styles) caused some difficulty to grasp for some students. This ambiguity soon disappeared when clarifications were made in item 7, which is further detailed and

simplified to *'reading texts written by native speakers'*. As shown in Table 4.9, student could respond positively in favour of the statement given. Indeed, (69.56%) in the Control Group, and (56.52 %) in the Experimental Group strongly agreed with the need to read authentic texts written by English language writers. Similarly, (30. 43%) in the Experimental Group did agree with that, compared to (17. 39%) in the Control Group. On the other hand, just (8.69%) in the Control Group and only (4.34%) in the Experimental Group were uncertain; while (13.04%) in both groups appeared to disagree with the statement and favour texts written by English language writers.

Mostly, most students in both groups positively agreed with the need to improve their EFL writing as much as they can through practice and reading authentic texts. However, the motivation behind our students' needs may widely change ebbs and flows over the course of the year (or even during a single classroom written task). Their desire to improve writing could stem from various sources, internal to the learner, external or both. Learners do not have many opportunities to use English in their daily lives, thus, the role of the teacher can never be easy. Teachers carry a huge burden of responsibility to motivate their students.

Q.5. Which genre in writing you enjoy most? Please circle the number that reflects the degree of your choice.

This type of question is designed to see how much the participants are familiar with the genres of writing in English, and which they enjoy most. A 5-likert scale is used to rank their responses from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. When asked about the genres of writing they like most, the respondents replied with different answers. Results obtained from both groups are tabulated as follows:

Degree of Response Genre		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		Stories	Ctrl Grp.	15 65.21%	4 17.39%	1 4.34%
Exp. Grp.	10 43.47%		11 47.82%	2 8.69%	0 0%	0 0%
Advertisements, technological advances reports	Ctrl Grp.	4 17.39%	4 17.39%	1 4.34%	4 17.39%	7 30.34%
	Exp. Grp.	2 8.69%	5 21.73%	9 39.13%	3 13.04%	4 17.39%
Argument, scholarly papers	Ctrl Grp.	1 4.34%	7 30.43%	6 26.08%	2 8.69%	5 21.73%
	Exp. Grp.	5 21.73%	7 30.43%	6 26.08%	3 13.04%	2 8.69%
Encyclopaedia, reference texts	Ctrl Grp.	4 21.73%	3 13.04%	3 13.04%	6 26.08%	4 21.73%
	Exp. Grp.	1 4.34%	4 17.39%	8 34.78%	5 21.73%	5 21.73%
Newspapers	Ctrl Grp.	4 21.73%	6 26.08%	2 8.69%	5 21.73%	4 21.73%
	Exp. Grp.	7 30.43%	9 39.13%	3 13.04%	3 13.04%	1 4.34%
University Assignments	Ctrl Grp.	6 26.08%	5 21.73%	5 21.73%	2 8.69%	3 13.04%
	Exp. Grp.	3 13.04%	9 39.13%	6 26.08%	0 0%	4 17.39%
Letters	Ctrl Grp.	9 39.13%	8 34.78%	1 4.34%	2 8.69%	1 4.34%
	Exp. Grp.	6 26.08%	5 21.73%	6 26.08%	5 21.73%	1 4.34%
Emails	Ctrl Grp.	8 34.78%	4 21.73%	2 8.69%	5 21.73%	2 8.69%
	Exp. Grp.	8 34.78%	7 30.43%	0 0%	4 17.39%	4 17.39%

Table 4.10. Genres Enjoyed Most by Students in Writing

The results obtained, as shown in Table 4.10, indicated that the most common genre favoured among students was writing stories. In that, (65.21%) in the Control Group and (43.47%) in the Experimental Group strongly agreed with enjoying reading and writing stories; while (47.82%) in the Experimental Group put just ‘agree’ compared to (17.39%) in the other group. Yet, just three students of 46 (in both groups) seemed uncertain what to respond. In fact, such genre of writing is favoured most, because of freedom of expression that is behind the lines. It is the genre that learners find themselves reflecting their daily lives and experiences as well as emotional or psychological states they are passing through,

which cannot be reflected but through reading or writing this genre-stories (short or long). Another reason behind this finding is the fact that these participants used to be in the literary streams while they were in the secondary school, where they were exposed mostly to literary texts as stories and novels.

As for Advertisements, and/or technological advances' reports, results showed that it was not the genre enjoyed most by students. (17.39%) strongly agreed and (17.39%) agreed with enjoying that type of writing in the Control Group, compared to only (08.69%) who strongly agreed and five others agreed in the Experimental Group. However, (39.13%) in the Experimental Group appeared uncertain, compared to just (04.34%) in the Control Group. Yet, (47.82%) of students in the Control Group and (30.43%) in the Experimental Group disagreed totally with such kind of writing as being enjoyable. On the other hand, for argument and scholarly papers, answers varied. Some of the students agreed to write and read about this genre, with (30.43 %) in each group. Moreover, some others even strongly agreed representing (04.34 %) in the Experimental Group and (21.73 %) in the Control Group. An equal (26.08%) in each group, however, seemed uncertain. While, (21.73%) in the Control Group to (30.43%) of students in the Experimental Group disagreed with enjoying such a genre in their writing or reading.

For the fourth genre proposed by the teacher which includes 'encyclopaedias' and reference texts, results indicated that the majority of students were unaware of such a genre, or could not understand well what is intended to mean by reference texts. (30.43%) who enjoyed this genre in the Control Group compared to (21.73%) in the Experimental Group. This fact made them uncertain of having it as an enjoyable genre (34.780 %) in the Experimental Group; (13.04%) in the Control Group). Yet, (26.08%) in the Control Group appeared to disagree and (17.39%) strongly disagree with considering such type a sore of interest, compared to (43.47%). (21.73%) of students strongly disagreed and other (21.73%) disagreed in the Experimental Group.

University Assignments, on the other hand, appeared to be a genre which is enjoyed most by the respondents. In fact, it looks like a duty-task that they had to do. A (47.82%) of students in the Control Group compared to (52.17%) of students in the Experimental Group were interested in that genre. While (21.73% to 26.08%) in each group were uncertain. However, (17.39%) to (21.73%) of students in each group appeared to disagree with considering the university assignment as an enjoyable genre.

Unlike the other genres, writing letters (whatever type of letter) was a genre that was favoured by most of the respondents in both groups. (34.78%) favour it and (39.13%) strongly agreed upon enjoying this genre, with (69.56%) in the Control Group, compared to (47.82%) in the Experimental Group. The rest of the respondents in each group were uncertain of (26.08%) in Control Group and (4.34%) in the Experimental Group, or disagree with a representation of (13.04%) in the Control Group and (26.08 %) in the Experimental Group. Hence, the majority of the respondents feel free to express themselves in writing letters, mainly to their friends with the absence of grammar guide and formality control, either in their L1 or FL.

The last genre proposed by the teacher is writing e-mails. This genre seems to be strongly favoured by (52.17%) in the Control Group and (65.21%) of respondents in the Experimental Group mainly those who can use computers and surf on the net most of the time. While (8.69%) of the respondents in the Control Group were uncertain compared to (0%) in the Experimental Group. While (17.39%) to (21.73%) of the students in each group disagree to consider that genre as enjoyable.

On the whole, what appeared to be enjoyable most by the students were four major types, which are respectively stories, letters, e-mails and university assignments. The students seemed unfamiliar with the other types of writing. The teacher's role, hence, is to help students be aware of these genres. Moreover, the respondents in both groups had even

proposed other genres of writing they would like to practice writing in. Results obtained are displayed in the following table.

Proposed Genre	Control Group	Experimental Group
Sport reports and articles	1	1
	04.34%	04.34%
Writing and reading poems and paragraphs	2	7
	08.69%	30.43%
Novels and magazines	3	2
	13.04%	08.69%
History texts	2	1
	08.69%	04.34%
Political and economic Newspapers	1	1
	04.34%	04.34%
Books reading	2	0
	08.69%	00.00%
Free writing	2	0
	08.96%	00.00%

Table 4.11. Respondents' Proposals of Writing Genres

As it is displayed, the students' suggestions vary in terms of quality and frequency between the two groups of study, but what is proposed seems similar in both groups. (04.34%) of the participants in each group proposed sport reports and articles related to sports; (04.34%) to (08.69%) suggested history texts; still (8.69%) to (13.04%) preferred novels and magazines. In fact, (08.69%) to (30.43%) confused between what would be enjoyable to write about or read. These students proposed writing and reading poems and paragraphs of all types; they appeared to have a literary orientation even in their L1 (Classical Arabic).

Q6. How do you evaluate your writing improvement?

Aiming at assisting learners to become skilled judges of their own strengths and weaknesses and set realistic goals for themselves, this question is designed. Asking learners about their viewpoints on their writing improvement can give useful insights to

language teaching practice. To this end, a 3-likert scale is used to gather the students' responses.

Degree	Very good	Moderate	Not good	Total
Control Group	3	11	9	23
	13.04%	47.82%	39.13%	100%
Experimental Group	1	17	5	23
	4.34%	73.91%	21.73%	100%

Table 4.12. Respondents' Self-evaluation of Writing Improvement

Table 4.12 displays results obtained from the Control Group and the Experimental Group's frequencies in terms of evaluating their writing improvement after having writing courses for about one year and a half. The degree of uncertainty seems to gain higher concern. (47.82%) in the Control Group and (73.91%) in the Experimental Group were not sure of their level, and considered their writing level as moderate that needs to be further improved. (13.04%) of students in the Control Group compared to (4.34%) in the Experimental group seemed quite self-confident and considered their writing as improving. On the other hand, (39.13%) and (21.73%) in each of the Control Group and the Experimental Group respectively responded negatively and viewed their writing as in need for further improvement. What is noticeable is the similarity of results obtained from both groups that gives a credit to the homogenous sample selected for study. Having involved in self-evaluation, the students felt happy and more comfortable. In fact, this way of assessment is favoured to get better results that help in designing future syllabi.

Q7. The best method/s that helped you improve your English writing was/ were

When asked about the best methods that had enabled them to improve their writing, or they would propose for future use, the respondents could not hesitate replying with a

diversity of answers. The control group responses are tabulated first, followed by the experimental group suggestions. Comments follow each presentation.

Proposed method	Students' number /23
Reading books, stories texts	8
	34.78%
Practicing writing	13
	56.52%
Vocabulary enriching	2
	08.69%
Watching movies and videos	2
	08.69%
Teacher's instruction	1
	08.69%
Text's summary	1
	04.34%
Free writing	1
	04.34%
Using the net	1
	04.34%
Pre-writing (clustering)	1
	04.34%
No answer	5
	17.39%
<i>NB: One student may have two proposals at a time.</i>	

Table 4.13. Control Group Proposed Methods for Improving Writing

As it is noticed in the table above, the best method proposed by the majority of students in the control group was practicing writing. Indeed, the students have understood that practice makes perfect. This result is illustrated in item (4) of the questionnaire. (56.52%) who suggested that idea; they proposed homework and doing assignments as part of this practice. (34.78%) were for reading books, stories, novels or any other texts in English; whereas, (08.96%) proposed vocabulary enriching as a strategy to develop writing quality, and two other students thought that watching TV movies may help in doing so. Only one student, however, considered the teacher's instruction as being the cause behind the improvement of her writing. Similar results can be found with summarising texts or

short stories, free writing and clustering as pre-writing techniques, as well as using the internet as a vehicle to improve writing. However, 23 (21.73%) had no answers.

Similarly, the respondents in the experimental group proposed different answers with different frequencies. The following table summarises these proposals.

Proposed method	Students' number /23 Percentage %
Reading books	12
	52.17%
Reading stories	7
	30.43%
Reading model texts	7
	30.43%
Free writing	2
	08.69%
Vocabulary enriching	6
	26.08%
Homework assignment	5
	21.73%
Pre-writing (clustering)	2
	08.69%
Dictation	2
	08.69%
Using computers	1
	04.34%
Working in groups	1
	04.34%
Teacher's explanation	2
	08.69
Translation	2
	08.69
Paragraph Coherence in books	1
	04.34
Native people writing	2
	08.69
No answer	1
	04.34

Table 4.14. Experimental Group Proposed Methods for Improving Writing

As it can be described in Table 4.14 below, reading in general was assumed to be the major factor of writing improvement, such as reading books (52.17%), reading stories (30.43%), or even reading model texts as something really proposed by seven students of 23 (30.43%). This result gives the impression that we are working in the right path towards

helping our students enhance their writing skills. Vocabulary enrichment (26.08%) and homework assignments were also considered among the main helpful means to ameliorate writing and composing as a whole.

Other proposals pointed by the Experimental Group members included pre-writing techniques, and mainly clustering, which, they argued, helped them to generate and organise ideas (08.69%). A similar low result was found with those who proposed dictation (08.69%), explanation of the teacher (08.69%), and native people writing that they should be in contact with (08.69%) as methods to improve writing. Other (08.69%) of the respondents proposed even translation as a helpful strategy to help them improve FL writing; by translation the students may refer to the act of writing down the ideas into well-formed English that transmits meaning to others. It may be, thus, a communicative tool that occurs between the student-writer's inner thought and his audience; yet, they have to have a good command of their L1 to consider it as a helpful means. Other suggestions include using computers and working in groups, mainly for those with low self-esteem. One student only was registered with no answer; he seemed careless. These proposals are useful for the teacher to generalise and set future teaching materials.

4.5.2.3. Problems in Writing in English

For section three in the designed questionnaire, the researcher wanted to point out the major difficulties that the student encounters, during the process of writing in English. Two questions are designed. The first question is about problems of writing in general, in which the areas of organisation, content and language use are judged. The second question is particularly structured for problems in writing the paragraph.

Q8. Which of these areas in writing is still causing you difficulty? Please circle the number that reflects the degree of difficulty from 1 (most difficult) to 4 (least difficult).

1. Organisation		2. Content		3. Language use	
Unity	4 3 2 1	Generating ideas	4 3 2 1	Appropriate word	4 3 2 1
Coherence	4 3 2 1			Syntactic Structure	4 3 2 1
Topic sentence	4 3 2 1	Writing the point	4 3 2 1	Grammar accuracy	4 3 2 1
Concluding sentence	4 3 2 1			Spelling	4 3 2 1
Detailing sentences	4 3 2 1	Specific and relevant details	4 3 2 1		
Punctuation	4 3 2 1				

Three sub-categories according to three major types of writing problems generally agreed upon are to be considered: organisation, content and language use. Results obtained in each sub-category for both groups of study were tabulated, described and analysed. The number that reflects the degree of difficulty ranks from 1 (most difficult) to 4 (least difficult). Results are presented as follows.

4.5.2.3.1. Organisation Problems

This aspect of writing is divided into sub-criteria which are unity, coherence, topic sentence, concluding sentence, detailing sentences and punctuation. This division is the researcher's own endeavour, following Meyers (2006a:25) and Khoury (2007:29), the structure of a paragraph consists of three important elements. (1) The introduction which contains a topic sentence; (2) the body that contains supporting sentences which support, explain, and develop the main idea expressed in the topic sentence; and (3) the conclusion which occurs at the end of the paragraph. Through this division, the researcher focuses on the areas that contribute to achieve overall organisation in writing. Results obtained are described as in the following table.

Item \ Degree of difficulty		4	3	2	1	No answer	Total
Unity	Ctrl Grp.	6 26,08%	5 21,73%	6 26,08%	4 17,39%	2 8,69%	23 100%
	Exp. Grp.	6 26,08%	4 17,39%	8 34,78%	3 13,04%	2 8,69%	23 100%
Coherence	Ctrl Grp.	3 13,04%	4 17,39%	9 39,13%	6 26,08%	1 4,34%	23 100%
	Exp. Grp.	1 4,34%	9 39,13%	5 21,73%	1 4,34%	0 0%	23 100%
Topic sentence	Ctrl Grp.	9 39,13%	5 21,73%	4 17,39%	3 13,04%	2 8,69%	23 100%
	Exp. Grp.	8 34,78%	4 17,39%	4 17,39%	6 26,08%	1 4,34%	23 100%
Concluding sentence	Ctrl Grp.	10 43,47%	2 8,69%	6 26,08%	3 13,04%	2 8,69%	23 100%
	Exp. Grp.	14 60,86%	1 4,34%	2 8,69%	5 21,73%	1 4,34%	23 100%
Detailing sentences	Ctrl Grp.	8 34,78%	6 26,08%	2 8,69%	5 21,73%	2 8,69%	23 100%
	Exp. Grp.	5 21,73%	10 43,47%	4 17,39%	4 17,39%	0 0%	23 100%
Punctuation	Ctrl Grp.	4 17,39%	4 17,39%	7 30,43%	7 30,43%	1 4,34%	23 100%
	Exp. Grp.	5 21,73%	6 26,08%	4 17,39%	8 34,78%	0 0%	23 100%

NB. (1)=most difficult to (4) = least difficult

Table 4.15. Students' Degree of Difficulty of Organisation Aspect

As it is shown in the Table 4.15 above, most of the respondents in both groups seem to have the same results in terms of problem's difficulty. In the area of unity, (26.08%) in both groups argued that they had little trouble. (17.39%) to (21.73%) in each of the two groups, however, considered this area as troublesome, but not as much as another group of (26.08%) of students in the Control Group and (34.78%) in the Experimental Group who found unity as something difficult to obtain in their writing. Yet, (13.04) to (17.39%) of students in each group, pointed to this trait as being too difficult to achieve, selecting choice (1). (8.69%) of students in each group had no answers, however.

As far as coherence is concerned, (17.39%) to (39.13%) of students in both groups were satisfied with what the teacher had presented to them so far about this area. At most, they could feel they had understood how to achieve coherence through the techniques learned in class (referencing, transition, and key words repetition). It cannot cause them major difficulty; yet, they need to practise it much more. As results indicate, most of the respondents selected choices (2) and (3) which represent average difficulty. (17.39%) in the control group and (39.13%) in the experimental group had number (3) as their choice that stands for not too much difficult. While, (39.13%) and (21.73%) in the two groups - respectively were still looking at coherence as a source of problem in writing; but not as much as the difficulty expressed by (26.08%) in the Control Group and (4.34%) in the Experimental Group, who had considered coherence as really causing too much problem. One student only of 46 had no answer.

The topic sentence, as another trait in the aspect of organisation, does not appear to cause much difficulty to our learners. Table 4.16 displays that (34.78%) to (39.13%) in each group selected choice (4) (least difficult), and (17.39%) to (21.73%) of students in each group again had number (3) as their choice. A number of students, then, thought they were able to write their topic sentences without any difficulty due to their teacher's instruction; they had sufficient knowledge about how to write an effective topic sentence. Practice is what they really in need for. By contrast, (17.39%) of students in each group still thought of this area as somehow difficult to achieve. A similar view was also noticed in the choice of other (26.08%) respondents in the Experimental Group and (13.04%) in the Control Group, who selected choice (1) and considered achieving an effective topic sentence as a major difficulty. (13.04%) of the total students in both groups, however, had no answers.

Concerning the concluding sentence, results obtained are distinguishable. Apparently, this criterion is not a problem in writing for the students at all. (60.86%) of students in the

Experimental Group and (43.47%) of students in the Control Group thought had little problem to write their concluding sentences. It seems easy to them to end their writing piece with the suitable personal opinion or point of view. It is their sentence that can be drawn from their inner state. On the other hand, (13.04%) of students in the Control Group and (21.73%) of students in the Experimental Group in each still could not find themselves able to end their writing appropriately well and may forget or avoid it. The other remaining of students' views in each group were centred in between; while (13.04%) of them had no response.

Similar results can be noticed for writing the developing sentences. (21.73%) to (43.47%) of the respondents, in each group, thought that it was easy to develop their theme in specific and sufficient sentences. Responses showed that in the Control Group, (34.78%) of students considered this task easy; while (26.08%) viewed it as little difficult; for (08.69%) of students this area causes them some difficulty. However, (21.73%) of the total respondents (N=23) selected choice (1) as being too difficult. On the other hand, in the Experimental Group, (21.73%) considered this task easy; while (43.47%) viewed it as little difficult; for four other students this area causes them some difficulty, and four students selected choice (1) as being too difficult. These results indicate that both groups were similar in their considerations and views about this area of writing with the majority of respondents having it as an easy task to reach.

The last area in organisation to be considered by the researcher was the trait of punctuation. This area causes too much difficulty to EFL learners. As can be described, (30.43%) to (34.78%) in both groups tended to consider it as an area of much difficulty and selected choice (1). Moreover, seven other students in the control group and four students in the Experimental Group selected choice (2) considering the area of punctuation as less difficult than the first group. While, in both groups, (17.39%) to (26.08%) had choice (3), and (17.39%) to (21.73%) others selected choice (4) and viewed this area as not a source of

much problem. At any rate, knowing punctuation conventions in English language is of great importance to achieve coherent as well as well-organised piece of writing easily understood by the reader. This area used to be of much focus in the teacher’s evaluation.

The students of both groups replied similarly concerning the aspect of organisation. This implies that they had similar levels, problems and concerns. This valuable result gives validity to the experiment that would be held in the following sessions.

4.5.2.3.2. Content Problems

For the aspect of content, a 4-degree scale is used to rank the amount of difficulty from most difficult (1) to least difficult (4) to describe the participants’ perceptions about the generation of ideas, development of topic and relevance of details as well as writing their main theme. Frequencies of students’ responses in both groups are tabulated, described and interpreted.

Degree of Difficulty		4	3	2	1	Total
Generating ideas	Ctrl Grp.	2	11	5	5	23
		08.69%	47.82%	21.73%	21.73%	100%
	Exp. Grp.	3	6	8	6	23
		13.04%	26.08%	34.78%	26.08%	100%
Writing the point (theme)	Ctrl Grp.	0	7	8	8	23
		00%	30.43%	34.78%	34.78%	100%
	Exp. Grp.	5	11	5	2	23
		21.73%	47.82%	21.73%	8.69%	100%
Specific and relevant details	Ctrl Grp.	3	11	4	5	23
		13.04%	47.82%	17.39%	21.73%	100%
	Exp. Grp.	5	12	2	4	23
		21.73%	52.17%	8.69%	17.39%	100%
<i>NB. (1)=most difficult to (4) = least difficult</i>						

Table 4.16. Students’ Degree of Difficulty of Content Aspect

Table 4.16 describes the respondents' views towards content sub-categories: generating of ideas, writing the main theme and developing specific and relevant details. Results obtained largely strengthened what they had already thought about developing sentences previously described in organisation. The majority of students under investigation viewed thematic progression (content) as an aspect not too much difficult to fulfil; at least, this was what they thought.

In generating ideas, (47.82%) in the Control Group selected choice (3) which implies easy -but not too easy, while (21.73%) selected choice (2); compared to (26, 08%) in the Experimental Group with choice (3) and (34.78%) selected choice (2). Thus, (60.86%) of students in each group opted for a moderate choice (in between), neither too difficult nor too easy. Other seven students, in the control group, considered generating ideas either too difficult to obtain (21.73%) or an easy task to reach (08.69%); similar results are at most found with the Experimental Group.

Unlike the Experimental Group, writing the point or the main theme had been a major concern that caused too much difficulty for (34.78%) of the Control Group participants who considered this area of content as a major problem in writing; and other (34.78%) looked at it as a difficult task, but not as much as the previous ones. These two categories, then, represented (69.55%) of the Control Group total population. On the other hand, (30.43%) selected choice (3) and did not consider this area as causing much problem. No answer was registered for choice (4), however. By contrast, the Experimental Group's responses centred much more between choice (3). Among them, (47.82%) thought they had no major problems to write the main idea or theme of any assigned topic, and choice (4) with (21.73%) who viewed it as an easy task to fulfil; and other (21.73%) was also found with those who selected choice (2). However, just (08.69%) appeared to have some difficulty to deal with such an area of content in writing. Above all, the Experimental

Group members seem more comfortable to write with much confidence their theme in whatever the written task is.

Importantly, the results obtained from the respondents' views on developing thoroughly and with much evidence their themes seem similar in both groups. (47.82%) in the Control Group, compared to (52.17%) in the Experimental Group, selected choice (3), considering the progression of their themes as a non-difficult task; while (17.39%) to (21.73%) students in each group appeared to have a cloudy picture about such an area. The other remaining members were distributed between the other choices.

Mostly, with similar points of views the two groups of study had considered content as neither an easy task to fulfil, nor causing too much problem. They think that this area is related to their imagination and free thinking, then, they could not run out of ideas. This finding, in fact, gives the researcher the impression to assert the students' ability and willingness to communicate in English; the students through their answers would like from the teacher to assess content and not to be looked at as full of faulty grammatical sentences to be corrected.

4.5.2.3.3. Problems in Language Use

Students' perception concerning language use is measured in terms of difficulty (from least difficult to most difficult) to describe their views about effective grammatical constructions, including agreement, tense, number, word order, choice and spelling, articles, pronouns and prepositions. Second-year students of English at University of Laghouat need their writing classes to include essential concepts that were not mastered during the students' foundational years in school. In the different modules, when students have papers returned with sentence-level errors corrected, they realise the corrections are valuable, but they do not always understand exactly what is wrong with their original word choice or structure. The responses got from this part of the questionnaire contribute in the

interpretation of data obtained from both the pre-and the post-tests, though the research focus is not on grammar accuracy. Data gathered from both groups of study is presented in the following table.

Degree of difficulty		4	3	2	1	No answer	Total
Appropriate word choice	Ctrl Grp.	6	3	5	8	1	23
		26.08%	13.04%	21.73%	34.78%	4.34%	100%
	Exp. Grp.	5	6	9	3	0	23
		21.73%	26.08%	39.13%	13.04%	0%	100%
Syntactic Structure	Ctrl Grp.	2	6	9	5	1	23
		8.69%	26.08%	39.13%	21.73%	4.34%	100%
	Exp. Grp.	5	6	4	7	1	23
		21.73%	26.08%	17.39%	30.43%	4.34%	100%
Grammar accuracy	Ctrl Grp.	3	5	10	5	0	23
		13.04%	21.73%	43.47%	21.73%	0%	100%
	Exp. Grp.	2	6	7	8	0	23
		8.69%	26.08%	30.43%	34.78%	0%	100%
Spelling	Ctrl Grp.	5	6	6	6	0	23
		21.73%	26.08%	26.08%	26.08%	0%	100%
	Exp. Grp.	6	8	4	5	0	23
		26.08%	34.78%	17.39%	21.73%	0%	100%

Table 4.17. Students' Degree of Difficulty of Language Aspect

Table 4.17 displays the students' responses in the Control Group and the Experimental Group about their perceptions concerning the difficulty they encounter in the area of language use in the process of composing their final drafts. The obtained results showed that the respondents in both groups agreed upon the fact that they have some problems on how most of the words in the English language function. These words can be placed into categories called parts of speech. These students have learned to recognise and understand at least six of these categories: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and prepositions.

As indicated, using words appropriately had been the prominent area of difficulty of most of the Control Group members. In effect, (34.78%) pointed out that it is most difficult (choice 1), and (21.73%) had almost similar views and selected choice (2). On the other hand, (13.04%) selected choice (1), while (39.13%) had choice (2) in the Experimental Group. Apparently, to some other students with equal numbers in both groups, this area is not at all difficult; (21.73%) to (26.08%) found it an easy area to master.

Moreover, the syntactic structure and working with adjectives, adverbs and parallel constructions was even more difficult than the previous area, mainly for the Control Group. Compared to (8.69%) only who selected choice (4)-least difficult, and choice (3) of (26.08%), other students selected choices: (1) with (21.73%), and (2) of (39.13%) -most difficult. By contrast, an equal number, that is (34.78%) is marked in the Experimental Group between the first two choices (1) with (30.43%) and (2) with (17.39%), on one hand; and on the other hand choices (3) with (26.08%) of students, and (4) with (21.73%), on the other hand.

Having accurate and grammatical sentences is the aim of most if not all EFL students. Using verb tenses and forms correctly with adequate subject-verb agreement is part of understanding a language. Though they have had several courses in grammar since middle school age, and though the grammatical accuracy-oriented approach of several EFL teachers, yet this aspect is still the area of much problem to learners. This difficulty stems from the difference between L1 and FL and learners' interlanguage (Selinker. 1972) as well as the lack of practice in reading and writing skills. As can be depicted, most of the respondents' responses centred between choices (1) and (2) in both groups. The biggest number of students in the Control Group (43.47%) selected choice (2) which reflected the degree of difficulty they pointed out, while (21.73%) thought that gaining grammar accuracy was even more difficult. Yet, in the Experimental Group, (34.78%) considered this area as too difficult to grasp and achieve; while (30.43%) thought of it as being less

difficult though a source of troublesome (choice 2). On the other hand, (34.78%) in each group, distributed between the choices (3) and (4), pointed to the possibility to master such an aspect of writing, and viewed it as an easy area. The students found this area difficult to achieve, because it had been their teachers' focus in evaluating their written performance.

As for spelling, the respondents in both groups vary in their responses. Some considered it as a simple or easy to grasp and that it does not cause them too much difficulty. In the Control Group, (21.73%) had choice (4) and (26.08%) had choice (3); while in the Experimental Group, six students selected choice (4), and (34.78%) choice (3). These students' views stem from the fact that much reading brings much vocabulary and hence gaining the conventions of English language spelling. As for others, this area is still a source of trouble and, consequently, their writing is still suffering. This category was represented by (52.17%) in the Control Group who were equally divided between choices (1) and (2). On the other hand, (17.39%) to (21.73%) of students selected these choices in the experimental group; following their responses concerning doing writing tasks (item 5), this category of students appeared to lack really reading and writing practices.

In sum, if students are to revise, edit, and proofread their work effectively, they need to understand basic grammatical terms and concepts as well as standard-sentence form. Learning these terms and understanding sentence structure will give every student the confidence needed to work with the written word.

Q9. In writing a paragraph, which of these areas is causing you difficulty? Please circle the number that reflects the degree of difficulty from 1 (most difficult) to 4 (least difficult).

This question is the most important in terms of relevance to the topic of our study. After being exposed to sufficient instruction about paragraph writing and its main elements, this question is designed to describe their major problems and concerns with these elements. The table below summarises the students' responses showing the degree of

difficulty ranked from least difficult to most difficult. Points covered include two categories of elements. The first six are related to the global coherence (macro-units); these are generating ideas, developing the theme, specifying the ideas relevant to the topic, ordering them logically, writing the overall point of view clearly, making the causal relationship between ideas clear, writing an effective introducing sentence to the subject and writing an effective ending. While other six elements are for local coherence achievement (micro-elements); which include using words appropriately, structuring sentences and clauses accurately, making transition between sentences smooth, and employing punctuation appropriately to separate ideas and sentences. Some of these elements had already been exposed to, but still repeating them was necessary for the sake of validity of the results. The following tables (4.18a & 4.18b) present the data gathered for the sake of more accurate and organised analysis. The researcher comments follow each table.

Item		Degree of difficulty					No answer	Total
		4	3	2	1			
1. Generating ideas and putting them onto paper	Ctrl Grp.	5	8	5	4	1	23	
		21,73%	34,78%	21,73%	17,39%	4,34%	100%	
	Exp. Grp.	7	6	6	3	1	23	
		30,43%	26,08%	26,08%	13,04%	4,34%	100%	
2. Developing my theme and elaborating my ideas	Ctrl Grp.	5	5	8	5	0	23	
		21,73%	21,73%	34,78%	21,73%	0%	100%	
	Exp. Grp.	6	6	7	3	1	23	
		26,08%	26,08%	30,43%	13,04%	4,34%	100%	
3. Specifying the ideas relevant to the topic	Ctrl Grp.	6	5	6	4	2	23	
		26,08%	21,73%	26,08%	17,39%	8,69%	100%	
	Exp. Grp.	8	7	4	2	2	23	
		34,78%	30,43%	17,39%	8,69%	8,69%	100%	
4. Ordering my ideas logically	Ctrl Grp.	5	8	6	2	2	23	
		21,73	34,78	26,08	8,69	8,69	100%	
	Exp. Grp.	7	11	4	1	0	23	
		30,43%	47,82%	17,39%	4,34%	0%	100%	
5. Writing my overall point of view clearly	Ctrl Grp.	6	8	6	1	2	23	
		26,08%	34,78%	26,08%	4,34%	8,69%	100%	
	Exp. Grp.	6	5	10	1	1	23	
		26,08%	21,73%	43,47%	4,34%	4,34%	100%	
6. Making the causal relationship between ideas clear	Ctrl Grp.	3	12	7	0	1	23	
		13,04%	52,17%	30,43%	0%	4,34%	100%	
	Exp. Grp.	4	7	7	3	2	23	
		17,39%	30,43%	30,43%	13,04%	8,69%	100%	

Table 4.18a Degree of Difficulty in Global Paragraph Coherence

Data obtained from the respondents in this section strengthened what had already given as information in the previous parts of the questionnaire. Students' answers and choices vary between what seems easy and achievable, on one hand, or difficult and unattainable, on the other hand. This diversity can be attributed to the teacher's sufficient and suitable instruction, their language abilities and cultural backgrounds.

As for generating ideas, the students in both groups found it easy, after being familiar with the main pre-writing techniques to generate their ideas on a specific topic, since these techniques would help them greatly doing so. Yet, they may do well in topics they select and stay blocked, generally, in the assigned subjects. In the control group, eight (34.78%) saw it less difficult, and further (21.73%) considered generating ideas as an easy task. Similar, but reversed, results were obtained in the Experimental Group; (30.43%) indicated through choice (4) that this area is too easy, while (21.73%) considered it as less difficult (choice 3). On the other hand, an equal number in both groups of nine students in each group, distributed between the two choices (1) and (2), still had some problems with this aspect, which is linked to their large experience in life; it is as the fuel to the vehicle of the writing process.

On the other hand, some students might succeed in getting the main idea and being able to present some evidence to support their claim; yet, they could not go thoroughly in their development to convince or satisfy the reader. As indicated in the table, for the Control Group, (21.73%) considered that fact as really difficult to handle; eight others (34.78%), not as much as the first ones, but yet they considered it as problematic. The Experimental Group, on the other hand, had low results concerning those who take this area as too difficult (13.04%); yet, (30.43%) viewed it as a source of problem. (21.73%) to (26.08%) in both groups selected choice (3); and again (21.73%) to (26.08%) of students selected choice (4). Both categories did not seem to take it as difficult at all. Thus, students' responses centred between the two extremes: too easy and too difficult. Thus, a well-

organised paragraph should be a complete one. Clearness and precision are important aspects of a paragraph that reflect the writer's concern in such unit. Ambiguity and generalisation should be supported with details, analysis, and examples to clarify the intended central idea; otherwise this idea will become unsatisfactory to the reader.

Specifying relevant ideas to achieve unity is another important area that may cause problems to EFL learners. A unified paragraph is that one in which all the sentences, facts, supporting details, and examples lead directly to the topic sentence without going off it. According to the results obtained, the Experimental Group members seemed better in facilitating the achievement of such an area. It was an easy task to be fulfilled for them; (34.78%) were those who viewed it simple and selected choice (4), in addition to (30.43%) of students who were not too far (choice, 3) from this category, unlike (43.47%) of students who had considered it as a difficult (26.08%) or too difficult task to master (17.39%). On the other side, the control group members were distributed, at most, equally between the different choices presented with four to six students for each, viewing unity as an easy, more-or-less difficult or really causing them a problem. Precision and concision are among the qualifications that should be fostered in EFL learners' writing to gain effectiveness.

Ordering ideas logically has been also an important concern to EFL learners and teachers. Whichever ideas are put first, second and third cannot be done at random but with much care and perseverance. It is agreed that the most influential or important idea should be placed at the end to be printed in the reader's mind and not easily forgotten (retroactive prohibition). Meanwhile, the results obtained from this questionnaire concerning the logical order of facts indicated that the experimental group results were distinguishable, compared to control group results. Ordering facts was easy to (30.43%) in the Experimental Group, and to (21.73%) in the control group, and almost easy to other 11 students (47.82%), compared to eight students (34.78%) in the Control Group. As for those

who considered it too difficult, they were a few, just (8.69%) in the Control Group and one in the Experimental Group (choice 1). In addition to that, (17.39%) to (26.08%) of students in each group selected choice (2) for the difficulty they may encounter in ordering logically their ideas.

Item 5 deals with writing the overall point of view clearly. It is agreed upon that once the student knows which point s/he wants to introduce in her/his topic sentence, a unified paragraph can be created, by making sure that the rest of the sentences are clearly related to the first one, as McCloud-Bondoc (2009:31) puts it. Most of the students under study in both groups considered this fact as not easy, but not difficult, either. Indeed, (43.47%) of students in the Experimental Group selected choice (2), compared to (26.08%) in the Control Group. In this latter, (34.78%) of students, however, selected choice (3) compared to (21.73%) of students having the same choice in the Experimental Group. On the other hand, an equal number of (26.08%) of students for each group had choice (4) and viewed this area as a simple task to reach. While one student in each group found this task very difficult. Yet, the responses obtained from both groups at most seem similar.

Making the relationship between ideas clear was not viewed as really a problem for our respondents, mainly the Control Group members. Indeed, (52.17%) was the highest result registered. These students looked at establishing smoothness and relationship among sentences as not difficult to reach, and not easy, either. In the same group, (30.43%) of students selected choice (2) for being somehow difficult, while no one had considered it as too difficult. However, (13.04%) of students (13.04%) viewed it as easy to reach competency in such an area. For the Experimental Group members, (60.86%) were equally divided between choices (2) and (3) and had considered this area as more-or-less difficult; while (17.39%) of students selected choice (4) which stands for the easiness of accomplishing such a task. On the other hand, it was a difficult area in the writing process for three students who selected degree (1) as their choice.

Item	Degree of difficulty	4	3	2	1	No answer
		7-Writing an effective introducing sentence to the subject	Ctrl Grp	2 8,69%	8 34,78%	9 39,13%
	Exp. Grp.	5 21,73%	4 17,39%	10 43,47%	3 13,04%	1 4,34%
8- Writing an effective ending sentence that gives the reader a definite sense of closure	Ctrl Grp	4 17,39%	6 26,08%	9 39,13%	2 8,69%	2 8,69%
	Exp. Grp.	8 34,78%	8 34,78%	6 26,08%	1 4,34%	0 0%
9.Structuring my sentences and clauses accurately	Ctrl Grp	2 8,69%	6 26,08%	9 39,13%	5 21,73%	1 4,34%
	Exp. Grp.	1 4,34%	5 21,73%	7 30,43%	6 26,08%	4 17,39%
10.Using words appropriately	Ctrl Grp	4 17,39%	8 34,78%	9 39,13%	2 8,69%	2 8,69%
	Exp. Grp.	2 8,69%	6 6,08%	9 39,13%	5 21,73%	1 4,34%
11.Making transition between sentences smooth	Ctrl Grp.	2 8,69%	6 26,08%	13 56,52%	0 0%	2 8,69%
	Exp. Grp.	5 21,73%	8 34,78%	8 34,78%	2 8,69%	0 0%
12.Employing punctuation appropriately to separate ideas and sentences	Ctrl Grp.	3 13,04%	6 26,08%	5 21,73%	7 30,43%	2 8,69%
	Exp.Grp.	4 17,39%	6 26,08%	4 17,39%	9 39,13%	0 0%

Table 4.18b Degree of Difficulty in Local Paragraph Coherence

As for writing an effective introducing sentence of the paragraph, most of the respondents' responses in both groups centred in the middle, i.e. more-or-less difficult. They selected choices (2) and (3) most. (39.13%) of respondents gave a choice (2) and (34.78%) with choice (3) in the Control Group, compared to ten students (43.47%) with choice (2) and (17.39%) with choice (3) in the Experimental Group. As for the other choices, the respondents were just two to three for each choice in the control group, and three to five in the experimental group, representing by that low percentages of the total population in each group of study.

About the points that may cause problems in paragraph writing is the effective ending sentence that gives the reader a definite sense of ending. This area, as indicated in Table

4.18b above, was a source of much trouble for the Control Group than the Experimental Group. Actually, (8.69%) of students went for (choice 1), and (39.13%) of students went for (choice 2) in the Control Group considered writing the concluding sentence as difficult (or almost difficult); a similar view was taken by one student for (choice 1) and (26.08%) for (choice 2) in the Experimental Group. This is on one hand; on the other hand, (34.78%) for (choice 3) and (34.78%) others for (choice 4). It was not difficult to end the paragraph with a suitable ending in the Experimental Group. This was the view of other (26.08%) who took (choice 3) and (21.73%) of students took (choice 4) in the Control Group. What can be felt is that the respondents thought too much about some words mentioned in the questionnaire. For instance, the word '*effective*', appears in statement 7, gives another impression and made them change their perception towards the concluding sentence that seemed easy to them a few moments in item 2, Table 4.15.

Structuring sentences and clauses accurately has always been a topic of interest for some teachers of English, at Laghouat University, who were for the grammatical accuracy and linguistic competence in the learners' written products. They consider that any fragment may lead to ambiguity and results in an awkward piece of writing, difficult to understand by the reader. Writing fragments, as it has been noticed, is a major problem for many student writers. In the writer's mind, a thought may be clear, but expressing on it on paper may be incomplete because it does not include a subject, a verb, or a complete thought, which a sentence does. Moreover, using similar parallel constructions in a series of consecutive sentences in the paragraph to signal clearly parallel relationships between these sentences is not an easy task for learners to do. Describing the respondents' responses in this area, it can be depicted that it is indeed difficult to grasp. The majority of responses centred between the two choices (2) and (3) where (39.3%) in the Control Group, and (30.43%) in the Experimental Group had choice (2); while (21.73%) to (26.08%) of students in each group had choice (3). These two categories of students had

considered the task of structuring sentences as neither too easy, nor too difficult. Besides, (30.43%) others in each group took choices (1) -too difficult- represented by (21.73%) to (26.08%) of students in each group, and choice (4)-too easy- selected by just (04.34%) in the Experimental Group and (08.69%) of the respondents in the Control Group. Both groups seemed equal in considering grammatical accuracy as a complex task that involves effort, desire as well as a favourable attitude toward achieving better writing quality and, hence, learning how to successfully write the F.L.

Using words appropriately is another area of interest to EFL learners. The creative writer looks for words that have rich and appropriate meanings and associations. As the student's vocabulary grows, his/her writing will become richer and deeper, and this is reflected through understanding the many shades of meaning that words can have. Using the appropriate target style may be influenced by the learners' use of these forms in their mother tongue. Foreign language learners sometimes make mistakes that may not be accounted for in terms of syntactic accuracy, such as repetition, and parallel construction of coordinate phrases and clauses in case of Arabic students learning English as FL (Hinkel. 2002). Such mistakes render the students writing vague, awkward and disoriented. For example, a student may write: "In summer, students are allowed to take only **two materials** (to enrol in two courses), or "Cholesterol is **based on** (caused by) eating lots of fats" (Fareh. 2014: 930).

As indicated in Table 4.18b above, most students' responses in both groups centred between choices (2) and (3). A similar number of (39.13%) of students for each group for choice (2), as well as (34.78%) of students from the Control Group and (26.08%) of the respondents from the Experimental Group who went for choice (3). Besides, the appropriate selection of words in English was a very difficult task for (39.13%) of students (choice 1) in the Control Group and (21.73%) of respondents in the Experimental Group;

while it was easy to (17.39%) and other (08.69%) of students in the Control Group and The Experimental Group respectively; at least this is what they thought.

Item 11 deals with how to make a smooth transition between sentences. Transitional words and phrases are said to be used to link parts of a paragraph to help the ideas move smoothly from one sentence to the next taking a logical step forward. Table 4.18b displays the frequencies of the respondents' responses, and gives a comparison between the two groups' results. For the Control Group, (56.52%) considered using transition to link appropriately ideas difficult. (26.08%) took choice (3) which indicates less difficulty. For (08.69%) of students in the same group, it was not a difficult area to master. Additionally, the Experimental Group members varied in their responses. Most of their responses centred between choice (2) and (3) with an equal number of eight responses of (34.78%); (21.73%) of students selected choice (4) as being easy; while for (08.69%) of students, this area is a source of much difficulty. Consequently, choices (2) and (3) were the most selected by the respondents in both groups.

Employing punctuation appropriately to separate ideas and sentences has been another concern for most EFL teachers and researchers in the field. Many students, most of the time, even those whose scripts were regarded as good, tended to join sentences with each other using a comma instead of a full stop or a semicolon. Sometimes, a whole paragraph has only one full stop at the end. When asked about the degree of difficulty of punctuating in English, the respondents in both groups unanimously replied by 'too difficult' or 'almost difficult'. In the Control Group, (30.43%) compared to (39.13%) in the experimental group whose choice was (1)- too difficult; while (17.39%) to (21.73%) of students in each group took choice (2). Additionally, (26.08%) of students in each group responded by selecting choice (3), considering this area as a simple task to do. Noticeably, (13.04%) to (17.39%) of other students did not view such an area as a source of trouble. Meanwhile, this area of writing had been thought of as causing for EFL student writers to achieve writing quality.

The analysis of the learners' questionnaire allowed asserting that some points in writing need to be emphasised. The analysis of the data revealed that academic writing skills pose difficulties to second-year students in the department of English at the University of Laghouat. The diversities of the courses that they had received in writing cannot be sufficient, despite the different teachers' experiences in the tutoring board. Most students seemed to know a little about the different stylistic types. They demanded authentic materials to be used in learning writing.

Conclusion

A triangulation of research methodology makes this study a mixed research type. First, the pilot study helped to reconsider the procedures taken, the methods and the tools that to be employed in the main study. Moreover, the findings of the participants' questionnaire in both groups highlighted a number of issues about how EFL learners in general look at themselves as EFL writers. While the respondents of this research were delighted to major in English, as they loved the language (above 52.17% in both groups), they believed that they had major problems to achieve EFL writing competency. Their writing inadequacies appeared chiefly in unity, coherence, content, organisation, and punctuation.

Noticeably, (73.90%) to (78.25%) of the participants in the Control Group and the Experimental Group respectively found that the way of expressing their ideas (generating and developing) a serious concern. The students might succeed in getting the main idea and being able to present some evidence to support their claim; yet, they could not go thoroughly in their development to convince or satisfy the reader, since precision and concision are among the qualifications that are valued in EFL learners' writing to gain effectiveness. In effect, the students through their answers would like from the teacher to assess content and not to be looked at as full of faulty grammatical sentences to be corrected, and this would be the reason behind their block of ideas.

Both groups seemed equal in considering grammatical accuracy and how most of the words in the English language function as a complex task that involves effort, desire as well as a favourable attitude toward achieving better writing quality and, hence, learning how to successfully write the FL. Additionally, many students, most of the time, even those whose scripts were regarded as good, tended to join sentences with each other using a comma instead of a full stop or a semicolon. When asked about the degree of difficulty of punctuating in English, the respondents in both groups unanimously replied by ‘too difficult’ or ‘almost difficult’.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that the participants’ preferred genres appeared to be four major types, which are respectively stories, letters, e-mails and university assignments. The teacher’s role, hence, is to help students be aware of other different genres, such as writing and reading poems and paragraphs of all types. An equal value (21.73%) can be noticed for participants who strongly agreed with writing only for the teacher. This type of students appeared to seek their teacher’s approval; they were mainly syllabus-dependent girls.

The data interpreted revealed that writing as a whole skill poses major difficulties to the second year students in the department of English at the University of Laghouat. Yet, most of the respondents, in both groups, seem interested in the idea of improving their writing in English to be up-to-date for future careers as much as they can through practice and reading authentic texts.

Chapter Five
Pre-test and Post-test
Data Presentation

Introduction.....	190
5.1. Description of the Pre-test.....	190
5.2. Administration of the Pre-test.....	191
5.3. Analysis of the Pre-test.....	191
5.4. Analysis of Post-test.....	207
5.4.1. Comparison of Coherence Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group and the Control Group	207
5.4.2. Groups' Statistics of Total Post-test Scores.....	220
5.4.3. The t-test Values between Post-tests of the Experimental and the Control Group:	224
5.5. Comparison of the Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores.....	225
Conclusion.....	237

Chapter Five

Pre-test and Post-test

Data Presentation

Introduction

The researcher has conducted an experiment with (N=46) of participants from the second year classes of English at Laghouat University divided into a Control and an Experimental Group of 23 students each. The experiment is to test the effect of the modelling strategy use in enhancing coherence in the students' written performance. In this section, the researcher presents and evaluates the results of the pre-test and the post-test of the Experimental Group in comparison with the results of the Control Group.

In designing a scoring benchmark, six features of coherence (organisation, thematic progression, transitions' use, referencing, repetition of the key words, and synonyms' use) are to be evaluated using an analytic scoring rubric; all of organisation and thematic progression contain three sub-features or more. Thus, the scoring benchmark for the current study includes 9 semi-features: 4 on organisation, 3 on thematic progression, and the other four aforementioned devices to achieve coherence: transitions' use, referencing, repetition of the key words and synonyms' use (cf. Appendix 7). Each feature provided a descriptor that indicated the level of quality of the text. Every feature, then, was arranged by a four-step score (4-likert scale) and sometimes five-step score (5-likert scale) of 1 to 2 point-scale (cf. Appendix 8).

5.1. Description of the Pre-test

This test was a diagnostic test that helped the researcher to recognise the key weaknesses in paragraph writing among EFL students of Laghouat University. The participants of the Experimental Group (N=23) and of the Control Group (N=23) were

required to compose a comparison /contrast paragraph about a free topic they selected. The students written copies have been evaluated analytically in terms of nine aspects that contribute to achieve text coherence. The results are interpreted descriptively and quantitatively and the frequency of the students' number in each trait has been calculated. Procedures were followed to compare the scores of the two groups in parallel in the pre-test.

5.2. Administration of the Pre-test

The pre-test took place a week before the experiment had been conducted. The researcher conducted the pre-test herself, being the teacher of writing during that academic year for both groups.

5.3. Analysis of the Pre-test

At the pre-test stage of this study, the participants (N=46) were asked to write paragraphs using the Process Approach stages as they were taught how to write during two sessions preceding the experiment. All the participants wrote their comparison and contrast paragraphs in 90 minutes (one session). The participants of the Control Group were given no instruction about the method used. The results obtained in the two groups (Experimental and the Control Group) were compared and discussed.

5.3.1. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Organisation Aspect in Paragraph

The students' compositions are evaluated in terms of four major aspects that contribute to coherence achievement at paragraph level. These include the main components of a paragraph: The form of the paragraph, the effectiveness of the topic sentence, the specificity and sufficient number of developing sentences, as well as a clear

ending sentence. Each aspect is evaluated separately, following a 4-likert scale for scoring (good, fair, poor and inadequate), with numerical scale of 1 point or 2 points.

5.3.1.1. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Form Aspect in Paragraph

1 point of the total scores (20-points) is to score form rubric. The participants' paragraphs rank to describe effective paragraph form. The participants who give a good form score 1 point. Fair level represents effective but lacks the title or indentation, and the participants score 0.75 point. The poor level displays major problems in paragraph form and they score is 0.5 point. The very poor (inadequate) level reflects no paragraph form to be evaluated; participants score 0.25 of the point at this level.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	1	14	16
		60.86%	69.56%
Fair	0,75	1	0
		04.34%	00.00%
Poor	0,5	8	1
		34.78%	04.34%
Inadequate	0,25	0	6
		00.00%	26.08%

Table 5.1 Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Results of Form Aspect in Paragraph

Table 5.1 shows the frequencies' scores in achieving the suitable form of a paragraph for both Control and Experimental Groups, with a minimum score of 0.25 and a maximum score of 1 point. The Experimental Group and the Control Group results seem to be similar. There is just a little difference between their scores of form rubric (1-point). The two groups showed a good level at forming the paragraph; yet, results of the Experimental Group's participants were distinguishable in gaining good score of 1/1 point which represented (69.56%) of the total achievement, compared to (60.86%) of the Control Group. These students were able to write relevant titles and indentations. On the other

hand, the participants of the Control Group obtained scores that were not less than 0.5 point (/01), compared to (26.08%) of students in the Experimental Group who got just 0.25 point (/01); while one student got 0, 5 point (/01) and was considered as being poor to achieve a nice form of a paragraph. However, the 0.5 point (/01) score rose to (34.78%) in the Control Group. They showed mostly a poor form of a paragraph with a total absence of title and indentation; while one student whose score was 0.75 point (/01) appeared to miss the title. Consequently, the participants who represented poor to inadequate level in both groups appeared to be similar. Hence, about (60.86%) to (69.56%) of the participants in each group did not face any difficulty to form their paragraphs due to the teacher's instruction.

5.3.1.2. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Topic Sentence Aspect in Paragraph

The topic sentence rubric is ranked from 0 to 2 points to describe five scores. The scores range from 'good' to 'inadequate' levels, with a maximum score of 2 points (/ 02) for 'good', 1, 5 point (/02) for 'fair', 1 point (/02) for 'poor', 0, 5 point for 'inadequate' topic sentence and a minimum score of 0 point (/02) when the topic sentence is not mentioned.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	3	4
		13.04%	17.93%
Fair	1,5	11	1
		47.82%	04.34%
Poor 1	1	9	9
		39.13%	39.13%
Inadequate	0,5	0	3
		00.00%	13.04%
Not mentioned	0	0	6
		00.00%	26.08%

Table 5.2. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Results of Topic Sentence Aspect in Paragraph

Table 5.2 displays that (17.93%) of participants in the Experimental Group were able to get full mark for their suitable topic sentences which hold relevant controlling ideas. Further, (39.13%) scored 1 point only and got a poor level in writing their topic sentences. Just (4.34%) of students, however, got 1, 5 point (/02) with fair level for being unable to judiciously write the controlling idea. Yet, (13.04%) of students wrote inadequate topic sentences-with no specific controlling ideas. These sentences are either incomplete or too broad to handle in one paragraph. While (26.08%), however, did not even mention the introductory sentence in their writings. As for the Control Group, the table above indicates that (13.04%) succeeded to get full mark for their effective topic sentences. On the other hand, (47.82%) scored 1.5 points (/02) and got a fair level for the quality of their topic sentences. Furthermore, (39.13%) took 1 point (/02) and ranked as poor at achieving effective topic sentences. Comparing the scores of the two groups, however, it can be noticed that the Control Group shows higher scores for students who got fair to good levels in the topic sentence effectiveness compared to the participants of the Experimental Group who scored from 0 to 0,5 points. It is a rather higher score compared to (0%) in the Control Group. Thus, average and fair levels characterise the topic sentence and the organisation of paragraphs written by the Control Group participants; meanwhile the Experimental Group participants was characterised as being poor.

5.3.1.3. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Developing Sentences Aspect in Paragraph

Developing sentences' rubric is also ranked from 0 to 2 points to evaluate the fluency, sequence, development and organisation of the supporting details. Even those who were good in writing their topic sentences appeared to be unable to write effective and specific supporting details, however.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Fair	1,5	14	10
		60.86%	43.47%
Poor	1	8	13
		34.78%	56.52%
Inadequate	0,5	1	0
		04.34%	00.00%

Table 5.3. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Results of Developing Sentences Rubric in Paragraph

Table 5.3 displays that most of students in both groups could not develop their ideas thoroughly with a sufficient number of sentences. The participants scored between fair with 1.5 points (/02) and poor with 1 point (/02). According to this result, students argued that this area of coherence had been more-or-less difficult to handle. In the Experimental Group, (43.47%) of participants got 1.5 points; their developing sentences were acceptable but not really sufficient; while other (56.52%) of students scored 1 point only for their poor development of ideas and little evidence to support their themes. For the Control Group, (60.86%) of participants scoring 1, 5 points (/02) demonstrated some choppy and loosely organised ideas, with some fluent expression and logical sequencing of ideas, but limited support and incomplete development. However, (00%) of students could write fluent and complete developing sentences; while the poor level of 1 point (/02) was the score of (34.78%) of participants who wrote confused and disconnected developing sentences. Noticeably, (4.34%) of students got very poor level (0.5 point) and showed insufficient account of words to be evaluated. Consequently, there is no clear difference between the scores of developing sentences rubric (2 points) between the Experimental and the Control Groups. The score of both groups centred between 'fair' to 'poor' levels, from 1 to 1.5 points (/02). Nevertheless, even with the teacher's instruction, the participants in both groups still need much practice to know how to develop their ideas thoroughly.

5.3.1.4. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Concluding Sentence Aspect in Paragraph

The participants' pre-test scores in both groups are ranked from 0.25 to 1 point (1 point for 'good' level, 0.75 point for 'fair' level, 0.5 point for 'poor' level, and 0.25 of the point for 'inadequate' or 'very poor' level). The scores are to evaluate the achievement of an effective ending sentence. The score (0/1 point) is given to indicate that the concluding sentence is absent in the script. The following table summarises the obtained results.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	1	0	12
		00.00%	52.17%
Fair	0,75	17	1
		73.91%	04.34%
Poor	0,5	5	2
		21.73%	08.96%
Inadequate	0,25	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Not mentioned	0	1	8
		04.34%	34.78%

Table 5.4. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Results of Concluding Sentence Rubric in Paragraph

Table 5.4 indicates the scores the scores of frequencies of writing he concluding sentence of the Experimental Group and the Control Group writing the concluding sentence as an essential part to achieve coherence. Most students in the Experimental Group could not found the concluding sentence as a source of difficulty. In effect, (52.17%) scored 1 point (/01) and gained a good level. While (34.78%) of participants forgot to mention their concluding sentences in their writings; this is due to time constraint or lack of concentration. The other participants were distributed between (04.34%) being fair and got 0.75 point (/01) (08.69%) were poor with 0.5 point (/01) and could not write their concluding sentences appropriately Conversely, the Control Group scores differed a bit. The table also indicates that (73.91%) in the Control Group scored fair and got 0.75

point (/01). They succeeded in writing acceptable endings to their paragraphs. On the other hand, (21.73%) of students of the Control Group were poor and were unable to write their endings appropriately and scored 0.5 point (/01). Just (4.34%) with 0 point (/01) who forgot to mention his concluding sentence in his writing. (00%), however, got a full mark (01/01 point). When comparing the two scores in terms of concluding sentence effectiveness, the two groups' major scores were centred between fair to good levels. Yet, the number of students who got good marks, and those who did not mention the concluding sentence were higher in the Experimental Group.

5.3.2. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Thematic Progression Aspect in Paragraph

In the pre-test stage, the analytical scores of the thematic progression rubric are ranked from 0 to 6 points to describe the development of topic, logical sequence of ideas and relevance of details to the assigned topic. First, the 'excellent' to 'very good' level (4.5 to 6 points) indicate the substantive, knowledgeable and thorough development of topic and the relevant details along the paragraph. Second, the 'good' to 'average' level (3 to 4 points) demonstrate some knowledge of topic, an adequate range, limited but mostly relevant development of topic, and insufficient amount of sequencing details. Third, the 'fair' to 'poor' level (1, 5 to 2, 5 points) indicate a limited knowledge of topic, little substance and inadequate development of topic; while 0 to 1 points indicate the very poor or inadequate level that is characterised by the non-substantive development of topic and insufficient details to be evaluated.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Excellent to very good	4.5 to 6	7	7
		30.43%	30.43%
Good to average	3 to 4	16	16
		69.56%	69.56%
Fair to poor	1.5 to 2.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Inadequate	0 to 1	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.5. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Results of Thematic Progression Rubric in Paragraph

Table 5.5 presents the overall achievement of the Experimental Group and the Control Group participants in the area of thematic progression. As indicated, (30.43%) of participants of the Experimental Group scored from 4, 5 to 6 points. Further, (69.56%) of students were considered as taking average to good level that ranks from 3 to 4 points. On the other hand, in the Control Group, it was found that (30.43%) of the respondents ranked from 'excellent' to 'very good' and scored from 4, 5 to 6 points; while (69.56%) of respondents were considered as having 'good' to 'average' level and scored 3 to 4 points for their thematic progression. As far as the other remaining levels, 1, 5 to 2, 5 points that characterise from 'fair' to 'poor' level, as well as 'very poor' level, no result was registered for both groups. Accordingly, the results of the Experimental and the Control Group seem to be similar: There was no clear difference between the scores of thematic progression rubric (6-points) registered. The two groups showed 'good' to 'average' level in this aspect of coherence. They had almost realised that information should be organised logically, and be mutually accessible and relevant in order to create a meaningful whole that a reader can understand.

5.3.3. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Transition Use Aspect in Paragraph

As the previously noticed rubrics, the participants' paragraphs ranked from 0 to 2 points to evaluate their mastery of English transitional signals. The standardised criterion of an effectively coherent paragraph with effective use of transitions is demonstrated in the sophisticated range of words or expressions such as *'however, on the other hand, on the contrary; or similarly, likewise and so on'*, appropriately selected to show how the different ideas relate to each other, fitting the method of development used. The good level (2 points) represents well-chosen and appropriately used range of effective transitional signals; while the average or fair level (1,5 points) represents adequate range of transitions, with occasional errors in use and usage or misspelling. Concerning the poor level (1 point), participants demonstrated a limited use of transitions, with frequent errors in word form and usage leading to a confusing meaning. The very poor or inadequate level (0.5 point), however, indicates little knowledge and insufficient account of English transitions to be evaluated (Hyland. 2003; cf. Appendix 4).

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Fair	1.5	5	14
		21.73%	60.86%
Poor	1	17	9
		73.91%	39.13%
Inadequate	0.5	1	0
		04.34%	00.00%

Table 5.6. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Results of Transition Use Rubric in Paragraph

Regarding transitional signals' use in the pre-test, Table 5.6 shows that the Experimental Group had little knowledge about how to use transitional signals effectively and appropriately; the Control Group did the same. This can be noticed in the absence of students' frequency in gaining good level at such a trait. In fact, the scores frequencies

centred between ‘poor’ to ‘fair’ levels, in each group, with the Experimental Group scoring higher. In effect, for the Experimental Group (60.86%) of the participants were able to score ‘fair’ and, hence, had 1.5 points (/02), a result which seems fairly acceptable. Yet, (39.13%) were considered as *poor* at achieving an acceptable use of adequate transitions. Alternatively, for the Control Group, (21.73%) of participants were able to score fair having 1.5 points (/02); while (73.91%) of the respondents were considered as *poor* in achieving an acceptable use of transitions with 1 point (/01) only. In this group, one showed inadequate use of transitional signals and took 0.5 point (/02). Accordingly, after comparison, the two groups’ major scores were centred between poor to fair levels; yet, the Experimental Group scores are at most higher in terms of gaining fairly effective use of transitions in their paragraphs.

5.3.4. Comparison of the Groups’ Pre-test Scores of Referencing Aspect in Paragraph

In the pre-test, the participants’ paragraphs rank from 0 to 2 points in evaluating the effective use of references for substituting for the key words so as to avoid useless repetition. Good level (2 points) indicates effective use of reference, (1.5 points) ‘average’ or ‘fair’ level indicates effective but simple use, with minor errors in use. (1 point) the poor level, however, displays rare use of referencing with frequent errors in pronouns. Conversely, (0.5 point) the inadequate level demonstrates no mastery of references to substitute for key words to be evaluated.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	0	1
		00.00%	4.34%
Fair	1.5	18	16
		78.26%	69.56%
Poor	1	5	5
		21.73%	21.73%
Inadequate	0.5	0	1
		00.00%	04.34%

Table 5.7. Comparison of the Groups’ Pre-test Results of Referencing Rubric

Table 5.7 presents a comparison between the specific data for the frequencies of the students' numbers and percentages in repeating the key words in their paragraphs. It suggests the overall situation of using referencing between both groups. The results obtained as shown in Table 5.7 indicate that the Experimental Group and the Control Group results are similar. There is no difference between the scores of referencing rubric (2-points) between the two groups. Both had got fair level at this aspect of coherence, with (78.26%) for the Control Group and (69.56%) for the Experimental Group.

Furthermore, (21.73%) in each group, however, got score of 1 point (/02) and ranked as poor. Just (04.34%) of students of the Experimental Group who succeeded to use effectively well the references needed in his writing, taking, thus, a good level of 2 points (/02). Conversely, (04.34%) of students of the Experimental Group wrote references inappropriately and inadequately.

5.3.5. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Repetition Aspect in Paragraph

For the repetition of the key words, the researcher used a rubric that is ranked from 0 to 2 points (good level=2 points, fair level=1.5 points, poor level=1 point, inadequate level=0.5 point) to evaluate the effective repetition of key words and expressions to strengthen paragraph overall coherence. The results obtained are presented in the following table.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	0	11
		00.00%	47.82%
Fair	1.5	22	12
		95.65%	52.17%
Poor	1	1	0
		04.34%	00.00%
Inadequate	0,5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.8. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Results of Repetition Rubric in Paragraph

Table 5.8 above presents the pre-test data for the frequencies of the student of both groups in repeating the key words in their paragraphs. The results obtained showed that the Experimental Group respondents scored higher in terms of repeating key words which signalled their preference for the direct and simple method of developing ideas. Their scores centred between 'fair' to 'good' levels, with (47.82%) of respondents who ranked as good, while (52.17%) of students were considered as fair. Conversely, in the Control Group, (95.65%) of the respondents had a score of 1.5 points (/02) and ranked as 'fair' at making key words adequately repeated to strengthen text coherence. Yet, just one student appeared to have some problem with repetition and got 1 point (/02) of his poor score. Yet, in the same Control Group, no students got good level at making key words adequately repeated in this group. Nevertheless, the scores in both groups are centred between 'fair' to 'good' levels. This fact makes them similar in terms of repeating key words almost appropriately in their pieces, with a little difference in favour of the Experimental Group in which no student appeared to have poor or inadequate score with (00 %).

5.3.6. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Scores of Synonyms' Use Aspect in Paragraph

As shown in Table 5.9 below, the synonyms' use rubric is also ranked from 0 to 2 points (good level=2 points, fair level=1.5 points, poor level=1 point, inadequate level=0, 5 point and 0 point for a total absence of synonymous expressions). This is to evaluate the fluent use of synonymous expressions to achieve an overall coherence.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Fair	1.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Poor	1	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Inadequate	0.5	3	4
		13.04%	17.39%
Not found	0	20	19
		86.95%	82.60%

Table 5.9. Comparison of the Groups' Pre-test Results of Synonyms' Use Rubric in Paragraph

Table 5.9 reveals that the frequencies of using synonyms for achieving coherence in the pre-test paragraphs of the Control Group as well as the Experimental Group are largely similar. The majority of the students in both groups avoided using synonymous expressions of the key words in their texts: the simple repetitious style was preferred. In a scale that ranks scores from 0 to 2 points, (86, 95%) of respondents in the Control Group and (82.60%) in the Experimental Group got, however, 0 point (/02). While (13.04%) and (17.39%) of respondents in the Control Group and the Experimental Group respectively appeared to use only one or two synonymous words with an inadequate score of 0.5 point (/02). The participants are 'very poor' concerning vocabulary enrichment which can be attributed to the lack of practice of reading.

5.3.7. Groups' Statistics of Total Scores of Pre-test Paragraph Coherence

After the above detailed display of rubrics, the pre-test paragraphs, in both groups, were evaluated and interpreted, according to the 20-points scale. The overall scores of each participant's paragraph was calculated based on the nine scores of the nine paragraph coherence rubrics: form, topic sentence, developing sentences, thematic progression, using transition, referencing, repetition of key words and synonyms' use. The criteria of 'excellent' to 'very good' paragraphs in terms of coherence are thorough development of

content with a fluent, logical and cohesive organisation of ideas. The following table indicates the total scores and data obtained from the pre-test results. The table is followed with an illustrative figure.

Control Group 23 Students	Pre-test scores /20	Experimental Group 23 Students	Pre-test scores /20
a	11.5	A	10.75
b	13	B	12.5
c	12.5	C	9.5
d	11.25	D	13
e	12.75	E	11
f	13.75	F	14.5
g	12.25	G	12
h	12.5	H	9.75
i	10.25	I	11.75
j	12.75	J	14.5
k	11.25	K	11,5
l	11.25	L	13
m	12.25	M	15
n	12.5	N	10
o	13.75	O	11.5
p	12.75	P	12.5
q	12	Q	10.5
r	12.25	R	13
s	12.25	S	10
t	12.25	T	11
u	12.25	U	14
v	11	V	10
w	12.75	W	14.25

Table 5.10. Groups' Statistics of Total Pre-test Scores

Table 5.10 indicates the pre-test scores of (N=46) participants of paragraph overall coherence. The students in both groups were asked to write a comparison/contrast paragraph on a free topic. Based on a 20-point scale, the table displays the main scores of 23 participants for the Experimental Group (labelled from A to W), with a minimum score of 9.50 and a maximum score of 15.00, as well as 23 participants for the Control Group (labelled from a. to w.), of a minimum score of 10.25 and a maximum score of 13.75. The scores of both groups were similar. The students had an identical level in the pre-test, and

just a few who could exceed 14/20. A distribution of the score frequencies was further according to the results obtained based on four levels of criteria from ‘excellent’ to ‘very poor’ (‘excellent’ to ‘very good’=14.75-20, ‘good’ to ‘average’=11-14.5, ‘fair’ to ‘poor’=6-10, 7.5 and ‘very poor’=0- 5.75). The results yielded are tabulated in the table below.

Score out of 20		Control Group	Experimental Group
Excellent to very good A	14.75-20	0	1
		00.00%	04.34%
Good to average B	11-14.5	22	15
		95.65%	65.21%
Fair to poor C	6-10,7.5	1	7
		04.34%	30.43%
Inadequate D	1-5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.11. Total Scores of Coherence in Pre-test Paragraphs of Control and Experimental Groups

Table 5.11 shows the overall situation of the participants’ achievement of coherence in the writing in the pre-test. Results obtained showed that only one of the Control Group who tended to be successful in having a coherent writing; she had, thus, 15/20-grade A. We can believe that this student was a good achiever who was informed about the importance of coherence in successful writing. In the classroom, she was a hard worker. The good quality of writing can, also, be felt in (95.65%) of participants in the Control Group, and (65.21%) of respondents in the Experimental Group, having the grade B-good to average, with a minimum score of 11 points (/20) to a maximum score of 14.50 (/20). The overall message in these thirty-seven of forty-six scripts can be followed with ease and progression of ideas is smooth and logical. Most students in grades A and B argued that what helped them write successfully was their teacher’s instruction in class about tips of achieving coherence. Yet, some students still encounter some problems in generating ideas and supporting them with evidence mainly with the method of development of comparison

and contrast. This let their writing quality need further development. Noticeably, (04.34%) of the Control Group and (30.43%) of the Experimental Group wrote unsuccessful paragraphs with a minimum score of 9.5 points (/20), and a maximum score 10.75 (/20) in the Experimental Group, and only (04.34%) took the score of 10.25 (/20) in the Control Group. These students appeared to have little control of the topic and their ideas were limited; their writings were too short to show an orderly written paragraph.

5.3.8. The t-test Values between Pre-tests of the Experimental and the Control Group

The researcher further compares between the scores of the Control and the Experimental Groups in the pre-test using another procedure to obtain valid results. This procedure is the independent sample t-test. Both scores of the Control and the Experimental Group are compared in terms of the mean, standard deviation, standard error mean, t-value and p-value, with a (95%) confidence interval of the difference (see Appendix 9). The results obtained are summarised in the following table.

Variable		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F-value	Sig (p-value)	t-value	Significance
Pre-test	Ctrl.Grp.	23	12.22	0.837	14.72	0.54	-1.628	No Significance
	Exp.Grp.	23	11.98	1.702				

Table 5.12. Groups' Pre-test Total Statistics

Table 5.12 presents the total scores of the two groups in the pre-test paragraphs. As it is indicated above, the obtained results show the similarity between the scores of the pre-tests of both the Experimental and the Control Groups, in terms of mean, standard deviation, standard error mean, t-value and probability significance (p-value) or Sig (2-tailed). The p-value gives no statistically significant difference (p-value=0.549; $p > 0.05$). This shows the existence of harmony between the two groups. Thus, the pre-tests

total scores indicate no significant difference between the Control Group and the Experimental Group. This finding further proves that the participants of both groups under study were homogenous, having equal level before the experiment started.

5.4. Post-test Results

As for the post-test stage of this study, the participants (N=46) have been expected to write the paragraph as they have been taught. Both groups had sufficient knowledge about the specific method of comparison and contrast. Each participant was supposed to write a paragraph on an assigned topic during 90 minutes. The topic was identical for both groups. The topic was about comparing and contrasting '*life between the city and the country*'. The students used point-by-point method or block method. The Control Group was exposed to a post-test knowing that its participants had followed a traditional-based instruction which was conventionally teacher-based. In contrast, the Experimental Group wrote their post-test in a different classroom, after implementing the modelling-strategy instruction to enhance paragraph coherence achievement. The Experimental Group students were asked to use the models they were exposed to when editing their own paragraphs before submitting the final drafts. The researcher asked them to bring out their preferred sample texts already analysed (cf. Appendix 2) to facilitate observing if they really could draw benefits to process and produce their written works. Additionally, the researcher asked both groups' participants to use their rough papers to facilitate observing how they follow the supposed stages to process and generate their ideas before drafting their final compositions. The instructor was always present for any help.

5.4.1. Comparison of Coherence Post-test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups

In the post-test, the numbers of students in both groups of study who managed or failed to achieve each of the nine traits of coherence: organisation (form, topic sentence,

developing sentences and concluding sentence), thematic progression, using transition, referencing, repetition of key words and synonyms' use were tabulated, interpreted and then compared. The results were obtained in a similar manner for the Experimental and the Control Groups. Hence, in a 20-point scale the instructor marked the writings of both groups, with a specific-point scale from excellent to very poor directed to each trait.

5.4.1.1. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Organisation Aspect in Paragraph

Using the same form of the pre-test, the post-test paragraph scores of organisation were to describe four major aspects that contribute in paragraph coherence achievement. These included the main components of a paragraph: form (overall shape or layout of the paragraph with title and indentation), topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence. Each aspect was evaluated following a 4-likert scale for scoring (good, fair, poor and inadequate). The organisation scores of post-test were resulted from the modelling-strategy instruction which was utilised to enhance coherence in paragraph writing for the experimental group; while a traditional teacher-based instruction is followed for the control group.

5.4.1.1.1. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Form Aspect in Paragraph

The participants' paragraphs in both groups rank to describe effective paragraph form. 1/1 point of the total scores (20-points) is to score form or layout rubric in the post-test. The participants who show a good form deserve 1 point. Fair level represents effective but lacks the title or indentation, and the participants' score is 0.75 point. The poor level displays major problems in paragraph form; the score is 0.5 point. The very poor (inadequate) level reflects no paragraph form to be evaluated, yet 0.25 of the point is the score at this level.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	1	18	19
		78.26%	82.60%
Fair	0.75	3	2
		13.04%	08.69%
Poor	0.5	2	0
		08.69%	00.00%
Inadequate	0.25	0	2
		00.00%	08.69%

Table 5.13. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Form Aspect Aspect in Paragraph

As indicated in Table 5.13, in the post-test the Experimental and the Control groups' results of form achievement is almost similar. Indeed, (82.60%) of respondents in the Experimental Group ranked as 'good' and had 1 point (/01) for their relevant and clear paragraph-shape writing, compared to (78.26%) of respondents in the Control Group. There remains (8.69%) of students in the Experimental Group, and (13.04%) of participants in the Control Group got 'fair' to 'average' level with 0.75 point (/01) who have missed one or two of the elements of the good paragraph form. For the remainder, (08.69%) in the Control Group they ranked as 'poor', scoring 0.5 point (/01) and in the Experimental Group, they ranked 'inadequate' and 'very poor' in the getting 0.25 point (/01). Consequently, a similar number of respondents in both groups (78.26% +13.04%; 82.60%+8.69%) participated in the study did not face any difficulty to adequately construct their paragraphs.

5.4.1.1.2. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Topic Sentence Aspect in Paragraph

The topic sentence rubric was based on 2-points of the total scores of (20-points). The scores of the participants' paragraphs grade are marked from 0 to 2 points to evaluate their mastery of writing the main sentence that holds the topic and the controlling idea of the paragraph. Both the pre-test and the post-test scores were obtained in the same way. The scores were based on what was presented to the students as the basic features of an

effective topic sentence through the samples selected in the Experimental Group, while the Control Group received a simple explanation. The topic sentence rubric was ranked from 0 to 2 points to describe five scores from ‘good’ to ‘inadequate’ levels. A maximum was given as 2 points (/02) for ‘good’, 1, 5 points (/02) for ‘fair’, 1 point (/02) for ‘poor’, 0.5 point for ‘inadequate’ topic sentence, and a 0 point (/02) when the topic sentence is not mentioned.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	5	20
		21.73%	86.95%
Fair	1.5	9	0
		39.13%	00.00%
Poor	1	6	3
		26.08%	13.04%
Inadequate	0.5	1	0
		04.34%	00.00%
Not mentioned	0	2	0
		08.69%	00.00%

Table 5.14. Comparison of the Groups’ Post-test Scores of Topic Sentence Rubric in Paragraph

Table 5.14 displays that the Experimental Group recorded higher scores compared to the Control Group in terms of writing effectively the topic sentence. The obtained results indicated that (86.95%) of the participants in the Experimental Group ranked ‘good’ with 2 points (/02) score. The other remaining (13.04%) out of the total number were considered as ‘poor’ with a score of 1 point (/02). The other scores had no result. Besides that, (21.73%) of the participants in the Control Group succeeded to get full marks for their effective topic sentences of relevant controlling ideas. Moreover, (39.13%) scored 1.5 points (/02) and got ‘fair’ level for their topic sentences, while their controlling ideas were not as good as the first category. Yet again, (26.08%) took 1 point (/02) and ranked as ‘poor’ at achieving effective topic sentences. Still with the Control Group, (4.34%) of the participants got ‘inadequate’ level with a score of 0.5 point (/02), but noticeably (8.69%) of the respondents who scored 0 point (/02) failed to mention their topic sentences.

Consequently, the results show that ‘poor’ to ‘fair’ levels characterise the topic sentence organisation in the paragraphs written by the Control Group participants, and meanwhile the Experimental Group was almost characterised by ‘good’ level. In fact, for the Experimental Group, writing effectively the topic sentences can be due to the efficiency of modelling strategy utilised.

5.4.1.1.3. Comparison of the Groups’ Post-test Scores of Detailing Sentences Aspect in Paragraph

Based on the same characteristics of the pre-test aspects, the post-test paragraphs were evaluated in terms of fluency, sequence, development and organisation of supporting details. The scores were also based on a 2-points’ scale with four levels of criteria from ‘good’ to ‘very poor’ or ‘inadequate’.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	1	0
		04.34%	0.00%
Fair	1.5	19	18
		82.60%	78.26%
Poor	1	5	5
		21.73%	21.73%
Inadequate	0.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.15. Comparison of the Groups’ Post-test Scores of Detailing Sentences Rubric in Paragraph

In Table 5.15, the results of the Experimental and the Control Groups are similar. There was no clear difference between the scores of developing sentences rubric (2 - points) between the two groups. The major scores of both groups centred between ‘fair’ to ‘good’ levels (1.5 to 2 points) in the aspect of coherence. Yet, after being exposed to traditional teacher-based instruction, one student only of the Control Group got ‘good’ level and scored 2 points (/02). S/he could write fluently with a logical sequencing of ideas and complete sentence development –a thing that students in the Experimental Group

failed to achieve. In the Control Group, (82.60%) were fair; while in the Experimental Group, (78.26%) were described as being ‘fair’ and scored 1.5 points (/02). These students demonstrated some choppy and loose organised ideas, with some fluent expression and logical sequencing of ideas, but limited support and incomplete development. Moreover, (21.73%) in both groups was depicted as ‘poor’ at achieving sufficient detailing sentences. The teacher’s instruction in the Control Group and modelling strategy in the Experimental Group proved to be useful for the participants. The ‘very’ poor or ‘inadequate’ level (0.5 point) cannot be found among the forty-six (N=46) students.

5.4.1.1.4. Comparison of the Groups’ Post-test Scores of Concluding Sentence Aspect in Paragraph

Using the same aspects as of pre-test, the participants’ post-test paragraphs were evaluated with a 1-point scale for achieving an effective concluding sentence. The concluding sentence rubric ranks the scores from 0 to 1 point (‘good’ level=1 point, ‘fair’ level=0.75 point, ‘poor’ level=0.5 point, and ‘inadequate’ or ‘very poor’=0.25 of the point). The score (0/1 point) was given to indicate that the concluding sentence was absent in the script. The following table summarises the obtained results.

Score		Control group	Experimental group
Good	1	2	16
		08.69%	69.56%
Fair	0.75	14	0
		60.86%	00.00%
Poor	0.5	2	0
		08.69%	00.00%
Inadequate	0.25	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Not mentioned	0	5	7
		21.73%	30.43%

Table 5.16. Comparison of the Groups’ Post-test Scores of Concluding Sentence Rubric in Paragraph

Table 5.16 pinpoints the post-test scores concerning writing the concluding sentence as an essential part to achieve good organisation and overall coherence. The table indicates that after implementing modelling strategy, the Experimental Group members' scored higher in terms of gaining 'good' and 'effective' ending to their paragraphs. There are (69.56%) ranked as 'good' with a score of 1 point (/02) for a convincing ending sentences that showed a logical close to the paragraph. For the Control Group, only (8.69%) of the respondents could write a good ending sentence; while (60.86%) got 'fair' level with the score of 0, 75 point (/01), and wrote acceptable endings to their paragraphs. Similarly, (08.69%) of the respondents were unable to write their endings appropriately and score 0, 5 point (/01). Comparing the two groups' scores in terms of concluding sentence effectiveness, the two groups' major scores centred between 'fair' to 'good' levels. Yet, it can be noticed that (30.43%) of the participants in the Experimental Group and (21.73%) in the Control Group did not write the concluding sentence in their scripts and, hence, got 0 point. This failure in mentioning the concluding sentence could be attributed to time management in dealing with the different parts of the paragraph. Much time was devoted to elaborating the theme.

5.4.1.2. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Thematic Progression Aspect in Paragraph

Using the same aspects as of pre-test, the analytical scores of the thematic progression rubric in the post-test were ranked from 0 to 6 points ('excellent' to 'very good' level=4.5-6, 'good' to 'average' level=3-4, 'fair' to 'poor' level=1.5-2, and inadequate level=0-1). The analytical scores were to evaluate the fluency and development of ideas, the clean supported evidence, the logical sequence and relevance of details to the free chosen topics.

In Table 5.7. below, the thematic progression rubric is used to evaluate three main subcategories, including progression or development of the theme, ordering of facts and sentences, as well as unity or relevance to the topic sentence. In each category, scores were

ranked from 0 to 2 points to describe four levels from good to inadequate, with a maximum score of 2 points (/02) being good, 1.5 points (/02) being fair, 1 point (/02) considered as poor, and 0.5 point for inadequate topic sentence. Marks were calculated to get a total score that represents the overall thematic progression effectiveness for each student out of 46. The frequencies of thematic progression scores are tabulated as follows.

Experimental Group					Control Group				
Students 23	Prog. 2/06	Ord. 2/06	Unity 2/06	Total 6/6	Students 23	Prog. 2/06	Ord. 2/06	Unity 2/06	Total 6/6
A	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	a.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
B	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	b.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
C	1	1.5	1.5	4	c.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
D	1	1.5	1.5	4	d.	1	1.5	1.5	4
E	1.5	2	2	5.5	e.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
F	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	f.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
G	1.5	2	2	5	g.	1	1	1.5	3.5
H	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	h.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
I	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	i.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
J	1.5	2	2	5.5	j.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
K	1.5	2	2	5.5	k.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
L	1.5	2	2	5.5	l.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
M	1.5	2	2	5.5	m.	1.5	2	2	5.5
N	1	1.5	1.5	4	n.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
O	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	o.	2	2	2	6
P	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	p.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
Q	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	q.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
R	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	r.	1	1.5	1.5	4
S	1	1.5	1.5	4	s.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
T	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5	t.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
U	1.5	2	2	5.5	u.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
V	1	1.5	1.5	4	v.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5
W	1.5	1.5	2	5	w.	1.5	1.5	1.5	4.5

Prog.=progression; ord.=ordering; 6/6= points out of 20/20

Table 5.17. Experimental Group and Control Group Post-test Scores of Thematic Progression Rubric in Paragraph

As shown in the table, logical progression of ideas appeared to five students of 23 in the Experimental Group (C, D, N, S, V) and three others in the Control Group (d, g, r) as an area that causes much difficulty with a score of 1 point/2, compared to ordering of facts and achieving unity. A total calculation of the obtained results is gathered in the following table. The students' number and percentage of each score were presented.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Excellent to very good	4.5 to 6	20	18
		86.95	78.26
Good to average	3 to 4	3	5
		13.04%	21.73%
Fair to poor	1.5. to 2.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Inadequate	0 to 1	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.18 Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Thematic Progression in Paragraph

Table 5.18 presents the overall quality of thematic progression of the Control and the Experimental Groups in the post-test stage. As it is shown in the table, the results of the Experimental and the Control Groups' are more -or- less similar. There was no clear difference between the scores of thematic progression rubric (6-points) between the two groups: they showed 'good' to 'excellent' levels in this aspect of coherence. As can be described, (86.95%) of respondents in the Control Group got scores from 4.5 to 6 points and ranked as 'excellent' to 'very good', compared to (78.26%) of students in the Experimental Group, with a maximum of 5.5 points being registered. The 'excellent' to 'very good' level reflects a thorough development of the topic, relevant and logical progression of content that contributes to fluency, and a smooth move from one sentence to the other toward a unified whole. Moreover, (13.04%) of respondents in the Control Group, and (21.73%) others in the Experimental Group got scores from 3 to 4 points and ranked as 'good' to 'fair' for their acceptable knowledge, adequate range and sequence of details, as well as limited [but mostly] relevant development of topic. Thus, all the

participants had almost realised that information should be organised logically, and be mutually accessible and relevant in order to create a meaningful whole that a reader can understand. All of the teacher's instruction and modelling strategy appeared to be fruitful to the participants in developing their ideas thoroughly, convincingly and smoothly to achieve a unified whole. Since it is just a paragraph, the participants could not find major problems in developing their themes. Consequently, the scores 1.5 to 2.5 points that characterise the fair to poor level, and 0 to 1 points that indicate the very poor level, were not found in both groups.

5.4.1.3. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Transitions' Use Aspect in Paragraph

As the previously noticed rubrics, the participants' post-test paragraphs ranked from 0 to 2 points to evaluate their mastery of English transitional signals. The good level (2 points) represented well-chosen and appropriately used range of effective transitional signals, while the average or fair level (1,5 points) represented adequate range of transitions, with occasional errors in use and usage or misspelling. Concerning the poor level (1 point), the participants demonstrated limited use of transitions, with frequent errors in word form and usage with a confusing meaning. The very poor or inadequate level (0.5 point) indicated little knowledge and insufficient account of English transitions to be evaluated. The following table summarises the data gathered.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	4	14
		17.39%	60.86%
Fair	1.5	15	8
		65.21%	34.78%
Poor	1	4	1
		17.39%	04.34%
Inadequate	0.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.19. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Transitions' Use Rubric in Paragraph

Regarding transitional signals' use, Table 5.19 shows that the Experimental Group's scores were higher in terms of gaining good and effective use of transitions in their paragraphs. After implementing modelling strategy, the Experimental Group got some knowledge about how to use transitional signals effectively and appropriately. In effect, (60.86%) had 'good' level with a score of 2 points (/02); while, (34.78%) gained results which seemed 'fairly acceptable' with fair level and a score of 1.5 points (/02). For the Control Group, the post-test results displayed that (17.39%) of the respondents took 'good' level and scored 2 points (/02). Yet, (65.21%) of the total respondents (N=23) were considered as 'fair' to 'average' in achieving an acceptable and an adequate use of transitions with 1.5 points (/01). Further, (17.39%) students in the Control Group and (4.34%) in the Experimental Group showed a 'poor' use of transitional signals and got a score of 1 point (/02). The transitions used, were simple and common and not specific to comparison and contrast method of development. Noticeably in both groups, no student got a score of 0.5 point (/02) for 'inadequate' level. Thus, comparing the two groups' major scores, we found that though both groups' scores centred between 'fair' to 'good' levels, the scores of the Experimental Group were higher in terms of quality and relevance of transitions used.

5.4.1.4. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Referencing Aspect in Paragraph

The participants' paragraphs were ranked from 0 to 2 points, indicating four levels (good level=2 points, fair level=1.5 points, poor level=1 point, and inadequate level= 0.5 point). Most students under investigation had succeeded to use effectively the references, mainly pronouns, needed in a coherent piece of writing to substitute for key words or expressions. The obtained results are presented in the following table.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	3	1
		13.04%	04.34%
Fair	1.5	17	21
		73.91%	91.30%
Poor	1	3	1
		13.04%	04.34%
Inadequate	0.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.20 Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Referencing Rubric in Paragraph

Table 5.20 presents a comparison between the post-test specific data for the frequencies of the students' numbers and in repeating the key words in paragraphs of both groups. The obtained results describe that both groups' scores are similar. There appears no clear difference between the scores of referencing rubric (2-points) between the two groups. After being exposed to several sample texts representing the same method of comparison or contrast, (04.34%) in the Experimental Group had a 'good' level of 2 points (/02); while other (91.30%) of the respondents had 'fair' to 'good' level with a score of 1.5 points (/02). In contrast, just (04.34%) who wrote references inappropriately and had 'poor' level. Similarly in the Control Group (following the traditional teacher-based instruction) (13.04%) had a 'good' level with a score of 2 points (/02). In effect, (73.91%) were 'fair' in referring to key words in their paragraphs with a score of 1.5 points (/02) for their minor errors in use; while (13.04%) of participants had a 'poor' level of 1 point (/02) only for their rare use of referencing. Noticeably, no students took 'inadequate' or 'very poor' level in both groups.

5.4.1.5. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Repetition Aspect in Paragraph

Again, the participants' paragraphs were ranked from 0 to 2 points, to evaluate repetition of key words to achieve overall coherence. The rubric used indicated four levels (good level=2 points, fair level=1.5 points, poor level=1 point, and inadequate level=0.5 point). Most students under investigation had almost succeeded to repeat adequately the

essential words in their paragraphs to contribute by that in achieving effectiveness. The obtained results from both groups are tabulated as follows.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	5	11
		21.73%	47.82%
Fair	1.5	18	12
		78.26%	52.17%
Poor	1	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Inadequate	0.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.21. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Repetition Rubric in Paragraph

The table displays the post-test data for the frequencies of the students' numbers in repeating the key words in both groups' paragraphs. The results obtained show that the Experimental Group scored higher in terms of repeating key words in an effective and adequate manner compared to Control Group. In fact, both groups' scores (N=23) centred between 'fair' to 'good' levels, with in the Experimental Group, (47.82%) who ranked as 'good', and (52.17%) who ranked as fair in the experimental group; and for the Control Group (21.73%) ranked as 'good', and (78.26%) as 'fair'. This fact signals the participants' preference for the direct and simple method of developing ideas and making key words adequately repeated to strengthen text coherence. (00%) of students appeared to have poor level (1point /02) or inadequate level (0.5 point/02).

5.4.1.6. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Synonyms' Use Aspect in Paragraph

In the post-test, the synonyms' use rubric is also ranked from 0 to 2 points to evaluate the fluent use of synonymous expressions to achieve overall coherence (2 points=good level, 1.5 points=fair level, 1 point=poor, and 0.5 point=inadequate level). In addition to

that, 0 point score is given for the situation in which a total absence of synonyms' use can be marked.

Score		Control Group	Experimental Group
Good	2	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Fair	1.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Poor	1	0	1
		00.00%	04.34%
Inadequate	0.5	2	4
		08.69%	17.39%
Not found	0	21	18
		91.30%	78.26%

Table 5.22. Comparison of the Groups' Post-test Scores of Synonyms' use Rubric in Paragraph

Concerning synonyms' use, Table 5.22 reveals that the frequencies of using synonyms for achieving coherence in the post-test paragraphs of the Control Group and the Experimental Group remained largely negatively similar. In effect, the majority of the students in both groups avoided the use of synonymous expressions to substitute the key words in their texts; the simple repetitious style is, however, preferred. In a scale that ranks scores from 0 to 2 points. However, (91.30%) of respondents in the Control Group and (78.26%) in the Experimental Group got 0 point. Yet, (08.69%) of respondents in Control Group and (17.39%) in the Experimental Group appeared to use only one or two synonymous words with an inadequate score of 0.5 point (/02). Just one student in the Experimental Group was statistically better in both groups and took 1 point (/02) for the few synonyms he used, but, yet, ranked as poor.

5.4.2. Groups' Statistics of Total Post-test Scores

The post-test paragraphs, in both groups, are interpreted according to the 20-points scale. The overall score of each participant's paragraph is calculated based on the nine scores of the nine paragraph coherence rubrics: form, topic sentence, developing sentences,

thematic progression, transition, referencing, and repetition of key words and synonyms' use. An 'excellent' to 'very good' paragraph in terms of coherence displayed thorough development of content with a fluent, logical and cohesive organisation of ideas, and demonstrated a mastery of the English language conventions and the way of writing coherently. The following table indicates the groups' total scores obtained from the post-test results.

Control Group Students/23	Post-test Score/20	Experimental Group Students/23	Post-test Score/20
a.	13.75	A	14.5
b.	12	B	14.25
c.	14.5	C	12.75
d.	13.5	D	14
e.	15.25	E	16
f.	11	F	14.25
g.	12.5	G	14.5
h.	12.5	H	13
I.	13.25	I	12.5
J.	12.75	J	15,5
k.	13.75	K	15.5
l.	13.5	L	14.5
m.	16.75	M	14.5
n.	13.75	N	10.5
o.	17	O	13.5
p.	11.75	P	13
q.	13.5	Q	15
r.	11	R	15.5
s.	15	S	14
t.	12.75	T	15.5
u.	13.25	U	16.5
v.	12	V	12.75
w.	13.25	W	15.5

Table 5.23. Groups' Statistics of Total Post-test Scores

Table 5.23 indicates the scores of (N=46) participants of paragraph overall coherence based on a 20- point scale (cf. Appendix 8). The table displays the main scores of 23 participants in the Experimental Group (labelled from A to W), with a minimum score of 12.50 and a maximum score of 16.50, as well as 23 participants in the Control Group

(labelled from *a* to *w*), of a minimum score of 11/20 and a maximum score of 17/20. To notice clearly the difference between the groups of study, the following figure is presented.

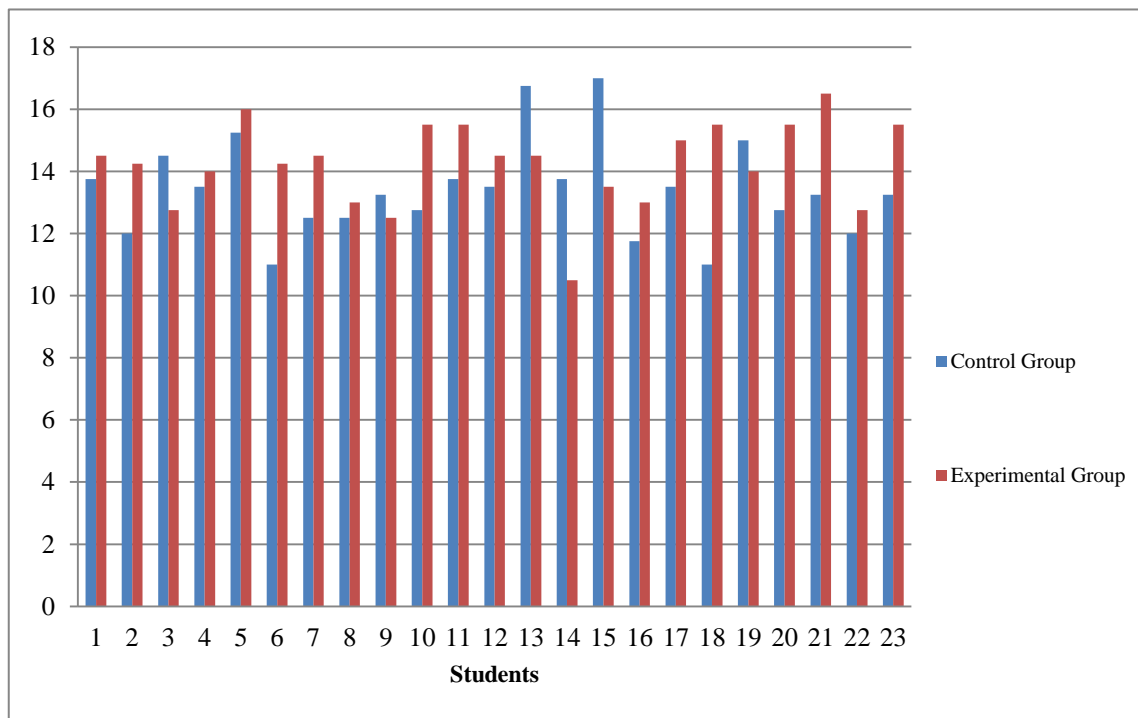


Figure 5.1. Groups' Statistics of Total Post-test Scores

Figure 5.1 illustrates the aforementioned results as appeared in Table 5.23. The vertical line represents the marks (scores) out of 20; while the horizontal indicates the students' number (23). The figure shows that most scores in both groups were above (10/20), with some differences reaching 14/20. The maximum was in blue ($\sigma=17/20$) from the Control Group, but yet those who got above 14/20 belonged most to the Experimental Group (65.20%), compared to just (21.73%) in the Control Group. Based on the same characteristics of pre-test aspects, a distribution to score frequencies was further done to the results obtained based on four levels of criteria from excellent to very poor (excellent to very good=14.75- 20, good to average =11- 14.50, fair to poor=6- 10.75 and very poor=0- 5.75).

Score out of 20 points		Experimental Group	Control Group
Excellent to very good A	14.75–20	8	4
		34.78%	17.39%
good to average B	11–14.5	14	19
		60.86%	82.60%
fair to poor C	6–10.75	1	0
		04.34%	00.00%
Inadequate D	1–5.75	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.24. Experimental Group and Control Group Post-test Total Scores in Paragraph Coherence

The table above shows the overall situation of the participants' achievement of coherence in a writing task after the experiment. The students in both groups were asked to write a comparison and contrast paragraph on an assigned topic. It was found that the students who got excellent to very good (grade A) scores were higher in the Experimental Group (34.78%) compared to (17.39 %) in the Control Group. These students tended to be highly successful in having effective and coherent writing. These students appeared to be quite informed and well-trained of the concept of coherence as the most important textual feature of successful written performance. This fact can, also, be felt in the quality of other 19 scripts of (82.60%) in the Control Group and (60.86%) in the Experimental Group, having the grade B- 'good' to 'average'. Message in these paragraphs can be mostly followed with ease with relevant supporting details, mostly logical progression of content, possible slight over- or under-use of transitions but correctly used, mostly correct references, and mostly appropriate key words' repetition (Hyland's (2003) Rubric (cf. Appendix 4). One participant only of 46 scored 10.50 points (/20) with a 'poor' to 'fair' level; he still encounters some problems in generating and supporting ideas with much evidence his central theme; the fact that makes his writing needs further development. Surprisingly, there was (00%) of students in the two groups (N=46) who wrote unsuccessful pieces, with little control of the topic, or limited ideas. The following figure represents these results.

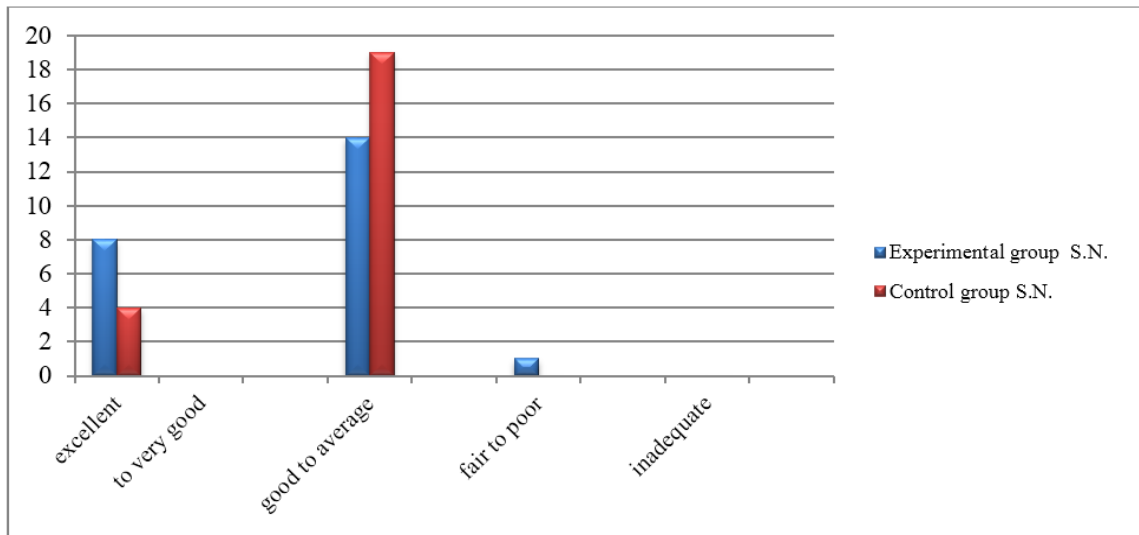


Figure 5.2. Experimental Group and Control Group Post-test Total Scores in Paragraph Coherence

5.4.3. The t-test Values between Post-tests of the Experimental and the Control Groups

The researcher further compares between the scores of Control and Experimental Groups in terms of post-test using t-test. Table 5.25 displays descriptive statistics of the two groups' total scores in parallel in terms of achieving coherence. The post-test scores of the Experimental Group are compared to the scores of the Control Group. The main elements that are shown are: the mean, the standard deviation and the standard error, t-value and p-value. Consider the following table.

Variable		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F-value	Sig	T-value	DF	Significance
Post-test	Ctrl. Grp.	23	12.608	1.58442	0.132	0.71	-3.716	44	0.001
	Exp. Grp.	23	14.239	1.38473					

Table 5.25. Groups' Post-test Total Statistics

Table 5.25 indicates the total scores of the two groups in the post-test scores in paragraph coherence. The obtained results show that there is a significant difference between the scores of the Control Group and the Experimental Group, in terms of mean,

standard deviation, standard error mean, t-value and probability significance (p-value) or Sig (2-tailed), with a 95% confidence interval of the difference (See Appendix 10). The t-test for equality of means shows a highly statistically significant difference between the groups with a p-value of ($p=0.001$) and a mean difference of ($m=-1.63$); the significance level of the post-test total score is ($=0.718$) in terms of the equal variances assumed, t-value= (-3.716) and $DF=44$). Thus, the t-test for equality of means indicates that the difference between the Experimental and the Control Groups proves to be statistically different. These post-test total scores indicate that there is a significant difference between the scores of the Control Group and the Experimental Group, which proves the positive effect of the integration of modelling strategy to enhance coherence in paragraph writing instruction of EFL classes at the Department of English at Laghouat University.

5.5. Comparison between the Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores

The third comparison to be conducted in the present study is between the pre-test and post-test scores of the Experimental Group. This group has been exposed to a modelling- strategy instruction and goes through a three-stage procedure. The first stage is pre-test in which the group participants exhibit their competency in writing. In the second stage, the participants are exposed to the lesson of comparison and contrast method in EFL paragraph writing, implementing the use of diverse sample paragraphs. These sample texts are analysed in the classroom with the help of the instructor, extracting the main elements that make them coherent. The third stage, however, is the post-test of the Experimental and the Control group which takes place –but in two different rooms– with the post-test that is. To further measure the effectiveness of such a strategy on the Experimental Group writing quality improvement, a comparison between the scores of group members in both tests is made.

5.5.1. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Organisation Aspect

The Experimental Group pre-test and post-test scripts were evaluated in terms of four major aspects in paragraph organisation that contribute in coherence achievement at paragraph level. These include the main components of a paragraph: the form, the topic sentence, the developing sentences, ending/concluding sentence. Each aspect was evaluated separately, following a 4-likert scale for scoring (good, fair, poor and inadequate), with numerical scale of 1 point or 2 points.

5.5.1.1. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Form Aspect

In order to test the effectiveness of the model-text based approach in teaching coherence in paragraph writing in English, the researcher compares between the pre-test scores and the post-test scores of Form Rubric of the Experimental Group. This comparison integrates the same aspects mentioned in both tests ('good' form= 1 point, 'fair' =0.75 point, 'poor' level =0.5 point, and 'very poor' (inadequate) level =0.25 of the point). The results were displayed in the following table to be compared.

Score		Pre-test	Post-test
Good	1	16	19
		69.56%	82.60%
Fair	0.75	0	2
		00.00%	08.69%
Poor	0.5	1	0
		04.34%	00.00%
Inadequate	0.25	6	2
		26.08%	08.69%

Table 5.26. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Form Rubric

As indicated in the table, there appears a little progression in achieving paragraph from by the Experimental Group members. The comparison between the two tests' scores shows that the Experimental Group members had a 'good' level in achieving paragraph

form with little development by (69.56%) in the pre-test to (82.60%) in the post-test; a noticeable progression can be felt in terms of those who moved from ‘poor’ or inadequate levels to fair or good levels. As a result, this finding appears to be positive; it is in favour of implementing modelling strategy that helped the participants to progress.

5.5.1.2. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Topic Sentence Aspect

The researcher compares between the pre-test scores and the post-test scores of Topic sentence Rubric of the Experimental Group to test the effectiveness of modelling strategy in achieving effective topic sentence that contributes in enhancing coherence in paragraph writing in English. This comparison integrates the same rubric aspects mentioned in both tests. The scores range from ‘good’ to ‘inadequate’ levels, with a maximum score of 2 points (/ 02) for ‘good’, 1, 5 point (/02) for ‘fair’, 1 point (/02) for ‘poor’, 0, 5 point for ‘inadequate’ topic sentence and a minimum score of 0 point (/02) when the topic sentence is not mentioned.

Score		Pre-test	Post-test
Good	2	4	20
		17.39%	86.96%
Fair	1.5	1	0
		4.34%	00.00%
Poor	1	9	3
		39.13%	13.04%
Inadequate	0.5	3	0
		13.04%	00.00%
Not mentioned	0	6	0
		26.08%	00.00%

Table 5.27. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Topic Sentence Rubric

Noticeably, comparing the Experimental Group scores in both tests leads to can depicting the big difference between the scores, appreciating the clear improvement registered by the group members. The score rose from (17.39%) who got ‘good’ level at

structuring effectively the topic sentence in the pre-test, to (86.96%) getting that level in the post-test. A noticeable number of (39.13%) who scored badly and got ‘poor’ level in the pre-test appeared to be lessened to just (13.04%) of the respondents in the post-test. A similar remark can be registered with those whose score was inadequate. However, there was the absence of the participants with 0 point (/2) in the post-test, with (26.08%) in the pre-test. This positive finding strengthens the study hypothesis of the usefulness of modelling to better writing quality in terms of coherence.

5.5.1.3. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Developing Sentences Aspect

Based on the same characteristics, the pre-test and post-test paragraphs were evaluated in terms of fluency, sequence, development and organisation of supporting details. The scores were also based on a 2-points’ scale with four levels of criteria from ‘good’ to ‘very poor’ or ‘inadequate’. The researcher in this section compares between the pre-test scores and the post-test scores of the Experimental Group to achieve specific detailing sentences so as to test the efficiency of using model- texts to solve problems of writing effective, sufficient and convincing evidence to support the theme.

Score		Pre-test	Post-test
Good	2	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Fair	1.5	10	18
		43.47%	78.26%
Poor	1	13	5
		56.52%	21.73%
Inadequate	0.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.28. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Developing Sentences Rubric

Similarly, this area of coherence had witnessed a remarkable amelioration in the Experimental Group. Although no scores were registered for ‘good’ level at developing the theme in sufficient, supportive and adequate sentences, a good number of students had

noticeably progressed to get better results. In effect, (78.26%) had fair level and scored 1.5 points (/2) in the post-test, instead of (43.47%) in the pre-test. On the other hand, (21.73%) of the respondents ranked only as ‘poor’ with 1 point in the post-test, unlike the (56.52%) in the pre-test. Again, this positive finding would be attributed to the implementation of modelling strategy.

5.5.1.4. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Concluding Sentence Aspect

The pre-test and post-test paragraphs of the Experimental Group were evaluated with a 1-point scale for achieving an effective concluding sentence. The concluding sentence rubric ranks the scores from 0 to 1 point (‘good’ level=1 point, ‘fair’ level=0.75 point, ‘poor’ level=0.5 point, and ‘inadequate’ or ‘very poor’=0.25 of the point). The score (0/1 point) was given to indicate that the concluding sentence was absent in the script. The researcher in this section compares between the Experimental Group both tests’ scores to achieve an effective concluding sentence so as to test the efficiency of using model- texts to solve problems in such an area of coherence in paragraph writing.

Score		Pre-test	Post-test 2
Good	1	12	16
		52.17%	69.56%
Fair	0.75	1	00%
		04.34%	00.00%
Poor	0.5	2	00%
		08.69%	00.00%
Inadequate	0,25	0	00%
		00.00%	00.00%
Not mentioned	0	8	7
		34.78%	30.43%

Table 5.29. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Concluding Sentence Rubric

Noticeably, comparing the Experimental Group scores in both tests, one can depict the big difference between the scores, appreciating the clear improvement registered by the group members where (69.56%) of the respondents got ‘good’ level and had the full mark

in the post-test, whereas (52.17%) in the pre-test. In fact, (4.34%) to (8.69%) of the participants with ‘fair’ or ‘poor’ levels in the pre-test had progressed to gain good levels in the post-test. Noticeably, the (34.78%) of students’ who forgot to mention the concluding sentence in the pre-test reduced to (30.43%) with a difference of (4.34%). These positive results strengthen, again, the study hypothesis of the usefulness of modelling to better writing quality in terms of coherence.

5.5.2. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Thematic Progression Aspect

The Experimental Group participants’ paragraphs in both tests were evaluated with a 6-point scale for achieving logical progression of ideas. The thematic progression rubric was used to evaluate three main subcategories: progression of the theme, ordering of facts and sentences, as well as unity. In each category, scores were ranked from 0 to 2 points to describe four levels from ‘good’ to ‘inadequate’, with a maximum score of 2 points (/02) being good, 1.5 points (/02) being fair, 1 point (/02) considered as poor, and 0.5 point for inadequate topic sentence. The following table displays the pre-test and post-test results in this area for comparison to test the efficiency of ‘modelling’ in teaching coherence in EFL writing.

Score		Pre-test	Post-test
Excellent to very Good	4.5 to 6	7	18
		30.43%	78.26%
Good to average	3 to 4	16	5
		69.56%	21.73
Fair to poor	1.5 to 2.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Inadequate	0 to 1	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.30. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Thematic Progression Rubric

Again, in comparing the Experimental Group’s scores in both tests, one can depict a difference between the scores, appreciating the clear improvement registered by the group members can be seen. Instead of (30.43%) who ranked ‘good’ and

got scores from 4.5 to 6 points in the pre-test, a (78.26%) of students were registered having level ‘good’ in the post-test; while the number of students who got ‘fair’ level in the pre-test was (69.56%) i.e. three times bigger than that in the post-test (21.73%). This difference was in favour of the level ‘good’ with the group members. This result is a finding that can be attributed to the usefulness of the strategy being implemented by the researcher. No scores were registered (00%) for the respondents of ‘fair to poor’ and ‘inadequate’ levels.

5.5.3. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Transition Use Aspect

As the previously noticed rubrics, the Experimental Group participants’ paragraphs in both tests ranked from 0 to 2 points to evaluate their mastery of using English transitional signals to show how the different ideas relate to each other. The good level (2 points) represents well-chosen and appropriately used range of effective transitional signals; while the average or fair level (1.5points) represents adequate range of transitions, with occasional errors in use and usage or misspelling. Concerning the poor level (1 point), participants demonstrated a limited use of transitions, with frequent errors in word form and usage leading to a confusing meaning. The very poor or inadequate level (0.5 point), however, indicates little knowledge and insufficient account of English transitions to be evaluated. The scores of the Experimental group in both tests were compared to test the effectiveness of using model-texts to enhance the transitions’ use to achieve paragraph coherence.

Score		Pre-test	Post-test
Good	2	0	14
		00.00%	60.86%
Fair	1.5	14	8
		60.86%	34.78%
Poor	1	9	1
		39.13%	04.34%
Inadequate	0.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.31. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Transition Use Rubric

Noticeably, comparing the Experimental Group scores in both tests, the big difference between the scores, appreciating the clear improvement registered by the group members can be seen. Interestingly, (60.86%) had ‘good’ level in the post-test; this was absent in the pre-test results. Instead, (60.86%) of the respondents were ‘fair’ at using transitional signals in the pre-test, and (39.13%) were ‘poor’. The number of students of fair level was only eight students of 23 (34.78%), and just student was ‘poor’ in the post-test. This improvement in scores results in asserting the positive effect drawn from the use of modelling strategy to enhance coherence in paragraph writing.

5.5.4. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Referencing Aspect

The pre-test and post-test paragraphs of the Experimental Group were evaluated with a 2-point scale for using effectively references to substitute for key words or expressions. The Referencing Rubric ranks scores from 0 to 2 points indicating four levels (‘good’ =2 points, ‘fair’ =1.5 points, ‘poor’ =1 point, and inadequate level= 0.5 point). The researcher in this section compares between the Experimental Group both tests’ scores to test the efficiency of using model- texts to solve problems in such an area of coherence in paragraph writing.

Score		Pre-test	Post-test
Good	2	1	1
		04.34%	04.34%
Fair	1.5	16	21
		69.56%	91.30%
Poor	1	5	1
		21.73%	04.34%
Inadequate	0.5	1	0
		04.34%	00.00

Table 5.32. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Referencing Rubric

As indicated in Table 5.32, there is just a little progression in achieving effective and adequate referencing by the Experimental Group members. The same student who had ‘good’ level in the pre-test had also a ‘good’ level in the post-test; whereas there is a little development in the scores of (21.73%) of the respondents who had ‘poor’ level in the pre-test and progressed to ‘fair’ level in the post-test. By that the number of fair level participants rose to (91.30%) instead of (69.56%). Similarly, (4.34%) of students with ‘inadequate’ level had moved to the next level (poor level). A comparison between the two tests’ scores showed that the participants had almost a ‘fair’ or ‘moderate’ level at achieving this aspect in paragraph.

5.5.5. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Repetition of Key Words Aspect

Again, the Experimental Group participants’ paragraphs in both tests were evaluated with a 2-point scale for achieving adequate repetition of key words to achieve overall coherence. The rubric ranks scores from 0 to 2 points, indicating four levels (good level=2 points, fair level=1.5 points, poor level=1 point, and inadequate level=0.5 point). The researcher attempted to compare the scores of the Experimental Group in both tests so as to test the efficiency of modelling strategy to enhance this area of coherence in paragraph writing.

Score		Pre-test	Post-test
Good	2	11	11
		47.82%	47.82%
Fair	1.5	12	12
		52.17%	52.17%
Poor	1	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Inadequate	0.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%

Table 5.33. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Repetition of Key Words Rubric

When comparing the Experimental Group's scores in both tests, the similarity of the scores, appreciating the 'good' level of the group members at writing the repetition of key words appropriately well becomes clear. Surprisingly, the number of participants had remained the same at each level in both tests. (47.82%) had 'good' level in pre- and post-tests; while (52.17%) were considered as 'fair' at achieving adequate use of key words repeatedly mentioned in both tests. However, (00%) of students took 'poor' and 'inadequate' levels for both tests. This finding indicates that there was no effect of modelling strategy use on the participants' achievements in writing quality. In fact, the participants had already been familiar with such an area (assimilation occurs). They looked, using models, for solutions for other problems in writing.

5.5.6. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Synonyms' Use Aspect

The pre-test and post-test paragraphs of the Experimental Group were evaluated with a 2-point scale for the fluent use of synonymous expressions to achieve overall coherence. In both tests, the synonyms' use rubric is also ranked from 0 to 2 points (2 points='good' level, 1.5 points='fair' level, 1 point='poor', and 0.5 point= 'inadequate' level). In addition to that, 0 point score is given for the absence of synonyms in the script. The researcher compares between the Experimental Group both tests' scores to test the efficiency of using model- texts to solve problems in such an area of coherence in paragraph writing.

Score		Pre-test	Post-test
Good	2	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Fair	1.5	0	0
		00.00%	00.00%
Poor	1	0	1
		00.00%	04.34%
Inadequate	0.5	4	4
		17.39%	17.39%
Not found	0	19	18
		82.60%	78.26%

Table 5.34. The Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Synonyms' Use Rubric

As far as using synonymous expressions is concerned, comparing the Experimental Group scores in both tests, the similarity of the scores, the low level of the group members can be seen. The participants, regardless the test type, were unable to master vocabulary choice and use in writing. In the pre-test or post-test, similarly, (17.39%) of the participants used a few number of two to three synonymous words; while (82.60%) of the respondents, in the pre-test and (78.26%) of students, in the post-test could not use synonyms for their poor vocabulary items in English. Though modelling strategy use, no progression at the participants' level could be registered.

5.5.7. Total Scores of Paragraph Coherence of the Experimental Group

The major scores of the twenty-three Experimental Group members, symbolised alphabetically, in the pre-test as well as post-test are presented in the following table.

Students of Experimental Group	Pre-test Scores/20	Post-test Scores/20	Improvement
A	10.75	14.5	+
B	12.5	14.25	+
C	9.5	12.75	+
D	13	14	+
E	11	16	+
F	14.5	14.25	-
G	12	14.5	+
H	9.75	13	+
I	11.75	12.5	+
J	14.5	15.5	+
K	11.5	15.5	+
L	13	14.5	+
M	15	14.5	-
N	10	10.5	+
O	11.5	13.5	+
P	12.5	13	+
Q	10.5	15	+
R	13	15.5	+
S	10	14	+
T	11	15.5	+
U	14	16.5	+
V	10	12.75	+
W	14.25	15.5	+
<i>(+) improvement; (-) no improvement</i>			

Table 5.35 Pre-test and Post-test Total Scores of Paragraph Coherence of the Experimental Group

This table summarises the Experimental Group participants' scores out of 20 marks' rubric. Pre-test results were compared to the results of the post-test indicating the difference that exists between the two tests for each student. When the mark of the post-test is bigger than the pre-test mark, then the student's achievement in writing coherently is improving. What can be noticed from these results is that (91.30%) of the participants in this group registered an improvement in coherence scores. Just (8.69%) of the respondents have their results of the pre-test a little better; these students were Good achievers whose marks were similar (15 and 14.5 or 14.5 and 14.25 out of 20). These findings add credit and strengthen the usefulness of the modelling strategy. The aforementioned findings are illustrated in the following diagram.

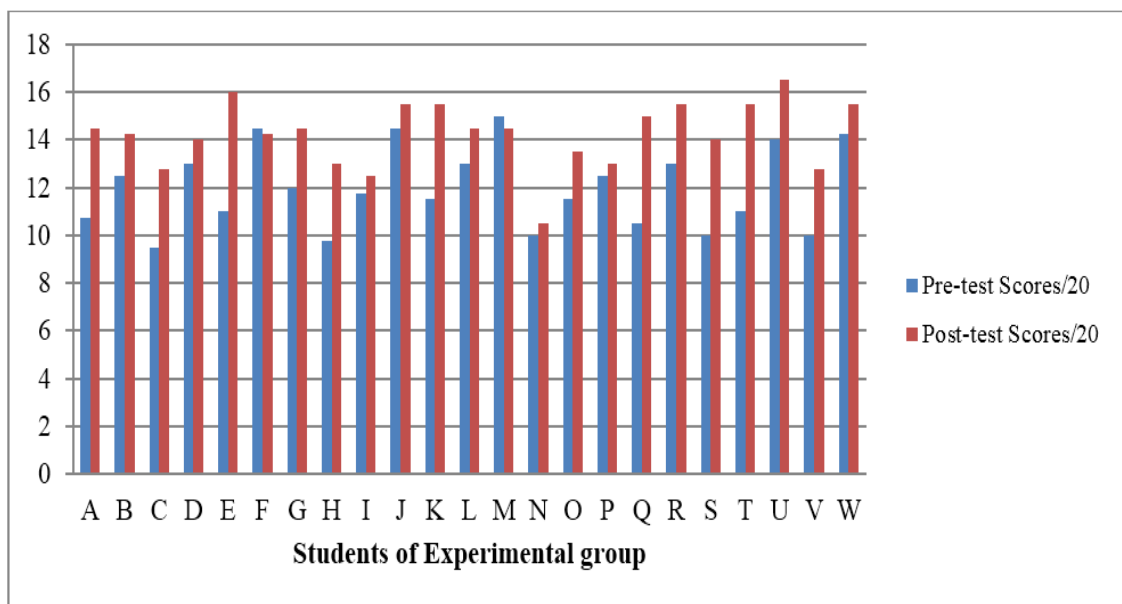


Figure 5.3. Pre-test and Post-test Total Scores of Paragraph Coherence of the Experimental Group

5.5.8. Paired t-test of the Experimental Group

After calculating the descriptive statistics, the researcher used the paired t-sample procedures (SPSS analysis) to compare between the pre-test scores and the post-test scores. Scores of both tests are compared in terms of the mean, the standard deviation and the standard error mean, as the following table shows.

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation (SD)	f- value	Sig.	t-value	DF	P-value
Exp. Grp.	Pre-test	23	11.97	1.70	2.184	0.14	-3,716	44
	Post-test	23	14.23	1.38				

Table 5.36. Paired Samples Statistics of Experimental Group

As shown in Table 5.36, for the Experimental Group, the means of the pre-test scores are compared to the means of the post-test scores (cf. Appendix 11). The pre-test mean is (=11.978) with a standard deviation (SD=1.702) while the post-test mean is (=14.239) with a standard deviation (SD=1.384). This increase in the mean scores is due to the experiment treatment. Table 5.39 clearly shows the difference between the scores of the pre-test and of the post-test of the Experimental Group, using the statistical descriptive analysis (SPSS). The mean difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores is (m=-2.260), and the standard deviation is (SD=0.457) and a t-value (t=13,357); it also proves a statistically significant difference (p-value=0.000; $p < 0.05$).

Conclusion

This chapter represents an attempt to test the effect of the modelling strategy use in enhancing coherence in the students' paragraph writing. The Experimental and the Control Group's paragraphs were evaluated, and then scores were tabulated, and compared. Three sets of comparisons were done. A comparison of pre-test, then post-test coherence scores between the two groups, and another comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores of the Experimental Group (cf. Appendix 11) was made.

In designing the scoring benchmark, six features of coherence (organisation, thematic progression, transitions' use, referencing, repetition of the key words, and synonyms' use) were evaluated using an analytic rubric. Each feature provides a descriptor that indicates the level of quality of the text. For comparison, paired t-test were used as assessment tools,

in terms of mean, standard deviation, standard error mean, t-value and probability significance (p-value) or Sig (2-tailed), with a (95%) confidence interval of the difference.

For the pre-test, the obtained results indicated that there was a similarity between the scores of both the Experimental and the Control groups. It was indicated that the F-value proves no statistically significant difference (p-value=0.549; $p>0.05$). This proved that the participants of both groups were homogenous, and had had equal level before the experiment. For the post-test, the t-test for equality of means showed a statistically significant difference between the groups with a p-value of (p=0.001). This latter proved that the positive effect of the integration of modelling strategy enhances coherence in paragraph writing instruction in EFL classes at the Department of English at Laghouat University.

The comparison of the pre-test and the post-test scores of the Experimental Group also revealed a statistically significant difference (p-value=0.000; $p<0.05$). Hence, the first interpretation of these findings revealed the effect drawn from the implementation of a model-based instruction in writing classes to enhance paragraph coherence and foster purposeful communication was positive.

Chapter Six

Discussion of the Results and Analysis

Introduction.....	240
6.1. Discussion of Coherence Rubrics in Students' Writings.....	240
6.1.1 Discussion of Organisation Rubrics.....	240
6.1.2. Discussion of the Thematic Progression Rubric.....	246
6.1.3. Discussion of Transitions' Use Rubric.....	249
6.1.4. Discussion of Referencing Rubric.....	253
6.1.5. Discussion of Repetition Rubric.....	257
6.1.6. Discussion of Synonyms Rubric.....	258
6.1.7. Discussion of Coherence Problems in Students' Paragraphs.....	258
6.3. Discussion of Other Problems in Students' Writings.....	264
6.4. Analysis of Post-experiment Questionnaire on Modelling Strategy Use.....	268
6.4.1. Analysis of Post-experiment Questionnaire to the Control Group.....	268
6.4.2. Analysis of Post-experiment Questionnaire to the Experimental Group	277
Conclusion.....	283

Chapter Six

Discussion of the Results and Analysis

Introduction

This chapter discusses the obtained results to check the hypothesis of the study. The analysis of between-group comparison and within-group comparison were examined to identify to what extent modelling strategy was helpful for the Experimental Group participants to achieve coherence in their paragraph writing. This section also analyses the kinds of errors students of English at Laghouat University encounter in the area of coherence. It attempts to find out which of the traits of coherence is causing much difficulty to these learners during the writing process and determine the reasons behind this difficulty. Moreover, using treatment follow-up questions, this section explores the participants' impressions and perceptions in applying modelling as a new strategy to teach EFL students coherence in writing.

6.1. Discussion of Coherence Rubrics in Students' Writings

The results of the pre-test and post-test are discussed and analysed highlighting the effects of using modelling strategy to enhance paragraph coherence. Discussion is based on the nine rubrics: organisation: form, topic sentence, developing sentences, and concluding sentence; thematic progression, transition, referencing, repetition of key words, and synonyms' use. Modelling strategy results are compared to those of the conventional teacher-centred instruction.

6.1.1. Discussion of Organisation Rubrics

The paragraph is the fundamental unit in a composition. For the length, the paragraph can have more than three sentences, up to five sentences, which make a reasonable

moderate paragraph. Any academic paragraph should consist of three important elements: the introductory sentence, body sentences, and a concluding sentence. In the experiment, such elements are used for the evaluation of the participants' paragraphs.

6.1.1.1. Discussion of the Students' Paragraph Form Rubric

Most students in the pre-test succeeded in having a good form before even the experiment started. This result indicates that the students in both groups had sufficient knowledge about the form (layout) of the paragraph that helped them write well. In fact, for the Experimental Group, seeing models only strengthened what they had already learnt. This is illustrated in both groups' post-test's results (cf. Appendix 13). The participants had developed more in terms of achieving a good form (see appendix 13 for students' paragraphs samples). All of modelling strategy and the conventional teacher-centred instruction proved to be useful to gain knowledge about paragraph layout and form.

6.1.1.2. Discussion of the Topic Sentence Rubric

Writing the topic sentence is regarded as the most area what caused difficulties to students, mainly in the pre-test (39.13% to the Control Group and 56.51% to the Experimental Group, cf. Table 5.2). Since the topic sentence holds the unifying idea, it should be, thus, clear and concise. If the students know exactly what they need to develop, then writing the other sentences will not be difficult.

In the Experimental Group, the majority of the participants in the post-test appeared to be able to write their topic sentences effectively better. In effect, (86.95%) succeeded to get better scores; against (17.39%) of students in the pre-test (see Appendix 12). This noticeable progression can be attributed to the teacher's instruction and the models presented to them. With the Control Group, however, the participants' scores progression rate remained low (21.73% instead of 13.04%). Hence, modelling appeared to have helped

students of the Experimental Group write effective topic sentences. Yet, models (1), (2) and (8) were favoured most for their easy, simple and clear topic sentences.

Model-text's (1) topic sentence:

*'Now, of course, I know that it was as **difficult being a girl as it was a boy**, if not more so.'*

The two-part topic is to compare being a girl with a boy, which the writer finds it difficult in both cases. The word **difficult** is the controlling idea.

Model-text's (8) topic sentence:

***Arabic** can classify adjectives and adverbs as nouns, but **English** cannot do the same.*

The two-part topic in the sample text (8) is to contrast between Arabic and English languages in classifying adjectives and adverbs within the category of nouns. The writer shows his attitude of contrast using the modals **can** and **cannot**. He even uses the word '*but*' to show contrast.

The following are examples of the Experimental Group's post-test topic sentences.

1. *'People nowadays have more **choices** when it comes to their housing; some prefer the city lifestyle, while others choose the countryside.'*
2. *'There are **lots of differences** between living in city and the countryside.'*
3. *'It is so **difficult to convince** someone lives in a house in the countryside to move into a house in the city.'*

These topic sentences clearly state the topic (house in the village or the city). Each contains a clear controlling idea (*choices, differences, difficult to convince*). More than 50% of students in the Experimental Group preferred placing the topic sentence at the forefront. It seems a logical, direct and simple way to introduce the topic of the paragraph. This fact was also found in the scripts of the Control Group. The following are amongst the (21.73%) best examples of Control Group's post-test topic sentences.

1. ‘**Countryside and city center** are *different* places to live in’.
2. ‘It is common sense that **living in a city center and living in a small village** is *totally different*’.
3. ‘**Between living in a house in a village and living in a city house** there is a lot of *differences*’.

In these examples again, what appears in bold is the two-part topic which is identical and clearly mentioned. The controlling idea in each topic sentence is in *italics* (different or differences).

6.1.1.3. Discussion of Developing Sentences Rubric

The supporting sentences in the paragraph explain and develop the main idea expressed in the topic sentence by giving details, explanations, and examples. These sentences must be clearly written and be arranged in a logical order or an order of importance. The results obtained in this aspect of coherence clarify that students, though succeeded in writing successful topic sentences were not able to provide sufficient evidence to support the theme. Reading (generous or specific) as well as much practice in writing indoors and even outdoors would prove influential.

What can be noticed, however, were the high scores of the Control Group in contrast with the scores of the Experimental Group in terms of developing thoroughly the main idea. This can be attributed to several reasons. First, the flow of ideas when doing a writing task should not be interrupted by referring back to model texts each time. The case which was found with the Experimental Group who seemed constrained and the flow of generating ideas was interrupted. Second, time devoted to analyse, check and read texts, with the Experimental Group, was devoted to think, generate and develop detailing sentences for the Control Group members. Yet, taking an interesting topic to develop helped the students in both groups to benefit from the time devoted to write their

paragraphs. Moreover, the models presented to the Experimental Group were an aid to provide examples of how ideas can be developed but not the same topic is undertaken. This indicates the problem of students to generate ideas in English.

An illustration of how an idea is developed in a comparison and contrast paragraph is the following from the Control Group. (Student's mistakes are kept.)

It is a common sense that living in a city center and living in a small village is totally different. For instance, living in a small village is the suitable place to relax. In a small village, we can find nice scenery, nice view, beautiful rivers and mountains..etc. We can also find less traffic jam, less transportation which lead to the lack of population, so we can breath a fresh air, besides the absence of the traffic jam, we can easily travel from place to place. Whereas, living in the city center is a bit complicated, even though that we can find more opportunities such as finding jobs with high salaries, different tools, places to go to intertaine, in addition to the various equipment, but we also find noisy sounds and crowds everywhere, besides the dangerous pollution that we cannot feel the air. All in all, living in the small village is more comfortable than living in the city.

In this paragraph, the student devoted much space to develop the theme. She presented several features to support both points contrasted. She started with the village (*suitable place to relax, nice scenery, nice view, beautiful rivers and mountains, less traffic jam, less transportation, lack of population...*), then moved to city centre (*more opportunities in finding jobs with high salaries, different tools, places to go to entertain...*). Though the simple sentences used, the student succeeded to support with much evidence her theme. This may be attributed also to the vocabulary used; in that, the student had sufficient words used to support her ideas.

6.1.1.4. Discussion of the Concluding Sentence Rubric

The concluding sentence comes at the end of the paragraph leaving the reader with important points to remember. It summarises the main point of the paragraph and gives the sense of finality. In writing the concluding sentence, the participants of both groups in this

study had followed the teacher's instruction before treatment. Apparently, this criterion was not a serious problem in writing for the students.

Indeed, 60.86% (Table 4.15) of respondents of the Experimental Group and 43.47% (cf. Table 4.15) respondents in the Control Group had no problem writing their concluding sentences and expressed their opinions at the end. For the Experimental Group, a little progression can be felt in the post-test results (amelioration from 52.17% to 69.56%; cf. Table 5.29). This amelioration was due to the teacher's instruction and explanation of the format of the paragraph in previous sessions. Progression was also found in the Control Group where 8.69% (cf. Table 5.16) of participants in the post-test were able to mention effectively the concluding sentences in their scripts and scored 'good' instead of (00%) in the pre-test, and 60.86% (cf. Table 5.16) of them were 'fair'. Therefore, teacher's instruction was their main source to write effectively the concluding sentences.

Yet, forgetting to mention it by (30.43%) (cf. Table 5.16) of participants in the Experimental Group may be attributed to models' effect, since writers in the sample-texts focused on presenting evidence than closing their paragraphs. The students, hence, realised that it is not a must to mention the concluding sentence in the scripts. (21.73%) (cf. Table 5.16) of participants in the Control Group, however, forgot to write their concluding sentences; their much focus was on developing the main idea and providing evidence.

Some examples from the post-test of the Experimental Group:

1. *Finally, both areas are good places to live in, but for me I would like to work in the city at weekdays to earn a living condition and enjoy the perfect services there; then I move would go to the countryside at weekends to take a rest.*
2. *So, it is for the person to choose for himself the best place to live in.*
3. *As a conclusion, it does not matter where you live, the matter is to love where you live and enjoy the moments and memories in such a place.*
4. *In conclusion, living in the countryside is wonderful rather than village.*

In these examples, the students showed clearly their endings, and gave the teacher (reader) an impression of conclusion. Each attempted to summarise his/her paragraph in one sentence, indicating his/her view about the topic, either in favour of one side (example 4), taking both sides as equally important (examples 1 and 3), or leaving it to the reader to decide (example 2).

Further examples from the Control Group's post-test results are the following:

1. *In short, the life style in the city center is absolutely easy, but in the countryside is healthy.*
2. *Personally, I see that living in the countryside is better than living in the city center.*
3. *As a conclusion, the city and village have in the same time good and bad things.*

Again in these examples, the students attempted to end their ideas smoothly. In example (1), the student summed up her paragraph by restating the difference between living in these two places (*one is absolutely easy, and the other is healthy*). In example (2), a personal view is given in favour of *the countryside*. In example (3), however, the student objectively ends her paragraph, showing that both sides of the topic are equal.

Therefore, these results indicate that both groups were similar in their considerations and views about writing the concluding sentence in the paragraph. The majority of respondents considered it as not causing much difficulty.

6.1.2. Discussion of the Thematic Progression Rubric

Once the two-part topic is selected that should be not too limiting and not too broad, the student must remember that a good comparison/contrast paragraph devotes an equal or nearly equal amount of space to each of the two parts. McCloud-Bondoc (2009:31) explains that the point of view can be set clearly if sufficient evidence which helps to support a claim in the topic sentence is provided and adequately discussed, guiding the

reader to understanding. All the sentences in the paragraph should “lead directly to the topic sentence without going off it” (Barrett.1990: 8-9).

Surprisingly, the students’ number in achieving thorough development, as well as relevant and convincing supporting details had noticeably increased in both sample groups of study from the pre-test to the post-test. Instead of 30.43% (cf. Table 5.5) of each group in the pre-test, it was increased in the post-test to 86.95% (cf. Table 5.18) of participants in the Control Group and 78.26% (cf. Table 5.18) of students in the Experimental Group.

This fact indicates that the participants of both groups had had some experience in developing their ideas. Yet, the Control Group members demonstrated a satisfactory development of topic and the relevant details along their paragraphs, better than what the Experimental Group members did. Modelling cannot be then the cause of this progression. The accessible flow of ideas is not linked to modelling only, but rather to experience and practice. Referring to the questionnaire’s results, 34.47% (cf. Table 4.8) of students in the control Group proclaimed that they practise writing daily, against 17.39% (cf. Table 4.8) of the Experimental Group. In addition to the time devoted to accomplish the written task. Unlike the Experimental Group who went on reading and noticing tasks, time for these tasks helped the Control Group members to choose and narrow their topics and eliminate the irrelevant content in paragraphs.

Thematic progression results were changing in a positive direction due to the increase registered in the scores of both groups in the post-test compared to the pre-test. The students of both groups had learnt how to develop their ideas, after becoming familiar with the type or method of development. Thus, this progression may be due to the models presented to the Experiment Group participants who reacted positively to the model-oriented instruction, but certainly can be the result of much experience to the other group.

Students in both groups were aware that there has to be relevance of one sentence to the next to build coherence in the paragraph. The participants in both groups succeeded to

develop their ideas to achieve a unified whole; all of point-by-point method and block method were used. Since it is just a paragraph, the participants of both groups could not find major problems in developing their themes. Moreover, it can be noticed that these participants could have scored better if they were requested to write on a free topic; they could have much vocabulary.

The following is an example of a well-developed paragraph, in which content is logically progressed; thus, paragraph coherence is achieved.

Houses in the city are very different from houses in the village. Almost all houses in the city are small as apartments; on the other hand, houses in the village are very large. Moreover, these houses are full with domestic animals and pets, unlike the city houses. Furthermore, they have traditional dishes and materials; however, the houses in the city have technological stuff. A few numbers of houses are found in the village, but numerous houses and apartments are in the city centre. (Exp. Grp.)

In this example, the first sentence is her topic sentence. She developed her topic (houses in the village and city centre) and the controlling idea (very different) in lucid English, implementing what she had learnt concerning the paragraph's main components. She used the point-by-point method in developing her contrasting ideas. Yet, she forgot to mention the concluding sentence.

The findings in this area of coherence were also in line with those of Wang (2007), and Soleymanzadeh and Gholami (2014) in terms of TP (Thematic Progression) patterns' frequency of use in writing. The overuse of constant progression (CP): the theme of the first clause is selected as the theme of the subsequent clauses as well, was prevailing in the students' writings. This fact goes with the number of sentences (07) given in the paragraph. Assessing coherence through the ratio of (TP) patterns is a real consideration of paragraphs

at discourse level that should be supported to be regarded in evaluation by both teachers and learners (self-assessment).

Examples of CP Pattern

1. (...) **people** can live in their house, sleep until they want to get up and do anything on their own wills, **people** can breathe the fresh air every day. (Ctrl. Grp.)
2. **Central city** is distinct from the village; **central city** is large, crowded and polluted. It has a big number of population. Also **the central city** has the social services that interest the inhabitants. (Exp. Grp.)

In example (1), the theme in the first sentence is ‘people’. The writer informs us about people who can live in their houses and sleep freely to any time they want. What is given about people is the rheme in the sentence. The same theme is used to be the theme of the second sentence: ‘people can breathe...’ Similarly, in example (2), the writer uses the same theme ‘central city’ at the beginning of the three sentences indicated, and follows this theme with a different rheme each time.

Thus, model-texts provided the students in the Experimental Group with the way to order and place sentences or ideas in the logical sequence. The point-by-point and block methods of development were utilised by the participants following the plan of their use in the models. Modelling strategy can be an effective tool, not to generate ideas, but to progress and order the generated ideas logically.

6.1.3. Discussion of Transitions’ Use Rubric

The students under investigation seemed to be unfamiliar with the appropriate use of the desired transitional signals that are required for the comparison and contrast paragraph method of writing. The participants were able to use only the common and familiar transitions, such as **enumeration** (or counting): *first, second, third, next, then, after that, finally*; **addition**: *also, and, furthermore, in addition, moreover, too*; or **illustration**: *for*

instance, for example. This can be noticed mainly in the pre-test results. When the students were asked which method of development they would like to start doing first, they all agreed upon comparison and contrast or argumentative types. Their argument was that they were not familiar with such a method of development. This was one of the causes behind the selection of such a method to be investigated.

However, this fact had soon been altered by the improvement witnessed in the post-test results: from 0% to 17.39 %; 0% to 60.86% (cf. Table 5. 19) having good scores in the Control and the Experimental Group, respectively with 21.73% to 65.21%; 60.86% to 34.78% (cf. Table 5.6 and Table 5.19) having fair level. This improvement can be attributed to the instruction presented, to practise and above all to the models given to the Experimental Group, since this improvement was better seen in the Experimental Group's scores -those who had scored 'poor' or 'inadequate' in the pre-test shifted to better scores in the post-test (cf. Appendix 13). Transitions commonly used in post-test of the Experimental Group and the Control Group are presented in the following table.

Common Transitions	Experimental Group	Control Group
In contrast	6	8
	26.08%	34.78%
But	7	11
	30.43%	47.82%
Because	10	5
	43.47%	21.73%
On the other hand	6	4
	26.08%	17.39%
Also	12	5
	52.17%	21.73%
Whereas	4	3
	17.039%	13.04%
While	3	6
	13.04%	26.08%
And	10	13
	43.47%	56.52%
Moreover	3	1
	13.04%	4.34%
So	6	4
	26.08%	17.39%
In addition to that	7	3
	30.43%	13.04%
Unlike	5	3
	21.73%	13.04%
However	2	4
	8.69%	17.39%
Finally	3	6
	13.04%	26.08%
Besides that	2	1
	8.69%	4.34%
On the contrary	1	1
	4.34%	4.34%
For instance, for example	4	6
	17.39%	26.08%
Furthermore	2	1
	8.69%	4.34%
Because of	4	7
	17.39%	30.43%
First of all	4	2
	17.39%	8.69%
As a conclusion , in conclusion	6	3
	26.08%	13.04%
When	5	3
	21.73%	13.04%
By contrast	1	0
	4.34%	0%
Otherwise	1	0
	4.34%	0%
Similar to	1	0
	4.34%	0%
Like, as	2	0
	4.34%	0%
First	1	4
	4.34%	17.39%
Second	1	4
	4.34%	17.39%

Table 6.1. Transitions Commonly Used in the Experimental and the Control Group's Post-test

As it can be noticed, in both groups the focus was on simple and commonly used transitions. The conjuncts ‘and, but, also and because’ had been the most frequently used. The conjunction ‘and’, for instance, was used by (56.52%) of the respondents in the Control Group, and by (43.47%) of respondents in the Experimental Group. Similarly, the conjunct ‘but’ was used by (47.82%) in the Control Group and by (30.43%) in the Experimental Group. For the adverb ‘also’ it was the choice of (52.17%) in the Experimental Group compared to (21.73%) in the Control Group. Same score can be registered with ‘because’, which was used by (43.47%) of respondent of the Experimental Group and (21.73%) in the Control Group who preferred to use ‘because of’ instead. As for the transitions which are typical to the method of development selected, all of the conjuncts ‘in contrast, on the other hand, whereas, while and unlike’ were used by the respondents in the two groups with a little variation. The score was between (17.39%) to (34.78%). Yet, ‘on the contrary, otherwise and by contrast’ were used by just (4.34%) of students for each group. Notice the following illustrations:

1. *The houses in the countryside are far away from noise and they have fresh air. **In contrast**, the houses in the city centre are near from noise of cars and they lack fresh air because of the smoke of factories.*(Exp. Grp.)
2. *Living in the city can be noisy and crowded that’s why it is tiring and often waste of time. **On the other hand**, outside of the city is so calm and quiet which makes the living there relaxing.* (Exp. Grp)
3. *‘The countryside is a calm place, you find yourself relax and happy, **whereas** the village is always noisy and makes you wait in any place.* ((Exp. Grp)
4. ***In addition to that**, living in the city is more comfortable with furniture of high quality.* (Exp. Grp)
5. ***Also**, people in the countryside live a healthy life because of the natural fresh food, **unlike** food in the central city which is polluted by the traffic air.* ((Exp. Grp)
6. ***First of all**, centre city is too noisy because of crowds in it, **otherwise** the countryside is so quiet.* ((Exp. Grp)

In these examples, the transitional words and phrases are used appropriately to link two contrasting parts of a paragraph to help one sentence glide into another, as well as to shift the ideas from one sentence to the next. The adequate use of these words shows how discourse is constructed (Swan. 2005). An accurate use of transitions leads to a coherent paragraph, and on the contrary, an inaccurate use of them leads to a doubtful one. The students in the Experimental Group noticed the frequent use of the simple conjuncts ‘*and*, *but* and *so*’ in the sample texts. This helped them write similar constructions in their own compositions. There was more coordination in students’ compositions due to the frequent use of “and” or “but” to link sentences or ideas, in the same direction as Al-Sharah’s 1988 study. The following extract is an illustration of the models given to the Experimental Group.

‘(..) In contrast, English adjectives and adverbs do not behave like nouns. Nouns in English can be pluralized, but adjectives and adverbs cannot. Nouns in English can take determiners before them, but adjectives and adverbs cannot (..).’

(Sample 8, cf. Appendix 2)

Similar results can be found with the Control Group. This indicates the artless style of the students and their lack of reading in general. A question can be raised in this context which is ‘if the researcher had used samples that contain different transitional signals, could the participants have had a better use of them in their scripts?’ Yet, the students in the Experimental Group realised that though transitional signals in the models (samples 4, 5 and 7) are a few, coherence is achieved; ideas are logically sequenced. Using transitions, then, is a helpful aid to get coherence but not an end in itself.

6.1.4. Discussion of Referencing Rubric

Most students under study appeared to be moderate in their use of referencing as a technique to avoid useless repetition and heighten their style of writing to be more academic. In literature, referential forms are the forms which make reference to

something else for their interpretation. The most common reference markers are pronouns that take the place of nouns in the antecedent sentences. As a result, all these references tie sentences together keeping the reader's mind on the idea being discussed. It is important to make sure what noun (antecedent) the pronoun is pointing to or one can cause confusion instead of coherence in the paragraph.

Personal Reference including its three classes: personal pronouns, possessive determiners and possessive pronouns are among the most salient and common references used in the corpus (pre- and post- tests). They refer to a relevant person or thing by specifying its role in the specific situation. Their appropriate use was even better improved. A comparison of the results obtained from both tests indicate that from (00%) in pre-test to (13.04%) who got 'good' level in the post-test in the Control Group, and from (69.56%) to (91,30%) who got 'fair' level in the Experimental Group. Moreover, just (13.04%) students (cf Table 4.8) seemed to misuse or over-use references in their paragraphs; the number of those who got poor level had reduced (from 21.73% to 13.04% in the Control Group and from (21.73% to 4.34%) in the Experimental Group. Consider the following examples as they appeared in the corpus:

1. *There was a white house with big windows; **it** was made up of rocks and mag.*
2. *Some village houses are big like the city houses. **They** are plenty of modern and technological materials.*
3. ***People** in the city enjoy to some special facilities; **they** can go shopping and buy everything **they** need.*
4. *The person may find **himself** away from all hustle. (Reflexive pronoun)*

In example (1) there is the personal pronoun 'it' which refers to 'a white house' in the text. In the example (2), there is the personal pronoun 'they' which refers to 'some village houses', from another paragraph. The identity of reference in both cases exists within the text, hence the reference is endophora or (textual) and typically anaphora-presupposition of

information referred to previously in the preceding sentence (Hinkle 2002). Taking the example (3), the pronoun 'they' functions anaphorically; it refers to the word 'people' mentioned previously in the text. Reflexive pronouns are also used by the participants. The frequency of references commonly used in post-test can be summarised in the following table.

Again as can be depicted in the Table 6.2., below, four pronouns were most frequently used by the participants in both groups. These are 'it, I, they and we' respectively, which seem 'anaphoras' referring to preceding texts. This also justifies the use of CP type of thematic progression by most of the students. In fact, these are the reference types used even in the sample texts presented. '*It*' was used by 15 students (65, 21%) in the Experimental Group compared to (47.82%) in the Control Group. 'I' was used by (52.17%) of participants in the Control Group compared to (26.08%) in the Experimental Group; while 'they' was the choice of (26.08%) to (30.43%) in each group of study. The pronoun 'we' was also used by (34.78%) of students in the Control Group compared to (17.39%) in the Experimental Group. Noticeably, reflexive pronouns were of little use, in both groups.

Generally, to get a coherent whole, student-writers often need to find other words or phrases to substitute for the key word, so they will not have to repeat it over and over again. Even more common is the use of pronouns to refer to key words-referents (Scrivener. 2010).

References	Experimental Group	Control Group
	Freq. %	Freq. %
It	15	11
	65.21%	47.82%
Its	0	6
	0%	26.08%
Their	3	4
	13.04%	17.39%
Others	2	0
	8.69%	0%
Him	2	1
	8.69%	4.34%
Which	6	2
	26.04%	8.69%
They	7	6
	30.43%	26.08%
Each other	3	1
	13.04%	4.34%
I	6	12
	26.04%	52.17%
There	7	7
	30.43%	30.43%
This	3	1
	13.04%	4.34
Both	3	5
	13.04%	21.73
You	7	3
	30.43%	13.04
Everything	5	1
	21.73%	4.34%
Whatever	1	0
	4.34%	0%
Nothing	1	0
	4.34%	0
Yourself	1	0
	4.34%	0%
Me	2	3
	8.69%	13.04%
Our	3	5
	13.04%	21.73%
One	2	3
	8.69%	13.04%
Them	2	2
	8.69%	8.69%
We	4	8
	17.39%	34.78%
My	2	3
	8.69%	13.04%
Everyone	1	1
	4.34%	4.34%
He	1	3
	4.34%	13.04%
Us	1	1
	4.34%	4.34%
Himself	1	1
	4.34%	4.34%

Table 6.2. The Frequency of References Commonly used in Groups' Post-test

6.1.5. Discussion of Repetition Rubric

The repeated use of key words and phrases in a number of times in a paragraph helps in making a connection between sentences and maintains continuity among them, holding the readers' attention at the idea being dealt with. Noticeably, key words are repeated effectively by most of the students in both groups. Repeating key words is part of achieving better text understanding and assuring unity and relevance throughout the whole paragraph, mainly the repetition of the same item, or correct use of collocation -systemic relation of any sequence of words that go together and “co-occur regularly”(Celce-Murcia & Olshtain. 2000:235). Nevertheless, this improvement can be clearly felt in the scripts of students after conducting the experiment. The most repetitious words are those related to the topic discussed. Thus, the common key words repeated are ‘countryside, city centre, houses, village, people, living.’ Consider the following example:

*Secondly, **people living** in the **city** enjoy **job** opportunities, facilities, and convenient services of trade, health and entertainment; while **people living** in the **countryside** gain better **living** environment. Thirdly, in the **countryside** most **people** do farming. On the other hand, **people** move to the **city** for **jobs** in companies or factories. (Exp.Grp)*

In this example, the word ‘people’ is repeated four times in this extract only, which is just part of a paragraph. The same can be said for the word ‘living’, and ‘countryside’. This repetition indicates that these words are essential to the reader to understand what the whole text is about. They help in building oneness and unity as well as relevance. Thus, one topic is dealt with throughout the whole paragraph, which contributes to achieve coherence.

6.1.6. Discussion of the Synonyms' Use Rubric

Virtually, what is really lacking in the students' scripts is the synonyms' use. Using synonyms is also considered as a key factor to reach coherence in writing. The students under study could not grasp that using synonymous expressions, to substitute for key words, would improve the quality of their written pieces and make them more coherent. Even with the teacher's instruction and models' presentation, the participants in both groups appeared to be unfamiliar of synonyms' use. Their vocabulary choice and use seemed under the level estimated. They still had problems to handle the native-like way of writing, with poor and ineffective vocabulary use. They just attempted to avoid the use of synonyms to avoid making errors, which makes their whole style look too simple and a little bit childish! This fact can be attributed to the lack of reading in general, and reading academic publication in English, in particular. For this, (78.26%) to (91.30%) of students in each group still need further instruction and practice through reading sufficient model texts that enable them be better writers. A few exceptions are the following:

1. *Both areas are good in some way and have disadvantages.(intended city and countryside)*
2. *While in **the countryside** we barely find one or two stores (...) there is no way to even move inside **the village**.*

Yet, one cannot expect all of our students to achieve a high standard of expressive writing in an EFL class. As teachers, we shall be satisfied if they are able to write what they want to say with clarity and precision, as Rivers (1981:295) puts it.

6.2. Discussion of Coherence Problems in Students' Paragraphs

The analysis of the students' writing compositions revealed the following types of inadequacies in achieving coherence. Each type will be illustrated by at least one example.

When a text lacks coherence, a reader (the teacher in this case) very often finds himself forced to stop reading it because he cannot make a complete sense of it. Creating coherence in texts requires intensive and ongoing training in teaching writing. Most of the problems that students encounter in producing coherent texts are manifest in their inability to maintain information flow of senses in their paragraphs. Students' attention should be drawn to the fact that a text should display all the nine areas discussed earlier to qualify as coherent. Yet, some traits are considered as of pivotal importance without which the written performance could turn to be inadequate.

1. Inadequacies in the topic sentence: As a major break in this area of coherence, (52.17%) of the Experimental Group participants, however, tend to write ineffective topic sentences, which are too general, lack clear controlling idea or poorly stated. They sometimes do not know which part of this statement is to be developed through supporting details. Consider the following examples (spelling and grammatical mistakes are left as they are):

1. *Living in the city centre can make peoples' life easier but tyring, in contrast living in the village can be comfortable but hard sometimes.* (Ctrl Grp.)

This is a one-sentence paragraph. The student is confusing between a paragraph topic sentence and an essay thesis statement.

2. *In the big cities we found that it's full of people unlike countryside which had a small member of inhabitants.* (Exp. Grp.)

In the examples (2), what is mentioned is not really the topic sentence that needs to be developed in the coming sentences. The topic sentence is just one of the detailing sentences.

3. ***Everything always has two sides.** The front side and the back side or the positive and negative one. And so does living in a city or living in countryside.* (Ctrl Grp.)

Example (3), however, is a general statement that cannot be developed in just one paragraph, since no clear controlling idea is stated (positive side and negative side of each of the parts of the topic, while the student is required to compare or contrast between them.

4. ***Living in the country side's house and living in centre city's house. Life in village is different because their houses is wide and big, had gardens.*** (Exp. Grp)

In example (4), what is in bold is an incomplete topic sentence that lacks a main verb and the controlling idea; it looks like a title that contains only the topic.

Students could not know how to put the topic sentence or completely forget to write it.

The following is an illustration.

1. *In the countryside there is a house it has a wide rooms, two bathrooms and a garden in front of it.* (Ctrl. Grp.)
2. *The house in town is lovely, because it is very noisy by the cars and people. And it contains many problems like pollution; for example, the pollution of air, earth and water and its effects on the person's healthy. In contrast, the house in village, it is very calm and it contains fresh air from the trees. So as a conclusion I think the best place to live the house of village.* (Exp. Grp.)

In these examples, students were not aware of the logical relations existing between sentences, and the paragraph development patterns that require logical sequencing of ideas.

2. Inadequacies in thematic progression: With regard to coherence problems, Richards and Renandya (2002) assert that the EFL students' difficulty emanates both from generating and organising ideas and translating these ideas into readable text. Ambiguity and generalisation should be supported with detail, analysis and examples to clarify the intended central idea to make it clear to the reader. The students in both groups are supposed to use simple sentences rather than compound complex sentences, which reflect their style in English.

Some types of coherence breaks in the area of thematic progression regard the organisation of the points to be discussed in the paragraph. If the writer is interested in only one of the topics, the danger is that the paragraph will end up being one-sided. Some students of both groups were unable to provide balance of evidence between the two points being contrasted. Consider the following example. (Mistakes in mechanics are left as they are.)

<i>Life in village and city</i>	
Point 1	<p><i>In the first glance, we can see the difference between life in village and city, first of all, life in city is very difecult and hard, because it need rapidlely and time, while the village life is very simple, easy, no cars, no much people, full of gardens and animals, calm, houses made of stone and brick, it looks very gay with its red-tiled roof, wooden building with a tach roof, so for that life in village is better than city.</i></p> <p><i>As a conclusion, life is good and beautiful, in addition, you know how live it.</i></p>
	Point 2
(Exp. Grp)	

The signs of "point 1" and "point 2" outside the box represent the two parts of the topic to be discussed: point 1=city; point 2= village

The bolded words are the student's topic sentence. What is noticed, in this example, is the absence of clear balance between ideas related to the two points present in the topic sentence. The student starts dealing with city life and provides evidence which is short, then moves to the village which she supports by some statements and facts that show her real focus of interest (subjective). Even the concluding sentence is a general statement according to what preceded. Information should be organised logically, and be mutually accessible and relevant in order to create a meaningful whole that a reader can understand.

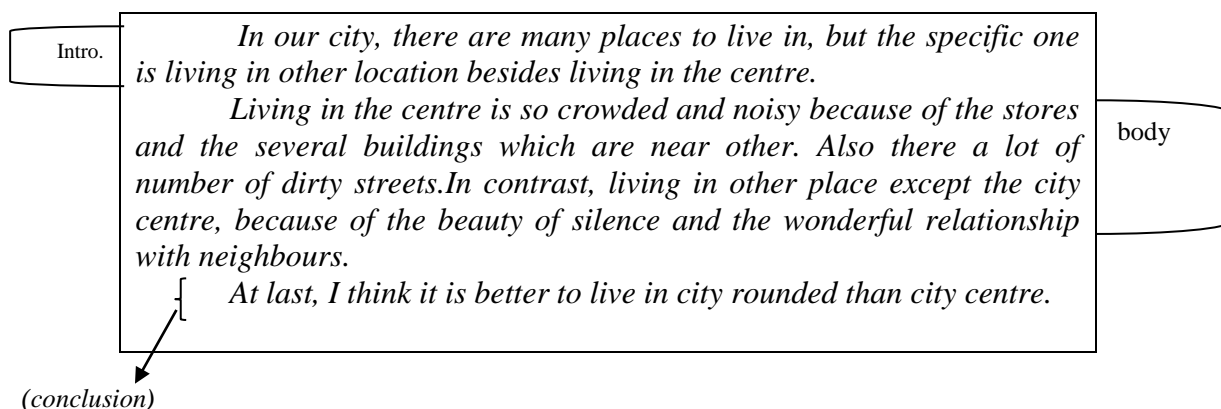
Another frequent type of coherence break was noticed in the compositions of the students is a poor paragraph development. There is a tendency to leave too much space for the topic or introductory sentence at the expense of the other elements. An example of this inadequacy is the following. (Mistakes are left not corrected)

No one can deny the fact that human beings are in need to houses where they spend their lives. But, what I'm going to tackle is how the location of the houses is important? i.e. Houses in the countryside and houses in the city centre. First of all, the houses in countryside are far away from noise and they have a fresh air. Also, in the countryside all people know each other. In contrast, the houses in the city centre are near from noise of cars and they lack fresh air because of the smoke of the factories.

(Exp.Grp)

This coherence break is the lack of balance in length between the main parts of the paragraph. In effect, students may dedicate a lot of attention to one point of the issue under discussion in a few sentences, but quickly dismiss the other point by writing comparatively much shorter in size. This fact makes reading laborious for readers. In the example above, the reader expects a lot to be detailed after reading the first few lines introducing the topic.

In some other scripts, there is a tendency to divide one paragraph into three or more sections or sub-paragraphs by indenting each sentence. Example of this type of error is the following:



This example shows that the student does not know or forgets that a paragraph is a number of interconnected sentences that develop one main idea. The topic sentence and the concluding sentence belong to the same block. Some students confuse between the essay and the paragraph (negative transfer from L2 itself due to lack of knowledge). In this concern, de Beaugrande and Dressier (1981) argue that 'paragraphing is the way of

distributing and organizing the content of a text in English', to see if the main elements are in relation with each other and coherent with the topic being discussed.

3. A limited variety of connectives or transitional signals: A relationship of contrast between two sentences or paragraphs, for example, can be indicated through using several connectives 'although, instead, nevertheless, on the contrary, despite, on the other hand, different from, otherwise, even though, still, in contrast with, whereas...', and not simply the linking words 'however' and 'but'. The students had been provided with a list of the common transitions used in comparison and contrast method of development during the instruction phase; this indicates that they were aware of these connectors. However, their limited use in the students' texts proves that the participants need to see and analyse further examples of their appropriate use. Some other connectives, if used, were improperly spelled, such as 'In other hand, enclusion, wheres, by the contrary', intended respectively 'on the other hand, in conclusion, whereas, on the contrary or by contrast'. In effect, in order to avoid a choppy style and making it easy to express complicated ideas, it is essential to know/learn how to combine simple sentences correctly by using coordination. To understand coordination, any writer should be sure to know the meaning of what a clause, an independent clause and a compound sentence are (Wen. 2007).

4. Inadequacies in using references appropriately: The misuse of the personal pronouns can be clearly felt in some of the students' scripts. This is illustrated as follows:

1. Finally **both** has **its** benefits in living style.
2. **This** houses are near from many kinds of noise.
3. Life in village is different because **their** houses is wide and big.
4. I told him that everything **are** near to us instead **their** because of schools, markets and even bus stations.

In example (1), the pronoun ‘its’ is used instead of the ‘their’. The student in this case may have problems in plural and singular system ‘both has’. This is also the case of example (2). In example (3) it is ambiguous to know the referent of the pronoun ‘their’, since nothing has been mentioned before. This ambiguity can be solved if the word ‘people’ is used.

6.3. Discussion of Other Common Problems in Students’ Writings

In addition to the aforementioned areas of coherence, it can be noted that the participants made some errors in other important areas in paragraph writing that contribute in its overall quality. Though they were not classified as coherence elements in this study, their treatment is inevitable. Errors in these areas are viewed as important since they deteriorate the written performance low in terms of effectiveness.

1. Run-on sentences: Punctuation can serve as a guide for readers to make sense of the writer’s ideas without which the text will not communicate much of the desired meaning (Harmer 2004). A number of punctuation marks still cause doubt and confusion to students, such as ‘is it a comma to use or a semi-colon?’ Students most of the time, even those whose scripts were regarded as good, tend to join sentences with each other, using a comma instead of a full stop or a semicolon. A whole paragraph sometimes has only one full stop at the end. It is up to the reader (teacher) to pick up the sentences. The following is an illustration (extracted from the Experimental Group copies).

1. Living in house in the city is different from living in the country, first of all, house in the city is safe and secure because it will be surrounded by the other houses and buildings; in addition house there is more comfortable that’s mean furniture high quality, luxuries also the city has everything and all what you need, stores, cinemas, café shops, parks, and gardens...when you return at home you relief and take rest; in contrast to have a house in the country is dangerous because of the separation and isolation, no security, no safety, if you go to live in country, nothing is available and no intertaining places to visit, everything is boring without technology, without pleasure.

In this example, the student does not know the basic punctuation conventions. For example, each underlined word should be followed by a full stop (for further examples see Appendix 14). Although the use of the semi-colon is correct, yet the full stop is needed to separate complete sentences. A paragraph is not just a juxtaposition of sentences without being controlled by punctuation rules. Other examples can be considered:

2. *Our family was moving from our old house and we didn't agree on wich one between the two houses we got offered. The first one is located in the city centre, it's a midsize house contain two rooms and **a guest room**, it has no garage because its on the second floor, the house is fully furnished and its very affordable. While the other house is **far from civilisation** in countryside, its much bigger than the first one with a large garage and few more rooms in 2nd floor ...*

(Ctrl. Grp.).

3. *However, the house city is amply for all what we need in dially life, although is noisy but **it's comfortable and security, peace**.* (Ctrl. Grp.)

This kind of error -common among learners- can be attributed to two main causes. First, errors are due to negative transfer from the students' mother tongue, Arabic. In Arabic, it is common to have a paragraph consisting of 7-10 sentences with only one full stop at the end; you can hardly find two or more Arabic sentences without being connected by a conjunction instead of a full stop. Second, teachers' attention is usually focused on sentence structure, grammatical correctness and spelling rather than the skill of writing and its components. Because of these uncertainties, most students' failure in writing partly originate in their incapacities to set a musical and rhythmical mode to their sentences.

2- Style and word choice inappropriateness (pragmatic failures): At some cultural level, "our shared schemata [rules and conventions] help us to communicate with each other successfully" Harmer (2001: 247). For achieving such a purpose, there are socio-cultural rules, or "shared cultural habits" as mentioned by Harmer (ibid) that determine the choice of words and style in a certain context (e.g., how formal to be and what kind of language to use: direct, indirect, polite or impolite, taking into consideration gender, professional status

and different societies). These rules are usually hard to grasp for NNS (Hinkel, 2002), and thus these rules may be misinterpreted in certain (non-conventional) situations, such as some punctuation conventions like capitalisation of names, months and the pronoun *I* which are specific to only a few languages. The use of the appropriate target style may be influenced by the learner's use of these forms in their mother tongue. Thus, EFL students sometimes use certain words in wrong contexts. Such inadequacies render the students writing vague and awkward. Boudehane (2015) defines style as the vocabulary selected (simple or large), tone used (formal or informal) and the sentence construction (complex or simple, native like or non-native like) should be valued.

Examples: The erroneous forms are in bold and the corrections are in brackets.

1. *It's a midsize house contain two rooms and a **guest room** (a sitting-room).*

2. *Life in the city is difficult and hard, because of **rapidity** and **time**.*

(Exp. Grp.)

In these examples, the influence of the students' mother tongue can be clearly felt. In example (1) a guest room is غرفة الضيوف. In example (2), rapidity and time intended السرعة و الوقت. Though it is a hard task, EFL students need to develop an English way of writing; this will be among the weighable roles and burdensome responsibilities of the EFL teacher. In fact, what was considered in the view of a non-native speaker teacher as coherent and acceptable piece, it might turn to be unacceptable or awkward in the view of a native speaker teacher of English. Then, one reason concerning cohesion and coherence deficiency may be the unawareness of pragmatic difference, as already discussed and proved in Liu and Qi's (2010) study. Consider the following passage written by one of the participants.

(..) *By contrast the house in the centre of the village is live in movement life with noisy of the people and a lot cars , but when you want anything, you will find so near, because the existence of the **magazine** also you will be a social person live with group of people are different of you. (Copy M, Exp, G., post-test)*

In this example, the student lacks familiarity with certain stylistic and textual features of English written discourse. This implies that the student had little idea on how to write well and develop ideas in a manner that conforms to the conventions of writing in English. The word ‘magazine’, for instance, is a French word ‘magasin’ to mean ‘shop-store’ in English; here again is a negative transfer. This finding strengthens the view of Coady and Escamilla (2005) that students who speak more than one language transfer from multiple cultures and language practices as they write.

3. Non-parallel Structures: In a complex sentence that consists of two or more clauses, or in case of making a list of things, the participants sometimes list phrases or clauses that are not parallel in structure. Consider the following examples:

1. Streets are well-lighted and they can go shopping and buy everything they need it because they live in comfortable houses that everything exist not like the village...

(Exp. Grp.)

*2. It's **comfortable** and **security**, **peace**.*

*3. It is so noisy and **pollution** air.*

(Ctrl, Grp)

In the first example, the two sentences are not parallel; in that the first clause is about ‘the streets’, while the second it is about ‘people’ (they). In the second example, the words listed do not belong to the same class: ‘adjective+ noun+ noun’, which is intended (adj.+ adj.+ adj.): it is *comfortable, secure and peaceful*. The same remark can be given to the third example: ‘it is so noisy with polluted air’. This practice which is common among our learners renders their writing awkward. If parallelism was considered as a linking device, then with the absence of parallel structures, texts would turn to be incoherent.

In sum, it is worth noting that coherence in English paragraph writing or even in essay writing can also be maintained through an appropriate use of English punctuation convention and pragmatic competence (style and word choice). It can also be maintained through parallel structures. Teachers in EFL classrooms have to boost students in well-planned activities to tighten up their sentences and to rearrange them to achieve different effects and stylistic choices that professional writers make.

6.4. Analysis of Post-experiment Questionnaire on Modelling Strategy

Use

For further testing the usefulness of modelling strategy for enhancing the student's paragraph coherence and writing effectiveness, the researcher has designed follow-up questions to know about the participants' perceptions of using model-texts. The questions are devoted to both groups of study: The Experimental Group's experience of using models, and the Control Group's view of future use. The researcher encodes the filled checklists in forms of tables to compare results of both groups. This instrument is another tool to check the findings obtained from the post-test designed.

6.4.1. Analysis of Post-experiment Questionnaire to Experimental Group

The participants of the Experimental Group show little knowledge of comparison and contrast method in writing before being exposed to model texts. Observing the participants doing noticing tasks during the post-test, the researcher has noticed that the majority of the participants in the Experimental Group could understand the characteristics of this paragraph method of development that they are expected to abide by. The researcher, then, has asked them follow-up questions about their perceptions of using model-texts. Five questions of different types were designed: open questions, 3-likert scale questions and 5-likert scale questions.

Q1. How do you value using the given texts as models for writing your own assignment?

This question is set to know the participants' perception on the usefulness of models presented to them during the writing task. Is it helpful or not for students to accomplish their own written assignment? The following table shows the findings of the participants' comments. A three Likert-scale response was used to elicit the help received from the samples to foster the writing process.

Degree	Helpful	Uncertain	Unhelpful	Total
Students	20	2	1	23
	86.95%	08.69%	04.34%	100%

Table 6.3. Experimental Group Value to Models' Use in Writing

As indicated in the table above, of the total respondents (N=23), (86.95%) in the Experimental Group opted for the use of model texts as a helpful means to develop the quality of their writing assignments. Conversely, (08.69%) were uncertain of its efficiency as they could not cope with the new experience of using models while composing. Again, (04.34%) of students had a negative response about the usefulness of models to foster writing effectiveness considering it as a waste of time to generate more ideas. To know more about in what ways models can be useful to the students. The following question is of concern.

Q2. Point out the sample paragraph which you most feel at ease to read and follow:

- a. sample 1 b. sample 2 c. sample 3 d. sample 4 e. sample 5 f. sample 6 g. sample 7 h. sample 8**

The participants in the Experiment Group were given eight (8) sample-texts of different topics that vary in terms of authenticity (cf. Appendix 2); yet, all these exemplars have the same method of development comparison and contrast with its two variations:

point-by-point method and block method. When asked about which of them they found useful, the respondents provided the following results.

Sample Paragraph	Students
Sample 1	6
	26.08%
Sample 2	1
	4.34%
Sample 3	1
	4.34%
Sample 4	2
	8.69%
Sample 5	2
	8.69%
Sample 6	2
	8.69%
Sample 7	1
	4.34%
Sample 8	4
	17.39%
No answer	4
	17.39%

Table 6.4. Experimental Group Selection to Sample Paragraphs

As it is noticed, two sample texts were generally considered as helpful. The sample text number (1) was the choice of (26.08%) of respondents (N=23). This model is a simple paragraph from Julius Lester's All Is Well. In the paragraph, the writer used the point-by-point method to compare the difficulties of being a boy in a particular society a generation ago with the difficulties of being a girl at that same time. In this sample, after the opening topic sentence, the writer uses half of each sentence to describe a boy's situation growing up and the other half to describe a girl's experience. This technique proved to be helpful in making clear the points of comparison that can be made. This method helps the students keep the comparison and contrast carefully in mind at each point. The second important model text which was selected by (17.39%) is the sample number (8). This sample paragraph is written by Alkhuli (1999), comparing and contrasting between Arabic and English adjectives and adverbs. Through this example, the students found themselves sharing the same way of thinking since it is related to their L1. So, the content in both

sample texts selected (1 and 8) plays a great role to select which paragraph to read first and be affected by. The other samples were also the choice of other participants, one or two students in each sample. Noticeably, (17.39%) of students had no choice; they might be confused of which model was the most helpful, or they simply avoided answering. In fact, no one can deny the fact that F.L students are in need for simple, clear and lucid language and content to follow and read for communication to occur.

Q3. In which areas do models help you write your own assignment? Please circle the number that reflects the degree to which you agree with the statement about what you benefited from the model paragraph.

5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 =uncertain 2= Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

This part of the checklist includes 11 sub-questions in a 5-likert scale type used to measure the students' agreement on some statements designed to know in which areas in writing these models provide help to them. Responses varied as students varied in their use of these models. Results gathered are tabulated as follows.

Area	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	disagree	Strongly uncertain	Total
1.Vocabulary/expressions are repeated consistently.	5	14	3	0	1	23
	21.73%	60.86%	13.04%	0%	4.34%	100%
2. References are used appropriately and accurately	5	9	8	1	0	23
	21.73%	39.13%	34.78%	4.34%	0%	100%
3. New information is introduced in an appropriate ma	14	8	1	0	0	23
	60.86%	34.78%	4.34%	0%	0%	100%
4. Punctuation is employed appropriately to separate ideas and sentences.	11	6	6	0	0	23
	47.82%	26.08%	26.08%	0%	0%	100%
5.The beginning section is effective in introducing the subject.	6	10	6	1	0	23
	26.08%	43.47%	26.08%	4.34%	0%	100%
6-The ideas in the paragraph are relevant to the topic.	10	7	5	1	0	23
	43.47%	30.43%	21.73%	4.34%	0%	100%
7-The ideas are well-related to one another.	8	7	3	3	2	23
	34.78%	30.43%	13.04%	13.04%	8.69%	100%
8-Transition between sentences is smooth.	11	5	6	0	1	23
	47.82%	21.73%	26.08%	0%	4.34%	100%
9-The ending gives the reader a definite sense of closure.	6	11	3	1	2	23
	26.08%	47.82%	13.04%	4.34%	8.69%	100%

Table 6.5. Areas Noticed in Models Helpful to the Experimental Group in Writing Assignment

First, in terms of providing useful and consistent vocabulary or expressions, (21.73%) of the respondents (N=23) agreed strongly, and (60.86%) agreed; while (13.04%) were uncertain of this fact; against (4.34%) of the respondents who strongly disagreed. Accordingly, as it is noticed, the (82.56%) of the respondents did agree with the usefulness of models to enrich vocabulary use and choice.

Second, the participants were asked about referencing in the noticing task whether it is used appropriately and accurately in the paragraphs given as samples, and if they really had benefited from these elements to compose their own drafts. The results are that (21.73%) strongly agreed, and (39.13%) agreed with the utility of models to get knowledge about the appropriate references. Furthermore, (34.78%) of the respondents were uncertain; against (4.34%) of the participants who disagree with its usefulness. Meanwhile, (60.86%) of the respondents were with using model texts to enhance the appropriate use of references in paragraphs.

Third, as for the way of introducing information, (95.64%) of the respondents again positively opted for the usefulness of model texts. We have (60.86%) strongly agreed with the fact that models can be utile in showing them how information of any kind is introduced in the written text. Besides, (34.87%) were also in favour of this fact; while (4.34%) of students were uncertain. Noticeably, (00%) refused the utility of sample texts. Thus, the students' real problem lies in generating relevant ideas for the topic.

Fourth, when the students were asked if models can show them how punctuation is employed appropriately to separate ideas and sentences (73.90%) of them answered positively. We have (47.82%) of the respondents strongly agreed, while (26.08%) agreed; against (26.8%) of participants were uncertain. Meanwhile, (4.34%) of students disagreed. Hence, 95.64% of the respondents opted for the model texts' usefulness. Of paramount importance, thus, for EFL writing instructors to make reading and writing connections to enable their students see how punctuation marks are being judiciously used. In effect, what

should be shown and clarified to students is the significance of using punctuation marks in their texts by making them aware of that through reading because it pictures how those marks are actually used.

As for an effective topic or introducing sentence, (26.08%) strongly agreed, and (43.47%) simply agreed on the fact that providing them with model paragraphs enhanced their choice of a good beginning section to their own writing. These participants agreed these model texts helped them in getting fruitful knowledge about the appropriate way to make the essential point in the paragraph clear. Noticeably, (26.08%) of respondents in the Experiment Group were uncertain of the efficiency of such a strategy, while (04.34%) of student were totally against the usefulness of models. Thus, (69.55%) considered models as helpful and useful in writing introductory sentences.

Again, for developing the ideas in the paragraph that are relevant to the topic tackled, (43.47%) of the total respondents (N=23) strongly agreed with the utility of samples texts, and (30.43%) simply agreed. On the other hand, (21.73%) were uncertain of models' utility; against (04.34%) of students who disagreed with this fact. Meanwhile, the (73.90%) of the respondents in the Experiment Group were with the use of model.

Knowing how the ideas can be well-related to one another may cause problems to the students while composing their own drafts. Since then, (73.90%) of the students agreed with the help that can be provided through modelling. Among them, there are (34.78%) of the respondents who strongly agreed, and (30.43%) just agreed upon the utility of model texts, while three (13.04%) were uncertain; against (13.04%) who disagreed and (08.69%) strongly disagreed with the models' use. Yet, the usefulness of the sample texts was agreed upon by (73.90%) of the respondents in the experiment group.

Using transitional signals smoothly to link sentences and ideas was seen to be facilitated through modelling strategy by (69.55%) of the respondents in the Experiment Group. There are (47.82%) of students who strongly agreed on its efficiency,

and (21.73%) simply agreed, while (26.08%) of students were uncertain; against (4.34%) of students who strongly disagreed with the models. Thus, according to the responses collected, using model texts can really be of valuable use to the students while composing.

Similarly, with the last point in the table i.e. whether the ending gives the reader a definite sense of closure, (73.90%) of the respondents agreed on the benefit they had drawn from the samples to get an idea about how their concluding sentences can be effective. The results are that (26.08%) strongly agreed upon the usefulness of sample texts, and (47.82%) agreed, while (13.04%) were uncertain, and (13.04%) of the respondents, however, disagreed. Noticeably, modelling strategy proved to be utile for students.

In general, the Experiment Group's responses indicate that (35.46%) of the total respondents (N=23) strongly agreed, and (36.92%) simply agreed for the efficient use of modelling to enhance overall coherence in writing. In fact, all these areas are to assure coherence in the students' writing. Thus, according to them, using model texts in classrooms may help the students to get rid of several coherence problems.

Q4. How do you value the support you received from your tutor during the writing of your assignment?

The following table shows the findings of the participants' comments about their *tutor's support* during the writing task. A three Likert-scale response was used to elicit the help received from the teacher to foster the writing process.

Degree	Helpful	Uncertain	Unhelpful	Total
Students	22	1	0	23
	95.65%	4.34%	0%	100%

Table 6.6. Experimental Group Value of Tutor's Support during the Writing Task

As the table above indicates, (95.65%) of the participants considered their instructor as helpful; against (4.34%) of students who were uncertain. This noticeable finding clarifies the importance of the EFL teacher in facilitating the learning process. Distinguishably, as what is noticed among the students in the Experiment Group who opted for the help provided by the instructor, (39.13%) considered their tutor as information provider; (43.47%) considered him as a facilitator and guide in getting knowledge; (8.69%) looked at the instructor as providing them with much practice. (8.69%) appreciated the help of the teacher, but they provided no justification for their choice. The teacher was viewed as an explainer, involver and above all enabler as Scrivener (2011) put it. The following table summarises the aforementioned findings.

Tutor' s Support	Students and Values
Information provider	9
	39.13%
Much practice	2
	8.69%
Guide /facilitator	10
	43.47%
Good method	7
	30.43%
No answer	2
	8.69%
Note: <i>One student may have several answers.</i>	

Table 6.7. Tutor's Types of Support for the Experimental Group

The aforementioned coding analyses were structured from the comments of the respondents. The category *Tutor' support* is a deductive code from the questionnaire; the sub-categories are inductive codes arising from the analysis.

Q5. What other comments and suggestions would you like to add to the usefulness of models in achieving successful writing?

The following table summarises the Experimental Group participants' comments about using model-texts during the writing task as a technique to enhance coherence and

the students' overall writing quality. Their suggestions and common responses are tabulated using frequency and percentage.

Comments	Students and Values
Models help in organising ideas and thoughts.	5
	21.73%
Much practice is provided with a variety of examples	16
	69.56%
Reading opportunity is found.	8
	34.78%
Models guide the student in his writing.	3
	13.04%
Suggestion of students' samples to be analysed is of worth.	2
	8.69%
<i>Note: One student may have several answers.</i>	

Table 6.8. Experimental Group Comments on Models' Usefulness

When asked this question, the respondents found themselves in need to mention that practice makes perfect. As such, (69.56%) suggested that a variety of samples would be of help and provide them with the opportunity to practice much, while (34.78%) of students proposed reading as a prerequisite to writing that would be the key factor towards proficiency and a native-like command to writing and competences. On another basis, (13.04%) of the participants commented that models do help in organising their ideas and thoughts, providing them with the way they sequence their relevant sentences logically. Thus, models can provide guidance to the students while writing; while (8.69%) of students suggested that samples selected by the instructor should also include some previous students' successful writing to be analysed and followed in terms of effectiveness, coherence and communicative competence. This idea was already suggested by Swales (1990).

Analyses of the responses of the participants in the post-test questions revealed that instruction through modelling strategy has promoted their awareness of conceptual writing strategies and willingness to apply practical writing strategies to compose their paragraphs

and future essays. Due to its efficacy as reported in this study, modelling-oriented writing instruction should be incorporated into EFL classes of the Department of English at Laghouat University.

6.4.2. Analysis of Post-experiment Questionnaire of the Control Group

For the sake of validating the obtained results on the usefulness of modelling strategy for enhancing the student’s paragraph coherence and writing effectiveness, the researcher, also, has asked the Control Group some follow-up questions about their perceptions of using model-texts and how they could benefit from their use in writing classes. These questions are four of different types: open questions, 3-likert scale questions and 5-likert scale questions. The researcher encodes the filled checklist in forms of tables to compare results of the Control Group to the Experimental Group.

Q1. How do you value using sample texts as models for writing your own assignment?

This question is designed to know whether using models would be helpful or not to students for writing their own assignment. The following table shows the findings of the participants’ comments. A three Likert-scale response was used to elicit the help received from the samples to foster the writing process.

Degree	Helpful	Uncertain	Unhelpful	Total
Students	19	04	00	23
	82.60%	17.39%	00%	100%

Table 6.9. Control Group Value to Models’ Use in Writing

As indicated in this table, the majority of the respondents opted for the use of model texts as a helpful means to develop the quality of their writing assignments. In effect, (82.60%) answered in favour of models’ use, while (17.39%) of participants were uncertain of its efficiency, since they had no experience. Noticeably, (00%) had a negative

response about the usefulness of models to foster writing effectiveness. To know more about in what ways models can be useful to the students. The following question is of concern.

Q2. In which areas may models help you write your own assignment? Please circle the number that reflects the degree of your choice.

5=Strongly Agree 4=Agree 3=uncertain 2= Disagree 1= Strongly Disagree

This part of the checklist includes 8 sub-questions in a 5-likert scale type used to measure the Control Group students' agreement on some statements designed to know which of the areas models-texts would provide to help them write their own compositions. Responses varied as students varied in their views of using these models. Results gathered are tabulated as follows.

Areas of Models' Help	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
1. How vocabulary/ expressions are consistently used	12	2	5	3	1	23
	52.17	8.69	21.73	13.04	4.34	100%
2. How new information is introduced in an appropriate manner.	8	5	6	4	0	23
	34.78	21.73	26.08	17.39	0	100%
3. How punctuation is employed appropriately to separate ideas and sentences	11	5	4	2	1	23
	47.82	21.73	17.39	8.69	4.34	100%
4. How the beginning section can be effective in introducing the subject.	8	7	7	0	1	23
	34.78	30.43	30.43	0	4.34	100%!
5. How the ideas in the paragraph are relevant to the topic.	8	9	3	1	2	23
	34.78	39.23	13.04	4.34	8.69	100%
6. How the ideas are well-related to one another	6	6	8	1	2	23
	26.08	26.08	34.78	4.34	8.69	100%
7. How transition between sentences is smooth.	6	5	8	2	2	23
	26.08	21.73	34.78	8.69	8.69	100%
8. How the ending gives the reader a definite sense of closure.	12	4	3	2	2	23
	52.17	17.39	13.04	8.69	8.69	100%

Table 6.10. Areas of Models' would Help the Control Group in Writing Assignment

The main purpose of this section was to investigate the effect of model paragraphs on EFL learners' noticing different aspects of coherence which were classified into eight categories. The findings help to find out the efficiency of models to be included in writing courses, and thus to promote students' noticing tasks.

First, in terms of providing useful and consistent vocabulary or expressions, (52.17%) strongly agreed, and other (8.69%) have just agreed; while (21.73%) were uncertain of this fact. Furthermore, (13.04%) of the participants disagreed with the idea of models utility in providing the way of using consistently vocabulary, and (4.34%) of students strongly disagreed. Though answers were different, (60.86%) of the respondents did agree with the usefulness of models to enrich vocabulary use and choice.

Second, as for the way of introducing information, (56.51%) of the respondents positively opted for the usefulness of model texts. There are (34.78%) of the respondents who strongly agreed with the fact that models can be utile in showing them how information of any kind is introduced in the written text. More, there are (21.73%) others were in in favour of this fact; while (26.08%) of students were uncertain, and (17.39%) disagreed. Yet, (00%) of students who refused the utility of sample texts to introduce ways of giving information.

Third, when the students were asked if models can show them how punctuation is employed appropriately to separate ideas and sentences, (47.82%) of them strongly agreed, while (21.73%) others agreed; (17.39%) were uncertain, and (8.69%) disagreed. Meanwhile, (4.34%) of students strongly disagreed with the fact that models help in knowing how punctuation is employed appropriately. Yet, of the respondents, (69.55%) opted for the usefulness of model texts in indicating how punctuation can be appropriately employed.

Fourth, as for an effective topic or introducing sentence, (34.78%) strongly agreed, and (30.43%) agreed on the fact that providing them with model paragraphs can enhance

their choice of a good beginning section to their own writing. Noticeably, (30.43%) respondents in the Control Group were uncertain of the efficiency of such a strategy, while just (4.34%) of students was against the usefulness of models in helping him write an effective topic sentence. However, the (65.21%) of the respondents had considered models as helpful and useful in writing introductory sentences.

Again, for developing the ideas in the paragraph which are relevant to the topic tackled, (74.01%) of the respondents were with the utility of samples texts: (34.78%) strongly agreed, and (39.23%) agreed. On the other hand, (13.04%) were uncertain of whether using models could provide any help in the way ideas will be developed; again (4.34%) of students who disagreed with this fact and (8.69%) others strongly disagreed. Meanwhile, more than half of the respondents in the Control Group were with the use of model texts to provide help in developing effectively their ideas relevant to their chosen topics.

How the ideas are well-related to one another is another area that may cause problems to the students while composing their own drafts. For that, (52.16%) of the students did agree with the help that can be provided through modelling with (26.08%) who strongly agreed, and (26.08%) agreed upon the utility of model texts; while (34.78%) of participants (N=23) were uncertain, and (13.04%) disagreed with models' efficient use. Yet, the usefulness of sample texts was agreed upon by half of the respondents.

Using transitional signals smoothly to link sentences and ideas was facilitated through modelling strategy by (47.82%) of the respondents. We have (26.8%) of the respondents who strongly agreed on its efficiency, and (21.3%) agreed; against (34.78%) of students were uncertain, and (17.39%) of students disagreed with the fact that models can provide help in transitions' use and choice. Thus, according to the responses collected, using model texts can really be of valuable use to the students while composing; however, as the models show, their absence could not cause problems in coherence if ideas are well sequenced logically.

A similar result can be seen with the last point in the Table 6.4. We have (52.17%) of the respondents (N=23) who strongly agreed upon the usefulness of sample texts in providing the way how the ending may give the reader a definite sense of closure; and (17.39%) agreed; against (13.04%) who were uncertain, and (17.39%) disagreed. Noticeably, (69.56%) agreed that the modelling strategy enhances the writing of effective concluding sentences.

On the whole, the obtained results indicate that (61.96%) opted for the efficient use of modelling to enhance overall coherence in writing: (38.58%) of the respondents in the Control Group who strongly agreed, and (23.38%) agreed. In fact, all these areas are to ensure coherence in the students' writing. Thus, as it was proposed, using model texts in classrooms is expected to help students get rid of several coherence problems. Modelling is fundamental for helping FL students to learn language in terms of vocabulary, grammar and syntax as of the NS patterns of written rhetoric (Ferris & Hedgcook. 1998).

Q3. How do you value the support you received from your tutor during writing your assignment?

The participants in the Control Group were asked to give their opinions about the role of their teacher and the help provided in the writing class. The table below shows the findings of the participants' comments. A three Likert-scale response was used to elicit the help received from the teacher to foster the writing process.

Degree	Helpful	Uncertain	Unhelpful	Total
Students	21	02	00	23
	91.30%	8.69%	00%	100%

Table 6.11. Control Group Value of Tutor's Support during the Writing Activity

As the table above indicates, (91.30%) of the total respondents (N=23) considered their instructor as helpful; while (8.69%) of them were uncertain. One who justified his choice

as follows: “I couldn’t follow when I lost the first point”; while the second said, “My writing has improved throughout this year, but I’m not sure if it is due to the teacher”. However, it remains true that the importance of the teacher in facilitating learning is still maintained, in a time where technology is dominant and the idea of getting rid of the teacher is prevailing. Distinguishably, among the students who opted for the help provided by the instructor, (43.47%) considered their tutor as information provider; while (21.73%) consider him as a feedback giver; (34.78%) of students viewed their teacher as an explainer or facilitator, and (21.73%) as a prompter; while the remaining (34.78%) looked at the instructor as a guide. Besides, (13.04%) appreciated the help of the teacher, but they provided no justification for their choice. The teacher has an encouraging and monitoring role, for advising, assisting and providing feedback. Hence, in a class where modelling is not provided, the role of the teacher as an instructor and information provider is inevitable. The following table summarises the aforementioned findings.

Tutor’ s Support	Students’ and Values
Information provider	10
	43.47%
Feedback provider	5
	21.73%
Explainer/facilitator	8
	34.78%
Guide	8
	34.78%
Prompter	5
	21.73%
No answer	3
	13.04%

Table 6.12. Tutor’s Types of Support for the Control Group

The results obtained through this last instrument -a check list- validate the post-test results. An eclectic use of product-process-genre-oriented approach through modelling strategy is expected to develop a sense of awareness among EFL students at the department

of English at Laghouat University in terms of academic writing features, mainly coherence. What was proposed by the Control Group had been experimented by the Experimental Group. This can be felt in the latter group's responses about the usefulness of such a strategy to enhance coherence in writing they benefited from.

An attempt was made to introduce learners' perceptions to make sure that the subject matter is viewed from different perspectives and studied from different angles. The follow-up questions are structured in such a way as to spur collecting the respondents' different opinions about the topic under scrutiny to consolidate our own opinion made after the experiment. The follow-up responses show that our learners have realised how important, necessary and helpful model-texts can be in learning writing coherence an overall style.

Conclusion

The participants in both groups were asked to write a comparison and contrast paragraph on '*life in the countryside or city*' as a post-test. In the light of the results presented, students who got 'excellent' to 'very good' (grade A) scores were (34.78%) in the Experimental Group, with a minimum score of 12.50 and a maximum score of 16.50, compared to (17.39%) in the Control Group, with a minimum score of 11/20 and a maximum score of 17/20. These participants succeeded in the view of the researcher to write coherent, unified and well-organised paragraphs. Each of which was indented with a clear title; each contained an effective introducing sentence with an interesting controlling idea, well-structured and supportive detailing sentences, and obvious predictable connections. As such, evidence of well-planned paragraph-level discussion was found in these scripts.

It is worth noticing that coherence is not just built by using some textual devices, as cohesive ties, but also by giving a focus on clear and carefully selected details which should be logically and coherently progressed. Less logical and limited ideas result in poor

flow of the information and hence incoherent pieces. (86.95 %) of participants in the Control Group recorded scores from 4.5 to 6 points and ranked as excellent to very good, compared to (78.26%) in the Experimental Group, with a maximum of 5.5 points being registered to successfully progress their themes. In most cases, these students had reached this command through their use of some devices as an attempt to get logical relations between sentences.

In effect, a concentration on TP patterns and their role in creation as well as reinforcement of coherence in texts written should be recommended in EFL classrooms. To this can be added a better understanding of style and word choice inappropriateness (pragmatic coherence), raising the students' awareness about tips to boost their writing towards a native-like command.

The discussion of the results helped to accept the hypothesis and accept the significant impact of modelling strategy to enhance coherence in paragraph writing of EFL students of the Department of English at Laghouat University. Analyses of the paragraph coherence scores of participants revealed that the students who had received modelling-oriented writing instruction were able to communicate their ideas in writing more effectively. They could also better express relevant ideas to their audience to support the purpose of their writing task with several useful tips extracted from the models presented to them, compared to those students who had received traditional teacher-based instruction.

General Conclusion and Recommendations

General Conclusion and Recommendations

The focus of this research was directed towards communicative occurrences which students of intermediate level at English encounter. Yet, the reason for adopting the findings of such an analysis is to take part in directing language teaching towards meeting the special needs of students. Moreover, it is hoped to prepare them for their encounter with the language in use necessary for them. This study was an attempt to examine the compositions written by second-year students at the Department of English at Laghouat University, Algeria. The problem raised was concerned with exploring coherence inadequacies that students encounter while composing their paragraphs.

Research in textual competence has indicated that coherence contributes to the overall unity and effectiveness of a piece of discourse or text. This unity and relatedness is partially a result of a recognisable organisational pattern for the ideas in the passage. However, it also depends on the presence of linguistic devices such as references, transitions and synonymous words to strengthen global unity and create local connectedness. Hence, a great opportunity to store, develop and use the knowledge about the target language can be arisen by exposure to authentic discourse in the target language provided by the teacher. Discussions of organisational and rhetorical aspects through model paragraphs have been considered to have some pedagogical soundness. To this end, the researcher advanced the hypothesis that if second-year students of English at Laghouat University were taught English through exposure to multiple written paragraph models this would enhance their achievement of paragraph coherence and result in writing effectiveness.

To check the hypothesis, a model-based instruction was used to help overcome the students' problems in achieving a unified whole and logical progression of their EFL written products. The data collection procedure of this study consisted of three stages in

two groups: conducted with an Experimental Group and a Control Group. Every stage was conducted in a different session during instruction. Both groups had to write about the same topics. In the first stage, a pre-test, including a compare and contrast writing task, was administrated for both control and experimental groups before the treatment and coherence of students' writing was measured, using an analytic scoring rubric developed from Hyland's (2003). During treatment, in the second stage, unlike the ordinary instruction presented to the Control Group, instruction in the Experimental Group was different. Students studied with the teacher eight model paragraphs about comparison and contrast type of writing. The participants noticed how ideas were developed, and how they related to each other in a natural, organic continuity up to a logic conclusion. The students were required to discover the materials used to construct an effective coherent paragraph on a compare/ contrast paragraph-model. Then, in stage three, students in both groups were asked to write another writing task as a post-test. As the pre-test, coherence of students' writing in the post-test was measured in both groups. Comparisons were made between the tests' results in both groups in terms of coherence traits and analyses were made to check the hypothesis.

The results revealed that synonyms, parallelism, sentence length, lack of variation, run-on sentences and misuse of certain transitions are to be considered as major sources of incoherence and textual deviation. As for thematic progression, the participants in the Experimental Group succeeded to order and sequence their ideas due to the models presented to them adequately better than the other group of study; yet they were unable to exceed the Control Group in generating much evidence. Models could not help them do so. For that, teachers, need have an insight into the problems the students experience in trying to use the linguistic features as well as rhetorical structures that create coherence (Bamberg. 1984). These results go with Fareh's (2014) findings.

The overall situation of the participants' achievement of coherence in the writing task of the post-test was noticeable. The Control Group who had no models wrote acceptable paragraphs. This could be due to the good level of the students had before the experiment. Most of these students (cf. Students' Questionnaire) asserted that with the presence of a model essay given by the teacher they could write better. The Experimental Group's post-test written assignments proved to be better than the pre-test results in terms of language proficiency. This was due to their exposure to multiple comparison and contrast sample paragraphs. The students noticed several aspects as transitions, topic sentences, and the way of organising and developing ideas in the models which helped them write effectively better.

The post-test results obtained indicated that the difference between the Experimental and the Control Group proved to be statistically different. The t-test for equality of means shows a significant difference between the two groups with a p-value of ($p=0.001$) and a mean difference of ($m=-1.630$). Moreover, there is a 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference; a lower value of ($=-2.514$) and an upper value of ($=-0.746$) for Equal variances assumed; and a lower value of ($=-2.51516$) and an upper value of ($=-0.745$) for Equal variances not assumed (cf. Appendix 10). These post-test total scores indicate that there is a significant difference between the scores of the Control and the Experimental groups. This latter proves the positive effect of the integration of modelling strategy to enhance coherence in paragraph writing of second-year students at the Department of English at Laghouat University.

Based on the analysis of the different results, the researcher confirmed the hypothesis (H_1) that models allowed the participants to notice their improper language uses, to be exposed to richer language input, resulting in better performance in their revised writings at the post-test. In effect, the respondents of the Experimental Group showed that they became aware of their writing purpose, and became also able to choose their relevant

content, logical organisation, academic vocabulary, academic grammar structure, spelling and punctuation conventions, which fit the academic purpose of paragraph genre due to the models presented to them. Hence, the triangulation of process-genre-product oriented instruction through using selected models can raise students' awareness of the purpose of academic writing.

Accordingly, the recommendations that can be drawn are summarised in the following points.

- Second-year students require the coordination of numerous sub-skills as to generate and organise ideas, plan and revise what has been written, while monitoring one's own performance.
- In expressing their ideas, EFL students must also consider at least four structural levels: Overall text structure, paragraph structure, sentence structure (syntax), and word structure. The attempt to coordinate all these requirements is a staggering job.
- For its pivotal importance, the area of vocabulary requires further studies and research to explore the role of lexis in building coherence.
- The teacher needs to move away from being just a marker, focusing only on form, to a reader, responding worthily to the content of the student's writing.
- A concentration on TP patterns and their role in creation as well as reinforcement of coherence in texts written should be recommended in EFL classrooms.

To enhance the connectedness of sentences in a text, EFL teachers are required to help learners notice tasks using models, and predict all the useful language needed to recreate a coherent text of their own by exposing them to the target language selected texts. Moreover, instructors need to develop the students' imagination and creative writing skills after having command on grammar and vocabulary, and foster their appreciation of text types.

Bibliography

Bibliography

- Abbuhl, R. (2011). 'Using models in writing instruction: A comparison with native and non-native speakers of English', Sage Open October. Available online at: <http://sgo.sagepub/early/2001/11/01> Accessed on 9 June 2012.
- Abderrahim, F. (2006). 'The fusion of theory and practice in grammar tasks'. In *KOTESOL Proceedings 2006 Advancing ELT: Empowering Teachers, Empowering Learners*. October 28-29. Seoul, Korea. 102-110.
- Abi Samra, Nada. (2003). 'An analysis of errors in Arabic speakers' English writings'. Available online at: <http://abisamra03.tripod.com/nada/languageacq-erroranalysis.html>
- Abid, R. A.S., and Ridha, N.S.A. (2006). 'A study of coherence in the writings of EFL advanced Iraqi learners'. In *Journal of Basrah Researches (Humanities Series)*, 31 (1), 51-57
- Ahmed, Abdel Hamid (2010). 'Students' problems with cohesion and coherence in EFL essay writing in Egypt: Different perspectives'. In *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal (LICEJ)*, 1(4), 211-221. Helwan Faculty of Education, Egypt.
- Al-abad Al-Haq, F., and Ahmed, A. (1994) 'Discourse problems in argumentative writing'. In *World Englishes*, 13(3), 306-318.
- Aldera, A. S. (2016). 'Cohesion in written discourse: A case study of Arab EFL students'. In *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 7 (2) June, 2016, 328-341.
- Alkhuli, M. A. (1999). *Comparative Linguistics: English and Arabic*. Swaileh, Jordan: Dar Alfalah.
- Alkhuli, M. A. (2006). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*. Amman, Jordan: Dar Alfalah.
- Allison, D., Varghese, S., and Mei, W. S. (1999). 'Local coherence and its limits: A second look at second sentences'. In *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8, 77-97.
- Al Sharah, N. (1988). 'An analysis of the problems of discourse in the writing of English majors at Yarmouk University'. Unpublished MA Thesis. Jordon: Yarmouk University.
- Arnaudet, M. L., and Barrett, M. (1990). *Paragraph Development*. Washington, USA.

- Atkinson, D. (2000a). 'On Peter Elbow's response to "individualism, academic writing, and ESL writers, by VaiRamanathan and Dwight Atkinson'. In *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9, 71-76.
- Attelisi, Abdulhameed, A. (2012). 'The impact of teaching topical structure analysis on EFL writing with special reference to undergraduate students in Libya'. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. University of Newcastle.
- Bacha, N. (2001). 'Writing evaluation: what can analytic versus holistic essay scoring tell us?' In *System*, 29, 371-383.
- Badger, R., and White, G. (2000). 'A Process genre approach to teaching writing'. In *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 153-160.
- Bagheri, M. S., and M. Zare. (2009), 'The role of using IELTS model essays in improving learners' writing and their awareness of writing features'. In *JELS*, 1(1), Fall 2009, 115-130.
- Baker, M. (1962). *In Other Words: A course book on Translation*. London: Longman.
- Baker, P. (2010). 'Corpus methods in linguistic studies'. In Litosseliti, L. (Ed.). *Research Methods in Linguistics* (pp.68-92). London: Continuum.
- Bamberg, B. (1984). 'Assessing coherence: A reanalysis of essays written for the National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1969-1979'. In *Research in the Teaching of English*, 18, 305-319.
- Bandura, A. (1971). 'Analysis of modelling processes'. In A. Bandura (Ed.) *Psychological Modeling*. Chicago, IL: Atherton, Aldine.
- Barnett, M.A. (1989). *More than Meets the Eye: Foreign Language Reading, Theory and Practice*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bartholomae, D. (1988). 'The study of error'. In G. Tate, E. Corbett, and N. Myers (Eds. Org.) *The Writing Teacher's Source Book* (pp. 303-317). New York: OUP.
- Bell, J., and Barnaby, B. (1984). *A Handbook for E.S.L Literacy*. Toronto: O.I.S.E.
- Bensemmane, M. (2003). 'Academic discourse and magister students as future teachers'. In 3rd National ELT Conference: proceedings, *Pre- and In-service Teacher-training in Algeria: The State of the Art* (pp.73-84).University of Algiers (17th and 18th December), Algiers.
- Bhatia, V. (1993). *Analysing Genre: Language Use in Professional Settings*. London: Longman.
- Boudehane, N. (2015). 'Adopting a student-centered approach through cooperative learning to enhance students' writing skill: the case of second year students, University of

- Constantine. Unpublished doctoral thesis in Language Sciences. University Mentouri – Constantine
- Boukezzoula, M. (2016). 'Bridging the gap between the writing course and the content modules through the Genre-based Approach: the role and place of the argumentative essay'. Unpublished doctoral thesis in Applied Linguistics. University Mentouri – Constantine.
- Brindley, G. (1989). *Assessing Achievement in the Learner-centred Classroom*. Sydney: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, Macquarie University.
- Brindley, G. (1991). 'Defining language ability: The criteria for Criteria'. In S. Anivan (Ed.), *Current Development Language Testing*. Singuapore: Regional language Center
- Brindley, G. (2001). 'Language assessment and professional development'. In Elder, C., Brown, A., Hill,, K., Iwashita, N., Lumley, T., McNamara, T. and O'Loughlin, K. (Eds.), *Experimenting with uncertainty: Essays in honour of Alan Davies* (126-136). Cambridge: CUP.
- Brown, J., and Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge, UK: CUP.
- Bruce, I. (2008). *Academic Writing and Genre A Systematic Analysis*. London: Continuum.
- Buckingham, T. (1979). 'The Goals of Advanced Composition Instruction'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 13(2), 241-254.
- Burns, T., and Sinfield, S. (2008). *Essential study skills: the Complete Guide to Success at University* 2nd Edit., Sage study Skills Series. CA: SAGE Publications.
- Burt, M. K. (1975). 'Error analysis in the adult EFL classroom'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 9, 53-63.
- Buscemi, S.V. (1999). *A Reader for Developing Writers*. 4th Edit. Middlesex County College, Edison, NJ: McGraw-Hill Companies.
- Byrne, D. (1991). *Teaching Writing Skills*. Hong Kong: Longman.
- Carrell, P. L. (1982). 'Cohesion is not coherence'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 12 (4), 479-488.
- Carrell, P.L. (1983a), 'Three components of background knowledge in reading comprehension'. In *Language Learning*, 33, 183-208.
- Carrell, P. L. (1984b). 'Evidence of a formal schema in second language comprehension'. In *Language Learning*, 34 (2), 87-108.
- Carson, J. E., and Kuehn, P. A. (1992). 'Evidence of transfer and loss in developing second language writers'. In *Language learning*, 42, 152-182.
- Celce-Murcia, M., and Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching: A Guide for Language Teachers*. New York: CUP.

- Chakraverty, A., and Gautum, K. (2000). 'Dynamics of writing'. In *Forum*, 38(3).
- Chanderasegaran, A. (2002). 'Intervening to help in the writing process'. In *RELC Portfolio Series 7*
- Chaouki, N. (2009). 'An approach to teaching grammar through discourse'. In *Revue El-Athar*, 8, 21-25. Faculty des Lettres et Sciences Humaines, University of Ouargla, Algeria.
- Charney, D. (1984). 'The validity of using holistic scoring to evaluate writing: A critical overview'. In *Research in the Teaching of English*, 18, 65- 81.
- Cheng, A. (2007). 'Transferring generic features and recontextualising genre awareness: Understanding writing performance in the ESP genre-based literacy framework'. In *English for Specific Purposes*, 26, 287-307.
- Clarke, D. (1989). 'Communicative theory and its influence on materials production'. In *Language Teaching*, 22(2), 73–86.
- Coady, M., and Escamilla, K. (2005). 'Audible voices, visible tongues: Exploring social realities in Spanish-speaking students' writing. In *Language Arts*, 82(6), 462–471.
- Connor, U. (1991). 'Linguistic/ rhetorical measures for international persuasive student writing'. In *Research in the Teaching of English*, 24(1), (67-87).
- Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-cultural Aspects of Second-language Writing*. New York: CUP.
- Connor, U. (2002). 'New directions in contrastive rhetoric'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 493-510.
- Connor, U (2004a). 'Contrastive rhetoric: Old and new directions'. In N. Kassabgy, Z. Ibrāhīm, and S. Aydelott, (Eds.). *Contrastive Rhetoric: Issues, Insights, and Pedagogy* (pp.1-20). American University in Cairo Press.
- Connor, U., and Farmer, M. (1997). 'The teaching of topical structure analysis as a revision strategy for ESL writers'. In B. Kroll (Ed.). *Second Language Writing: Research Insights for the Classroom* (pp.126-139). Cambridge: CUP.
- Cook, G. (1989). *Discourse*. Oxford: OUP.
- Corder, S. Pit (1981). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford: OUP.
- Coulthard, M. (1977). *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis*. London: Longman.
- Crinon, J., and Legros. D. (2002). 'The semantic effects of consulting a textual database on Rewriting'. In *Learning and Instruction*, 12, 605–626.
- Cruse, A. (2006). *A Glossary of Semantics and Pragmatics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

- Crystal, D. (1995). *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of the English Language*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global Language*. 2nd Edit. Cambridge: CUP.
- Cumming, A. (2001). 'Learning to write in a second language: Two decades of research'.
In *IJES*, 1 (2), 1-23. University of Murcia.
- Cumming, A., Kantor, R., Baba, K., Erdoosy, U., Eouanzoui, K., and James, M. (2005)
'Differences in written discourse in writing-only and reading-to-write
prototype tasks for next generation TOEFL'. In *Assessing Writing*, 10, 5–43.
- Cumming, A. (Ed.). (2006). *Goals for Academic Writing: ESL Students and Their
Instructors*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Cushing, S. (2002). *Assessing Writing*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Danes, F. (1974). 'Functional sentence perspective and the organization of the text'. In F.
Danes. (Ed.). *On Subject and Theme* (55-58). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- De Beaugrande, R. (1980). *Text, Discourse and Process: Towards a Multidisciplinary Science
of Texts*. Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- De Beaugrande, R., and Dressler, W. (1981). *Introduction to Text Linguistics*. London:
Longman.
- Delaney, Y. A. (2008). 'Investigating the reading-to-write construct'. In *Journal of English for
Academic Purposes*, 7, 140-150.
- Dickins, J. (2010). 'Junction in English and Arabic: Syntactic, discorsal and denotative
Features'. In *Journal of Pragmatics*, 42, 1076–1136
- Dudley-Evans, T. (1997). 'Genre models for the teaching of academic writing to second
languages speakers: advantages and disadvantages'. In T. Miller (Ed.),
Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications. Washington, D.C.:
United States Information Agency.
- Dyer, B. (1996). 'L1 and L2 composition theories: Hillocks' "environmental mode" and task-
based language teaching'. In *ELT Journal*, 50 (4).
- Edmondson, W. J. (1981). *Spoken Discourse. A Model for Analysis*. Harlow: Longman.
- Elbow, P. (1996). *The War between Reading and Writing—And How to End It: Critical Theory
and the Teaching of Literature*. Urbana: NCTE.
- Ehri, L. C. (1995). 'Phases of development in learning to read by sight'. *Journal of Research in
in Reading*, 18, 116–125.
- Eisterhold, J.C. (1997). 'Reading-writing connections: toward a description for second
Language learners'. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), *Second Language Writing: Research Insights for
the Classroom* (88-101). Cambridge: CUP.

- El-Aswad, A. A. (2002). 'A study of the L1 and L2 writing processes and strategies of Arab learners with special reference to third-year Libyan university students'. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis. Department of Education, University of Newcastle.
- Enkvist, N. E. (1990). 'Seven problems in the study of coherence and interpretability'. In U. Connor, and J. M. Johns (Eds.), *Coherence in Writing: Research and Pedagogical Perspectives* (9-28). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Eskey, D.E., and W. Grabe. (1988). 'Interactive models for second language reading: Perspectives on instruction', In P. L. Carrell et al. (Eds.) *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading* (223-238). Cambridge: CUP.
- Fahnestock J. (1983). 'Semantic and lexical coherence'. In *College Composition and Communication*, 34, 400-416.
- Fakhri, A. (1995). 'Topical structure in Arabic-English interlanguage'. In *Pragmatics and Language Learning*, Monograph Series. 6, 1-16.
- Fareh, S. (2014). 'Macrolinguistic errors in Arab EFL learners' essay'. In *Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 141, 923 – 933. University of Sharjah, Sharjah, UAE.
- Farghal, M. (1992). 'Naturalness and the notion of cohesion in EFL writing classes'. In *IRAL*, 301, 45-50.
- Ferris, D., and Hedgecock, J. (1998). *Teaching ESL Composition: Purpose, Process and Practice* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Firbas, J. (1986). 'On the dynamic of written communication in the light of the theory of functional sentence perspective'. In C. R. Cooper & S. Greenhaum (Eds.) *Studying Writing: Linguistic Approaches*. London: SAGE publications, Inc.
- Flower, L., and Hayes, J. R. (1981). 'A cognitive process theory of writing'. In *College Composition and Communication*, 32, 365-387.
- Flowerdew, J. (1993). 'An educational, or process, approach to the teaching of professional genres'. In *ELT Journal* (474-3). OUP.
- Flowerdew, L. (2000). 'Using a genre-based framework to teach organizational structure in academic writing'. In *ELT Journal*, 54 (4), 369-378.
- Gabrielatos, C. (2002). 'EFL writing: Product and process'. In *Karen's Linguistics Issues*, May.
- Gao, L. (2012). 'Examining argumentative coherence in essays by undergraduate students of English as a foreign language in mainland china and their English speaking peers in the United States'. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis in Curriculum and Instruction. Florida International University.

- Gobel, G. (2004). 'Models & samples as a resource for writing'. Available online At http://www.developingteachers.com/articles_tchtraining/samples6_greg.htm
- Goodin, G., and Perkins, K. (1982). 'Discourse analysis and the art of coherence'. In *College English*, 44(1).
- Gorrell, R., Laird, C., and Urie, M. (1988). *Modern English Rhetoric and Handbook*. 7th Edit. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Grabe, W. (1985). 'Written discourse analysis'. In *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 01-123. In D. M. Johnson, & D. H. Rosen, (Eds.), *Richness in Writing: Empowering ESL Students* (263-283). New York: Longman.
- Grabe, W., and Kaplan, R. (1996). *Theory and Practice of Writing: An Applied Linguistic Perspective*. London and New York: Longman.
- Grabe, W. (2001). 'Notes toward a theory of second language writing'. In T. Silva & P. Masuda (Eds.), *On Second Language Writing* (39-57). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gramegna, L. (2007). 'Problems of coherence in EFL students' compositions'. Unpublished PhD thesis. Department of English, Illinois State University.
- Graves, D. H. (1983). *Writing: Teachers and Children at Work*. Exeter, NH: Heinemann Education Books.
- Greene, S. (1993). 'Exploring the relationship between authorship and reading'. In A. M. Penrose, and M. M. Sitko (Eds.), *Hearing Ourselves Think: Cognitive Research in the College Writing Classroom* (pp.33–51). New York: OUP.
- Grimes, J. E. (1975). *The Thread of Discourse*. New York: Mouton Publishers.
- Gutierrez, K. (1995). 'Unpacking academic discourse'. In *Discourse Processes*, 19, 21-37.
- Gutwinski, W. (1976). *Cohesion in Literary Texts: A Study of Some Grammatical and Lexical Features of English Discourse*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Hairston, M. (1982). 'The winds of change: Thomas Kuhn and the revolution in the teaching of writing'. In *College Composition and Communication*, 33(1), 76–88.
- Hadley, G. S. (1995). 'Written discourse analysis: Investigation and implications for National University English writing classes'. In *Nigata Studies in Foreign Languages and Cultures 1*, 33-46. available online at: [\[http://www.nis.ac.jp/hadley/publication/nuwritnanlysis/writtenanalysis.htm\]](http://www.nis.ac.jp/hadley/publication/nuwritnanlysis/writtenanalysis.htm).
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1989). *Spoken and Written Language*. Oxford: OUP.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1970). 'Functional diversity in language as seen from a consideration of Modality and mood in English'. In *Foundations of Language*, 6, 322-361.

- Halliday, M.A.K., and Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). *Introduction to Functional Grammar*. 2nd Edit., London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. and Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2004). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* London: Edward Arnold.
- Hammond, J. (1992). *English for social purposes: A Handbook for Teachers of Adult Literacy*. Sydney, Australia: National Centre for English language teaching and research.
- Hammond, J., and Derewianka, B. (2001). 'Genre'. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (pp.186–193). Cambridge: CUP.
- Hamp-Lyons, L. (1997). 'Second language writing: Assessment issues'. In B. Kroll, (Ed.), *Second Language Writing: Research Insights for the Classroom* (pp.69–87). Cambridge: CUP.
- Hamp-Lyons, L. (Ed.) (1991). *Assessing Second Language Writing in Academic Contexts*. Nonwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Hamp-Lyons, L., and Heasley, B. (2006). *Study Writing: A Course in Writing Skills for Academic Purposes*, 2nd Edition. Cambridge: CUP.
- Harris, J. (1993). *Introducing Writing*. London: Penguin English.
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2004). *How to Teach Writing*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Harouni, Z. (1998). 'Language transfer in translation: The case of lexico-semantic transfer and its impact on lexical correspondence / non-correspondence between languages'. In *Science Humaines*, Mentouri University, Constantine, Algeria, 10, 49–53.
- Hsiao, T-Y., and Oxford, R.L. (2002). 'Comparing theories of language learning strategies: a confirmatory factor analysis'. In *Modern language journal*, 86(3), 368-383.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: OUP.
- Hegelund, S., and Kock, C. (2003). 'A good paper makes a case: Teaching academic writing the macro-Toulmin way'. In L. A. Björk (Eds.), *Teaching Academic Writing in European Higher Education* (12). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer Academic.
- Hillocks, G. (1986). *Research on Written Composition: New directions for Teaching*. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Hinds, J. (1990). 'Inductive, deductive, quasi-inductive: Expository writing in Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Thai'. In U. Connor & A. M. Johns (Eds.), *Coherence in Writing:*

- Research and Pedagogical Perspectives* (87-110). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Hinkel, E. (2002). *Second Language Writers' Text: Linguistic and Rhetorical Features*. Seattle University Mahwah, New Jersey London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hinkel, E. (2004). *Teaching Academic Writing: Practical Techniques in Vocabulary and Grammar* Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hirvela, A. (2004). *Connecting Reading and Writing in Second Language Writing Instruction*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Hoey, M. (1983). *On the Surface of Discourse*. London: George Allen and Unwin.
- Hoey, M. (2000). 'A matrix perspective on narrative text'. In T. Virtanen & I. Maricic (Eds.) *Perspectives on Discourse: Proceeding from the 1998 and 1999 Symposia at Vaxjo*. Vaxjo: Vaxjo University Press.
- Hoey, M. (2001). *Textual Interaction: An Introduction to Written Discourse Analysis*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Hyland, K. (1994). 'Hedging in academic writing and EAP textbooks'. In *English for Specific Purposes*, 13(3), 239-256.
- Hyland, K. (2002). *Teaching and Researching Writing*. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hyland, K. (2003). *Second Language Writing*. New York: CUP.
- Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and Second Language Writers*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Hyland, K. (2007). 'Genre pedagogy: language, literacy and L2 writing instruction'. In *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 148-164.
- Hyland, K. (2011). 'Learning to write: Issues in theory, research, and pedagogy'. In R. M. Manchón (Ed.) *Learning-to-Write and Writing-to-Learn in an Additional Language*, 31, 17-35. Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Hymes, D. (1971). *On Communicative Competence*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Jacobs, S. (1982). *Composing and Coherence: The Writing of Eleven Pre-medical Students*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics
- Johns, A. M. (1986). 'Coherence and academic writing: Some definitions and suggestions on teaching'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 20 (2), 247-265.
- Johns, Ann, M (1998). *Text, Role and Context*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Johnson , S. (2002). 'On the origin of linguistic norms: Orthography, ideology and the first

- constitutional challenge to the 1996 reform of German'. In *Language in Society*, 31, 549-576.
- Johnson, P. (1992). 'Cohesion and coherence in compositions in Malay and English'. In *RELC Journal*, 23 (2), 1-17. SAGE Publications.
- Jordan, R. (1997). *English for Academic Purposes*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Juel, C. (1988). 'Learning to read and write: A longitudinal study of fifty-four children from first through fourth grade'. In *ELT Journal*, 80, 437-447.
- Kay, H., and Dudley-Evans, T. (1998). 'Genre: what teachers think.' In *ELT Journal*, 52(4), 308-314
- Kehler, A. (2002). *Coherence, Reference, and the Theory of Grammar*. Stanford, CA: CSLI Publications.
- Kharmā, N. (1985). 'Problems of writing composition in EFL: A contrastive rhetoric approach'. In *Abhath al Yarmouk*, 1, 7-29.
- Khoury, M. (2007). 'Paragraph structure'. Available online at File://
Pragraph%2OStructure/htm.
- Kinneavy, J. (1971). *A Theory of Discourse*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kirkland, M. R., and Saunders, M. A. P. (1991). 'Maximizing student performance in summary writing: Managing cognitive load'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(1), 105-21.
- Klimova, B. F. (2011). 'Evaluating writing in English as a second language'. In *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 28, 390-394.
- Kramsch, C. (1997). 'The cultural component of language teaching'. In *British Studies Now*, 8, 4-7.
- Krashen, S. (1984). *Writing: Research, Theory and Applications*. Oxford: Pergamum.
- Kroll, B. (1997). 'Introduction', in B. Kroll (Ed.). *Second Language Writing: Research and Insights for the Classroom*. 6th print. Cambridge, UK: CUP.
- Kucer, S. L. (1985). 'The making of meaning: reading and writing as parallel processes'. In *Written Communication*, 2, 312-336.
- Kwan, B. S. C. (2008). 'The Nexus of reading, writing and researching in the doctoral undertaking of humanities and social sciences: Implications for literature reviewing'. In *English for Specific Purposes*, 27, 42-56.
- Langan, J. (2005). *English Skills with Readings*. 5th Edit. New York: McGraw-Hill Company.
- Lapata, M. (2003). 'Probabilistic text structuring: Experiments with sentence ordering'. In *Proceedings of the 41st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, (545-552). Sapporo, Japan.

- Latief, A. M. (1990). 'Assessment of English writing skills for students if English as a foreign language at the Institute of Teacher Training and Education IKIP Malang Indonesia'. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis. The Graduate College, University of Iowa.
- Lautamatti (1987). 'Observations on the development of the topic in simplified discourse'. In U. Connor & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.) *Writing across Languages: Analysis of L2 Text*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Lee, C. C. (2004). 'Seeing is understanding: Improving coherence in students' writing'. In *Assessing Writing*. 9 (2), 85-104,
- Lee, I. (1998). 'Enhancing ESL students' awareness of coherence-creating mechanisms in writing'. In *TESL Canada Journal*, 15, 37-49.
- Lee, I. (2002). 'Teaching coherence to ESL students: A classroom inquiry'. In *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 11, 135-159.
- Leki, I. (1991). 'Twenty-Five years of contrastive rhetoric: Text analysis and writing Pedagogies'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 123 -143.
- Leki, I. (1993). 'Reciprocal themes in ESL reading and writing'. In J. Carson & I. Leki (Eds.), *Reading in the Composition Classroom* (9–32). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Lesaux, N. K., Koda, K., Siegel, L., and Shanahan, T. (2006). 'Development of literacy'. In D. August & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Developing Literacy in Second-language Learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth* (pp.75-122). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Lewis, M. (1997). *Implementing the Lexical Approach*. LTP.
- Liu, D. (2000). 'Writing Cohesion: Using Content Lexical Ties'. In *ESOL FORUM*, 38(1), 28-36.
- Liu, L., and Qi, X. (2010). 'A contrastive study of textual cohesion and coherence errors in Chinese EFL abstract writing in engineering discourse'. In *Intercultural Communication Studies*, XIX(3), 176-187.
- Macbeth, K. (2010). 'Deliberate false provisions: The use and usefulness of models in learning academic writing'. In *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19, 33–48.
- Maclinn, J. B. (1988). 'Coherence and Cohesion in the Writing of Eight Grade Students'. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis. University of New Orleans.
- Maimon, L. (2001). 'Improving cross-cultural text revision'. In *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 32, 41-57.
- Mancho'n, R. M., De Larios, J. R., and Murphy, L. (2009). 'The temporal dimension and problem-solving nature of foreign language composing processes: Implications for

- theory'. In R. M. Manchon (Ed.) *Writing in Foreign Language Contexts: Learning, Teaching, and Research* (pp.102-124). Bristol, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters.
- Mann, W., and Thompson, S. (1988). 'Rhetorical structure theory: Towards a functional theory of text organization'. In *Text*, 8, 243–281.
- Manning, A. (2008). *English for Language and Linguistics in Higher Education Studies*. Teacher's book. P., Terry (ed.), Garnet Education, Lebanon: International Press.
- Martin, J. R., and Rose, D. (2003). *Working with Discourse*. Continuum.
- Matsuda, P. K. (2003). 'Process and post-process: a discursive history'. In *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 65-83.
- McCabe, A. (1999). 'Theme and thematic patterns in Spanish and English history text'. Unpublished PhD. thesis. Aston University-Aston.
- McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: CUP.
- McCarthy, S.J. (2001). 'Identity construction in elementary readers and writers'. In *Reading Research Quarterly*, 36(2):122-151. National Curriculum for College English.
- McCloud- Bondoc, L. (2009). 'Writing effective paragraphs'. Available online at: <File://athabasca.ca/paragraphs/services/htm>.
- Mebarki, Z. (2008). 'A descriptive study of reading comprehension difficulties and strategies of strategies of fourth year microbiology students of Ferhat Abbas University at Sétif. Unpublished doctoral thesis in Applied Linguistics. Mentouri University-Constantine.
- Meyers, A. (2006a). *Composing With Confidence: Writing Effective Paragraphs and Essays Essays*, 7th Edit. New York: Pearson Longman.
- Millward, C. (2005). 'Applying discourse in the classroom with a specific focus on teaching discourse markers'. Available online at: Developingteachers.com-academia.edu.
- Mohammed, Abdul minam Mahmod (2003). 'The interligual errors of Arab students in the use of English binomials'. In *Journal of the Documentation and Humanities Research Centre*. University of Qatar, 15(15), 6-21.
- Moir, E. (2004). 'On the move with Formative assessment'. In *Reflections* 7(2), 1-20. University of California, Santa Cruz, Department of Education.
- Mustafa, N. A. (1990). 'Pragmatic considerations of linguistic and discoursal elements encompassing the ESP students' communicative competence within a framework appropriate to college students' acquisition of competency in writing'. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis. University of Toledo.

- Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Language Classroom*. 15th Edit. (2001). Cambridge: CUP.
- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language Teaching Methodology: A Textbook for Teachers*. Prentice-Hall Europe.
- Nunan, D. (1993). *Introducing Discourse Analysis*. London: Penguin Group.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Nuttall, C. (2005). *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign language*. 3rd Edit. Oxford, UK: Macmillan Education.
- O'Brien, T. (2004). 'Writing in a foreign language: Teaching and learning'. In *Language Teaching*, 37, 1–28.
- Owl, P. (2009). 'Paragraphs and paragraphing'. Available online at <File://J:\paragraph\paragraphs¶graphing.htm>
- Ouskourt, M. (2008). 'Developing efficient writing strategies through the process approach and teacher's feedback. A case study: Second year students in Sétif University'. Unpublished doctoral thesis in Applied Linguistics. Mentouri University of Constantine.
- Palmer, F. R. (1992). 'Firth's verbs of aspect'. In L. J. Santana & R. L. Quereda (Eds.), *Homenaje a J. R. Firth en su Centenario*. Universidad de Granada.
- Pasquarelli, S. L. (2006). *Teaching Writing Genres Across the Curriculum: Strategies for Middle School Teachers*. Greenwich, CT: IAP - Information Age Pub.
- Prasad, T. (2008). *A Course in Linguistics*. New Delhi: Prentice-Hall of India Private Limited.
- Pringle, I. (1983). 'Why teach style? A review-essay'. In *College Composition and Communication*, 34, 91-98.
- Porto, M. (2001). 'Cooperative writing response groups and self-evaluation'. In *ELT Journal*, 55(1), 38-46.
- Purves, A. C. (1988). *Writing Across Languages and Cultures: Issues in Contrastive Rhetoric*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Qaddumi, Muhammad K. H. (1995). *Textual Deviation and Coherence Problems in the Writings of Arab Students at the University of Bahrain: Sources and Solutions*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis. University of Nottingham.
- Raimes, A. (1983). 'Techniques in Teaching Writing'. In R. N. Campbell and W. E. Rutherford (eds.) *Teaching techniques in English as a Second Language*. Oxford: OUP.

- Raimes, A. (2008). *Keys for Writers*. 5th Edit. Boston, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Ramadan, S. M. (2003) 'Cohesion in the written works of the twelfth grade students of literary and scientific streams at state secondary schools in Jordan'. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. Ankara: Gazi University.
- Rao, Z. (2007). 'Training in brainstorming and developing writing skills'. In *ELT Journal*, 61 (2).
- Reid, J.M. (1993). *Teaching ESL Writing*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Renkema, J. (2004). *Introduction to Discourse Studies*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Richards, J., Platt, J., and Weber, H. (1985). *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*. Harlow: Longman.
- Richards, J.C. (1990). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Richards, J. C., and Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Rivers, W. M. (1981). 'Writing'. In *Teaching Foreign Language Skills* .2nd Edit. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Roberts, R., and Kreuz, R. (1993). 'Nonstandard discourse and its coherence'. In *Discourse Processes*, 16, 451–464.
- Rogers, S. H. (2004). 'Evaluating textual coherence: A case study of university business writing by EFL and native English-speaking students in New Zealand'. In *RELIC*, 35(2), 135-147. London, Thousand Oaks CA and New Delhi: SAGE Publications. Available online at: <http://rel.sagepub.com>. at Bond University Library on March 23, 2010.
- Rose, M. (1983). 'Remedial writing courses: A critique and a proposal'. In *College English*, 45, 109-128.
- Roy, J. R. and Laney, J. (2012). *Sharpen Your Essay Writing Skills*. Guangdong, China: Jennifer Rozines Roy and Johannah Laney.
- Ryan, R. M., and Deci, E. L. (2000). 'intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions'. In *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- Sahebkhair, F. (2011). 'The effect of model essays on developing accuracy and complexity of complexity of EFL learners' writing in the Iranian context'. In *ICT for Language Learning Conference*. 4th Edit. 20-21 October, Florence, Italy.

- Saihi Kihal, H. (2015). *The Impact of Process-genre Oriented Instruction on Essay Writing: A Case of Third Year Students of English Language at Biskra University*. Unpublished doctoral thesis in Applied Linguistics. University of Biskra.
- Salkie, R. (1995). *Text and Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Sargeant, D. (2014). 'Using model essays to create good writers'. In *Language Learning, Discourse and Communication*, 14, 23-36.
- Sasaki, M. (2000). 'Toward an empirical model of EFL writing processes: An exploratory study'. In *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9 (3), 259-291.
- Scarry, J., and Scarry, S. (2011). *The Writer's Workplace with Readings: Building College Writing Skills*, 7th edit., Boston, USA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Schoonen, R. (2005). 'Generalizability of writing scores: An application of structural equation modeling'. In *Language Testing*, 22(1), 1–30.
- Scott, C. M. (1995). 'Measures of syntax in school-age children and adolescents'. In *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 26, 309–319.
- Scrivener, J. (2010). *Teaching English Grammar: What to Teach and How to Teach It*. Oxford: Macmillan Publishers Limited.
- Scrivener, J. (2011). *Learning Teaching: The Essential Guide to English Language Teaching*. 3rd Edit. Oxford: Macmillan Publishers Limited.
- Selinker, L. (1972). 'Interlanguage'. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition* (31-54). London: Longman.
- Selviera, R. (1999). 'The relationship between writing instruction and EFL students' revision processes'. In *Linguagem and Ensino*, 2 (2), 109-127.
- Sengupta, S. (1999). 'Rhetorical consciousness raising in the L2 reading classroom'. In *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8, 291-319.
- Shakir, A. (1991a). 'Coherence in EFL student-written text: Two perspectives'. In *Foreign Language Annals*, 24 (2)
- Shakir, A. (1991 b). 'Coherence in students' written texts between the EFL teachers and the text Linguist'. In *Abhath Al-Yarmouk: Yarmouk University Journal for Literature and Linguistics Series*, 9 (2), 23-48.
- Shukri, N. A. (2014). 'Second language writing and culture: Issues and challenges from the Saudi learners' perspective'. In *AWEJ*. 5(3), 190 -207.
- Silva, T. (1997), 'Second language composition instruction: developments, issues, and directions in ESL', In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second Language Writing: Research Insights for the Classroom* (11-21). Cambridge: CUP.

- Silva, T. (1993). 'Toward an understanding of the distinct nature of L2 writing: The ESL research and its implications'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 27 (4), 657-677.
- Simpson, J. M. (2004). 'A look at early childhood writing in English and Spanish in a bilingual School in Ecuador'. In *Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 7 (5), 432-448.
- Smagorinsky, P. (1992). 'How reading model essays affects writers'. In J. Irwin and M. Doyle (Eds.), *Reading/Writing Connections: Learning from Research* (160-176). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Smith, J., and Elley, W. (1997). *How Children Learn to Read*. Auckland: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Soleymanzadeh, L., and Gholami, J. (2014). 'Scoring argumentative essays based on thematic progression patterns and IELTS analytic scoring criteria'. In *Procedia-social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1811-1819.
- Spack, R. (2001). 'Initiating ESL students into the academic discourse community: How far Should we go?' In T. Silva and P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *Landmark Essays on ESL Writing* (91-108). New Jersey: Hermagoras Press.
- Sperber, D., and Wilson, D. (1986). *Relevance: Communication and Cognition*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Spivey, N. (1990). 'Transforming texts: Constructive processes in reading and writing'. In *Written Communication*, 7, 256-287.
- Spivey, N. (1997). *The Constructivist Metaphor: Reading, Writing and the Making of Meaning*. San Diego: Academic Press.
- Stahl, S. A., Pagnucco, J. R., and Suttles, C. W. (1996). 'First graders' reading and writing instruction in traditional and process-oriented classes'. In *Journal of Educational Research*, 89(3), 131-144.
- Strauch A. (1997). *Bridges to Academic Writing*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Sun, F. (2010). 'Pedagogical implications to teaching English Writing'. In *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1(6), 867-870. November, 2010.
- Swales, J. (1990). *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Swales, J., and Feak, C. (2000). *English in Today's Research World: A Writing Guide*. Ann Arbor University of Michigan Press.
- Swan, M. (2005). *Practical English Usage*, Oxford: OUP.
- Tardy, C. M. (2006). 'Researching first and second language genre learning: A comparative review and a look ahead'. In *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15, 79-101.

- Taylor, G. (2009). *A Student's Writing Guide: How to Plan and Write Successful Essays*. New York: CUP.
- Tichy, H. J. (1966). *Effective Writing for Engineers, Managers, Scientists*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tierney, R.J., and Mosenthal, J.H. (1981). 'The cohesion concept's relationship to the coherence of text' (Technical Report No. 221). ERIC Document Reproduction. Service No. ED212941) University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign: Center for the Study of Reading.
- Tho, L. N. M. (2000). *A Survey of Writing Problems of USSH First-Year Students of English*. Ho Chi Min City.
- Thornbury, S. (1997). *About Language: Tasks for Teachers of English*. Cambridge, New York: CUP.
- Trappes-Lomax, H. (2004). 'Discourse analysis'. In A. Davies & C. Elder (Eds.) *The Handbook of Applied Linguistics*. Malden, MA: Blackwell. (pp. 133-164)
- Tribble, C. (2003). *Writing*. 3rd Imp. Oxford: OUP.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1972a). *Some Aspects of Text Grammar*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1977). *Text and context: Explorations in the Semantics and Pragmatics of Discourse*. New York: Longman.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1982). 'Opinions and attitudes in discourse comprehension'. In J.-F. Le Ny, W. Kintsch (Eds.), *Language and Comprehension* (35-51). North-Holland Publishing Company.
- Vann, R. J., Meyer, D. E., and Lorenz, F. O. (1984). 'Error gravity: A study of faculty opinion of ESL learners'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 18, 427-440.
- Vince, M. (2004). 'Writing re-valued'. In *English Teaching Professional Issue*, (35), November, 5-12.
- Walker, R. and Perez, R. (2008). 'Coherence in the assessment of writing skills'. In *ELT Journal*, 62(1), 18-28.
- Wang, Y. (2008). 'The Application of theme-rheme theory in English composition teaching'. In *Cross-cultural Communication*, 4(2), 106-108.
- Watson-Todd, R. (2003). 'EAP or TEAP?' In *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 147-156.
- Weigle, S. C. (2002). *Assessing Writing*. Cambridge, UK: CUP.
- Weir, C. (1990). *Communicative Language Testing*. New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Wen, T. (2007) 'Teach writing as an on-going process: Tips for EFL learners on reviewing

- EFL composition'. In *US-China Foreign Language* (53-56), 5 (11). USA.
- White, S. P. (1985a). 'Revising, composing theory, and research design'. In S. W. Freedman (Ed.) *The Acquisition of Written Language: Response and Revision* (pp.250-284). Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- White, E. M. (1994). *Teaching and Assessing Writing: Recent Advances in Understanding, Evaluating, and Improving Student Performance*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- White, R. (2000). 'Adapting Grice in Maxims in the Teaching Writing'. In *ELT Journal* (55-18). OUP.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1978). *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford: OUP.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1996). 'New starts and different kinds of failure'. In A Freedman, I. Pringle & J. Yalden (Eds.), *Learning to Write: First Language/Second Language 5th Edit*. Selected papers from the 1979 CCTE Conference, Ottawa, Canada (34-47) London and New York: Longman.
- Williams, J. D. (1985). 'Coherence and cognitive style'. In *Written Communication*, 2, 473-491.
- Williams, J. M. (2000). *Style: Ten lessons in Clarity and Grace*. 6th Edit. New York: Longman.
- William. J. (2001). 'The effectiveness of spontaneous attention to form'. In *System*, 29, 325-340
- Winter, E. (1977). 'A Clause-relational approach to English texts: A study of some predictive lexical items in written discourse'. In *Instructional Science*, 6(1), 1-92.
- Winterowd, R. (1975). *The Grammar of Coherence in Contemporary Rhetoric*. York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Witte, S. P. (1983a). 'Topical structure analysis and revision: An exploratory study'. In *College Composition and Communication*, 34, 313-341.
- Witte, S. P., and Faigley. L. (1981). 'Coherence, cohesion, and writing quality'. In *College Composition and Communication*, 32, 189-204.
- Wolf, F., and Gibson, E. (2006). *Coherence in Natural Language: Data Structures and Applications*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.
- Wyrick, J. (2010). *Steps to Writing Well with Additional Readings*, 8th Edit. Boston, MA: Wardsworth, Cengage learning.
- Yang, L., and Zhang, L. (2010). 'Exploring the role of reformulations and a model text in EFL students' writing performance'. In *Language Teaching Research*, 14(4), 464-484.

- Zamel, V. (1985). 'Responding to students' writing'. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 19 (1), 79-101.
- Zamel, V. (2001). 'Teaching composition in the ESL classroom: What we can learn from research in the teaching of English'. In T. Silva and P. K. Matsuda (Eds.) *Landmark Essays on ESL Writing* (pp.27–35). New Jersey: Hermagoras Press.
- Zampardo, K. M. (2008). 'An examination of the impact of teacher modelling on young children writing'. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. Oakland University. Rochester, Michigan.
- Zen, D. (2005). 'Teaching ESL/EFL writing beyond language, affiliation: Southeast Missouri State University, Publication: Paper presented at the 3rd International Annual LATEFL China Conference, Tonghua, China, August 5-9, 2005.
- Zhu, Y., and Yan, S. (2001). *Reflection of Systematic Functional Languages*. Shanghai, China: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Publishing House.
- Zirmerman, R. (2000). 'L2 writing: Sub processes, a model of formulating and empirical findings'. In *Learning and Instruction*, 10 (1), 73-99.

Appendices

Appendix1

Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

You are kindly invited to answer the following questions in an attempt to improve the overall quality of your writing. Your cooperation means a great deal to this study. Please, take your time to answer this questionnaire carefully. The information obtained helps in a better understanding of your background language experiences.

Section One: Personal Information

Q1. How long have you been learning English at university? _____years

Section Two: Experiencing Writing in English

Q2. Do you like to write English in general?

Very much	Moderate	Not much

Q3. How often do you write in English? (Select one and put a number)

_____ times a day _____ times a week

_____ times a month _____ times a year

Q4. How do you feel about writing in English? Please, circle the number that reflects the degree to which you agree with the statement.

5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 =uncertain 2= Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

- 5 4 3 2 1. I think, I need to improve my L2 writing
- 5 4 3 2 1. I believe , I need to be exposed to L2 writer' styles
- 5 4 3 2 1. I think, I need to know how to express what I really want to say easily in L2 writing
- 5 4 3 2 1. I practice L2 writing regularly to be a good writer
- 5 4 3 2 1. I only write to my L2 writing teacher
- 5 4 3 2 1. My good writing in L1 makes me love writing in L2.
- 5 4 3 2 1. I think, I need to read text written by native speakers

Q5. Which genre in writing you enjoy most? Please circle the number that reflects the degree of your choice.

5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 =uncertain 2= Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

- 5 4 3 2 1- Stories
- 5 4 3 2 1- Advertisements, technological advances reports
- 5 4 3 2 1- Argument, scholarly papers
- 5 4 3 2 1- Encyclopedias, reference texts
- 5 4 3 2 1- Newspapers
- 5 4 3 2 1- University Assignments
- 5 4 3 2 1- Letters
- 5 4 3 2 1- emails
- Others:.....

Q6. How do you evaluate your writing improvement?

Very good	Moderate	Not good

Q7. The best teaching method/s that helped you improve your L2 writing was /were:

.....

Section Three: Problems in Writing in English

Q8. Which of these areas in writing is still causing you difficulty? Please circle the number that reflects the degree of difficulty from 1 (most difficult) to 4 (least difficult).

1. Organisation	2. Content	3. Language use
4 3 2 1-Unity	4 3 2 1 - Generating ideas	4 3 2 1- Appropriate word choice
4 3 2 1- Coherence	4 3 2 1- Writing the point	4 3 2 1- Syntactic Structure
4 3 2 1- Topic sentence	4 3 2 1-Specific and relevant details	4 3 2 1- Grammar accuracy
4321- Concluding sentence		4 3 2 1- Spelling
4 3 2 1- Detailing sentences		
4 3 2 1- Punctuation		

Q9. In writing a paragraph, which of these areas is causing you difficulty? Please circle the number that reflects the degree of difficulty from 1 (most difficult) to 4 (least difficult).

- 4 3 2 1 - Generating ideas and putting them onto paper
- 4 3 2 1 - Developing your theme
- 4 3 2 1- Specifying the ideas relevant to the topic
- 4 3 2 1 - Ordering your ideas logically
- 4 3 2 1 -Writing an effective introducing sentence to the subject
- 4 3 2 1 - Writing an effective ending sentence that gives the reader a definite sense of closure
- 4 3 2 1 - Making the causal relationship between ideas clear

- 4 3 2 1- Elaborating my ideas
- 4 3 2 1 -Using words appropriately
- 4 3 2 1- In structuring my sentence and clauses accurately
- 4 3 2 1-Writing my overall point of view clearly
- 4 3 2 1- Making transition between sentences smooth
- 4 3 2 1- Employing punctuation appropriately to separate ideas and sentences

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix 2
Experimental Group's
Follow-up Questions on Modelling Strategy use

Q1.How do you value using these texts as models for writing your own assignment?

helpful	uncertain	unhelpful

Q2. Point out the sample paragraph which you most feel at ease to read and follow.

a. sample 1 b. sample 2 c. sample 3 d. sample 4 e. sample 5 f. sample 6

Q3.In which areas do models help you write your own assignment? Please circle the number that reflects the degree to which you agree with the statement about the model paragraph.

5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 =uncertain 2= Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

- 5 4 3 2 1. Vocabulary/expressions are repeated consistently.
- 5 4 3 2 1. References are used appropriately and accurately.
- 5 4 3 2 1. Ellipsis is used where needed.
- 5 4 3 2 1. New information is introduced in an appropriate manner.
- 5 4 3 2 1. Examples are introduced judiciously.
- 5 4 3 2 1. Punctuation is employed appropriately to separate ideas and sentences.
- 5 4 3 2 1. The beginning section is effective in introducing the subject.
- 5 4 3 2 1. The ideas in the paragraph are relevant to the topic.
- 5 4 3 2 1. The ideas are well-related to one another.
- 5 4 3 2 1. The writer's overall point of view is clear.
- 5 4 3 2 1. The division of paragraphs is justifiable in terms of content relevance.
- 5 4 3 2 1. Transition between sentences and paragraphs is smooth.
- 5 4 3 2 1. The ending gives the reader a definite sense of closure.

Q4.How do you value the support you received from your tutor during the writing of your assignment?

Helpful	uncertain	unhelpful

Why?.....

Q5.What other comments and suggestions would you like to make as to the usefulness of the models in achieving successful writing?

.....

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix 3

(Sample Paragraphs for the Main Study)

Written Expression/ 2nd Year LMD/ Developing Paragraphs

Comparison /Contrast

A. Point-by-point Method (from Scarry&Scarry 2011:331-34)

Here is a paragraph from Julius Lester's All Is Well. In the paragraph, the writer uses the point-by-point method to compare the difficulties of being a boy in our society a generation ago with the difficulties of being a girl at that same time.

1. Now, of course, I know that it was as difficult being a girl as it was a boy, if not more so. While I stood paralyzed at one end of a dance floor trying to find the courage to ask a girl for a dance, most of the girls waited in terror at the other, afraid that no one, not even I, would ask them. And while I resented having to ask a girl for a date, wasn't it also horrible to be the one who waited for the phone to ring? And how many of those girls who laughed at me making a fool of myself on the baseball diamond would have gladly given up their places on the side-lines for mine on the field?

Notice how, after the opening topic sentence, the writer uses half of each sentence to describe a boy's situation growing up and the other half to describe a girl's experience. This technique is often used in longer pieces of writing in which many points of comparison are made. This method helps the reader keep the comparison or contrast carefully in mind at each point.

B. Block Method

This is another version of the paragraph by Julius Lester, this time written according to the block method:

2. Now, of course, I know that it was as difficult being a girl as it was being a boy, if not more so. I stood paralyzed at one end of the dance floor trying to find the courage to ask a girl for a dance. I also resented having to ask a girl for a date. Furthermore, I often felt foolish on the baseball diamond. On the other hand, most of the girls waited in terror at the other end of the dance floor, afraid that no one, not even I, would ask them to dance. In addition, it was a horrible situation for the girls who had to wait for the phone to ring, hoping for a date. And how many of those girls who stood on the side-lines would have gladly traded places with me on the baseball diamond?

Notice how the first half of this version presents all of the details about the boy, and the second part of the paragraph presents all of the information about girls. This method is often used in shorter pieces because the reader will easily remember three or four short points and thus not need each comparison/contrast side by side.

Recognising the Two Approaches to Ordering Material

Each of the following passages is an example of comparison or contrast. Read each paragraph carefully and decide whether the writer has used the point-by-point method or the block method. Also decide whether the piece emphasises similarities or differences. Indicate your choices in the spaces provided after each passage.

close intellectual relationship. The author refers to her subjects' facial features, physical behaviours, ways of speaking and thinking, and intellectual styles.

6. *You could see them complemented each other by the way they looked. What people noticed first about Harriet were her eyes-flashing-and a suggestion in her body of mobility, whereas his features, variously described as chiselled and classical, expressed an inner rigidity. He shook hands from the shoulders. He spoke carefully. Give him facts, and he would sift them, weigh them, articulate possible interpretation, reach a conclusion. Where he was careful, she was daring. Where he was disinterested and balanced, she was intuitive, partial and sure of herself. She concerned herself with goals and assumptions; he concerned himself arguments. She was quick to judge and to generalize, and because he was not, he valued her intellectual style as bold and vigorous where another person, more like her, might have found her hasty and simplistic.*

Phyllis Rose, *Parallel Lives: Five Victorian Marriages*, in Raimes (2008:36)

-----Point-by-point -----Block

-----Similarities -----Differences

The following paragraph deals with the way a small city appeared some years ago with how it appeared to the writer on a recent visit.

Model Paragraph: Thirty Years Later

7. *As I drove up Swede Hill, I realized that the picture I had in my mind all these years was largely a romantic one. It was here that my father had boarded, as a young man of eighteen, with a widow who rented rooms in her house. Now the large old wooden frame houses were mostly two-family homes; no single family could afford to heat them in the winter. The porches, which had once been beautiful and where people had passed their summer evenings, had peeling paint and were in need of repair. No one now stopped to talk; the only sounds to be heard were those of cars whizzing past. The immigrants who had come to this country and worked hard to put their children through school were now elderly and mostly alone. Their more educated children had long ago left the small upstate city for better opportunities elsewhere. From the top of the hill, I looked down fondly on the town built on the hills and noticed that a new and wider highway now went through the town. My father would have liked that; he would not have had to complain about Sunday drivers on Foote Avenue. In the distance I could see the large shopping mall, which now had most of the business in the surrounding area and which had forced most in-town businesses to close. Now the centre of town no longer hummed with activity, as it once had. My town was not the same place I had known. I could see that the years had not been kind to my hometown.*

-----Point-by-point -----Block

-----Similarities -----Differences

The following paragraph is written by Dr. Muhammad Ali Alkhuli (1999: 16) comparing and contrasting between Arabic and English adjective and adverbs.

8. *Arabic can classify adjectives and adverbs as nouns, but English cannot do the same. In Arabic, adjectives and adverbs behave exactly like nouns. They can be singularized, dualized and pluralized as nouns, e.g., ولدان, اولاد, ذكي, ذكيان, ذكيا. They can be masculinized and feminized as nouns, e.g., ذكيتة. They can take the definite ال as a noun, e.g., الولد الذكي; that is why adjectives and adverbs come under the blanket term of a noun. In contrast, English adjectives and adverbs do not behave like nouns. Nouns in English can be pluralized, but adjectives and adverbs cannot. Nouns in English can take determiners before them, but adjectives and adverbs cannot. In English, each of adjectives, adverbs, and nouns behave in a unique way; that is way they cannot be combined as one part of speech.*

-----Point-by-point -----Block
 -----Similarities -----Differences

Appendix 4

An analytic Scoring Rubric (proposed by Hyland 2003)

Mark	Organization and coherence 20 marks
16–20 excellent To very good	Message followed with ease; well organized and thorough development through introduction, body, and conclusion; relevant and convincing supporting details; logical progression of content contributes to fluency; unified paragraphs; effective use of transitions and reference.
11–15 good to average	Message mostly followed with ease; satisfactorily organized and developed through introduction, body and conclusion; relevant supporting details; mostly logical progression of content; moderate to good fluency; unified paragraphs; possible slight over- or under-use of transitions but correctly used; mostly correct references
6–10 fair to poor	Message followed but with some difficulty; some pattern of organization—an introduction, body, and conclusion evident but poorly done; some supporting details; progression of content inconsistent or repetitious; lack of focus in some paragraphs; over- or under-use of transitions with some incorrect use; incorrect use of reference
1–5 inadequate	Message difficult to follow; little evidence of organization—introduction and conclusion may be missing; few or no supporting details; no obvious progression of content; improper paragraphing; no or incorrect use of transitions; lack of reference contributes to comprehension difficulty

Source: Hyland (2003:243, appendix 8.2)

Appendix 5

Marking Scale for Essay Coherence Evaluation (Pilot Study)

Criteria		Description	Score/20	
Organisation	Form: Title/ Indentation	A good form of an essay can be noticed.	1	17
	Thesis statement	An interesting thesis statement that gives the main controlling idea of the whole essay; it tells what the writer intends to prove, defend, or explain about the topic. This most important sentence is placed at the end of the introductory paragraph.	2	
	Topic sentences	Each paragraph has a suitable introducing sentence that holds the main idea of that paragraph.	2	
	Introduction	An effective introductory paragraph that leads the reader to the thesis statement in an inviting way and encourages him to continue reading.	0,5	
	Body paragraphs	Each body paragraph holds only details that support the controlling idea in each topic sentence.	1	
	Conclusion	A concluding paragraph that gives the reader the sense of having reached a satisfying ending to the topic discussed.	0,5	
Ideas progression and development	Development of ideas	Message followed with ease; well organized and thorough development through introduction, body, and conclusion; relevant and convincing supporting details; logical progression of content contributes to fluency; unified paragraphs.	2	6
	Ordering of ideas		2	
	Relevance/ Unity		2	
Transitions use		Effective and careful use of transitions	2	
Referencing		Consistent use of reference to substitute for the key words.	2	
Repetition of key words		Effective repetition of key words contributes to overall coherence.	2	
Synonyms use		Words or phrases effectively used to substitute for the key word so it will not have to be repeated over and over again.	1	

Appendix 6

Coherence Criterion-based Evaluation Scale (Pilot study)

Criteria		Very good	Good	Average	Poor
Organisation 7/7	Form	1	0.75	0.5	0.25
	Thesis statement	2	1.5	1	0.5
	Topic sentences	2	1.5	1	0.5
	Introduction	2	1.5	1	0.5
	Body				
	Conclusion				
Ideas progression and development 6/6	Development	2	1.5	1	0.5
	Ordering	2	1.5	1	0.5
	Relevance/ Unity	2	1.5	1	0.5
Transitions use 2/2		2	1.5	1	0.5
Referencing 2/2		2	1.5	1	0.5
Repetition of key words 2/2		2	1.5	1	0.5
Synonyms use 1/1		1	0.75	0.5	0.25

Appendix 7

Marking Scale for Paragraph Coherence Evaluation (Main Study)

Criteria		Description	Score/20	
Organisation	Form	A good form of an essay can be noticed. Title and indentation are present.	1	6
	Topic sentence	An interesting topic sentence holds the main idea of the whole paragraph; it tells what the writer intends to prove, defend, or explain about the topic. This most important sentence is placed at the beginning of the paragraph.	2	
	Developing sentences	Effective details support the controlling idea in the topic sentence.	2	
	Concluding sentence	A concluding sentence gives the reader the sense of having reached a satisfying ending to the topic discussed.	1	
Thematic progression	Development of the idea	Message followed with ease; well organized and thorough development; relevant and convincing supporting details; logical progression of content contributes to fluency; The ideas move smoothly from one line to the next and each sentence takes a logical step forward a unified paragraph.	2	6
	Ordering of details		2	
	Relevance/Unity		2	
Transitions' use		Effective and careful use of transitions relevant to the method of development (comparison and contrast).	2	
Referencing		Consistent use of reference to substitute for the key words.	2	
Repetition of key words		Effective repetition of key words contributes to overall coherence.	2	
Synonyms use		Words or phrases effectively used to substitute for the key word so it will not have to be repeated over and over again.	2	

Appendix 8

An Analytic Scoring Rubric of Paragraph Coherence (Main study)

Score out of 20	Description of Coherence Criteria
15–20 excellent To very good A	Message followed with ease; well organized and thorough development through introduction, body, and conclusion; relevant and convincing supporting details; logical progression of content contributes to fluency; unified paragraphs; effective use of transitions and reference, appropriate use of synonyms and effective key words' repetition
11–14,75 good to average B	Message mostly followed with ease; satisfactorily organized and developed through introduction, body and conclusion; relevant supporting details; mostly logical progression of content; moderate to good fluency; unified paragraphs; possible slight over- or under-use of transitions but correctly used; mostly correct references; mostly appropriate use of synonyms and appropriate key words' repetition
6–10,75 fair to poor C	Message followed but with some difficulty; some pattern of organization— an introduction, body, and conclusion evident but poorly done; some supporting details; progression of content inconsistent or repetitious; lack of focus in some paragraphs; over- or under-use of transitions with some incorrect use; incorrect use of reference; lack of synonyms and key words' repetition
1–5 inadequate D	Message difficult to follow; little evidence of organization— introduction and conclusion may be missing; few or no supporting details; no obvious progression of content; improper paragraphing; no or incorrect use of transitions; no use of synonyms; lack of reference and key words' repetition contributes to comprehension difficulty

Appendix 9 (Model-essays for Pilot Study)

Model-essay (1)

1. Before you work on developing your body paragraphs, read Raluca's essay and discuss her body paragraphs. What are the strengths and weaknesses of each paragraph? Are there any additional details you would like to have known?

Raluca's Final Draft

Going to School behind the Iron Curtain

Life in a Communist country such as Romania in the 1970s was filled with fears, unfulfilled needs, and the constant distrust of others who might be spying on their neighbours. To a person born in the West, on this side of the Iron Curtain, it is hard to imagine what schoolchildren faced. Nevertheless, life had to be lived, and children went off to school every day. Remembering my childhood school days does not bring back many happy memories. **The experience of a schoolchild in Romania in the 1970s was harsh.**

The classroom was stark. The only furniture in the room was the fifteen double desks for students and the teacher's desk at the front. A blackboard was on the front wall. The room was often quite cold and only on very dark days were the old ceiling lights turned on. When you entered the room, the only object to look at was the framed portrait of the country's president dominating the front wall above the blackboard. His unsmiling face and sombre eyes looked down on everything we did. All across the country his face was at the head of every classroom. We were never allowed to forget who controlled our lives.

Students were expected to be obedient. We all wore uniforms: blue jumpers or blue pants, white blouses or shirts, red scarves or ties and white socks. This dress code kept us all looking the same. No one should look different or special in any way. I cannot remember that anyone complained. Each child brought his or her own lunch and soap. We ate our lunch in the classroom. We accepted our situation and did not expect anyone to provide us with any food or supplies. We understood our teachers would not have tolerated any complaints or unwillingness to follow orders.

The school day was very rigid. One teacher taught us all the subjects. The school day was divided into four or five hour-long classes, each one with a different subject. There was a ten-minute break between hours. We did not have to change rooms, and we were finished by early afternoon, sent home with lessons to do. Subjects were taught largely by memorization of facts. The individual teacher had no say in what material to cover. The curriculum was set by the authorities and rigidly adhered to. For instance, in literature classes, most of the emphasis was placed on memorising poems by important Romanian authors. Children were not encouraged to ask

questions, and discussions were most uncommon. When it was test time, we were given blank sheets of paper. There was no such thing as multiple-choice tests. Answers were right or wrong. Grading was from one to ten, with ten being the best.

Communist education was based on humiliation. It was shameful if we did not give the right answer to a question or if we got bad grades. Sometimes we could see that the teachers enjoyed their power. When test results were returned, our grades were shared in front of the entire class. Everyone knew that the only way to get ahead was to do well on the tests. There was no misbehaving. Bad behaviour was not tolerated. Corporal punishment was allowed.

My memory of school in Romania is of days of dutiful work. There was little room for the joy of learning or the freedom of expression. If I were to pick a colour to describe my school time, it would be gray. Education was memorizing and repeating what we were told—that was all.

A Model Essay

Gene, the writer of the paragraph on working in an apple plant (page 5), later decided to develop his subject more fully. Here is the essay that resulted.

My Job in an Apple Plant

Introductory
paragraph

¹In the course of working my way through school, I have taken many jobs I would rather forget. ²I have spent nine hours a day lifting heavy automobile and truck batteries off the end of an assembly belt. ³I have risked the loss of eyes and fingers working a punch press in a textile factory. ⁴I have served as a ward aide in a mental hospital, helping care for brain-damaged men who would break into violent fits at unexpected moments. ⁵But none of these jobs was as dreadful as my job in an apple plant. ⁶The work was physically hard; the pay was poor; and, most of all, the working conditions were dismal.

First
supporting
paragraph

⁷First, the job made enormous demands on my strength and energy. ⁸For ten hours a night, I took cartons that rolled down a metal track and stacked them onto wooden skids in a tractor trailer. ⁹Each carton contained twelve heavy bottles of apple juice. ¹⁰A carton shot down the track about every fifteen seconds. ¹¹I once figured out that I was lifting an average of twelve tons of apple juice every night. ¹²When a truck was almost filled, I or my partner had to drag fourteen bulky wooden skids into the empty trailer nearby and then set up added sections of the heavy metal track so that we could start routing cartons to the back of the empty van. ¹³While one of us did that, the other performed the stacking work of two men.

Second
supporting
paragraph

¹⁴I would not have minded the difficulty of the work so much if the pay had not been so poor. ¹⁵I was paid the minimum wage at that time, \$3.65 an hour, plus just a quarter extra for working the night shift. ¹⁶Because of the low salary, I felt compelled to get as much overtime pay as possible. ¹⁷Everything over eight hours a night was time-and-a-half, so I typically worked twelve hours a night. ¹⁸On Friday I would sometimes work straight through until Saturday at noon—eighteen hours. ¹⁹I averaged over sixty hours a week but did not take home much more than \$180.

Third
supporting
paragraph

²⁰But even more than the low pay, what upset me about my apple plant job was the working conditions. ²¹Our humorless supervisor cared only about his production record for each night and tried to keep the assembly line moving at breakneck pace. ²²During work I was limited to two ten-minute breaks and an unpaid half hour for lunch. ²³Most of my time was spent outside on the truck loading dock in near-zero-degree temperatures. ²⁴The steel floors of the trucks were like ice; the quickly penetrating cold made my feet feel like stone. ²⁵I had no shared interests with the man I loaded cartons with, and so I had to work without companionship on the

Concluding
paragraph

job. ²⁵And after the production line shut down and most people left, I had to spend two hours alone scrubbing clean the apple vats, which were coated with a sticky residue.

²⁷I stayed on the job for five months, all the while hating the difficulty of the work, the poor money, and the conditions under which I worked. ²⁸By the time I quit, I was determined never to do such degrading work again.

Important Points about the Essay

Introductory Paragraph

An introductory paragraph has certain purposes or functions and can be constructed using various methods.

Purposes of the Introduction

An introductory paragraph should do three things:

- 1 Attract the reader's *interest*. Using one of the suggested methods of introduction described below can help draw the reader into your paper.
- 2 Present a *thesis sentence*—a clear, direct statement of the central idea that you will develop in your paper. The thesis statement, like a topic sentence, should have a keyword or keywords reflecting your attitude about the subject. For example, in the essay on the apple plant job, the keyword is *dreadful*.
- 3 Indicate a *plan of development*—a preview of the major points that will support your thesis statement, listed in the order in which they will be presented. In some cases, the thesis statement and plan of development may appear in the same sentence. In some cases, also, the plan of development may be omitted.

Activity

1. In "My Job in an Apple Plant," which sentences are used to attract the reader's interest?
 sentences 1 to 3 1 to 4 1 to 5
2. The thesis in "My Job in an Apple Plant" is presented in
 sentence 4 sentence 5 sentence 6
3. Is the thesis followed by a plan of development?
 Yes No

Appendix 10

Pre-test Groups' Total Statistics

Group Statistics					
	Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretest	Ctrl. Grp.	23	12.22	0.837	0.175
	Exp. Grp.	23	11.98	1.702	0.355

Independent Samples Test											
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower		
										Equal variances assumed	Equal variances not assumed
pretest	Equal variances assumed	14.723	0.000	0.605	44	0.549	0.239	0.396	-.558	1.036	
	Equal variances not assumed			0.605	32.052	0.550	0.239	0.396	-.566	1.045	

Appendix 11

Post-test Groups' Total Statistics -

Group Statistics					
	Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest	Ctrl. Grp.	23	12,6087	1,58442	,33037
	Exp. Grp.	23	14,2391	1,38473	,28874

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
posttest	Equal variances assumed	.132	.718	-3.716	44	.001	-1.63043	.43877	-2.51471	-.74616
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.716	43.225	.001	-1.63043	.43877	-2.51516	-.74571

Appendix 12

Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Comparison -

Group Statistics					
	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. ErrorMean
Exp. Grp.	pretest	23	11.9783	1.70213	.35492
	posttest	23	14.2391	1.38473	.28874

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances					t-test for Equality of Means			
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Exp. Grp.	Equal variances assumed	2.184	.147	-4.941	44	.000	-2.26087	.45753	-3.18297	-1.33877
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.941	42.251	.000	-2.26087	.45753	-3.18404	-1.33769

Appendix 13

Samples of the Students' Written Paragraphs (Post-test)

Houses between countryside and country centre

No one can deny the fact that human beings are in need to houses where they spend their lives. But what I'm going to tackle is how the location of the houses is important? i.e. houses in the countryside and houses in the country centre. First of all, the houses in countryside are far away from noise and they have a fresh air. Also in the countryside all people know each other. In contrast, the houses in country centre are near from noise of cars and they lack fresh air because of the smoke of factories.



Nom: Belahia اللقب:
Prénom: Naadjit الاسم:
Date et lieu de naissance: تاريخ ومكان الميلاد:
Département: القسم:
Spécialité: التخصص:
Année: 2nd year المستوى:
Groupe: B₄ الفوج:
N° d'inscription: رقم التسجيل:

Examen: Writing امتحان:

Country side and city center

Country side and city center, are different that the human being we to live there, we do have a lot of things in country side which are not in the city center. Such as, when you live in a country side you look that seems calm and small houses, in contrast, in the city center is so noisy and big because of most of people we to work there and live also in the country side there are no workers women no shopping to the women, while in the city center the majority workers is women even they can make shopping because they feel free. Then in country side needs more schools, hospitals, zoo it is poor, unlike the city center not need because it is rich. In my opinion, the life in country side is better than city center because I feel relax there.

TS + CP + SP 4 sets (SP)

Living In Central City or Village.

In the big cities we found that it's full of people unlike country side which had a small members of inhabitants. First of all, center city is too noisy because of crowds in it, otherwise the country side is so quiet, and this last has mostly huge houses with garden and sometimes even with farms with big swath despite the central city which is full of small houses and even apartment. Also, the absence of life's needs is main cause which make people choose living in central city for it is full of schools and hospitals nearby without forgetting safety. As a conclusion, it's not matter where you live, the matter is to love where you live and enjoy the moment and have great memories in it.

by: HAMEL Waffa.

B₄

- Forma ✓
- T.S: ✓
- DS. point by point ✓ well-developed
- Then → not Cs
- M.S → 3 compound / complex
- Trans → first of all / Also / as a conclusion / ^{and missed} despite / otherwise
- Ref → ^{it} / ^{you} / which / ^{it}
- Ref → ✓
- Syn → ✗
- Punct → ✓
- Concl → ✓

Gourine
SOUTIA

- B4 -

* Life in village and city *

In first glance, we can see the clear difference between life in village and city, first of all, life in city is very difficult and hard, because it needs rapidity and time, while the village life is very simple and easy, no cars, no much people, full gardens and animals, calm, houses made of stone and brick, it looks very gay with its red-tiled roof, wooden building with a thatch roof, so, for that life in village is better than city.

As a conclusion, life is good and beautiful in addition, you know how live it.



Nom: Brachini اللقب:
Prénom: Aicha الاسم:
Date et lieu de naissance: تاريخ ومكان الميلاد:
Département: القسم:
Spécialité: التخصص:
Année: المستوى:
Groupe: G.N° 1 B1 الفوج:
N° d'inscription: رقم التسجيل:

Examen: امتحان:

The Living In The Village's Houses
And The city's Houses.
Between living in a house in a village and living in a city house there is a lot of differences yet nowadays many people like living in the city but they don't know how the life in a village house is so comfortable whatever the ones who live there enjoy the fresh air because of the existence of gardens and trees and no noisiness there also the people living there is so hospitalable. Even though the living in the city is so hard with a polluted atmosphere because of the a big number of cars and factories and also the transportation in the and the life in country side and city houses is completely different.

الملخص

تبحث هذه الدراسة في تحليل أسس التناسق وضوابطه في كتابات عينة من طلاب اللغة الانجليزية، بوصفها لغة أجنبية؛ منطلقين من فرضية مفادها أن إطلاع الطلاب على نماذج الفقرات معدة مسبقا، من شأن ذلك مساعدتهم على تحسين أسلوب كتابتهم. ولهذا الغرض، أجريت الدراسة على 46 طالبا في مستوى السنة الثانية ليسانس، بقسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة الأغواط؛ مقسمين على مجموعتين: مجموعة ضابطة ومجموعة تجريبية، بنحو 23 طالبا لكل مجموعة؛ اعتمد في تعليم المجموعة الأولى، الكتابة بالطريقة التقليدية المعمول بها في القسم؛ و طبق مع المجموعة الثانية آلية الكتابة المقترحة . لهذا الغرض، تم الاستعانة بثلاث أدوات للقياس هي: اختبار قبلي، واختبار بعدي، لفقرات كتبها الطلاب حول موضوع مقترح داخل القسم، يشكل المادة اللازمة للفحص والدراسة؛ إضافة إلى استمارة قبلية موجهة للعينة المدروسة، للتظير في خلفياتهم المعرفية، وأهم الصعوبات التي يواجهونها أثناء الكتابة باللغة الانجليزية.

بعد مقارنة نتائج المجموعتين في القياس البعدي، اتضح وجود فروق ذات دلالة احصائية لصالح المجموعة التجريبية ، ووجود فروق واضحة لصالح القياس البعدي، وذلك بعد مقارنة الاختبارين: القبلي والبعدي للمجموعة التجريبية.

على ضوء النتائج المتحصّل عليها، أكدت الدراسة ضرورة اعتماد نماذج لفقرات متناسقة ومترابطة، معدة مسبقا، كآلية فاعلة لتحسين مهارات الطلاب في الكتابة؛ على اعتبار أنّ ما تمّ الاسترشاد به من نماذج في القسم، ساهم في اكتشاف أخطاء الطلاب، وأثرى مكتسباتهم اللغوية؛ كما تبين جلياً موقف الطلاب الايجابي من اتاحة الفرصة لهم للاطلاع على نماذج جاهزة، كآليات مساعدة لكتابة فقرات تتسم بالتناسق والترابط، والإحكام اللغوي المطلوب.

Résumé

La présente étude vise à décrire et analyser les fondements de la cohérence, afin d'améliorer le style d'écriture d'un paragraphe par les étudiants en langue anglaise, comme étant une langue étrangère. Partant de l'hypothèse qui consiste à informer les étudiants aux modèles de paragraphes préparés auparavant, chose qui peut les aider à améliorer le mode de leurs écritures. A cet effet, l'étude a été menée sur 46 étudiants de la deuxième année licence, au département d'anglais de l'Université de Laghouat, partagé en deux groupes: un groupe témoin et un groupe expérimental, de 23 étudiants par groupe. Les apprenants du premier groupe ont appliqué la méthode traditionnelle, par contre les apprenants du second groupe ont suivi un modèle d'écriture proposé. A cet effet, on a appliqué trois outils de mesure: le pré-test, le post-test et un questionnaire orienté aux étudiants afin d'examiner leurs connaissances de base, et les difficultés qu'ils ont confrontés lors de l'écriture en anglais.

Après avoir comparé les résultats des deux groupes, il est devenu clair qu'il existe des différences statistiquement significatives en faveur du modèle utilisé avec le groupe expérimental, et l'existence de différences claires en faveur du post test.

À la lumière des résultats obtenus, l'étude a souligné la nécessité d'adopter des modèles de paragraphes, comme étant une méthode efficace pour améliorer les compétences d'écriture des apprenants, en prenant en considération de ce qui a été appliqué comme modèles en classe pour contribuer à découvrir les erreurs courantes et diversifier leurs acquis linguistiques. Comme il se révèle clairement, l'attitude positive des étudiants de suivre des modèles prêts à appliquer, afin de les aider à écrire des paragraphes caractérisés par des règles linguistiques interdépendantes et cohérentes.