People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Frères Mentouri University-Constantine 1

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of Letters and English

Investigating the Effectiveness of the Competency-based Approach in Developing Learners' Writing Proficiency: The Case of Second Year Secondary School Pupils- Jijel-

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctorat "Es-Sciences" in Applied Linguistics.

By Safia ADJEROUD   **Supervisor: Prof. Riad BELOUAHEM**

Board of Examiners:

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to all those who saved no efforts to help make this research work come to fruition:

*My beloved father, **Mohammed Cherif**, who, with his being my father, inspired me all along my life journey;*

*My mother, **Fatima**, who, with her ambition, did her best to see all her children succeed;*

*My husband, **RABAH**, without whose support, encouragement, and patience, this thesis would not have come to an end;*

*My **beloved children***

***MALAK, MERIEM, ALAEDDINE**, **WALID**, and **NOURSINE**;*

*My sisters **Faiza** and **Amina**, with love, respect, and thankfulness;*

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*My brother-in-law **Abedlhalim** with gratitude and respect;*

*My **large family** and **in-laws** for being there with me;*

*All my **nephews** and **nieces**;*

*My dear **Chadia** and my teacher **Mrs. Zahia BOUCHAIR**;*

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ABSTRACT

Despite the existing dissention on the very methodology for effective writing instruction in the research literature, researchers and field practitioners have come to recognize the role of quality instruction in developing the writing competence. The present study aims at investigating the effectiveness of writing instruction within the Competency-Based Approach in secondary schools of Jijel, with the intent to negotiate and scheme the quest for rendering writing instruction more effective. The study explores the teachers' views on and knowledge about the different traditions of writing instruction and the Competency-Based Approach through a questionnaire addressed to 83 secondary school teachers of English in Jijel. It additionally attempts to investigate their classroom practices through a classroom observation conducted in two different classes, using a self-constructed observation protocol. The study also aims at analysing and evaluating the writing component in the textbook, *'Getting Through'* using a self-elaborated checklist, along with evaluating pupils' writing competences. The thesis is based on the hypothesis that ineffective teaching of writing within the scope of this approach may result from the teachers' non-application of its principles, and from the non-consideration of such principles in the design of the textbook. The results revealed the teachers' awareness of the basic claims of the Competency-Based Approach, but a limited knowledge about the writing instruction methodologies and the classroom practices. The findings also denoted the existence of some incompatibility between the teachers' views and their classroom practices, and the non- compatibility of the writing component in the textbook with the Competency-Based Approach. The results additionally translated the existence of some problems in developing the writing competence, which in turn implies the ineffectiveness of the teaching of the writing skill. Hence, rethinking the efficacy of writing instruction is

highly recommended, through demystifying the writing skill and revisiting its component in the textbook *'Getting Through'*.

Key words: Competency-Based Approach; Writing Instruction; Evaluation; Textbook.

List of Abbreviations and Symbols

% : Percentage.

EFL: English as a foreign language.

CBA: The Competency-Based Approach.

C1: Pertinence of communication.

 C2: Textual coherence.

C3: Mastery of linguistic resources.

 C4: Quality of presentation.

C5: Originality.

ICT: Information and Communication Technologies.

P: Page number.

SE2: Secondary Education, Year two.

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development.

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2. Statement of the Problem.

3. Aims of the Study.

4. Research Questions and Hypotheses.

5. Research Methodology and Tools.

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General Introduction

1.   Background of the Study

   Teaching and learning writing in English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL), as compared to the other language skills, has always been an important but a challenging task for both learners and teachers alike (Kroll, 1994; Hyland, 2003). Such a reality possibly stems from the very utterly complicated nature of the writing act and the very demanding whatness of the writing competence, which is conducive to developing communicative competence. This entails moving along the continuum of writing competence development and mastery, which will in turn bring evidence of good command of target language use (Hyland, 2003). Given its importance, teaching and learning writing in EFL has been much solicited all over the world, and Algeria is no exception to such an actuality.

   In an attempt to explore the historical sketch of the teaching methodologies in the Algerian context, one can embark into listing the very successive but reaction trends in the fashion-forward tradition that escorted the teaching and learning of EFL, a move that has ultimately been shaped by the recently-adopted Competency-Based Approach (CBA), under the supervision of the Ministry of National Education. The in-vogue approach was first endorsed in the Algerian middle schools before it came to be introduced to secondary education, with the intent to refine learners' performances and make them geared towards successful oral and written communication. The intrusion of such an approach (Keskes, 2012), however, has in effect nurtured the debate about whether to teach EFL in such a way as to satisfy the institutional demands and educational requirements, or to merely brace the at-odds teachers' resistance to such innovative changes. In both stand positions, the challenge is, by far, hard to please.

   The teaching of writing in the EFL classroom has also witnessed a shift in focus and interest, and this has come to accompany parallel advance in the line of reasoning of the

different teaching methodologies. As for the teaching of writing within the scope of the CBA in the Algerian educational context, it rather leans towards developing learners' communicative competence (Ministry of National Education, 2005), a one-of-a kind multidimensional concept echoing the claim for developing learners' competence in writing. It is oriented towards preparing learners to be autonomous individual capable of coping with the demands of the modern society and helping them share and exchange scientific, cultural and civilisational ideas and experiences. Teaching and learning to write under the CBA has, then, impulsed learners to write for successful functioning in the modern society of which they make part (Ministry of National Education, 2005).

2.   Statement of the Problem

In spite of the brought about changes in the EFL teaching methodologies and approaches to writing instruction, one can dare acknowledge the very existence of non satisfactory realities and classroom practices in relation to teaching writing in the Algerian secondary education. Such claims have stemmed from the researcher's former experience as a secondary school teacher of English for about eight years, and also from the researcher's informal reports and discussions with colleague teachers who, repeatedly, voiced their dissatisfaction with their pupils' reluctance to write in English. Moreover, being a field practitioner, the researcher was discontented about the content of the secondary education, year two, (SE2) textbook *'Getting Through'* in general, and with its writing component in particular. As a former *'consumer'* of the textbook, no guidelines for teaching writing were suggested to monitor classroom practices, and no other alternative than simply obeying the official documents was advanced; the teaching of writing, then, was, by and large, a rule of thumb activity. Such a negative aura did become the ground for the pupils' failure to learn both EFL and the writing skill, a situation that in turn motivated the researcher's impulsive trials for unveiling the reasons behind such a state of affairs, and

in the affirmative, provide remedies likely to render writing instruction under the CBA in the route for efficacy.

Advancing claims about such a state of affairs does interrogate the need to thoroughly audit accounts of writing instruction within such an enterprise, which in turn implies revisiting and rethinking convictions, norms, and practices that, if accepted as such, will make both pupils and teachers run the risk of escaping the line of inquiry that is likely to reform the current situation of teaching writing in Algerian secondary education.

3. Aims of the Study

The present thesis focuses on exploring the realities of teaching writing under the scope of the CBA, with particular reference to SE2 in Jijel District. The aim of the present research work is threefold. Firstly, it purports to investigate the teachers' views and attitudes towards the teaching of English and the writing skill within the current approach. It also attempts to investigate the teachers' views on the importance of writing in academic achievement, and on the implementation of both the approach and the SE2 textbook to teach the writing skill. Records of such views will be partly informative about the teachers' awareness of the underlying principles of the approach and will help make inferences about their readiness to put such an approach into practice. Secondly, the study comes as an attempt to investigate the reasons behind such a questionable situation through mirroring SE2 teachers' daily classroom practices and by checking the compatibility of their classroom practices with the basic claims of the CBA. The present thesis also explores how writing as a component was approached in the SE2 textbook, and attempts to determine the extent to which the textbook '*Getting Through*' satisfied the teachers' and learners' expectations. Thirdly, the study aims at making inferences about the effectiveness of the writing instruction within the framework of the CBA, through evaluating the writing competences of SE2 pupils in Jijel, for this may partly contribute to reaching conclusions

as for the reasons behind the current problematic situation, and hopefully come to provide solutions.

4.   Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present thesis attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What attitudes do secondary school teachers of English hold towards the teaching of writing within the CBA?

2.   Are secondary school teachers of English knowledgeable enough about the principles of the CBA and its implementation?

3.   Are secondary school teachers of English knowledgeable enough about the teaching of writing under the CBA?

4. Do SE2 teachers apply the CBA principles when teaching writing?

5. Is the writing component in the SE2 textbook designed with consideration of the principles of the CBA?

The present research assumes that effective teaching of writing under the CBA partly results from the teachers' consideration and rigorous application of the principles of the CBA. In order to answer the above research questions, the following hypotheses are articulated:

Hypothesis one: Ineffective teaching of writing under the CBA may result from the teachers' non-application of the principles of the CBA.

Hypothesis two: Ineffective teaching of writing under the CBA may result from the non-consideration of the CBA principles in the design of the SE2 textbook of English 'Getting Though'.

5.   Research Methodology and Tools

The present thesis is descriptive in nature. It investigates views and attitudes but more importantly portrays the different classroom dynamics related to teaching writing in

secondary education.   As explained by Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2012, p. 15), "descriptive studies describe a given state of affairs as fully and carefully as possible." With relevance to the overall aims of the present study, which relate to collecting information as to the effectiveness of the CBA in teaching writing in secondary school level, and given the fact that evaluation is rather multidimensional, the use of the mixed method approach to research methodology stands to be of particular relevance to such a research scope and orientation. As defined by Mertens (2010, p. 293), "Mixed methods can refer to the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods to answer research questions in a single study, as well as those studies that are part of a larger research program and are designed as complementary to provide information related to several research questions, each answered with a different methodological approach." Put differently, quantitative and qualitative research tools are used in this study. A questionnaire, meant to investigate the secondary school teachers' views on the CBA and the teaching of writing, is the quantitative data collection tool to be implemented. Moreover, a classroom observation, which is to be carried out using a self-constructed observation protocol, and which is likely to mirror the different classroom practices and to generate qualitative data, is to be used. Additionally, and always within the scope of qualitative inquiry is the implementation of a textbook evaluation using a self-constructed checklist, and aiming at exploring the SE2 textbook's content, along with a writing competencies evaluation through the analysis of pupils' written productions, following the framework suggested by De Ketele (2013).

As for the results, which are to be recorded through the questionnaire and the classroom observation, they partly contribute to gaining an overview on the teaching/learning situation in secondary schools and to digging deeper into the realities of writing instruction in classroom setting, for this is a necessary preliminary step in the process of such an investigation. The use of these two research tools is viewed important in

that it helps determine and understand teachers' views and attitudes towards the teaching of writing (syllabus, textbook, and classroom practices) within the scope of the CBA. The results to be yielded from classroom observation are to uncover the realities of both teachers' and pupils' practices in classroom setting, and how these make use of the textbook when teaching/learning writing. The results are, then, to confirm (or refute) the results of the questionnaire.

6. Structure of the Thesis

The present thesis is presented in six chapters. The first chapter gives an overview of the various approaches and methods in foreign language teaching, with more focus on the CBA, being the concern of the study. It first defines the basic concepts of approach, method, and techniques, for these will be repeatedly appear in the thesis and are central to outlining the development of such methodologies. The chapter introduces the concept of Competency-Based Education and Competency-Based Language Teaching, with the latter being the putting into practice of the former. The CBA is made explicit by explaining its underlying theoretical foundations, its basic claims, the teachers' and learners' roles, the syllabus, the materials, the activities, along with assessment practices in the CBA classroom. Moreover, an overview of the CBA in the Algerian context is given, with particular reference to the general aims and objectives, integration pedagogy, and project work, all being common to such a teaching methodology. The chapter ends by portraying the concept of writing instruction in the CBA context, which is the main concern of the present research work.

The second chapter is also theoretical and reviews the literature relevant to the writing skill, its importance, and the different approaches to writing instruction in EFL. The chapter also introduces the concept of materials used in teaching writing and the different writing tasks implemented in for teaching writing. Assessment of the writing skill is also

included in the first chapter, with its different methods and procedures, namely, traditional assessment and alternative assessment with its different forms, and which are very common to the CBA classroom. The chapter ends with concern about feedback, which is complementary but very central to reaching effectiveness of instruction, especially in highly demanding skills.

As for the third chapter, which is theoretical, as well, it attempts to elucidate the concept of evaluation, for the latter stands to be the aim of the current study. It introduces aspects such as purposes, dimensions, and basic consideration in conducting evaluation. It also depicts the different procedures relevant to practising evaluation. The chapter ends with material/textbook evaluation and evaluation of the writing competences as being part of the practical side of the thesis.

Chapter four and chapter five are devoted to approaching the field work of the study. The fourth chapter-The questionnaire and the classroom observation analyses- introduces the research design, methodology, and instrumentation before it considers the questionnaire and the classroom observation, each separately. It describes the aims, the participants, and the tools; it also analyses and discusses the findings of both types. Chapter five, concerned with evaluating the writing component in the SE2 textbook, describes the framework and instrument used and also discusses the findings. The chapter also presents an evaluation of pupils' written productions and discusses its findings with relevance to the literature and the study aims.

The results to be recorded from the questionnaire, the classroom observation, the textbook evaluation, and the evaluation of the competencies are all discussed and interpreted in the sixth chapter, with consideration of the research questions and hypotheses. Some pedagogical recommendations and implications are to be outlined, on

the basis of the resulting interpretations and the literature relevant to the present research work.

Chapter One: Approaches and Methods in Foreign Language Teaching: From Traditional Methods to the Competency- Based Approach.

Introduction

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Conclusion

You cannot teach a man anything; you can only help him find it within himself.
Galileo Galilei
If we teach today's students as we taught yesterday's, we rob them of tomorrow.
John Dewey

Introduction

The history of teaching and learning EFL has undergone shifts and changes in interest and orientation, due to the changing philosophical traditions that were to accompany it. The present chapter reviews the historical development of the different methodologies and approaches to teaching EFL, with specific concern about the lastly-adopted CBA. It also unveils the different theories underlying such an orientation and outlines its basic principles, its objectives, the teachers' and the learners' roles, materials, activities, and assessment. Additionally, the chapter elucidates the implementation of this approach in the Algerian context and elaborates the teaching of writing within such a framework.

1.1. Key Definitions: Approach, Method, Technique

In trying to establish a clear overview about the different approaches and methods that existed so far, one needs to make things also clear as to what each term stands for. At first glance, the terms 'approach' and 'method' seem to be synonymous; they do, however, have quite different interpretations.

In the words of Anthony (1963, p. 63), an approach is "a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught…" (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2014, p. 19). Furthermore, Richards and Rodgers (2014) relied on Anthony's model to explain that an approach is the level at which beliefs and assumptions about language and language learning are specified. Brown (2000) and Davies and Pearse (2009) stood to hold similar positions and maintained that an approach relates to theoretically well-informed positions and beliefs about the nature of language and language learning and how applicable both are to pedagogical situations.

With reference to all these positions, it can be said that an approach is abstract; it relates to the underlying principles of a given learning situation, but additionally to the ways in which those principles can be put into practice. Brown (2002, p. 11) summed it up: "An approach to language pedagogy is not just a set of static principles « set in stone. » It is, in fact, a dynamic composite of energies within a teacher that changes (or should change, if one is a growing teacher) with continued experience in learning and teaching."

A method is an umbrella term. It is rather related to the practical realisation of a given approach (Davies & Pearse, 2009). According to Anthony (1963), a method is "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 19). Davies and Pearse (2009) asserted that behind a method, there always is an approach. More importantly, he added that a method goes further to relate to such elements as the syllabus, the learning activities, and the teaching techniques. Harmer (2001) also explained that a method determines the different types of activities and kinds of materials that can be helpful, but more importantly to the diverse roles both teachers and learners are to play in the classroom.

Given the very similar interpretations of both an approach and a method and because both terms are, by and large, two sides of the same coin, one can easily come to use the terms interchangeably.

According to Anthony (1963), a technique is any kind of stratagem or trick to be actually implemented in the classroom for the sake of accomplishing an immediate objective. He added that there should be some kind of consistency and harmony as to using techniques ; the latter should relate the method and be relevant to the underlying approach (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2014, p. 19).

The history of foreign language teaching was and still is subject to many changes in the teaching methods and approaches, as a result of the ongoing changing flows in the field of

linguistics, psychology, and pedagogy. These changes are summarised in the following sketch.

1.2. A Historical Sketch of Approaches and Methods in EFL

1.2.1. The Grammar-Translation Method

Also referred to as the classical method, the grammar translation method came to be used for the teaching of classical Latin and Greek which were treated as dead languages (Palmer, 1925; As cited in Howatt and Smith, 2014, p. 81). It dates back to the 1840's and was the prevailing method until the 1940's (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). Earlier in the same century, it was used to help students read and appreciate pieces of foreign language literature (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011).

Howatt (1984) claimed that the grammar-translation method was developed to be used in secondary schools and could even be labeled the grammar-school method. As its names implies, the grammar-translation method focuses on deductive teaching of grammatical rules, memorisation of vocabulary, doing mental gymnastics, translation of texts, and doing written activities (Brown, 2000). Translating texts from and to the mother tongue was widely utilised as a practice tool of the rules. This method assumes that the learning (and thus teaching) of a foreign language is similar to the learning of the native language. It views writing as being the superior form of a language. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) summarised the principles of the grammar-translation method in the following points :

➢ The basic purpose of foreign language learning is to be able to read literature written in that target language.

➢ Literary language is superior to spoken language, and the study of the foreign labguage culture is limited to its literature and fine arts.

➢ The purpose of studying the trget language is also to be able to translate each language into another one.

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➢ Communication is not the target of foreign language instruction.

➢ Vocabulary and grammar are emphasised; reading and writing are primary skills ; little attention is given to speaking and listening ; pronunciation is not emphasised.

➢ It is possible to find native language equivalents for all target language words.

➢ Deductive application of an explicit grammar rule is a useful pedagogical technique.

➢ Language learning provides good mental practice.

➢ Students are evaluated using written tests in which they are supposed to translate from the native language to the target language or vice versa.

➢ The teacher is the authority in the classroom and the one who corrects students' mistakes (pp. 17-20).

With reference to the previously cited principles of the grammar-translation method, it is worth mentioning that it does rely on drilling exercises, memorisation of endless lists of rules of grammars and vocabulary, and on the use of the mother tongue. It is, however a method that is not grounded in theory: there is no literature that explains its relation to the field of linguistics, psychology, or theories of education. In the mid and late 19th century, dissatisfaction about the grammar-translation method paved the way for new interests in introducing reforms into the teaching of foreign languages, and this was referred to as the Reform Movement (Richards and Rodgers, 2014, p. 7).

1.2.2. The Direct Method

It is in the mid 19th century that the traditional method started to be questioned as it failed to satisfy students' needs to learn foreign languages for communication purposes. This paved the way for the direct method to be popular. The Direct Method relied on the new sciences of the 19th century, especially linguistics and psychology and developed as a revolution against the Grammat Translation Method (Davies & Pearse, 2009).

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The Direct Method is not that new. For many years, language teachers have been adopting its principles. Contrary to the grammar-translation approach, the direct method allows for no translation. It was even so called because meaning was conveyed directly in the target language through demonstration and visual aids, with no use of the native language (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, p. 25). To the core of this method is that second language learning should resemble more first language learning in that it consists of spontaneous use of language, lots of oral interaction, no translation, and little or no analysis of grammar rules (Brown, 2000). As Thornbury (1999) put it: "The learners, it was supposed, picked up the grammar in much the same way as children pick up the grammar of their mother tongue, simply by being immersed in language." (p. 21). Davies and Pearse (2009) added that in the Direct Method, languages are seen as systems of communication, mainly oral, in which words are used together in sentences, which are in turn used together in discourse. Languages are meant to be learnt best in a natural manner, through aural exposure to the words and sentences in context, and then proceeding through imitation. Because the use of the native language is banned, students rely on showing, drawing, miming, or demonstrating things. Of great importance is oral practice through asking and answering questions, with students taking the great deal of talk. The teacher should be active : he/she is supposed to demonstrate the language, to organise and guide practice, but additionally to correct the mistakes students may commit (p. 189).

Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011), inferring from observations made of an English teacher adopting the Direct Method in a class, explained the principles of the method. For them, for effective communication in the target language, students need to learn to think in the target language. They, together with teachers, need to be more like partners in the teaching-learning process. Interaction is initiated from both sides. For the sake of passing meaning, teachers should make use of realia, pictures, or pantomime. The syllabus used in the Direct Method is based upon situations or topics. Students study the culture consisting

of the history of the target language speakers, the geography of the English-speaking countries, and daily life of the English speaking community. Vocabulary is emphasised over grammar, and pronunciation receives attention from the start of the course. In the Direct Method, they added, students are supposed to actually use the target language, rather than to show their knowledge about it. They may be asked to write paragraphs about things they studied before or can even be interviewed orally by the teacher for purposes of evaluation. The teacher should provide opportunities for self-correction whenever possible (Larsen- Freeman & Anderson, 2011, pp. 28-31).

Richards and Rodgers (2014) had very similar views and summarised the principles of the Direct Method as follows:

➢ Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language;

➢ Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught;

➢ Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around questions-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small intensive classes;

➢ Grammar was taught inductively;

➢ New teaching points were taught through modelling and practice;

➢ Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, pictures; Abstract vocabulary was taught through association of ideas;

➢ Both speech and listening comprehension were taught;

➢ Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized (p. 12).

As with the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method had many drawbacks. It required teachers to be native speakers or to have native-like fluency in the foreign language. Furthermore, teachers were supposed to opt for exclusive use of the target

language as a route to comprehension while they could briefly explain using the native language. In addition, the Direct Method was criticised for not having a thorough methodological basis (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). Furthermore, the Direct Method, based on the idea that the target language can be learnt exactly in the same way as the native language, was subject to question because conditions for both types of learning seem to be far from being alike.

1.2.3. Situational Language Teaching

Situational Language Teaching is a method that shares many principles with the Direct Method and appeared partly in response to its weaknesses, but more imprtantly to the idea that language can be properly understood only when using it in real situations. It was developed in the United Kingdom in the 1920's and 1930's by British applied linguists and continued progressing till the 1970's. Two leading figures of this movement were Harold Palmer and A. S. Hornby, who tried to establish a more scientific foundation to teaching English than was done in the Direct Method. Overall agreement among language teaching specialists on the fact that vocabulary was one of the most important elements of foreign language teaching emerged at that time and started to change the teaching orientations and beliefs. Furthermore, there was a growing tendency to emphasise the reading skills as a goal of studying foreign languages in some countries. Vocabulary was then central to the genral reading proficiency, paving the way for developing principles of vocabulary control and selection necessary for designing language courses. In addition to establishing rational principles of vocabulary selection, interest in focusing on the grammar content arose. Situational Language Teaching put forward selection, gradation, and presentation of the language content of courses in a systematic way. In other words, lexical and grammatical content were chosen, organised and sequenced according to specific criteria and principles, and then presented using given techniques (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). Richards and Rodgers (2014) listed the principles of this approach in what follow:

1-Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in oral form.

2-The target language is the language of the classroom.

3-New language points are introduced and practised situationally.

4-Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered.

5-Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.

6-Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established (p. 39).

The Direct Method should not, then, be confused with this approach that clearly emphasises the selection and grading of language items.

The theory of language underlying Situational Language Teaching relates to British structuralism. Language was regarded as a purposeful activity related to goals and real situations of use. Speech is the basis of language and structure is the core of the speaking ability. Knowledge of structures must relate to situations in which those structures could be used (Richards and Rodgers, 2014).

As to the theory of learning, it rather relates to the behaviourist habit-learning theory. Language learning is habit-formation; correct speech habits are central to language learning. Teaching and learning grammar is done in an inductive way: the meaning of words is induced from the way for mis used in a given situation. Explanation is not favoured; learners should themselves deduce the meaning of a given structure or lexical item from the situation in which it came to be presented. Learners are then supposed to make use of previously-learnt language items in situations outside the classroom. Situational language teaching aims at teaching practical mastery of the four basic language skills, the latters which are approached through structure. More importantly, in this

approach, of crucial importance is accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar, with no tolerance for errors. In addition, Situational Language Teaching adopts a structural syllabus, which is a list of basic structures and sentence patterns of English, arranged according to the order in which they were presented. Following that approach, structures are taught within sentences and the vocabulary items selected are those needed to teach those sentence structures. Guided repetition, substitution practice, dictation, drills, pair and group work, and controlled oral-based reading and writing tasks are some of the practice techniques to be employed under this approach. The teacher acts as a model, an orchestra learder, and a manipulator using questions and orders to elicit correct responses. He/she is supposed to rely on the textbook and visual aids that are very helpful in presenting the language items (Richards and Rodgers, 2014).

According to Richards (2006), in a typical lesson according to the situational approach, a three-step sequence, known as the *P-P-P cycle,* was often employed: *Presentation*, *Practice*, and *Production*. By presentation, it was meant that the new grammar structure is presented, often by means of a conversation or short text. The teacher explains the new structure and checks students' understanding. In practice, students use the new structure in a controlled context, through drills or substitution activities. In production, they practice using the new structure in different contexts, often using their own content or information, in order to develop fluency with the new structure. By the mid 1960's however, the approach came to be questioned for its over-emphasis of oral practice and for giving no opportunity for the learners to take decisions as to the content of their learning.

1.2.4.The Audio-Lingual Method

The Audiolingual Method is an oral approach that was developed by American linguists in the United States during World War II. Similar to the Direct Mehod, it aims at using the target language communicatively. However, it is diffrent in that "…rather than emphasizing vocabulary acquisition through exposure to its use in situations, the Audio-

Lingual Method drills students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns." (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 35)

The Audiolingual Method is strongly grounded in theories of linguistics and psychology. The theory of language underlying Audiolingualism came to be known as structural linguistics that developed as a reaction to traditional grammar. By the 1930's, the study of language was scientifically approached and consisted of collecting examples of speech and analysing them according to different levels of structural organisation. This involved transcribing spoken utterances phonetically and working out the phonemic, morphological, and syntactic systems underlying the grammar of the language. Language was considered as a system of structurally related elements (phonemes, morphemes, words, structures, and sentence types) meant for the encoding of meaning. In structual linguistics, language is speech, and the latter is prioritised in language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). As to the theory of learning, Richards and Rodgers maintained that it related to behaviourist psychlogy, viewing foreign language learning as a process of mechanical habit formation, and that "good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes." (2001, p.57). They added that language skills are learnt better if the target language items to be learnt are introduced in the spoken form before they come to be seen in writing.

The main activities used in the audiolingual classroom are dialogue repetition and memorisation, and also substitution drills (Davies & Pearse, 2009). The teacher should act as an orchestra leader, ready to conduct, guide, and control the students' behavior in the target language. He/she should be aware of students'possible difficulties. The language skills should be learnt in the following order : listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Errors are to be avoided at all expenses (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

In a typical audiolingual classroom, the lesson steps would consist of the following:

1. Students first hear a model dialog (either read by the teacher or on tape) containing key structures that are the focus of the lesson. They repeat each line of the dialog, individually and in chorus. The teacher pays attention to pronunciation, intonation, and fluency. Correction of mistakes of pronunciation or grammar is direct and immediate. The dialog is memorized gradually, line by line. A line may be broken down into several phrases if necessary. The dialog is read aloud in chorus, one half saying one speaker's part and the other half responding. The students do not consult their book throughout this phase.

2. The dialog is adapted to the students' interest or situation, through changing certain key words or phrases. This is acted out by the students.

3. Certain key structures from the dialog are selected and used as the basis for pattern drills of different kinds. These are first practiced in chorus and then individually. Some grammatical explanation may be offered at this point, but this is kept to an absolute minimum.

4. The students may refer to their textbook, and follow-up reading, writing, or vocabulary activities based on the dialog may be introduced.

5. Follow-up activities may take place in the language laboratory, where further dialog and drill work is carried out (Richards and Rodgers 2001, pp. 64–65).

As with previous methods and after being in vogue in the 1960's, the Audiolingual Method came to its end. It was viewed to have weak theoretical foundations and was

criticised for paving no way to students' creativity as it heavily relied on repetition. It also makes them unable to transfer the previously-learnt skills to act naturally and spontaneously in communication contexts. Noam Chomsky, the American well-known linguist, rejected the behaviourist theory of language learning and the structural approach to language. The end of the 1960's marked the decline of Audiolingualism and opened doors for new fashion in foreign language teaching enterprise.

1.2.5. Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) or the Communicative Approach started in the 1970's as a reaction to the traditional approaches focusing on grammar and accuracy. There grew then a new tendency to learn the diffrent skills needed to function effectively in communication situations. Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) made the change clear through the comparison shown in the table below:

Table 1: *A Comparison between the Audiolingual Method and Communicative Language Teaching* (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983, pp. 91-93; as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, pp. 156-7).

Audio-lingual Method	Communicative Language Teaching
1. Attends to structure and form more than meaning.	Meaning is paramount.
2. Demands memorization of structure-based dialogs.	Dialogues, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
3. Language items are not necessarily contextualized.	Contextualization is a basic premise.
4. Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words.	Language learning is learning to communicate.
5. Mastery, or "over-learning" is sought.	Effective communication is sought.
6. Drilling is a central technique.	Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
7. Native-speaker-like pronunciation is sought.	Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
8. Grammatical explanation is avoided.	Any device which helps the learners is accepted — varying according to their age, interest, etc.
9. Communicative activities only come after a long process of rigid drills and exercises	Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.

10. The use of the student's native language is forbidden.	Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
11. Translation is forbidden at early levels	Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
12. Reading and writing are deferred till speech is mastered.	Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
13. The target linguistic system will be learned through the overt teaching of the patterns of the system.	The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
14. Linguistic competence is the desired goal.	Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e. the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
15. Varieties of language are recognized but not emphasized.	Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.
16. The sequence of units is determined solely by principles of linguistic complexity.	Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest.
17. The teacher controls the learners and prevents them from doing anything that conflicts with the theory.	Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
18. "Language is habit" so errors must be prevented at all costs.	Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.
19. Accuracy, in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal.	Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
20. Students are expected to interact with the language system, embodied in machines or controlled materials	Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
21. The teacher is expected to specify the language that students are to use.	The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use.
22. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in the structure of the language.	Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

(Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983, pp. 91-93; as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, pp. 156-7)

Roberts (2004) claimed that there are four sources of inspiration for CLT: the viewing of language as a social tool, the growing need for instruction in English, Wilkins's and others' work for the Council of Europe, and Hymes' communivative competence. Richards and Rodgers (2001) had a very identical view to that of Roberts (2004) and thoroughly explained the background to CLT. According to Richards and Rdgers (2001), Chomsky criticized the structural view of language; other British linguists emphasized the functional

and communicative potential of language, something that was misregarded in previous approaches. In such trend were scholars such as Candlin and Widdowson, who drew on the work of British functional linguists (Firth and Halliday), American sociolinguist (Hymes and Labov), and philosophers such as Austin and Searle. In addition to that, a growing tendency to develop new teaching methods was a priority as European countries grew interdependent and the teaching of adults the major languages of the European market became a necessity. Another factor that set grounds for CLT to take place rather related to the possibility to develop language courses on a unit-credit system. Wilkins (1972; as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2011, p. 154) proposed a language definition that could serve for developing communicative syllabuses (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

> The work of the council of Europe; the writings of Wilkins, Widdowson, Candlin, Christopher Brumfit, Keith Johnson, and other British applied linguist on the theoretical basis for a communicative or functional approach to language teaching; the rapid application of these ideas by textbook writers; and the equally rapid acceptance of these new principles by British language teaching specialists, curriculum development centers, and even government gave prominence nationally and internationally to what came to be referred to as the Communicative Approach, or simply Communicative Language Teaching (p. 154).

Howatt and Smith (2004) explained the origins of CLT in those lines:

> What came to be known as Communicative Language Teaching or 'The Communicative Approach' brought together a variety of different but related initiatives. A major initial driving force was the Council of Europe project to create an internationally valid language assessment system, which in turn led to a fresh approach

to course design through the specification of objectives in semantic/pragmatic rather than the traditional syntactic terms. There were also English for Specific Purposes projects, including the development of English for Academic Purposes. Finally, there were new kinds of communicative activity or 'task' (p. 89).

Similarly, Savignon (2006) added:

The elaboration of what we know as CLT can be traced to concurrent 20th-century developments in linguistic theory and language learning curriculum design both in Europe and in North America. In Europe, the language needs of a rapidly increasing group of immigrants and guest workers along with a rich British linguistic tradition that included social as well as linguistic context in the description of language behavior (Firth, 1930; Halliday, 1978) led to the development of a syllabus for learners based on notionalfunctional concepts of language use. With sponsorship from the Council of Europe, a Threshold Level of language ability was proposed for each of the languages of Europe in terms of what learners should be able to do with the language (Van Ek, 1975). Functions were based on the assessment of learner needs and specified the end result or goal of an instructional program (p. 209).

Actually, there is no one agreed on definition of CLT. "It is unified but broadly based, theoretically well informed set of tenets about the nature of language and of language learning and teaching." (Brown, 2000, p. 43) Given the fact that it refers to a diverse set of general and uncontroversial principles, CLT can have different interpretations and can be used to support a wide range of classroom procedures (Richards,

2002). Similarly, Harmer (2007) asserted that the real problem when trying to define CLT is that it means different things to different people. Henceforth, offering a definition of CLT would, by all means, be a problematic issue. One can indulge in simply describing its aims and also characteristics.

The Communicative Approach is a learner-centered approach that aims at teaching communicative competence (a term coined by Dell Hymes in 1972), and also at developing procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). By communicative competence, Richards pointed to these aspects of language knowledge:

> -Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes
> and functions
>
> -Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting
> and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and
> informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written
> as opposed to spoken communication)
>
> -Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts
> (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations)
>
> -Knowing how to maintain communication despite having
> limitations in one's language knowledge (e.g., through using
> different kinds of communication strategies) (Richards, 2006, p. 3)

The Communicative Approach is based on the theory of language as communication. Halliday's functional account of language use is another linguistic theory of communication sollicitated by CLT. It complements Hymes view of communicative competence. Halliday (1975; as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) described seven basic functions language performs for children learning their first language: the

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instrumental function (using language to get things), the regulatory function (using language to control the behavior of others), the interactional function (using language to interact with others), the personal function (using language to express personal feelings and meanings), the heuristic function (using language to learn and to discover), the imaginative function (using language to create a world of imagination), and the representational function (using language to communicate information). Widdowson's view (1978) of the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse was also influential in CLT. Moreover, Canale and Swain (1980) refined and extended Hymes' model (1972) to state that communicative competence has four dimensions: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence refers to what Chomsky calls 'linguistic competence'. It relates to grammatical and lexical capacity.

Sociolinguistic competence is an understanding of the social context in which communication takes place including role relationships, the shared knowledge of the participants and the communicative purpose of their interaction. Discourse competence refers to the interpretation of individual message elements and how these are interrelated and how meaning is represented in relationship to discourse or text. Strategic competence refers to the coping strategies that participants in communication utilise to start, terminate, maintain, repair and redirect communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Advocates of CLT equated learning a second language to the acquisition of the linguistic means to perform different functions. The communicative view of language can be explained in what follow:

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.

2. The primary function of language is to allow interaction and communication.

3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative

uses.

4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse (Richrds and Rodgers, 2001, p. 161).

The theory of language learning relates to the principle of communication. Communicative activities promote learning and are supposed to include language that carries out meaningful tasks. They should be selected according to how well they engage students in meaningful and authentic situations of language use (Richrds and Rodgers, 2001).

According to Harmer (2007), for activities to be truly communicative, students should, right from the beginning, have a desire for communication; they should fix an aim of communication; they need to be focused on the content of what they are saying or writing rather than on a specific language form; they also need to make use of a variety of language structures rather than focusing on only one structure. Such activities, he added, should be a replication of real situations of communication.

As to Richards (2006), to the core of CLT is developing fluency in language use. This could be done by designing classroom activities that make students engage in meaning negotiation, utilize communication strategies, correct misunderstandings, and escape breakdowns in communication. He described fluency-focused activities as activities that reflect natural meaningful use of language, that focus on achieving communication, that require implementing communication strategies, that generate unpredictable knowledge, and that aim at matching context to language use.

Littlewood (1981) classified classroom activities into two kinds: pre-communicative activities (structural activities and quasi-communicative activities), and communicative activities. Functional communication activities require students to use their language

resources to bridge up an information gap or solve a problem. Social interactional activities require the learner to pay attention to the context and the roles of the participants, and to attend to such things as formal versus informal language (functional communication activities and social interactional activities).

To the core of CLT activities is the notion of 'Information gap'. By that, it is meant that in real authentic situations of language use, people are supposed to participate in communication for the sake of getting information they do not actually possess. They are required to go beyond practice of language forms for their own sake and use their linguistic and communicative resources in order to get information. In so doing, they will draw available vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies to complete a task. In CLT, emphasis is put on pair and group work. This can be shown through classroom activities such as role plays, task-completion activities (e. g. map reading, games, and puzzles), information- gathering activities, information-transfer activities (Richards, 2006).

Guided role play is another standard communicative technique implemented in the CLT classroom, where students improvise conversations around an issue for the sake of practicing how to assume particular roles in situations (Cook, 2008)

Howatt (1984) distinguished between a 'strong' and a 'weak' version of CLT. The weak version (learning to use English) stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and characteristically attempt to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching. The strong version (using English to learn it) advances the view that language is acquired through communication so that it is not simply a matter of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language but of stimulating the development of the language system itself (p. 279).

Savignon (2006) described CLT by explaining what it is not. She claimed that CLT is not only face-to-face oral communication ; its principles apply equally to reading and

writing activities that involve readers and writers engaged in the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning; specific learner needs determine the goals in a given context. In addition, CLT does not require small group or pair work; group tasks have proved to be helpful in many contexts as they provide increased opportunity and motivation for communication. However, classroom group or pair work should not be considered an essential feature and may well be inappropriate in some contexts. Finally, CLT does not exclude a focus on metalinguistic awareness or knowledge of rules of syntax, discourse, and social appropriateness. CLT cannot be found in any one textbook or set of curricular materials inasmuch as strict adherence to a given text is not likely to be true to the processes and goals of CLT. As to the notion of context of situation, CLT is properly considered as an approach, or theory of intercultural communicative competence to be used in designing materials and methods relevant to a specific context of learning (p. 213).

As to syllabus, Wilkins' notional syllabus greatly influenced the design of communicative language textbooks and syllabi, in addition to the writings of Widdowson, Candlin, Brumfit among others (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Many syllabus types were suggested by CLT proponents. These were the skills-based syllabus that focuses on the four skills and their microskills, the functional syllabus organised according to the functions learners are supposed to be able to carry out in English, the notional syllabus based around the content and notions learners would need to express, the task-syllabus specifying the tasks and activities to be done in the classroom, and later the communicative syllabus termed Threshol Level, describing the level of proficiency to be attained to start real communication and specifying topics, functions, notions, situations, grammar, and vocabulary (Richards, 2006).

In a CLT classroom, the teacher is a facilitator of communication and the one responsible for providing situations likely to develop communication. He/she is supposed to advise students and monitor their performance. Students are communicators, meaning

negotiators, and are responsible for their own learning. Central to CLT is the use of authentic materials. Functions of language might be emphasised over forms. Only simple forms are introduced at first, but as students progress in learning the target language, functions are introduced again and more complex forms are learnt. The four skills are being worked on right from the beginning. Both accuracy and fluency are evaluated by the teacher. To assess writing, the student might for example be asked to write a letter. Errors are tolerated and are considered as a natural result of progress in communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2011).

Starting from the 1990's, CLT has come to be widely used with different educational views and traditions labelled by Richards (2006) as Current CLT. Richards (2006) identified ten core assumptions of current CLT. Accordong to him, engaging learners in interaction and meaningful communication does make second language learning an easy matter, and this through implementing effective classroom learning tasks and exercises that provide opportunities for meaning negotiation, for expanding language resources, for noticing how language is used, and in order to take part in meaningful interpersonal exchange. Activities that involve inductive or discovery learning of underlying rules of language use and organization, as well as those involving language analysis and reflection do also make language learning an easy task. Successful language learning requires the use of communication strategies, several language skills or modalities.The goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently.Meaningful communication results from students processing content that is relevant, purposeful, interesting, and engaging. Learners develop their own ways to language learning, progress at different speeds, and have different needs and motivations for language learning.The teacher' role is that of a facilitator, who creates a classroom climate that favours language learning and provides opportunities for students practice of the language and to think about language

use and language learning. The classroom is a community where learners learn through collaboration and sharing (Richards, 2006, pp. 22-23).

Jacobs and Farrell (2003), in their article *Understanding and Implementing the CLT Paradigm*, described eight changes that fit with the CLT paradigm shift in second language education: learner autonomy, the social nature of learning, curricular integration, focus on meaning, diversity, thinking skills, alternative assessment, and teachers as co-learners. They, in fact, claimed that such shift was started years ago, but was not actually completely implemented because of two main reasons: second language educators were unable to catch view of the whole scenery of changes and did, instead, try to understand each change separately, and in their trial to implement each separately, they made the task more challenging.

- **Learner autonomy**

To be autonomous, learners should feel free to choose the what and the how of the curriculum, i.e., the content of their learning and the different process used while so doing. In addition, learners should feel responsible for their own learning and for the learning of the others with whom they interact. Tey also need to be aware of their specific ways to learn (p. 10)

- **The social nature of learning**

Learning is far from being an individual, private act, but rather a social one depending upon interaction with others. The movement known as cooperative learning reflects this viewpoint. Students may learn from their teachers, peers and the learning environment as a whole. They even learn when teaching others who are less knowledgeable than they are (p. 12).

- **Curricular integration**

When studying different subjects that are jointly taught, students can perceive the existing connections between such subject areas in the curriculum, and would develop

deeper understanding of the subject matter (p 13). Project work in language teaching does illustrate such orientation (Richards, 2006).

- **Focus on meaning**

Focusing on the meaning of the language they are using, students would lead to long-term learning. Journal writing is an example of the way students focus on meaning (Jacob and Farrell, 2003, pp. 15-6).

- **Diversity**

Learners have different learning preferences, styles, intelligences and use varied strategies. Moreover, they do interpret events and information in different ways. (p. 16)

- **Thinking skills**

Language should be used to develop critical thinking skills. This can be shown when utilising previously learnt information and apply their thinking skills to go beyond classroom settings (p. 18).

- **Alternative assessment**

This relates to new assessment tools that mirror real-life settings and involve thinking skills. These do not only assess but also teach and can take the form of observations, think-aloud protocols, peer assessment, and portfolios, with the two last ones being directed towards the teaching of writing. This is very typical to life-skills assessment of Competency-based Language Teaching (p. 19-20).

- **Teachers as co-learners**

This relates to the fact that teachers learn along with students. For example, while students are writing, teachers can at the same time write in the same genre, and then exchange feedback with students (p. 21-22).

These very specific features of change do have a holistic perspective. They are interconnected and should even be perceived as one whole, big-picture approach needed to better understand the changing profession of second language education (Jacobs and

Farrell, 2003). They put it very expressively: "These innovations fit together, like the pieces in a pattern cut to make a jigsaw puzzle. Each piece supports the others, and each builds on the others." (p. 24)

In response to the previously-cited changes grew a number of different new language teaching approaches, each reflecting its own reactions and all being extensions of the CLT movement : Process-Based CLT Approaches, namely, Content-Based Instruction, Task-Based Instruction) and Product-Based CLT Approaches, namely, Text-Based Instruction and Competency-Based Instruction (Richards, 2006), the latter that would be topic of coming discussion.

1.2.6. Competency-based Education

Competency-Based Instruction (CBI), also referred to as Outcome-Based Instruction, is a product-oriented approach to language teaching that can be regarded as an extension of CLT. Ainsworth (1977) defined it as "an instructional system where students are given credit for performing to a prespecified level of competency under prespecified conditions. The system is therefore non-normative with a student's ability determined independently of that of other students in the institution."(p. 322) Under such system, he added, the student can be knowledgeable about the things he will be able to do after instruction and will be free from any formal coursework as the latter is not the basis of curriculum design but rather the targeted competencies that can be reached by the student via different pathways in an independent time frame, only one of which can be coursework (Ainsworth, 1977, p. 323).

Outcome/Competency-Based Education relates to focusing and organizing everything in an educational system around what is essential for all students to be able to do successfully at the end of their learning experiences, starting with a clear picture of what is

important for students to be able to do, then organizing curriculum, instruction, and assessment to make sure this learning ultimately happens (Spady, 1994, p. 1).

Killen (2000) claimed that outcome-based education had had different, rather confusing, interpretations: as a theory of education, as a systemic structure for education, or as classroom practice. Ultimately, one should align the systemic structure and the classroom practice with the theory if we are to have genuine outcome-based education.

1.2.6.1. Historical Background to Competency-based Education

According to Wong (2008), competency-based education emerged in the 1970's in the United States. Richards and Rodgers (2001) explained that competency-based education is an outcome-oriented educational movement advocating defining educational goals in terms of specific measurable descriptions of the knowledge, skills, and behaviours students need to have possessed after instruction. Ainsworth (1977) added that under a competency-based system, the student can reach the targeted competencies via a wide range of pathways, only one of which is formal coursework, and these competencies can be met in an independent time frame.

In an attempt to give a historical overview of competency-based education, Bowden (2004; as cited in Griffith & Lim, 2014) maintained that cometency-based learning can be traced back to the Behaviourist tradition popularised in the United States during the 1950's by educators such as Benjamin Bloom, starting in teacher education in the late 1960s, and was later applied to other professional education programmes in the United States in the 1970s, vocational training programmes in the United Kingdom and Germany among others in the 1980s, and vocational training and professional skills recognition in Australia in the 1990s. As put by Bowden (2004; as cited in Griffith & Lim, 2014), "…competency-based learning is most directly descended from the behavioural objectives movement in the 1950's in the United States. Its origins are found in the thinking of educators such as Benjamin Bloom."(p. 92)

Savage (1993) claimed that competency-based education is a functional approach to education that focuses on life skills and evaluates mastery of those skills according to actual learner performance. The U. S. Office of Education defined it as "a performance-based process leading to demonstrated mastery of basic and life skills necessary for the individual to function proficiently in society" (U.S. Office of Education, 1978 ; as cited in Savage, 1993, p. 15).

According to Tuxworth (1989, pp. 9-10), the competency-based movement can be traced back to the 1920s ideas of educational reform related to industrial/business models targeting the specification of outcomes in behavioural objectives form. From the mid 1960s onwards, the need for greater accountability in education, for growing emphasis on the economy, and towards involving community more and more in decision-making gave a great impetus to the concept of competency-based education and training, a movement that ha dits origins in teacher education.

Le et al. (2014) claimed that competency-based education had its historical roots in the 1900's, with the progressive movement in education, central to which are the ideas of John Dewey, who was the one who put rote learning traditional teaching methods into question. Dewey wrote a lot about the importance of making students learn by doing, and also about considering students' interests and experiences in the elaboration of the curriculum. This resulted in placing greater emphasis on real-world engagement. Moreover, later in 1949, Tylor evoked the idea that a curriculum should be subject to continuous evaluation and revision, rather than being static, that learning happens through actions performed by the students rather than teachers, that objectives should be clearly stated, and that students' needs and interests are central to curriculum design and instruction, which are all reflected in today's competency-based classrooms. More importantly, John Carroll, with his 'model of school learning(1963), promoting the idea that educational achievement was a function of appropriate opportunity or time available to learn, and that not all students achieve

mastery after the same time, did also have his own, even indirect and unintentional, influence on the field of cometency-based education practices. Another crucial element that is viewed basic to today's competency movement is the concept of 'mastery learning' of the 1960's (Bloom, 1968). His theory was based on the premise that with sufficient opportunities and support from an appropriate learning environment, most learners are successful in their learning tasks.Bloom's model highlighted the role of formative assessment paired with corrective activities in promoting learning (as cited in Le et al., 2014).

In the words of Bowden (1997), the behavioural objectives movement targeted the intended outcomes of learning programmes and aimed at specifying objectives as directly observables behaviours. It was behind Bloom's mastery learning (1974), criterion-referenced testing (Popham, 1978), minimum competency testing (Jaeger & Tittle, 1980), and competency-based education (Burke, Hansen, Houston, & Johnson, 1975). Competency-based education targets the following principles: a focus on outcomes, greater workplace relevance, outcomes as observable competencies, and assessments as judgements of competencies (as cited in Bowden, 1997, p. 3).

1.2.6.2. Competency-based Language Teaching

Competency-based language teaching refers to the putting into practice of the principles of competency-based education in language teaching. The competency-based approach to teaching emphasises what learners are supposed to achieve with the target language. It is based on a functional perspective of language teaching; it is based on the idea that language form can be inferred from language function. To put it differently, the vocabulary and structures to be used in a given situation of use should be anticipated and organised in teaching/learning units (Wong, 2008). Wong (2008, p. 181) reported Docking's definition attributed to competency-based language teaching:

It is designed not around the notion of subject knowledge but around the notion of competency. The focus moves from what students know about language to what they can do with it. The focus on competencies or learning outcomes underpins the curriculum framework and syllabus specification, teaching strategies, assessment and reporting. Instead of norm-referencing assessment, criterion-based assessment procedures are used in which learners are assessed according to how well they can perform on specific learning tasks (1994, p.16).

Similarly, Griffith and Lim (2014) explained competency-based language teaching in these lines:

In competency-based language teaching (CBLT), students must demonstrate that they are able to use language to complete a real-world task. The shift in focus from *knowing about* to *doing with* the language requires important changes from traditional classrooms if CBLT is to be successful. Students must become active learners as teachers step into their new role as facilitators. Materials must be authentic and task-related. Assessments must focus more on providing information about a student's progress than on providing a grade for an assignment. In the end, what matters is that each student is able to master a competency before being able to move on to the next (p. 1).

▪ **Theories of Language and Learning**

The CBA rests upon a functional and interactional perspective on the nature of language, and its framework is often tailored to meet the specific needs of learners. It aims at teaching language in relation to the social situations in which it is always used as a medium

of communication and interaction. Moreover, the language skills learners need can be accurately predicted or determined. The CBA shares with the behaviourist learning tradition the notion that language form can be inferred from language function. To this end, designers of competency-based language teaching competencies have the ability to predict the vocabulary and structures that would possibly be found in the target, real-life settings and can additionally state them in such a way as to help arrange them into teaching/learning units. The idea stating that language can be functionally analysed into parts and subparts that can be taught and tested is to the core of both the theory of language and the theory of learning. Competency-based language teaching is, thus, built around communicative competence consisting of smaller, correctly-assembled components (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 154).

As to the theory of learning, competency-based language teaching has many assumptions. Language learning is grounded in the skill learning theory. By skill, refernce is made about integrated set of behaviours learnt through practice. Skills consist of individual components that can be learnt separately and that come together as one whole to make skilled performance. Another important assumption relates to the notion of practice, the latter that refers to repeated opportunities of language use over time, and that normally goes with feedback needed for learners' gradual improvement of performance (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 154).

The CBA is a cognitive approach. It emphasises learners' cognitive activity involving reasoning. As mentioned before, it is endebted to Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Objectives (1956), which was widely used in programmed instruction and education technology. This is a framework for classifying statements of expectations in terms of what students had learnt after instruction. Bloom claimed that all educational objectives can be classified as 'cognitive' (to do with information), 'affective' (to do with attitudes, values and emotions), or 'psychomotor' (to do with bodily movements, such as setting up some

apparatus). He has said that cognitive objectives form a hierarchy by which the learner must achieve lower order objectives before s/he can achieve higher ones (Ameziane, Hami, & Louadj, 2005, p. 12).

In the cognitive domain, there are six major levels: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.
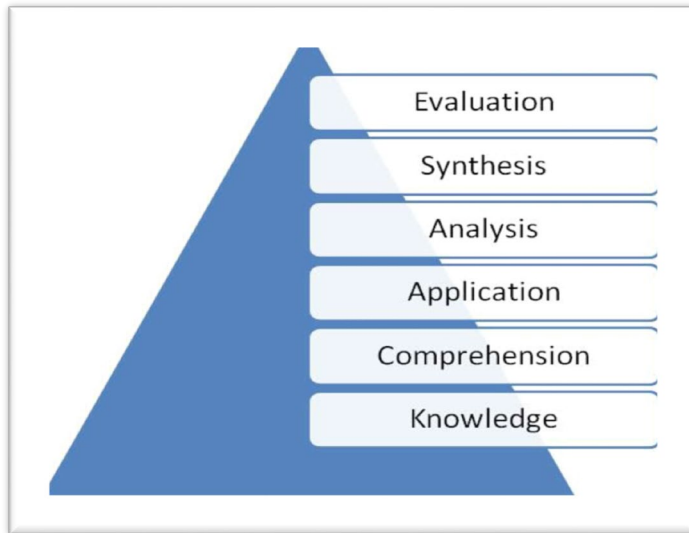
Figure 1: The six levels of the cognitive domain of Bloom's original taxonomy (in Munzenmaier & Rubin, 2013, p. 6)

The first level is knowledge; it involves recalling, remembering, retrieving specifics and universals, the recall of methods and processes, or the recall of a pattern, structure, or setting (Bloom, 1956, p. 201). The second level is comprehension; it "… represents the lowest level of understanding. It refers to a type of understanding or apprehension such that the individual knows what is being communicated and can make use of the material or idea being communicated without necessarily relating it to other material or seeing its fullest implications." (Bloom, 1956, p. 204). The third level is application in which the learner is supposed to make use of previously acquired knowledge, facts, rules, procedures, ideas, … (by remembering and applying) to solve problems in new concrete situations. Objectives at this level might require learners to interpret information, demonstrate mastery of a concept, or apply a skill learned in the analysis level, learners are required to

recognize relationships among parts. Objectives at this level of the hierarchy often include verbs such as *differentiate*, *compare and contrast*, *criticize*, or *experiment*. Synthesis calls for creative behavior because learners produce newly constructed and, many times, unique products. At the synthesis level, objectives might have learners create a plan, propose an idea, design a product, or organize information. Evaluation is the final level ; it relates to presenting opinion and to making judgments about value. Learning objectives require learners to measure, value, estimate, choose, or revise something, perhaps information, a product—or even solve a problem (Munzenmaier & Rubin, 2013). The cognitive domain is summarised below:
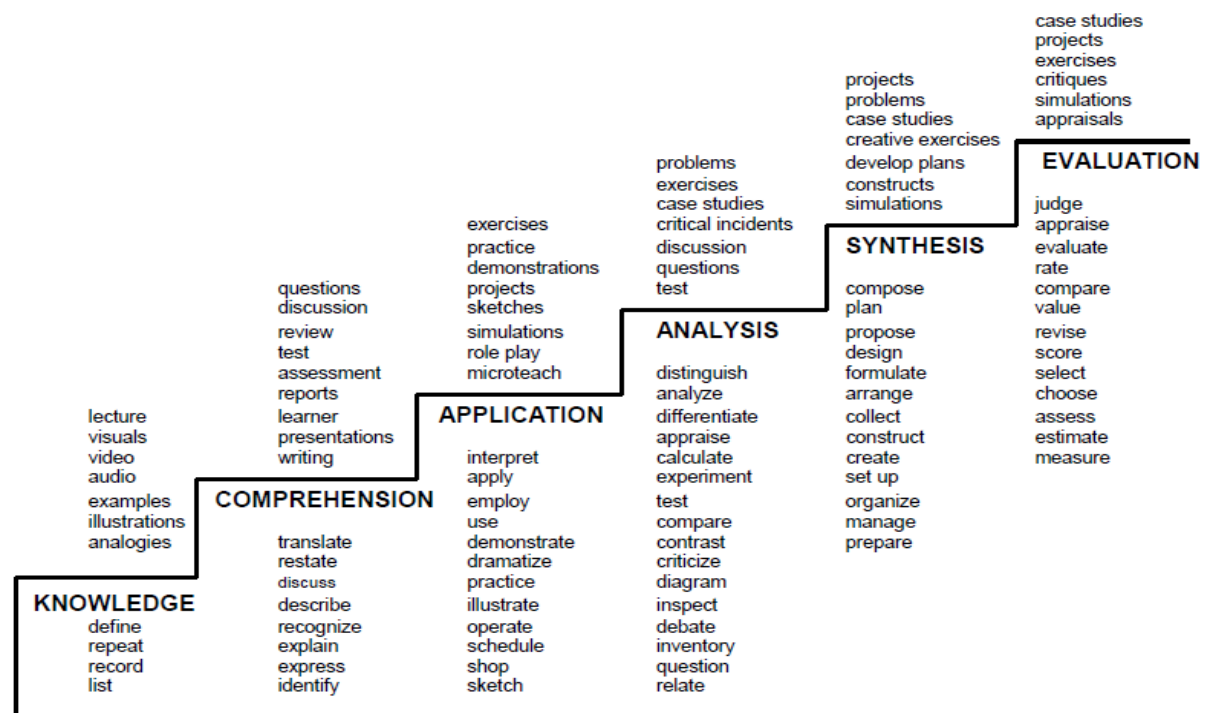
Figure 2: Bloom's Taxonomy staircase (*Source: ftp://ftp-fc.sc.egov. usda.gov/NEDC/isd/ taxonomy.pdf)*

The affective domain describes how people deal with things emotionally: feelings, values, appreciation, enthusiasms, motivations, and attitudes. It was David Krathwohl who first desribed the domain in 1964. As with cognitive objectives, affective objectives can be divided and arranged from simpler feelings to more complex ones. It includes five levels: receiving (for example, listening carefully), responding, valuing, organisation, and

internalising values. The psychomotor domain includes physical movement, coordination, and use of the motor-skill areas.

'Receiving' refers to the learner's sensitivity to the existence of stimuli - awareness, willingness to attend to classroom activities. 'Responding' refers to learners' active participation in classroom activities. Then, learners attach values to particular objects and behaviours in the valuing level. Learners also internalize those values and beliefs and organise them according to priorities. Characterisation refers to the learners' highest of internalization. Learners are able to practice and act out their values or beliefs at this level (Ameziane, Hami & Louadji, 2005; Krathwohl et al., 1964). As Ameziane, Hami and Louadji (2005) put it:

> The importance attached to the Affective Domain in the syllabus shows in the descriptors of the three competencies which emphasise, among other manifestations, that of 'listening attentively' (corresponding to the category of **Receiving** in Bloom's **Taxonomy**), and particularly in the adoption of the **pedagogy of the project**. The realisation of the project develops, together with the psychomotor domain, the affective domain of the competency in a 'bottom-up fashion', leading ultimately to the internalisation of such values as autonomy, creativity, initiative, and responsibility (p. 13).

The psychomotor domain is said to be the simplest and the most obviously behavioural one. It helps determine levels of skilled performance. Aspects of behaviour move from the simple ability to give an overview of a task to the mastery of a skill through practice, integration, and automatisation (Jordan et al., 2008).

Bloom's taxonomy is an important framework to be used by teachers. It could then serve as a common language about learning goals to facilitate communication. It could

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additionally be implemented to mobilise the knowledge and skills, gradually integrate them at higher order levels of thinking, apply them to new situations, and finally come to evaluate both the process and product of thinking. This is claimed to be the ideal route to acquiring competencies (Ameziane et al., 2005).

Common to competency-based language teaching is the theory of constructivism and socio-constructivism. According to Bruning et al. (2004), constructivism is a psychological and philosophical perspective contending that individuals form or construct much of what they learn and understand (as cited in Schunk, 2012, p. 229). Cooper (1993) asserted that the constructivists view reality as being personally constructed, and that the latter determines the former. Moreover, learning is problem solving based on personal discovery. Piaget's and Vygotsky's theories are the cornerstone of the constructivist movement.

The constructivist view highlights the interaction of persons and situations in the acquisition and refinement of skills and knowledge (Cobb & Bowers, 1999 ; as cited in Schunk, 2012, p. 231). For the constructivists, teachers should structure situations so that learners become actively involved with content by manipulation of materials and social interaction (Schunk, 2012). Students are taught to be self-regulated and active in their learning by setting goals, monitoring and evaluating progress, and going beyond basic requirements by exploring interests (Bruning et al., 2004 ; as cited in Schunk, 2012, p. 231). Learning conceptions assume individual construction and social coconstruction of knowledge by learners on the basis of their interpretations of experiences (Jonassen, 1999). Jonassen (1994) listed the characteristics of constructivism in relation to instructional design.

1. Provide multiple representations of reality;

2. Represent the natural complexity of the real world;

3. Focus on knowledge construction, not reproduction;

4. Present authentic tasks (contextualizing rather than abstracting instruction);

5. Provide real-world, case-based learning environments, rather than pre-determined instructional sequences;

6. Foster reflective practice;

7. Enable context-and content dependent knowledge construction;

8. Support collaborative construction of knowledge through social negotiation (p.35).

With regard to the above characteristics, the focus of constructivist environment is learning to solve problems that may be encountered in life. As put by Schunk (2012, p. 235), "The most straightforward recommendations are to involve students actively in their learning and to provide experiences that challenge their thinking and force them to rearrange their beliefs. Constructivism also underlies the current emphasis on *reflective teaching*."

Cognitive constructivist learning theory accounts for meaningful learning. Learning is an evolving process in which the learner actively takes responsibility to construct meaning, not in isolation, but through dialogue with oneself as well as with others. The most important objective in the cognitive constructivist approach to learning is understanding—not observable and measurable behaviours (Garrison, 1993).

> "Learners must be actively engaged in integrating new information into existing knowledge structures. Since new knowledge structures can only be created by the learner, the role of the teacher is to monitor continually the learner's cognitive processes and challenge or question inappropriate or unclear perspectives. Through the on-going interaction between teacher and student, development of meaningful, valid and increasingly complex knowledge structures are encouraged." (Garrison, 1993, p. 202).

In the view of Piaget, cognitive development is dependent upon four factors: biological maturation, experience with the physical environment, experience with the social environment, and equilibration, the latter which means a biological drive to produce an optimal state of equilibrium (or adaptation) between cognitive structures and the environment (Duncan, 1995; as cited in Schunk, 2012). Piaget (1969) claimed that cognitive development and conceptual change happen as a result of interactions between existing cognitive structures and new experience (Jordan et al., 2008).There are two component processes of equilibration/adaptation: assimilation and accommodation.

> "Assimilation refers to fitting external reality to the existing
> cognitive structure. When we interpret, construe, and frame, we
> alter the nature of reality to make it fit our cognitive structure.
> …Accommodation refers to changing internal structures to provide
> consistency with external reality. We accommodate when we adjust
> our ideas to make sense of reality."(Schunk, 2012, p. 236).

According to Piaget, assimilation and accomodation complement each other. Cognitive developement also happens only when there is a state of disequilibrium or cognitive conflict,   when children's views are opposed by those of others. This leads to disequilibrium or destabilization of existing constructs. Learners must then search for new constructs which aims at resolving the cognitive conflict and restore equilibrium (Schunk, 2012 ; Garton, 2004 ; as cited in Jordan et al., 2008). The idea was originally worded by Piaget (1968) as follows :

> Mais si l'assimilation était seule en jeu dans le développement, il
> ne se produirait jamais de variations, donc pas d'acquisitions et
> mệme pas de développement. L'assimilation est indispensable pour
> assurer la continuité des structures et l'intégration des éléments
> nouveaux à ces structures. Or, déjà sur le terrain biologique,

l'assimilation n'est jamais pure, mais s'accompagne d'accommodation (p. 285).

Moreover,

Learning occurs, then, when children experience cognitive conflict and engage in assimilation or accommodation to construct or alter internal structures. Importantly, however, the conflict should not be too great because this will not trigger equilibration.

Learning will be optimal when the conflict is small and especially when children are in transition between stages. Information must be partially understood (assimilated) before it can promote structural change (accommodation). Environmental stimulation to facilitate change should have negligible effect unless the critical stage transitions have begun so that the conflict can be successfully resolved via equilibration. Thus, learning is limited by developmental constraints (Brainerd, 2003; as cited in Schunk, 2012, p. 238).

This idea is very relevant to education and has implications in competency-based education in that teachers can engage learners in problem situations causing conflict to trigger adaptation processes (Schunk, 2012). Socio-constructivist theorists went more beyond the traditional cognitive focus on individual learning to address collaborative and social dimensions of learning. To the core of socio-constructivism is the idea that society and culture play an important role in learning: they even shape the way in which people perceive, interpret, and attribute meanings to their experiences. Knowledge construction is done in the context of the environment in which it is encountered. Socio-constructivists argue that social interaction and language use result in knowledge. (Jordan et al., 2008).

Lev Semenovich Vygotsky, a Russian socio-constructivist, emphasised social processes as leading to all reasoning and understanding (Garton, 2004 ; as cited in Jordan et al., 2008). Vygotsky's theory highlighted the interaction of interpersonal (social), cultural–historical, and individual factors as the key to human development (Tudge & Scrimsher, 2003 ; as cited in Schunk, 2012). Interacting with people in a given environment triggers processes of development and promotes cognitive growth (Schunk, 2012).

Vygotsky maintainted that learning and development cannot be dissociated from their context, and that the meanings of concepts change once related to the world (Gredler, 2009 ; as cited in Schunk, 2012). He qualified the social environment as being critical for learning, and that learning experiences are transformed by social interactions (Wertsch, 1985 ; as cited in Schunk, 2012). For Vygotsky, language is an important external tool for social interaction and knowledge construction (Jordan et al., 2008).

In response to the old acquisition learning tradition grew Vygotsky's alternative model of learning central to which are concepts such as mediation, scaffolding, apprenticeship, and organisation of learning activities (Kozulin et al., 2003). According to Vygotsky (1978), all higher mental functions are internalised social relations. By that, he meant that children start to carry on discussions internally and language then becomes a tool for and of self-regulation (Jordan et al., 2008). He viewed mediation to be a key mechanism in development and learning (Schunk, 2012). As Kozulin (2003) put it:

> Vygotskian theory stipulates that the development of the child's
> higher mental processes depends on the presence of mediating
> agents in the child's interaction with the environment. Vygotsky
> himself primarily emphasized symbolic tools–mediators
> appropriated by children in the context of particular sociocultural

activities, the most important of which he considered to be formal education (p. 17).

Vygotsky is best known for the concept of 'Zone of proximal development' (ZPD), which is defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers." (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). In the ZPD, a learner and a teacher work together on a given task which could not be independently carried out by the learner because of its difficulty (Bruner, 1984 ; as cited in Schunk, 2012, p. 244). The lower level of ZPD is defined by the child's independent performance with no assistance, and the upper level is the most the child can do with assistance (Vygotsky, 1978). This means that an individual learns better when working with more skilled persons. That way, the less competent person becomes independently competent at what was before a jointly-achieved task (Chaiklin, 2003). This idea was labelled as 'scaffolding', a term coined by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976). Adequate scaffolding is found in case a teacher wants to provide students with some information or to complete parts of tasks for them to help them focus on the part of the task they are trying to master.The key is to ensure that the scaffolding keeps learners in the ZPD, which is raised as they develop capabilities. Students are challenged to learn within the bounds of the ZPD (as cited in Schunk, 2012, p. 246).

1.2.6.3. Characteristics of the Competency-based Approach

Auerbach (1986, pp. 414-415) outlined eight features involved in the process of implementing competency-based programs in language teaching:

1. A focus on successful functioning in society: The goal is to enable students to become autonomous individuals capable of coping with the demands of the world.

2. A focus on life skills: Rather than teaching language in isolation, competency-based language teaching teaches language as a function of communication about

concrete tasks. Students are taught just those language forms/skills required by the situations in which they will function. These forms are determined by needs analysis (Findley & Nathan, 1980; as cited in Auerbach, 1986, p. 414).

3. Task- or performance-centered orientation: What counts is what students can do as a result of instruction. The emphasis is on overt behaviors rather than on knowledge or the ability to talk about language and skills.

4. Modularized instruction: Language learning is broken down into manageable and immediately meaningful chunks (Center for Applied Linguistics, 1983; as cited in Auerbach, 1986, p. 415). Objectives are broken into narrowly focused subobjectives so that both teachers and students can get a clear sense of progress.

5. Outcomes which are made explicit a priori: Outcomes are public knowledge, known and agreed upon by both learner and teacher. They are specified in terms of behavioral objectives so that students know exactly what behaviors are expected of them.

6. Continuous and ongoing assessment: Students are pretested to determine what skills they lack and posttested after instruction in that skill. If they do not achieve the desired level of mastery, they continue to work on the objective and are retested. Program evaluation is based on test results and, as such, is considered objectively quantifiable.

7. Demonstrated mastery of performance objectives: Rather than the traditional paper-and-pencil tests, assessment is based on the ability to demonstrate prespecified behaviors.

8. Individualized, student-centered instruction: In content, level, and pace, objectives are defined in terms of individual needs; prior learning and achievement are taken into account in developing curricula. Instruction is not time based; students

progress at their own rates and concentrate on just those areas in which they lack competence.

Similarly, Foshay (1990, p. 68) identified these characterisctics of competency-based systems:

1. The curriculum is described primarily by terminal objectives, which are in turn broken down into enabling objectives.

2. Concern should be directed to making sure that objectives, instruction and tests correspond in content and level of performance.

3. Instructional resources must correspond by content and by level of performance (curriculum alignment).

4. Levels of performance are often described in terms of Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain.

5. Testing is equally important. Again, tests must correspond to the objective in content and level of learning, and they must be written according to standard style guidelines which promote reliable measurement.

6. In competency-based instruction, you tell the learner what he or she is supposed to do. Conventional teaching practice often is to "trap" or "surprise" the learners.

On the basis of the previously cited elaborations, it seems common knowledge that the core of competency-based education is the notion of competency. The terms competence and competency have come to be much solicitated in the literature. Thus, it is noteworthy to provide definitions of each.

- **Competence and Competency**

The use of the terms 'competence' and 'competency' has always resulted in confusion, at least in relation to spelling, with competence (plural competences) or competency (plural competencies). Sultana (2009) claimed that many people use both terms

interchangeably, seeing no difference between them other than UK (competence) and US (competency) spelling variants of the same word/concept. According to Armstrong (2005), competency is a person-related concept, but competence is a work related concept (as cited in Barman & Konwar, 2011).

According to Hager & Gonczi (1996), competence is the capacity to realise 'up to standard' the key occupational tasks that characterise a profession (as cited in Kouwenhoven, 2003, p. 71). According to Jordan et al. (2008), competence relates to the ability to perform a role effectively in a given context and requires a range of competencies. For example, teaching competence requires competencies in curriculum planning, classroom management and the assessment of learners. 'Incompetence' is rather the state of not being competent within a role.

The notion of competency has been differently approached by different people. According to Lenoir and Jean (2012), competency is a social construct that could neither be observed, nor measured directly. It is, they added, defined through the task it enables one to do. Lenoir and Jean attribute the following definition to competency:

> A competency targets effectiveness and is geared towards an aim,
> since it exists only in its implementation (action, reflection): it is
> accomplished in action and within a specific context. It is defined
> by a number of elements of learning or knowledge put into relation,
> as it mobilises various resources in situ-be they cognitive, affective,
> social, sensory/motor, procedural, etc-which attests to its complex
> and singular nature. A competency is directed toward action and
> applies to a family of situations rather than one in particular
> (Lenoir & Jean, 2012, p. 70).

Pérez Cañado (2013, p.4) asserted that the notion of competency involves not only knowledge, but additionally skills, attitudes, and values, and entails the capacity to act

successfully in an academic, professional, or social environment. Similarly, Kouwenhoven (2003, p. 71) maintained that competency is "the capability to choose and use (apply) an integrated combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes with the intention to realise a task in a certain context, while personal characteristics such as motivation, self-confidence, willpower are part of that context." This definition of competency puts emphasis on the possession of certain cognitive 'tools' (knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes) and the ability to apply them at the appropriate time on the right spot. Competency then implies being knowledgeable and skilful, and possessing the 'know-how' (Kouwenhoven, 2003). The same idea was advocated by Legendre (2001, p. 17) : "Être compétent, c'est donc faire appel aux bonnes ressources, les combiner de manière efficace et les utiliser à bon escient."

Competency hs also been referred to as the ability to carry out a complex task that requires the integration of knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable people to perform effectively in a particular environment (Jordan et al., 2008). For Mrowicki (1986), competencies relate to a description of the essential skills, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours required for effective performance of a real-life activity (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 144).

Another very detailed elaboration of competency is the one suggested by Le Boterf (1994):

> La compétence n'est pas un état ou une connaissance possédée. Elle ne se réduit ni à un savoir ni à un savoir-faire. Elle n'est pas assimilable à un acquis de formation. Posséder des connaissances ou des capacités ne signifie pas être compétent. On peut connaître des techniques ou des règles de gestion comptable et ne pas savoir les appliquer au moment opportun. …Chaque jour, l'expérience montre que des personnes qui sont en possession de connaissances

ou de capacités ne savent pas les mobiliser de façon pertinente et au moment opportun, dans une situation de travail. L'actualisation de ce que l'on sait dans un contexte singulier (marqué par des relations de travail, une culture institutionnelle, des aléas, des contraintes temporelles, des ressources…) est révélatrice du " passage " à la compétence. Celle-ci se réalise dans l'action. Elle ne lui pré-existe pas. (…) *Il n'y a de compétence que de compétence en acte.* La compétence ne peut fonctionner " à vide ", en dehors de tout acte qui ne se limite pas à l'exprimer mais qui la fait exister (Le Boterf, 1994, p. 16)

Very similar to Le Boterf's view (1994) is the one of Roegiers (1999), Roegiers (2000) and Peyser, Gerard, & Roegiers (2006, pp. 1-2) who believed that competence (meaning competency) can be defined as

"…the spontaneous mobilization of a set of resources in order to apprehend a situation and respond to it in a more or less relevant way, … that a competence can only exist in the presence of a specific situation, through the integration of different skills, themselves made up of knowledge and know-how. These three elements are essential to develop a competence."

Peyser et al. (2006, p. 2) represented the components of competence :

$$\text{Competence} = \{\text{capacities x content}\} \times \text{situation}$$
$$= \{\text{objective}\} \times \text{situation}$$

In a similar vein, Allal (2002) explained that a competency is constituted of cognitive and metagognitive resources, but also affective, social, and sensorimotor components that are central to determining knowledge activation and that are to be mobilized in a situation.

Jonnaert (2014, p 10) claimed that there are six elements that constitute competence/competency:

1. A competency is always related to a situation;

2. Fields of experiences of a person or a group of people implicated in the treatment of such situation do determine the development of a competency; such experiences include people's knowledge;

3. The development of a competency rests upon the mobilization and coordination of a person or a group of persons of a diversity of resources;

4. A competency is built only in case of achieved, successful, and socially acceptable treatment of a situation;

5. A competency results from a complex process of the treatment of a more or less circumscribed situation, competency is not such process; process is rather the treatment of the situation;

6. A competency is not predictable and could not then be defined a priori; it depends on the actions of a person or a group of persons, on their proper knowledge, on their comprehension of the situation, on their views on what they can do in such situation, on the resources they have, on the difficulties they encounter in the treatment of the situation, on their experiences, etc.

Moreover, Jonnaert (2011) added that a competency develops and evolves over time leading to the processing, treatment, and mediation in a situation as shown below:

I   II   III

La personne est en action dans la situation

La personne analyse le résultat du traitement : il est viable

Le traitement compétent

La compétence énactée

La personne réfléchit sur son action et la met en mots

La compétence réfléchie et explicitée

La personne adapte sa compétence à d'autres situations de la même famille

La compétence adaptée

La compétence ancrée dans la situation

La compétence attachée à la situation, mais réfléchie hors de la situation

Vers la conceptualisation, la compétence adaptable

Temps de la construction d'une compétence conceptualisée et généralisable

Figure 3: Time for construction of a competency (Jonnaert, 2011, p. 38).

As shown in this figure, a competency develops and takes time to be progressively constructed before it could be adapted to a new situation or even conceptualized (Pastré, 2004; as cited in Jonnaert, 2011, p. 39), displaying complete mastery and development. Evaluating a competency then relates to the different phases of its development (Jonnaert, 2011).

With reference to the previously-cited definitions, it can be said that a competency relates to the overall knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors and the ability to select, combine, and transfer these autonomously and appropriately for effective functioning in a real-life situation.

According to Roegiers (1999), a competency has five main characteristics. First of all, a competency calls for mobilisation of resources be they abilities, knowledge, know-how, etc. A competency is outcome-oriented: it has a social function, and is linked to a family

situation, which relates to the variety of situations in which learners are likely to practise a given competence. A competency, according to Roegiers, is disciplinary. It is defined through a given category of situations, corresponding to specific problems within the same discipline. A final, very important feature of a competency is that it is evaluable given the fact that it measures the quality of task performance and outcome. Competency mastery is actually synonymous to successful learning.

1.2.6.4. Learners' Role in the Competency-based Approach

Given the fact that the CBA is a learner-centred approach, learners are not supposed to rely on the teacher as the sole source of knowledge. Rather, they should engage in the route leading to autonomy. In the CBA, learners are active participants in the learning process in that they assume many roles. They monitor their learning by developing self-assessment skills in relation to the target competencies. For successful mastery of such competencies, they need to develop a given number of learning strategies to be implemented for communication purposes. More importantly learners are required to be able to transfer their previous knowledge and apply their skills to other new situations out of the classroom setting (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Because learners are the centre of learning, they have to be conscious and should acively participate in the learning activity. Learners are no longer passive receivers, but can now feel free to express their opinions and be knowledgeable about future job perspectives. This would hopefully make them hold positive attitudes towards their studies. Having a constructivist attitude to learning, learners-in the CBA-learn because they do, and with what they do. They become intrinsincly motivated and acquire new problem-solving abilities. They also develop their intellectual potential and memorisation processes. Learners engage in peer interaction and find different ways to perform the tasks using their knowledge and resources and finally proceed to evaluating their own learning. Interestingly, learners learn to learn and will have

to share, exchange, and cooperate with others in hope to solve problems they may face. They progressively acquire learning strategies necessary for them to be responsible for their learning and to become autonomous with the help of both teachers and peers (Document d'Accompagnement du Programme d'Anglais de Première Année Secondaire, 2005, pp. 11-12).

1.2.6.5. Teachers' Role in the Competency-based Approach

Being a learner-centered approach, the CBA does not neglect the teacher and the role he/she could have in the classroom. Firstly, the teacher is above all a needs analyst who is required to be able to select the competencies in relation to his/her learners' needs. To address the target competencies, the teacher needs to develop, or at least gather appropriate materials meant for teaching such competencies. Additionally, the teacher is supposed to engage in ongoing assessment procedures and be ready to feed back learners in case of inapproprite mastery. Rather than simply being the source of content, the teacher is also a coach guiding learners towards using appropriate learning strategies relevant to the demands of the teaching/learning situation (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The teacher should show learners which strategies to use, when, how, and why to use them. Furthermore, teachers should explain the relevance of such strategies to the learning situation. They should interact with the learners and guide them towards the mastery of such strategies.The teacher is then expected to become a facilitator, a guide, an assistant, a counselor, a co-learner, and an evaluator. Hence, the teacher attitude has become less authoritative; he/she puts forward negotiation and considers learners' styles, preoccupations, and problems. The teacher also develops learners' autonomy in learning and may, if only needed, practice one-to-one teaching (Document d'Accompagnement du Programme d'Anglais de Première Année Secondaire, 2005, p. 11). Sultana (2004) claimed that in the CBA, the teacher is required to evaluate the competences that have been

mastered by each learner and to plan meaningful learning situations enabling learners to learn competences through their application to problem-situations. The teacher is also required to monitor progress in the learning of competences, to use a wide range of activity-based teaching strategies, and to regularly engage in critical reflection and self-evaluation, and cooperation.

1.2.6.6. Syllabus, Materials, and Activities in the Competency-based Approach

According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), the syllabus in a CBA course describes learning outcomes in terms competencies, which consist of essential skills, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours required to perform effectively in real-life tasks and activities. Such activities may relate to life domains (e. g., job application, safety, paychecks, etc) (Mrowicki, 1986; as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 156). The aim is to make learners move along the route towards mastery. Henceforth, syllabi must include performance activities that give learners opportunities to practice the needed skills (Richards & Rogers, 2001; Wong, 2008). For example, in case learners are required to use the past tense in a given task, the teacher will introduce the target form and the vocabulary needed for such task and would teach the past tense as an integral part of the lesson, with the relevant vocabulary, pronunciation, etc. The past tense then would be met by learners at other parts or even units depending on the need of the learners who will have to practice the skills more than once (Griffith & Lim, 2014). Instructional materials need to be directed towards doing, rather than knowing. Tasks should be around real-world situations requiring the use of some or all components of the specified competency (Richards & Rogers, 2001; as cited in (Griffith & Lim, 2014, p. 4).

As to instructional activities, they need to be consistent with competencies and be kind of enabling activities meant to help learners achieve such given competencies. Activities should be practical: within learners'capabilities, within teachers' time and energy

conditions, and with respect to the program availability of resources needed for such activities. They have to make learners use authentic language and learn cultural isues about the target language. Moreover, activities should allow for creative expression, experimentation, and improvisation. More importantly, activities should convey a sense of achievement in that they help learners feel they accomplished something (Schaffer et al., 1984). The most important materials are authentic sample texts in relation to the given competency. The materials are likely to equip learners with the necessary skills, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours needed to meet the competency standards (Griffith & Lim, 2014).

1.2.6.7. Assessment in the Competency-based Approach

In the CBA, assessment can take different forms. It can be diagnostic, formative, or summative. Diagnostic assessment is carried out initially, before instruction, for the sake of determing levels of proficiency (Griffith & Lim, 2014). Formative assessment is an ongoing process meant for determining how well learners are progressing in their way to achieve a given competency. For that reason, formative assessment should be implemented repeatedly because it helps determine learners' areas of strength and/or weakness. Formative assessment should occupy the majority of assessment practices if compared to summative assessment. Being performance-based and implemented at the end of instruction as a final test, summative assessment relates to whether or not learners have mastered the competency (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; in Griffith & Lim, 2014, p. 5). Assessment practices should also be authentic, requiring the measurement of real-world tasks such as providing a description of pain, where it hurts, what makes it hurt. This would, by all means, require learners to make use of knowledge about the language to complete the specific competency which is the ability to explain a health problem to a

doctor (Griffith & Lim, 2014). Griffith and Lim (2014, p. 6) claimed that assessment in a CBA classroom can be summarised as follows:

- One grade is given for each specific competency. Students may be assessed throughout the process, but these formative assessments will not typically be considered in the final evaluation.

-Standards are criterion or proficiency-based. Specic criteria and standards are made available to students ahead of time.

-Grades measure only achievement. Information about effort and behaviour may be reported but it is not part of the competency assessment. There are no penalties or extra credit given.

-Students advance only upon mastery of the competency. This section will be discussed in details in the third chapter.

1.2.6.8. The Competency-based Approach in Algeria

The CBA has been introduced in the Algerian educational system under the educational reform movement launched in July 2002 by the Algerian Ministry of National Education, in collaboration with the PARE (Programme d'appui de l' UNESCO à la réforme du système éducatif), after a period of rapid changes at the political, social, and economic levels around the world, with the aim of reinforcing and improving the quality of education. New programmes, syllabi, and textbooks have come to be elaborated by the National Commission of Educational Reform, and have come to shape the Algerian educational arena. The reform of 2002 was in fact initiated as a challenging process covering three main axes: planification, training, and contents and methods. The Ministry of National Education reorganised the three educational levels, namely, primary, middle, and secondary education, in terms of years of schooling and age conditions of access. To put it differently, children of five years old, with the reform movement, are now granted

the opportunity to be in the first year-preschooling-and will have to study at the primary school for five years, instead of six in the old system. As to middle school education, pupils study four years instead of three years, and in secondary education, new streams have come to reshape secondary education. Moreover, new curricula and corresponding syllabi and textbooks have been elaborated and were the fruitful joint contribution of the UNESCO and the BIEF (Bureau d' Ingenierie en Education et en Formation), under the leadership of the Ministry of National Education. More importantly, qualifying and motivating the teaching staff through continuous training stood to be one of the axes of reform intervention (Tawil, 2006). The teaching of English in Algeria then is a process of seven year study, four in the middle school, and three in the secondary school, meant to give learners a global perspective that would, hopefully, enable them share knowledge and become a future responsible citizen able to harmoniously and effectively integrate in nowadays globalised world (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 2005).

1.2.6.9. Basic Concepts in Competency-based Programmes

According to Roegiers (2006), the newly-elaborated programmes progressively articulate around some new concepts such as transversal competence, terminal competence, terminal objective of integration, situation of integration, learning situation, and disciplinary competence. Following are brief considerations of each.

- **Transversal competence** points to very general capacities and competences related and common to all disciplines such as reading and writing. It covers life competences such as respecting one's environment, and adopting citizenship attitudes. It also relates to competences like searching for or processing information. In classroom setting, transversal competence is very difficult to be applied and evaluated by teachers; it, however, constitutes an important landmark for teachers and learners (Roegiers, 2006).

- **Terminal competence**

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As its name suggests, relates to learners' mastery of competence after instruction (school year or cycle) and to evaluating their acquired knowledge. It is then directly related to learners' target or exit profile in a curriculum. It is interesting in that it combines the concrete aspect of objectives in objective-based pedagogy and the complex aspect of problem situations in integration pedagogy. It is complex in that it is challenging for learners as they are supposed to articulate a number of elements in a given context.Terminal competences should be of a limited number in a school year in a given discipline (two to three competences), not to run the risk of losing its complex, integrative nature. A terminal competence should be concretely performed and can then be evaluated (Roegiers, 2006).

- **Terminal Objective of Integration**

Introduced by De Ketele (1996, as cited in Roegiers, 2006, p. 73), this kind of macro competence covering all terminal competences in a given discipline or a number of disciplines in a whole study cycle. It is very important in that all the teachers' efforts are directed to it as it phrases the exit profile of the learner (Roegiers, 2006).

As to secondary education in Algeria, the terminal objective of integration that is supposed to be reached by learners of English at the end of the three years is the following: *In a communication situation given on the basis of an oral or a written material, the learner should be able to produce a written message of twenty lines* (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 2005, p. 5).

- **Learning Situation**

It is an exploration situation created for the sake of introducing a new notion, new knowledge, and new techniques and puts the learner at the center of learning leading him to seize any opportunity of new learning so as to enable him solve problem situations. A learning situation consists of three parts : the learning material presented to the learner in the form of an oral or a written text, an illustration, a photo, a CD that create a context ; a

task to be done inside or outside the classroom ; and the instruction, explicitly formulated to the learner (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 2005).Therefore, integration pedagogy suggests learning situations that put learners at the center of the process of learning, and that make them take part in the process of knowledge appropriation. Such learning situations also develop learners' creativity and initiative through using different learning strategies that would likely help them reinvest their previous knowledge in situations related to everyday life and their environment. These situations also enable learners to work together through project work but at the same time develop learners' autonomy by integrating self-assessment, together with peer-assessment and teacher conferencing. Learning situations in integration pedagogy should additionally consider intercultural aspects of the target language (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 2005; Roegiers, 2006).

- **Situation of Integration**

The CBA is equated with the pedagogy of integration and is essentially based on the works of De Ketele by the end of the 1980's. It was operationalised by the BIEF in European and African countries since the 1990's and is based on the integration of resources and on regular exploitation of integration situations and of learning for the sake of solving problem situations (Roegiers, 2006). Peyser et al. (2006, p. 2) summarised the objectives of integration pedagogy in the following points:

1. Making sense of the learning process by providing learners with meaningful contexts in relation to real-life situations they would likely meet in their environment.

2. Opting for relevance as a criterion that determines matters differentiation in terms of practicality and necessity in everyday-life settings.

3. Relating previous knowledge to learning objectives (Roegiers, 2004).

4. Providing learners with the necessary capacity to mobilize their knowledge and skills to act effectively in daily situations, and hopefully deal with unexpected ones.

Hence, integration pedagogy puts forward improving the efficiency of the educational system by providing opportunities for learners' integration in society. It defines the learners' profiles in terms of family situations and competences, disciplinary or indisciplinary, to be mastered by learners and thus giving sense to and valuing learning. Integration pedagogy acknowledges the necessity to develop different types of content: knowledge, life skills, know-how skills, and transversal competences, which are to be invested to solve a problem situation. As to the teaching-learning process, there are two phases in integration pedagogy: learning and integration (Roegiers, 2008).

A situation of integration is then the image of the situation in which learners are supposed to practise the competence. Similiar to the concept of competence, and because the two are strongly interrelated in that they mirror each other, the situation of integration implies mobilising resources, is task-oriented, has a social dimension, makes reference to a given category of problems typical to a given discipline, and is normally new for the learners in that they are supposed to exhibit their competence mastery by resorting to appropriate mobilisation of predisposed resources to solve the problem (Roegiers, 1999). A situation of integration is a reinvestment situation which is very close to learners' daily life, and an opportunity for them to individually solve the problem they are encountering and to evaluate their own competence mastery (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 2005).

Of crucial importance is the idea that in a situation of integration, there is an interdependence of specific elements to be integrated in a systematic way, a coordination of such interdependent elements for better functioning in the problem situation which is supposedly purposeful and meaningful. Learners are firstly invited to select the resources they are to use to solve the problem. They need to be able to identify those specific skills, know-how to do resources relevant to solving the problem situation in an appropriate, very articulate manner. Central to curriculum design is then the elaboration of intergration

situations. This would help display the targeted terminal competences learners are expected to master after the school year or whole cycle (Roegiers, 2006).

- **Disciplinary Competence**

It relates to the necessary resources to develop terminal competences and often includes many specific objectives. Disciplinary competence is concerned with moving from the complex (learning situations) back to the simple, before again going to the complex (integration situation). Such notion of competence evokes learners' achievements necessary for them to reach understanding of the discipline. For instance, if the terminal competence is « learners should be able to produce a half-page description, in response to a written material, considering both the language and writing situation requirements », then the disciplinary competence will be « choosing the lexis appropriate to the topic and the intention ». Such competence is rather expressed with regard to school considerations (Roegiers, 2006).

1.2.6.10. Objective of Learning English in Secondary Schools in Algeria

In the Algerian context, and with reference to official documents delivered by the Ministry of National Education, learning English involves three basic competencies: interactive competency, interpretive competency, and productive competency. Interactive competency relates to the ability to use the target language orally for the sake of interacting with others. Interpretive competency is concerned with the ability to comprehend written or spoken language and to adequately interpret it. Productive competency is the ability to generate relevant and coherent texts or messages be they spoken or written.

> The aim of teaching English is to aid our society integrate
>
> harmoniously in modernity by participating fully and pleinly in the
>
> liguistic community that uses English for all kinds of interaction.

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Based on sharing and exchanging ideas and scientific, cultural, and civilisational experiences, such participation would enable for better knowing of the self and of the others. … Teaching English implies not only the acquisition of linguistic competences and of communication but also transversal competences be they methodological/ technological, cultural, social-namely developing a critical sense and analysis, attachment to national values, respect of universal values based on self-respect and that of others, tolerance, and being open to the world (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 2005, p. 3).

1.2.6.11. Project work and the Competency-based Approach

Central to the CBA in the Algerian context is the notion of project work. According to Louznadji (2013), a project is creative in nature and relates to learners' application of previously learnt items for the sake of displaying the mastery of specific objectives. Project pedagogy is centred on and targets developing learners' autonomy with the aim of keeping them motivated to learn the target language. In group work, learners usually work in groups to develop social skills and communicate either orally or in writing using the language. Stroller (1997 ; as cited in Li Ke, 2010) claimed that project work focuses on content learning, is learner-centered, is cooperative rather than competitive, leads to authentic integration of skills and information processing from different sources, mirrors real-life situations, has a final product, and is likely to raise learners'motivation, autonomy, self-confidence, self-esteem, and also cognitive abilities. Project work is then an integrative framework.

In project work, the teacher is not the one who decides upon the theme/topic to be selected. He/she can help with suggesting some topics in collaboration with learners.

According to Bensemmane et al. (2015), the project is an oral or a written production that is realised by a group of students (maximum four students) and should be presented after many learning sequences. For successful performance, the project should be appealing and motivating to studentswho will be guided and directed all along the learning process and the project realisation. The project is a creative, time-bound, and outcome-based production with an accessible result. It consists of both individual and collective phases in which students sometimes work independently and other times with the group members to realise a given product.

Conceiving and implementing a project goes through different phases: the preparation phase, the realisation phase, and the restitutoion phase. In the first phase, both the teacher and the students discuss the topic/theme, the tasks and their distribution, the objectives, the project requirements, the learning activities, the strategies to be adopted while working on the project, and the time limits. In this phase, the teacher adjusts the project to the target competencies and decides upon the number of sequences, learning activities, and evaluation relating to the nature of the project. Before starting the project, the teacher needs to consider such parameters as the theme, the timing, the role of the teacher, grouping the students, and evaluation. They also need to agree on the final outcome to be presented and its form. In the second phase, the teacher should become a counsellor, a facilitator, a guide, and should aid students to collect ideas, to write them in tables, to select, to classify, to evaluate, to combine, and to improve them. The project objectives should be set, and the teacher has to help formulate them for the students. Moreover, the teacher is supposed to help students devise a plan to follow while working on the project, together with the necessary procedures to act in terms of the genre to be used, the sources to consult, and the methods of data collection. Students should also divide the tasks and responsibilities. The teacher should then know about the language items necessary for the

students to produce/perform as part of the the project. The teacher should make students familiar with, or if needed teach them, techniques of interviewing, taking notes, etc. The students, helped by their teacher, should start design their own questionnaires, interviews, surveys, etc. After that, they need to begin gathering ideas they think pertinent, original, and creative enough to be included in their work before they come to select, organise, discuss, analyse, and finally present such ideas. Finally, the students should write their final draft and should be encouraged to present their work in front of an audience. The teacher should hepl decide upon the necessary equipement that would provide opportunities for best performance conditions (Bensemmane et al., 2015).

It is mentionworthy to add that the process of elaborating a project should be simultaneous to the learning sequences. Moreover, providing feedback is an important step to be done by the students. They are supposed to act with regard to the audience reaction and would likely introduce modifications or improvements as a kind of self-evaluation process. The teacher can also intervene and participate in a class discussion for the sake of showing to the students his/her interest and appreciation of the effort they made and possibly ameliorate their final product (Bensemmane et al., 2015).

1.2.6.12. Writing under the Competency-based Approach

Teaching writing in the Algerian context has previously been directed towards the final product, explicitness, accuracy, and correctness. According to Hyland (2003), such dated position was even viewed as an extension of grammar, and emphasised writing as sets of lexical and syntactic forms used to produce texts. However, writing is much more than the mere mastery of rules of usage; it goes even beyond to come as a response to communicative demands of the target situations. This implies developing learners' metagognitive awareness about the different processes involved in doing writing tasks, and knowledge of the many varied strategies to be implemented for the sake of writing

effectively. It also implies being knowledgeable about the different processes including pre-writing, dreafting, revising, and editing. However, that is not at all in trial to marginalise the social nature of writing. Writing is, in fact, socio-cognitive in that it involves skills in those writing processes but more importantly of language, context, purpose, and audiences (Hyland, 2003).

Given its cognitive and socio-constructivist orientation, the CBA is a teaching approach that aims at developing learners' communicative skills and targets the three basic competencies: interacting orally in English, interpreting oral/written messages, and producing oral/written messages. It also aims at making learners able to link their language learning to the real-world settings they may be found in.

Writing, under this approach, is central to developing complete good mastery of the three basic competences. Learners should be able to consolidate what they have seen before to be able to produce written messages using written discourse that corresponds to the given communication situation. Interestingly, the aim remains mastering the language writing competence for communication purposes and for appropriate functioning in society. Henceforth, significant meaningful integration situations that would hopefully pave the way for written production are required. This implies solving problems through different activities and tasks that engage learners in either simple production or even complex production. Learners may, for instance, be required to work on sentences or texts to analyse the fuctions of words and guess the meaning of such words in context. They may even be asked to tell a true or imaginative story using the appropriate register. Such tasks rather represent simple production and relate to grammar, lexis, or pronunciation. With more complex production, learners are supposed to write a report, an article, or even a programme, using or mobilising the previously-acquired knowledge and resources to reach mastery of the writing competence that would be palpable in the written production.

With the use of techniques such as look and write, learners would be aware of what they are writing about, to comprehend it, and to be able to integrate it (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 2005). As explained by Ameziane et al. (2005), learners are supposed to "…draw upon what they have discovered about the functioning of written language through reading to produce a limited but meaningful piece of writing. The learners are always asked to write with a purpose, e.g., a letter of reply to a pen friend giving information about their families and country… Writing tasks emphasise the product as much as the process." (p.7)

The project is said to be the product of learners' training to the writing of what they previously learnt. For maximum degree of mastery of the writing competence, of crucial importance is the respect of the following steps:

- At the start of each file/unit, the teacher may do a brainstorming, engaging all learners. They spontaneously evoke topics and themes in relation to the unit, and may resort to their background knowledge in other disciplines. Learners use key words to write notes.

- Learners organise ideas in groups to prepare the structure of the text.

- Learners individually write sentences using the notes prepared in groups.

- Learners compare their writing in the group and proceed to evaluation.

- Learners work alone to produce correct texts.

- Learners consider the grammatical forms, spelling, punctuation, capitalisaation, etc (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 2005).

More importantly, and given its learner-centered orientation, the CBA is an approach that should account for all learners and their needs, learning styles, and preferences. In the view of

Hyland (2003), learners' perceptual style preferences can be accommodated in different ways:

-Students with an auditory preference work best on tasks like listening to lectures, conversations, or taped material as sources for writing and tasks that require interaction with others such as group or pair work involving information transfer, reasoning problems, and discussion.

-Predominantly visual learners may respond well to reading source texts, writing class journals, completing gapped texts, and transferring information from graphic, textual, or video material.

-Kinesthetic students like to participate actively and therefore suitable tasks include role-plays and simulations with writing elements, site visits, and projects involving data collection.

-Tactile students may work better with tasks that involve writing reports on building and testing models, developing and acting scripts for plays, and sequencing activities such as jigsaw texts.

-Students differ in whether they work best alone or collaboratively, and teachers should vary the emphasis they give to individual and peer writing to help students extend the ways they write (pp. 44-45).

As to writing assessment, journal writing, classroom debates and conferences, and portfolios stand to be of particular relevance. As echoed by Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000, p. ix),

…portfolios answer today's need for a measurement system that can have a generative, rather than a reductive effect on education, because portfolios reinforce what we know about good teaching practice, because portfolios help teachers help learners assume more

responsibility for their own learning, and because portfolios provide a rich source of information to teachers as they continually reconsider their theory and practice and to researchers and administrators as they continue to assess educational progress in our schools and colleges.

With refernce to the above-mentioned explanations, it is worth saying that teaching writing under the CBA entails careful consideration of the what, the whom, the how, and the why to write. This is very similar to the idea worded by Grabe and Kaplan (1996, p. 203) : "One of the best ways to attempt a first ethnography of writing is to ask a basic question, *who writes what to whom, for what purpose, why, when, where, and how ?."*

As to the what to write, reference is made to the content, genre, and register. Such concepts relate to types of writing, background information needed to write, relevant to which is the schema theory, suggesting that specific sets of knowledge stored as integrated units are accessible for retrieval and are utilised in comprehending and generating content knowledge. The schema theory is also useful in showing that students write more when they are writing about things or topics they are familiar with, providing content and genre-structure resources for writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). As to the whom to write, audience and discourse community are being pointed to. According to Hyland (2003), schema knowledge includes knowledge of contexts, interpersonal relations, the roles of readers and writers, and the way these can be reflected in texts. Schema knowledge also mirrors the ways members of different communities think. The concept of discourse community is to the core of making writers, texts, and readers meet together, enabling learners to better interpret, generate, and advance critics about the text they have to write. This seems to be the focus of the genre approach to writing which contextualises writing for audience and purpose and emphasises readers expectations. The how to write relates to the ways adopted

when producing texts and the different processes needed or such activity. The why to write is concerned with the underlying intentions or motives that may or may not shown by functional purpose (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996), with purpose of writing with which writing instruction begins, through socially recognised ways of language use (Hyland, 2003).

This writing orientation echoes Hyland's (2003) synthesis of writing methodologies:

> A synthesis of different writing orientations therefore means taking the best of existing approaches and using them to more fully understand writing and learning to write. It suggests that, in the classroom, teachers should focus on increasing students' experiences of texts and reader expectations, as well as providing them with an understanding of writing processes, language forms, and genres. Finally, it means that 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 groups and contexts. In this way students can understand the discourses they have to write, while not devaluing those of their own cultures and communities. While every act of writing is in a sense both personal and individual, it is also interactional and social, expressing a culturally recognized purpose, reflecting a particular kind of relationship, and acknowledging an engagement in a given community. This means that writing cannot be distilled down to a set of cognitive or technical abilities or a system of rules, and that learning to write in a second language is not simply a matter of opportunities to compose and revise (pp. 26-7).

Many studies were conducted to investigate the effect of the process-genre approach to teaching writing on students' writing performance (e.g., Yan, 2005; Kim & Kim, 2005). Further studies comparing the process-genre approach to teaching writing to the genre or the process approaches independently would interestingly add to the field of foreign language teaching of writing.

To put it in a nutshell, there stands to be no unique appropriate approach to teaching writing within the CBA scope. Still, the teaching of writing should be practised with the aim of mastering communicative competence, central to which is the writing component. Incorporating and extending relevant insights of the main orientations (Hyland, 2003) in relation to the demands of the teaching/learning situations and with consideration of the basic principles of the CBA and of the aim of ensuring complete mastery of the writing competence displayed after appropriate and successful mobilisation of the necessary resources in the target situation is by and large the magic formula for successful teaching and learning of writing under the CBA. The same idea was advocated by authors as Bazerman (2011) and also Atkinson (2018), the latter who believed "There is no comprehensive theory of second language writing. This has been lamented by those who believe that, without one, researchers and teachers lack guidance and second language writing will stagnate as a result. Others have suggested that eclecticism is the heart and soul of second language writing, so no single theoretical umbrella can suffice."(p. 1).

Conclusion

This chapter has been devoted for reviewing the different teaching traditions in the history of second and foreign language teaching. The rise of the communicative approach has in effect prepared for a shift in paradigm that has ultimately laid solid grounds for the advance of the CBA. The teaching of writing within this approach aims at developing learners' communicative competence and preparing them for appropriate functioning in society. However, coming to advance conclusions as for its effectiveness necessitates

digging deeper into what elements constitute the writing skill and what different traditions govern its teaching in the language classroom; it additionally necessitates exploring the varied aspects related to teaching writing with regard to materials, tasks and activities, assessment and feedback, as knowledge about these is thought essential to and influential on the quality of instruction and thus its effectiveness.

Chapter Two: Teaching the Writing Skill in EFL.

Introduction

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2.8.Feedback on Writing.

    2.8.1.Types of Feedback.

        2.8.1.1.Teacher Written Feedback.

        2.8.1.2. Teacher-Student Conferencing.

        2.8.1.3. Peer Feedback.

Conclusion.

However great a man's natural talent may be, the act of writing cannot be learned all at once.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778)

Discourse was deemed Man's noblest attribute,
And written words the glory of his hand;

William Wordsworth (1770–1850)

Introduction

The chapter in hand gives an overview of the different considerations of the writing skill and its teaching, through exploring its importance, its basic elements, and the ways in which it is interpreted into classroom settings. It, then, outlines the different major theoretical perspectives in teaching writing through analysis of the relevant approaches and methodologies. The chapter also sheds light on materials for teaching writing, writing tasks, and writing assessment as being integral parts of the process of writing instruction. The chapter additionally investigates the different approaches and to writing assessment, together with the various types of feedback.

2.1. Definition of Writing

Writing has always been a basic skill in foreign language teaching. It is one of the ways learners communicate ideas and convey messages through text. The ability to write correctly and appropriately is to a large extent difficult in nature and comes long after learning to speak a language. It demands great efforts and expertise from learners and also entails different processes of ideas generation and organization, in order to satisfy readers' expectations. Nunan (1989) asserted that learning to write fluently and expressively is the most difficult of the macro skills for all language users learning a first, a second, or even a foreign language (p.35).

At its simplest level, writing relates to putting letters and symbols in combination. However, writing is much more complex and sophisticated than merely putting letters together. Byrne (1988, p. 1) maintained that "the symbols have to be arranged, according to certain conventions, to form words, and words have to be arranged to form sentences."

Coulmas (2003, p. 1) gave the following interpretation of writing:

> At least six meanings of 'writing' can be distinguished: (1) a system of recording language by a means of visible or tactile marks; (2) the activity of putting such a system to use; (3) the result of such activity, a text; (4) the particular form of such a result, a script style such as block letter writing; (5) artistic composition; (6) a professional occupation.

Moreover, White & Arndt (1991, p. 3) held a similar view and claimed that

> Writing is far from being a simple matter of transcribing language into written symbols: it is a thinking process in its own right. It demands conscious intellectual effort, which usually has to be sustained over a considerable period of time. Furthermore, precisely because cognitive skills are involved, proficiency in language does not, of itself, make writing easier. People writing in their native language, though they may have a more extensive stock of language resources to call upon, frequently confront exactly the same kinds of writing problems as people writing in a foreign or second language.

Both authors then view writing not only as the simple transcription of letters, but also as a cognitive process demanding skill and effort to be refined through time and practice.

Similarly, Bell and Burnaby (1984; as cited in Nunan, 1989, p.36) viewed writing as an extremely complex cognitive activity in which the writer is supposed to show control of different variables at the same time; these relate to content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, letter formation, coherence, and cohesion.

Widdowson (1978, p. 62) defined writing as "the use of the visual medium to manifest the graphological and grammatical system of the language. That is to say, writing in one sense is the production of sentences as instances of usage." As stated by Widdowson (1978), writing is a two-side system; it relates to the graphic representation of letters with no harm to the grammar of the language, and it is by so doing that sentences result to give meaning.

Hedge (2000) asserted that writing is

> "… as thinking, as discovery. Writing is the result of employing strategies to manage the composing process, which is one of gradually developing a text. It involves a number of activities: setting goals, generating ideas, organizing information, selecting appropriate language, making a draft, reading and reviewing it, then revising and editing. It is a complex process which is neither easy nor spontaneous for many second language writers (p. 302).

In a similar vein, Brown (2000, p.335) claimed that " …written products are often the result of thinking, drafting, and revising procedures that require specialized skills, skills that not every speaker develops naturally." In Brown's words, writing is a process consisting of different stages and requiring specific cognitive abilities.

Owing to the previously mentioned definitions, it can be said that writing relates to arranging letters and symbols in such a way as to express ideas, but additionally entails being involved with the language. Put differently, in order to convey a given idea through

writing in a language, one has to think about what words to utilize and also how to put these in combination. Writing, then, is an ongoing conscious process that requires specific cognitive skills that have to be practiced and developed through time.

2.2. Importance of Writing

Being able to write requires specific talent. Being complex and difficult in nature, writing has to be consciously learned and practiced. A child, for instance, can unconsciously start speaking without any kind of support or training. For that, learning to write has always been viewed as a prerequisite when learning any language. Given its importance, learning to write in a foreign language has become a necessity for foreign language learners willing to master the target language. White & Arndt (1991) claimed that it is through writing that we can share ideas, stimulate feelings, and convince people. They also viewed writing as a permanent record, a form of expression and a means of communication (p. 1).

Raimes (1983, p. 3) asserted that writing helps students to learn by reinforcing the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary being taught. When writing, students take risks with the language, and have the opportunity to go beyond what they have just learnt to say (Raimes, 1983, p. 3). A third point mentioned by Raimes is that writing is a unique way to reinforce learning. By thinking about what to write next and in what manner, they often find themselves discovering something new to write or a new way to express a given idea (Raimes, 1983, p. 3). As she put it, "The close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course."(Raimes, 1983, p. 3).

Moreover, Byrne (1988, p. 6) made reference to the importance of writing in the early stages of a course oriented towards oral proficiency. Byrne (1988) claimed that for some learners, writing is an aid to retention, as learners feel more secure when allowed to read and write. This obviously points to the notion of permanence, described by Brown (2000)

and also Ur (2009) as one of the characteristics of written language: "…whatever you can do….to help your students to revise and refine their work before final submission will help give them confidence in their work." (Brown, 2000, p. 341). Learners can, through writing, consolidate the structures they have previously learnt. Learners' learning styles are different in that some of the learners prefer learning and remembering something better when exposed to its written version.

Another point maintained by Byrne (1988) is that written works provide tangible evidence of progress in learning. It allows learners to estimate the extent to which they have progressed and to get feedback from the teacher. Writing is important in that it satisfies learners' psychological needs, which will in turn motivate them to learn more and better. In addition, writing, in Byrne's words (1988), provides variety in classroom activities and is needed in formal and informal testing.

Harmer (1998) maintained that the reasons for which we teach EFL students writing include reinforcement, language development, learning style, and most importantly, writing as a skill in its own right. He said that "some students acquire languages in a purely oral/aural way, but most of us benefit greatly from seeing the language written down." (p. 79). For example, teachers often ask students to write sentences making use of previously learnt items of grammar. Students may even be asked to produces longer pieces of writing so as to practice given focused-on aspects of language or paragraph and text construction (Harmer, 2004, p. 32).

As to language development, Harmer (1998) saw that the act of writing helps us to learn as we go through the process of so doing. As similarly viewed by Brown (2000), Harmer (1998) also considered writing as being appropriate for learners who take time to think things through and produce instances of language in their own pace.

Another prominent aspect displaying the way in which writing is important relates to the fact that writing encourages students to focus on accurate language use and helps them resolve problems that might result from thinking about what and how to write (Harmer, 2004).

2.3. Basic Elements in Writing

As explained by Raimes (1983), producing a good piece of writing entails considering different elements. All such elements are complementary and contribute fully to clarity, fluency, and effectiveness of written discourse. The figure below plainly explains such elements:
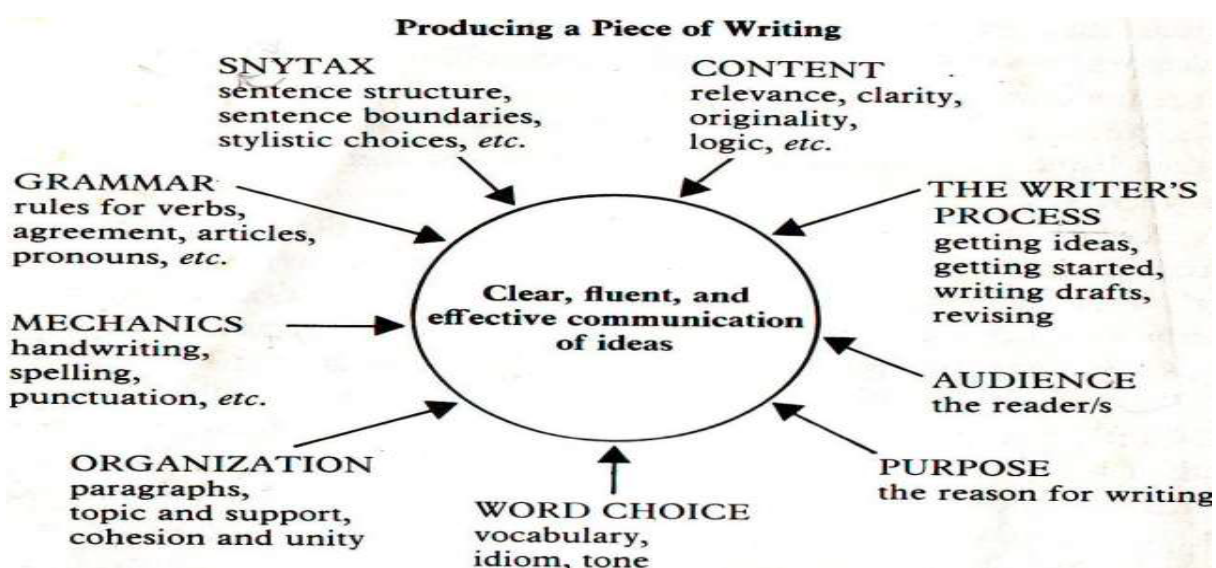
Figure 4: Producing a piece of writing (Raimes, 1983, p. 6)

From the figure above, it can be noticed that each of these elements relates to a number of aspects the knowledge of which helps direct learners to clear, fluent, and effective communication of ideas and thus to mastering the writing competence. Producing a piece of writing entails holding knowledge about aspects such as sentence structure, grammatical structures, handwriting, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, parts of speech, style, tone, paragraph elements, unity, coherence, cohesion,

clarity, originality and relevance of ideas, and knowledge about the different writing stages and strategies. More importantly, generating a piece of writing requires being knowledgeable about the purpose or the why to write (to inform, to narrate, to describe, etc) and also about who readers are; this is likely to help writers select what specific diction and style would fit and correspond to specific readership. This does, however, necessitate attributing equal importance to each of these features, independently of any subjective interpretation that may allude to favouring and adopting a specific approach to teaching writing.

2.4. Approaches to Teaching Second/ Foreign Language Writing

Teaching writing has long been to the core of any educational system. Still, there is no one answer to the question of how to teach writing. Raimes (1983) provided an overview of the approaches to teaching writing, namely, the Controlled-to- Free Approach, the Free-Writing Approach, the Paragraph- Pattern Approach, the Grammar- Syntax- Organisation Approach, the Communicative Approach, and the Process Approach. Tribble (2009), however, referred to the Process Approach and the Genre Approach in his book *Writing*. Silva (1994) introduced a historical sketch of approaches and orientations to second language writing, pointing out to the Controlled or Guided Composition, which emphasizes the manipulation of language structures and sentence patterns, the Current Traditional Rhetoric concerned with the logical arrangement of discourse forms in the context of the paragraph, and the Process Approach, viewing writing as a complex, recursive, and creative process.

2.4.1.The Product Approach

Researchers in the field of writing contributed many definitions and interpretations of such an approach. As its name suggests, it is highly product-oriented in nature, and stresses the importance of the linguistic knowledge. This approach focuses on

using vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices appropriately (Pincas, 1982; as cited in Badger & White, 2000, p. 153).

According to Nunan (1989, p. 36),

> "the product approach to writing focuses on the end result of the act of composition, i.e., the letter, essay, story and so on. The writing teacher who subscribes to the product approach will be concerned to see that the end product is readable, grammatically correct and obeys discourse conventions relating to main points, supporting details and so on. The focus in class will be on copying and imitation, carrying out sentence expansions from cue words and developing sentences and paragraphs from models of various sorts."

Silva (1994) subsumed the Controlled Composition and the Current Traditional Rhetoric under the labeling of Product Approach. However, Hyland (2003) held a quite different view and spoke about guiding conceptions in second language writing in terms of language structure, text functions, themes or topics, creative expression, composing processes, content, and genre and contexts of writing.

2.4.1.1. Controlled Composition

From the 1950s to the early 1960s, there was a prevailing dominance of the audiolingual method as an approach to second language teaching, favouring speech and using writing as a means to reinforce it. Silva (1994) claimed that the controlled approach seems to have roots in the audiolingual method and referred to it as Guided Composition. According to Silva (1994), central to this approach are

"…the notions that language is speech (from structural linguistics) and that learning is habit formation (from behaviorist psychology). Given these basic notions, it is not surprising that from this perspective writing was regarded as a secondary concern, essentially as reinforcement for oral habits." (p. 12).

This approach targets accuracy and correctness through practicing previously learnt discrete units of language. Learning to write is a habit formation activity where previously learnt language structures are being manipulated by the learners. Teachers' job is quite easy: they are the readers of the compositions and are responsible for editing and proof-reading the final product. Almost no concern is given to audience or purpose of writing. Rather, the text becomes a linguistic articraft (Silva, 1994, p. 13). As Hyland (2003) put it:

Conceptualizing L2 writing in this way directs attention to writing as a product and encourages a focus on formal text units or grammatical features of texts. In this view, learning to write in a foreign or second language mainly involves linguistic knowledge and the vocabulary choices, syntactic patterns, and cohesive devices that comprise the essential building blocks of texts (p. 3).

Both Hyland (2003) and Pincas (1982; as cited in Badger & White, 2000) also maintained that emphasising language structures as being a basis for teaching writing is a four-stage process:

- Familiarisation where learners are taught grammar and vocabulary usually through texts.
- Controlled writing where learners manipulate fixed patterns.
- Guided writing where learners imitate model texts.

- Free writing where learners use the previously learnt patterns to write essays, letters, etc. (Hyland, 2003, pp. 3-4)

According to Raimes (1983), this approach is sequential. At first, students are given sentence exercises, and then afterwards paragraphs to copy or manipulate. To put differently, students, using the *prototype*, perform strictly prescribed operations on it (p. 6). Raimes (1983) also maintained that this approach stresses three features: grammar, syntax, and mechanics.

2.4.1.2.Current Traditional Rhetoric

This approach is labeled by Raimes (1983) as the Paragraph- Pattern Approach. It is as reaction to the controlled composition that came the current traditional rhetoric approach in the mid sixties, with an increasing awareness of ESL students' needs with regard to the production of extended written discourse. In fact, what students needed was filling the gap between the controlled and free writing. The essence of this approach is the logical construction and arrangement of discourse forms. Of basic importance are the paragraph, its elements, and the particular organisational patterns of development. For instance, students are asked to choose among sentences within the context of a given paragraph or essay (Silva, 1994). Hyland (2003) put it as follows:

> One aim of this focus is to help students develop effective paragraphs through the creation of topic sentences, supporting sentences, and transitions, and to develop different types of paragraphs. Students are guided to produce connected sentences according to prescribed formulas and tasks which tend to focus on form to positively reinforce model writing patterns. As with

sentence-level activities, composing tasks often include so-called

free writing methods, which largely involve learners reordering

sentences in scrambled paragraphs, selecting appropriate sentences

to complete gapped paragraphs and write paragraphs from provided

information (p. 6).

It is clear from the above-mentioned explanation that the product approach is text-based. However, given its structural orientation, learning to write following this approach can be source of trouble as it gives very little if no consideration to the purpose and audience of writing. This paved the way for the process approach to take road.

2.4.2. The Process Approach

It is in the late 1960s and early 1970s that this approach came to take place of the product approach, oriented towards error correction and formulaic patterns of organization. Process pedagogy arose in fact in the late 1960s and the early 1970s, as a reaction to the prevailing dominance of a product-centered pedagogy (Matsuda, 2003b). Susser (1994) maintained that a major aspect of process writing pedagogies is making students aware of the fact that writing is often a process of discovery that consists of generating ideas not only transcribing them. As elaborated by Clark (2008), "A process approach to writing and the teaching of writing means devoting increased attention to *writers* and the activities in which writers engage when they create and produce a text, as opposed to analyzing and attempting to reproduce "model" texts." (p. 7). The process approach was concerned with discovering how writers produce texts, designing a model of the writing process, and helping writers find a process that would enable them to write more effectively and better themselves as writers (Clark, 2008).   Tribble (2009) and Hyland (2003) agreed on the fact that the process approach to teaching writing focuses on the writer as an independent producer of texts. Matsuda (2003a) asserted that "In composition studies, the interest had

begun to shift from textual features to the process of writing itself… investigating the processes underlying the production of written discourse." (p. 21). This approach emphasizes the different composing processes utilized by the writers, and hence put forward meaning instead of form and usage. It is closely tied to the principles of learner-centredness promoting individuals to assume responsibility for their own learning (Jordan, 1997). As Tribble (2009) put it: "Teachers who have been at the forefront of the development of the process approach have proposed methodologies which emphasise the creativity and unpredictability of writing." (p. 37). The same idea was advocated by White & Arndt (1991) in their book *Process Writing*:

> What is important for us as teachers of writing is to engage our students in that creative process; to excite them about how their texts are coming into being; to give them insights into how they operate as they create their work; to alter their concepts of what writing involves. (p. 5).

So, this approach places great emphasis on generating, formulating, and exploring new ideas and thoughts and moves actively throughout the composing processes. Additionally, central to the process approach is providing a positive, encouraging, and collaborative workshop environment where students work through their composing processes with minimal interference and enough time for so doing. The teachers' role is to help them get develop strategies to get started, to help generate ideas, to revise, and to edit their drafts (Silva, 1994).

Hyland (2003, p.12) held a similar view and claimed that the role of the teacher is to guide students through the writing process, avoiding an emphasis on form to help develop strategies for ideas generating, drafting, and revising such as teacher-student conferences, problem-based assignments, journal writing, group discussions, or portfolio assessments.

The aim of the teacher is to raise students' metacognitive awareness of the different processes, i. e., "their ability to reflect on the strategies they use to write."(Hyland, 2003, p.12).

Moreover, formative feedback-by teachers and peers also became of crucial importance in writing classrooms. Tribble (2009) asserted that the process is "…recursive and complex. In other words, although there are identifiable stages in the composition of most extended texts, typically writers will revisit some of these stages many times before a text is complete." (p. 38).

Nunan (1989) claimed that the process approach focuses more on the means whereby texts were created, and that the act of composing evolves through different stages, where ideas are refined, developed and transformed when writing and rewriting.

According to Nordin (2017), the process approach to teaching writing views writing as a recursive, non-linear process of pre-writing, drafting, evaluating, and revising. The pre-writing activity would involve introducing techniques that help the students discover and engage a topic and are asked to write different drafts of a work. After discussion and feedback from readers, they are supposed to do some revision of the drafts. Rewriting and revision are integral to writing, and editing is an on-going multi-level process. The multipledraft process thus consists of: generating ideas (pre-writing); writing a first draft with an emphasis on content (to discover meaning/ author's ideas); second and third (and possibly more) drafts to revise ideas and communication of those ideas. The central elements are then the writer, the content and the purpose, and multiple drafts (Nordin, 2017, pp. 76-77). She also maintained that in a process-approach classroom, the teacher should be a facilitator and that writing is essentially learnt, not taught. Therefore, providing input or stimulus for learners is viewed unimportant, given the fact that the teacher's task is restricted to facilitating writing skills practice and drawing out the

learners' potential. The process approach is thus a learner-centred one (Nordin, 2017).

Similarly, as explained by Raimes (1992),

> The teacher's role is to guide students through the writing process, avoiding an
> emphasis on form to help them develop strategies for generating, drafting, and
> refining ideas. This is achieved through setting pre-writing activities to generate
> ideas about content and structure, encouraging brainstorming and outlining,
> requiring multiple drafts, giving extensive feedback, seeking text level revisions,
> facilitating peer responses, and delaying surface corrections until the final editing
> (As cited in Hyland, 2003, p. 12).

White & Arndt (1991) provided the following model of process writing:
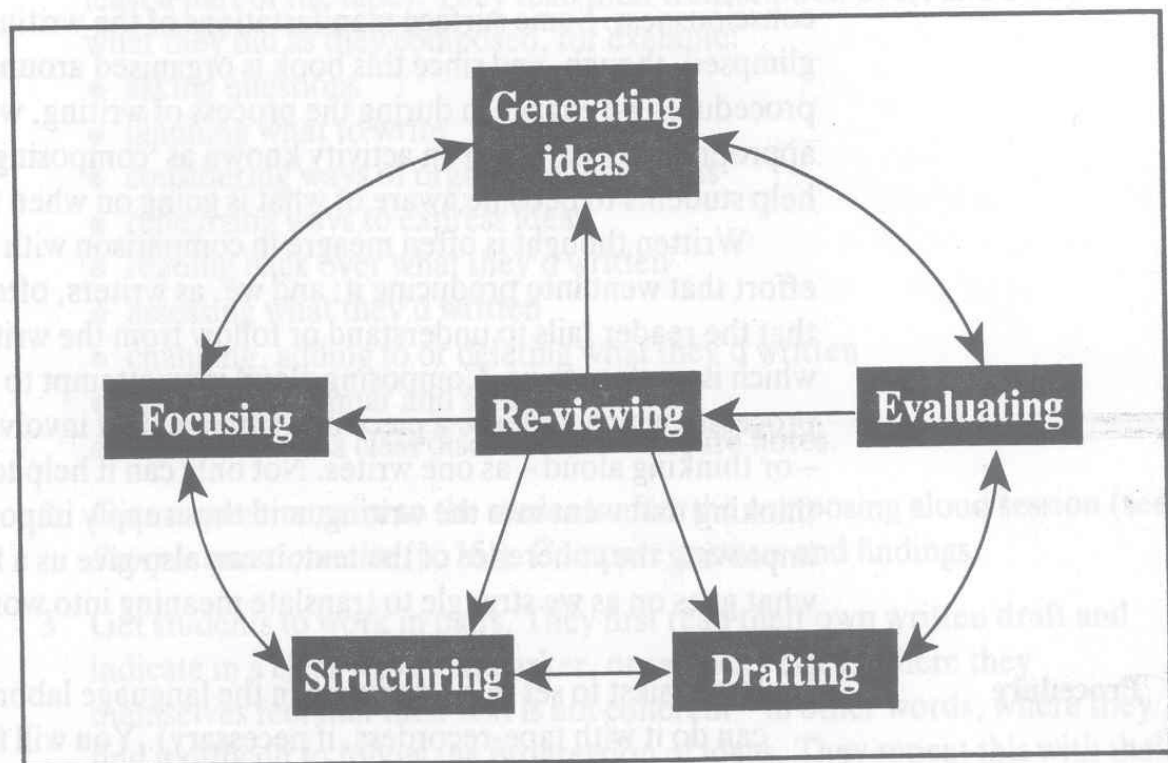
Figure 5: A model of writing. (White & Arndt, 1991, p. 4).

As shown in the model, writing is not at all a linear process; but rather spiral,

recursive. Students should keep darting back and forth each time they need to make

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decisions. Another challenge for students is that ideas should be organized in such a way as to convey meaning coherently. Moreover, they cannot see or speak to the persons supposed to be the audience, so, their text should explicitly be expressive enough to evoke all aspects of meaning (White & Arndt, 1991).

A process-driven writing course will recognize that all writing is embedded in a given context and meant to attain a given purpose, and that these contexts should be made explicit and related to relevant content areas (Hyland, 2003, p.74). Hyland (2003, p. 74) suggested the following process-driven syllabus model:

Consideration of context and topic
(teachers and learners build up a picture of topic, audience, and purpose)

↓

Generating ideas and gathering data
(brainstorming, library and web searches, readings)

↓

Language input and consideration of genre
(tasks developing appropriate language for the genre)

↓

Creating and reworking a draft

Evaluation of draft
(peer, teacher, self-marking)

↓

Editing for form and style
(further discussion and input on language)

↓

Text

Figure 6: A process-driven syllabus (source: Hyland, 2003, p. 74).

These steps are in fact recursive and writers may, if needed move backward before advancing into the next stage and generating the final written text.

Flower and Hayes (1983) developed a cognitive process theory of writing, in hope to shed light on the thinking processes involved in writing. The theory is based on four key points:

> 1.The process of writing is best understood as a set of distinctive thinking processes which writers orchestrate or organize during the act of composing.
>
> 2. These processes have a hierarchical, highly embedded organization in which any given process can be embedded within any other.
>
> 3. The act of composing itself is a goal-directed thinking process, guided by the writer's own growing network of goals.
>
> 4. Writers create their own goals in two key ways: by generating both high-level goals and supporting sub-goals which embody the writer's developing sense of purpose, and then, at times, by changing major goals or even establishing entirely new ones based on what has been learned in the act of writing. (p. 366).

Hayes & Flower described the writing process in terms of the task environment, including the writing assignment and the text produced so far, the writer's long- term memory, consisting of knowledge of the topic, knowledge of audience, and stored writing plans, and a number of cognitive processes including planning, translating thought into text, and revising (Weigle, 2009, p. 24), as shown in the figure below:

TASK ENVIRONMENT

WRITING ASSIGNMENT
Topic
Audience
Motivating Cues

TEXT
PRODUCED SO
FAR

THE WRITER'S
LONG TERM MEMORY
Knowledge of Topic
Knowledge of Audience
Stored Writing Plans

GENERATING

PLANNING
ORGANIZING
GOAL SETTING

TRANSLATING

REVIEWING
READING
EDITING
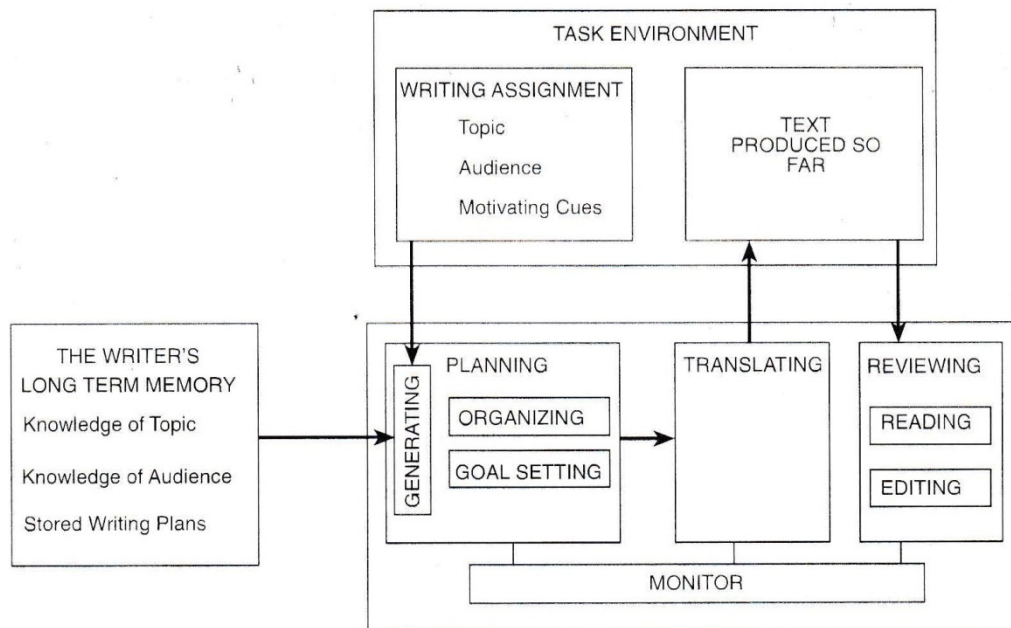
MONITOR

Figure 7: The Hayes-Flower (1980) writing model.

Becker (2006) summarized the model in the following:

> …three main processes of planning, translating and reviewing
> operate through a monitor function that allows access not only to
> these three activities but also the writer's long-term memory.
> Reviewing is divided into two sub-categories: 1) evaluation, which
> provided for specific appraisal of the written text, and 2) revision,
> which referred to the actual changes. (p. 26)

Another influential model is that of Bereiter & Scardamalia (1987; as cited in Weigle, 2009, p. 29). They proposed a two-model description of writing that addresses contradiction: virtually all people can learn to write as well as they can speak, but not all of them have expertise in writing. For the sake of resolving this contradiction, both authors suggested a distinction between **knowledge telling** and **knowledge transforming**. Knowledge telling is similar to improvised speaking demanding very little planning and

revision (just like the writing of children). Knowledge transformation involves more skill and effort through translating ideas into words but also using writing to create new knowledge. Hence, unlike Hayes & Flower's model, Bereiter & Scardamalia's two-model process provides explanation for the differences between skilled and unskilled writers. So, one can notice the existing complementarity between both models (Weigle, 2009, pp 33-34). The following figures make these explicit:
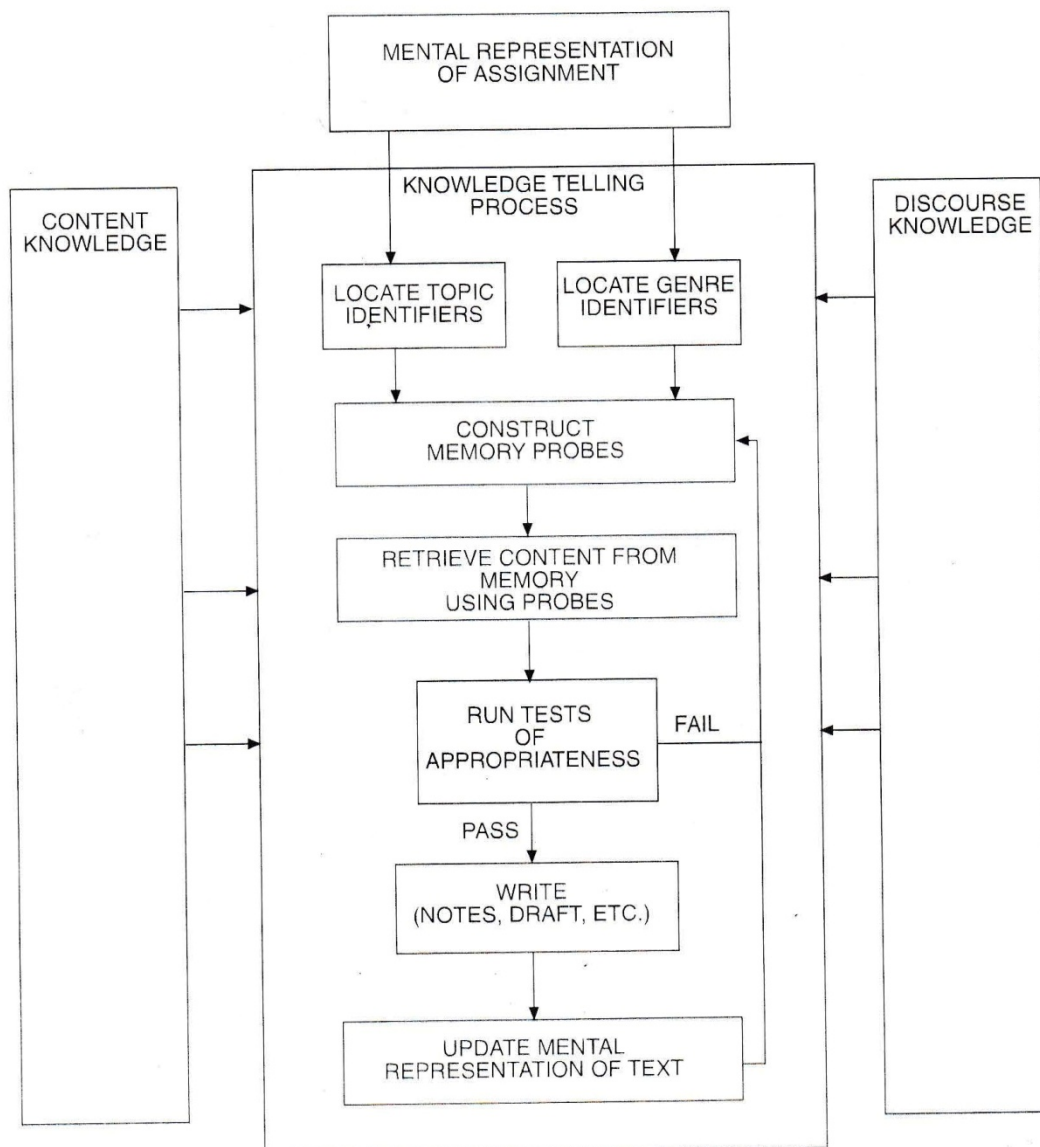
Figure 8: Structure of the knowledge telling model (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987; in Weigle, 2009, p. 33).
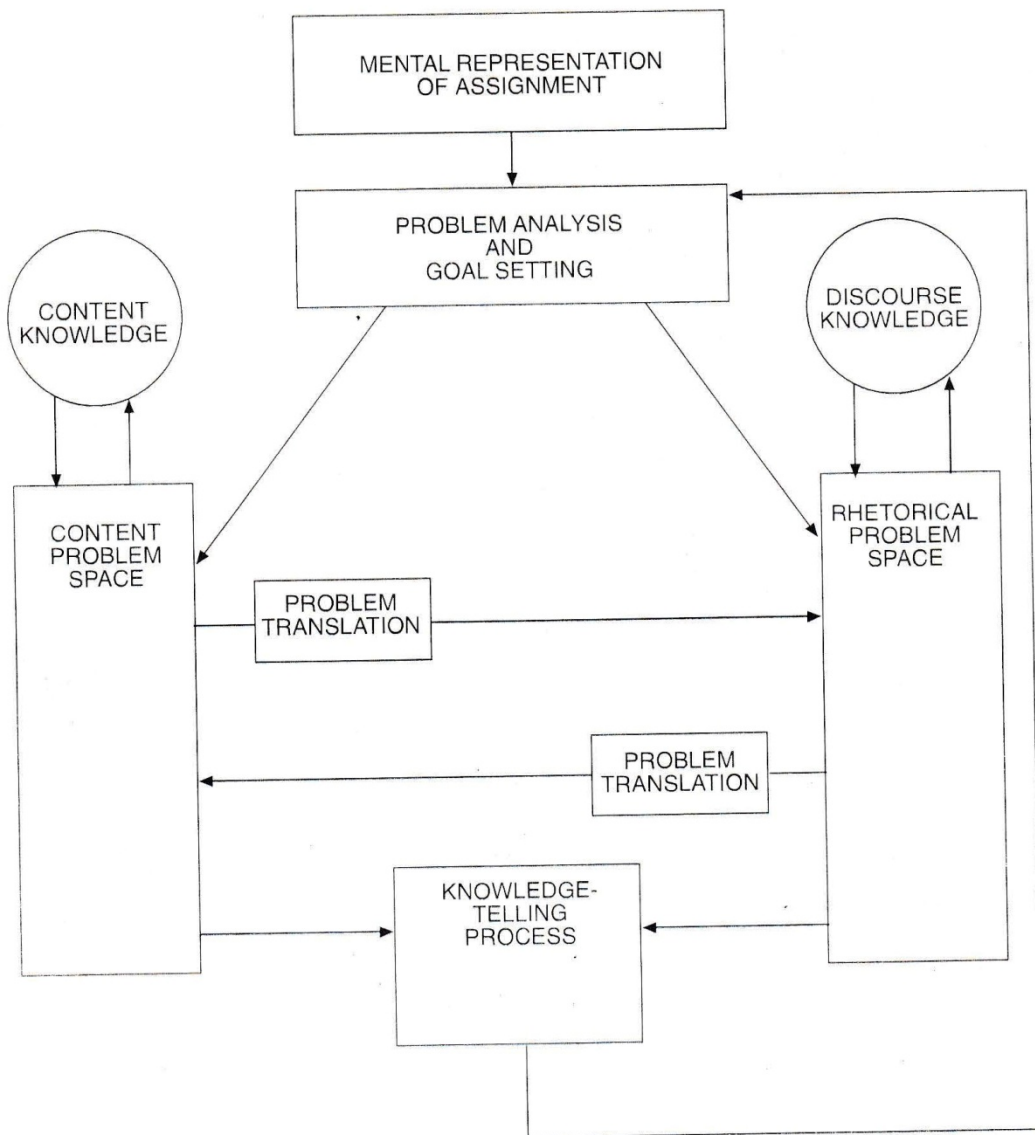
Figure 9: Structure of the knowledge –transforming model (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987; in Weigle, 2009, p. 34).

The process approach was also subject to critics by many authors like Tribble (2009), who acknowledged the existing difficulty of maintaining a balance between what teachers feel central to developing their students as writers and the possible contradictory influence their teaching materials would exert on the students. Hyland (2003, p. 13) also held a similar standpoint:

> Despite considerable research into writing processes, however, we still do not have a comprehensive idea of how learners go about a writing task or how they learn to write. It is clear that cognition is a central element of the process, and researchers are now more aware of the complexity of planning and editing activities, the influence of task, and the value of examining what writers actually do when they write. But although these understandings can contribute to the ways we teach, process models are hampered by small-scale, often contradictory studies and the difficulties of getting inside writers' heads to report unconscious processing. They are currently unable to tell us why writers make certain choices or how they actually make the cognitive transition to a *knowledge-transforming* model, nor do they spell out what occurs in the intervening stages or whether the process is the same for all learners.

Furthermore, Badger & White (2000) stated that the process approach regarded all writing as the product of the same set of processes, giving little importance to the kind of texts writers produce and the purpose for which they are writing. Process approaches, they also claimed, do not offer learners enough linguistic knowledge to write successfully.

2.4.3. The Genre Approach

Even though the process approach to writing stood to have many positive aspects, one of its side effects is that "…it does not necessarily address the needs of a learner who has to write for readers unknown to him or her, especially for readers with specific expectations of what a text should be like if it is to achieve its effect." (Tribble, 2009, p. 57). The process approach pays little attention to grammar and structures, and puts little focus on the final products. In the 1980s, the genre approach to writing became popular, and came as an alternative solution to the process approach. Before outlining the basic assumptions of the genre approach, it is important to make the concept of genre clear.

As defined by Swales (1981; as cited in Jordan, 1997, p. 166), "A genre is a recognized communicative event with a shared public purpose and with aims mutually understood by the participants in that event." This means that genres are communicative in nature and purpose. They relate to specific social situations where specific structures are being utilized to reach a given communicative purpose. Swales' definition of genre contributed a lot to recent development in the field of genre studies (Tribble, 2009). The key terms employed by Swales in his definition are 'communicative event' and 'communicative purpose'. By the former, he refers to discourse, participants, but also the role of that discourse and the environment of its production and reception, including its historical and cultural associations (Swales, 1990; as cited in Tribble, 2009, p. 47). Communicative purpose influences the textual choices of the writer. So, genres are socially accepted ways of using the language for given communicative purposes rather than being merely patterns of words (Swales, 1990; as cited in Uso-Juan et al. 2006, p. 388).

Hyland (2007) provided the following definition of genre:

> Genre refers to abstract, socially recognised ways of using
>
> language. It is based on the idea that members of a community

usually have little difficulty in recognising similarities in the texts they use frequently and are able to draw on their repeated experiences with such texts to read, understand, and perhaps write them relatively easily. This is, in part, because writing is a practice based on expectations: the reader's chances of interpreting the writer's purpose are increased if the writer takes the trouble to anticipate what the reader might be expecting based on previous texts they have read of the same kind. (p. 149)

For Johns (2003, p. 195), the term genre relates to capturing the social nature of oral and written discourse by various theorists and practitioners from applied linguistics (working in Systemic Functional Linguistics, English for Specific Purposes, and the New Rhetoric in North America). She later reported the experts' argument that we must think of genre as a concept that is both cultural and cognitive because it is an abstraction developed from experiences with our own cultures and their texts (p. 196). Examples of genres may be reports, dictionaries, research articles, letters of reference, and many others. According to Johns et al. (2006),

All genre scholars agree that genres are complex. Whether we choose to analyze genres in terms of their textual features, social actions, communities of practice, power structures, or the networks and modalities in which they operate (and individual researchers nearly

always need to limit themselves to only some of these), we know that we are only seeing a partial viewof all that is ''going on.'' This complexity is perhapswhatmany writing scholars are drawn to,

for a genre is a kind of nexuses among the textual, social, and

political dimensions of writing (p. 239).

As summarized by Azaz (2016, p. 36), genres are cultural communicative activities or practices forming meanings within a given context. Such activities are identified and mutually understood by the same discourse community. Genres are highly structured with some constraints relating to context, form, and linguistic features. He also claimed that context decides upon the structure and the function of each genre. Being relatively stable, genres-he added- are important tools in second language writing classes where learners should be provided with functional genres and be trained on how to reconstruct and model texts that fall within these genres. Thus, genre mastery is said to be a basic step of student writing proficiency, but also an important pedagogical vehicle (Goldschmidt, 2014). Johns (2003) also added that genres are useful to individuals and teachers of composition in that those who become familiar with specific genres will succeed in processing and generating written texts, providing students with a concrete opportunity for knowledge acquisition necessary to undertake writing tasks beyond the teaching setting.

The genre-based approach places great emphasis on the relationship between text-genres and their contexts (Hyon, 1996). Hyland (2007), in an article entitled *Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction*, summarized the different principles underpinning all genre- based teaching. He deemed the writing activity as being social in nature. He viewed communication as always having a purpose, a context, and an audience. In genre- based instruction, as he claimed, we need to identify the kind of writing needed to do in the target situation so as to put these as part of the course; learning to write is a social activity that requires explicit outcomes and expectations and involves using the language. Hyland (2003) explained the practice of genre in classrooms as follows

In the writing classroom, teachers following a genre orientation draw on the work

of the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1978) and its interpretation by Bruner

(1986). This stresses the view that learning occurs best when learners engage in tasks that are within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), the area between what they can do independently and what they can do with assistance. Learning evolves from verbal interaction and task negotiation with a more knowledgeable person, and the teacher has a central role in "scaffolding" this development. …The method used to achieve this is a process of contextualizing-modeling-negotiating-constructing …At the beginning of this learning cycle, direct instruction is crucial, as the learner gradually assimilates the task demands and procedures for constructing the genre effectively. The teacher here adopts a highly interventionist role, ensuring that students are able to understand and reproduce the typical rhetorical patterns they need to express their meanings. At later stages learners require more autonomy. Importantly, writing is the outcome of activity, rather than an activity itself (p. 21).

More importantly, Hyland (2007) added the idea that

> Classroom applications of genre are an outcome of communicative approaches to language teaching which emerged in the 1970s, continuing a pedagogic tradition of stressing the role language plays in helping learners achieve particular purposes in context ….They are also closely related to current conceptions of literacy which show that writing (and reading) varies with context …There are a wide variety of practices relevant to and appropriate for particular times, places, participants, and purposes, and these practices are not something that we simply pick up and put down, but are integral to our individual identity, social relationships, and group memberships (p.150).

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Genre-oriented approaches provide opportunities for students to generate instances of language use in a given context, and how these might be utilised in such a way as to attain particular purposes. Learning to write, thus, happens consciously through imitation and analysis (Badger & White, 2000).According to Badger & White (2000), Genre approaches are

> …relative newcomers to ELT. However, there are strong similarities with product approaches and, in some ways, genre approaches can be regarded as an extension of product approaches. Like product approaches, genre approaches regard writing as predominantly linguistic but, unlike product approaches, they emphasize that writing varies with the social context in which it is produced. …. Genres are also influenced by other features of the situation, such as the subject matter, the relationships between the writer and the audience, and the pattern of organization. (p. 155)

Badger & White (2000, p. 156) again reported Dudley-Evans' words (1997), the latter who summarized the three stages in genre approaches to writing. First, a model of a particular genre is introduced and analysed. Then, learners carry out exercises which manipulate relevant language forms and, finally, come to produce a short text (Dudley-Evans, 1997; as cited in Badger & White, 2000, p. 156). Badger & White (2000) claimed that as with the product approach, in genre classes, learners would analyse the text (grammar, vocabulary), considering the social context, and would be helped to produce partial texts, before they actually come to write complete texts reflecting the social context and the language needed for doing it. As put by Badger & White (2000), genre-based approaches consider writing as essentially concerned with knowledge of language, and as being related to a social purpose, while the development of writing is largely viewed as the

analysis and imitation of model texts provided by the teacher. In the words of Hyland (2004; as cited in Hyland, 2009, pp. 17-18), the main advantages of genre pedagogy relate to being as follows:

Explicit:　　　　Makes clear what is to be learnt to facilitate the acquisition of writing skills

Systematic:　　　Provides a coherent framework for focusing on both language and contexts

Needs-based :　　Ensures that course objectives and content are derived from students' needs

Supportive :　　Gives teachers a central role in scaffolding students' learning and creativity

Empowering :　Provides access to the patterns and possibilities of variation in valued texts

Critical :　　　Provides the resources for students to understand and challenge valued discourses

Consciousness-raising :　Increases teachers' awareness of texts to confidently advise students on writing

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Figure 10: Advantages of Genre-Based Writing Pedagogy.

Considering both the process and the genre approach to writing instruction, Hyland (2003) made the distinction clear through the table below:

Table 2: *A Comparison of Genre and Process Orientations* (Hyland, 2003, p. 24)

Attribute	Process	Genre
Main Idea	Writing is a thinking process Concerned with the act of writing	Writing is a social activity Concerned with the final product
Teaching Focus	Emphasis on creative writer How to produce and link ideas	Emphasis on reader expectations and product How to express social purposes effectively
Advantages	Makes processes of writing Provides basis for teaching	Makes textual conventions transparent Contextualizes writing for

		audience and purpose
Disadvantages	Assumes L1 and L2 writing similar	Requires rhetorical understanding of texts
	Overlooks L2 language difficulties	Can result in prescriptive teaching of texts
	Insufficient attention to product	Can lead to overattention to written products
	Assumes all writing uses same	Undervalue skills needed to produce texts
	Processes	

2.4.4.The Process-Genre Approach

According to Badger and White (2000), effective teaching of writing necessitates incorporating insights from the previous approaches by means of adaptation. i.e., taking one approach and then adapting it, leading to important developments in the writing classroom. They claimed that

> writing involves knowledge about language (as in product and
> genre approaches), knowledge of the context in which writing
> happens and especially the purpose for the writing (as in genre
> approaches), and skills in using language (as in process
> approaches). Writing development happens by drawing out the
> learners' potential (as in process approaches) and by providing
> input to which the learners respond (as in product and genre
> approaches). (2000, pp. 157-8)

As to this eclectic approach, and as learners are at different stages of writing development, they will need different kinds of input in terms of the language needed with a given audience and the skills in determining that target audience (Badger & White,

2000). The process genre model initiated by Badger & White (2000) is summarized in the figure below:

A process genre model of writing

Possible input

Situation

Purpose

Consideration of mode field tenor

Planning
Drafting
Publishing

Text

Teacher

Learners

Texts
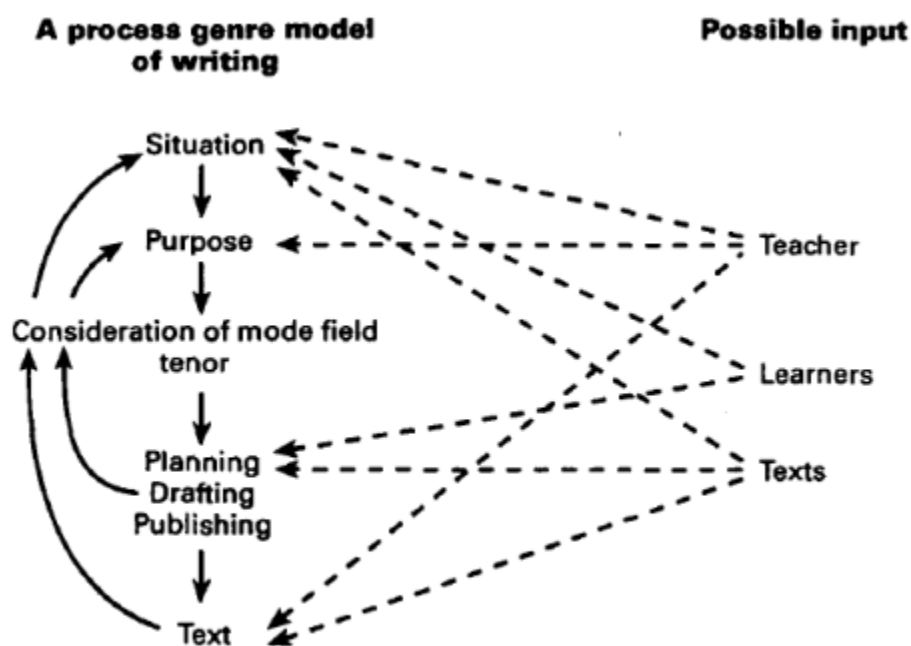
Figure 4: a genre process model of teaching writing: Badger & White 2000: 159)

Figure 11: A genre process model of teaching writing (Badger & White, 2000, p. 159)

According to GuoYan (2005), in the process- genre approach, teachers should be aware of three general guidelines. They should act as guides and work closely with students providing them with encouragement, assistance, and positive constructive suggestions on what has been written. The choice of the writing topic should match to students' interests. Moreover, teachers should engage students in implementing different writing strategies in the different writing processes. More importantly, teachers should include other language skills (listening, speaking, and reading) in the writing class.

Guo Yan (2005) added that teaching writing under this approach is divided into six steps:

(1) Preparation, (2) modeling and reinforcing, (3) planning, (4) joint constructing, (5) independent constructing, and (6) revising. These steps interact recursively with themselves and with other writing skills.

FIGURE 1: APPLICATION OF THE PROCESS GENRE APPROACH
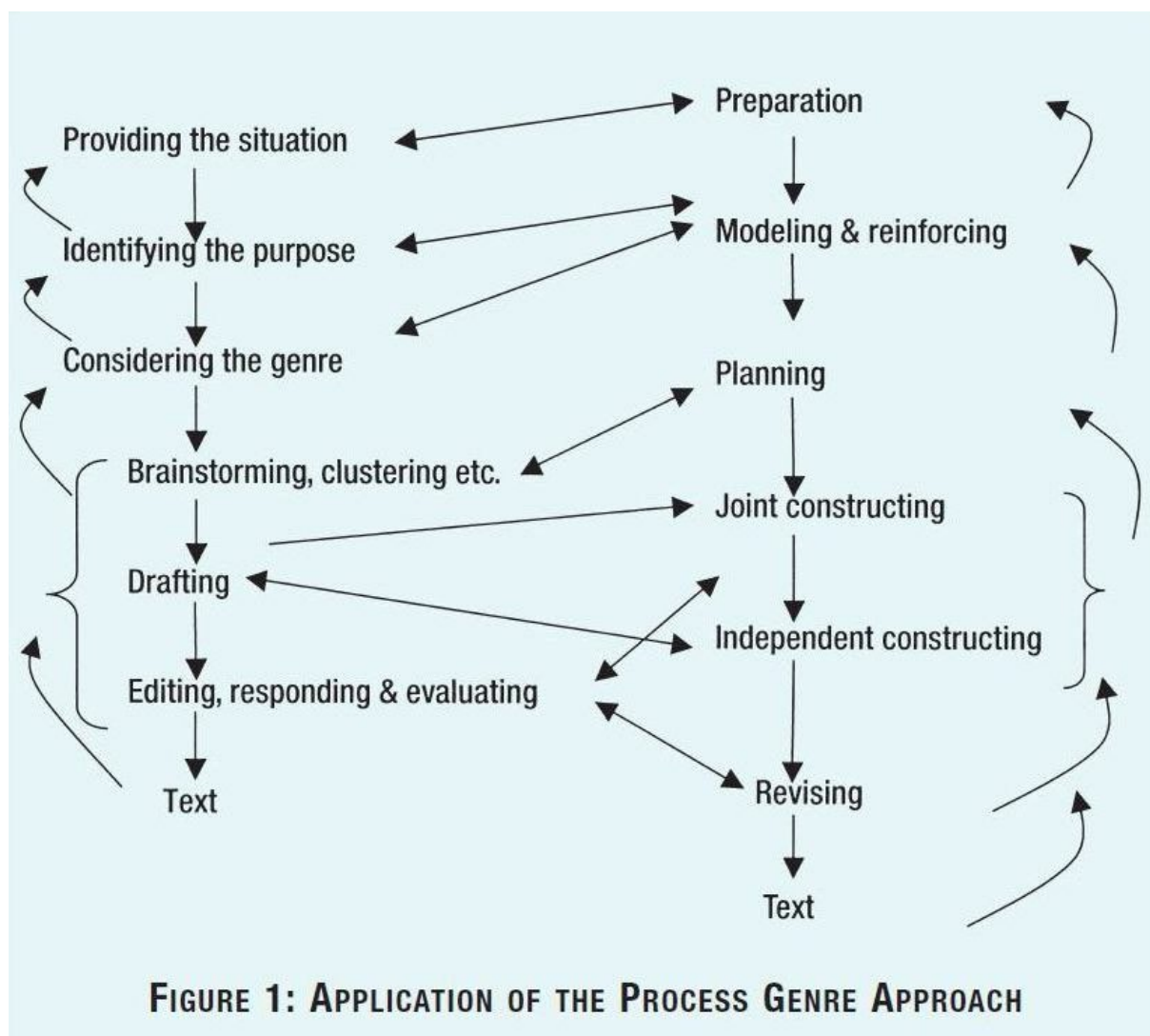
Figure 12: Application of the Process-Genre Approach According to Guo Yan (2005, p. 21)

- **Preparation**

The teacher first prepares students and introduces them to a situation that is supposed to define the genre required for a given written text. That way, students schemata would be activated and they will be able to preview the required structural features of this genre.

- **Modeling and reinforcing**

At that stage, the teacher introduces a model of the genre, and students are to determine the audience and the social purpose of the text. Then, the teacher, with students, discuss the structure and organization of the text used to reach the specific social purpose. Students can use other texts to reinforce their knowledge about the target genre.

- **Planning**

The aim of this step is to raise students' interest about the topic by activating their schemata via different meaningful activities such as brainstorming, discussing and reading the text.

- **Joint constructing**

This step is meant to prepare students for later independent composing. The teacher and the students work together and start writing a text through the use of processes of brainstorming, drafting and revising. Students provide ideas and the teacher writes the generated text. This final draft will serve as a model for students once they come to work on their own pieces of writing.

- **Independent constructing**

After having worked on model texts, students at this stage eventually come to compose their own text on a related topic. The teacher is to help them in the process of doing so. The writing assignment could be continued as homework.

- **Revising**

This is the step in which students' final drafts are subject to revision and editing, which could be done by the teacher or even by fellow students.

In a paper entitled *The Best of the Approaches: Process/ Genre-based approach to teaching writing*, Nordin (2017) proposes an eclectic approach to the teaching of writing, which draws upon the model put forward by Badger and White (2000), by synthesising the

strength of the process and genre approaches for implementation in the classroom. She summarised the process-genre apprach in the following:

The process/genre-based approach thus integrates the strength of the process approach and the genre-based approach. Planning, drafting, conferencing, editing and peer review are components of the process approach to teaching writing. Understanding and considering the purpose, audience and context on the other hand, are elements in the genre approach (Nordin, 2017, p. 82).

Within the process-genre orientation, teachers have four basic roles: audience, assistants, evaluators and examiners. They act as readers and respond to the ideas and feelings learners are attemting to convey through their writings. They also help learners choose the appropriate genre, language and determine the purpose, for the sake of making their writing more effective. Teachers are additionally supposed to act as evaluators, commenting on their students' performance in terms of strengths and weaknesses, to prepare them be good writers. They also examine their students' writing proficiency using different assessment tools (Nordin, 2017).

To put it in a nutshell, there stood to be various perspectives as to teaching writing as a skill. To that scope, very relevant are the words of Bazerman (2011):

"… the search for a single psychological model of writing is chimerical, but that does not mean that there are no generalizations in writing. Rather than looking for a single set of writing processes, we might look for the *processes* that are activated, enlisted, coordinated, and transformed in the course of writing and over one's development as a writer. That is, rather than considering writing as an isolated modularized function, we might look at it as

a complex accomplishment, enlisting varying assemblies of human psychological and material capacities that we have learned how to redirect and coordinate for these special purposes, and that over time might create more enduring or automatized assemblies that take shape in individuals, perhaps influenced by available social practices and organized instruction." (p, 98)

In an article entitled *Teaching Korean University Writing Class: Balancing the Process and the Genre Approach*, Kim and Kim (2005), aiming at solving problems in university writing classes in Korea, suggested four principles or guidelines of balanced instruction and curriculum toward both the process and genre approach and also examples of how writing teachers can effectively apply them to class instruction. The first principle relates to *balancing form and function* to help students recognize the relationships between language structures (as in product and genre) and the roles they play in conveying approaches meaning (as in process). Secondly, they suggested a *scaffolding language and learning* strategy that helps create active teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction. Through scaffolding writing instruction, students can both comprehend, reproduce the typical rhetorical patterns they need to express their ideas and also illustrate the process of writing a text, taking into account both the content and the language. They will, ultimately, end up with enough confidence to write their own texts. *Extending the writing curriculum* is the third principle they considered central to their proposal of a process-genre approach to writing instruction. By that, they meant that teachers need to help students become more successful writers of academic and workplace texts and help them understand the social functions of genres and the contexts in which these genres are used by using genre-specific writing across the curriculum. Finally Kim and Kim (2005) acknowledged the importance of involving students in the process of experiencing

different types of feedback to make the writing activity more meaningful and productive ; they said : "Rather than just focus on teacher's written feedback,

writing teachers need to apply alternative forms of feedback, such as teacher-student conferencing and peer-feedback. These various types of feedback give both a teacher and students a chance to negotiate the meaning of a text through dialogue." (p. 12)

In a similar vein, Hyland (2003) stressed the importance of synthesizing the different writing orientations by taking the best of each approach and utilizing them for full understanding of writing and learning to write. He proposed that teachers should increase students' experiences of texts and reader expectations, but additionally to provide them with a full understanding of the different writing processes, language forms, and genres, to make students comprehend the discourses they need to write, without devaluing their native culture ones.

2.5.Materials for Teaching Writing

Materials have been defined by Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) as "anything that can be used by language learners to facilitate their learning of the target language. So materials could be a coursebook, a CD ROM, a story, a song, a video, a cartoon, a dictionary, a mobile phone interaction, a lecture, or even a photograph used to stimulate a discussion." (p.2). According to Hyland (2003), "Materials are generally used to provide a stimulus to writing or discussion, as a starting point for language input and analysis, and as ideas for organizing lesson activities." (p. 86). Both views seem to come to agreement as for materials being a source of stimulus to production.

In the writing class, materials can be important in different ways. They are the basis for learners' understandings of writing and language use and scaffold language learners in their route for producing correct instances of the target language. They represent language examples for discussion, analysis, and exercises. Moreover, materials provide exemplars of rhetorical forms and structures of target genres. More importantly, they provide ideas and

content to stimulate discussions and writing and to support project work (Hyland, 2003). Using materials in the writing class does actually help "… involve learners in thinking about and using language by stimulating ideas, encouraging connections with particular experiences, and developing topics in ways that articulate their ideas and engage readers. They provide content schemata and stimulate creativity, planning, and editing with a sense of audience, purpose, and direction. (Hyland, 2003, p. 90).

Hyland (2003) also advocated the implementation of authentic materials in the writing class in that they reflect those who write them, their ties to their audience, the culture of the community in which they are written, and the situations in which the genre is used. However, that is not ultimately without risks. Authentic materials may go beyond learners competence and may be time and expertise demanding on the part of teachers (Hyland, 2003).

2.6. Writing Tasks

Language tasks are any kind of activities having meaning as their main focus and being done with the use of language.They lead learners to solve problems in the classroom and help teachers create an invironment in favour of stimulating writing and gaining understanding of how to use language for communication (Hyland, 2003).

For Nunan (1989), all language tasks have five components: input (text, film, dialogue, graphic, lyrics, etc. provided by materials for students to work on), goal (the learning objective of the task), setting (classroom arrangements), roles (teachers and learners roles they perform in the task and the relation between them), and activity (what learners do with input to do the task) (as cited in Hyland, 2003, p. 116). Furthermore, Hyland (2003) claimed that in the writing class, activities can target mechanics (graphological tasks), language (language scaffolding tasks), and composing (composing tasks), as shown in the figure below:

```
Most support

        Graphology Basic writing mechanics (handwriting, keyboarding, spelling,
punctuation, layout)

         Scaffolding Language familiarization (comparisons, gap-fill, feature
identification)
                Model analysis and manipulation (re-ordering, transforming, or combining
features)
                Controlled composition based on models (text completion and parallel
writing)
                Guided composition (data transfer, information transfer, medium transfer)

        Composing Composition heuristics (planning, pre-writing, multidrafting, editing
techniques)
                Extended writing (creation of text for particular audience – real or imagined)

Most independence
```

Figure 13: Tasks and relative support for writing (Hyland, 2003, p. 120).

Graphological tasks are concerned with the conventional presentation of writtenwork and deal with handwriting, spelling, and punctuation. Language scaffolding tasks are meant for improving learners' independence and control. They are classified into four main groups: language familiarization (raising awareness of language forms and patterns without requiring production; examine aspects of the whole text and then go on to identify and practice selected features of grammar and vocabulary), model analysis (provide students with a genre schema to prepare them for authentic writing situations), controlled composition (providing a text frame to complete, a parallel text to generate, a draft text to edit and revise, or other activities entailing working on or finishing a model), and guided composition (including information gap, exchanging information to complete a writing task; information transfer, translating from table, graph, etc, into text; key word writing; and picture writing). After having developed a repertoire of strategies for generating texts,

independent construction for a given audience comes to be the ultimate goal of writing instruction (Hyland, 2003).

For the sake of designing effective writing assignments, Reid and Kroll (1995) proposed the following guidelines:

> ➢ The context should be clearly stated so that students understand the purpose of the assignment.

> ➢ The content should be accessible to students, feasible given their knowledge and abilities, and allow for multiple approaches.

> ➢ The language used should be unambiguous and comprehensible.

> ➢ The task should be sufficiently focused to allow for completion in the given time and length.

> ➢ The task should draw on and extend students' knowledge of the genre and the topic.

> ➢ The task should require a specific and relevant genre and indicate a specific audience.

> ➢ There should be clear evaluation criteria so that students know how their work will be assessed.

(As cited in Hyland, 2003, pp. 133-134).

2.7.Assessing Writing

Assessment is central to any teaching and learning process. It relates to measuring students' knowledge and abilities in a given domain, using a variety of tools and activities. The term 'assess' is defined in the Oxford Learner's Dictionary (2018) as "To make a judgement about the nature or quality of somebody/something." It comes from Latin, 'assidere', which means 'sit by'. In its traditional connotation, the word "assessment" has been used to refer to the way teachers give letter grades on tests and quizzes (Williams,

2006). Hyland (2003) defined assessment as the variety of ways used for the purpose of collecting information about learners' language ability or achievement.

However, assessment is now taking on a new meaning. It should be a "dynamic process that continuously yields information about student progress toward the achievement of learning goals" (Garfield, 1994 ; as cited in Williams, 2006). Hence, the primary purpose of language assessment is to make inferences about language ability and make decisions on the basis of such inferences (Weigle, 2009). "For the typical ESL/EFL student, assessment is generally seen as something done to them by their teachers. Many students see tests as threats to their competence."(Coombe et al., 2012, pp.20-21). Coombe et al. (2012) added that students feel anxious about assessment because of a given pressure to succeed, especially if tests are high-stakes. Similarly, teachers find assessment activities a less pleasant side of their job.

Assessment is carried out in teaching and learning contexts for different purposes. It can be used to keep track of learning, to diagnose reading and writing difficulties, to evaluate programs, and to determine eligibility for them. Above all, the target is to introduce improvement into the teaching learning experience (Johnson et al., 2010). In the words of Hyland (2003), classroom assessment can be either formative or summative. Formative assessment is designed to diagnose learners' strengths and weaknesses to effect remedial action ; it is an ongoing process and takes place during the learning course or programme. Summative assessment, however, rather relates to the final product; it sums up how much a student has learned at the end of a course.

Assessment must reflect and allow for inquiry into curriculum and instruction. For doing so, assessment procedures must reflect the complexity of the curriculum and the teaching practices in schools. Additionally, assessment should evoke and reflect the complex nature of reading and writing, and the crucial role of school, home and society in

literacy development. Assessment must also be fair, equitable, and free of biases and should involve multiple perspectives and sources of data. (Johnson et al., 2010).

There are different purposes for which learners can be evaluated: for placement, diagnostic, achievement, performance, and proficiency (Hyland, 2003):

- Placement: to provide information that would help place students in appropriate classes.

- Diagnostic: to identify students' writing strengths and weaknesses necessary to identify areas where remedial action is needed as a course progresses, to help teachers plan and adapt the course content and inform their students about their progress.

- Achievement: to enable students to demonstrate the writing progress they hace come to make in their course. The results should reflect progress rather than failure and are used for course improvement purposes.

- Performance: to give information about students' ability to perform particular writing tasks, usually associated with known academic or workplace requirements. The extent to which these tests can resemble real-world settings depends on how far target performance can be clearly specified.

- Proficiency: to assess a student's general level of competence, usually to provide certification for employment, university study, and so on. Unlike achievement tests, these are not based on a particular writing course, nor are they like performance tests in measuring specific writing skills. Instead, they seek to give an overall picture of ability, often standardized for global use (e.g., TOEFL or IELTS).

Assessing writing in the classroom in not an easy task. Many aspects deserve particular consideration: the nature of the writing ability, when and how to assess, the characteristics of good tests, the scoring procedure, etc.

The field of writing assessment has constantly known developments and updates. It has become almost common knowledge that different forms of assessing the written language arose to see light as a result of the changes of the teaching approaches and methods in EFL. There was a shift from traditional forms of assessment such as multiple-choice tests, true/false tests, short answers, and essays (Dikli, 2003) to recent ones such as the use of portfolios, conferencing, peer and self-assessment (Chelli, 2013). Assessment procedures then have shifted from being traditional to becoming more authentic and student-centered.

2.7.1. Traditional Assessment of Writing

According to Bailey (1998; as cited in Dikli, 2003, p.15), traditional assessments are indirect, inauthentic, and standardized; for that reason, they are one-shot, speed-based, and norm-referenced. She added that there is no feedback given to learners in traditional assessment : the projects are mainly individualized and the assessment procedure is decontextualized (1998; as cited in Dikli, 2003, p.15). Traditional forms of writing were concerned with the final product, emphasised grammatical correctness, and were error-free pieces of writing that were far from creativity and imagination.

Brown (2000) acknowledged the difficulty to draw a line between traditional and alternative forms of assessment. He added that many of these forms fall in between the two or are simply a melt of the best of both.

As put by Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000), traditional writing assessment operated on a top-down model, did not provide extensive information, and did not relate directly to instruction. Traditional assessment provides contextless evaluation and is even constructless as it does not aknowledge what writing is, what is done when writing, or even what our writing evokes to other readers. Traditional assessment considers writing as a collection of discrete elements, the combination of which would result in *writing.*The tools used for such type of assessment--indirect testing, multiple choice, standardised--focused

on limited information sets and aimed at measuring people's command of written prose from World War II until the late 1970s. In other words, such type of assessment "..is viewed as a kind of scientific study of an objective, external, knowable reality that is independent of its context and infinitely replicable, under a given set of testing conditions."(Hamp-Lyons and Condon, 2000 , p. 7).

2.7.2. Alternative Assessment of Writing

Given the complex nature of writing and writing instruction, writing assessment could not be thoroughly done if it were that simple. This, unintentionally, calls for alternative assessment procedures such as portfolios, projects, journals, conferencing, self-assessment, and peer-assessment. Alternative assessment has been described as an alternative to standerdised testing and all the difficulties encountered with such testing. It differs from traditional assessment in that it requires students to display what they can actually do rather than to recall and reproduce ; it does not intrude on regular classroom activities ; it mirrors the implemented curriculum ; it displays strengths and weaknesses of each student ; it is more multiculturally sensitive and free of norm, linguistic and cultural biases met in traditional testing. To the core of alternative assessment is gathering evidence about the ways students approach, process and complete rel-life tasks (Huerta-Macias, 2002).

2.7.2.1. Portfolios

The notion of a writing portfolio has become common in the British educational system since the 1950s and actually became part of the examination system in the 1970s. It was only till the 1970s that the term became common in the United States (Hamp-Lyons and Condon, 2000).

Genesee & Upshur (2011) defined a portfolio as "a purposeful collection of students' work that demonstrates to students and others their efforts, progress, and achievements in given areas."(p. 99). It can be a file folder, or any durable and expandable container that

may include samples of writing, book reports, short stories, etc. (Genesee & Upshur, 2011, p. 101). According to Brown (2000), a portfolio can include materials such as

- essays and compositions in draft and final forms ;

- reports, project outlines ;

- poetry and creative prose ;

- artwork, photos, newspaper or magazine clippings ;

- audio and/or video recordings of presentations, demonstrations, etc ;

- journals, diaries, and other personal reflections ;

- tests, test scores, and written homework exercises ;

- notes on lectures ; and

- self- and peer-assessments_comments, evaluations, and checklists. (p. 256)

With particular relevance to writing assessment, a portfolio is "a collection of written texts written for different purposes over a period of time."(Weigle, 2009, p. 198). So, a portfolio should include different writing samples, rather than a single piece of writing.It can comprise finished works only or even their first drafts to show how far and to what extent revision has been practised. Still, the fact of including a collection of writings does not necessarily make of a portfolio good for evaluation. There must be some reflection and revision at the level of content (Weigle, 2009). Although portfolio writing assessment focuses on the product, the latter can eventually change the writing process. Selecting, collecting, and reflecting upon what to adopt in a portfolio helps ensure the latter yields not only information about the writer's performance, but more interestingly significant information in relation to instructional context (Hamp-Lyons and Condon, 2000, p. 5). Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000) identified characteristics that are more or less present in portfolios:

- A portfolio is a collection of written works, rather than a single writing sample.

- It enables the writer to show a range of writing performances, in different genres and for different purposes and audiences.

- A portfolio possesses context richness as it reflects closely the learning situation and shows what the writer has done within such context.

- An important characteristic of most portfolio program is delayed evaluation, giving students both the opportunity and the motivation to revise written products before a final evaluation is given.

- Portfolios generally involve selection of the pieces to be included in it, usually by the student, with some guidance from the instructor.

- Delayed evaluation and selection give opportunities for student-centered control, in that students can selectwhich pieces best fulfill the established evaluationcriteriaand can revise them before putting them into their portfolios.

- A portfolio usually involves reflection and self-assessment, in that students must reflect on their work in deciding how to arrange the portfolio, and are frequently asked to write a reflective essay about their development as writers and how the pieces in the portfolio represent that development.

- Portfolios can provide a means for measuring growth along specific parameters, such as linguistic accuracy or the ability to organise and develop an argument.

- Portfolios provide a means for measuring development over time in ways that neither the teacher nor the student may have anticipated.

The basic portfolio characteristics are then shown in the figure below:
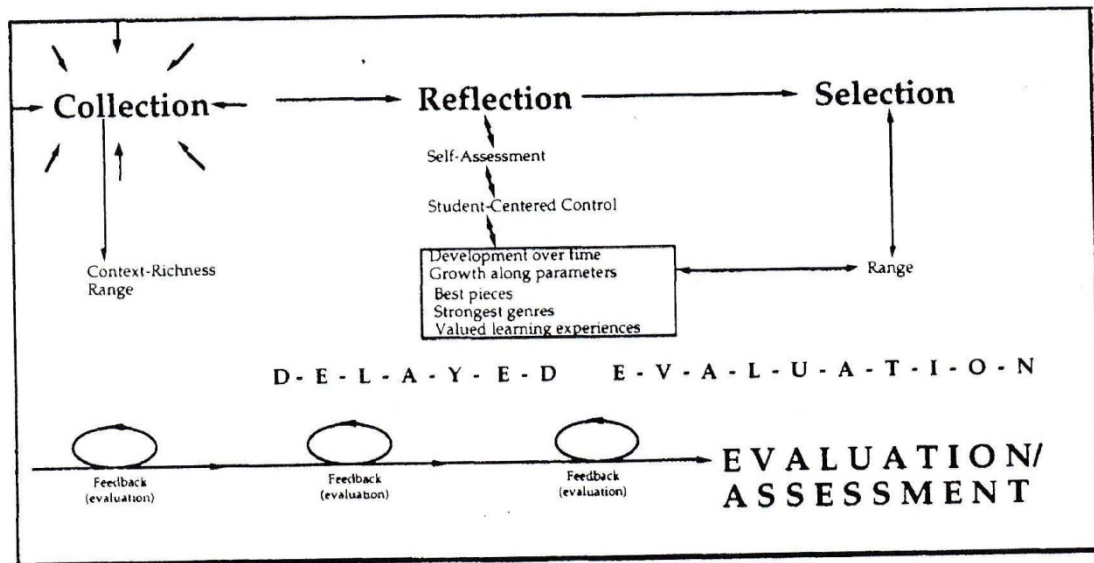
Figure 14: Basic portfolio characteristics (Hamp-Lyons, L. and Condon, W., 2000, p.122)

Portfolio assessment became popular only in the mid 1980s when Belanoff and Elbow (1986) demonstrated that program-wide portfolio asessment was both feasible and beneficial to students, teachers, and program administrators (weigle, 2009). The principal role of portfolios is to assess students' achievement as they provide continuous record of students' language development, which will in turn make them involved in and give them ownership of their own learning. Classrooms in which portfolio assessment is used are generally more student-centered, collaborative, and holistic. As Huot put it:

> Portfolios have the potential to disrupt the prevailing negative
>
> attitudes toward assessment and its adverse effects on teaching and
>
> learning. They are one of the few assessment practices that have
>
> their roots within the classroom, potentially providing students with
>
> a more representative and realistic concept of writing evaluation
>
> and helping
>
> them acquire the types of assessment skills important and necessary
>
> for evaluating and responding to suggestions for revision. If we use

portfolios in a conscious attempt to combine teaching and

assessment, they can work to provide new potential for assessment

in and about the writing classroom. (Huot, 2002, p. 71)

Likewise, Genesee & Upshur (2011, p. 100) summerised the benefits of

portfolios:

Table 3: *Benefits of portfolios* (Genesee & Upshur (2011, p. 100)

Portfolios provide :

- A continuous, cumulative record of language development
- A holistic view of language learning
- Insights about progress of individual students
- Opportunities for collaborative assessment and goal-setting with students
- Tangible evidence of student learning to be shared with parents, other educators, and other students
- Opportunities to use metalanguage to talk about language

Portfolios promote :
- Student involvment in assessment
- Responsibility for self-assessment
- Interaction with teachers, parents, and students about learning
- Student ownership of and responsibility for their own learning
- Excitement about learning
- Students' ability to think critically about school work
- Collaborative, sharing classrooms

An example of portfolios for a second language class is given by Johns (1997; as cited

in Hyland, 2003, p. 234); it was devised by secondary school teachers in Singapore for

final year students:

A timed essay (argumentative or expository).

Reflection questions include: Why did you organize the essay in this way? What phrases or parts of the essay do you particularly like? Are you satisfied with this? Why or why not?

A research-based library project (all notes, drafts, and materials leading to the final paper).

What difficulties did you encounter writing this? What did you learn from writing it?

A summary (one summary of a reading).

Why did you select this particular summary? How is it organized? Why is it organized like this? What are the basic elements of all the summaries you have written?

A writer's choice (any text in the L1 or L2 that has been important to the student).

What is this? When did you write it? Why did you choose it? What does it say about you?

An overall reflection of the portfolio (a letter to the teacher integrating the entries).

What were the goals of this class? Describe each entry and why it was important for achieving these goals.

Figure 15: A portfolio structure for advanced secondary school students. (Johns, 1997: 140–41 ; in Hyland, 2003, p. 234).

2.7.2.2. Projects

Project work can be defined as an experience that creates opportunities for language learning through problem solving, cooperative learning, collaboration,and negotiation of meaning Projects are effective means that can be used to melt classroom practice with long-term assessment. That is the reason why they should relate directly to curriculum objectives and language goals. Projects, being creative in nature, make students involved and encourages them to produce accurate and authentic language. In doing projects, students have the opportunity to work individually or in groups (Coombe et al., 2012).

According to Stoller (2002 ; as cited in Coombe et al., 2012, p. 149), when teachers adopt projects in their classes, they are in fact creating a vibrant learning environment that requires students to be actively involved, makes their thinking skills stimulated, and makes them responsible for their own learning. In project work, students work together on

a theme of interest to them and aim at reaching a common goal or concrete outcome (a report, an article, a brochure, etc), making their learning experience more meaningful.

Second language educators outlined the following features of project work (Stoller, 1997, p. 2):

- Focuses on content learning rather than on specific language targets

- Is student-centered (though the teacher plays a major role to support/guide students)

- Is cooperative rather than competitive

- Leads to authentic integration of skills and processing of information from varied sources, mirroring real-life tasks

- Culminates in an end product (a report for example) that can be shared with others

- Has both a process and product orientation

- Is potentially motivating, stimulating, empowering and challenging and usually resuls in building student self-confidence, self-esteem, and autonomy as well as building language skills, content learning and cognitive abilities.

Projects can be linked to real-life situations or even to simulated real-life issues. They can be carried out over a short period of time or extended over a full semester. Assessment of projects should be done in a way similar to assessment of writing samples.

2.7.2.3. Journals

Genesee & Upshur (2011, p. 119) defined a journal as "a written conversation between students and teachers." It is a log or an account of one's thoughts, feelings, reactions, assessments, ideas, or progress towards goals, usually written with little attention to structure, form, or correctness. Learners are free to articulate their ideas without any threat of later judgement (Brown, 2003).

Journals, also referred to as interactive diaries or dialogue journals, may particularly be used for gaining insights about students' writing skills in the second language and the strategies used when writing, if their entries are spontaneous, including errors, corrections, and editing. Students should not feel their language needs to be perfect. If they think they lack certain methods of written expression, they should be encoureged to ask their teachers or fellow students and to use any means of expression they have (Genesee & Upshur, 2011).

Journals serve a variety of pedagigical purposes: practising the mechanics of writing, using writing as a thinking process, individualisation, and communication with the teacher. In addition, journals offer teachers opportunities to provide different kind of feedback (Brown, 2003).

Given their personal, student-centered nature, journals are good in that they allow students to express their interests, goals and desires using the second language. They also provide teachers with opportunities to assess their students' writing abilities without the pressures that students may experience during their class activities (Genesee & Upshur, 2011).

2.7.2.4. Conferencing

Conferences can be adopted as part of an overall evaluation process and generally take the form of a conversation or a discussion between teachers and students about a given school work. Conferences can include individual students, many students or even the whole class. Conferences are formative, not summative in nature; they are widely used to understand students' writing and the processes, strategies, and approaches students implement to perform tasks. When conferencing, teachers very often aim at getting clearer insights about the application of skills and knowledge got in class, and the possible difficulties students may encounter and how they resolve them. Conferences also enable teachers know about students' understandings and beliefs about writing for example, and

their interests, goals and responses to teaching activities. As with portfolios, conferences also help students be self-reflective and responsible for their own learning. Moreover, they provide them with opportunities to collaboratively set individyal learning goals, recognise and enjoy their achievements, and communicate in one-to-one conversations with their teachers about the work. What really make them different from other methods of assessment is that conferences do focus on process ; they help teachers know about students' learning strategies and performance styles brought into classroom use (Genesee & Upshur, 2011).

Conferences must assume that the teacher plays the role of a facilitator, a guide, not an administrator of a formal assessment. For that, teachers should not consider conferences as something to be scored or graded (Brown, 2003).

2.7.2.5. Peer-Assessment

Peer-assessment has become very widely practised in second/foreign language education.

Peer assessment is the process through which groups of individuals rate their peers. This exercise may or may not entail previous discussion or agreement over criteria. It may involve the use of rating instruments or checklists, which may have been designed by others before the peer assessment activity or by the user group to satisfy their specific needs. In peer assessment learners of equal level evaluate each other's work. (Falchikov, 1995).

Peer-assessment can be a valuable method for formative assessment and hence be part of the learning process. Students become more involved both in learning and in assessment (Dochy et al., 1999).

Brown (2003) explained that peer-assessment appeals to principles of cooperative learning. He added that peer-assessment is beneficial in that it directly involves students in their own destiney, encourages autonomy, and increases motivation as it promotes self-

involvement of students. Still, with peer-assessent, subjectivity is a serious problem to overcome. In addition, chances of incorrect feedback that can have negative backwash effects on students (Dar, Zaki, & Kazmi, 2014) .

Peer assessment in teaching writing skill in English Language Teaching (ELT) helps learners in many ways such as, learners improve writing skills on the guidelines which they set for their peer; it enables them to assess others in the situations in which they will finally be assessed. Peer assessment develops critical thinking of learners (McMahon, 2010 ; as cited in Dar, Zaki, & Kazmi (2014, p. 53)); it also encourages social interaction, particularly with peers, which promotes the development of cognitive abilities and provides opportunity for self criticism and self correction (Anderson et al., 2001; as cited in Dar, Zaki, & Kazmi (2014, p. 53)).

2.7.2.6. Self-Assessment

According to Brown (2003), self-assessment

> …derives its theoretical justification from a number of well-established principles of second language acquisition. The principle of autonomy stands out as one of the primary foundation stones of successful learning. The ability to set one's own goals both within and beyond the structure of a classroom curriculum, to pursue them without the presence of an external prod, and to independently monitor that pursuit are all keys to success. (p. 270)

According to Boud & Falchikov (1989), in self-assessment, learners are involved the process of making judgements about their learning, particularly in relation to their achievements and the outcomes of their learning. They view self-assessment as being formative in that it contributes to the learning process and directs learners' potential towards improvement. Self-assemment, they added, can also be summative in the sense that learners come to decide they have learnt as much as they wished to in a given domain,

or in that it contributes to the grades awarded to them. Boud & Falchikov (1989) also explained that self-assessment comprises two main elements: making decisions about the standards of performance expected and then making judgments about the quality of the performance in relation to these standards (Boud & Falchikov, 1989).

Research related to using self-assessment in educational practice has shown positive results. Students who get involved in self-assessment activities tend to score most highly on tests. Self-assessment makes students reflect more on their own work and become responsible for their own learning, in addition to increasing understanding of problem-solving (Dochy et al., 1999). The table below summarises the practice in self-assessment.

Table 4: *Features of good and poor practice in self assessment* (Boud, 1995, pp. 208,209 ; as cited in Spiller, 2012, p. 9)

Good Practice in Self-assessment	*Poor Practice in Self-assessment*
The motive for its introduction is related to enhancing learning	It is related to meeting institutional or other external requirements
It is introduced with a clear rationale and there is an opportunity to discuss it with students	It is treated as a given part of course requirements
Student perceptions of the process are considered prior to the idea being introduced	It is assumed that processes which appear to work elsewhere can be introduced without modification
Students are involved in establishing criteria	Students are using criteria determined solely by others
Students have a direct role in influencing the process	The process is imposed on them
Guidelines are produced for each stage of the process	Assessments are made impressionistically
Students learn about a particular subject through self assessment which engages them with it.	Self assessment is only used for apparently 'generic' learning processes such as communication skills
Students are involved in expressing understanding and judgement in qualitative	Assessments are made on rating scales where each point is not explicitly defined

ways	
Specific judgements with justifications are involved	Global judgements within recourse to justificatory data are acceptable
Learners are able to use information from the context and from other parties to inform their judgements	The activities do not draw on the kinds of data which are available in authentic settings
It makes an identifiable contribution to formal decision-making	No use is formally made of the outcomes
It is one of a number of complementary strategies to promote self-directed and interdependent learning	It is tacked on to an existing subject in isolation from other strategies
Its practices permeate the total course	It is marginalised as part of subjects which have low status
Staff are willing to share control of assessment and do so	Staff retain control of all aspects (sometimes despite appearances otherwise)
Qualitative peer feedback is used as part of the process	It is subordinated to quantitative peer assessment
It is part of a profiling process in which student have an active role	Records about students are produced with no input from them
Activities are introduced in step with the students' capabilities in learning-how-to-learn	It is a one-off event without preparation
The implications of research on gender differences and differences of presentational style are considered.	The strategy chosen is assumed to work equally for all
The process is likely to lead to development of self assessment skills	The exercise chosen relates only to the specific needs of the topic being assessed
Evaluation data are collected to assist in improvement and for determining its contribution to student learning	Evaluation is not considered or is not used

With reference to the methods relevant to writing assessment outlined so far, it can be said that all of them do aim at measuring students' writing abilities, and do in a way or another exert a given influence on the students. It is mentionworthy then that the choice of

the appropriate method is of crucial imoprtance; the latter should relate the demands of the teaching/learning situation and to the genral educational aims to be achieved.

2.8. Feedback on Writing

Feedback, as viewed by Furnborough and Truman (2009), entails the existence of discrepancies between what has been learned and the target competence of the learners, and the efforts undertaken to bridge these gaps (as cited in Magno & Amarles, 2011, p. 21).

Feedback is widely considered as being central to promoting learning in general and the writing skill in particular. Its importance became more apparent with the development of learner-centered approaches to writing instruction in North American composition classes during the 1970s. It is seen as an important developmental tool moving learners through multiple drafts towards the capability for effective self expression. The process approach put more emphasis on teacher-student encounters around texts and encouraged teachers to support writers by providing feedback and proposing revisions during the writing process itself, rather than at its end. The received feedback went beyond teachers' marginal notes to include oral interaction involving teachers and students. This is because writing was primarily treated as a product, and teachers tended to see themselves as language teachers rather than writing instructors; focus has then changed to other issues such as content and organization (Lee, 2008). In genre classrooms, feedback is a central element of the scaffolding provided by the teacher to build learner confidence and the literacy resources to participate in target situations. There was then a shift of concern from accuracy and correctness to a greater emphasis on the development and discovery of meaning through the experience of writing and rewriting. Feedback practices have become directed towards teacher written comments now often combined with peer feedback,

writing workshops, oral-conferences, or computer-delivered feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). As Ferris (2003) put it:

> …although there may be L2 writing instructors around the world who still adhere to single-draft, error-focused models of writing and feedback, from the research available, it seems clear that in North American academic settings, many teachers have made the shift over the past 15 years from being form-focused and product-oriented to providing feedback on a broad spectrum of issues in a multiple-draft, response-and-revision writing cycle (p. 22).

According to Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006), good feedback practice has the following features: it (1) clarifies what good performance is; (2) facilitates the development of self-assessment; (3) delivers high-quality information to students about their learning; (4) encourages teacher and peer dialogue; (5) enhances motivation and self-esteem; (6) provides opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance; and (7) enables teachers to fine tune their teaching.

2.8.1. Types of Feedback

There stands to be no unique way to adopt when providing feedback on writing. Hyland (2003) maintained that the nature of response may vary widely and feedback practices differ according to the teachers' preferences, the kind of writing task they have set, and the effect they wish to create. There still is debate about who should provide response, in what form, and whether that response to focus more on form or on content. Therefore, reference would be made about teacher written feedback, teacher-student conferencing, and peer feedback, as these are the most commonly stated types in the literature.

2.8.1.1. Teacher Written Feedback

Teachers' written responses to students' writings have always been to the core of any second/foreign language classroom. Many teachers feel the need to write substantial comments on papers to give a reader reaction to students' works, to help them improve as writers, and to justify the grade they have been given (Hyland 2003 ; as cited in Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Research has shown that despite the recent influence of process-oriented research, teachers are still by and large concerned with the accuracy and correctness of surface-level features of writing, and that error identification is still the most widely employed procedure for responding to second language writing (Zamel, 1985). More than that, Ferris (2003, p. 41) asserted that "Teacher feedback may represent the single biggest investment of time by instructors, and it is certainly clear that students highly value and appreciate it."

Central to teacher written feedback in second language writing contexts is correcting students' errors and whether this benefits students' writing development. Teachers should respond to all text aspects and more importantly provide balanced coverage in their written feedback, focusing on content, structure, organization, language, presentation, and style (Hyland, 2003). When responding to students' errors, teachers employ direct and/or indirect feedback. By the former, reference is made about teachers' provision of correct answers in response to errors committed by students. Direct or explicit feedback happens when the teacher identifies an error and gives the correct form (Bitchener et al., 2005). Indirect feedback refers to teachers' indication of errors using a circle, a code, an underline, or a mark, and requiring students to correct their errors and engage in problem-solving to develop thir editing skills (Lee, 2007).

Sommers (1982) summed it all in the following lines:

Written comments need to be viewed not as an end in themselves-a

way for teachers to satisfy themselves that they have done their

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jobs-but rather as a means for helping students to become more effective writers. As means for helping students, they have limitations; they are, in fact, disembodied remarks-one absent writer responding to another absent writer. The key to successful commenting is to have what is said in the comments and what is done in the classroom mutually reinforce and enrich each other. Commenting on papers assists the writing course in achieving each purpose; classroom activities and the comments we write to our students need to be connected. Written comments need to be an extension of the teacher's voice-an extension of the teacher as reader. (pp. 155-6).

2.8.1.2.Teacher-student conferencing

In addition to written feedback, teachers can provide feedback on students' writing through face-to-face conferencing. Such type of feedback has the advantage of supplementing the limitations of written feedback in that it is interactive in nature and enables teachers to respond to the different cultural, educational, and writing needs of their students. Teacher-student conferencing also helps clarify meaning and resolve ambiguities. Moreover, writing conferences assist learners with auditory learning styles, make them aware of their areas of strengths and weaknesses, promote their autonomy, allow them to raise issues on their written feedback, and help them establish a revision plan (Hyland, 2000; as quoted in Hyland, 2003). More interestingly, the most successful conferences relate to situations in which students actively participate, pose questions, clarify meaning, and discuss their drafts, rather than simply receiving advice. Oral conferences then not only help make revisions but also pave the way for improving writing in coming assignments. However, some students may lack the experience, interactive abilities, or aural comprehension skills necessary for them to benefit from conferences, which actually

have the potential for both success and failure. For that, careful planning and preparation are required (Hyland, 2003).

White and Arndt (1991) proposed the following procedures for conducting a conference:(1). Help the student relax ; make the situation nonthreatening by finding something to praise. (2). Interact with the student and establish a collaborative relationship. (3). Engage the student in the analysis process and give opportunity for the student to talk and make the revision decisions. (4). Attend to global problems before working on sentence and word level problems. (5). Respond to the writing as work in progress or under construction. (6). Ask the student to sum up the changes they need to make for revision. (7). End the session with praise and encouragement.

In the view of Hyland (2003), conferences can take different forms. They can be writing workshops where students work on their own drafts and ask teachers or peers for advice when necessary. They can also be conducted in a context other than the classroom as a one-to-one activity between the teacher and the student. Conferences can also be brief consultations on topics, sources, or outlines, explorations of the different strategies needed for writing, reviews of completed papers, or examinations of papers in phase of completion and the various ways to make them better. It also happens that students take the initiative to hold a conference fo the sake of getting clarification on a given written feedback point already given by the teacher. Teachers may also opt for regular sessions in which they work with students individually for a priod of time to discuss progress of their works (Hyland, 2003).

2.8.1.3.Peer feedback

According to Hyland (2003), "The idea of students receiving feedback on their writing from their peers developed from L1 process classes and has become an important alternative to teacher-based forms of response in ESL contexts." (p. 198). Peer response is based largely on the fact that writing and learning are social processes. Collaborative peer

review enables learners to engage in a community, whose members respond to each others' work and together create an authentic social setting for interaction and learning. Peer response is regarded as being supportive for the drafting and redrafting of process approaches to writing (Zamel 1985).

Hyland & Hyland (2006) added that effective peer response is central to helping novice writers to understand how readers see their work. For them, interactional modifications can assist acquisition by making input available and comprehensible while giving learners important chances to practice, to test hypotheses about language use against peers' responses, and to revise and write in response to peer feedback. Berg (1999) conducted a study to investigate the effects of peer response on ESL students' revision and writing outcomes. The results indicated that trained peer response positively influenced ESL students' revision types and quality of texts students wrote.

According to Rollinson (2005), there are some reasons why teachers opt for using peer feedback in the ESL classroom. For him, peer readers can give writers useful feedback ; peer feedback tends to be of a different kind from that of the teacher: it may be that becoming a critical reader of others' writing may lead students to become more critical readers and revisers of their own writing. More importantly, peer feedback, being highly responsive and interactive, can encourage collaborative dialogue in which two-way feedback is established, and meaning is negotiated between the two parties. Peer response actually operates on a more informal if compared to teacher response. This would but make the writer motivated and "…receiving comments from peers retains the right to reject comments, and is thus more able to maintain the possession of her own texts." (Rollinson, 2005, p. 25).

However, peer feedback is time consuming in that it entails reading the draft more than once if necessary, making notes, then either collaborating with another reader to reach

agreement and write the comments, or engaging orally with the writer in a feedback circle. Many students may not easily accept the idea that their peers are qualified enough to replace their teacher and comment on their writing ; they would then need to be convinced about the value of peer feedback (Rollinson, 2005). Moreover, he added that

> teacher might find it dificult to hand over a significant degree of responsibility to the students, since he or she will not be able to oversee each group simultaneously, particularly if the response groups are providing oral feedback. In addition, the teacher may find it dificult not to interfere by providing feedback in addition to that of the student readers, which might well reduce the students' motivation and commitment to their own responding (p. 26).

Hyland (2003) summarised the advantages and the disadvantages of peer feedback in the table below:

Table 5: *Potential pros and cons of peer feedback* (Hyland, 2003, p. 199)

Advantages	Disadvantages
Active learner participation	Tendency to focus on surface forms
Authentic communicative context	Potential for overly critical comments
Nonjudgmental environment	Cultural reluctance to criticize and judge
Alternative and authentic audience	Students unconvinced of comments'value
Writers gain understanding of reader needs	Weakness of reader's knowledge
Reduced apprehension about writing	Students may not use feedback in revisions
Development of critical reading skills	Students may prefer teacher's feedback
Reduces teacher's workload	

Many studies have been conducted to compare the different types of feedback in second language classrooms (see Yang et al., 2006; Ruegg, 2015). Yang et al (2006) found

that teacher feedback stood to be more effective and resulted in better improvement than peer feedback. They also reported that the usefulness of peer feedback was recognised by students, that peer feedback does lead to improvements, and that it appears to develop student autonomy. It can therefore be seen as a useful adjunct to teacher feedback. Ruegg's study (2015) aimed at finding the relative effects of peer and teacher feedback on students' writing ability. She found that teacher feedback can be more effective than peer feedback in terms of improvement in written grammar.

Given the different interpretations feedback can have, the different learning styles and preferences, and the variety of teaching/ learning situations and their specificities, being eclectic in adopting feedback practices in the foreign language classroom will by all means render the writing class an opportunity for better practice of the foreign language.

Conclusion

The importance of learning and teaching writing has always been stressed in the second and foreign language research literature. Such an importance has nurtured trials for improving the quality of writing instruction and for making it geared towards competence development. This implies being insightful about the different traditions of teaching EFL and their putting into practice in classroom settings, and more importantly, being knowledgeable about the different writing orientations, in hopes of coming to determine any existing compatibility that is likely to set the ground for effective practice of the writing act in the EFL classroom. Hence, articulating decisions about the effectiveness of instruction calls for the practice of evaluation in relation to the different elements central to teaching and learning writing, namely, views and perceptions, classroom practices, teaching materials, and, ultimately, learners' writing performances. The next chapter comes as a theoretical framework for such an evaluation.

Chapter Three: On Evaluation.

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Conclusion.

If language teaching is to be a genuinely professional enterprise, it requires continual experimentation and evaluation on the part of practitioners whereby in seeking to be more effective in their pedagogy they provide at the same time-and as a corollary-for their own continuing education.

Cristhopher N. Candlin and Henry Widdowson (1994).

Introduction

The present chapter gives an overview on the terminology and instrumentation relevant to evaluation. It firstly attempts to shed light on the meaning of evaluation, assessment, and testing as being all interrelated but also complementary. It introduces the purposes for which evaluation may be practised and explains the different dimensions and basic consideration in conducting evaluation. Material evaluation is also part of the chapter as it is thought a preliminary step before actually engaging into analyzing and bringing value judgment about the teaching of writing using the SE2 textbook, which is to be done in the upcoming chapter.

3. 1. Key Concepts in Evaluation

There has always been an intimate relationship between teaching, learning, and evaluation. It has even become common knowledge that evaluation is an integral part of the teaching learning process in that it says much about the advance and progress in a given course of study. With regard to the foreign language evaluation arena, terminology appears quite exhaustive but at the same time source of misunderstandings. The terms *evaluation, assessment,* and *testing* have come to be widely utilised in the literature, with very confusing overlapping.

There seems to be consensus as to defining the concept of evaluation. Many authors agree on the fact that evaluation is somewhat broader in scope than assessment and much than testing in that it can be accomplished through tests. Davies and Pearse (2009)

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acknowledged that with evaluation, it is possible to evaluate teaching, teaching materials, learning, and even tests. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) asserted that evaluation is a process which begins with determining what information to gather, and that ends with bringing about changes in current activities or future ones. Rea-Dickins (1994) explained that "…evaluation is *participative,* concerned with *communication* and *critical debate* and it is *principled, systematic* and an *integral* part of curriculum planning and implementation."(p. 72). This clearly points to the fact that evaluation is a systematic process that is supportive to curriculum planning and development. Gullo (2005) claimed that evaluation is the process of making judgments about the merit, value, or worth of educational programs, projects, materials, or techniques. Genesee and Upshur (2011) defined evaluation as a process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information about teaching and learning in order to make decisions that enhance student achievement and the success of educational programmes. They added that such decisions are based upon informed judgement and require a careful collection of relevant data to be thoughtfully interpreted.

With reference to these definitions, it is clear that the key word is 'process', which implies that evaluation cannot be instantly accomplished ; it rather necessitates going through different steps, following specific procedures, and utilising appropriate tools. Furthermore, Genesee and Upshur (2011) maintained that evaluation has three essential components: information, interpretation, and decision making. It is only when the three are processed together that evaluation is fully practised. To put it differently, contentment with the mere gathering of information would by no means yield results only if interpreted. If not to introduce modifications, the interpreted information would be meaningless.

Henceforth, evaluation can focus on varied aspects of teaching and learning: textbooks, instructional materials, student achievement, and whole programmes. It can be carried out

for different purposes. Genesee (2001) claimed that the process of evaluation includes four basic components as shown in the figure below:
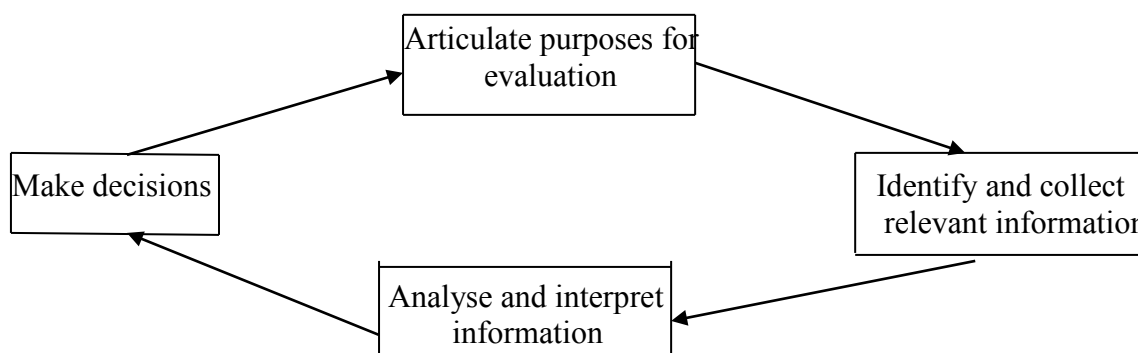
Figure 16: Four basic components of evaluation. (Genesee, 2001, p. 145)

After having articulated the purpose of evaluation, information relevant to such purpose is identified and then collected before being analysed and interpreted. The results of such interpretation are likely to suggest what decisions should be taken (Genesee, 2001). Such orientation was advocated by Nunan (1992), who claimed that evaluation has two prominent features: it involves not only gathering data but also processing and analyzing it to make value judgement. Weir and Roberts (1994) reported Brown's (1989) definition of evaluation they qualified as a good working definition: "The systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of the curriculum, and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within a context of particular instructions involved."(p. 4).

Very similar to but technically different from evaluation (Nunan & Carter, 2001) is the concept of assessment. Assessment is in fact a component of evaluation in that it includes the collection and analysis of information about student learning. Its primary focus has always been language assessment and the role of tests in assessing students' language skills (Genesee, 2001). In the words of Gullo (2005), assessment is a procedure that is often used to determine the degree to which an individual possesses a given attribute, and

that helps in gaining understanding of the individuals' overall development. Brindley (2001) defined assessment as the many different ways used to collect information on a learner's language ability or achievement. Henceforth, assessment is, as put by Cowan (1998), the engine that drives learning (as cited in Combee et al., 2013). Nunan (1988, 1992) asserted that assessment refers to the set of processes and procedures whereby it is possible to determine what learners are able to do in the target language, or the extent to which they have achieved the objectives of a course. Taras (2005, p. 467) defined assessment as "…a judgement which can be justified according to specific weighted set goals, yielding either comparative or numerical ratings."

Given the many attributed definitions to both evaluation and assessment, it is mention worthy to display the discrepancies between them. Gullo (2005) explained that assessment may be used during the process of educational evaluation. This in fact implies that evaluation encompasses a wider domain entailing assessment but including some other processes meant to help interpret and work on the results of assessment (Nunan, 1988; Nunan, 1991). Nunan (1992) added that evaluation "…refers to a wider range of processes which may or may not include assessment data." (p. 185).Genesee (2001) made the difference between evaluation and assessment somewhat visible: "Evaluation goes beyond student achievement (and language assessment) to consider all aspects of teaching and learning, and to look at how educational decisions can be informed by the results of alternative forms of assessment."(p. 145). This clearly points to the fact that assessment is a component of evaluation, which is concerned with the overall language programme, not just with what individual students have learned. It is carried out to gain insights into learners' language proficiency and / or achievement. Assessment is used for different purposes: it helps determine whether learners have enough language proficiency to undertake tertiary study; it provides people with knowledge about their language ability for

employment purposes; it yields evidence that targeted learning outcomes have been achieved and to justify expenditure; it helps diagnose learners' areas of strengths and weaknesses and helps motivate them to perform better; it also does much in selecting what materials to use next or what revision to make (Brindley, 2001).

As to testing, Hughes (2003) defined it as one way in which information about people's language ability can be gathered. According to Brown (2003, p. 3), "a test is method of measuring a person's ability, or knowledge in a given domain." Davies and Pearse (2009) explained that a test consists of one or more tasks, each with specific objectives; it is carefully designed for a given purpose. It still is the main instrument to evaluate learning in specific teaching/learning situations. The purpose of a test is to collect reliable evidence of what learners know about English and what they are able to do in the target language (Davies & Pearse, 2009). This implies that testing is rather one of the many other tools that can be used in evaluation and assessment. Tests, as explained by Brown (2003), are a subset of assessment, a method, an instrument, a set of techniques, procedures, or items meant for measuring an individual's general ability, knowledge, performance, or very specific competencies or objectives. They are prepared administrative procedures that occur at identifiable times in a curriculum (Brown, 2003), that should consistently provide accurate measures of abilities, that should have a beneficial effect on teaching(washback), and that should be economical in terms of time and money (Hughes, 2003).

There exist different types of tests, depending on the purposes of the testing activity: proficiency tests, achievement tests, diagnostic tests, and placement tests. Proficiency tests are designed to measure people's ability in a language, regardless of any training in that language. Achievement tests, however, are directly related to language courses and aim at determining the extent to which individual students, groups of students, or even the courses themselves have been successful in achieving the objectives. As to diagnostic tests, they do

aim at diagnosing learners' areas of strengths and weaknesses and attempt to identify what learning is still lacking to take place. Placement tests, as the name implies, provide information necessary to be able to place learners at the stage of a given teaching programme that would best match to their abilities (Hughes, 2003; Harmer, 2007).

A good test is a one that is practical, reliable, valid, authentic, and points the way to beneficial washback. A test is practical when it is not time and money-consuming, it is easy to administer, and has a scoring/evaluation procedure that is specific and time-efficient. A reliable test is consistent and dependable. It should yield similar results on different occasions. A valid test is a one that actually measures what it is supposed to measure. Validity is in fact the most important criterion of an effective test. An authentic test is a test the language of which is natural, the items are contextualized rather than isolated, the topics are interesting to the learners, thematic organization is present, and tasks represent real-life tasks. As to washback, it refers to the effect of testing on teaching and learning. Such effect exerted by tests should rather be positive and beneficial to students in that tests can serve as a learning device meant for developing autonomy, motivation, self-confidence, etc. For instance, this could be done by commenting generously and specifically on test performances (Brown, 2003).

3. 2. Purposes of Evaluation

According to Weir and Roberts (1994), evaluation can be practised for two different purposes: accountability and development. Richards (2001) reported the explanation provided by both authors and asserted that "…accountability refers to the extent to which those involved in a programme are answerable for the quality of their work."(p. 288). Such evaluation orientation usually examines the resulting effects of a programme or a project at specific significant end points of an educational cycle to satisfy the needs of a given external audience or decision making authorities. The second purpose for which evaluation

may be carried out rather relates to improving the quality of a given programme as it is being implemented. Development-oriented evaluation may be carried out cooperatively between an external evaluator and the insider staff or even by insiders only. More importantly, it should consider the strengths and obstacles and should also care about introducing more effective means to reach the targeted objectives (Weir & Roberts, 1994). Rea-Dickins (1994) maintained that such tendency of evaluation is a more recent dimension in ELT and "…has the potential not only to respond to demands of accountability but also to support institutional, curriculum and staff development."(p. 73).

Aligned with Weir and Roberts' (1994) flow of thought are what Richards (2001) identified as the three major purposes of evaluation: formative, illuminative, and summative evaluation.

The terms 'formative' and 'summative' were used by Michael Scriven in 1967 to explain two distinct roles that evaluation could play in evaluating curriculum. Two years later, in 1969, Benjamin Bloom asserted that the same distinction could be applied to the evaluation of student learning (William, 2006; Bennett, 2011).

3.2.1. Formative evaluation

According to Dann (2014), development of formative assessment/evaluation has been dominated by the socio-cultural theory advocating a Vygotskian perspective. Using language as a tool for mediating the curriculum and learners, they will engage in an interactive learning and assessment process (p. 156). Dominated by the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), learning within the socio-cultural theory starts between people and then inside the learner. Strongly tied to and characterizing formative assessment, the learning gap, being externally modeled, managed and regulated by others, is promoted by the ZPD which formative assessment helps regulate (Vygotsky, 1981; as cited in Dann, 2014, p. 157).

Formative evaluation is typically conducted during the development of a programme to determine the positive and negative aspects and to consider the problems to be addressed. It is practised with the intent to improve the delivery of the programme (Nunan, 1992; Richards, 2001). Also known as assessment for learning, such orientation, with its conceptions of feedback and development, arose from cognitive and constructivist theories of learning emerged in the 1930s and 1940s (Roos & Hamilton, 2005). As worded by Slavin (2006), formative evaluation relates to how well one is doing, but also to how one can be doing better, taking part during instruction. Brown (2000) qualified such type of evaluation as being informal and explained that formative evaluation relates to evaluating students in the process of forming their competencies and skills, with the aim to help them pursue in the route of learning development, and that this often implies observing the process of learning. This can be possible by delivering and internalizing appropriate feedback on performance. McMillan (2004; as cited in Slavin, 2006, p. 453) put forward that formative evaluation is useful to such extent that it is informative, strongly tied to the curriculum being taught, timely, and frequent. The aim of formative evaluation is then to validate or make sure that the goals of instruction have been achieved and bring about improvement. Bloom (1969; as cited in William, 2006, p. 283) similarly acknowledged the role of formative evaluation in providing feedback and correctives at each stage of the teaching/learning process via tests used by teachers and students as aids in the learning process. Such view was summarized in the words of William (2006):

> Whether it is a curriculum or student achievement that is being evaluated, the evaluation is formative if the information generated is used to make changes to what would have happened in the absence of such information. In the same way that our formative experiences are those experiences that shape us as individuals, formative evaluations are

those that shape whatever is being evaluated. An assessment of a curriculum is formative if it shapes the development of that curriculum. An assessment of a student is formative if it shapes that student's learning. Assessments are formative, therefore, if and only if something is contingent on their outcome, and the information is actually used to alter what would have happened in the absence of the information… What makes assessment formative… is that evidence is evoked, interpreted in terms of learning needs, and used to make adjustments to better meet those learning needs (pp. 284-5).

On a similar vein, Harlen and James (1997, p. 372) suggested the following characteristics of formative evaluation:

-It is essentially positive in intent, in that it is directed towards promoting learning; it is therefore part of teaching;

-It takes into account the progress of each individual, the effort put in and other aspects of learning which may be unspecified in the curriculum; in other words, it is not purely criterion-referenced;

- It has to take into account several instances in which certain skills and ideas are used and there will be inconsistencies as well as patterns in behaviour; such inconsistencies would be 'error' in summative evaluation, but in formative evaluation they provide diagnostic information;

-Validity and usefulness are paramount in formative assessment and should take precedence over concerns for reliability;

- Even more than assessment for other purposes, formative assessment requires that pupils have a central part in it; pupils have to be active in their own learning (teachers cannot

learn for them) and unless they come to understand their strengths and weaknesses, and how they might deal with them, they will not make progress.

Accordingly, for evaluation and assessment to be formative, feedback, indicating the gap between the actual level of the work being assessed and the required standard, together with knowledge of how to improve the work to reach the standard, are of paramount importance (Taras, 2005). More importantly, formative evaluation could be better conceived as an integration of process and purposefully designed methodology (Bennett, 2011)

3.2.2. Illuminative evaluation

Parlett and Hamilton (1988) introduced an alternative model of evaluation they qualified as illuminative. They asserted that the main concern of such model is description and interpretation, not measurement and prediction (Parlett & Hamilton, 1988, p. 10-11). As its name suggests, illuminative evaluation seeks to explore and bring into view the underlying teaching and learning processes occurring in the programme, without necessarily intending to bring about newness and change in it. It then seeks to uncover aspects in relation to programme work or implementation (Richards, 2001). Such type of evaluation gives information on what actually takes place in the classroom and the translation of such reports into different forms of interpretations. Richards (2001) reported some questions that can be posed within such framework: how students carry out group-work tasks, what type of error-correction strategies teachers use, or how teachers use their lesson plans when teaching. In the view of Parlett and Hamilton (1988), the aim of illuminative evaluation is then to study how a given programme operates, how it is affected by those institutions in which it is being adopted, what could be said about its positive and side effects, and how students' experiences are affected. In short, "Illuminative evaluation thus concentrates on the information-gathering rather than the decision-making component

of evaluation. The task is to provide a comprehensive understanding of the complex reality (or realities) surrounding the program: in short, to 'illuminate'." (Parlett & Hamilton, 1988, p. 32).

3.2.3. Summative evaluation

Summative evaluation is one of the most widely used practices in the language classroom. It targets the final product and is concerned with determining the effectiveness, the efficiency, and acceptability of a programme after it has been implemented for the sake of knowing how effective a course was in achieving its aims, what students learnt, whether a given material worked well or no, or even how appropriate the teaching methods were (Richards, 2001). Summative assessment is typically conducted at the end of a course, and its results help teachers determine to what extent students are capable to move ahead to the next level (Tahereen, 2014; as cited in Torres, 2019, p. 4). Slavin (2006) argued that summative evaluation needs to be reliable and should allow for comparisons among students. He also emphasized the fact that product-oriented/summative evaluation should closely relate to formative evaluation and to course objectives.

Harlen and James (1997, pp. 372-3) outlined the characteristics of summative assessment in the following:

- It takes place at certain intervals when achievement has to be reported;

- It relates to progression in learning against public criteria;

- The results for different pupils may be combined for various purposes because they are based on the same criteria;

-It requires methods which are as reliable as possible without endangering validity;

- It involves some quality assurance procedures;

- It should be based on evidence from the full range of performance relevant to the criteria being used.

Owing to these characteristics, and as opposed to formative evaluation, it can be acknowledged that summative evaluation is rather formal, given the different standards and criteria to which it obeys. It is also noteworthy that all purpose-driven evaluation types are complementary and not mutually exclusive if targeting validity of results and effective evaluation practice.

3.3. Dimensions of Evaluation

There are different aspects and dimensions closely tied to the concept of evaluation. Nunan (1992) called these the elements in the design of an evaluation study, and explained that they relate to the purpose of evaluation, the audience for evaluation, the principles of procedures guiding evaluation, the appropriate tools, techniques, and instruments, the who and the when of evaluation, the time frame and budget of evaluation, and the 'how to report' of the evaluation. These relate to the what, the who, the when, the why, and the how of evaluation (Rea-Dickins, 1994; Weir & Roberts, 1994).

3.3.1. What to evaluate?

In the words of Rea-Dickins (1994), the early days of second language evaluation practices leaned towards evaluating the different learning theories and teaching methods and approaches. After the movement of Tyler's behavioural objectives approach (1949), a range of qualitative, quantitative, and eclectic methods came to be subject of evaluation practices. In the 1960's, though there was a big interest in programme evaluation, results of such evaluations were quite disappointing (Beretta, 1992). Afterwards, interest shifted from trials to evoke the supremacy of a given teaching and learning model to concerns about educational quality, the teaching and learning process in itself, and its efficacy. More importantly, educational evaluation has come to be concerned with various aspects of educational activity, materials and methodology, teachers, projects, programmes, and courses (Rea-Dickins, 1994). In the view of Weir and Roberts (1994), some of the focal

points for evaluation relate to objectives, learning gains, materials, resources, and teaching,. Identifying objectives is one of the most important concerns of evaluation. In the case of a previously established course, documentation, course records, and descriptions are necessary to specify what a programme sets out to achieve. If the course is in phase of planning, results of previous needs analyses may appear helpful in determining objectives. More importantly, such objective are subject to change in the course of implementation. For that, evaluation should be flexible enough and should lean towards focusing on unanticipated outcomes of a given project and success in reaching pre-designed objectives (Weir & Roberts, 1994). Evaluation may additionally focus on student language achievement. This could be done by assessing the nature and extent of gains in language proficiency over a given period of time (Alderson et al., 1987; as cited in Weir & Roberts, 1994, p. 87), and also measuring attitudinal changes likely to go with it (Henerson et al., 1987; as cited in Weir & Roberts, 1994, p. 87).

Deciding upon the quality and effectiveness of materials is of crucial importance in the sphere of second/foreign language evaluation. Texts, rubrics, units, and tasks may be subject to evaluation with regard to their suitability, length, challenge level, structure, completeness, usefulness, appropriateness, relevance, teachability, interest to students, etc. This could be done using questionnaires, interviews, checklists, record sheets, etc (Weir & Roberts, 1994). Such perspective will be elaborated in detail in the upcoming sections of the same chapter.

Similar to material evaluation, information about what goes on in the classroom does much in evaluating the whole programme, of which teachers' classroom performance is a key element. This is practised for maintaining some 'quality control', ensuring competent instruction to students. More importantly, evaluating teaching implies getting information on how courses are going, how students are responding, and how materials are being

utilized. This could be done using classroom observation, group feedback, staff meetings, or questionnaires (Weir & Roberts, 1994).

In a similar vein, Nunan (1992, p. 192) reported Askt and Hecht' s view (1980), identifying five curriculum areas relating to the focus of evaluation. They claimed that such focus may relate to items such as appropriateness of objectives, appropriateness of content to programme objectives, appropriateness of placement procedures, effectiveness of instruction, and efficiency of instruction.

3.3.2. Who evaluates?

With regard to this issue, reference is to be made about those who would be involved in evaluation, whether insiders, outsiders, or experts (Weir & Roberts, 1994; Rea-Dickins, 1994). It was common practice in project evaluation to involve experts in applied linguistics, syllabus design, methodology, or any domain-related specialist (Alderson & Scott, 1992). According to Weir and Roberts (1994), ELT project evaluations were conducted by external specialists, those Alderson and Scott (1992) call the JIJOE: the Jet-In-Jet-Out Experts. According to Richards (2001), two sides are usually involved in evaluation: insiders and outsiders. By insiders, reference is made about teachers, students, and any other one involved in the development and implantation of the programme. Henceforth, the success of programme evaluation would, to a large extent, depend on the involvement of key insiders in designing and conducting evaluation, given the high degree of commitment to acting on the results of such evaluation. Outsiders are those who are not involved in the programme such as consultants, inspectors, or administrators (Richards, 2001). It is true that insiders are supposed to be more knowledgeable about what goes on in the development and implementation of a given programme. Still, such evaluation would likely lead to biased interpretations and less credible results, given the fact that they would,

in a way or another, even unintentionally, be subjective in their interpretation (Weir & Roberts, 1994).

For that, Weir and Roberts (1994) called for insider and outsider perspectives and contributions, or what Alderson and Scott (1992) call for participatory evaluation. Brown (1995) reported the opinion of Alderson and Scott (1992), preferring the participatory model of evaluation, given the fact that the participants would likely do a fair share of the task, but more importantly because they would directly benefit from such process.

3.3.3. When and why to evaluate?

Deciding upon the timing of evaluation is of crucial importance and tells much about its orientation. Evaluators should decide whether to evaluate a given programme while in progression, after it has been implemented, or both and for how long (Brown, 1995). Terms such as 'formative', 'summative', 'process', and 'product' are usually associated with the timing of evaluation. Formative evaluation assesses the strengths and weaknesses of a new programme while being developed and implemented; summative evaluation is carried out after a programme has been developed and implemented. Process evaluation is conducted on established, fully developed and implemented programmes (Long, 1984); product evaluation is concerned with the final product, the results in terms of "what a program produces, chiefly in terms of student learning, but sometimes also in terms of changes that the program brings about in teachers' and students' attitudes, students' self-concepts, related intellectual skills, and the like."(Long, 1984, p. 409).

At first glance, one may think that the four terms, each two together, have very misleading overlappings. In the view of Long (1984), summative and product evaluations are to some extent similar, but this does not seem to be always the case. They seem to be most frequently dissimilar in two areas: scope and content. Long (1984) qualified summative evaluation to be broader in scope than product evaluation in that it often

assesses attitudinal or cost issues, for instance, as well as students achievement. As to product evaluation, it is rather restricted to student achievement as its focal concern. Though it has a broader scope, summative evaluation does not address language development issues at all. Product evaluation is rather oriented towards language attainment (Long, 1984).

Formative and process evaluations are different in many aspects: focus, theoretical motivation, timing, and purpose. Formative evaluations are rather concerned with the data generated and the data- gathering tools to conduct evaluation. Process evaluation main concern is to gather classroom process data needed for such evaluation. Formative and process evaluations differ in theoretical motivation in that while the former considers pedagogical processes and collects data on such phenomena as classroom organization, the pedagogical function of utterances, or the amount of time spent on different content areas by means of various modalities, the latter rather considers psycholinguistic processes and analyses motivated by current second language development theories (Long, 1984). As its name suggests, formative evaluation is just formative: it determines

> …whether a new curriculum is taking the shape it was supposed to, and whether its materials or procedures are creating problems. Process evaluation, too, could usefully be employed to document such events. The main function of process evaluation, however, and one that formative evaluation cannot serve, … is to provide explanations for the findings of product evaluation (Long, 1984, p. 419)

Owing to the previously cited elaborations, adequate choice of the timing of evaluation is very important. This does not mean, however, that the different evaluation perspectives are mutually exclusive. Each stands to reflect a given purpose it may serve.

3.3.4. How to evaluate?

Evaluators also need to take decisions as to what procedures, what methods, and what data types to use in evaluation. According to Weir and Roberts (1994),

> A data collection method should be chosen because it is the best means to tell you what you want to know. Therefore the first step is to determine *exactly what it is* that you want to know: what the objectives of the evaluation are and what information will help achieve these objectives (p. 131).

More importantly, the choice of methods to use should be done according to the realities of logistics (access and resources) and the characteristics of informants. In terms of logistics, the choice of methods is done with reference to issues such as access, communications, resources, access consequences. In trying to opt for a given method for evaluation, it is necessary to identify those who can be reached and for how long such informants can be involved in providing information (doing interviews, observation, or filling in questionnaires). As to resources, it is important to consider the time available to gather, analyse, and display results and with what cost limits. Moreover, questions in relation to those affected by the data collection methods to use, and to sampling procedures should be answered (Weir & Roberts, 1994). In so doing, one should take into consideration communication as being an important aspect of programme evaluation: while listening and responding, one should share information, discuss intentions and get feedback, clarify expectations, provide clear and useful reports in a timely way, and maintain an open evaluation process (Sanders, 1992; as cited in Weir & Roberts, 1994, p. 133).

Another basic consideration in evaluation is the choice of data type. When practicing evaluation, one should decide whether to use qualitative, quantitative data, or even both. This would in turn determine the type of data collection instruments to be utilized for such

operation. Richards (2001) argued for the combination of both approaches, the qualitative and the quantitative, as these, he added, may serve different purposes and can even complete each other.

Given the purpose of evaluation which leans towards promoting review, reflection, and revision of the curriculum, and being based on careful compilation of data from different sources, reviewing the process of evaluation is of paramount importance in making sure evaluation has been adequately designed and approached. Interestingly, aspects such as scope, audience, reliability, objectivity, timeliness, together with some other ethical considerations need to be determined (Richards, 2001). Some questions need to be answered for evaluation to be appropriately designed:

-Does the range of information collected include all the significant aspects of the programme being evaluated? (Scope)

-Does the information collected adequately serve the needs of all the intended audiences? (Audience)

-Has the information been collected in such a way that the same findings would be obtained by others? (Reliability)

-Have attempts been made to make sure that there is no bias in the collecting and processing of information? (Objectivity)

-Does the information collected accurately describe the programme? (Representativeness)

-Is the information provided timely enough to be of use to the audiences for the evaluation? (Timeliness)

-Does the evaluation follow accepted ethical standards? (Ethical considerations) (Richards, 2001, p. 298).

3.4. Basic Considerations in Evaluation

Above all, there are some basic considerations to be addressed when doing evaluation, regardless of the tools they make use of. Weir and Roberts (1994) summarized these in the following: planning, validity, triangulation, reliability, practicality, sampling, piloting, and reporting.

- **Planning**

In doing any kind of evaluation, the planning stage is the most important in that it sets the ground for good practice. Evaluators, on the one hand, need to be aware of the different methods available to them but more importantly their advantages and disadvantages for the sake of getting clearer insights on what really makes good implantation of such methods. On the other hand, once evaluation is conducted, it is quite difficult to radically change the instruments or procedures followed as such practice would come incompatible with or at least cause problems of comparison with the previously gathered data (Weir & Roberts, 1994).

- **Validity**

Validity relates to measuring what one wants to measure. To ensure validity of evaluation, one needs to be explicit about what is to be measured and to make sure the data collection procedures provide the data for such purpose. The choice of methods should then be made in accordance with the purpose of evaluation and in a way to best allow for success in one's particular context (Weir & Roberts, 1994).

- **Triangulation**

It is commonly agreed on that no one single method can, alone, lead to adequate description of the diverse features found in educational settings (Weir & Roberts, 1994). It has come to be acknowledged that triangulation, or mixed methods, should be adopted in all investigation (Patton, 1987; as cited in Weir & Roberts, 1994, p. 137).

- **Practicality**

Weir and Roberts (1994) argued for the use of the most appropriate and efficient methods for generating the required data. Henceforth, data collection should be made only for purposes of use, and in such a way as to make the best use of them. It is also highly advisable to collect a restricted amount of informative and reliable information rather than a larger quantity of low quality data that would possibly be useless (Weir & Roberts, 1994).

- **Sampling**

To ensure credibility of a given evaluation, one needs to take a reasonable sample of data relating to the focus under review. The more restricted the sampling is, the more likely data is subject to question in relation to both reliability and validity. Carefully considering an appropriate sampling size is central to reaching faith in the emerging results. Enlarging the sample size would by all means be far from practicality of the study, but should never threaten its validity and reliability, otherwise, there would be no point in gathering data (Weir & Roberts, 1994).

- **Piloting**

Piloting the utilized instruments in evaluation is very seminal. Moreover, threats to reliability and validity are reported in situations when insufficient consideration is attributed to the design and piloting of evaluation instruments (Davies, 1992; as cited in Weir & Roberts, 1994, p. 138-9). Weir and Roberts (1994) highly advise allotting much and sufficient time and consideration to the refining of evaluation instruments. They additionally called for trying out them on a small sample from the target population of informants to help identify ambiguities, wording problems, item inappropriateness, and to provide sample data meant for clarifying problems in the suggested methods of analysis prior to the data collection in the study.

- **Reporting**

According to Nunan (1992), the reporting process may take much longer than planned, given the implication of a negotiation process likely to bring about comments and interpretations. More importantly, Weir and Roberts (1994) maintained that the value of evaluation is a function of its usefulness and accessibility to immediate stakeholders and eventually to a larger audience.

3.5. Procedures in Conducting Evaluation

There are different procedures that have come to be used in the process of evaluation, each with its advantages and disadvantages. Of those, one can list the following: tests, interviews, questionnaires, diaries and journals, teachers' records, teachers' written evaluation, student logs, student evaluations, case studies, audio- or video-recording, and observation (Richards, 2001). Genesee and Upshur (2011) similarly acknowledged the existence of many data collection methods for evaluation purposes, among those are tests, questionnaires, interviews, observation, examination of documents, and portfolios. In what follow are descriptions of some of these evaluation methods.

3.5.1. Tests

A test is one method for collecting data that has content; it can be a task, such as a writing composition, or a set of tasks, such as multiple-choice examination, meant to elicit observable behavior from the test taker. Tests are said to yield scores representing attributes or characteristics of individuals. In order for them to be meaningful, test scores must have a frame of reference to interpret such scores; the two together form measurement. In general terms, the content of second or foreign language tests relates to second or foreign language skills and usage. Moreover, the actual content of a test is generally narrower than the subject matter, skills, or knowledge it seeks to assess, nor does a second language test examine every aspect of second language proficiency. Its content is

virtually always restricted to a sample of the subject matter, skills, or knowledge being assessed (Genesee & Upshur, 2011).

Richards (2001) asserted that tests are used to measure changes in learning and can take various forms:

- Institutionally prepared tests such as exit tests designed to measure what students have learned in the course

-International tests such as TOEFL, IELTS, or a Cambridge proficiency test if these are related to course aims and content

-Textbook tests such as those provided in teachers' manuals or as part of a commercial course

-Student records, such as information collected throughout the course based on course work or continuous assessment. This information may be used to arrive at a final score or grade for a student without using a final test (2001, p. 299).

Tests are good in that they directly measure achievement, especially if they are based on students' performance. However, in the case of poor performance on achievement tests, further investigation into the other possible factors causing bad performance is usually needed. This is the reason for which test construction is not that easy (Richards, 2001).

Second language tests have been classified in relation to their focus, be it linguistic competence, specific aspects or sub-skills of language, a specific testing method, a specific kind of information, or even certain kinds of decisions (Genesee & Upshur, 2011).

3.5.2. Questionnaires

Questionnaires are used to elicit teachers' and students' views on a wide range of issues. (Richards, 2001). They consist of questions or statements teachers or students are expected to respond to. Questionnaires are relatively structured and formal and are most useful with older learners who have gone beyond beginning levels of proficiency in a

second language. Questionnaires require considerable planning and preparation time, and the information they provide is valuable and important for planning and evaluating courses or units. Before instruction, questionnaires can be utilized to collect information about input factors that would possibly influence instructional planning such as those related to students' backgrounds, their educational and language experiences, their current language skills, their second language needs and goals, etc. Comparing such resulting information with instructional objectives and plans would do much to assess the appropriateness of both for incoming students. After instruction, questionnaires can be used to gather information about the effectiveness of a unit or even an entire course. Such information may relate to students' general impressions of the course or unit, its content, organization, materials, and activities, but also to students' satisfaction with their achievements in the language as a result of the course or unit. Teacher questionnaires can additionally provide valuable information to assess the effectiveness of instruction. The resulting evaluative information collected at the end of a course can be used to revise instructional plans for subsequent groups of students or to modify instruction for current ones. Opting for questionnaires as an assessment data collection tool at the end of instruction can prove to be particularly beneficial because they are efficient and provide permanent, systematic records of feedback from all students. Such feedback is advantageous in that it can be easily quantified if structured, multiple-choice questions are used (Genesee & Upshur, 2011).

Questionnaires are good in that they can be administered simultaneously to a large number of respondents (Richards, 2001; Genesee & Upshur, 2011). They provide permanent and exact records of informants' responses (Genesee & Upshur, 2011). However, they need to be carefully designed for them not to elicit unbiased results

(Richards, 2001). Genesee and Upshur (2011) outlined a ten-step procedure to follow when constructing questionnaires:

1. Identify the decisions you want to make using the information that will be collected.

2. Identify the general and specific information that will help make those decisions.

3. If possible, review other questionnaires that have been used to make the same kinds of decisions. They can provide guidance with respect to the types of information to collect types of questions, wording of questions, response formats, the organization of questions, and instructions.

4. Draft questions pertaining to the information you are seeking. Again, it is advisable to be over-inclusive at this point; redundant or useless questions can be deleted afterward. If you are using multiple-choice answer formats, draft versions of alternative answers.

5. Organise the questions according to some logical or otherwise meaningful order and then revise them accordingly. The arrangement of the items should make sense to respondents. Questionnaires that are organized in haphazard ways will confuse respondents.

6. Prepare a set of instructions. These should explain as thoroughly and honestly as possible the purposes of the questionnaire and how the respondents' answers will be treated. The instructions should also indicate clearly how respondents should proceed in answering questions.

7. Ask colleagues who are familiar with the purpose of the questionnaire to review it.

8. Make revisions based on your colleagues' comments.

9. Try the questionnaire out with respondents who are similar to those you will ultimately use it with. Seek both oral and written feedback from these respondents;

ask them to make comments while they are responding as well as after they have

completed the activity.

10. Make final revisions (Genesee & Upshur, 2011, p. 134-5).

To put it in a nutshell, questionnaires are most useful when uniform feedback from many

individuals is aimed at to plan and evaluate instruction (Genesee & Upshur, 2011).

3.5.3. Interviews

Similar to questionnaires, interviews can be used to gauge views on course aspects.

They can be structured or unstructured. Structured interviews usually provide more useful

information. Interviews are very time-consuming and be held only with a sample of

teachers and students. This may open doors for their representativeness to be subject to

question. Interviews provide in-depth information on specific questions (Richards, 2001).

They enable the interviewer to probe the respondents for additional information in

response to interesting or important answers unexpectedly arising from planned questions

(Genesee & Upshur, 2011).

3.5.4. Observation

Bailey (2001) defined observation as "The purposeful examination of teaching and/or

learning events through systematic processes of data collection and analysis. Such events

may

occur in untutored environments or in formal instructional settings." (p. 114). Observation

may be practised by the teachers themselves or even by outsiders (Bailey, 2001). It is

central to assessing human skills and behaviours. Researchers have deigned very formal

methods of observing teacher-student interaction for the sake of describing and

understanding second language teaching and learning better. An example of these is the

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme (1983) by

Allen et al, (Genesee and Upshur, 2011), and the Multidimensional Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (MOLT) by Turnbull (1999).

Classroom observation has historically served four broad functions. Firstly, pre-service teachers are often observed as part of their practicum by teacher educators, providing them with advice on the development of their teaching skills (Day, 1990; as cited in Bailey, 2001, p. 114). Second, observation may be practised when practicing teachers are being observed by novice teachers or even colleagues for professional development of the observer. Third, practicing teachers may also be observed by supervisors, course coordinators, department heads, principals, or head teachers, for the sake of measuring the extent to which the administration's teaching expectations, curricular coverage, class control, etc, are being adhered to by teachers. Fourth, observation is largely used as a data gathering tool in classroom research. Teachers and learners may also be observed by outsiders (Bailey, 2001).

Genesee and Upshur (2011) explained that informal observation, as one of the teachers' practices, is an integral part of everyday teaching. Students are continuously observed by their teachers to assess what they have and have not learned. The resulting information provides an understanding of what is happening in the classroom and helps make decisions about what is to come after. Through such an observation, teachers also aim at understanding how their students are learning, at providing explanations for those situations when learning does not happen as planned, and also at planning instruction likely to promote learning. Such an observation may pave the way for the teacher, for instance, to make inferences as to the fact that students did not find the activities and the materials interesting, and thus, they were not motivated to learn (Genesee & Upshur, 2011).

According to Richards (2001), observation is usually more useful when it is structured (for instance, checklists, or rating scales). When conducting observation, it is possible to

focus on any observable aspect of the lesson and identify things teachers cannot see. Still, the presence of the observer may be intrusive. Weir and Roberts (1994) claimed that observation can be structured or unstructured. Structured observation, such as the use of checklists, will use pre-determined categories of description and other data selection criteria such as time samples, etc, and is appropriate only when a valid focus for observation has been established. Unstructured observation, however, uses no previously determined criteria, but leaves the observer free to simply use a piece of paper. Such unstructured practice is usually helpful at an exploratory stage of investigation in which the observer is in way to get into the field of inquiry. All observation practices may be challenged because the sample may be unrepresentative. For fair evaluation of a given programme, one has to collect data from the variant situations in which the programme may be used (weir & Roberts, 1994). To compensate for such problems, Weir and Roberts (1994) suggested some guidelines:

- Opting for a sampling strategy which can claim validity.

- Triangulating observational data with interviews or questionnaires, which represent rather a large sample.

As for the planning of classroom observation, Genesee and Upshur (1996) identified some decisions to be made:

1. Why do you want to observe and what decisions do you want to make as a result of your observations?

2. What aspects of teaching or learning that are appropriate to these decisions do you want to observe?

3. Do you want to observe individual students, small groups of students, or the whole class?

4. Will you observe students engaged in specific, pre-arranged activities or during routine classroom activities?

5. Will you observe on one occasion or repeatedly?

6. Will you incorporate non-linguistic content from the students' other classes or from outside class?

7. How will you record your observations? (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p. 83).

Both authors also explained some of the reasons for which classroom observation may be done:

- To determine whether students are progressing as planned and are ready to mve on to the next unit.

- To identify difficulties that particular students are having so that appropriate instruction can be planned for them.

- To assess a new student's language skills in order to identify specific needs and plan appropriate instruction.

- To assess whether students find a unit of instruction interesting, worth-wile, and useful with a view to deciding whether to repeat it with the next group of students.

- To assess the appropriateness and usefulness of a new textbook (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p. 83).

3.6. Material/Textbook Evaluation in EFL

Materials are a key element in any language teaching programme. Tomlinson (2012) defined materials for language learning as " anything that can be used to facilitate the learning of a language, including course books, videos, graded readers, flash cards, games, websites and mobile phone interactions, though, inevitably, much of the literature focuses

on printed materials." (p. 143). Be they textbooks, institutionally prepared materials, or self-made materials, instructional materials are central to providing language input to be received by learners. More importantly, they provide insights into how to design and teach lessons. Commercial materials can be printed, non-print, or even with print and non-print sources (Richards, 2001). There are two opposing standpoints as to the role of teaching materials. Crawford (2002) summarized such two views:

> For some, commercial materials deskill teachers and rob them of their capacity to think professionally and respond to their students. They are also misleading in that the contrived language they contain has little to do with reality. For others, the role of teaching materials is potentially more positive. They can, for example, be a useful form of professional development for teachers, and foster autonomous learning strategies in students (Crawford, 2002, p. 80).

Crawford (2002) added that, with reference to such views, what really matters is not the fact that teachers should use commercially prepared materials, but rather what form such materials should take to ensure positive, not restrictive outcomes for both teachers and learners.

Tomlinson (2012, p. 143) claimed that materials can be

> informative, (informing the learner about the target language), instructional (guiding the learner in practising the language), experiential (providing the learner with experience of the language in use), eliciting (encouraging the learner to use the language) and exploratory (helping the learner to make discoveries about the language).

With particular reference to course books, Sheldon (1988) explained that they represent for both students and teachers the visible heart of any ELT programme. In a similar vein, McGrath (2006) viewed course books as being a central element in teaching-learning

encounters, not only in school settings but frequently also in tertiary-level. Grant (1987) identified the characteristics of both traditional textbooks and communicative textbooks. Traditional textbooks tend to emphasise the form or patterns of language more than the communicative functions of language; they also tend to focus on reading and writing activities, rather than listening and speaking. Traditional textbooks use a great deal of the first language and emphasise accuracy; they are highly syllabus and examination-oriented. Given the fact that they are easy to be used, they tend to attract teachers. Communicative textbooks emphasise the communicative functions of language and attempt to reflect students' needs and interests. They rather emphasise skills in using the language, not only the forms of language; they are then activity-based. Communicative textbooks usually include the four skills with a balanced proportion, but if compared to traditional textbooks, they emphasise listening and speaking more than these do. Communicative textbooks tend to define aims very specifically; everyday life authentic language is being reflected by both content and methods. Moreover, communicative textbooks encourage pair and group work and emphasise fluency, not just accuracy (Grant, 1987).

Cunningsworth (1995) explained that materials have many roles in language teaching and summarized these in the following:

- A resource for presentation materials (spoken and written)

- A source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction

- A reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on

- A source of stimulation and ideas for classroom activities

- A syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined)

- A support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence (p. 7).

Ur (2009) reported many advantages of using course books and maintained that they provide a clear framework for both teachers and learners in that they know where they are going and what is coming next. The course book may serve as a syllabus; it is also time-saving in that it provides texts, learning tasks which are likely to match to the whole class level. Moreover, opting for course books is the cheapest way of providing learning material for learners. The course book is a convenient package; its components stay together in order; it guides and supports teachers who are inexperienced or who are occasionally unsure of their knowledge of the language. More importantly, learners can use the textbook to learn new material, review and monitor progress with some degree of autonomy. A similar standpoint was echoed by Hutchinson and Torres (1994), in an ELT Journal article entitled 'The Textbook as Agent of Change'. Both authors considered textbooks as providers of input into classroom lessons. In addition, learners consider the textbook as a framework or guide helping the organize their learning inside and outside the classroom. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) also added that textbooks can show what will be done in the lesson and provides a map of the teaching/learning process. They concluded that if properly used, a good textbook can be an excellent vehicle for effective long-lasting change; it can also provide the level of structure teachers need to fully comprehend and get accustomed to such change.

Viewed differently, Ur (2009) additionally argued against using course books and wrote that they cannot be adequate for all learners given the fact that every learner has his/her own learning needs, and that no one course book can satisfactorily supply these. In addition, the topics in the course book may not necessarily be relevant or interesting for all learners. Moreover, course books do not usually cater for the different levels of ability and

knowledge, or the different learning styles and strategies of the learners. Given their over easiness, teachers will blindly follow the course book instead of using their initiative, and would find themselves functioning as mediators of the content (Ur, 2009).

"Materials development is both a field of study and a practical undertaking. As a field it studies the principles and procedures of the design, implementation and evaluation of language teaching materials" (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 66). It is a practical undertaking in that it is concerned with the production, evaluation, adaptation and exploitation of materials meant for facilitating language acquisition and development, by teachers for their own classrooms and by materials writers for sale or distribution (Tomlinson, 2016; Tomlinson, 2001). Given their pivotal role in language teaching, adopting a given textbook for classroom use is not without risks. Ur (2009) asserted that central to appropriately using the course book is an awareness of its positive and negative points. Cunningsworth (1995) also acknowledged that we need to see what is prominent and obvious in a course book, but also to examine how specific items such as those relating to students' learning needs, syllabus requirements, and language aspects, are being approached in the course book.

Ellis (1997) also explained that teachers often find themselves confronted with the daunting task of choosing the appropriate teaching materials in their class. Thereafter, teachers are required to conduct a predictive evaluation of the materials they have in order to determine which ones best match to their purpose. After having used the materials, teachers need to proceed through a further retrospective evaluation to check whether or not the materials have worked well (Ellis, 1997).

Richards (2001) stated that evaluation can only be done with great consideration of its purpose. Tomlinson (2013, pp. 21-22) defined material evaluation as

A procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials. It involves making judgements about the effect of the materials on the people using them and it tries to measure some or all of the following:

- the appeal of the materials to the learners;

- the credibility of the materials to learners, teachers and administrators;

- the validity of the materials (i.e. Is what they teach worth teaching?);

- the reliability of the materials (i.e. Would they have the same effect with different groups of target learners?);

- the ability of the materials to interest the learners and the teachers;

- the ability of the materials to motivate the learners;

- the value of the materials in terms of short-term learning (important, for example, for performance on tests and examinations);

- the value of the materials in terms of long-term learning (of both language and of communication skills);

- the learners' perceptions of the value of the materials;

- the teachers' perceptions of the value of the materials;

- the assistance given to the teachers in terms of preparation, delivery and assessment;

- the flexibility of the materials (e.g. the extent to which it is easy for a teacher to adapt the materials to suit a particular context);

- the contribution made by the materials to teacher development;

- the match with administrative requirements (e.g. standardization across classes, coverage of a syllabus, preparation for an examination).

According to Cunningsworth (1995), material evaluation is a complex matter since it involves many variables that determine the success or failure of a given course book. He

also maintained that resorting to materials analysis and evaluation comes as a final alternative, long after trying out many other procedures. It is possible for teachers, he stated, to try to pilot the new material before coming to adopt it. Information resulting from such piloting can stand to be highly valuable, and new courses should always be tried out. Alternatively, seeking opinions of practicing teachers is also beneficial, especially when others have already gone through some experience of implementing the same material. Students' role is also to be considered for such process. Though not as articulate as their teachers may be, they can also contribute with their views on the usefulness of a given course book, and may interestingly phrase their likes or dislikes vis à vis a course book. They can also provide feedback on the subject material (Cunningsworth, 1995).

Cunningsworth (1995) added that where there is no opportunity for all these practices, a detailed analysis stands to be at the core of the evaluation process. Analysis is rather neutral; it is "… objective because the questions are likely to be given the same answers by each of a large number of analysts." (Masuhara & Tomlinson, 2018, p. 55); it provides the necessary data for the coming stage, in which such data would be interpreted with consideration of the relative importance of different aspects of the course book. The evaluation stage comes after interpretation and involves value judgments on the part of the people involved, who would reflect their views and priorities based on some factors such as learner and teacher expectations, methodological preferences, learner needs, syllabus requirements, and personal preferences. In the selection stage, the previously identified features would be matched against the demands of the teaching and learning situation. For that, careful establishment of some general criteria to guide the process would help agree on some values (Cunningsworth, 1995).

Cunningsworth (1995) also suggested three types of material evaluation: pre-use, in-use, and post-use evaluation. Pre-use evaluation is said to be the most difficult kind of

evaluation as it is practised before a textbook is used and there is no actual experience of using the book. Such type of evaluation is directed towards potential performance of the textbook. In-use evaluation is concerned with evaluating the textbook while it is being used. Post-use evaluation is practised after a textbook has been used and provides retrospective assessment of it in terms of strengths and weaknesses emerging over a phase of continuous use. Information resulting from such evaluation would help determine whether or not to use a given textbook on future occasions (Cunningsworth, 1995).

Before actually coming to evaluate a textbook, specific information is needed in relation to the following issues (Richards, 2001):

1. The role of the textbook in the programme

   -Is there a well-developed curriculum that describes the objectives, syllabus, and content of the programme, or will this be determined by the textbook?

   -Will the book or textbook series provide the core of the programme, or is it one of several different books that will be used?

   -Will it be used with small classes or large ones?

   -Will learners be expected to buy a workbook as well or should the textbook provide all the practice students need?

2. The teachers in the programme

   -How experienced are the teachers in the programme and what is their level of training?

   -Are they native speakers of English? If not, how well do they speak English?

   -Do teachers tend to follow the textbook closely or do they use the book simply as a resource?

   -Do teachers play a part in selecting the books they teach from?

   -Are teachers free to adapt and supplement the book?

3. The learners in the programme

   -Is each student required to buy a book?

   -What do learners typically expect in a textbook?

   -Will they use the book in class and at home?

   -How will they use the book in class? Is it the primary source of classroom activities?

   -How much are they prepared to pay for a book? (pp. 256-7).

Henceforth, one can deduce that there can be no one perfect textbook to be adopted for the simple reason that many factors in relation to its design, implementation, and evaluation are to be considered (McDonough et al., 2013; Richards, 2001).

3.6.1. Purposes of Material/ Textbook Evaluation

There are many purposes for which textbook evaluation may be carried out. One very simple reason may relate to the mere adoption of a given textbook for teaching and learning purposes. Moreover, textbooks can be evaluated to diagnose their strengths and weaknesses after being used. In addition, textbook evaluation is an experience that gives teachers the chance to gain insights into the nature of the materials and to get familiar with using them in class. Textbooks can be evaluated for potential or for suitability. Sometimes textbooks are being evaluated without necessarily having to teach a group of learners, but simply to see what for it could be good and appropriate and it what specific situation it could work better. When evaluating textbooks for suitability, they are matched against certain criteria such as learners' objectives, backgrounds, the available resources, etc (Cunningsworth, 1995). Both orientations seem quite different but in fact complete each other.

3.6.2. Guidelines for Textbook Evaluation

There are many aspects underlying many criteria for textbook evaluation. Cunningsworth (1995, p.15-7) identified the following four ones:

- Textbooks should correspond to learners' needs and should match the aims and objectives of the language learning programme. To put it differently, textbooks should serve facilitating learners' progress towards their goals. For that, the language content should be selected with consideration of learners' needs in terms of skills and communicative strategies.

- Textbooks should reflect the uses (present of future) which learners will make of the language. Opt for textbooks that would equip students for effective use of the language with regard to their own purposes. This implies looking beyond classroom confines and directing attention towards learners' use of what they have already learned, to ensure moving along the path to autonomy and independence, and quitting teacher and textbook reliance. Such progression could be achieved by incorporating authentic materials, creating realistic situations, and engaging learners in activities that promote communicative skills and strategies. Textbooks, would then, act as a factor motivating them to learn and become independent.

- Textbooks should take account of students' needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes, without dogmatically imposing a rigid method. There should be some principled selection and ordering of textbook items in terms of learnability. Textbook items (grammar, functions, skills, etc) are selected, broken down into manageable units and sequences, leading from familiar to unfamiliar, and from easy to difficult items. The textbook should allow for learners styles and strategies awareness and use, either implicitly or explicitly. Moreover, the textbook should make learners feel free to opt for the strategies they view relevant to their learning styles and needs. The textbook should help stimulate learning and can

work as a driving incentive. This may be fulfilled by continuously challenging learners linguistically or intellectually through varied tasks, activities, and texts. More importantly, learners should be given chance to know how much progress they have made through quizzes and self-assessment checklists.

Textbooks should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, they mediate between the target language and the learner. Textbooks facilitate learning in that they bring both the learner and the target language together by proving models of English which are learnable at the student' s level of proficiency. They also provide explanations and contextualized examples displaying how language works. Textbooks provide ready-made presentation materials, teaching ideas, reading texts, listening passages and dialogues to promote fluency. They also outline an approach to learning.

3.6.3. Approaches to Material/ Textbook Evaluation

In order for teachers and field practitioners to be able to outline the merits and demerits of a given textbook, different approaches to textbook/material evaluation have been reported in the literature. Of these are the impressionistic and the in-depth approaches suggested by Cunningsworth (1995).

3.6.3.1. The Impressionistic Versus the In-Depth Approach

As elaborated by Cunningsworth (1995), the impressionistic approach consists of forming a general impression of the textbook quickly, simply by looking through it and getting an overview of its strengths and weaknesses and possibilities, and by noting significant features standing out. The answers to questions relating to the quality of visuals, to the attractiveness and clarity of the layout, the course package components, the way the sequencing of the items included in the textbook is made, etc, are all different features introducing us to the textbook. The impressionistic approach is particularly practised in case a preliminary examination of many textbooks is opted for before moving to a more

detailed analysis. It also works when a new material is being presented to be posteriorly adopted. Such general overview is not surely to diagnose weaknesses or suggest omissions, nor would it work for establishing clear matches between the textbook content and the teaching/learning situation requirements.

The in-depth approach is active and more penetrating in nature in that information on the material is sought in line with a pre-designed agenda. It is concerned with examining what is prominent but also obvious in a textbook, how specific items relating to students' learning needs and syllabus requirements are being dealt with, and how various aspects of language are tackled in the textbook. The in-depth method is also receptive in that it looks for any kind of information that could stand interesting and important (Cunningsworth, 1995).

Cunningsworth (1995, p. 2) outlined some of his favourite questions in such context:

- How does the course book present the present perfect, with particular reference to its meaning and use?

- How does it teach the use of articles?

- Does it include anything on intonation?

- Does it deal with the organization of language above the level of the sentence, e. g., in conversation or in continuous writing?

Both orientations seem to do much in scrutinizing the material and putting it on solid grounds for adoption in the classroom. This was also suggested by Cunningsworth (1995), who believed a combination of both approaches will help choose the most suitable course book to be used.

3.6.3.2. The Predictive Versus the Retrospective Approach

Ellis (1997) identified two different approaches to evaluation: predictive and retrospective evaluation. By the former, reference is made to evaluating materials available

to identify which of them better match to their purposes. Teachers can practice such type of evaluation in two different ways. They can rely on evaluations done by expert reviewers who identify specific criteria for evaluating materials. Teachers can also conduct their own predictive evaluations using the diverse available checklists organized in such a way as to help teachers be systematic in their evaluation. Retrospective evaluation helps teachers decide whether the materials or activities can be used again, which activities worked, which ones did not, and how to adapt materials for future use. Ellis (1997) explained that teachers can perform retrospective evaluation either impressionistically or empirically. The impressionistic alternative is rather practical and time-saving in that "…during the course they assess whether particular activities 'work' (usually with reference to the enthusiasm and degree of involvement manifested by the students), while at the end of the course they make summative judgements of the materials." (p. 37). Empirical evaluation is less common and time-consuming. Teachers can do it using students' journals and end-of-course questionnaires to see how effective both the material and their teaching were. Empirical evaluation can also be done in a more manageable way through micro-evaluation, in which

> …the teacher selects one particular teaching task in which he or she has a special interest, and submits this to a detailed empirical evaluation. A series of micro-evaluations can provide the basis for a subsequent macro-evaluation. However, a micro-evaluation can also stand by itself and can serve as a practical and legitimate way of conducting an empirical evaluation of teaching materials (Ellis, 1997, p. 37).

When doing so, there is possibility to determine the extent to which a task works for a given group of learners and to reveal weaknesses in the design of a task, and thus ways in which it might be improved (Ellis, 1997).

In the view of Grant (1987), textbook evaluation is a three-stage process: initial, detailed, and in-use evaluation. In the first stage, quick assessment of whether or not a textbook is worth looking at more closely is done. One way to do that is to apply the CATALYST test. A textbook, he put, "…should act as a catalyst in the classroom…it should facilitate change." (p. 119). The eight criteria of the CATALYST test are as follow: Communicative? Aims? Teachability? Available add-ons? Level? Your assumption? Student interest? Tried and tested? (Grant, 1987)

Once the CATALYST test has been applied, a detailed evaluation, in which decision about how well the textbook will do, and whether it is more or less suitable than other textbooks, will be done. One way to do that is to pilot the materials, or to use questionnaires to decide how far the textbook meets these three conditions:

-Does the course suit your students?

-Does it suit the teacher?

-Does it suit the syllabus? (Grant, 1987, p. 121).

In the third stage, and after having come to adopt the textbook, you may use questionnaires and make sure it reflects the specificities of the teaching situation. Such process should be continuous to ensure the teacher is the master, not the slave of the textbook (Grant, 1987).

3.6.4. Alternative Methods of Textbook Evaluation

Always with relevance to the practice of textbook evaluation, a number of methods, tools and models were also reported in the literature. To cite some of these, McDonough et al. (2013) suggested a three-stage model of textbook evaluation: macro (external) and micro (internal) evaluation. In the former, they included criteria meant to provide a comprehensive, external overview of how the materials have been organized, the authors claims with respect to the intended audience, the proficiency level, the context and

presentation of language items, whether the materials are to be core or supplementary, the role and availability of a teacher's book, the inclusion of a vocabulary list/index, the table of contents, the use of visuals and presentation, the cultural specificity of the materials, the provision of digital materials and inclusion of tests. Internal evaluation comes after external evaluation, as they put it:

> After completing this external evaluation, and having funds and a potential
> group of learners in mind, we can arrive at a decision as to the materials'
> appropriacy for adoption/selection purposes. If our evaluation shows the
> materials to be potentially appropriate and worthy of a more detailed inspection,
> then we can continue with our internal or more detailed evaluation. If
> not, then we can 'exit' at this stage and start to evaluate other materials if
> we so wish… The essential issue at this stage is for us to analyse the extent to
> which the aforementioned factors in the external evaluation stage match up with the
> internal consistency and organization of the materials as stated by the
> author/publisher (McDonough et al., 2013, pp. 58-9).

Such internal evaluation relates to factors such as "…the treatment and presentation of the skills, the sequencing and grading of the materials, the type of reading, listening, speaking and writing materials contained in the materials, appropriacy of tests and exercises, self-study provision and teacher–learner 'balance' in use of the materials." (2013, p. 60).

In the overall evaluation, a general consideration of the suitability of the materials is made with reference to the usability factor, the genralisability factor, the adaptability factor, and the flexibility factor (McDonough et al., 2013).

A different practice in relation to textbook evaluation is Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives, which has been used by many authors such as Sultana (2001), Gordani (2010),

Roohani et al. (2014), and Assaly and Smadi (2015). A considerable number of material development and evaluation studies have been conducted adopting the checklist method, consisting of a number of criteria against which the textbook is evaluated. Demir and Ertas (2014) defined a checklist as "… an instrument that helps practitioners evaluate course books in an effective and practical way."(p. 245). Mukundan et al. (2001, p. 100) also maintained that a checklist is "… an instrument that provides the evaluator with a list of features of successful learning-teaching materials. According to these criteria, evaluators like teachers, researchers as well as students can rate the quality of the material." A checklist can be qualitative or quantitative, depending on the form in which they are designed and the type of items they include (Demir & Ertas, 2014). According to Abdelwahab (2013, p. 56), "This method is systematic in the way that the criteria on the list are checked off in a certain order. It is also very easy to compare different materials and it is not very time-consuming compared to other methods."

Of the different textbook evaluation theorists, Sheldon (1988) proposed a checklist comprising many factors such as rationale, availability, layout, accessibility, linkage, grading, authenticity, sufficiency, cultural bias, guidance, etc. Ur (1996, 2009) also suggested a 19 item course book assessment checklist relating to criteria such as the approach, the layout, the objectives, topics, tasks, tests, language aspects and skills. Williams (1983) introduced an evaluation scheme that can possibly be utilized to compose a checklist relevant to second or foreign language teaching. Such scheme is based on four basic assumptions: up-to-date methodology, guidance for non-native teachers, needs of second language learners, and relevance to the socio-cultural environment. The checklist criteria relate to general considerations of methodology, speech, grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, and other technical aspects in relation to textbook production and design. Cunningsworth (1995), in his checklist, explained that the practice of textbook evaluation

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should match to the teaching situation in which the textbook is to be used. To help analyse a given textbook, teachers need to pose some questions in relation to the following aspects: aims and objectives, the learning/teaching situation, the learners themselves, and the teachers.

Both Litz (2005) and Abdelwahab (2013) agreed that important theorists in the field of ELT textbook design and analysis such as Williams (1983), Sheldon (1988), Brown (1995), and Cunningsworth (1995) all agreed, for instance, that evaluation checklists should have some criteria pertaining to the physical characteristics of textbooks such as layout, organizational, and logistical characteristics, methodology, aims, and approaches and the degree to which a set of materials is not only teachable, but also fits the needs of the individual teacher's approach as well as the organization's overall curriculum (see Appendix E).

In an article entitled 'A Thorough Scrutiny of ELT Textbook Evaluations: A Review Inquiry', and introducing a benchmarks-based approach to textbook evaluation-a qualitative method-Gholamy et al. (2017) aimed at deciding whether a given textbook matches certain learning goals or no, and introduced the most common approaches for evaluating ELT textbooks and materials, summarized in the following diagram:
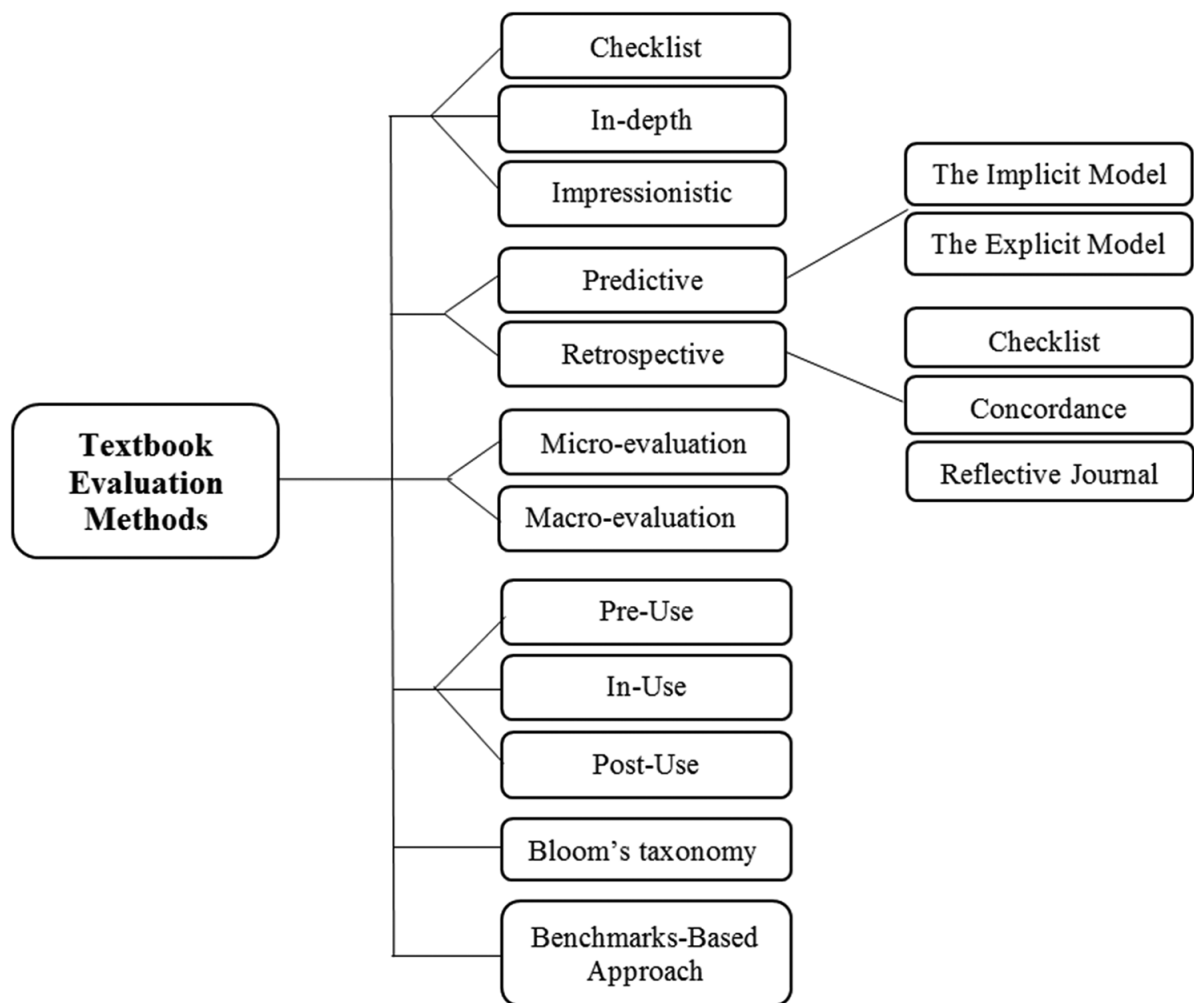
Figure 17: The most widely-adopted textbook evaluation methods (Gholamy et al., 2017, p. 87).

With particular reference to the writing skill, the only available instrument to evaluate the writing component in textbooks is that of Cunningsworth (1995), who introduced a checklist (see Appendix E) consisting of nine items or criteria relating to the type of material handling (controlled, guided, free, or semi-free writing), variety of task progression, the teaching of writing sorts, paragraphing, written text styles, punctuation, spelling, layout, accuracy, reviewing, editing, and readership for writing activities.

As part of the present evaluation study, of particular relevance is the evaluation of the writing competencies, being an integral part of the teaching/learning activity. This would

yield evidence on learners' performances in the writing class. Such view was sustained by Gerard (2010): "For those educational systems that have chosen to develop the Competency-based approach, it has become a necessity to implement learning assessment devices that consider competencies." (p. 1).

3.7. Evaluation of Writing Competencies within the Scope of the Competency-Based Approach

Both Delory (2002) and De Ketele and Gerard (2005) agreed on the fact that the change in the paradigm that has been observed in the learning conceptions resulted in a change in the conceptions of evaluation. Leaned towards promoting learners' possibility to mobilize a number of integrated resources to solve a problem situation, evaluation-within the scope of the CBA consists of suggesting one or a number of complex situations, belonging to the family of situations determined by the competence/competency, demanding learner production, being in itself complex, to solve the problem situation (De Ketele & Dufays, 2003; as cited in De Ketele & Gerard, 2005, p. 2). Given such a new pedagogical orientation, Delory (2002, p. 29) explained that there should be three principles guiding the different conceptions of evaluation:

- Because learning is centered on the child/learner and the development of competencies, rather than on knowledge acquisition, evaluation should relate to the development of competencies, and no longer on the strict restitution, even use of knowledge or know-how to do.

- Since one of the key concepts of the learning process and one of the main objectives targeted by such teaching relate to integration at all levels, evaluation must also include the degree of integration of the different notions, skills and competencies developed.

- The learning process starting from complex situations (situations of integration), together with evaluation processes should also be anchored on complex and integrated situations.

According to Roegiers (2005), it is relatively easy to pose questions on knowledge or the know-how to do processes. Evaluating competences is possible only if some conditions are available. Above all, competences should be formulated in such a way as they could be evaluated. Such formulation should rather be complex, concrete, and realistic. Moreover, the number of competences should be limited to two or three competences per year in a discipline maximum, not to run the risk of reducing the complexity of such competence. More importantly, evaluating competences should consist of complex situations related to the competence to be defined. Evaluation tasks or tests should be written in a way to allow for accuracy in evaluating learners' competences (Roegiers, 2005).

In the view of Gerard (2006; 2013), evaluating learners' achievements should take into consideration both the resources and the competencies. Evaluating resources is done through evaluation situations, lists of items, questions, and activities of more or less the same degree of difficulty, targeting specific objectives, and correction consists of determining whether or not the learner correctly answered the posed questions and thus identify the resources that have been mastered. Learners are supposed to identify the correct answer which is to be compared to the other learners' answers. Such evaluation then aims at checking whether knowledge and know-how-to-do skills have been acquired by learners and also at reinforcing the acquisition of the resources (Gerard, 2013). Evaluating competencies is practised by proposing complex situations to which the learner is supposed to find solutions alone. Gerard (2006) also added that evaluating learners' achievements could be done in different ways at different times, as shown in the diagram below:
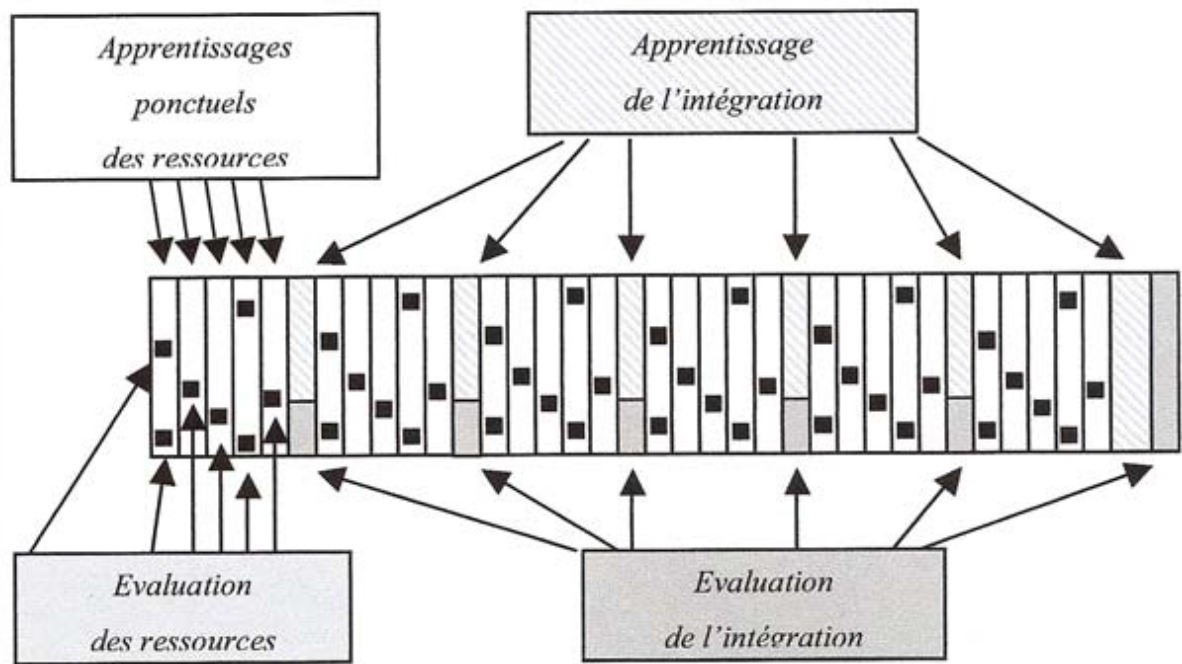
Figure 18: Evaluation of Resources and Competences (Gerard, 2013, p. 85).

In the diagram, the white rectangles represent the weeks during which punctual learning of resources takes place. The black squares represent the punctual and periodical evaluation of resources. The hatched rectangles represent the moments of learning through integration, consisting of suggested complex situations introducing previously-worked on resources, each five or six weeks. Two different situations could be proposed to learners: a first one to be solved collectively or in small groups to make learners aware of the way to solve such kind of complex situations. The second one would be different but of the same degree of complexity and would be solved individually to help the learner learn to mobilize alone the needed resources. The grey rectangles represent the moments of evaluation of integration. Learners would be introduced to a third complex situation to be solved individually and corrected by the teacher (using criteria). Remedial situations would be organized with consideration of the difficulties encountered by the learners. This would be help evaluate learners formatively. By the end of the school year, the teacher implements summative evaluation of competences on the basis of complex situations (Gerard, 2013).

Within such a scope of evaluation, complex situations-also called integration situations-should satisfy three basic conditions: they should correspond to the competency to be evaluated; they should be significant to learners; they should convey and integrate positive values, upon which the educational system rests (Roegiers, 2003; as cited in Rogiers, 2005, p. 11). Gerard (2006) held a similar view to that of Roegiers (2005), and added other requirements for evaluating through complex situations. As he put, such evaluation situation should allow for an evaluation of learners' previous achievements, and should in itself be an integration situation. Moreover, the instruction should be clear enough to display what learners are required to do. Furthermore, the integration situation should be realizable within the time limits. More importantly, Gerard (2005) added that evaluation situations should be simpler and easier than the situations suggested for learning.

The corner stone of evaluating competences is the use of criteria (with indicators), against which learners' production in the different situations of integration is measured. They are referred to as correction criteria, which relate to the qualities learners' productions should respect (Roegiers, 2005). According to Roegiers (2010), a criterion is an element referred to for appreciation and judgement, a principle, a modal, a value, a general quality. The indicator, however, is the observable aspect of such quality. Rogiers (2005) outlined the different steps to be followed to construct an evaluation situation:

1. Specify the competency to be evaluated;

2. Construct one or two new situations corresponding to such a competency;

3. Each criterion should be independently checked at different occasions (at least three times according to the 2/3 rule);

4. Carefully write the materials and instructions so that the task to be done is clear to the student;

5. Specify the indicators that the teacher will report when correcting the copy;

6. Write the correction grid (pp. 11-12).

When designing a situation of evaluation, of crucial importance is to give learners at least three independent occasions in which each individual criterion is checked. When correcting the productions, each criterion is mastered if two out of the three occasions are positive or successful. This is referred to as the 2/3 rule. The evaluation criteria are specified in each situation into indicators on the basis of which a marking scale is developed, consisting of an identification of when the criterion is deemed mastered or not. Such criteria should by all means pave the way for evaluating learners' productions, and must be independent one from the other, not to fall into trap of evaluating the same aspect two times, and so penalize the learner twice (Gerard, 2005). De Ketele (2010) also identified the 3/4 rule as being central to escaping abusive failure of learners, and claimed that such rule highlights the importance of devoting 3/4 of the mark to the minimal criteria, denoting basic competence. In the view of Roegiers (2010), the 3/4 rule in fact completes the 2/3 rule in that if a learner satisfies two times out of three minimal criteria, which represent 3/4 of the mark, he will certainly obtain 2/3 ×3/4 or 50% of the points. Success is then certified with minimal mastery of the minimal criteria (p. 194).

Gerard (2007) qualified the process of evaluation through complex situations as being complex as it entails many difficulties, and maintained that in addition to the previously-mentioned steps, it is not an easy matter to identify the best indicators for each occasion and each criterion, and it is also difficult to establish the level of mastery of each criterion.

Roegiers (2005; 2010) explained that central to evaluating competences is the existence of two types of criteria: minimal criteria and perfection criteria. A minimal criterion is an integral part of the competence; it is required to declare a learner is competent. A perfection criterion does not condition the mastery of the competence (Roegiers, 2005); it determines the level of performance of each learner beyond the threshold level of success

(Ricker & Nieuwenhoven, 2002). As to the number of criteria, specialists agree on the idea that the number of minimal criteria should not exceed three or four criteria, and one or two perfection criteria (Ricker & Nieuwenhoven, 2002; Gerard, 2006; Roegiers, 2010). De Ketele (2010), however, advised to use three or two minimal criteria and one or two perfection criteria.

It is commonly agreed on that written production is within the scope of competences. Writing a text, for instance, is a problem situation to be solved by the learner. All field specialists (Roegiers, 2000; 2006; Gerard, 2007; 2013, to name some of them) agreed on the fact that displaying competence entails autonomously mobilizing a number of resources to solve a problem situation. Hence, the mere mastery of the implied resources is by and large insufficient. Thorough analysis of the suggested problem situation is required for the sake of appropriately selecting and combining the coherent, relevant, and pertinent resources for such situation. The writing competency is a one which cannot be displayed through simple activities such as giving a title to a text. The writing competency is rather complex and demands much more than that; it requires concrete production -considered by Roegiers (2010) as proofs of learning- on the part of the learner, an example of which could be writing a letter, a story, etc. Given the complexity of the writing competency, manifesting it would consist of autonomously mobilizing internal and external resources to do complex tasks in a given context or to solve problem situations (De Ketele, 2013).

Evaluating written productions can be approached in different ways. The use of portfolios appears to be highly appreciated, in both summative and formative evaluation, but especially in the case of formative evaluation of writing, as explained previously in chapter one. De Ketele (2013), in his article "L'Evaluation de la Production Ecrite", addressed both certifying and formative evaluation of written production. He qualified the former as aiming at giving orientation and planning of learning writing skills and as being

central to providing a final decision as to success or failure. The latter, being largely claimed but less widely practised, aims at promoting the learning of writing as a skill while in progression "and is based on diagnostic concepts, and, in coherence with those, on the setting up of permanent actions allowing learners to progress in their learning." (2013, p. 60).

In determining the criteria of the certifying evaluation, De Ketele (2013) maintained that the EVA grid (1991) is frequently used or adapted by authors. It consists of twelve criteria and is viewed as being exhaustive as it includes four units or points of view and three types of text units to consider. It is then useful in the planning of learning units and in guiding the process of diagnosis in formative evaluation. De Ketele (2013, p. 66) suggested a very detailed elaboration of a certifying evaluation of written production, consisting of three minimal criteria and two perfection criteria:

The minimal criteria

➢ The pertinence of communication which can be concretized by indicators such as the following:

▪ Does the text produced reach the expected target?

▪ Does the text produced take into consideration information provided in the starting situation?

▪ Does the text produced correspond to the characteristics of the genre of the expected text?

▪ Does the text produced take into consideration the characteristics of the recipient(s)?

▪ Does the text produced take into consideration the instructions provided?

▪ Has the produced text followed the formulated recommendations?

- …and other eventual, more specific indicators at the level of the student and of his expected performance;

- …without neglecting a global appreciation of the pertinence of communication.

➢ The textual coherence which can be concretised by indicators such as the following:

- Is the sequencing of information logical and time concord respected?

- Is the use of connectors present and correct?

- Is the vocabulary adequate?

- Is the language register homogenous?

- Is the absence of contradictions respected?

- …and others.

➢ The mastery of linguistic resources (spelling) which can be concretised by indicators such as the following:

- Spelling?

- Agreements?

- Rules of conjugation?

- Punctuation?

- Capital letters?

- Sentences syntax?

The perfection criteria: they vary in relation to the level of study:

➢ The quality of the presentation (with possible indicators);

➢ The originality of ideas (with some other possible indicators).

Within the same scope, Gerard and BIEF (2008; as cited in Gerard, 2013, p. 88) suggested other generic indicators to evaluate the three minimal criteria of a language production as shown in the table below:

Table 6: *Example of Generic Indicators in Languages* (From Gerard and BIEF, 2008; as cited in Gerard, 2013, p. 88).

C1. Correct interpretation of the situation	C2. Correct use of the tools of the discipline	C3. Coherence of the production
-Answer corresponds to Context of the situation -Respect of the instruction - Answer to what is expected (tell a story, describe something, etc.) -Appropriate choice of ideas	-Respecting the rules of grammar, spelling, lexis -Correct construction of sentences, even being not related to the situation -Punctuation -Use of styles -Use of adequate and precise vocabulary	-Arrangement of ideas - Logical and chronological sequencing of the production - The sentences give successive and complementary information on the same topic - Production that makes sense, even being unrelated to the situation -Paragraphing -Use of structures and linking words of a text -Use of pronouns -Originality of the production -Conclusion

As explained previously, De Ketele (2010, p. 34) argued for the following guidelines and principles to be adopted in the process of evaluating written productions:

1. Agree on and identify the minimal criteria (2 or 3) and the perfection criteria (1or 2);

2. Rely on three written productions to avoid bias;

3. Apply the 3/4 rule in a way to attribute at least 75% of the whole mark to the minimal criteria;

4. Apply the 2/3 rule requiring that at least 2/3 of the mark devoted to minimal criteria should be reached;

5. The combination of the two rules gives 50% of the mark, and helps avoid abusive failure.

Table 7: *Sample Device Respecting the Principles to Avoid Abusive Success and Failure.* (translated from De Ketele, 2013, p. 68).

Criteria	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3 (Exam)	Total Score/ Mark
C1 Pertinence of communication	…/ 3points	… / 3points	… / 3points	… /9points
C2 Textual coherence	.../2 points	…/ 2 points	…/ 2 points	…/ 6 points
C3 Mastery of linguistic resources	…/ 3points	…/ 3 points	…/ 3 points	…/ 9 points
C4 Quality of presentation	…/ 1point	…/ 1point	…/ 1point	…/ 3points
C5 Originality	…/ 1point	…/ 1point	…/ 1point	…/ 3points
Total Score/ Mark	.../10points	…/10points	…/10points	…/30points

With C1, C2, C3 as being the minimal criteria, and C4, C5 as the perfection criteria.

As to the weighting of criteria with respect to the rules, for each text, 75% of the points (8 out of 10 or 24 out of 24) are devoted to the minimal criteria. If the student has at least 2/3 of the points out of the 24 points devoted to the minimal criteria, he will get 16 points out of 30, corresponding to a bit more than 50% (De Ketele, 2013).

Similarly, De Ketele (2010, p. 34) explained the procedure of weighting of criteria in the table below:

Table 8: *Evaluation of a Language Competency* (Translated from De Ketele, 2010, p. 34).

Level of mastery	Minimal criteria			Perfection criteria	
	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
Total absence	0	0	0	0	0
Partial mastery	2	2	2	1	0
Minimal mastery	4	4	4	2	1
Maximal mastery	5	5	5	3	2
Total	15/20			5/20	

De Ketele (2013) explained that evaluating writing competencies can be differently approached using description (using criteria and indicators), using interpretation (writing an appreciation on the basis of indices of an evaluation grid, or others resulting from observation). Whatever procedure to adopt, what really matters is the avoidance of abusive success and failure.

Conclusion

This chapter was concerned with outlining the different conceptions about evaluation in relation to the teaching and learning experience, the teaching materials, and the learners' outputs and productions. Evaluating learners' written productions can, if appropriately-approached, be evidence of advance in the development of their writing proficiency; it can, more importantly, directly point to reaching conclusions as for the mastery of the writing competence and success in the teaching act. However, articulating claims about these alone is insufficient; information about the field, about what really takes place in the EFL classroom, will, by all means, bring evidence about the success or failure of any teaching and learning activity. This implies investigating opinions, collecting data about classroom practices, about teaching materials, and also about learners' written performances, which is the concern of the next chapters.

Chapter Four: Field Work: The Questionnaire and the Classroom Observation Analyses.

Introduction.

4.1. Research Design, Methodology, and Instrumentation.

    4.1.1. The Questionnaire.

    4.1.1.1. Aims of the Questionnaire.

        4.1.1.2. Description, Piloting, and Administration Procedure.

        4.1.1.3. Analysis of the Questionnaire Results.

        4.1.1.4. Discussion of the Questionnaire Results.

    4.1.2.   Classroom Observation

        4.1.2.1.   Aims of Classroom Observation.

        4.1.2.2.   Research Site and Sample Target Population.

        4.1.2.3.   The Participants' Profiles.

        4.1.2.4.   The Classroom Observation Protocol.

        4.1.2.5.   Analysis of the Classroom Observation Findings.

        4.1.2.6.   Discussion of the Classroom Observation Findings.

Conclusion.

Although research findings are, to some extent, always inconclusive, practices unsupported by research are even riskier.

<div align="right">(Swaffar & Bacon, 1993, p. 143; in Griffee, 2012, p. 18)</div>

Introduction

After reviewing the literature relevant to the current study, this chapter comes to explore the field work. It aims at describing the research design, the procedures, as well as the research tools employed for data collection purposes. It also depicts the research setting, population, and the sampling method. This chapter will only be concerned with the research situation analysis being carried out using a questionnaire and a classroom observation, which will supposedly contribute to yielding evidence about the teaching of writing within the scope of the CBA in Algerian secondary schools.

4.1. Research Design, Methodology, and Instrumentation

Given its descriptive delineation, and with consideration of the research aims, the present thesis relates to descriptive research, which was defined by Tavakoli (2012, p. 160) as follows:

> Descriptive research attempts to looks at individuals, groups, institutions, methods and materials in order to describe, compare, contrast, classify, analyze, and interpret the entities and the events that constitute their various fields of inquiry. It is concerned with conditions or relationships that exist; practices that prevail; beliefs, points of views, or attitudes that are held; processes that are going on; effects that are being felt; or trends that are developing. At times, descriptive research is concerned with how what is or what exists is related to some preceding event that has influenced or affected a present condition or event.

Henceforth, in order to answer the research questions and consider the hypotheses articulated in this study, resorting to mixed-methods research stands to be more than necessary. Such a research orientation came into play in the 1950s, and involves the use of quantitative and qualitative methods, so as to provide a more complete understanding of the research problems (Fraenkel, Wallan, and Hyun, 2012, p. 559). As explained by Tavakoli (2012),

> The goal of mixed methods research is not to replace qualitative or quantitative approaches but, rather, to combine both approaches in creative ways that utilize the strengths of each within a single study. By mixing methods in ways that minimize weaknesses or ensure that the weaknesses of one approach do not overlap significantly with the weaknesses of another, the study is strengthened (p. 362).

The use of both qualitative and quantitative methods is, then, likely to generate information needed for a better understanding of the research problem, and will help make the research work meet the validity criterion, which was defined by Tabakoli (2012) as follows:

> Validity refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness, correctness, and usefulness of the inferences a researcher makes. Validation is the process of collecting and analyzing evidence to support such inferences. Validity is a requirement for both QUANTITATIVE and QUALITATIVE RESEARCH. In qualitative data validity might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of TRIANGULATION and the disinterestedness of the researcher. In quantitative research validity might be improved through careful SAMPLING, appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatments of the data. (p. 699)

Accordingly, and for data collection purposes, a questionnaire, as one important elicitation technique, is administered to all secondary school teachers of English in Jijel (114 teachers) to quantitatively explore their views on the teaching of writing in the CBA classroom.

Moreover, the research problem is also qualitatively approached through classroom observation, which helps collect information about what actually takes place within the confines of the classrooms. The teachers' responses recorded through the questionnaire are to be compared to the results of the classroom observation, in hopes of making inferences as to the teaching of writing and its compatibility to the claims of the adopted approach and to the teachers' knowledge about such aspects. The results of the classroom observation are to bring evidence about the teachers' implementation of the SE2 textbook and their satisfaction about the writing materials.

Within the same qualitative research orientation is the evaluation of the SE2 textbook, which is carried out using a self-constructed checklist, and which aims at analysing the writing component in terms of compatibility to the CBA claims, in hopes of drawing conclusions as to what specific writing inclination the textbook suggests to both teachers and learners. Given the sophisticated nature of the writing activity, the tasks that are supposed to engage learners in generating written instances of the target language should implicate learners to respond to problem solving, communicative situations where they are to mobilize the necessary resources and integrate them successfully. The evaluation of the writing component of the SE2 textbook is, then, to consider all such elements, for these help validate or refute the advanced research hypotheses. The results to be collected from such qualitative interpretations are to be cumulated and compared to the results of the questionnaire and the classroom observation, in order to be able to answer the research questions and translate these into recommendations.

For purposes other than generalisabity, an evaluation of the learners' writing competences, as part of the qualitative research inquiry, is to be done using De Ketele's framework for evaluation of writing competences (2013). By so doing, the researcher will have the chance to evaluate learners' written productions at different occasions (by the end of a sequential unit where and when learners should have normally advanced in their development of the writing competence). The findings of such an evaluation are likely to bring evidence of the effectiveness of writing instruction within the scope of the CBA.

4.1.1. The Questionnaire

As explained by Nunan (2010), a questionnaire is a popular research tool in collecting data leading to quantification in field settings. In a similar vein, Wilson and McLean (1994) claimed that "The questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyse (as cited in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 317). The questionnaire is, then, one of the most widely used elicitation techniques in descriptive studies, especially with large size populations.

4.1.1.1. Aims of the Questionnaire

Being one of the most widely used research elicitation techniques, the questionnaire aims at investigating EFL secondary school teachers' views on the teaching of writing in the CBA, and more importantly to hopefully make inferences as to the reasons behind pupils' low level of achievement in writing. It attempts to know about the teachers' conceptions of writing instruction in a CBA classroom and their related classroom practices. It puts forward the correspondence of the teaching realities and classroom practices to the CBA principles, as a rethinking of the efficacy of writing instruction in

secondary school level in Algeria. The results to be recorded from such a questionnaire are meant to supplement those to be generated from the classroom observation.

4.1.1.2. Description, Piloting, and Administration Procedure

The questionnaire consists of 36 closed and open-ended questions, organized into five sections: general information relating to teachers' academic degrees, teaching experiences and everyday teaching conditions, teachers' views on the writing skill and its teaching, teachers' views on the CBA and its implementation in the Algerian context, teachers' views on the teaching of writing under the CBA, and further suggestions (see Appendix B). The questionnaire questions were designed by the researcher with consideration of the relevant review of the literature and of the key variables in the current study. The answers to all these questions are likely to yield information needed to answer the research questions.

The questionnaire, being relevant to quantitative research design, has been initially piloted with 4 teachers in order for the researcher to judge the appropriateness and efficacy of the questions in answering the overall research questions. The piloting was also meant for eliminating any ambiguous questions likely to confuse the respondents.

A revised version of the questionnaire was administered to all (114) secondary school teachers of English in Jijel, Algeria. However, only 83 teachers were involved as the remaining 32 teachers did not return their questionnaire copies. It was administered in the period between February 28th, 2019 and the end of March, 2019.

4.1.1.3. Analysis of the Questionnaire Results

The data gathered through the questionnaire were quantitatively analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS version 21), after being entered, coded, and computed in percentages in the form of tables.

Section One: General Information

Q1: What academic degree do you hold?

Table 9: *Teachers' Academic Degrees.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Licence degree in English (LMD)	1	1.2
Master degree in English	25	30.1
Licence degree ENS	26	31.3
Licence degree in English	31	37.3
Total	83	100.0

The aim of this question was to get information about their degree(s) and to implicitly know about the quality of instruction they received at university level. Those who graduated from the Training School of teachers (31.3%) are supposed to have spent five years studying English at university and are also supposed to have got some specific training courses on the CBA and its implementation. They have spent one year doing practical training in secondary schools, where they are supposed to put their savoirs into practice. These are normally better prepared and qualified to teach at secondary school level. Moreover, a percentage of 30.1% of the teachers have a master degree in English and have spent five years studying English with no specific training on teaching in secondary schools. 30.7% of the respondents hold a licence degree and have spent four years studying at university with no special training courses on how to teach at secondary school level, and only one teacher holds a licence (three years) degree in English.

Q2: How long have you been teaching English?

Table 10: *Teachers' Teaching Experience.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
From 0 to 5 years	24	28.9
From 6 to 10 years	31	37.3
From 11 to 20 years	14	16.9
More than 21 years	14	16.9
Total	83	100.0

As to question 2, the aim was to know about teachers' teaching experiences. The highest percentage of teachers (37.3%) said the spent from 6 to 10 years teaching English while 28.9% of them claimed they spent from0 to 5 years practicing teaching. The same number of teachers (14 teachers; 16.9%) asserted they have been teaching English for a period ranging from 11-20 years and for more than 21 years. This can point to the fact that not all secondary school teachers are experienced in teaching EFL, and this may lead to making them face problems in teaching English or even to causing ineffective instruction to take place.

Q3: How long have you been teaching English at the secondary school?

Table 11: *Teachers' Experience in Secondary Schools*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
From 0 to 5 years	28	33.7
From 6 to 10 years	29	34.9
From 11 to 20 years	12	14.5
21 years and more	14	16.9
Total	83	100.0

The aim behind asking this question was to know whether teachers are enough experienced in teaching at secondary school level. The results show that 34.9% of the participants spent teaching English at secondary schools for a period between 6 to 10 years; 33.7% of them claimed they spent not more than five years; 14.5% taught for 11 to 20 years; and 16.9% for more than 21 years. It is then clear that only a limited number of teachers do have enough experience in teaching EFL in secondary schools. Henceforth, the teaching activity may not be that easy for many of the teachers, and difficulties are likely to result.

Q4: How many pupils do you have in each class in average?

Table 12: *Average Class Size.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
15 to 25 pupils	9	10.8
25 to 35 pupils	63	75.9
More than 35 pupils	11	13.3
Total	83	100.0

This question was posed with the intent to know about the conditions in which teachers work as the number of pupils in each class. The results suggest that such conditions are far from being satisfactory in that a considerable number of teachers reported they worked with 25 to 35 pupils in class, something that stands to be detrimental to the efficacy of instruction within the CBA context.

Q5 : How would you rate your second year pupils' overall writing abilities in English? Please complete with **All**, **Many**, **Some**, **A few**, or **None**.

a. …………. of the pupils have excellent writing abilities.

b. ………….of the pupils have good writing abilities.

c. ………….of the pupils have average writing abilities.

d. ………….of the pupils have poor writing abilities.

e. ………….of the pupils have very poor writing abilities.

Table 13: *Teachers' Estimations of Pupils' Writing Abilities.*

Options	Pupils with excellent writing abilities	Pupils with good writing abilities	Pupils with average writing abilities	Pupils with poor writing abilities	Pupils with very poor writing abilities
All	0%	0%	2.4%	2.4%	1.2%
Many	2.4%	3.6%	18.1%	71.1%	37.4%
Some	3.6%	39.8%	56.6%	10.9%	36.1%
A few	60.3%	42.2%	12.1%	8.4%	15.7%
None	27.7%	6.0%	2.4%	0%	4.8%
Total	94.0%	91.6%	91.6%	92.8%	95.2%
No answer	6.0%	8.4%	8.4%	7.2%	4.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The aim of this question was to know about pupils' writing abilities and implicitly get an idea on the teachers' estimation of the effectiveness of writing instruction. As shown in the table, 60.3% of the teachers reported the existence of only a few pupils with excellent writing abilities, 42.2% said that there were only a few pupils with good writing abilities in their classes, 56.6% of them claimed there were some pupils with average abilities, 71.1% maintained that the classes included many pupils with poor writing skills, and 37.4% reported the existence of many pupils with very poor writing skills. This indicates that in the majority of the classes, there are only very few excellent or good pupils in writing, but many with poor writing skills. This may explain the limited experience of the majority of teachers and the difficulties that may have resulted from such situation.

Section Two : Teachers' Views on the Writing Skill and its Teaching

Q6: To what extent do you think the writing skill is central to learning English as a foreign language?

Table 14: *Teachers' Views on the Role of English in Foreign Language Learning.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Extremely	32	38.6
Significantly	44	53.0
Moderately	7	8.4
Total	83	100.0

This question was posed with the intent to investigate teachers' attitudes towards the importance of writing as a skill in learning EFL. As expected, the majority of the teachers (91, 6%) view the writing skill as being extremely and significantly central to learning EFL. Only 8,4% thought it is moderately important in learning EFL. No one respondent viewed writing as being not at all important. This displays the teachers' awareness of the significant role the writing skill plays in such process.

Q7: Please explain why you think so.

As to this question, answers varied, and the most common ones are the following:

- Learning a foreign language necessitates being able to write effectively

- The main purpose of learning English is communication, and writing is one outstanding form of competence in the CBA

- Writing enables learners to express their ideas

- Learners proficiency level can be measured only through writing

- Writing helps consolidate previously learnt items

- Good users of English are those who are good writers

- Writing could show very important when using it as a medium

- Writing reflects the extent to which learners have grasped the language points

- Writing is part of pupils' examinations and should be learnt

- Writing is the final objective of all units

- Writing is a key component to improve language

- All other skills relate to writing, especially reading

- Pupils can be good at speaking but not at writing

- It is in writing that pupils are supposed to reinvest and integrate the previously learnt points

These answers suggest that the majority of teachers are really aware of the central role of writing in EFL, an idea that was advocated by many authors among whom is Raimes (1983), who asserted that writing reinforces learning (grammar, vocabulary, …) and helps learners express ideas.

Q8: According to you, teaching writing entails

    a. Teaching pupils to learn how to write.

    b. Teaching pupils how to write to learn.

Table 15: *Teachers' Conceptions of Writing Instruction.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Teaching pupils to learn how to write	48	57.8
Teaching pupils how to write to learn	25	30.1
Both of them	10	12.1
Total	83	100

The results shown in the table suggest that more than half of the participants do actually teach writing to instruct pupils to learn how to write; this entails the learning of the different strategies and processes involved in the writing act. A proportion of 30.1% of the teachers claimed they teach writing to make pupils know how to write for the purposes of learning; this entails consideration of the final target and the purpose. Only 12.1% of the teachers viewed writing instruction as entailing both the strategies and processes involved in writing and writing for learning. As mentioned in the first chapter, writing instruction, regardless of the way it could be approached, should not be concerned with only the how to write, but also to the who, the when, the what, and the whom to write to.

Q9: What do you think the main focus of writing should be?

    a. Grammatical accuracy

    b. Vocabulary building

    c. Spelling, capitalisation, and punctuation (mechanics)

    d. Appropriacy of ideas

    e. Unity, coherence, and cohesion

    f. Genre (cultural communicative practice forming meaning within a given context and being mutually understood by the same discourse community)

g.   Others (Please specify)…………………………………………………………

Table 16: *Teachers' Views on the Main Focus of Writing.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
E	2	2.4
a+b	3	3.6
a+e	1	1.2
b+e	1	1.2
b+d	1	1.2
d+e	1	1.2
c+f	1	1.2
e+f	1	1.2
a+b+c	2	2.4
a+b+e	5	6.0
a+b+d	1	1.2
a+c+e	2	2.4
a+b+f	1	1.2
a+d+e	4	4.8
b+c+e	1	1.2
d+e+f	2	2.4
a+b+c+e	4	4.8
a+b+c+d	1	1.2
a+b+d+e	2	2.4
a+c+d+e	2	2.4
a+c+e+f	4	4.8
b+c+d+e	1	1.2
a+b+c+d+e	16	19.3
All of them	24	28.9
Total	83	100.0

In this question, the teachers were supposed to express their views as to what the main focus of writing should be. The results recorded showed that the teachers have very dissimilar opinions in that their answers have been categorised into 24 options. The highest percentage of teachers (28.9%) claimed that the main focus of writing should be grammatical accuracy, vocabulary building, spelling, capitalization, punctuation, appropriacy of ideas, unity, coherence, cohesion, and genre. 19.3% of the teachers reported the focus should be on grammatical accuracy, vocabulary building, spelling, capitalization, punctuation, appropriacy of ideas, unity, coherence, and cohesion. All the remaining

teachers opted for only one or two of the options provided. This means that a very limited number of the teachers do in fact know that the major focus of writing should not be solely on one given aspect.

Q10: What do you think the overall aim of teaching the writing skill should be? **(Please choose one or more options)**

    a. To help pupils enlarge their knowledge about a given topic/genre.

    b. To help pupils engage in the writing activity.

    c. To help pupils learn grammar rules and correctness.

    d. To help pupils learn vocabulary skills.

    e. To help pupils learn correct spelling and punctuation.

    f. To help pupils link ideas appropriately.

    g. To help pupils write using appropriate format/layout.

    h. Others

        (pleasespecify)……………………………………………………………

Table 17: *Teachers' Views on the Aim of Teaching Writing.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
B	3	3.6
a+d	1	1.2
a+b	2	2.4
c+f	3	3.6
b+f	3	3.6
d+f	2	2.4
a+f	1	1.2
b+g	2	2.4
f+h	1	1.2
a+b+e	1	1.2
a+g+h	1	1.2
a+e+f	1	1.2
a+b+g	3	3.6
b+d+f	1	1.2
b+f+g	5	6.0
b+g+h	1	1.2

b+c+f	2	2.4
a+f+g	1	1.2
a+b+c+f	2	2.4
d+f+g+h	1	1.2
a+b+e+f	1	1.2
a+b+c+d	1	1.2
c+d+f+g	2	2.4
b+e+f+g	3	3.6
a+b+f+g	6	7.2
a+c+d+f	1	1.2
b+f+g+h	1	1.2
b+c+d+f	1	1.2
a+b+c+d+f	2	2.4
a+b+e+f+g	1	1.2
b+c+d+e+f+g	3	3.6
b+c+d+e+f	2	2.4
a+c+e+f+g	1	1.2
a+b+c+e+f	1	1.2
a+c+d+e+f	1	1.2
a+b+f+g+h	1	1.2
a+b+d+f+g+h	1	1.2
a+b+e+f+g	1	1.2
a+b+c+d+f	1	1.2
a+b+d+f+g	1	1.2
a+c+d+e+f+g	2	2.4
No answer	1	1.2
All of them	9	10.8
Total	83	100.0

This question was asked to elicit the teachers' views on what the aim of writing instruction should be. With reference to the teachers' answers to this question, it can be deduced that the respondents do not come to agreement as to what the aim of writing instruction should be. Many answers have been recorded and each is very different from the other. Only 10.8% of the teachers claimed the aim of writing instruction should be helping pupils enlarge their knowledge about a given topic/genre, helping them engage in the writing activity and learn grammar rules, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation, and helping pupils link ideas appropriately and write using appropriate format. 7.2% of the respondents claimed the aim of writing instruction should relate to helping pupils enlarge their knowledge about a given topic/genre, to helping pupils engage in the writing activity, and to helping them link ideas appropriately and write using appropriate format. This

implies that the teachers do not all have very similar opinions, and this predispose them to approaching writing instruction differently. This can point to the fact that writing instruction within the CBA scope is rather ambiguous for the teachers given their very different views.

Q11 : From your perspective, what is the most successful approach to teaching writing?

Table 18: *Teachers' Views on the Most Successful Approach to Teaching Writing.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
The product approach	9	10.8
The process approach	48	57.8
The genre approach	10	12.0
The process-genre approach	12	14.5
No answer	4	4.8
Total	83	100

This question was asked to determine the teachers' views on the different approaches to writing instruction and the one they think works better in so doing. The results displayed on the table indicate that a considerable percentage of the teachers (57.8%) considered the process approach as being the most successful in teaching writing while only 14.5% thought it is the process-genre approach. 12% of the respondents opted for the genre approach and 10.8% for the product approach. As maintained by Ameziane et al. (2005, p. 7), "The learners are always asked to write with a purpose, e.g., a letter of reply to a pen-friend giving information about their families and country…. Writing tasks emphasise the product as much as the process." Given the fact that the largest proportion of teachers opted for the process approach to writing instruction, the teachers are supposed to adopt it in their classrooms, something that is to be checked from their answers to the questions of the coming sections. Moreover, their choice does not seem to fully comply with what writing instruction within the CBA entails.

Section Three: Teachers' Views on the CBA and its Implementation in the Algerian Context.

Q12: How would you estimate your overall knowledge about the CBA?

Table 19: *Teachers' Estimation of their Knowledge about the CBA.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Very sufficient	8	09.6
Sufficient	50	60.2
Average	21	25.3
Limited	3	03.6
No answer	1	1.2
Total	83	100.0

The aim of such question was to estimate the teachers' overall knowledge about the CBA. 60.2% of the teachers asserted they had sufficient knowledge on the CBA while 25.3% of them considered their saviors as being average. It can then be stated that the majority of the teachers stand to be knowledgeable about the CBA tenets.

Q13: Please respond to the following statements about the CBA, and decide whether you strongly agree **(SA)**, you agree **(A)**, you are undecided **(U)**, you disagree **(D)**, or you strongly disagree **(SD)**.

Table 20: *Teachers' Views on the CBA Principles.*

Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	NA	Total
Teachers should make pupils autonomous individuals able of coping with the demands of the world.	59,1%	31,3%	2,4%	4,8%	0%	2,4%	100%
Teachers should make outcomes explicit	12%	54.2%	13.3%	15.7%	2.4%	2.4%	100%
Teachers should assume different roles	63.9%	25.3%	7.2%	3.6%	0%	0%	100%
Teachers should implement diagnostic evaluation	63.9%	32.5%	2.4%	0%	1.2%	0%	100%
Teachers should engage pupils in pair/group work	60.2%	33.7%	0%	2.4%	0%	3.7%	100%
Teachers should continuously evaluate pupils' performances	25.3%	63.9%	8.4%	2.4%	0%	0%	100%
Pupils should be active participants, autonomous learners, and evaluators of their own learning.	50.6%	39.8%	6%	3.6%	0%	0%	100%
Pupils should be able mobilize resources and integrate different							

skills for authentic meaningful communication and successful functioning in society.	37.3%	51.8%	9.6%	0%	0%	1.2%	100%

The aim of this question was in fact to confirm the teachers' answers to the previous question. As to the first statement, 90.4% of the teachers agreed that their main concern should be making pupils autonomous individuals able of coping with the demands of the world. Only 4.8% of them disagreed with such principle. Furthermore, 66.2% of the respondents claimed they should make outcomes explicit by reminding pupils about the objectives of each lesson while 18.1% disagreed with such statement. Moreover, a proportion of 89.2% explained they should assume different roles: needs analysts, facilitators, guides, assistants, evaluators, and co-learners and only 3.6% of them disagreed with this concern. The results displayed in the table above point to the fact that the majority of the teachers are knowledgeable about the principles of the CBA.

Q14: What do you think the major aim of the CBA with reference to the teaching of English in Algerian secondary schools is?

The aim of this question was to come and confirm the teachers' understanding and awareness of the CBA principles. The answers to this question varied but all turned around the same axis. It is to be noted that few teachers did not provide any answer (16.9%) and the remaining participants provided one of the following answers:

- To make learners able of using English at international level
- To prepare learners to be good citizens ready to face real-life issues using knowledge, skills, and attitudes
- To prepare learners to be competent members in society, capable of communicating in different social contexts
- To modernize and develop education to face globalization requirements

- To produce autonomous learners able to perform tasks on their own

- To make learners develop critical thinking skills

- To form learners who are able to integrate the skills learned in the classroom and reinvest them in real-life situations in class and at social and professional level

- To make learners learn by themselves and regulate their own learning

- To make learners able to interact, interpret, and produce language to solve problems

- To teach English for communication and to develop communicative competence

One teacher provided a special answer and maintained that the CBA has been designed to equip learners with minimum skills that have to be exploited and integrated to achieve higher learning skills outcomes, which is unluckily not the right profile in our case. This does point to the fact that the majority of teachers do actually understand the CBA and its aims, but this is not really sufficient because theory and practice are very often far from going alongside.

Q15: To what extent do you think the English curriculum and syllabus match to the second year textbook 'Getting Through'?

Table 21: *Teachers' Views on the Correspondence of the English Curriculum and Syllabus to the textbook 'Getting Through'.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Extremely	1	1.2
Significantly	16	19.3
Moderately	54	65.1
Not at all	5	6.0
I do not know	5	6.0
No answer	2	2.4
Total	83	100.0

This question was posed to know about the teachers' views on the English curriculum and syllabus and their compatibility with the second year secondary school textbook

'Getting Through', as these are supposed to be the source of language input necessary for the putting into practice of the approach. More than half of the population (65.1%) acknowledged that these moderately matched to each other while 19.3% of them claimed the two corresponded significantly. 6% of the teachers asserted the English curriculum and syllabus do not correspond at all to the textbook. Such findings do in fact mirror the present teaching situation of English at secondary schools and suggest the existence of some inadequacies and problems.

Q16: Do you think that the current teaching/learning conditions are favourable for implementing the CBA?

Table 22: *Teachers' Views on the Teaching/Learning Conditions and the CBA Implementation*.

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Yes	5	6.0
No	75	90.4
No answer	3	3.6
Total	83	100.0

The aim of this question was to collect the teachers' opinions on the present teaching/learning conditions and the implementation of the CBA in the Algerian context. As expected, almost all of the teachers (90.4%) agreed on the fact that the present conditions are not favourable to implementing the approach while only 6% of them maintained the conditions are in favour of such practice. Such findings confirm the teachers' answers to questions 14 and 15. This can point to the fact that teaching English in Algerian secondary schools knows some problems and difficulties that calls for revisiting the implementation of the approach.

Q17: Please explain why.

Not all participants provided answers to this question (as was the case with the other open-ended questions). Only 73.5% answered in one of the following ways:

- ICTs and materials are not always available

- The syllabus does not deal with actual facts

- The textbook hinders the implementation of the CBA in that it is not well-designed in terms of coverage

- Large size classes

- Absence of teacher training programmes

- Insufficient time allotted to English course

- Lecturing and spoon-feeding has become common practice in the classroom

One of the respondents provided the following justification:

"Implementing the CBA is like growing rice in the desert. The CBA requires learners to have a minimum back ground to spark on the interchange and progress. Unfortunately, the intellectual and social platform is unfit and unready to do so."

It is then very clear that the teachers of English in Algerian secondary schools are not satisfied with the current teaching conditions, something that can negatively influence the efficacy of instruction.

Q18: To what extent do you think the CBA has succeeded in improving pupils' achievements?

Table 23: *Teachers' Views on the Extent of Success of the CBA in Pupils' Achievements Improvement.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Extremely	1	1.2
Significantly	10	12.0
Moderately	62	74.7
Not at all	10	12.0
Total	83	100.0

This question aimed at investigating the teachers' attitudes towards the efficacy of the CBA in improving pupils' achievements. The results shown on the table above plainly demonstrate that the CBA has not really been effective in improving pupils' achievements

in that 74.7% of the respondents claimed it has only moderately enhanced pupils' achievements while only 12% reported it significantly did that. A similar proportion (12%) maintained the CBA did not at all ameliorate pupils' achievements. These answers come to question the efficacy of the CBA in developing pupils' proficiency level.

Section Four: Teachers' Views on the Teaching of Writing under the CBA

The aim of this section was to explore the teachers' opinions on the teaching of writing within the scope of the CBA, to reveal any existing problems in relation to classroom practices, and to hopefully come to propose tentative solutions and redirect the teaching of writing into the route of success.

A. Teachers' Views on the Writing Materials.

Q19: To what extent do you think the second year syllabus of English is helpful in developing pupils' writing abilities?

Table 24: *Teachers' Views on the Extent to which the Second Year Syllabus is helpful in Developing Pupils' Writing Abilities.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Extremely	2	2.4
Significantly	42	50.6
Moderately	37	44.6
Not at all	1	1.2
No answer	1	1.2
Total	83	100.0

The aim of this question was to estimate the degree to which the teachers view the second year syllabus as being helpful in enhancing pupils' writing skills. A percentage of 50.6% of the participants reported the second year secondary school textbook significantly helps develop pupils' writing abilities, and 44.6% of the teachers claimed it did that moderately. These findings come to suggest that a considerable proportion of the teachers seem to be satisfied with the second year syllabus of English.

Q20: To what extent do you think the writing component is appropriately and sufficiently covered in the second year English textbook 'Getting Through'?

Table 25: *Teachers' Views on the Extent of Appropriacy and Sufficiency of the Writing Component in 'Getting Through'.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Extremely	2	2,4
Significantly	43	51,8
Moderately	35	42,2
Not at all	1	1,2
No answer	2	2,4
Total	83	100,0

This question aimed at getting insights into the different writing tasks and materials included in the textbook 'Getting Through' from the teachers' perspectives. Seemingly, the results are positive in that 51.8% of the teachers considered the writing component as being significantly appropriate and sufficient in terms of coverage, 42.2% thought it was moderately appropriate and sufficient, and 1.2% claimed it was not at all appropriately and sufficiently covered. As a starting point, there seems to be satisfaction as to the writing component coverage in the textbook 'Getting Through'.

Q21: How often do you adapt (change or modify) writing parts/activities of the second year textbook?

Table 26: *Frequency of Teachers' Adaptation Practices in the Second Year Textbook.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Always	9	10,9
Sometimes	65	78,3
Rarely	6	7,2
Never	1	1,2
No answer	2	2,4
Total	83	100,0

This question was asked to measure the frequency of the teachers' adaptation practices in relation to the writing component in the textbook 'Getting Through'. The above table suggests that such adaptation sometimes seemed to concern a considerable number of the participants (78.3%) and 10.9% of them reported they always practised such adaptation. Such findings come to contradict with the results obtained from questions 19

and 20. Though satisfying the syllabus and the writing component were to the teachers, the latter did resort to adapting writing tasks and materials. The coming question is supposed to reveal the reasons behind such adaptation practices.

Q22: Why do you opt for such adaptation? **(Please choose one or more options)**

    a.   The activities are beyond students' level of ability

    b.   The activities are not appealing to students' interests

    c.   The activities do not match to students' needs and academic expectations

    d.   Others (Please specify)…………

Table 27: *Teachers' Reasons for Adaptation.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
A	6	7.5%
B	15	18.75%
C	8	10%
D	0	0%
a+b	17	21.25%
a+c	3	3.75%
b+c	13	16.25%
b+d	2	2.5%
a+b+c	13	16.25%
b+c+d	1	1.25%
No answer	2	2.5%
Total	80	100%

The aim of this question was to identify the teachers' reasons behind adapting writing materials. From the table above, it can be concluded that the teachers do actually adapt writing activities and materials for different reasons. 21.25% of the respondents claimed they adapted the activities because they were beyond pupils' level of ability and also because they were not that interesting to them. In addition, 18.75% claimed that they did resort to adaptation for the tasks were not appealing to pupils' interests, and 16.25% did that for the tasks were difficult to pupils, uninteresting, and did not match to their needs and academic expectations. These findings do come to be contradictory to the results of

questions 20 and 21 where teachers reported their satisfaction with the coverage of the writing component.

Q23: What specific parts (whole unit or activities) of the second year textbook would you suggest to be modified? **(Please write the numbers of both of the activity and the page).**

The aim of this question was to specify the different writing tasks/parts that the teachers suggest to adapt or modify. Only 48.2% of the teachers provided answers to this question. These can be organized as follows:

Table 28: *Teachers' Suggestions about the Writing Activities/Parts to be Modified.*

Unit	Page	Activity number/Type
Signs of the Time	16-17 29 All unit needs updating	1&2 Write it out
Make Peace	41 46 50	Write it Right 2 Write it Out
Waste Not Want Not	63 65 68	Write it Right 1, 2, & 3 Write it Up, p.89
Budding Scientist	80 86 88 89 96	Reading & Writing 1, 2, &3 Write it Up 1&2 Exploring Matters Further
News and Tales	103	Write it Right
No Man is an Island	122-123	Practice Task 1
Science or Fiction?	139 142 148 149 The whole unit should be changed	Text task 1 Write it Right 1 &2 Reading and Writing

Q24: How often do you opt for other materials for the teaching of writing?

Table 29: *Teachers' Use of Alternative Materials for Teaching Writing.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Always	10	12.1
Sometimes	51	61.4
Rarely	16	19.3
Never	4	4.8
No answer	2	2.4
Total	83	100.0

The aim behind asking this question was to know whether or not the teachers used alternative materials to teach writing. As the results display, 92.8% of the teachers did actually resort to alternative materials with changing frequencies. Among these, 61.4% of the respondents sometimes resorted to other materials, 12.1% of them always used alternative materials, and 19.3% rarely did that. It can be understood that more than half of the teachers are not really satisfied with the content of the textbook to the extent that they look for other materials to teach their pupils the writing skill. This does but point to the fact that the textbook 'Getting Through' needs some revision and reconsideration of its writing component, a result that come to contradict with that of question 20, in which half of the population expressed its satisfaction with the writing component of the second year textbook.

Q25: What type of materials do you generally opt for?

    a. Authentic materials

    b. Ready-made materials from the internet

    c. Others (Please specify)…

Table 30: *Types of Alternative Materials.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
A	31	40.2
B	20	26
C	6	7.8
a+b	18	23.4
a+c	2	2.6
Total	77	100,0

This question was posed with the intent to identify the types of alternative materials used for teaching writing. From the results shown in the table above, it can be noted that 40.2% of the teachers used authentic materials, 26% of them were less creative and opted for ready-made materials from the internet, and 23.4% of the participants claimed they used both of them. A percentage of 7.8% of the respondents preferred to rely on other materials, namely pictures, printable, audios, worksheets, videos to help generate ideas, videos they produced, activities they designed, or even materials they adapted from the net, ICT's, or books. One teacher explained that he/she generally took ideas from materials found in the net and modified them to suit pupils' level and lesson objectives. Using authentic materials is to the core of the CBA as these directly put pupils in real life situations where they are supposed to use their know how to do skills to try to produce instances of the target language. Moreover, using ICT's is also important in teaching within the CBA.

B. Teachers' Views on the Teaching Methodology

Q26: As to the teaching of writing, how often do you practise the following in your class? (**A**) Always; (**Rg**) Regularly; (**S**) Sometimes; (**R**) Rarely; (**N**) Never; (**NA**) No answer.

Table 31: *Frequency of Teachers' Classroom Practices.*

Practices	A	Rg	S	R	N	NA	Total
You act as a guide, you encourage pupils, and you provide positive constructive suggestions on what has been written.	34.9%	54.2%	9.6%	0%	0%	1.2%	100%
You choose the writing topics with consideration of pupils' interests and needs.	59%	10.8%	27.7%	0%	0%	2.4%	100%
You engage pupils in implementing different writing strategies in the different	22.9%	47%	20.5%	8.4%	0%	1.2%	100%

writing processes.							
You incorporate listening, speaking, and reading in your writing class.	20.5%	22.9%	45.8%	7.2%	0%	3.6%	100%
You provide a model text of the genre, and you discuss, with pupils, the structure and organisation of such text meant for reaching a given purpose.	7.2%	32.5%	33.7%	21.7%	3.6%	1.2%	100%
You engage pupils in different meaningful activities (brainstorming, discussing, reading the text).	48.2%	38.6%	7.2%	4.8%	0%	1.2%	100%
You work together with pupils and start composing (pupils provide ideas, and you write the generated text).	25.3%	34.9%	24.1%	7.2%	3.6%	4.8%	100%
You help pupils when writing their own texts, and you check their progress.	47%	39.8%	7.2%	1.2%	1.2%	3.6%	100%
You ask pupils to revise their first drafts.	45.8%	27.7%	18.1%	6%	1.2%	1.2%	100%
You ask pupils to revise each other's first drafts.	18.1%	16.9%	42.2%	12%	7.2%	3.6%	100%
You proofread and edit pupils' final drafts.	26.5%	38.6%	22.9%	3.6%	2.4%	6%	100%
You ask pupils to proofread and edit their final drafts themselves.	16.9%	30.1%	28.9%	13.3%	7.2%	3.6%	100%
You ask pupils to proofread and edit each other's final drafts.	8.4%	21.7%	33.7%	16.9%	16.9%	2.4%	100%
You introduce the project at the start of each unit.	71.1%	20.5%	6%	1.2%	1.2%	0%	100%
You ask pupils to present their written projects in class.	51.8%	28.9%	13.3%	1.2%	2.4%	2.4%	100%
You correct pupils' projects, and you give a score.	54.2%	30.1%	12%	1.2%	0%	2.4%	100%
You provide feedback on pupils' texts yourself.	20.5%	26.5%	33.7%	14.5%	0%	4.8%	100%
You ask pupils to provide their peers with feedback on their texts.	9.6%	20.5%	39.8%	13.3%	13.3%	3.6%	100%
You assess, correct, and score your pupils written productions.	33.7%	34.9%	25.3%	2.4%	1.2%	2.4%	100%
You ask pupils to assess, correct, and score their own written productions.	3.6%	13.3%	34.9%	19.3%	26.5%	2.4%	100%
You ask pupils to assess, correct, and score each other's written productions.	2.4%	15.7%	39.8%	8.4%	30.1%	3.6%	100%

| You test pupils' writing skills at the start of the school year. | 43.4% | 20.5% | 20.5% | 8.4% | 4.8% | 2.4% | 100% |

The aim of this sub-section was to get an idea about the different teachers' classroom practices in relation to the teaching of writing and to be able to identify the most frequent practices and the least frequent ones in such a way as to infer the writing instruction orientation mostly adopted in their classes. Such findings would hopefully set grounds for the ability to situate their practices with regard to the CBA principles.

As for the first classroom practice, relating to the teachers acting as a guide, encouraging pupils and providing positive constructive feedback on written productions, a percentage of 54.2% of the teachers regularly practised such a role, and 34.9% of them always did it. As it can be understood, the majority of the teachers did actually act as guides, motivated pupils and provided positive feedback on their pupils' written productions, a classroom practice that is closely tied to the principles of the CBA, which is far from being teacher-centered. Furthermore, a considerable number of the teachers (69.8%) reported they, either always or regularly, chose the writing topics with consideration of their pupils' needs and interests, while only 27.7% claimed they did that from time to time. Such results directly point to the fact that the teachers consider their pupils as the center of their concerns and this is to the core of the CBA.

A percentage of 22.9% of the teachers explained they always engaged pupils in implementing different writing strategies in the different writing processes, and 47% of them did that rather regularly. A proportion of 20.5% of the participants claimed they sometimes involved pupils in using different writing strategies when writing texts. On account of such findings, it is clear that the teachers do in fact involve the pupils in using writing strategies, without which writing instruction would be ineffective. Such practice is very central to writing under the CBA, as elaborated in the Accompanying Document (2005).

As for skills integration in the writing class, 20.5% of the respondents reported they always practised it, and 22.9% of them claimed they regularly integrated listening, speaking, and reading in their writing classes. A considerable number of the teachers (45.8%) sometimes practised skills integration while only 7.2% of them rarely opted for such a practice. These findings clearly indicate that skills integration, a key feature of the CBA, is not very frequently practised when teaching writing. Teaching writing under the CBA is, however, highly based on situations of integration where pupils are supposed to call for previously learnt skills and mobilize them appropriately to solve problem situations and produce written instances of the target language.

More importantly, a percentage of 32.5% of the teachers explained they regularly provided a model text of the genre, and they discussed, with pupils, the structure and organisation of such a text meant for reaching a given purpose. 33.7% of them sometimes practised this in their writing classes, and 21.7% of the teachers did it rarely. Only 7.2% of them acknowledged they always played such role, which is typical to the process-genre approach to teaching writing, an orientation that seems to be by and large well-matched with the CBA. Similarly, engaging pupils in different meaningful activities such as brainstorming, discussing, and reading the text, a practice usually related to both the process-genre and the process approaches to teaching writing, was frequently opted for by the majority of the teachers in that 48.2% and 38.6% of them reported they always and regularly did this respectively. Moreover, 25.3% of the teachers asserted they always worked together with pupils, who provided ideas, and the teachers generated the written texts; 34.9% of them reported that such a practice was done regularly with pupils. 24.1% of the participants explained that such an activity was sometimes done. Being an important step in the process-genre model suggested by Badger and White (2000), joint construction as a step is supposedly helpful in providing a model text for pupils introducing the

language structures and genres needed to reach a given purpose before actually starting the independent composition process. Such practice is, then, somehow frequent in the writing class, and the teachers do not even seem to be knowledgeable about this writing instruction orientation, as was confirmed in the previous questions (10 & 11). Interestingly, a large number of the teachers did accompany their pupils in the process of writing texts and checked their progress (86.8% of them did it either always or regularly), a practice that is very common the CBA.

As for revising written drafts, 45.8% of the teachers acknowledged they always asked their pupils to revise their first drafts while 27.7% of them said they regularly did that. Exchanging drafts between peers to be revised did not seem to be of the teachers' concerns as only 18.1% of them reported they always opted for peer revision, and only 16.9% regularly practised it. However, 42.2% of the teachers said they sometimes opted for peer revision. The teachers, then, do not seem to favour working with peers when teaching writing. Concerning proofreading and editing practices, the results indicate that the teachers were the ones who most frequently practised the proofreading and editing of pupils' drafts in their writing classes as 65.1% of them claimed they always and regularly did such an activity. 47% of them reported they always and regularly opted for self-proofreading and editing of written drafts, and only 30.1% of the teachers maintained they always and regularly used peer proofreading and editing. These findings clearly point to the fact that though the teachers seem to be knowledgeable about the CBA principles, when it comes to practice, they do not actually and fully apply its principles because they did not solicit peers in proofreading and editing and rather preferred to do this by themselves. These results also indicate that the teachers' practices in the writing class were not relevant to learner-centeredness, a key feature of the CBA.

With regard to project work, 71.1% of the respondents indicated they always introduced the project at the start of the unit, and 20.5% of them regularly did it at the beginning of the unit. In addition, 51.8% of the teachers claimed they always asked their pupils to present their written projects in class, and 28.9% of them regularly opted for such a class practice. Moreover, 84.3% of the teachers always and regularly corrected and scored their pupils' written projects. Central to the CBA is the project work, an idea that was put in plain words by Ameziane et al. (2005):

> At unit level, project work offers a target situation wherein the learners mobilise and integrate the primary and social skills as well as the corresponding functions, strategies and language forms. These are developed in streamlined situations of in the sequences and sections of the unit. It goes without saying that the process of integration and mobilisation of previous knowledge and know-how in carrying out the project will also lead the learners to operate at a more complex level of the cognitive process. There is no surprise for this since the process of project materialising will certainly boost up their egos and make them take more initiative and responsibility for their learning (p. 19).

As to feedback, the teachers did not incite their pupils to practice peer feedback in that only 9.6% of them reported they always asked pupils to provide their peers with feedback on their written texts, and 20.5% regularly involved their pupils in this practice. However, teacher feedback was more frequently practised as 20.5% and 26.5% of the teachers claimed they always and regularly provided feedback themselves. So, teachers' feedback was more frequently practised than peer feedback.

In the writing class, and in relation to assessing, correcting, and scoring pupils' written productions, teachers' assessment is the most frequent practice. A percentage of 33.7% of the teachers explained they themselves always evaluated, corrected, and scored their

pupils' written texts, 34.9% of them also asserted they did that in a regular way, and a percentage of 25.5% of the teachers sometimes did that. Furthermore, a minority of 3.6% of the teachers reported they always involved pupils in self assessment of their written texts, a percentage of 13.3% of them maintained they regularly did that, and 34.9% reported self assessment was sometimes opted for in their writing classes. Also, 19.3% of the teachers explained that self assessment was rarely practised, and a proportion of 26.5% of the respondents acknowledged this was in fact never done. As to peer assessment of written productions, the results suggest that it was not widely practised: only 2.4% of the teachers always engaged their pupils in peer assessment, 15.7% of them regularly practised this type of writing assessment, and 39.8% of them did it from time to time. Such findings suggest that teaching writing in second year secondary school classes is rather teacher-centered and is not fully compatible with the CBA tenets. This can explain the pupils' lack of creativity in writing texts and in learning the target language in general.

Central to implementing the CBA is the use of diagnostic evaluation. The results indicate that such type of evaluation was moderately practised in that 43.4% of the teachers asserted they always implemented diagnostic evaluation of writing, and 20.5% of them said they regularly opted for such a practice.

Though knowledgeable they may be about the CBA principles, and having reported views on the process approach as the most successful one to writing instruction, the teachers do not really seem to put pupils in situations where they are supposed to invite peers for collaborative class work. This can but implicitly reflect the teachers' limited knowledge about process-oriented and process-genre pedagogies advocating the importance of peer response in the writing act.

Q27. When you teach your pupils writing, what is your major focus? (Please choose one or more options)

a. The final written product

b. The processes and strategies involved in production

c. The audience/readers' satisfaction

d. The purpose of writing

e. Genre

f. Others (Please specify)……………………………………………………….

Table 32: *Teachers' Major Focus in the Teaching of Writing.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
A	6	7.2
B	8	9.6
D	2	2.4
b+d	12	14.5
a+b+c	1	1.2
b+c+d	2	2.4
a+c+d	2	2.4
a+b+d	9	10.8
b+d+e	1	1.2
a+b+e	2	2.4
a+b+c+d	6	7.2
a+b+c+f	1	1.2
a+b+d+e	1	1.2
a+b	19	22.9
a+d	4	4.8
b+c	2	2.4
b+f	1	1.2
b+e	2	2.4
No answer	1	1.2
All of them	1	1.2
Total	83	100.0

The aim of this question was to elicit the teachers' answers about their actual focus when teaching writing in their classes, so as to infer their opinions about the approach they likely adopted in their teaching of writing in their classes. A percentage of 22.9%of the informants asserted they focus much more on both the final product and also the writing processes and strategies involved in text production. In addition, 14.5% of the teachers explained the focus was a combination of both the processes and strategies involved in writing and the purpose for which pupils write. 1.2% of them explained the focus was on

the processes and strategies and also on the relevance of ideas to the topic. A similar percentage claimed the focus was on the final product, the processes and strategies, the audience, and on skills integration in writing instruction, and the same percentage also claimed the focus was on the final product, the writing strategies and processes, the audience, and evaluating pupils' progress and preparing feedback. Likewise, only 1.2% of the informants claimed the focus was on all, the final product, the writing processes and strategies, the genre, the audience, and the purpose of writing, a view that seems to be parallel to the process-genre orientation to writing instruction.

Q28. What type of feedback do you generally provide in relation to writing? (Please choose one or more options)

a. Verbal comments

b. Written comments

c. Marks

d. Teacher-student conferencing

e. Others (Please specify)……………………………………………………..

Table 33: *Teachers' Type of Feedback.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
A	5	6.0
B	8	9.6
C	1	1.2
D	2	2.4
a+b	11	13.3
a+c	5	6.0
b+d	3	3.6
a+e	1	1.2
a+d	3	3.6
b+c	9	10.8
a+b+c	23	27.7
a+b+d	7	8.4
b+c+d	1	1.2
b+c+e	1	1.2
All of them	3	3.6

	Total	83	100.0

This question was posed to know about the teachers' practices in relation to feedback. 27.7% of the teachers claimed they opted for Verbal comments, written comments, and marks, all being types of teacher feedback. A minor percentage (2.4%) of them explained they used teacher-student conferencing, which is common to learner-centered systems in general and the CBA in particular. Only 1.2% of the teachers asserted they used written comments, marks, and quick writing (encouraging pupils to write whatever thing coming to their minds) without mentioning mistakes. A similar percentage noted they used verbal comments and also sample compositions written by good students as feedback on what had been written. Hence, the teachers' practices in relation to feedback do not seem to be learner- centered and are not in clear harmony with the CBA principles leading pupils to creativity, autonomy, and to regulating their own learning.

Q29. What evaluation procedures/tools do you generally opt for in relation to writing? **(**Please choose one or more options)

    a. The portfolio

    b. The reflective journal

    c. The interview

    d. Classroom debates

    e. Conferences

    f. Others(Please specify)…………………………………………………………..

Table 34: *Teachers' Types of Evaluation Procedures of Writing.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
A	4	4.8
B	3	3.6
C	3	3.6
D	40	48.2

a+b	1	1.2
a+d	5	6.0
a+e	1	1.2
b+d	4	4.8
c+d	5	6.0
d+e	5	6.0
a+c+d	2	2.4
a+d+e	2	2.4
b+c+d	2	2.4
c+d+f	1	1.2
a+c+d+f	1	1.2
No answer	4	4.8
Total	83	100.0

The aim behind asking such a question was to know about the teachers' evaluation practices in relation to the writing skill and the different classroom procedures they adopted for so doing. As the above table displays, the most widely used procedure for evaluating writing was making class debates with pupils (48.2% of the teachers). As to portfolio assessment, only 4.8% of the teachers explained they used it to evaluate their pupils' writing skills. 3.6% of them claimed they used the reflective journal, and the same number also reported the use of the interview. 6% of the informants explained they used both classroom debates and conferences. 1.2% of the teachers maintained they opted for the interview, classroom debates and remedial work while the same percentage acknowledged the use of the portfolio, the interview, classroom debates, assignments, and tests to evaluate their pupils' writing abilities. Owing to these findings, it is noteworthy that the teachers are not knowledgeable enough about the many evaluation procedures relevant to writing within the CBA. As elaborated in the all official documents delivered by the Algerian Ministry of Education, the use of the portfolio, the reflective journal, the interview, the class debates, conferences is to the core of formative evaluation of pupils' writing achievements and competences.

C. Teachers' Views on the Encountered Problems and Solutions.

Q30. To what extent do you think you have so far succeeded in teaching writing in your classes?

Table 35: *Teachers' Estimation of Success in Teaching Writing.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Extremely	2	2,4
Significantly	22	26,5
Moderately	58	69,9
No answer	1	1,2
Total	83	100,0

This question aimed at eliciting the teachers' opinions as to estimating the degree to which they thought they succeeded in teaching writing in their classes. A percentage of 69.9% of the teachers claimed they moderately succeeded in teaching their pupils writing, and 26.5% of them reported they significantly succeeded in doing that. Only 2.4% of the respondents claimed they extremely succeeded in teaching their pupils writing. Such findings indicate that the teaching of writing causes problems to a considerable number of teachers, and this is to be confirmed from the answers to question 31.

Q32. Do you encounter difficulties when teaching your pupils writing?

Table 36: *The Existence of Difficulties in Teaching Writing.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
Yes	81	97,6
No	2	2,4
Total	83	100,0

This question was posed with the intent to confirm the teachers' answers to the previous question. As expected, almost all teachers acknowledged the existence of difficulties and problems in the process of teaching writing. This can but mirror the teaching realities of EFL in general and the writing skill in particular.

Q33. If yes, what do these difficulties relate to? (Choose one or more options)

  a. To textbook implementation

  b. To students' low level of ability

c. To a difficulty of the writing activities

d. To the difficult language of the assignments

e. Others (Please specify)…………………………………………

Table 37: *Causes of Difficulties in Teaching Writing.*

Options	Frequency	Percentage%
B	30	37,1
C	1	1,2
a+b	14	17,3
b+c	15	18,5
b+e	6	7,4
b+d	3	3,7
a+b+c	6	7,4
a+b+d	2	2,5
All of them	4	4,9
Total	81	100,0

The aim of this question was to know the different possible sources of difficulties lying behind such a reality. The results shown on the table above indicated that the difficulties related to different issues with varying percentages. Such difficulties mostly related to pupils low level of ability (37.1%), to both pupils' poor writing abilities and the difficulty of the writing activities (18.5%), and to both textbook implementation and pupils' low levels of ability (17.3%).

Q34. What are the most appropriate strategies you view relevant to teaching writing?

Concerning this question, all of the teachers provided many answers and these were the most widely reported answers.

- Brainstorming topics, mind mapping, journal writing, free writing, outlining, reviewing and editing

- Stimulating creativity in writing; encouraging reading, conversation and dialogues to master language forms, as these pave the way for writing

- Providing samples of written texts

- Using debates to discuss writing topics

- Continuously evaluating pupils' productions

- Using group work writing activities; using the four square writing method

As it may be noticed, the teachers' answers did not relate to self assessment, peer assessment, peer feedback, and portfolio implementation as being relevant to teaching writing under the CBA. This again confirms their limited knowledge about both the different writing instruction orientations and the relevance of these to implementing the CBA.

Q35. How do you think you can improve your pupils' writing performances?

The aim behind posing such a question was to elicit answers about tentative solutions the teachers may provide with reference to effective writing instruction and improving pupils' writing performances. Concerning this question, 96.4% of the teachers provided answers while the remaining 3.6% did not .The following answers were mostly recorded:

- More practice of writing should be the concern of both teachers and pupils alike.

- Writing should be practised in a way as to develop critical thinking skills.

- Writing should be an interactive, not a static process comprising both the teacher and the learner.

- Teaching writing should be approached as a step by step process.

- Pupils should be encouraged to express their ideas freely.

- Pupils should be involved in selecting topics for the writing act, and these should be chosen/ discussed with consideration of pupils' needs, interests, and life expectations.

- Motivating pupils to write is a key element to improve writing performance

- Reading and summarizing help develop pupils' writing potential.

- Exposing pupils to different genres is likely to promote writing development.

- Writing cooperatively has shown to be effective as a writing strategy.

- Reducing class size helps make supervision of the writing act possible and more lucrative.

- Remedial work sessions should be programmed regularly within the same unit.

- Textbooks should be designed with consideration of learners' needs.

- Given its importance, the teaching of writing should be attributed more time and effort on the part of both teachers and pupils.

- Improving pupils' cognitive skills (analysis, synthesis, etc) helps make learners regulate their own learning and make it more conducive to writing development.

- Practising topic sentences, thesis statements, etc, and the different rhetorical patterns of writing empowers learners' writing creativity.

- Peer assessment and self-assessment should be solicited.

- Integrating skills and making pupils aware of the necessity to write for an audience for real purpose.

- Writing materials should be authentic and should relate to pupils' social life.

- Giving pupils written homework in the form of integration situations for problem solving.

Though aware the teachers seem to be about the different principles of the CBA and its putting into practice, they did not actually and fully apply these in their writing classes. More importantly, the teachers' practices seem to be far from being grounded in theory as

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to the systematic adoption of any given writing instruction orientation. This has made of writing a rule of thumb activity.

Section Five: Further Suggestions.

Q36. What additional comments/suggestions would you like to phrase as to the teaching of writing under the CBA?

In this section, the majority of the teachers (77.1%) did not provide any answer, possibly due to the length of the questionnaire and the number of questions they were supposed to respond to, especially that the scope of question 34 is not far from that of question 35 in this last section. Hence, that percentage 22.9% of the teachers provided nearly the same answers as those to question 34.

4.1.1.4. Discussion of the Questionnaire Results

The overall findings of this questionnaire revealed many important issues to disclose in relation to teaching writing in second year secondary school classes of English in Algeria. Put differently, the teachers' responses suggested that teaching of writing at secondary school level in Algeria knows some problems and difficulties relating to class size, pupils' low levels of writing ability, textbook implementation, unavailability of materials, and absence of any teacher training programmes. The results also denoted the teachers' awareness of the basic principles of the CBA, namely, learner-centeredness, outcome-orientation, developing learners' autonomy, diversity and non-centrality of teachers' roles, implementation of diagnostic evaluation, cooperation, collaboration, continuous assessment, resources mobilization, and skills integration. Moreover, the teachers held positive attitudes towards the writing skill and agreed on its centrality to teaching EFL; however, they had a somewhat limited knowledge about the different traditions of writing

instruction in EFL. This may negatively affect their teaching practices and make them a rule of thumb activity.

Though knowledgeable the teachers were about the CBA and its basic claims, their classroom practices in relation to writing-as they reported- were far from being totally compatible with its principles in that they did not encourage pupils to practise self and peer-assessment, peer revision and editing of drafts, peer feedback, or even to implement portfolios, reflective journals, and conferences to assess or to learn the art of composing. Furthermore, the teachers reported their discontent with the writing component in the SE2 textbook 'Getting Through' and expressed the need for adapting some writing activities/parts and units. They went further to view writing instruction as causing problems to them and acknowledged their failure in the teaching of writing. This can but point to the current reality of teaching writing in SE2 level in Algeria as being somehow defective. This may call for the need to reconsider the writing instruction methodology to hopefully render it in the route for efficacy. Moreover, the teachers were not knowledgeable enough about the process and process-genre traditions to writing instruction, but asserted that these were the most successful orientations to writing instruction.

The current reality of teaching writing in SE2 level in Algeria requires reconsideration and rethinking in relation to the underlying claims of both writing instruction and the CBA. On the one hand, and because the teachers seem to be lacking knowledge of the basic teaching traditions of writing and their putting into practice, it is very important to programme training courses, seminars, and workshops for teachers in order to instruct them on the different approaches to teaching writing, and to inspire their teaching practices, for putting the approach into practice is itself still causing trouble and ambiguity to field practitioners.

Furthermore, teachers need to multiply opportunities for pupils to practise the writing skill as this familiarizes them with the act of composing and develops their creative skills. Furthermore, the educational authorities need to organise textbook and syllabi design, revision, adaptation, and renewal projects, and actively engage in-service teachers is such a practice. In so doing, learners' needs should imperatively be accounted for.

As an attempt to provide tentative solutions, it has almost become evident that we need to question our know-how to do skills in order to develop the writing competence in EFL. This seems to be very demanding on the part of both teachers and learners who may fail in situating theory and practice in the continuum of writing instruction in the CBA classrooms.

To this end, relevant are the words of Raimes (1991, p. 407), *'emerging traditions reflecting shared recognitions'*. Such emerging traditions do not necessitate resorting to any unique teaching tradition of writing in its own, nor do they corroborate the supremacy of any in writing instruction. Rather, they implicate conventional knowledge of the how, the how often, the where, the when, the who, and the whom to teach writing to. Venturing into the scrutiny of these with the intent to master the writing competence regardless of the teaching orientation will by all means empower the writing activity and make it an enjoyable experience.

4.1.2. Classroom Observation

As explained in the third chapter, observation, as one qualitative research tool and a basic procedure to be implemented when conducting evaluation, relates to examining teaching/learning events with the purpose of collecting and analysing information relevant to the pre-arranged research plans and intentions. As explained by Cohen et al. (2007), "The distinctive feature of observation as a research process is that it offers an investigator

the opportunity to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring social situations." (p. 396). It, then, mirrors the everyday teaching and learning experience in classrooms, with the intent to portray, as fully as possible, the specificities of daily classroom practice.

4.1.2.1. Aims of Classroom Observation

Before conducting classroom observation, it is very important to adopt a plan on which to work, and planning does actually necessitate considering the very basic elements central to the practice of classroom evaluation through observational procedures. The aim of this classroom observation is threefold. Firstly, it is directed towards gaining an understanding of and documenting the different realities of teaching/learning writing at SE2 level in Algeria, including the teachers' and pupils' classroom practices, in order to examine the relationship between such observed practices and the teachers' attitudes and views recorded through the questionnaire, and also with the intent to diagnose areas of difficulties or any incompatibility with the CBA principles that may lie behind pupils' low level of achievement in writing. The data to be generated from such an observation are partly informative about the teachers' awareness of the different methodologies of teaching the writing skill and to make inferences-from the teachers' practices- about the one approach that is being adopted in teaching writing within such a framework. Secondly, this classroom observation has been conducted in hopes of being insightful about the teachers' use of the SE2 textbook to teach writing in the classroom. More importantly, it hopefully aims at making suggestions likely to render writing instruction within the scope of the CBA more effective and highly aimed at.

4.1.2.2. Research Site and Sample Target Population

The present nonparticipant classroom observation, or what Spradley (1980; as cited in Mertens and McLaughlin, 2004, p. 102) called *passive participation*, was conducted at Drâa Mohammed Essadek Secondary School in Jijel District, Algeria. For ethical

considerations, permission was sought from official educational authorities in order for the researcher to gain access into the school.

Though generalisability is not aimed at, it is necessary to acknowledge the very small sample size of the population that was involved in the observation. The researcher observed only two different classes for a period of seven weeks. The researcher's intention was to observe the two teachers all along the teaching of one whole unit (in the textbook), which is supposedly to be covered in 21 hours (scientific stream), with a 3 hour weekly time load. Two second year scientific stream classes were observed. They were taught by two different teachers. The choice of the target population was subject to change. It was initially meant to be conducted with third year foreign languages classes; however, this was impossible for two reasons: the school authority did actually seem reluctant to granting the permission of observing third year classes, as these were to prepare for the official final examination, and such an observation was thought to decelerate course progression. The second reason rather related to impracticality of the observation schedule. The researcher intended to observe more than one classes taught by different teachers, and this was not possible with foreign languages stream, consisting of only one class. Moreover, having the intent to observe the same classes (level and stream) necessitated resorting to second year scientific stream classes, taught by two different teachers. Furthermore, for time table considerations, the only available teachers teaching similar level and stream students at sequential occasions were the two teachers with whom the observation was conducted.

4.1.2.3. The Participants' Profiles

The participants in this classroom observation were the two teachers instructing two different second year classes. As for the teachers, information about their profiles is presented in the table below:

Table 38: *The Participant Teachers' Profiles.*

Teacher	Age	Gender	Qualification	Experience	Experience with second year level
Teacher A	41 years	Female	Licence of English	15 years	13 years
Teacher B	29 years	Female	Licence of English	7 years	5 years

As shown in the table, teacher A has more experience in teaching EFL and also in teaching second year secondary school level pupils. Such a difference in teaching experience may translate the difference in the teaching quality and efficiency. As to the participant pupils in this classroom observation, the two observed classes consisted of 35 pupils and 32 pupils in each class, whose age ranged from 15 to 18 years old. In the first class, there were 11 boys and 24 girls, and in the second class, there were 13 boys and 19 girls. The pupils have studied EFL for 6 to 8 years.

Table 39: *The Participant Pupils' Profiles.*

	Number of pupils	Males	Females	Pupils' age	Years of studying English
Class 1	35	11	24	15 to 18	6 to 8 years
Class 2	32	13	19	15 to 17	6 to 7 years

 From the above table, it can be noticed that the classes that were subject to classroom observation were large size classes, the fact that may make the teaching activity complicated and may also question the efficacy of instruction.

Because the presence of an observer in class is very likely to alter pupils' classroom behavior and bias the study results, for the researcher to minimize the observer effect, informal classroom observation was initially implemented for a period of two weeks, in order for the pupils to get accustomed to the presence of an outsider observer necessary for

naturalistic behavior. This also gave the opportunity to the researcher to pilot the observation protocol beforehand.

4.1.2.4. The Classroom Observation Protocol

In this study, the researcher used a semi-structured classroom observation, allowing for some kind of flexibility, with a self-designed observation protocol (see Appendix C), relying on the existing literature and the case studies on observation, such as the COLT Observation Scheme (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) (Allen, Frohlitch, and Spada, 1983), the MOLT (Multidimensional Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme) devised by Turnbull (1999), Kotula et al. (2014), about developing a writing instruction observation protocol, and the different observation checklists reported in Brown et al. (1993). No specific ready-made observation instrument was implemented, for it could hardly satisfy the very peculiar research aims.

The protocol design process was in fact recursive, and the items were subject to change, refinement, and rewording. As explained above, the observation protocol was designed by the researcher on the basis of available research works related to classroom observation, and its items were actually formulated with consideration of the general aims of the research work, of the main variables of the study, and of the related literature. The protocol items did relate to questioning the compatibility of both the teachers and pupils' classroom practices with the main principles of the CBA and aimed at probing further the use of any specific writing approach. Being directed to capturing and investigating the details and the specificities of writing instruction in SE2 level, the protocol items were also meant to examine the different classroom evaluation practices and the different integration situations that were integral parts of the teaching and learning activity.

The observation protocol includes three sections (the first and second sections are the basic sections of the protocol), with some course-related information (date, time, class size, materials, objectives, and lesson focus).

- **Preparation:** It focuses on lesson preparation, and the way the teacher prepares pupils for the writing lesson. The section considered five basic elements to lesson introduction, namely, clear statement of aims and objectives, introducing pupils to the writing topic, the teachers' show of adequate and sufficient knowledge about the topic, explanation of the connections with other relevant courses, and activation of prior knowledge relevant to the writing course.

- **Teaching /Learning Situation:** This second section is further divided into two subcategories: classroom practices- including teachers' practices, pupils' practices, and evaluation practices- and integration situation. Hence, the different classroom practices relating to teaching writing in the CBA classroom were being investigated. For instance, flexibility and learners' involvement in topic selection, strategy instruction in writing tasks, skills integration, promoting learners' autonomy and centeredness, monitoring progress, feedback practices (individual, group, whole class, written comments, verbal comments, grades, …), draft revision practices, the use of self-evaluation, co-evaluation, peer evaluation, portfolios, reflective journals, etc. Though being not applicable to all writing lessons, the integration situations were to be observed and examined against the basic requirements of integration situations.

- **Overall Comments:** A final section was devoted to providing general remarks about the observation session and the writing lesson specificities.

Rating scale: The classroom observation protocol includes a number of items/criteria, which were to be observed (*Done*), *attempted to*, or not observed (*Not done*). As for the situation of integration section, the observer had to tick *yes* or *no* report the findings.

Given the fact that the teaching of writing in the observed classes-as in other settings-was highly textbook-dominated, it should be recognized that the protocol items were not all applicable to all the observed lessons. For instance, during a writing lesson in which pupils were supposed to practice writing at sentence level, the section about integration situation was not applicable.

4.1.2.5. Analysis of the Classroom Observation Findings

As already explained, this classroom observation lasted for 7 weeks, time necessary for teachers to cover a whole unit (unit four: Budding Scientist). The researcher did in fact intend to observe the two classes, from the very first lesson of the unit to the final project work presentation session, in hopes of being able to portray, even in an unstructured way, the realities of instruction in the CBA classroom and the way the teachers made use of the SE2 textbook. Moreover, the researcher did actually aim at accompanying the pupils in and at witnessing the process of competency development at unit level, and in the affirmative, get insightful about the different classroom dynamics governing the teaching act.

With reference to the SE2 textbook being the source of teaching input, the unit that was subject to classroom observation was unit four, *Budding Scientist*. Because the unit is an amalgam of language skills and aspects, the teaching of writing as a skill did not occupy the whole observation schedule, and the number of observation sessions that were concerned by writing were only 7 sessions (hours) out of a total of 21 hours for the whole unit. Henceforth, only those observation sessions concerned by writing are summarized and discussed with reference to both observed classes. As to the presentation of the

findings, it is done with respect to the observation protocol sections, each independently, with general interpretations and discussion of the results.

I. Introducing the Lesson

The first section of the protocol attempted to portray the different ways the two teachers started their writing lessons. As for teacher A, she seemed to be aware of the importance of introducing pupils to the lesson aims and objectives a priori, displaying some kind of awareness about one of the most important CBA principles. She went further to ask the pupils to remind her about the writing task objective. In many writing lessons, she introduced her pupils to the writing topic/task and insisted on activating their background knowledge relevant to the writing course. This can point to the fact that the first teacher did care about pupils' engagement in the writing lesson and about satisfying their academic needs. However, she did not explain the lesson connections to other relevant courses in all sessions, devaluing and deemphasizing any sense of cumulative knowledge and its importance in building the language competence.

As for teacher B, the lesson introduction phase in almost all observation sessions seemed to take another orientation. The teacher did not actually state the lesson objectives at the start of the session, nor did she ask her pupils to anticipate or speculate about the targeted lesson outcome. Rather, she directly initiated the lesson with no explanation of the aims and objectives and no established connections with other relevant lectures. Moreover, teacher B did, at very few occasions, activate her pupils' prior knowledge needed to advance in the writing lesson, and if done, she did not educe pupils' responses. She rather used the board to write whatever words or expressions she thought would help her introduce them to the topic of the writing lesson. She also asked her pupils questions about the previous lecture, seemingly to show them they were about to start dealing with something other than the previously seen content.

II.   Teaching/Learning Situation

1. Classroom practices

This section of the observation protocol is the one that is supposed to help answer some of the research questions. Given its orientation towards both the teachers and the pupils' classroom practices, it is thought it will elucidate ambiguities and disclose possible problems and difficulties in relation to implementing the CBA in the Algerian EFL classrooms.

a. Teachers' and Learners' Practices

Both teachers seemed to, at a few occasions, allow for some kind of flexibility and sometimes involved their pupils in the process of selecting the writing topic (as was the case with composing tasks). This is not to say that pupils were free to choose the writing topic they wanted; they just had some freedom in slightly modifying the content of the task. By so doing, pupils had the chance to participate with their ideas, and their needs in terms of topic selection were met. Such a behavior had motivated most pupils to participate in the task, and helped them feel at the center of the teaching and learning process. For example, pupils were asked to write a letter to an agony aunt (*write it up, task 1 p.88*). Teacher A asked her pupils whether they preferred to write about their personal experiences and problems, or to simply write about an imaginary situation. The observer, during this lecture, felt the teacher did really care about giving her pupils freedom to choose the topic they wanted. Similarly, teacher B set her pupils to do *task 2 p. 88*, which is about writing a reply to the one they had supposedly written to the agony aunt. The teacher asked her pupils to form groups of four pupils, then, she gave them printed letters she prepared beforehand. She asked them to choose the letters they wanted. The teacher also rewarded the groups who finished the first, and this created some positive atmosphere

for the pupils, who, during the whole session, kept captivated and motivated to do the writing task.

Both teachers did not explain to their pupils the relevance of the writing task (especially in the case of integration situations) to everyday life situations, except for one occasion (*write it up, task 1 p. 88*: writing a letter to an agony aunt), when both of them explained to their pupils that they may be found in dilemmas, and that they may have to resort to seeking advice by writing a letter to an agony aunt. Such kind of classroom practices can be explained in two possible ways: the first interpretation may relate to the possibility that this was not always done because the writing tasks themselves were not actually communicative enough to direct the teachers' attention to relating them to everyday life use; the second possible interpretation may point to the fact that the teachers are not aware of the importance of relating the knowledge about the target language to its utilitarian function in daily life settings, a concept which is to the core of competency mastery and appropriate functioning in society, basic claims of the CBA.

As for strategy instruction in writing, it did not seem to be common intentional practice of the two teachers. Put otherwise, during the 14 writing sessions attended by the researcher (7 sessions with each teacher), pupils were actually engaged in doing the writing tasks, but without being motivated to use specific writing strategies suiting specific writing task demands. The teachers did not verbally and purposefully instruct pupils how to write texts or on what specific plans and techniques to use when writing texts. Instead, they simply followed the tasks instructions without directing their pupils' attention to the importance of being aware of the know-how-to-do skills in generating texts. They often asked them to think about a given topic (brainstorming) or to follow a model (modeling), but with no explicit explanation of the importance of using such strategies to be able to

write and how to implement them. Strategy instruction was not, then, practised to its fullest end.

Concerning those writing tasks that engaged pupils in text generation, teacher A did, at a few occasions, engage pupils in writing following a process, asking them to brainstorm and think about how to generate texts and how to practise drafting. This was done with no explicit determination to deliberately adopt the process orientation to teaching writing; the teacher only meant to give enough time necessary for the pupils to produce texts. For instance, when she asked them write a letter of reply (*task 2 p. 88*), she first set them to think about what to write about before coming to form sentences. Then, she explained that they had to revise their letters for grammar mistakes, punctuation, and layout. The pupils, after a very short period of time, started reading their letters orally. The researcher did actually notice that teacher A did not really focus on the fact of following a process, on training her pupils on how to write, or on suggesting strategies to follow to write; rather, she cared about the pupils' products. Teacher B, however, engaged her pupils in writing without specifying any steps to follow or process to adopt while writing. The observation sessions recorded with the two teachers did in fact help the researcher confirm the reality that teachers were not really knowledgeable about the claims of the process or the product approach to writing instruction, nor did they seem to have been informed on how to teach writing within the scope of the lastly adopted approach. There seemed to be no precise teaching methodology governing their classroom teaching practices in relation to writing.

Developing autonomy in learning to write is central to competency development and is the aim of the CBA. For such a criterion to be met, teachers need to encourage their pupils to develop self-reliance skills, necessary for them to work independently of their teachers and with no other king of assistance. It is mention worthy that in both observed classes, and in all writing sessions, the writing tasks suggested to the pupils did all instruct pupils

to write using some given cues, notes, relevant lexis, tenses, and appropriate conjunctions and link words. The pupils were, then, never left free and were always restrained from assuming responsibility, calling back their know-how-to-do skills and savoir and mobilising them in such a way as to be able to write. Moreover, the two teachers did not seem to fully engage pupils in tasks in such a way as to promote their autonomy. For instance, teacher A very often reminded her pupils to use specific language aspects to be able to do the tasks, and she repeatedly explained to them the very tiny details and all key words used in the tasks. For instance, before asking them to start writing a report on the experiment they did in class, she insisted on and agreed with them on using the appropriate verb tense, if, when, and sequencers, but more importantly, she gave them a list of action verbs they were supposed to use to write the report. Such practices do clearly point to the fact that she was, even unintentionally, limiting the opportunities for them to both develop self-reliance skills and to direct their writing practices into articulate performance. However, she sometimes asked them to correct each other's mistakes and to comment on some of these by suggesting alternative corrections to their friends. By so doing, pupils were likely to assume responsibility for their own learning of writing. Teacher B also was reluctant to letting pupils work on their own when doing the writing tasks, especially in the case of free writing. She always explained what to do and wrote every tiny detail on the board, as in *task 1 p. 88*, which instructed pupils to write a letter seeking advice. Before setting them to write, she wrote every single key word on the board, with its many equivalents. She also drew the letter layout and components on the board and reminded her pupils about the necessity of using correct tenses, modals, if-clauses, and link words. Moreover, she checked their drafts and walked around to provide any kind of assistance. Furthermore, she sometimes asked the pupils to provide feedback on their mates' written products and most of the time resorted to writing a model text on the board. Rarely did she

rely on one of her pupils' productions as an example to be followed by the other pupils. The teachers' practices were not always oriented towards developing learners' autonomy, not only when teaching writing, but even when teaching other skills as well.

Both teachers seemingly monitored their pupils' progress when writing texts. They always kept walking around and checking their progress in the writing tasks. They did not hesitate to provide feedback, mostly in the form of whole class verbal comments. They also opted for individual feedback in the form of written comments, especially in the case of composing tasks.

As for adaptation of writing materials, teacher A was supportive to such a practice and she, instead of adapting the textbook material, designed a new writing task asking her pupils to write a report on a scientific experiment. As for teacher B, she did not adapt or change any writing tasks; she simply followed the textbook suggestions.

With reference to the project work, the two observed teachers followed the same procedure. Both of them introduced the topic of the project at the very first session of the unit. They briefly explained to their pupils what to do and what necessary points they had to cover. They left their pupils free to choose their teammates and they suggested a deadline for project submission and class presentation. They asked their pupils to refer to the *project* section on page *92-93* for further details. The two teachers also suggested devoting other mid-section project sessions to monitor their pupils' progress but did in no one other occasion work on project round up. Eventually, the pupils only submitted their written projects, which were collected by the teachers with no class presentations.

It was also common practice, in the observed classes, that pair and group work were very widely solicited by the teachers and much appreciated by the pupils and the teachers alike. In all those pair/group work tasks, pupils were very active and willing to participate in the writing activity. Their interest and motivation to write were also very palpable if

compared to those tasks where they were set to work individually. However, the researcher remarked that all along the teaching of the whole unit, the two teachers did not use any ICTs for lesson presentation, though the theme of the unit would have made such an alternative widely exploited. Moreover, self-revision and correction of drafts was also implemented but with varying degrees. For instance, each time pupils were asked to write or complete a given model of letter or report, they were given time and set to practise revising and editing of their own drafts, or of their peers' drafts, depending on the teachers' preferences. The researcher observed very frequently the teachers' commitment to involving pupils in exchanging drafts, a practice that is desirable in a CBA classroom.

As one important tool to practise self-assessment of writing and to monitor pupils' writing competence development, the portfolio was never used by the pupils, nor did the teachers suggest keeping records of their pupils' written products. Though such a practice is very much required in teaching writing under the CBA, the teachers never invited their pupils to resort to such an alternative.

b. Evaluation Practices

Advancing claims about evaluation practices in the two observed classes implicates rethinking and revising the whole observation sessions. With particular reference to formative evaluation of writing, the two teachers did very little to provide opportunities for their pupils to be continuously evaluated. The researcher also noticed that no supplementary reinvestment tasks were suggested to the pupils and no evaluative tasks or homework was assigned. Moreover, the researcher did not observe any intentional evaluation practices aiming at supervising and monitoring competency development, a process that requires multiplying opportunities of practice, and also suggesting integration and remedial work tasks necessary to diagnose areas of difficulties and to regulate pupils' learning of writing.

With reference to self-evaluation, the pupils in both classes were rarely involved in activities engaging them in self-monitoring of progress in the writing skill. Rather, the two teachers often adopted co-evaluation and peer-evaluation as the most common classroom evaluation practices. For example, teacher B asked her pupils to write a description about water properties (*write it right p. 83*) and after they did, she set them to exchange drafts and insisted on revising and correcting their peers' products.

Furthermore, the two teachers did never recommend implementing portfolios or reflective journals, nor did they opt for conferences to generate classroom feedback. The use of discussions and debates was the sole method that was utilized for classroom evaluation of writing. Though relevant to the CBA claims, the use of co-evaluation and peer evaluation should be accompanied with self-evaluation of pupils' writing abilities, which is, in turn, conducive to promoting their autonomy in learning the target language and to making them responsible for their own learning.

2. Situation of Integration

During the whole observation carried out with both teachers, integration situations were very restrictively utilized. In the SE2 textbook, unit four, *Budding Scientist*, there are four tasks suggesting integration situations, including the project. The researcher noticed that the two teachers followed the textbook and set pupils to work on such writing tasks with no change in content, except for teacher A, who, at one sole occasion, used a completely different task instead of *write it out p. 91*. The task consisted of making her pupils participate in realizing an in-class scientific experiment, concerned with how to get a hard-boiled egg without peels mysteriously pushed inside a bottle. She provided a reading passage for comprehension check, and then asked them to get helped by the figures and the cues she provided to write a report on the experiment, following the given model. Such a task seemed to be very interesting to the pupils as it involved them in learning by doing

and participating in realizing the experiment, a key feature of learning under the CBA. Such a writing task is, in fact, in conformity with the exit profile of the SE2, requiring pupils to write a text of not more than 15 lines. This problem solving task was novel for the pupils and did actually demand consulting their critical thinking skills and higher order skills to be able to solve the problem. The task was doable with the provided cues and the resources they should have possessed and mobilized; it really depicted a real-life situation of language use. The researcher, then, came to the conclusion that the newly-designed task teacher A suggested to her pupils was really satisfactory to the criteria of integration situations.

Concerning the other three writing tasks which are supposed to be integration tasks, namely, *write it right p. 83, write it up p. 88*, and *write it out p. 91*, the researcher noticed that teacher A used the same tasks that the SE2 textbook suggest, except for *write it out p. 91*, which was changed, as explained above. In the writing session when pupils were set to do the *write it right p. 83*, the two teachers directly instructed their pupils to open their books, to read the instruction, and to use the given cues to write a short description about water properties. Such a task did actually relate to pupils' environment, was in conformity with the exit profile of SE2, but was not that new for the pupils. Moreover, it did not suggest problem solving and had no context of use except merely describing the properties of water in its three states. The two teachers set pupils to work in groups, asked them to make use of previously learnt grammatical structures and vocabulary, and helped them by checking their drafts before suggesting collective correction on the board. These practices suggested pupils' engagement in group work, and it was noticed that the teachers did put the pupils in the center of the teaching process. In the next writing session, pupils were supposed to imagine themselves in a dilemma and write a letter to an agony aunt (*write it up p. 88*), after going through the tip box explaining the different parts of such a type of

letters (layout and format). The two teachers, unexpectedly, followed the same steps of lesson presentation, and used the board to show their pupils how to organize the letter. The task was given as homework to be submitted the next session. Writing a letter to an agony aunt was a good topic of interest to those teenaged pupils, who, as recorded through the observation field notes, reported their appreciation of such type of letter writing in that it helped them learn how to use English for such a purpose and in such a widely met everyday situation. The writing task was communicative, suggested problem solving, and helped pupils develop their critical thinking skills. It was also doable with the resources in hand. The teachers did not adapt the task, and this could imply that the teachers knew the task was at the level of their pupils' abilities. Teacher A explained to the pupils that they had to concentrate on the structure, the form, the outline, as well as the content of the letter. She ended by providing a model letter as the suggested key to the task. Teacher B rather preferred getting closer to pupils and participated in brainstorming ideas and helped them in crafting the final output.

The third integration situation of the unit was *write it out p. 91*. In this writing lesson, pupils were instructed to write a letter of reply revealing a contingency plan to relieve a friend of anxiety about his/her future study career. Such a writing task seemed to be communicative in that it implicated pupils in using the target language to communicate in a suggested situation. Teacher A explained to her pupils that letter writing is one important way to communicate with people in written mode. The task did also engage the pupils in solving problems they may encounter in their daily life, which in turn entailed resorting to their higher order skills and activating their critical thinking. Teacher B explained to her pupils that they would be put in a similar situation the coming year, and asked them to report their personal views. Being the final situation of integration before the project work section, it was expected to have received more focus with regard to competency

development, but this was not the case with both teachers. The task was not even corrected individually; the teachers only wrote a model on the board, insisting on the format and layout of the letter.

Concerning the project, the two teachers devoted no one single occasion after the very first session of the unit when they were introduced to the topic of the project. The pupils submitted their projects in the last week with no classroom oral presentations. The projects were corrected and scored by the teachers. This suggests that the concept of competency development and mastery did not receive its due focus on the part of both teachers as they did not seem to give importance to devoting sessions for integration and for project monitoring and in-class supervision. Seemingly, the teachers were only concerned about presenting the content of the prescribed textbook, with no attention directed towards the development of competencies.

4.1.2.6. Discussion of the Classroom Observation Findings

The classroom observation findings recorded so far have helped the researcher become more insightful about the realities of teaching English- and writing in particular- in SE2 classrooms. To begin with, and in trying to describe the research site, the researcher noticed that the classes she observed were large size classes. This is thought to have made the task difficult for the teachers. The teachers' practices observed during the teaching of the whole unit were by and large incompatible with the CBA claims. In other words, the researcher noticed, with reference to the recorded field notes and the observation protocol, that both teachers were not that devoted to framing their teaching behavior with respect to the underlying principles of the CBA. While teacher A clearly considered specifying and introducing pupils to the aims and objectives, teacher B did completely ignore such an important consideration that is likely to put the pupils at the center of the learning process. Furthermore, the teachers did not explain the lesson connections to other relevant courses,

a practice that, if done, would have helped pupils train themselves on cumulating their previously learnt knowledge and on mobilising their resources to be able to perform successfully using the target language.

The results also indicate that the teachers did care about their pupils' interests and needs in terms of topic selection; they were not very explicit as to elucidating the relevance of the writing tasks to everyday life settings, nor did they suggest any alternative situations that would have trained the pupils on writing for a given purpose in a given context. Additionally, the obtained results show that though central to the CBA claims, explicit strategy instruction in teaching writing was not of the teachers' concerns; the teachers rather seemed to be, with varying degrees, slaves to the textbook, and did in no one occasion revise their practices for such a purpose. More importantly, the recorded results reveal that the teachers do not seem to be knowledgeable enough about the process and the product orientations to writing instruction in that they adopted no one specific approach in their classes, nor did their practices seem to be respective to the CBA.

Being the aim of the CBA, promoting learners' autonomy was not highly aimed at in the two observed classes. Though the teachers at few occasions allowed for some practices leaning towards developing pupils' self-reliance skills such as self-assessment and peer assessment, they did not seem to have oriented their lessons for such a purpose. Rather, they remained very present and dominative in their classes, instructing their pupils on how to construct knowledge about the target language rather than on what do with and how to use it successfully in their everyday life settings. In addition, the use of ICTs was not at all observed in the two classes, and this clearly comes against the claims of the CBA. What was positive in the observation sessions is the very presence of pair and group work in the writing lessons. Pupils were very cooperative and motivated to practise writing by exchanging their products and correcting their peers mistakes. Self-assessment, however,

was somehow neglected in the two classes. As for material adaptation, it was only rarely practised, which implies that the teachers were satisfied with the content of the textbook, did not care about modifying the writing materials with respect of their pupils' needs and ability levels, or did not possess enough expertise in approaching material adaptation.

One major deficiency the researcher was able to observe is that the teachers never advised their pupils to implement portfolios in their learning of writing. Though highly recommended in the teaching and learning of writing under the CBA as a self-assessment tool, portfolios were not common practice in the observed classes. Moreover, the teachers rather resorted to traditional tools of evaluating their pupils' written products; they did not implement any formative and continuous evaluation activities meant for estimating their pupils' progress and diagnosing problems in order for them to be able to regulate the learning of writing and redress instruction into efficacy. In addition, the teachers never used any alternative methods of assessment such as reflective journals and conferences.

Being the core of the CBA, integration was not fully and appropriately addressed in the classes the researcher had observed. The situations or tasks the teachers used in their lessons did not all satisfy the requirements of integration situations. Some of them were not problem-solving; others did not relate to the environment and did not activate their pupils' critical thinking skills. Moreover, the project, which is the most cognitively-developed integration situation, did not receive its due focus on the part of the teachers. They only explained the project topic, requirements, and steps, but devoted not integration sessions for project monitoring and for class presentations.

Owing to these findings, it can be said that the teaching realities in the observed classes are by and large defective and require rectifying the teachers' practices in such a way as to be compatible with the CBA principles. Relating the results of the classroom

observation and the questionnaire in hope of being able to suggest remedies will be the concern of the last chapter.

Conclusion

To conclude, this chapter attempted to describe the practical side of the study. It introduced the research design, instruments, and data collection procedures, but was only concerned with analysing the questionnaire and the classroom observation results, as a necessary step to understanding the research problem and situation. The data to be generated from such analyses were thought essential to set ground for later stages of investigation. Still, and in order to answer all the research questions, it seems necessary to evaluate both the content of the teaching materials, and the pupils' written productions, in order to get a wider view on the effectiveness of writing instruction within the framework of the CBA. This will be the concern of the next chapter.

Chapter Five: Analysis and Evaluation of the Textbook.

Introduction.

    5.1. Textbook Evaluation Framework and Instrumentation.

        5.1.1. Design of Textbook Evaluation.

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        5.2.3. Discussion of the Results

Conclusion.

Probably nothing influences the content and nature of teaching and learning more than the books and other teaching material used.

Alan Cunningsworth (1995).

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to document analyses and evaluation in relation to the teaching of English at SE2 level. It is concerned with the evaluation of the writing component in the SE2 textbook 'Getting Through', using a self-constructed checklist the design of which was made on basis of some relevant studies and literature. Furthermore, it includes an evaluation of pupils' written productions in hope of reaching conclusions about the effectiveness of the teaching of writing under the scope of the CBA. Given the fact that teaching EFL at secondary school level cannot be accomplished without textbooks, such an evaluation helps answer some of the research questions of the present study, with the intent to diagnose areas of difficulty and in the affirmative, be ready to hopefully propose alternative solutions.

5.1. Textbook Evaluation Framework and Instrumentation

Given the fact that the present research work is concerned with the teaching of the writing skill, the textbook evaluation will be restricted to evaluating the writing component in the textbook 'Getting Through', for this partly contributes to outlining the realities of writing instruction under the CBA and its effectiveness.

5.1.1. Design of Textbook Evaluation

In the present research work, some kind of eclecticism is being opted for. Implemented retrospectively, the evaluation of the SE2 textbook is both impressionistic and in depth in that it first gives a general appreciation of the textbook before digging deeper into determining the worth of the textbook and its writing component. The checklist is the one instrument adopted for evaluating the writing component. After thorough scrutiny of many textbook evaluation studies and source books (Cunningsworth, 1995; Daoud & Celce -

Murcia, 1979; AbdelWahab, 2013; Skierso, 1991; Williams, 1983; Ur, 1996; Sheldon, 1988; Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Litz, 2005; Ferris and Hedgcock, 2005; Mukundan et al., 2011; Lawrence, 2011; Tomlinson, 2013; Nimehchisalem & Mukundan, 2015; Mukundan & Nimehchisalem, 2012; Laabidi & Nfissi, 2016; Rahman, 2012; Azarnoosh et al., 2016; Akil et al., 2018; Kabita & Ji, 2017; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018), and having found very few ready-made checklists directed towards evaluating the writing component, and because no one checklist can serve different evaluation purposes or can fit all situations, the researcher, on the basis of relevant research works on textbook evaluation, designed a checklist specifically to evaluate the writing component in the subject textbook, with the intent to consider its compatibility with the CBA principles and its effectiveness as a source of input to the students in their course of learning writing in the English course.

Thus, the researcher, after reviewing different resource books and related literature of ELT textbook evaluation, put the first draft criteria meant for evaluating the writing component (All parts, tasks, and activities meant for teaching the writing competency) in the SE2 textbook 'Getting Through'. The process of designing the checklist was actually recursive, and the checklist itself was subject to rethinking, reediting, and refinement.

When designing the checklist, the researcher bethought many aspects. The checklist is not long, and this was recommended by Cunningsworth (1995, p. 5), who maintained that

> "It is important to limit the number of criteria used, the number of questions asked, to manageable proportions, otherwise we risk being swamped in a sea of details. This is why it is important to prioritise the criteria that you are going to use, using those which are most relevant to the context in which the materials will be used. … Whatever procedures you do follow, you would be well advised to view materials selection as a process involving several people working together and pooling their

perceptions and experience. In this way, there is a better chance of making balanced judgements …"

In this sense, the self-constructed checklist items were subject to review and analysis. For such purpose and for validity purposes, six ELT practitioners whose teaching experience range between 14 to 25 years were individually invited to provide comments and suggestions so as to elicit feedback on the checklist items clarity and comprehensibility. They returned the checklist in no more than two weeks, and their feedback was taken into consideration in that some checklist items were displaced and others reformulated.

5.1.2. Description of the Self-Constructed Checklist

The checklist is directed towards evaluating the writing component and is then concerned with determining the extent to which the writing activities are in respect with the underlying principles of writing instruction under the CBA. This will be done with reference to some criteria the researcher, with reference to the review of literature, deemed relevant to such purpose.

The checklist includes two major domains: *General Attributes, Content.*The first domain includes *Compatibility*, *suitability to learners*, and *Methodology*; the second domain relates to content selection and coverage, organization and grading*, as displayed in the table below:

Table 40: *The Number of Items in the Checklist Domains.*

Domains	Number of items
I. General Attributes	10
1. Compatibility	1
2. Suitability to learners	2
3. Methodology	7
II. Content	7
Total	17

The first domain, *General Attributes*, includes ten items in relation to compatibility, suitability to learners, and methodology. The first section is concerned with the correspondence of the writing tasks objectives to the general aims of teaching English under the CBA. In the second section, the two items relate to the suitability of the writing content to the learners, in terms of levels of ability and learning styles. The third section items attempt to uncover issues in relation to textbook (Writing component) methodology of writing instruction and the CBA principles. As for the second domain, dealing with content, it is concerned with content selection and coverage on the one hand, and with its organization and gradation on the other.

5.1.3. General Description of the Textbook

The SE2 textbook contains 207 pages and was first issued in 2008. It is edited by Riche, B., Ameziane, H., Hami, H., Arab, S.A., and Bensemmane, M., and published by The National Authority for School Publications (the revised edition of 2019-2020). As to the design and layout, it was done by Azouaoui, Ch. No further information on the authors as to qualifications is provided in the textbook.

'Getting Through' is built on the CBA and is directed to learners whose age ranges from 16 to 17 years after 5 years of studying English. The textbook seeks to develop the three competencies:

- Interact orally in English
- Interpret oral and written messages
- Produce oral and written messages

These competencies are complementary and interdependent and are part of the following global competence (exit profile of SE2):

At the end of SE2, the learner will be able to produce written messages / texts of descriptive, narrative, argumentative and prescriptive types of about 15 lines (about 150 words) using written or oral support.

The textbook includes eight units, each dealing with a specific theme. All units are structured in the same way and each ends with a project. After introducing the contents of the textbook, the authors provided forewords for both teachers and students in two different pages in the form of a screenshot of an email. Then, a book map diagramming the book and its different constituents in terms of parts and rubrics dealing with the different language aspects, developing skills, and the project, as follows: *Preview, Think it Over, Discovering Language, Developing skills, Putting Things Together, Where Do We Go from Here?*, and *Exploring Matters Further*.

The unit's preview introduces students to the different language aspects they are going to see in the unit together with the functions and skills they are supposed to practice. In addition, the project of the unit to be carried out by the students is written on the top of the page. In **'*Think it over*'**, the students are introduced to the topic of each unit and are supposed to interact orally about a picture in relation to the theme of the unit. In **'*Discovering the Language*'**, the students are to be exposed to the different language outcomes in terms of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. This section aims at making learners do the different reading tasks relating to the main introduced text. Such section includes the following rubrics:

Before you read is a pre-reading task in which learners are supposed to interact orally about a picture in order to introduce the new lexis and pave the way for the reading passage;

As you read is a reading task in which learners interact in writing and interpret the text;

After you read **(grammar desk),** to be consulted by learners for understanding of grammatical aspects;

Practice, some suggested activities to practice previously introduced grammar and vocabulary;

Write it right, in which learners utilize the relevant grammar and vocabulary to generate pieces of written discourse;

*Say it loud and clear***,** meant for developing pronunciation skills;

Working with words, a part solely devoted for vocabulary practice.

In *Developing Skills,* there are two rubrics: *Listening and Speaking,* and *Reading and Writing.* In this section, the students are supposed to build the language skills and also the intellectual skills required to put them into practice when doing projects.

Listening and Speaking, a section dealing mainly with oral skills in which learners are supposed to respond to oral input and do the different tasks;

Reading and Writing, which is concerned with writing skills and which includes tip boxes to learn about how to write texts and the relevant techniques and rules governing such an activity. The *Write it out* rubric, as part of *Reading and Writing*, consolidates previously learnt aspects in terms of grammar at different levels of written discourse, from word to sentence and text. To put it differently, *Write it Out* directly targets the writing skill with special focus on accuracy and appropriateness of written texts.

The *Putting Things Together* section is the project of the unit and the final outcome displaying students' individual achievements. It is the final integration situation to which learners are supposed to respond and mobilize the previously learnt language aspects and communication skills in such a way as to solve a problem they are to face in their everyday life.

The *Where Do We Go from Here* section is devoted to students' self-assessment; it is a self-monitoring section where they are supposed to fill in the self-assessment form by ticking the option they think best describes their level of performance in relation to the previously tackled language points. In the last section *Exploring Matters Further*, the

students are granted the opportunity to read more about the theme of the unit for the sake of enlarging their vocabulary repertoire.

The textbook also includes the 8 listening scripts (one for each unit) and 21 grammar reference lessons for pupils to go through. The last page of the book has been devoted for thanks and acknowledgements.

In SE2, students are to study four, five, or six units, depending on the streams and the time load as follows:

Table 41: SE2 *Units Distribution and Weekly Time Load.*

Units	Exp.Sc/Math/Tech. Maths/3 hours	Man. Eco/ 3 hours	Lit. Philo/ 4 hours	Fr. Lges/ 5 hours
Signs of the Time			+	+
Make Peace	+	+	+	+
Waste Not, Want Not	+	+	+	+
Budding Scientist	+	+		+
News and Tales				
No Man is an Island	+		+	+
Science or Fiction?			+	+
Business is Business		+		

(Source: Ministry of National Education, 2019)

5.1.4. Description of the Writing Component in the SE2 Textbook

With regard to the teaching of writing in the textbook 'Getting Through', the following elements are all the writing activities that are part of the textbook, representing the writing component, and they will be subject to analysis and evaluation using the self-constructed checklist.

Table 42: *The Writing Component in Unit One.*

Unit One: Signs of the Time	Writing task	Page	Number of tasks	Coverage of Writing %
Discovering Language	Write it right:Task1	19		
	Write it right: Task 2	19		
	Task 3	20		
	Task 3 (Homework)	21	10	23.25%
	Write it up	23		
Developing Skills	Task 5	25		
	Write it out: Task 1	26		
	Write it out: Task 2	27		
	Write it out	29		
	The project	30		
Putting Things Together				

At the end of unit one, learners should be able to make a lifestyles profile including a list of things and thoughts which teenagers used to do and think that they no longer do and have, and also make predictions for the future. Throughout the unit, learners will write a policy statement, a word map using suffixes, slogans, and a short comparison and contrast essay.

There are 10 writing tasks out of 43 in the whole unit, giving coverage of 23.25% of the writing component. As for unit two, it is organized as follows:

Table 43: *The Writing Component in Unit Two.*

Unit two: Make Peace!	Writing task	Page	Number of tasks	Coverage of writing %
Discovering Language	Task 2	40		
	Write it right	41		
Developing Skills	Write it up: Task 1-2	46		
	Write it up: Task 3	47	7	22.58%
	Write it out	50		
	The project	51		
Putting Things Together				

By the end of this unit, learners should be able to write a statement of achievements about Nobel Peace Prize winners. To do that, learners will learn to write a poem denouncing prejudice, a contract, and a public address.

There are 7 writing tasks out of 31 in the unit, giving coverage of 22.58% of writing. In unit three, the writing component is introduced as in the table below:

Table 44: *The Writing Component in Unit Three.*

Unit three: Waste Not, Want Not.	Writing task	Page	Number of tasks	Coverage of writing %
Discovering Language	Write it right	63		
Developing Skills	Write it up	68		
	Task 5	70	5	16.66%
	Write it out: Task 2	71		
Putting Things Together	The project	72		

By the end of unit three, learners should be able to write a conservation plan. They will learn to write a press release and make a written presentation of a product (solar home).

This unit includes only 5 writing tasks and 30 in the whole unit, with a percentage of 16.66% of writing tasks in the unit. Unit four is about innovation and technology, and learners, by the end of the unit, should be able to make and present/report on a scientific experiment, write a report about the positive impact of technology on human beings (Scientific streams), or an ABC of dreams in the form of a poster with illustrations (Literary streams). They will write a short expository paragraph, a letter asking for advice, a letter giving advice, and a letter revealing a contingency plan.

Table 45: *The Writing Component in Unit Four.*

Unit four: Budding Scientist	Writing task	Page	Number of tasks	Coverage of writing %
Discovering Language	Write it right	83		
Developing Skills	Write it up:			

	Task 1	88		
	Task 2	88		
	Write it out:		7	21.21%
	Task 1	91		
	Task 2	91		
	Task 3	91		
Putting Things Together	The project	92-93		

In unit four, there are only 7 writing tasks out of 33, with a percentage of 21.21% of writing activities. Unit five is about news and stories. The following table displays the writing tasks in unit five:

Table 46: *The Writing Component in Unit Five.*

Unit five: News and Tales	Writing task	Page	Number of tasks	Coverage of writing %
Discovering Language	Write it right	103		
Developing Skills		105		
	Task 4	108		
	Write it up	110		
	Task 3		7	22.58%
	Write it out:	111		
Putting Things Together	Task 1-2 The project	112		

As to unit five, learners should be able to write a collection of stories. They will develop different skills such as writing short stories and news stories.

There are 7 writing activities and 31 in the whole unit, giving a percentage of 22.58% for the writing component. Seemingly, and with reference to the latest updates of the Ministry of National Education (Annual Progression, July 2019), this unit is not part of the SE2 syllabus. In unit six, the writing component is listed in the table below:

Table 47: *The Writing Component in Unit Six.*

Unit six: No Man Is an Island	Writing task	Page	Number of tasks	Coverage of writing %
Discovering Language	Write it right	123		
Developing Skills	Write it up	128		
	Task 3	130		

		Write it out:	130		
		Task 1	131	6	22.22%
Putting	**Things**	Task 2	132		
Together		The project			

By the end of unit six, learners should be able to conduct a survey on people's readiness to deal with natural or man-made disasters. Learners will write a report using a pie chart, write a public announcement, and an opinion article.

There are only 6 writing activities out of 27 in the whole unit, with coverage of 22.22%.

As for unit seven, the writing content is the following:

Table 48: *The Writing Component in Unit Seven.*

Unit seven: Science or Fiction?	Writing task	Page	Number of tasks	Coverage of writing %
Discovering Language	Write it right	142		
Developing Skills	Task 4	145		
	Write it up:	148		
	Task 1-2	148		
	Task 4	150	7	19.44%
Putting Things Together	Write it out	151		
	The project	152-153		

By the end of this unit, learners should be able to write a repertory of inventions and discoveries, or write miscellanies in the form of a journal. They will write a commentary, a short biography, and a poem.

The unit includes 7 writing activities and 36 in the whole unit, giving a rate of 22.22% of writing in the unit. The following table summarises the writing component in unit eight:

Table 49: *The Writing Component in Unit Eight.*

Unit eight: Business Is Business	Writing task	Page	Number of tasks	Coverage of writing %
Discovering Language	Task 1	162		
	Write it right:	163		
	Task 1-2	165		
	Task 2	168		
Developing Skills	Write it up:		9	28.12%
	Task 2	172		
	Write it out:			
	Task 1-2	173		
	Task 3	174		
Putting Things Together	The project			

In unit eight, exclusively devoted to management and economy streams, the aim is to make learners compile a business portfolio or the portfolio of a good manager. Learners will write an annual report for a company/a business report.

There are 9 writing tasks out of 32 tasks in the unit, and writing in this unit represents 28.12% in the textbook.

5.1.5. Evaluation of the Writing Component in SE2 'Getting Through'

One of the aims of this research work is to elaborate a checklist with a set of criteria against which the writing component in the SE2 textbook would be analysed and evaluated in terms of compatibility with the CBA principles, in order to determine how effective the teaching of writing has been with the textbook. For so doing, qualitative analysis and evaluation in text format is the adopted procedure in this section. An evaluation of the writing tasks and activities will be attempted for, with reference to the checklist items each time individually. Put differently, the researcher will each time name the item, and then work on all textbook writing tasks and activities, with the intent to reach conclusions as to the extent to which the textbook (writing component) satisfies the criteria and the expected results. Findings will be displayed in tables summarizing each unit in its own.

I.   General Attributes

A. Compatibility

1. **Do the writing tasks objectives match to the general aims of teaching English under the CBA?**

In the SE2 textbook, the writing component consists of 58 tasks and activities. At the end of SE2, the learner will be able to produce oral/written messages/texts of descriptive, narrative, argumentative, expository and prescriptive types of about 150 words, using written or oral support. As explained in almost all official documents delivered by the National Ministry of Education,

> The general aim of teaching English is to **help our society integrate harmoniously into modernity** by participating fully and entirely in the language community that uses English for all **types of interaction**. Such participation, being based on **sharing** and **exchanging scientific, cultural and civilizational ideas and experiences**, will enable for a better knowledge of oneself and the other. It will also help go beyond the narrow and utilitarian conception of learning English to go to a more offensive approach where we will no longer be consumers but **actors and agent of change**. So everyone will have the opportunity to access science, technology and universal culture while avoiding the pitfall of acculturation. Teaching English involves not only the acquisition of **linguistic and communication skills**, but also transversal competences of a **methodological / technological, cultural, and social** order of a learner, such as the development **of critical thinking** and analysis, commitment to our **national values**, **respect for universal values** based on respect for oneself and others, **tolerance and openness to the world.** (Programme d' Anglais Deuxième Langue Etrangère, 2005, p. 3).

The first unit deals with the different signs and lifestyles of the time, a theme directly related to the native culture. For example, in **task 1 p. 19**, pupils are supposed to correct verb tense mistakes and revise the paragraph about narrating habits in the past. This, as explained in chapter one, relates to editing, regarded as one important step in the process of writing in that it helps polish the written product and refine it. Thus, it is very clear that the objective of this task is in accordance with the global competence to be reached at the end of SE2. The pupils in this task are supposed to correct the wrong use of tenses into the one that should best be used to narrate past events and habits. In addition to practicing the grammatical aspect of the language, pupils will have the chance to practice editing, which is central to the process of writing.

Likewise, in **write it out p. 29**, pupils are supposed to mobilize their resources and reinvest them to write e-mails about future predictions. Such a task is an integration situation involving pupils in problem solving. It involves the pupils in learning about technology and the internet, using the previously learnt grammatical aspects. Such task then helps pupils to be autonomous and active participants in their society. Similarly, the **project** of this unit, a composing task, is the final situation of integration demanding mobilization of all previously introduced resources in such a way as to write a profile of lifestyles. Being a final situation of integration, the project outcome helps pupils be actors of change, develop national values, and be open to the world as they are supposed to share and exchange the Algerian different lifestyles and those of a foreign country through time.

Table 50: *Compatibility of Writing Tasks Objectives in Unit One with the Aims of Teaching English under the CBA.*

Writing Task	Task Objective	Yes	Partly	No
Write it right:Task1 p 19	To make pupils edit the text using the semi-modal *used to* as appropriate.	√		
Write it right: Task 2 p 19	To make the pupils re-invest the *going to* form to produce/write a policy statement.	√		
Task 3 p 20	To make students practice punctuation and capitalization.	√		
Task 3 (Homework) p 21	To make pupil practise writing words using suffixes at sentence level.	√		
Write it up p 23	To get pupils reinvest what they have seen in this sequence to write a short dialogue.	√		
Task 5 p 25	To learn how to write definitions using relative pronouns and their corresponding categories**.**	√		
Write it out: Task 1 p 26	To illustrate to pupils the use of comparatives by putting forward slogans.	√		
Write it out: Task 2 p 27	To make pupils aware of paragraph development by comparison and contrast through a completion activity.	√		
Write it out p 29	To make pupils reinvest what they have learnt to write e-mails to talk about predictions.	√		
The project p 30	To make a profile about lifestyles.	√		

All writing tasks turn around the different writing elements and are all geared towards developing the writing competency. However, the objectives of the ten writing tasks of the first unit 'Signs of the Time', be they graphology tasks, scaffolding tasks, or composing tasks, are not explicitly stated a priori in the preview section of the unit, and pupils cannot know what these objectives are and what is expected from them. The unit is diagrammed with its sequences named, and lists of language aspects, functions, and skills to be covered. This does not seem to echo Auerbach's stand point as to the underlying principles of the CBA: "Outcomes are public knowledge, known and agreed upon by both learner and teacher. They are specified in terms of behavioral objectives so that students know exactly what behaviors are expected of them." (1986, p. 415). Such a deficiency is present in the eight units of the textbook.

The second unit is about 'Peace and Conflict Resolution'. The seven tasks of the unit seem to match to the global competence mentioned above. For instance, in **Write it up, task 1 p**

46, the objective is to practise the use of the structures; *have/has/do not have to, must/mustn't, should/shouldn't, ought to*, etc, to write a list of school regulations (*obligation* and/or *absence of obligation* and *prohibition)*. Knowledge about the different discourse functions and the grammatical aspects relevant to expressing such functions is in direct relation to learning the dynamics of writing skills. Moreover, the task clearly puts pupils in a real life context where they are to resort to their linguistic, lexical, and grammatical repertoires to think critically and move to action. Put differently, learning about and writing school regulation mirror pupils respect of national and universal values with respect to themselves and the other members of the community.

Task 3 p 47 is about writing class charters, focusing on both form (layout, mechanics) and content, and using modals of obligation, prohibition, etc. All the writing tasks are bound for the final integration situation, oriented towards writing a statement of achievement about Nobel Peace Prize winners, a topic that is central to the general theme of peace and conflict resolution, and that indeed facilitates the integration of our society in modernity, respect of national and universal values.

Table 51: *Compatibility of Writing Tasks Objectives in Unit Two with the Aims of Teaching English under the CBA*.

Writing Task	Task Objective	Yes	Partly	No
Task 2 p 40	To identify the different functions that can be expressed by the modals *can*/*could* and to write authentic instances for expressing ability, possibility, permission, offer, etc.	√		
Write it right p 41	To get pupils write poems concerned with the topic.	√		
Write it up: Task 1 p46	To practise the use of the structures; *have/has/do not have to, must/mustn't, should/shouldn't, ought to*, etc, to write a list of school regulations (*obligation* and/or *absence of obligation* and *prohibition)*.	√		
Write it up: Task 2 p 46	To get pupils write some acrostics dealing with the topic of the unit.	√		
Write it up: Task 3 p 47	To complete/write a class charter, focusing on both form and content and practice the use of modals of obligation, prohibition, etc.	√		
Write it out p 50	To raise pupils' awareness on textual coherence and to emphasize correctness and appropriacy in textual	√		

	discourse, to fulfill various functions.	
The project	To write a statement of achievements.	√

The theme of the third unit, poverty and world resources, appears to be the concern of the majority of people all over the world and is thus in essence very helpful in putting learners in real situations of language use. The five writing tasks are seemingly compatible with the general aims of teaching English in that they all relate to the general theme and help develop learners' writing skills. For example, **Write it right p. 63** is an authentic task relating directly to a real life problem, and aiming at putting learners in a context in which they are supposed to respond by writing a press release, making them active participants who share and exchange scientific ideas and experiences. Moreover, **write it up p. 68** is a task that deals with writing a presentation of the solar home, a topic which helps integrate the learners in the modern community by exchanging scientific ideas. The task relies on the use of discourse markers as a cohesive device to be practised and developed. The **project** of the unit is the final opportunity for pupils to practice writing; learners are supposed to work on alternative energies or write a charter against poverty, two very up-to-date topics that really help pupils be open to the global modern community. However, given their restricted number, the five writing tasks do not cover all writing elements and graphology (punctuation, spelling, etc) was not considered in this unit.

Table 52: *Compatibility of Writing Tasks Objectives in Unit Three with the Aims of Teaching English under the CBA.*

WritingTask	Task Objective	Yes	Partly	No
Write it right p 63	To make pupils write a press report reinvesting the linguistic and grammatical tools studied.	√		
Write it up p68	To make pupils able to present a product using appropriate discourse markers together with the passive voice (identify the different parts of the solar home and their functions).	√		
Task5 p 70	To make pupils analyze the organization of a paragraph by introducing to them the four types of sentences.	√		
Write it out:	To have pupils reorder scrambled sentences to get a	√		

Task 2 p 71	coherent newspaper article.				
The project	To make a poster with alternative energies/To write a charter against poverty.	√			

As for the theme of unit four, dealing with science and experiments, it is very central to modern life and development. In **write it right p. 83**, pupils are supposed to write a short description about water properties, a topic that relates to natural and experimental sciences. So, the pupils, in addition to practicing their writing skills through recalling their knowledge of grammar and lexis, will have the chance to widen their savoirs on how to use English to scientifically describe different elements. Moreover, pupils in this unit will have the opportunity to practise letter writing at different levels. This can be done in **task 1 p. 88, task 2 p. 88, task 1 p. 91, task 2p. 91, and task 3 p. 91** in which pupils will either write or revise and edit letters and replies, a practice that will by all means help them express themselves in writing using the target language and gain insights on how to format and organize their correspondences and for what purposes. In the **project** of the unit, pupils will write a report on scientific experiments and will have to resort to the different language aspects they have learnt. This final situation of integration is very important in that pupils are supposed to demonstrate individually their mastery of the productive competence, giving evidence of successful and effective instruction. The seven writing tasks seem to match to the general aims of teaching English in secondary education. The table below displays the writing tasks and their objectives:

Table 53: *Compatibility of Writing Tasks Objectives in Unit Four with the Aims of Teaching English under the CBA.*

Writing Task	Task Objective	Yes	Partly	No
Write it right p 83	To make pupils practise the use of conditional with 'may', 'can' and 'will', write a descriptive essay about water properties, using given notes to improve pupils' writing skills.	√		
Write it up: Task 1 p88	To learn how to write letters seeking advice in terms of form and contents, and to use the conditional for expressing predictions.	√		
Write it up:	To know how to write responses to a letter of	√		

Task 2 p 88	complaint expressing sympathy, and making written suggestions and recommendations using specific language items.	
Write it out: Task 1 p 91	To Write a letter of prediction 'contingency plans" using the conditional type 1.	√
Write it out:Task2 p 91	To make pupils practice letter proofreading and editing.	√
Write it out: Task3 p91	To make pupils revise and rewrite the letter of reply 'contingency plans'.	√
The project	To write a report on scientific experiments/an ABC of dreams.	√

In unit five, the theme of literature and the media is being raised, with seven writing tasks that were pre- supposed for introducing the pupils to the different dynamics of teaching and learning writing in English. In **write it right p. 103**, pupils will learn to generate texts telling about their personal experiences with catastrophes, a topic that clearly depicts real life settings and events likely to happen. This is very central to the CBA aims, leaning towards sharing and exchanging personal experiences. In **task 4 p. 105,** pupils will learn to express themselves in verse format using the different types of figures of speech in a way as to hopefully demonstrate command of and fluency in such type of written discourse genre with respect of the overall pedagogical intentions relevant to being open to the foreign language community and to becoming active participants in it. The **project** is about writing a collection of stories. Pupils will have to write short stories, with their various types. This can help them access the cultural and civilisational experiences of both the native and the target language. The table below provides the following details about the writing tasks:

Table 54: *Compatibility of Writing Tasks Objectives in Unit Five with the Aims of Teaching English under the CBA.*

Writing Task	Task Objective	Yes	Partly	No
Write it right p 103	To have pupils reinvest what they have acquired during this unit to write about their own personal experiences with catastrophes.	√		
Task 4 p 105	To make pupils write poems using similes and metaphors.	√		
Write it up p 108	To get pupils reinvest what they have seen in this sequence to write a short tale.	√		
Task 3 p 110	To make pupils reinvest previously learnt items to write a lead-in paragraph.	√		
Write it out: Task 1 p 111	To make pupils practice editing of wrong tense use in a report.	√		
Write it out:Task2 p 111	To make pupils write an accident report using the one of task 1 as a model.	√		
The project	To write a collection of stories.	√		

In unit six, the six writing tasks relate to the topic of disasters and solidarity and the different language functions and skills. In **write it right p. 123**, pupils will have to write a report using a pie chart and interpreting it making use of appropriate reporting verbs. This is a communicative scaffolding task in which practice is oriented towards synthesis and analysis of statistical data. Moreover, pupils are supposed to use previously learnt grammatical aspects and organize the whole into a report. In **write it up p. 128**, pupils will write an announcement giving advice advertising the different safety measures to take before, during, and after catastrophes. Pupils are then supposed to share and exchange ideas and experiences in order for them to solve their daily life problems. In the **Putting Things Together** section, pupils are supposed to make a survey about people's readiness to face natural/man-made disasters, in the form of a booklet including a questionnaire, an interview, with the results graphically displayed and reported. The survey will also include a reminder of how people abroad deal with such disasters, evoking interest in sharing and exchanging experiences and ideas with the aim of making pupils equipped enough to face

the challenges of the modern world. The writing tasks of unit six do seemingly match to the overall aims of the CBA.

Table 55: *Compatibility of Writing Tasks Objectives in Unit Six with the Aims of Teaching English under the CBA.*

Writing Task	Task Objective	Yes	Partly	No
Write it right p 123	To make pupils write a report using appropriate reporting verbs.	√		
Write it up p 128	To make pupils write an announcement advertising precautions in earthquakes .	√		
Task 3 p 130	To make use quoted speech for pieces of conversation and use correct punctuation. .	√		
Write it out: Task 1 p 130	To make pupils use reported speech and reporting verbs to report opinions.	√		
Write it out:Task2 p 131	To make pupils aware about how to express polite disagreement and develop counter arguments.	√		
The project	To make a survey on people's readiness to face natural disasters.	√		

In unit seven, which is concerned with technology and the arts, there are seven writing tasks consisting mostly of scaffolding and composing tasks. For instance, in **write it right p. 142**, pupils are asked to write a newspaper article speculating about how things would have been different if the events specified in the box (Columbus's discovery of the New World, The Industrial Revolution, Karl Marx's writing of the Communist Manifesto, the anti-colonialist struggle, and the development of the computer) had not happened, with illustrations being required. This guided composition task entails resorting to manipulating the use of 'the if-conditional patterns' and lexis relevant to the theme of making speculations. In addition, pupils, with the target language, will have to make use of the best critical thinking skills and their cultural and civilisational ideas to be able to situate themselves vis à vis each event in particular, and the world wide community in general. In **task 1 p. 148**, pupils are supposed to read the information in the tip box introducing them to the 'lament/elegy' as being a given type of poems. The task also introduces the layout and constituents of poems, with the relevant terminology such as *stanza, rhyme, rhythm,*

assonance, and *consonance.* Pupils will have to complete the lament and express their regret about lost opportunities, and using the 'if conditional' appropriate for such a purpose. That way, pupils do express themselves and share ideas and experiences with the global community using the target language. In **write it out p. 151**, pupils, after reading the tip box, will have to write a biography of a famous scientist using the information provided and the opening and closure suggested on the same page. Such a type of writing helps readers draw lessons in life and communicate using English. The **project** of this unit is about writing miscellanies (literary streams) in the form of a journal including a short list of fantasies, wishful changes, an advice section, and a world affairs section. Alternatively, pupils (scientific streams) will have to make a repertory of inventions and discoveries in the form of a wall sheet or a magazine feature using the conditional to express regret about the misuse of the subject discovery or invention. These tasks directly put pupils in situations of using English for communication and will give them chance to access science, technology, and the arts.

Table 56: *Compatibility of Writing Tasks Objectives in Unit Seven with the Aims of Teaching English under the CBA.*

Writing Task	Task Objective	Yes	Partly	No
Task 3 p 141	To practice if clauses and write sentences expressing speculations.	√		
Write it right p 142	To make pupils write a newspaper article making speculations about past events using if clauses.	√		
Write it up: Task 1 p148	To make pupils write a lament over lost opportunities and introduce pupils to such type of written discourse.	√		
Write it up: Task 2 p 148	To get pupils revise and edit the poem.	√		
Task 4 p 150	To make pupils reinvest previously learnt items to write a short commentary about a text.	√		
Write it out p 151	To make pupils write an autobiography.	√		
The project	To write miscellanies/Make a repertory of inventions and discoveries.	√		

The last unit in the textbook is exclusively devoted for management and accounting streams. It deals with the topic of management and efficiency in business, which is particularly up-to-date and truly concerns the modern life community heavily relying on business and commerce and using English as the sole medium language of affairs, transactions, and correspondence. The nine writing tasks of this unit are all scaffolding and composing tasks consisting of writing business letters, reports, and facsimiles. For example, in **write it right, task 1 p. 163**, pupils are supposed to imagine themselves foreign investors interested in opening a business in Algeria and to send a facsimile to the consulate to ask for information. This task is real life situation that helps pupils participate in the linguistic community using English to perform business transactions, integrate in modernity, and cope with the demands of globilisation. Similarly, in **task 2 p. 168**, pupils are instructed to write an annual report for a company using the appropriate tenses, an activity that depicts pupils' daily life and its communication requirements. Likewise, in **task 3 p. 173**, pupils are supposed to write a confidential report using link words expressing purpose and modals *might*, *would*, and *could*. Such problem solving tasks lean towards enabling pupils to act successfully in real contexts of language use and making them open to the world community they are making part of. In the **Putting Things Together** section, pupils are asked to compile a business portfolio including letters, telegrams, fax and telex messages on business situations, business documents (charts, reports, balance sheets, etc), and short biographies about famous economists. As already explained in chapter one, portfolios should be very common practice in the CBA classroom in that they represent evidence of pupils' learning progression and a record of their written products and achievements. This final situation of integration clearly portrays very authentic situations of language use and does pave the way for pupils to be active

participants in the linguistic community by sharing their experiences and being able to face

the challenges of the modern world of business affairs.

Table 57: *Compatibility of Writing Tasks Objectives in Unit Eight with the Aims of Teaching English under the CBA.*

Writing Task	Task Objective	Yes	Partly	No
Task 1 p 162	To write introductory sentences expressing purpose in relation to different language functions.	√		
Write it right: Task 1 p 163	To get pupils practise writing facsimiles.	√		
Task 2 p 163	To make pupils write a letter of reply to a previous enquiry using previous knowledge.	√		
Task 2 p 165	To practice writing business correspondence (profit-loss statements, balance sheets).	√		
Write it up:Task 2 p 168	To make pupils write an annual report for a company using appropriate tenses.	√		
Write it out: Task 1p 172	To make pupils practise writing sentences with expressions of purpose.	√		
Task 2 p172	To make pupils practise paraphrasing sentences using link words and modals.	√		
Task 3 p 173	To get pupils write a confidential report using appropriate link words and modals.	√		
The project	To write a business portfolio.	√		

Though satisfying the writing tasks in the SE2 textbook may seem in terms of

compatibility with the general aims of teaching English under the CBA, there is no clear

statement of objectives at the start of each unit, nor does the textbook explicitly state the

general aims expected from learning the target language, a requirement which is very

central to the CBA. The general aims of the teaching/learning programme are only stated

in the syllabus and the accompanying documents delivered by the Ministry of National

Education. More importantly, there is no overt mention or explanation of the underlying

principles and claims upon which rests the approach being adopted. As advocated by Ur

(1996), objectives should be explicitly stated in an introduction, and should be used in the

material. Furthermore, textbook design and development should be a one-way process, and

this was explained by Cunningsworth (1995, p. 15), who asserted that "The aims and

objectives of a learning/teaching programme should determine which course materials are

used, and not vice-versa, reflecting the principle that coursebooks are better servants than masters." Considering the general aims of teaching English within the scope of such an approach, and with particular reference to teaching and learning writing, the different writing constituents did not receive the same concern and consideration from the textbook designers, nor did the first-glance impressionistic analysis reveal any accountability of learners' differences in terms of proficiency and aptitude. In the words of Cunningsworth (1995), "A sound way to approach the selection of coursebooks is firstly to identify the aims and objectives of your teaching programme and secondly to analyse the learning/teaching situation in which the material will be used."(p. 5). It is very obvious that considering the needs of the learners and their ability levels is very central to situation analysis and can tell a good deal about what to include and what to eliminate in a given textbook. Put differently, revisiting such compatibility does ultimately call for questioning the materials development process in terms of the who, the how, the what, and the whom to design for, for this pours into putting the learners in the center of this process.

B. Suitability to Learners

2. Does the writing component help cater for mixed ability learners?

The 58 writing tasks included in the textbook are a mixture of graphology tasks, scaffolding tasks, and composing tasks. A possible reframing of this checklist item relates to whether or not pupils, with various levels of abilities (be they skilled or less-skilled learners), can respond successfully to all writing tasks or at least to the majority of the tasks. For a textbook to be satisfying and at the level of pupils' expectations, both skilled and less-skilled pupils should be able to do the tasks, another way of saying that the textbook should include tasks of varying degrees of difficulty. The table below categorises the writing tasks and their number in each unit in the SE2 textbook:

Table 58: *Types of Writing Tasks and their Distribution in the SE2 Textbook.*

Task type Units	Graphology tasks	Scaffolding tasks	Composing tasks
Unit 1	1	7	2
Unit 2	0	6	1
Unit 3	0	4	1
Unit 4	0	6	1
Unit 5	0	5	2
Unit 6	1	4	1
Unit 7	0	6	1
Unit 8	0	8	1
Total	2	46	10

From the above table, it can be noticed that graphology tasks, focusing on writing mechanics (punctuation, format, layout, spelling …) are barely found in the textbook, with only two tasks in two different units. Concerning scaffolding tasks, they seem to be very focused on. Their number ranges from four to eight tasks per unit. As explained by Hyland (2003), scaffolding tasks can be classified into four main types: language familiarisation, model analysis, controlled composition, and guided composition. Such a type of tasks does in fact help pupils be aware of the language forms and patterns relevant to the target genre of composition, and also prepare them for authentic writing situations. After becoming familiar enough with the language forms, patterns, genre, and structures, pupils will have to generate texts with controlled input, in the form of information gap, information transfer, key word writing, or picture writing (Hyland, 2003). Given their importance and wide scope of writing coverage, scaffolding tasks have come to outnumber the other two types of writing tasks in the SE2 textbook. As for composing tasks (composing heuristics and extended writing), usually demanding some kind of fluency in written discourse, they do actually give pupils opportunities to put their knowledge and skills into practice in extended composition. Hyland (2003) qualified these as being more thoughtful tasks, and also identified some advantages of extended writing tasks. Hyland (2003) asserted that these tasks help pupils experience independent performance and give them chance to

express themselves in realistic situations, enabling teachers to determine whether or not their pupils have achieved the target level of competency mastery in a given writing genre. The project sections of all units are composing tasks demanding practice in the whole writing process and requiring mobilization of knowledge, skills, and all resources to respond successfully to the situation with appropriate quality of written production.

The three types of writing tasks outlined so far are of different degrees of difficulty, with graphology tasks as being less complicated than scaffolding tasks, which are in turn less complex than composing tasks. Given their different degrees of difficulty, the writing tasks in the textbook do not seem to cater for all learners, especially less skilled ones in that there are only two graphology tasks that are supposed to be doable for them. Moreover, the 46 scaffolding tasks in the SE2 textbook do not seem to help cater for all pupils because not all of them can successfully respond to such tasks, especially information gap and information transfer tasks, namely, **task 2 p. 46**, **write it up p. 68**, **task 2 p. 88**, **task 2 p. 131**, **write it right p 142**, **write it up p. 148**, **write it right 1&2 p. 163**, and **task 3 p. 173**. The 10 composing tasks of the textbook do not cater for all pupils in that very few of them are likely to master the targeted writing competency.

3. Does the writing component accommodate different learning styles?

Learning styles, as defined by Reid (1993; as cited in Hyland, 2003, p. 43), relate to the cognitive, affective, and perceptual characteristics that help identify learners' ways of perceiving, interacting with, and reacting to the learning environment. This implies that learners stand to learn in different ways, depending on their preferences to a given style. As explained in chapter two, learners' perceptual style preferences can be accommodated in different ways, and all learners, be they visual, auditory, tactile, or kinesthetic, should find way in the writing class and materials. Moreover, and as claimed by Grant (1987, p. 11), "Our students are likely to differ quite widely in the *way* they learn-what educationists

call their *learning styles*. The way a teacher teaches -and the way a textbook is designed- should take differences in the students' learning styles into account."

For the textbook to meet such a checklist criterion, all learners' learning styles should be accounted for and the writing tasks should be varied enough to satisfy the variety of learning styles of the learners.

In the first unit, the 10 writing tasks do not seem to accommodate different learning styles in that almost all the tasks are bent in favour of visual learners. For instance, **task 1 p. 19** requires pupils to work individually on a model paragraph and edit it for grammatical errors. In **task 2** on the same page, pupils are asked to write a policy statement using the given clues. Such tasks do clearly appeal for visual learners rather than others with different learning styles. In **task 3 p. 20**, pupils have to work individually and make use of correct punctuation marks; in **task 3 p. 21**, they are supposed to write sentences using the suffixes listed in the displayed table on the same page. Similarly, **tasks 5 p. 25** and **write it out p. 29** are about writing sentences and an email using the information in the given box. In **task 2 p. 27**, pupils are asked to complete the blanks in the newspaper article using the tip box. In these seven tasks, pupils have to work alone and no variety of emphasis is being allowed for as to individual and group work except for **task 1 p. 26**, which is a group work activity. There is only one task **(write it up p. 23)** which requires pupils to work in pairs and which works better for learners of an auditory/kinesthetic style of learning. The project of the unit is both visual and kinesthetic in that pupils are supposed to collect data about lifestyles and write a profile in response to the pictures shown on page 30.

To this end, the 10 writing tasks of the first unit do not fully accommodate learners' different learning styles given the fact that auditory and kinesthetic styles did not receive much focus and the tactile learning style is not at all considered in the unit. Moreover, individual work tasks highly outnumber group/pair work tasks.

In the second unit, the seven writing tasks are a mixture of individual work tasks (4 tasks) and group work (3 tasks). As for the VAKT learning styles, the tasks that seem to capture visual learners clearly outnumber those that are likely to interest auditory (**write it out p. 50**) and kinesthetic learners (the **project**). No one writing task is found to satisfy the needs of learners with a tactile preference. For example, in **task 2 p. 40**, pupils have to work in groups to write sentences expressing the functions displayed in the table given on the same page; in **write it right p. 41**, they have to complete the blanks in the poem denouncing prejudice. Owing to these instances, it can be said that the writing tasks of unit two do partly accommodate different learning styles of the pupils.

In unit three, there are five writing tasks, four of which are individual work tasks. In **write it right p. 63**, pupils, in response to the picture showing the Exxon Valdez catastrophe, are supposed to write a press release using the given notes. This task is then appealing for visual learners, who, in the process of text generation, will have to transfer information from graphic and textual display to complete the press release. Similarly, **write it up p. 68** is set to match the interest of visual learners, who are to respond to the picture of the solar home and use the notes provided in order to write a presentation. The **project** on page 72 is the only opportunity for kinesthetic learners to enjoy the writing experience. Seemingly, the writing tasks of the third unit do not accommodate for learners variety of learning styles.

In unit four, there are 7 writing tasks, 6 of which are to be done individually and the remaining one (the project) is a group work. Except for the **project**, which stands to correspond to both visual and kinesthetic learners, all the writing tasks are geared towards suiting visual learners. To illustrate, **write it right p. 83** is a task in which pupils are required to use the given clues to write a short description of water properties. In **write it up tasks 1 & 2 p. 88**, pupils are asked to write letters and replies to ask for and give advice

using the outline and the tip box. Such tasks clearly attract visual learners who will have to respond to textual material. The putting things together section is the final composing task that stands to correspond to the interest of visual, kinesthetic, and even tactile learners in that the latter will have to write a report on scientific experiments they are supposed to carry out themselves. Such a type of tasks is very appealing to learners as they will have the chance to learn by experiencing and doing, a feature that is to the core of the CBA classroom. Hence, the writing tasks in unit four do not accommodate the various learning styles of the learners.

In unit five, there are 7 writing tasks with 2 group work activities and 4 individual work ones. As to the VAKT classification of learning styles, 6 writing tasks seem to be interesting to visual learners, and the one project of this unit favours better both visual and kinesthetic learners in that they will have to write and collect stories of their own. In **task 4 p. 105**, pupils have to write poems using similes and metaphors. In write it out **task 2 p. 111**, they are supposed to write a report using the information provided in the previous task, a practice on which visual learners will likely perform better. As it can be noticed, there is no equal distribution of individual and collaborative work in the writing tasks of this unit, nor do these seem to be applicable to all learning styles and preferences.

Unit six includes 6 writing tasks, 5 of which require pupils to work individually; it is only in the project that pupils will be given chance to work with peers. No equal focus is attributed to both individual and group work in writing tasks. Moreover, all writing tasks in this unit suit visual learners. To exemplify, in **write it right p. 123**, pupils are asked to write a report using the information displayed in the pie chart and the given layout. Learners are thus required to respond to the visuals-graphic and textual materials-provided, in order for them to be able to complete the report. Similarly, in **write it up p. 128**, pupils are supposed to complete the advertisement after reading the tip box. In **task 2**

p. 131, pupils have to use the given notes to develop an argument against some previously reported claims. As it can be noticed, in this unit also, tactile or auditory learning styles are not accounted for.

In unit seven, there are 2 group work writing tasks and 5 individual work ones. Group work is then not very widely practised when teaching writing in this unit. Moreover, the VAKT learning styles do not seem to receive equal focus. For example, **task 3 p. 141** consists of making pupils make speculations and finish writing the given if clauses, a writing task to which visual learners may respond well. In **write it right p. 142**, pupils will have to write a newspaper article making speculations about the events cited in the box and using the given opening of the article. Such a task also attracts visual learners, who may well be willing to positively respond to such a type of instruction. Similarly, **task 1 p. 148** better corresponds to visual learners in that they are supposed to respond to the textual display and the information in the box to write a lament. **Task 2 p. 148** seems to motivate both auditory and visual learners in that these are supposed to correct the mistakes they committed in task 1 on the same page and recite the poem to their peers. Both of **task 4 p.150** and **write it out p. 151** seem to attract visual learners as they are required to use some given notes and the tip boxes to generate written instances of the language. The **project** on page 152-153 is appealing to both visual and kinesthetic learners, who will be involved in data collection in the form of a journal, or a repertory of inventions. Again, the writing tasks do not seem to accommodate different learning styles of the pupils.

The last unit in the SE2 textbook is no exception to this false trail practice. There are only 2 writing tasks requiring collaborative work and 7 individual work tasks. No equal focus is then attributed to both styles and preferences for learning. Moreover, with the exception of the **project** (compiling a business portfolio), which is motivating to visual, tactile, or kinesthetic learners, all writing tasks are oriented to visual learners. Using the given clues,

pupils in **task 1 p. 162** are asked to write introductory sentences expressing different functions and purposes. They are supposed to make use of the textual materials provided in **tasks 1 & 2 p. 163** to write a facsimile and a letter of inquiry, respectively. In **task 2 p. 168** and also **task 3 p. 173**, they are supposed to write reports using the information and the graphic displays. Such tasks do actually motivate visual learners and are by and large far from satisfying learners with other learning styles.

Owing to these interpretations, it is worthwhile mentioning that the writing tasks in the SE2 textbook do not accommodate the various VAKT learning styles and preferences of all pupils, nor do they seem to equally target individual and collaborative work. This does but point to the fact that writing component in the SE2 textbook needs rethinking and revision.

C. Methodology

4. Does the writing component include competencies that are relevant to everyday life situations?

As explained by Peyse et al. (2006, p. 12), "a textbook can have as goal to be as close to reality as possible, presenting meaningful situations, that require the student to react to them either by analyzing them, transforming them, making sense of them, or assuming them,…". This means that a textbook should be used in such a way as to make sense of learning, by confronting pupils with actual, real-life situations to which they are supposed to react (Peyser et al. 2006).

The writing component in the SE2 textbook consists of writing tasks of different types, namely, graphology tasks, scaffolding tasks, and composing tasks. As defined by Lenoir and Jean (2012), "A competency targets effectiveness and is geared towards an aim, since it exists only in its implementation (action, reflection): it is accomplished in action and within a specific context." (p. 70). Given their very restricted scope, graphology tasks, with

their focus on writing mechanics, will not be subject to analysis and evaluation against this criterion. Only composing tasks and the scaffolding tasks requiring mobilization and integration of resources, and involving pupils in either simple or complex written production are to be considered.

In the first unit, **task 2 p. 19** puts pupils in a real situation of language use; they imagine they are on an election campaign and advertise their programme by writing a policy statement. Performing such a task does directly relate to everyday life contexts. In **write it up p. 23**, pupils have to make predictions about the future in the fields of teaching and communication. Such a situation is very close to everyday life and doing it successfully displays mastery of the writing competence in English. Similarly, **write it out**, **task 1 p. 26** is about writing advertisement slogans and **task 2 p. 27** is about writing newspaper articles, activities that are very relevant to and needed in everyday life settings. **Write it out p. 29** is a task which is closely tied to real life contexts in that it implicates pupils in electronic correspondence via emails. Pupils will write an email to a pen friend telling about the plans of the foreign students' visit, a problem situation that plainly depicts everyday life and its specificities. In the **project**, which is the final product of the unit, pupils will write a lifestyles profile comparing Algerian lifestyles to foreign countries lifestyles. This final situation of integration relates to everyday life and helps pupils function effectively in society.

In unit two, **write it right p. 41** puts pupils in a situation in which they have to imagine themselves participating in a UNESCO competition for writing a poem against prejudice. Such a task is a real image of everyday life and does involve pupils in realistic situations of language use. Similarly, **write it up**, **task 1 p. 46** instructs pupils to write a list of school regulations expressing obligation, prohibition, or absence of obligation, which is very central to pupils' immediate environment of which they are active participants. In **task 3 p.**

47, they are asked to write a class charter distinguishing between rights and duties. Through this task, pupils will have the chance to gain awareness about their class responsibilities and rights and will learn to negotiate them with their peers. **Write it out p. 50** introduces pupils to the oratorical style and speech delivery conventions and regulations and invites them to imitate Martin Luther King's speech. That way, pupils will learn by imitating and doing and will get acquainted with the necessary skills to defend arguments and the art of informing, convincing, and stimulating an audience. The **project** culminates the unit by engaging pupils in writing a statement of achievements, recording Nobel Peace Prize winners, listing potential candidates from Algeria and abroad, and explaining the ways these contribute to further advancement of peace in the world. This final section of the unit actually demarks an everyday life concern, but not to its fullest end. The title of the unit is 'Make Peace', and this implies that pupils are supposed to be actors in such the process of making peace, something which is not made evident in the project. Such final situation of integration does not seem to satisfy the basic requirements of integration situations in that it is not problem-solving and does not engage pupils in assuming responsibility in their society.

The writing tasks in unit three include competencies relating to everyday life. For instance, **write it right p. 63** depicts a real situation of using English in daily life in that it invites pupils to write a press release to apologise for the losses and damage caused by a catastrophe and to promise reparation. Through such a task, pupils are likely to develop the writing competency that really indulges their societal expectations. In **write it up p. 68**, pupils are supposed to write a presentation of the solar home, and they are to make use of their knowledge, skills, and attitudes to communicate their ideas to a given audience, which is common practice in everyday life contexts. In the **project**, pupils will supposedly make the best of what they know and what they have come to learn in the unit in order for

them to display writing competency mastery. This final task is about making a conservation plan including a fact sheet synthesizing the main conservation measures that have already been taken by the Algerian government, diagrammes with presentations of waste disposal systems in the local town, a town code, and a map of an ideal future town. Pupils will then be given the opportunity to practise writing for problem solving and for successful integration in everyday life society.

The writing tasks of unit four do also seem to include competencies related to everyday life. For example, **write it right p. 83**, which is about describing water properties, clearly helps learners communicate ideas and share daily experiences with the immediate world of which they make part. Moreover, **write it up, task 1p. 88,** is about writing a letter to an agony aunt seeking advice, a very common practice of British people who are found in a dilemma. Thus, being able to write such a type of correspondence will by all means help pupils solve real life problems and integrate successfully in their society. The **project** on page 92 is about writing an ABC of dreams in the form of a poster (literary streams) while that on page 93 is about writing a report on scientific experiments (scientific streams). Writing an ABC of dreams is very closely tied to everyday life situations in that pupils will find it easy to actually interpret their dreams using the target language. As for the second alternative project, pupils will be able to carry out experiments themselves and write reports on them. This will directly put them in problem solving situations which are widely met in everyday life and will give them chance to put their knowledge into practice, with the intent to display competency mastery.

As for the fifth unit in the SE2 textbook, the seven writing tasks it includes seem to be all in relation to everyday life. For example, in **write it right p. 103**, pupils are asked to narrate a story about a disaster they witnessed in their life. Such type of activities plainly makes pupils involved in using the target language to share ideas and personal and real

experiences. **Write it out, task 2 p. 111** asks pupils to assume the role of a police officer and write a report about an accident, a situation that is common practice in daily life and that is likely to involve them in problem solving. In the **putting things together** section, pupils are supposed to write a collection of stories of different types and including a blurb for such a collection. This task is predominantly useful for pupils to practise and develop narrative skills using the target language, which are very central to their everyday life situations.

In unit six, pupils are involved in doing activities of different purposes. In **write it right p. 123**, they are instructed to interpret a graphic display to write a report about why Americans elected Bill Gates Man of the Year for 2005. This task makes pupils interpret facts and statistics about an event that happened in their daily life, and it makes them practise writing opinion survey reports, a situation that is very common in everyday practice of the target language. In **write it up p. 128**, pupils are supposed to write a short announcement advertising the precautions people should take in earthquakes. Such kind of practice is very useful for them as it instructs them on how to prevent danger, what safety measures to follow, and how and what to do to rescue and save people's lives. By so doing, they will develop skills and competencies that are very solicited in everyday life. The **project** of this unit is also oriented towards developing competencies related to everyday life in that it puts pupils in real situations of language use. Making a survey exploring people's readiness to face natural and man-made disasters, and including a questionnaire, an interview, and a report discussing and interpreting the findings and suggesting tentative solutions and precautions to mitigate risks is closely tied to everyday practice with the target language.

The seven writing tasks unit seven includes relate to the general topic which is science and fiction. Determining the extent to which such topic and such writing tasks help develop

competencies in relation to daily life practice has been quite mystifying in that some of the tasks do not seem to go within such purpose. Considering **write it right p. 142**, which is about writing a newspaper article speculating about past events, it mirrors problem solving situations that are likely to be met in their daily life. As to **write it up p. 148**, pupils in this task are asked to write a type of poems and are introduced to the different characteristics of good poems, namely, rhyme, assonance, consonance, similes, and metaphors. The instruction in this task, however, does not suggest any problem to be solved. Moreover, **write it out p. 151**, being the last writing task in the sequence, does not really involve pupils in problem solving. Rather, it consists of writing a short biography about Michael Faraday. Still, such a task can be considered as relating to everyday life on the basis of the view saying that biographies are written to teach lessons in life that would in turn help pupils manage their everyday life. The **project** of the unit is about writing miscellanies (literary streams) or making a repertory of inventions and discoveries (scientific streams). Writing miscellanies, in the form of a journal including different sections and involving pupils in different types of activities such as meeting famous people and imagining life in another place in time and history, writing a shortlist of fantasies, writing about wishful changes, writing about world affairs, and giving advice, does relate to everyday life, and this is likely to take part in pupils' lives. In making a repertory of inventions and discoveries, pupils will have to write about human achievements in various fields, presented in the form of a wall sheet or a magazine feature, and including a section devoted to highlight the importance of the achievements, and another section in which they express regret about the bad use of the invention or discovery. Such type of task will help pupils relate the different sorts of inventions and discoveries to their daily use in their lives and this helps them understand how important these are and how to avoid misusing them.

In the last unit in the textbook, which deals with business, management, and efficiency, the writing tasks seem to develop competencies that actually relate to pupils' everyday life. For instance, **write it right, task 1 p. 163**, pupils will imagine themselves members of a group of foreign investors interested in starting a business in Algeria and will send a facsimile to the consulate to ask for information. This is in fact a very good example of real life situations requiring pupils' need for critical thinking and knowledge, skills, and resources mobilization for appropriate functioning in society. Moreover, **task 2 p. 163** is also a good example of activities developing competencies relating to everyday life. Pupils in this task, have to imagine themselves working in the consulate and write a reply to the facsimile in the previous task. Such tasks do in fact mirror real situations of language use that are very identical to those pupils would be found in out of the class. Similarly, **task 2 p. 168** is about writing an annual report for a company. Developing such a competency is very central to the CBA since it helps pupils perform successfully in society and it depicts everyday life settings. In **task 3 p. 173**, pupils are supposed to write a confidential report including the necessary parts, namely, the findings, the terms of reference, the introduction, the conclusion, and the recommendations. Such an activity is very helpful to pupils in that it introduces them to the different parts to be included in any confidential report, and it also trains them on writing such type of business correspondences which are very relevant to everyday life. The **project** of this unit relates to compiling a business portfolio including letters, telegrams/fax and telex messages on business situations, letters on social situations related to business, business documents (a business organization chart, an annual report of achievements, a balance sheet,…), and biographies about famous economists. Introducing pupils to portfolios is very central to the teaching of writing under the CBA and developing such competency is very important in pupils' everyday life as it gives them opportunity for developing their autonomy in writing.

5. Does the writing component promote learner autonomy?

Developing autonomous learners has always been highly estimated and aimed at by different teaching orientations, and the CBA is no exception to such reality. Learners need to be competent enough in using the target language in a way as to develop self-reliance skills that would enable them function effectively and satisfy the ever changing needs and requirements of the society of which they are making part. Such a view was elaborated by Auerbach (1986), who believed "The goal is to enable students to become autonomous individuals capable of coping with the demands of the world." (p. 414).

Given its importance, and because no one teaching method works on its own, concern should equally be attributed to instructional materials and the way they are designed. Put otherwise, the aim is truly to develop learners' autonomy, but parallel focus should be directed towards the teaching materials, with the intent to measure the degree to which they help promote autonomous learners. This is by and large a difficult process to be done given the fact that instructional materials cannot be fully informative, for they constitute a one-side party in the whole sophisticated process.

In trying to get an overview about the writing tasks' relation to developing learners' autonomy, one has to acknowledge the very positive matching and the very consideration of such criterion by the SE2 textbook designers. Regardless of the task objectives, which do all display consideration of learners' actual involvement and autonomy development, the language of instruction of the assignments yields concerns about promoting autonomous learners. For example, in **write it right, task 1 p. 19**, pupils are asked to revise the paragraph for errors in tense use, and are instructed to use the semi-modal 'used to' each time they think it is appropriate. Even the choice of words tells a lot about how responsible for their learning pupils should be. Asking them to take decision as to when to use and when not use the semi modal implies that they have to assume their responsibilities

of and decide upon their advance in learning. In **write it out p. 29,** pupils are supposed to write an email to an English pen friend informing him about the plans of the next two months. Through this task, pupils are likely to develop their autonomy in that they will have to call for their own skills, knowledge, strategies, and know how to do to be able to generate pieces of written discourse. Similarly, in **write up, task 1 p. 46**, pupils will write a list of school regulations. Such a topic does work, even indirectly, for promoting learners' autonomy as these are made responsible for the safety of their schools and for sharing and exchanging feelings of self-esteem, self-respect, and peace initiatives. In **write it right p. 63**, pupils are asked to complete writing a press release to present apologies for the damage, using the given notes and are left free to add sentences of their own, motivating them to use their personal skills and write independently and successfully. **Write it out p. 91** also puts pupils in a situation that is likely to promote their autonomy in that they will have to write a letter of reply to a friend revealing contingency plans about their eventual future after the Baccalauréat exam. By so doing, pupils will be left free to decide on the choice of ideas and structures to include in the letter, and this will lead to making them in the route for developing their autonomy. Even in **task 2 p. 91,** pupils are supposed to themselves correct the mistakes they committed in the letter they wrote, and this directly promotes self-assessment of their writing skills in particular, and their autonomy in general. In **task 4 p. 105**, pupils are invited to participate in a poetry competition by writing a poem. Such an activity is to the core of promoting learners' autonomy, as they will reinvest previously acquired savoirs and skills to be able to produce lines of poetry. As for the **projects** in the textbook, they do pertain to developing learners' autonomy in that they give chance for pupils to display their competency mastery through actual written production with resort to the available resources in such a way as to ensure successful communication and functioning to take place.

Though satisfying the writing tasks may seem in terms of promoting learners' autonomy, they may be questioned in terms of amount of guidance, an aspect that indirectly intervenes in the process of autonomy building. Put differently, all writing tasks in the SE2 textbook are equipped with cues, notes, layouts, or even explicative language as to what tenses/structures to use or what lexis to utilize to help learners generate texts. Pupils are then all the time scaffolded to write, a practice that may limit their willing to write without support and guidance. It can be said then that the writing tasks partly promote learners' autonomy. Moreover, pupils are not engaged in self-assessment tasks, and this may complicate the process leading them to become autonomous learners.

6. Does the writing component promote skills integration?

Skills integration is one important feature of the CBA in that it maintains communication and develops learners' analytic and critical thinking processes. In the SE2 textbook, pupils are being exposed to a variety of writing tasks, which do not seem to be all promoting skills integration. As mentioned in the Accompanying Document (2005, p. 13), it is very important that the four skills be integrated, with emphasis on one particular skill at different stages of the lesson.

As for the writing tasks, overall analysis and evaluation of each unit shows that tasks that do not promote skills integration outnumber those that do. The table below recapitulates the findings:

Table 59: *Writing Tasks and Skills Integration per Unit.*

Tasks	Tasks that promote skills integration		Tasks that do not promote skills integration	
Units	Number	Percentage%	Number	Percentage%
One	2	20%	8	80%
Two	5	71.43%	2	28.57%
Three	2	40%	3	60%
Four	2	28.57%	5	71.43%
Five	2	28.57%	5	71.43%
Six	3	50%	3	50%
Seven	5	71.43%	2	28.57%
Eight	6	66.67%	3	33.33%
Total	27	46.55%	31	53.45%

To illustrate, **write it right, task 1 p. 19** does not promote skills integration; pupils are just asked to correct mistakes in using tenses. In **task 2 p. 19**, they have to write a policy statement using the given cues. This task does not encourage skills integration; focus in only on the writing skill. Similarly, **task 3 p. 20** does not encourage skills integration; pupils will just have to work on punctuation, which is central to the writing skill. In **write it out p. 29**, no form of skills integration is called upon; pupils are instructed to write an email about future plans, so writing is the only targeted skill.

However, **write it up p. 23** does somehow encourage skills integration in that pupils are asked to write about the future of teaching and communication, and are supposed to act out the dialogue in front of the class. In such a task, focus is mainly on writing, and speaking is also considered. Moreover, in **write it out p. 50**, pupils have to read the information introduced in the tip box to write a speech imitating Martin Luther King' s speech. So in this task, reading is used as a pre-writing task, bur major focus in on writing. In **task 5 p. 70**, pupils should read the text on page 69 and pick up examples to write the four types of sentences: topic sentences, supporting sentences, transitional sentences, and concluding sentences. In **task 4 p. 150**, pupils are asked to reuse their answers to the previous reading task and the information in the tip box to write a short

commentary about the reading text. Both reading and writing are then integrated in such a way as to pave the way for the main targeted skill which is writing. All the **project sections** included in the textbook do in fact promote skills integration. Pupils have to mobilize and integrate all previously learned items in listening, speaking, and reading to be able to write and compose texts of different genre types. So, it can be concluded that the writing tasks found in the SE2 textbook do partly promote skills integration.

7.   Does the writing component integrate ICTs?

The use of ICTs is very central to implementing the CBA. As reviewed in chapter two, and elaborated in all official documents delivered by the National Ministry of Education, using ICTs in class can relate to internet search about the different topics and text genres used in the textbook, using data show for project presentations, sending emails, etc. Given the complexity of the writing skill, pupils need to learn and utilize ICT skills when learning writing to increase their motivation and to pave the way for new interactive learning methods to replace traditional ones.

With regard to the SE2 textbook as a whole, there is no explicit mention recommending the use of ICTs, as a source of input in relation to listening or reading skills, or output related to both productive skills. In the eight units figuring in the textbook, the very sole opportunity in which pupils are supposed to manipulate/deal with ICTs is in unit one, **write it out p. 29**, where they are asked to send an email to a pen friend. Even in the **project** sections, there is no clear mention or suggested site to be consulted for research purposes. Therefore, it can be said that the textbook does not satisfy pupils' needs and requirements in terms of ICTs.

8.   Does the writing component promote cooperation?

Cooperation is highly targeted in the CBA as it helps construct knowledge both inside and outside the classroom. This does not, however, exclude the importance of individual

work in developing learners' reflection and critical thinking skills leading to autonomy. The writing tasks this textbook includes are a mixture of both tasks that involve pupils in cooperation and those that do not favour cooperating with peers. The table below summarises the tasks and their types in the eight units of the SE2 textbook.

Table 60: *Writing Tasks and Cooperative work.*

Tasks	Tasks that promote cooperation		Tasks that do not promote cooperation	
Units	Number	Percentage%	Number	Percentage%
One	3	30%	7	70%
Two	3	42.86%	4	57.14%
Three	1	20%	4	80%
Four	2	28.57%	5	71.43%
Five	2	28.57%	5	71.43%
Six	1	16.67%	5	83.33%
Seven	2	28.57%	5	71.43%
Eight	2	22.22	7	77.78%
Total	16	27.59%	42	72.41%

As it can be noticed, the majority of writing tasks are those that do not favour cooperation, requiring pupils to work individually. This is very palpable in units one, three, four, five, six, seven, and eight. In unit two, there are almost as many tasks promoting cooperation as those that do not. In units three and six, the only task that makes pupils interact and cooperate is the project of each unit; no tasks other than this promote cooperation. To illustrate, in **write it out, task 1 p. 26**, pupils are supposed to work in groups to write advertisement slogans for a car. They are also required to compare their answers. In the eight **project** sections, pupils will have the chance to practise cooperation to its fullest end; they will work in groups, discuss the topics and the steps, work together in drafting, revising, and editing their final products. Still, there is no explicit statement in the textbook that the project is to be done in groups.

However, the pupils do not have enough opportunities for cooperating in the writing tasks, which do actually require optimum participation and accountability of the group

members in the process of text creation. So it can said that the 58 writing tasks do partly promote cooperation given the fact that only 16 of them do involve pupils in so doing.

9. Does the writing component involve learners in formative assessment?

As already explained in the second chapter, the use of both formative and summative assessment is very central to the CBA classroom. However, formative assessment occasions should largely exceed those of summative assessment. For summative assessment, concern is given to measuring the degree of mastery of competencies after instruction has taken place. Formative assessment, however, is concerned with the continuous and ongoing measuring of pupils' advance in learning, strengths and weaknesses, evoking evidence of learning behavior with the intent to provide feedback and shape the final outcome.

With reference to the official curriculum delivered by the Ministry of National Education (2005), formative assessment is to be done with individual pupils, during the so called 'week of integration', that is, after three weeks of learning. Such a type of assessment is not necessarily scored, but must implicate pupils in oral or written tasks. More importantly, pupils should be made aware about the different procedures and criteria assessment, which will in turn help develop their autonomy in learning. Pupils will interestingly learn to give value to perseverance and will hopefully, with the teachers' support, learn to develop remediation strategies likely to lead them to progress in learning. As reviewed in chapter one, portfolios, among many others, stand to be very common techniques to implement so as to collect information about their advance in the course of study, especially in learning writing.

In the SE2 textbook, there is no explicit reference to the week of integration to proceed through, nor does the textbook devote any specific section meant for enabling the pupils to estimate the degree to which learning has been effective, successful, and what

specific items need to be reinforced and worked upon extensively. Furthermore, it is true that both teachers and pupils are asked, in the very first pages to make use of portfolios, as a means of keeping their tasks and exercises to check their progress, but there is no exact mention of portfolios as a means of formative assessment of their writing abilities. Moreover, even the textbook does not include any specific parts or sections devoted for checking progress via portfolio assessment. It can then be remarked that the writing tasks included in the textbook do not involve pupils in formative assessment of writing.

10.   Does the writing component target both writing as a process and the final written product?

Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) outlined the different procedures and principles for designing effective tasks for teaching writing, relevant to which is balancing product and process, content and form (p. 138). These tasks were described by Doyle (1983, p. 162; as cited in Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 138) in terms of

> (a) the products students are to formulate, such as an original essay or answers to a set of test questions (i.e., target tasks), (b) the operations (or processes) that are necessary to produce these products, such as memorizing and classifying (i.e., learner tasks), and (c) the givens, the resources available to students while they are generating the product, such as a model essay.

As acknowledged in the official documents delivered by the Ministry of National Education, "Most activities are meant to emphasise correctness and appropriacy in textual discourse (use of discourse markers /connectors), to fulfill various functions (for example, reading aloud a speech, a report, giving a lecture, etc)." (Riche et al.; 2005, p.6). Such a view may point to the fact that the tasks/writing tasks are product-driven, rather than process-driven (focusing on the writer, the content, the writing processes, and the purpose),

given that product methodologies focus on the end product, on grammatical correctness, and also on raising awareness on grammatical structures.

The procedure followed to analyse and evaluate the writing tasks included in the SE2 textbook against this criterion calls for identification of those tasks that are product-oriented and those that are process-driven, with the intent to estimate the overall coverage of both types and the degree to which the writing tasks target the process as much as the final product.

The ten writing tasks included in the first unit are seemingly both product and process oriented tasks. For example, in **write it right, task 1 p. 19**, pupils are given a text to be corrected and revised in terms of use of tenses. There is, then, clear focus on grammatical correctness of the final product, a concern that directly relates to the product orientation to writing instruction. Though no clear indication of the existence of any steps or strategies to be followed, the task also focuses on both content and purpose, and may thus be considered as leaning towards the process approach. Similarly, **task 2** on the same page engages pupils in advertising by writing a policy statement using the 'going to' form and the given clues. This is very typical to the product approach, which puts forward carrying out sentence expansions from cue words, and raising awareness on grammatical structures (going to). It does also target the content of writing and the purpose for which it is practised, pointing to the process orientation. **Task 3 p. 20** and **task 3 p. 21** focus on form and relate to grammatical accuracy of texts and also to modeling (punctuation and affixation at sentence level). As for **write it up p. 23**, pupils are just asked to write a dialogue following a given example. Writing using a model is relevant to the product orientation wherein prototypes of sentences and paragraphs are being used to write in various genres. In **task 5 p. 25**, pupils will practice the previously learnt grammatical aspects, and use the given information in the table and the example to write sentences

giving definitions. Such an activity engages them in imitating sentences and raises their awareness about some grammatical structures. The two writing tasks, included in the **write it out** rubric on page **26-27**, are also product-geared: the first one puts pupils in situations where they are supported and scaffolded by the very explicitly stated information in the table on page 26, namely, the relevant adjectives and adverbs, together with the superlative and comparative forms needed for composing advertisement slogans, emphasizing form and accuracy in writing; the **second task** on page **27is** a consolidation activity consisting of completing the blanks in the newspaper article following the tip box (techniques for developing paragraphs, comparison and contrast paragraphs and the relevant link words). Such an activity aims at raising awareness on textual coherence and the use of conjunctions (link works) as cohesive devices, a common practice of the product approach to teaching writing, and this was advocated by Pincas (1982b), who "…sees writing as being primarily about linguistic knowledge, with attention focused on the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices." (As cited in Badger & White, 2000, p. 1) Moreover, when responding to these tasks, pupils are not at all made aware of the very different strategies needed for the act of composing, and this may limit their creative skills and autonomy. The last writing task in the 'Developing Skills' section, which is **write it out p. 29**, is also typical to both the product and the process orientations and some of the genre approach: pupils are supposed to write an email using the information given in the table (activities, place, and time) and the opening provided for them. They are asked to expand the given cues into sentences and paragraphs, without being directed to follow any steps or stages, nor are they made aware of or instructed to use any specific writing strategies that would help generate texts. They are asked to write for a known audience and with a purpose being expressed (telling about future plans and intentions).

The other remaining writing tasks of the seven other units are no exception and are seemingly some of the product, the process, and genre orientations. In unit two, **write it out p.50** is a consolidation task in which pupils are explicitly instructed to imitate Martin Luther King's speech using the auxiliaries they learnt in the unit, the information in the tip box (characteristics of oratorical style) to complete the given speech. Copying, imitating, focusing on form and correctness are all central to the product pedagogy. In unit three, **task 5 p. 70**, pupils are supposed to pick up examples from the text on the previous page to complete the blanks about sentence types, focusing on organization and support. In unit four, all writing tasks seem to focus on the final product except for **task 2 p. 91** and **task 3 p. 91**, in which pupils are firstly asked to correct mistakes and exchange drafts for further error checking; then, they are supposed to write a revised version of the letter they wrote in a previous activity and hand it to their teacher. These two writing tasks are partly process-oriented in that they involve pupils in reviewing and editing of drafts and then in rewriting the first draft. The writing tasks in unit five do also target the final product and genre; for instance, **write it up p. 108** instructs pupils to write a short tale (genre) following some given guidelines. **Write it out, task 1 p. 111** highly favours error-free products in that pupils are asked to correct wrong tense use in the given report following an example. Similarly, in unit six, **task 2 p. 131**, pupils will use the hints/expressions and the given notes to write argumentative sentences, working on both form and imitation of input. In unit seven, **write it up p. 148**, pupils are supposed to use the information in the box to complete the given poem; they are also asked to correct their mistakes. Such an activity focuses on form and correctness, directly related to the product approach. The writing tasks in unit eight are also product-oriented in that grammatical structures, correctness, and cues are highly targeted and relied on. For example, in **task 3 p. 173**, pupils are instructed to use the given modal/example to write a report using the given link words and modals. This task

raises pupils' awareness on the grammatical structures relevant to such type of composition and highly regards form and accuracy of production.

The **projects** of the eight units do not engage pupils in writing following a process, except for the last unit (writing a portfolio); rather, they instruct them to follow the given recommendations as to which grammatical structures and language forms to use, what parts to include in the project, or what examples/modals to follow/use. Moreover, all through the unit sequences in the textbook, there is no clear statement that pupils should work at different occasions on the project and proceed through steps with the teachers' monitoring and supervision, and there are no mid-sections devoted for project follow up. There is no indication that the project is to be done following specific steps and strategies, nor does the textbook focus on the means by which texts are created.

Thus, the writing tasks in the SE2 textbook do somehow target the product as much as the process but the two orientations are not fully respected. Moreover, there seems to be no systematicity as to what approach (es) to adopt in the process of designing writing tasks. Hence, no alternative other than rethinking the choice of the approach to be adopted and revisiting the tasks design procedures seems more necessary.

II. Content

11. Does the writing component cover all writing elements (syntax, grammar, mechanics, vocabulary/word choice, organisation, audience, purpose, genre, content, writing processes)?

With reference to the different writing elements/constituents, the writing tasks in the SE2 textbook seem to have varied inclinations. Analysis will be done in relation to each unit separately, with findings displayed and summarized in tables.

Table 61: *The Targeted Writing Elements in Unit One.*

Writing Task	Targeted Writing Elements									
	Syntax	Grammar	Mechanics	Vocabulary	Organisation	Audience	Purpose	Genre	Content	Processes
Write it right:Task1 p 19		+								+
Write it right: Task 2 p 19		+				+	+		+	
Task 3 p 20			+							
Task 3 p 21		+		+						
Write it up p 23	+						+		+	
Task 5 p 25	+	+		+						+
Write it out: Task 1 p 26		+					+			
Write it out: Task 2 p 27		+				+				
Write it out p 29						+	+		+	
The project p 30		+		+	+		+		+	

As it can be seen in the table above, the writing tasks in unit one mostly target grammar and purpose. Of the 10 writing tasks, 7 tasks explicitly engage pupils in using the grammatical aspects related to the unit, or invites them to correct errors of grammar. 6 writing tasks out of 10 relate to the purpose of writing or the function being aimed at (for instance, predicting, narrating, talking about plans and intentions). Analysing each task independently helps point to the fact that no one task covers all writing elements at once, even those that are supposedly integration situation tasks. The project of the unit is no exception to such reality: this unit section does not really and explicitly target syntax, mechanics, audience, genre, and writers' processes, all being to the core of the act of composing. Owing to these findings, the writing component in unit one does not seem to fully promote teaching writing within the scope of the CBA in that grammatical accuracy is overemphasized at the expense of all remaining elements of writing, and genre and writers' processes are not largely considered.

As to unit two, analysis has shown the following results:

Table 62: *The Targeted Writing Elements in Unit Two.*

Writing Task	Targeted Writing Elements									
	Syntax	Grammar	Mechanics	Vocabulary	Organisation	Audience	Purpose	Genre	Content	Processes
Task 2 p 40	+						+			+
Write it right p 41							+		+	
Write it up: Task 1 p46		+		+					+	
Write it up: Task 2 p 46			+	+	+					
Write it up: Task 3 p 47				+		+			+	
Write it out p 50	+	+			+	+	+		+	+
The project					+				+	

As shown in the above table, of the 7 writing tasks figuring in this unit, 5 of them target content of writing (relevance, originality, logic, etc). It is noteworthy to acknowledge that in all tasks where content is being targeted, clues and notes have been provided for pupils, even in final situations of integration. The sole writing task that targets more elements is the **write it out p. 50**, a consolidation activity incorporating syntax, grammar, organization, audience, purpose, process (modeling) and content. Overall analysis shows that writing elements are somehow covered in this unit, but not sufficiently in terms of genre and writers' processes, two basic elements needed to generate ideas.

As for the third unit, the table below summarises the results:

Table 63: *The Targeted Writing Elements in Unit Three.*

Writing Task	Targeted Writing Elements									
	Syntax	Grammar	Mechanics	Vocabulary	Organisation	Audience	Purpose	Genre	Content	Processes
Write it right p		+				+	+		+	

	Syntax	Grammar	Mechanics	Vocabulary	Organisation	Audience	Purpose	Genre	Content	Processes
63										
Write it up p68		+			+	+	+			
Task5 p 70	+				+					
Write it out: Task 2 p 71	+				+					
The project		+		+	+				+	

In this unit, emphasis is directed towards organization (4 tasks), grammar (3 tasks), and content (3 tasks).There seems to be no equal focus devoted to the different elements of writing in the design of the 5 writing tasks in this unit. Mechanics, genre, and writing processes are not covered in any of the 5 tasks. In unit four, the results are as follows:

Table 64: *The Targeted Writing Elements in Unit Four.*

Writing Task	Targeted Writing Elements									
	Syntax	Grammar	Mechanics	Vocabulary	Organisation	Audience	Purpose	Genre	Content	Processes
Write it right p 83		+		+			+		+	
Write it up: Task 1 p88					+	+	+			
Write it up: Task 2 p 88					+	+	+			
Write it out: Task 1 p 91					+	+	+			
Write it out:Task2 p 91	+	+	+							+
Write it out: Task3 p91	+	+	+							+
The project	+	+	+	+	+		+		+	

With regard to unit four, the 7 writing tasks seem to be different in terms of targeted elements. However, grammar, organization, and purpose are much focused on. The project of the unit is the only task that covers almost all writing elements, except for audience, genre, and writers' processes, and this is partly positive.

The analysis of the 7 writing tasks of unit five are put in the table below:

Table 65: *The Targeted Writing Elements in Unit Five.*

Writing Task	Targeted Writing Elements									
	Syntax	Grammar	Mechanics	Vocabulary	Organisation	Audience	Purpose	Genre	Content	Processes
Write it right p 103	+	+		+	+		+		+	
Task 4 p 105	+				+				+	
Write it up p 108	+				+		+	+	+	
Task 3 p 110		+		+	+	+	+	+	+	
Write it out: Task 1 p 111		+				+	+			
Write it out:Task2 p 111	+	+				+	+		+	
The project					+		+		+	

As it can be noticed, the 7 writing tasks of this unit do target different elements of writing. Still, content, purpose, organization, syntax, and grammar are repeatedly worked upon while mechanics and writers' processes are ignored. Only task 3 p. 110 covers a large number of writing elements. Thus, no equal focus is attributed to all writing elements in the writing activities of unit five.

In unit six, the writing elements are being worked upon in the following way:

Table 66: *The Targeted Writing Elements in Unit Six.*

Writing Task	Targeted Writing Elements									
	Syntax	Grammar	Mechanics	Vocabulary	Organisation	Audience	Purpose	Genre	Content	Processes
Write it right p 123	+	+		+	+		+		+	
Write it up p 128		+			+	+	+		+	
Task 3 p 130	+	+	+							
Write it out: Task 1 p 130	+	+					+			
Write it out:Task2 p 131	+	+		+					+	
The project		+			+				+	

As shown in the table, the writing tasks included in this unit do not cover all elements of writing, and genre and writers' processes are not considered in no one task. The most widely practised elements are grammar, content, and syntax, with grammar being considered in the 6 writing tasks of the unit. This may point to the inefficacy of the materials design process.

In unit seven, the writing tasks are analysed as follows:

Table 67: *The Targeted Writing Elements in Unit Seven.*

Writing Task	Targeted Writing Elements									
	Syntax	Grammar	Mechanics	Vocabulary	Organisation	Audience	Purpose	Genre	Content	Processes
Task 3 p 141	+	+					+			
Write it right p 142		+				+	+		+	
Write it up: Task 1 p148	+	+	+		+			+	+	
Write it up: Task 2 p 148	+	+	+							+
Task 4 p 150	+				+		+		+	
Write it out p 151	+				+		+		+	
The project		+		+	+				+	

The seven writing tasks of unit seven seem to cover all writing aspects except the writers' processes and stages to be followed when writing. 5 tasks out of 7 focus on grammar, content, and syntax while vocabulary, genre, processes, and audience are not much focused on. With regard to unit eight, the 9 writing tasks do not equally focus to the different elements:

Table 68: *The Targeted Writing Elements in Unit Eight.*

Writing Task	Targeted Writing Elements									
	Syntax	Grammar	Mechanics	Vocabulary	Organisation	Audience	Purpose	Genre	Content	Processes
Task 1 p 162		+					+			
Write it right: Task 1 p 163	+		+		+	+	+		+	

Task							
Task 2 p 163	+			+	+		+
Task 2 p 165			+				+
Write it up:Task 2 p 168	+	+	+		+		+
Write it out: Task 1p 172	+	+					
Task 2 p172	+	+					
Task 3 p 173		+		+	+		+
The project			+	+	+		+	+

As mentioned in the table, content, audience, grammar, and syntax are very present in the writing tasks; however, genre is not covered at all. In general terms, the various writing aspects are covered: vocabulary, writing processes, and mechanics received little concern while genre is ignored.

With reference to the previously cited information, and with the intent to reach conclusions as to the predominant writing aspects in the SE2 textbook, the tasks covering each aspect have been counted and the results appear in the table below:

Table 69: *Coverage of Writing Elements in the SE2 Textbook.*

Targeted Writing Elements	Number of Writing Tasks
Syntax	27
Grammar	36
Mechanics	9
Vocabulary	17
Organisation	28
Audience	19
Purpose	30
Genre	3
Content	35
Processes	8
Total Number of Tasks	58

As it can be seen in the table above, there is some kind of predominance of writing tasks targeting grammar, content, purpose, organization, and syntax, respectively. Furthermore, there are some writing tasks targeting audience and vocabulary, and very few ones targeting genre, mechanics, and process in the textbook.

Such findings directly point to the fact that there is no, at least intentional, equal focus on the different writing aspects in all tasks, units, and the textbook as a whole. This is very logical, given the varied nature, type, and objectives of writing tasks. It comes then as no surprise that these results echo those found in the previous analyses, that the writing component in the SE2 textbook has been designed with no fully fledged, specific writing approach being adopted, nor was such design subject to any consideration of any design priorities. Put differently, the writing tasks are mostly product or process-geared, with very few exceptions of the genre oriented writing tasks focusing on the genre of writing. Still, focusing on the purpose of writing, on the genre, or on the writing processes, each independently, does not necessarily mean that it is the process or the genre approach which is being implemented, but rather some of each.

12. Does the writing component help practise different text types?

The SE2 textbook of English stands to be very satisfactory in terms of variety as to text types. First glance analysis of the whole textbook can suffice to come to the conclusion that the latter is very exhaustive in terms of text types. The 58 writing tasks in the textbook engage pupils in writing different text types, namely, policy statements, slogans, newspaper articles, letters of different types, poems, acrostics, charters, press release, stories with different types, reports with different types, announcements, conservation plans, lifestyles profiles, statements of achievements, survey reports, miscellanies, repertories, and business portfolios. This textbook is then very successful with regard to such a criterion.

13. Is there enough variety of writing tasks?

With reference to the results obtained previously, there are three different types of writing activities: graphology tasks, scaffolding tasks, and composing tasks. These vary in

their degree of difficulty, complexity, and generated output. In the eight units of the textbook, scaffolding tasks (46) outnumber both composing (10) and graphology tasks (2). This implies that there exists some kind a variety in the writing tasks, but which is not practised to its fullest end. In addition to that, and with reference to the SE2 textbook map diagramming the eight units and their constituents (see Appendix F), it is clear that the 58 included writing tasks do engage pupils in producing different types of output at both sentence level (simple production) and paragraph and composition level (complex production). For instance, pupils will have to write a policy statement, slogans, a profit/loss statement, a balance sheet, a dialogue, a newspaper article, a letter, a poem, an acrostic, a class charter, a press release, a presentation, a news story, an announcement, a report, with different types of each. They are also instructed to do projects (in groups) such as writing a profile, a statement of achievement, a conservation plan, a collection of stories, a portfolio, or make a survey and a repertory.

Such interpretations do imply that there is some variety in the different writing tasks included in the SE2 textbook.

14. Are writing tasks communicative?

It has become almost common sense that the purpose of any writing activity is to communicate with readers and share personal experiences. As elaborated in the second chapter, to the core of communication is the notion of communicative competence, which entails developing procedures for the teaching of the four skills, acknowledging the interdependence of language and communication (Richards, 2001). As Richards (2006) explained, communicative competence relates to aspects of language knowledge about how to use language for different purposes and functions, about how to vary language use according to the setting and the participants, about how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports), and about how to maintain

communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge (e.g., using communication strategies). More importantly, and as elaborated by Cunningsworth (1995), "When evaluating such activities, we must consider to what extent the skills and strategies learned and practised are transferable to the real world. In general, the greater the potential for transfer, the more valuable the activity." (p.117) Similarly, Grant (1987) defined a communicative activity as "Any classroom exercise that helps the students to *use* the language they have learned in the classroom in real life." (p. 14)

Overall analysis of the writing tasks included in the SE2 textbook will be approached with the intent to determine whether or not these help develop learners' communicative competence and enable them to function effectively in society. The writing component will be analysed in each unit, then cumulated knowledge will help draw final conclusions.

The writing activities in the first unit are communicative and allow for mastery of language competences needed for the sake of establishing and maintaining communication. To illustrate, in **write it out, task 1 p. 26**, pupils will learn to write advertisement slogans for cars. Such a task puts pupils in e real situation of language use, aiming at expressing a given function/purpose, which is advertising products, and having a presupposed audience, who are the customers. Similarly, **write it out p. 29** plainly depicts a real life situation/context, where pupils will have to write for the purpose of informing/telling an audience about future plans. Such an activity really allows for communication with members of the language community and helps exchange and share experience with other people. In the **project p. 30**, pupils will have to write about their home country lifestyles and even those of foreign countries (if possible) in the past, in the present, and in the future. By so doing, pupils will be given chance through such communicative event, to purposefully anchor their national identity and expose and share their cultural heritage with the readership.

In unit two, all the writing tasks are communicative to a very large extent. For instance, **task 2 p. 40** engages pupils in matching sentences with their functions, and in ultimately producing others with the same functions. Though the task is not fully communicative (no specific audience and context), it does put pupils in a situation of utilizing language (through written output) for the sake of expressing given functions. This will train them on using language for a given purpose and will enable them, subsequently, to communicate successfully in their everyday life. In **write it right p. 41**, pupils will have the opportunity to express themselves via constructed verse. Such an activity plainly puts pupils in a communicative context, which is a UNESCO competition against prejudice, with an audience in mind, and for the purpose of denouncing false opinions about others. Similarly, **task 3 p. 47** consists of putting pupils in a situation where they are supposed to write a class charter including rights and duties. Through this task, pupils will get introduced to the notions of rights and duties, are will interestingly learn how to be responsible in class settings and what likely benefits they may gain. Such a task clearly mirrors real situations of language use and promotes communication.

The five writing tasks in unit three are communicative, with the exception of **task 5 p. 70**, which does not seem to be fully communicative. In this task, pupils are asked to pick out examples from the reading passage and to complete the blanks about the different types and functions of sentences (topic sentences, supporting sentences, transitional sentences, and concluding sentences). Pupils are not fully engaged in communication; they are rather made aware of the organizational patterns of written composition, which are one given party of the discourse competence, which is in turn an element of communicative competence. The **write it right** task on page **63** is communicative; it aims at reporting information, apologizing for the damage caused by the Exxon Valdez catastrophe, and promising repair, and that in the form of a press release. By writing such report, pupils will

be able to communicate their ideas to a given audience in written format. The **project** on page **72** is about writing a conservation plan with the aim of explaining and outlining the different measures to be followed by citizens in order to protect the environment; there is then clear reference to the context, the audience, the purpose, and the communicative event, which mirror real situations of language use.

The fourth unit, which is about science and technology, include writing tasks that are communicative to a large extent, with the exception of two tasks. **Write it right p.83** is a writing task that engages pupils in writing a description about water properties. Such a topic is directly related to everyday life, and pupils will have the chance to use the target language to communicate their ideas in text format for the purpose of describing to a given audience.

Similarly, **write it out, task 1 p. 91** is communicative in that pupils are put in a real context (a friend has written a letter expressing his worry about your future career) where they are supposed to write a reply in the form of a contingency plan to relieve his anxiety. Letter writing is a needed skill for the mastery of the writing competence pupils need to be acquainted with. Thus, responding to such a type of tasks will undoubtedly help them practise communication inside the classroom and prepares them for future out of class authentic situations. As for **task 2 p. 91**, it does not seem to satisfy the criteria of communicative tasks in that no communicative context is established, no audience is being targeted, and the task does only aim at error checking and correction of the letter, which is typical to the linguistic and grammatical competences. The same remark can be made about **task 3 p. 91**, which simply instructs pupils to write a revised version of the letter. Thus, revising and editing are the only targeted steps of the writing process, and the task is only partly communicative.

The writing tasks in unit five are also communicative and are directly related to involving pupils in daily life use of the target language. For instance, in **write it right p. 103,** pupils are asked to write a story (narrative function) about a disaster they witnessed (context). Practising writing through the narrative function is very communicative as pupils will have the chance to produce a given type of texts (story) and will be able to share and exchange experience via specific rhetoric. **Write it out, task 2 p. 111** is another example of a communicative task which involves pupils in writing with the aim of reporting events of an accident. This will make them go beyond practice of language forms and use their linguistic and communicative resources in order to share information with an audience. Both **task 3 p. 102** and **task 1 p. 111** are not truly communicative; only grammatical competence is being targeted. Pupils are asked to correct wrong tense use in the given report.

In unit six, all writing tasks are fully communicative, except for **task 3 p. 130**, which seems to be partly communicative. In this mechanics task, pupils are being introduced to writing with focus on punctuation rules. No authentic communication is mirrored through this task, and pupils will just have to insert punctuation marks accurately. In **write it right p. 123**, which is an information transfer activity, pupils are introduced to survey report writing, a given text type through which pupils are likely to communicate ideas with the aim of informing and reporting and interpreting findings from a pie chart. Likewise, **write it up p. 128** engages pupils in writing an announcement (text type) for the purpose of advertising the precautions to take and the measures to follow before, during, and after earthquakes. Pupils will have to resort to the different resources in terms of knowledge of the language (grammar, vocabulary, etc) and be able to mobilize them in such a way as to communicate their ideas and recommendations to the readership.

In unit seven, **task 3 p. 141** does not seem to be fully communicative in that it does not engage pupils in authentic communication. This group work activity aims at practicing the function of making speculations at sentence level using if clauses, but with no specific targeted audience and no authentic context. The situations described through the given if clauses are just imaginary situations about the past and are impossible to happen; they are just meant for practicing the speculative function. However, the remaining tasks in this unit are communicative. **Write it out p. 151** engages pupils in writing biographies, enabling them to practise writing a text type using the chronological order of events. This type of tasks will prepare pupils for alternative out of class contexts and will help them write in order to teach lessons in life. In the **project**, pupils will have to write miscellanies in the form of a journal, and will have the chance to practise writing about fiction and imaginary situations (fantasies, wishful changes, advice) using the appropriate if- conditional. The first section of the project involves pupils in responding to imaginary situations by answering some given questions (Suppose you could meet famous people, who would they be? Suppose you could live in another place and time in history, what would they be?), with sentences using 'if' conditional. The other sections of the project, which are very similar to task 3 p. 141 in both form and content, are very much guide and do not seem to engage pupils in communication as no authentic contexts are being set and no real communication is likely to be aimed at.

In unit eight, which is about business and management, communicative tasks seem to occupy a major part and 7 writing tasks out of 9 do fully promote communication. For instance, in **task 2 p. 168**, pupils are supposed to write an annual report for a company using the given notes and graphics. They will write with a readership in mind and with the purpose of reporting results and findings of a company performance, elements that directly point to communicative events. Similarly, the **project** on page **174** is communicative in

that it aims at compiling a business portfolio including letters, telegrammes, telex messages on business situations, letters on social situations related to business (invitations, congratulations, etc), annual reports, balance sheets, and some biographies on famous economists. All such elements are very purposive and compiles many relevant business documents that are very needed in any out of class communication situation. However, **tasks 1 and 2** on page **172** do not seem to be communicative. In task 1, pupils will just have to rewrite the given sentences replacing the given subordinating conjunctions by other suggested ones; n the second task, they are supposed to do the same task (replacing the given link words) using the given modals. Such tasks help develop grammatical competence, which is only part of the whole communicative competence being targeted.

Owing to all these interpretations, and given the existence of some writing tasks that are not fully communicative, it can be said that the writing tasks in the SE2 textbook are partly communicative.

15. Is there enough coverage of writing tasks?

Analysing the SE2 textbook in terms of writing coverage will yield evidence on the extent to which such a skill is aimed at. Given its very complicated and difficult nature, writing should be attributed much attention and effort by both teachers and textbook designers alike.

As already explained above in this chapter (5.3. Description of the Writing Component), the writing skill does not seem to gain equal attention in the eight units of the textbook. Put differently, the eight units do vary in length, in tasks number, and in writing tasks number. The following table summarises the writing tasks distribution per unit and the cumulative percentage.

Table 70: *Writing Coverage in the SE2 Textbook.*

Units	Number of Tasks	Number of Writing Tasks	Percentage %
Unit 1	43	10	23.25%
Unit 2	31	7	22.58%
Unit 3	30	5	16.66%
Unit 4	33	7	21.21%
Unit 5	31	7	22.58%
Unit 6	27	6	22.22%
Unit 7	36	7	19.44%
Unit 8	32	9	28.12%
Total	**263**	**58**	**22.01%**

As it can be noticed, writing was not equally covered in the eight units of the SE2 textbook. Moreover, considering that the four skills should be equally covered in each unit (25% for each language skill), writing did not receive its due part as most of the units have a writing coverage that is inferior to 25%, with the exception of unit eight (28.12%). Moreover, even the units do not have the same number of tasks (27 to 43 tasks per unit) and the same number of writing tasks (5 to 10 tasks). So, it can be concluded that there is not enough coverage of writing in the eight units and the textbook as a whole.

16. Is the writing component organized from easy tasks to difficult ones?

For effective teaching and learning of any language skill or language aspect, teaching and learning materials and activities need to be organized following some logical sequence in terms of degree of difficulty, moving from easy to more difficult tasks. As Grabe and Kaplan (1996) put it: "writing assignments themselves can be sequenced so that simpler tasks build into more complex tasks, all of which build naturally to the completion of a major project."(p. 308). Though this remains just one way of approaching the sequencing of content in textbooks, pupils need to first go through learning situations (meant for introducing input) before coming to utilise their knowledge, skills, and attitudes by mobilizing and integrating them.

Analysis of the writing tasks against this criterion will be organized with reference to each unit independently.

In unit one, the 10 writing tasks seem to vary in focus of writing practice. The first task, which is **write it right, task1 p. 19,** is about grammatical error correction at paragraph level, which is seemingly an easy task for pupils as it does not demand actual production of written texts. The second task, **task 2 p. 19,** is more complicated than the first one as it directly immerses pupils in the act of composing a policy statement using the given notes and other examples of their own .**Task 3 p. 20** relates to mechanics and involves pupils in supplying appropriate punctuation marks and capital letters. This graphology task is rather easier than the previous one as it demands no written production. **Task 3 p. 21** instructs pupils to write sentences using the given suffixes, and **write it up p. 23** involves pupils in composing dialogues following the given model (controlled composition). In **task 5 p. 25**, pupils will have to move to a less difficult task consisting of writing at sentence level, and this is also the case for **write it out: task 1 p. 26**, which is about writing advertisement slogans. The following task, which is **write it out: task 2 p. 27**, is a gap filling task that involves pupils in completing the newspaper articles with sentences answering the posed questions. **Write it out p. 29** is somehow more difficult as in consists of writing an email using the provided clues. The project of the unit is clearly the most difficult task given its complexity and integrative nature; it entails working on both lower order and higher order skills. Thus, the writing tasks in the first unit do not seem to fully obey the rule of logical sequencing from easy to more difficult tasks.

In unit two, there seems to be logic governing the sequencing of writing tasks. **Task 2 p. 40** is concerned with writing sentences expressing some given functions following the illustrative sentences provided for them, a controlled writing task that seems to be approachable to most pupils. **Write it right p. 41** is also concerned with writing at

sentence level and involves pupils in writing a poem against prejudice by completing the blanks. Similarly, the **two tasks** on page **46** are also about writing at sentence level (writing a list of school regulations, and writing acrostics), but go beyond expressing functions to utilize the relevant grammar aspects and vocabulary (linguistic resources) to write sentences. **Task 3 p. 47** is more difficult than the previous ones in that it requires pupils to complete the given class charter using the given notes. The last task before the project, **write it out p. 50**, sets pupils to write a speech following the given model and layout. All in all, the writing tasks in this unit seem to satisfy this checklist criterion.

The five writing tasks in unit three do not seem to be logically sequenced in terms of difficulty. Practising writing in this unit begins with **two tasks** that directly engage pupils in generating long texts (a press release on a catastrophe and a presentation of the solar home) with no practice of mechanics, layout, or any other needed aspects. It is only after these tasks, in the 'Reading and Writing' sequence (**task 5 p. 70**, **task 2 p. 71**) that concern about organization, coherence, and unity arises, hence, moving from difficult to easy tasks. The **project** of this unit is, as with those in other units, the most complex task in terms of skills and degree of integration.

The writing tasks in the fourth unit of the SE2 textbook are actually logically sequenced following logical order of difficulty. This unit, however, directly engages pupils in writing long paragraphs (**write it right p. 83**, **write it up**, **tasks 1 and 2 p. 88**, and **write it out**, **task 1 p. 91**) in the form of description and letter writing. The unit culminates with the **project**, the most complex task requiring both lower order and higher order skills.

Units five and seven do contain writing tasks that are sequenced with respect to the principle of intrinsic difficulty. For instance, in unit five, pupils are first supposed to practise writing at sentence level (reformulating sentences), then move forward to writing stories, poems, and reports. Likewise, in unit seven, pupils are firstly asked to complete

writing the given sentences before setting them to write a newspaper article. After that, they will have to write at sentence level in **task 4 p. 145** before coming to write a lament, a commentary, and a biography, written texts that do entail complex production. However, the writing tasks in unit six engage pupils in writing reports and announcements before involving them in reporting opinions in single sentences. This also seems to be the case of unit eight, which engages pupils in writing introductory sentences of different types (purposes) of letters. After that, pupils are set to write facsimile (**task 1 p. 163**), a letter of reply (**task 2p. 163**), a profit and loss statement (**task 2 p. 165**), and an annual report (**task 2 p.168**) before rewriting sentences using conjunctions and modal auxiliaries (**write it out p. 172**).

With reference to these interpretations, it can be said that the writing tasks are logically sequenced in terms of degree of difficulty in only some units (4 units out of eight in the textbook).

17. Do writing tasks help develop learners' writing strategies?

Developing learners' writing strategies is very central to the CBA and directly mirrors their autonomy in using the target language. As acknowledged in the curriculum of SE2 (2005), integration situations should lead learners to implement different learning strategies that are likely to develop their autonomy in learning the target language. Some of the skills and strategy outcomes in the eight units are summarized in the following (Ministry of National Education, 2005):

- ✓ cooperative learning
- ✓ sharing thoughts and feelings
- ✓ comparing/contrasting
- ✓ synthesising information
- ✓ recognising bias and prejudice

- ✓ seeking feedback to improve

- ✓ making inferences

- ✓ providing feedback to others

- ✓ solving problems

- ✓ evaluating information

- ✓ collecting information individually and sharing it with peers

- ✓ practising brainstorming

- ✓ assuming roles while working in a group

- ✓ practising negotiation, convincing

- ✓ organising data

- ✓ drafting/redrafting

As for writing strategies, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005, p. 135) explained that these may relate to the following task types and functions:

- ✓ Applying prewriting skills (e.g., brainstorm, list, cluster, cube)

- ✓ Composing simple sentences and paragraphs using models

- ✓ Revising draft material while attending to expert feedback

- ✓ Practising basic editing (e.g., for coherence, grammar, mechanics)

- ✓ Practising drafting based on the outcomes of prewriting tasks

- ✓ Practising with self -checks for producing revised texts

- ✓ Practising with more finely tuned editing for a range of rhetorical, grammatical, and mechanical conventions

- ✓ Reading and reviewing other students' writing; practice applying this experience to one's own writing

- ✓ Deepening awareness of audience and reader expectations

- ✓ Identifying, analyzing, critiquing, and replicating multiple written genres

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To determine whether or not the writing activities help develop pupils' writing strategies, the textbook's writing tasks will be subject to general analysis with the intent to situate these in the continuum of writing strategy development.

The writing tasks in the SE2 textbook do not all seem to help develop pupils' writing strategies in that only some of them do target the different processes and strategies involved in the writing act. For instance, **task 1 p. 19** instructs pupils to practise editing of a student's paragraph, a practise that seems relevant to developing revision skills, an example of cognitive strategies that are needed for refining written products. In **task 5 p. 25**, pupils are asked to write definitions using relative pronouns, and following a given model. This may help pupils practise writing at sentence level and using the rhetorical strategy of formatting and modeling. Similarly, in **tasks 2 and 3 p. 91**, pupils are instructed to first self-correct mistakes and then to rewrite a revised version of a letter. Such a type of writing practice is a typical example of cognitive strategies practised in the process of revising and editing drafts.

In the project sections of each unit, though pupils are not explicitly asked to make use of the previously learned content knowledge, they are supposedly engaged in implementing the best of their know-how to do and their strategies to work on the projects. They will have to call for the different rhetorical, meta-cognitive, cognitive, communicative, and social/affective strategies (Congjun, 2005) such as organizing, modeling, planning, monitoring, generating ideas, retrieving, summarizing, and resourcing, to general a final written product to be evaluated by the teacher. Therefore, it can be said that the writing tasks do partly help develop pupils' writing strategies.

5.1.6. General Discussion of the Textbook Evaluation Findings

With reference to the above analyses and interpretations advanced in relation to the writing tasks in the SE2 textbook and the way they were approached, it can be concluded

that the writing component is not that satisfactory, given the existence of some incompatibility with the CBA principles, and with the writing instruction methodologies that are to go along with promoting development and mastery of such a multidimensional writing competency.

In attempting to summarise such positive aspects about the writing component of the textbook 'Getting Through', relevant is the fact that the writing tasks were designed with very careful consideration of the general aims of teaching English under the CBA, leaning towards making our society integrated harmoniously into modernity. More importantly, such tasks do actually work in favour of practising the writing of different types of written discourse and texts, something that can be appealing and motivating for both teachers and pupils alike.

However, though very positive the writing tasks may be with regard to matching to the general aims expectations of learning English, they do not seem to be effective enough in catering for learners' differences in learning styles and levels of abilities. The writing tasks were designed with no actual consideration of pupils' diversity in learning styles and very little concern about less skilled pupils, who should, by all means, be accompanied in their trailing advance towards competency mastery. In fact, the number of tasks included in each single unit was even limited to the extent that it was almost impossible to cater for all learning styles. Though demanding and difficult the writing skill may seem to be, it did not receive its due amount of coverage in almost all units of the textbook, and this is quite mismatching to the CBA, which acknowledges the importance of widening opportunities for exposure and practice through integration situations implicating pupils in written production. Furthermore, the writing tasks included in the textbook did not emphasise any kind of formative assessment of writing, and no specific sections are devoted for monitoring pupils' progress towards the mastery of the writing competence. It is solely in

the first page of the textbook that the use of the portfolio, as a tool of both formative and self-assessment, was recommended; and no explicit reference about it is made within the units. Though being central to the CBA, ICTs were not integrated in the teaching of writing through the textbook, except for one or two writing tasks.

Of particular relevance to such analyses are the mid-standing accounts of the writing component vis-à-vis some peculiar checklist items. Put differently, the writing tasks have come to loom contributive, in some respect, to the overall research perspectives, and this should not be conducive to articulating pitfall interpretations. The writing tasks do partly include competencies that are respective to everyday life settings, and this is by and large the main concern of the CBA. Some of the writing tasks have shown to be effective in promoting skills integration and learners' autonomy, which are also highly appreciated and solicited in the current approach. However, developing learners' autonomy implies being aware of and making the best use of the different strategies relevant to and needed for the act of composing. As explained earlier, the different writing tasks included in this textbook do not seem to fully and adequately consider writing strategy development as only some of these tasks actually engage pupils in unintentional practice implying strategy use. Promoting learners' autonomy also implies using self- assessment tools and techniques such as the portfolio and the reflective journal, and these do not seem to be part of the writing component. Furthermore, a limited number of writing tasks promote cooperation, which is to the core of instructional and learning practices, for it is very contributive to social constructive learning upon which rests the CBA. More importantly, there seems to be divergence as to the general target to which the writing tasks are oriented. Many of the writing tasks do clearly target the product and genre methodologies to writing instruction while very few are leaned towards the process approach. Moreover, there seems to be no systematic approach followed in the process of writing materials design and elaboration,

both at content and instructional levels. As acknowledged in almost all official documents, the teaching of writing within the boundaries of the CBA should be of the process as much as the product and this was not fully respected in the SE2 textbook. Very few writing activities target the different writing processes and steps required for the development of the productive competence.

As for content, the writing tasks do not seem to include all of the writing elements, and if this is by far difficult to do, equal focus should have been attributed to each one of them, at least for purposes of coverage and wide exposure to the written aspects of the target language. Such a standpoint was advocated by Raimes (1991), claiming that "…what seems to be emerging is a recognition that the complexity of the writing process and the writing context means that when we teach writing we have to balance the four elements of form, the writer, content, and the reader."(p. 421). It is only once this is done that the writing act be demystified. In addition to that, there is not enough variety of writing tasks in the SE2 textbook, and free composition is almost neglected. Moreover, there seems to be no logic governing the approach to sequencing and grading of the writing tasks, nor does the approach itself opt for intrinsic difficulty as a criterion against which gradation is practised. Such standpoint echoes the claims of the CBA and integration pedagogy, which put forward learning situations as a starting point, and maximizing opportunities of practicing integration through including more intermediate integration situations, with the final integration situation as being the most complex one (the project). Moreover, because the writing tasks are supposedly problem solving tasks, they need not indicate what cues to use or what language aspects to incorporate. Rather, learners should be self-reliant enough to be able to appropriately mobilize the necessary resources in terms of content, language, skills, and strategies, and integrate them in such a way as to be able to solve problems.

With regard to the project sections in the SE2 textbook, many attributes are noteworthy. Firstly, because the project is the final writing task in the unit and the most important and complex one cognitively, it is supposed to involve pupils in problem solving situations that mirror real life contexts. However, this is not the case with the majority of the projects in the textbook 'Getting Through'. Rather, these projects seem to be concerned about data collection in relation to the suggested topics, more than about actually involving pupils in performance that is likely to display competence mastery. Furthermore, the projects, being final integration situations through which pupils should be evaluated, rather involve pupils in group work, and this may be impractical for teachers, who will not know whom and what to evaluate.

Engaging into analyses of such writing tasks has also helped bring into view the non satisfactory dimension against which communication was framed through writing tasks. A considerable number of the writing activities making part of the textbook are seemingly communicative in that they instruct pupils to practise the writing act for some predetermined purposes and functions, but with no likely consideration of the out of class, real life context and of any readership that is likely to motivate the need for practicing writing as a multidimensional activity. Too many of the writing tasks invocated against the communicativeness of the target language and were merely concerned about some of the language tied competences, each independently.

Though seemingly satisfying textbooks may appear to be, they can never be at the level of individual teachers' expectations, nor can they satisfy the demands of individual learners, classes, or teaching/learning situations. In general terms, and being both impressionistically and retrospectively viewed, the writing component in the SE2 textbook seems to be just partly satisfactory, especially in terms of compatibility with the CBA principles and also in terms of concerns about systematicity in writing methodologies.

5.2. Evaluation of Writing Competencies

   As explained in chapter three, the method that has been adopted in the process of evaluating the writing competencies is the one introduced by De Ketele (2013, p. 68). Such an evaluation is thought to bring evidence about the effectiveness of writing instruction in the SE2 writing classes. As recommended by De Ketele (2013), evaluating competencies should be done at two or three different occasions. This is meant for giving more opportunities for pupils to display competence mastery, and also for giving enough time for competencies to be installed. However, this was not possible to be done for two main reasons: firstly, the two teachers with whom the observation was conducted seemed reluctant to devoting different sessions for evaluation and also for accepting any suggested situation of integration to be given for pupils as class work. Secondly, as a final solution, the researcher found no other alternative than correcting the pupils' written productions of the second term examination. This was, however, not possible as the school authority was not that cooperative in facilitating the task. The researcher then resorted to correcting one of the pupils writing tasks done in the classroom. The researcher corrected the written productions of one class only (Only 25 out of 32 pupils were present).

5.2.1. Description of the Writing Task

   An evaluation of pupils' written productions has been made using the *Sample Device Respecting the Principles to Avoid Abusive Success and Failure* (De Ketele, 2013, p. 68).

Table 71: Sample Device Respecting the Principles to Avoid Abusive Success and Failure.

Criteria (C1.2.3=minimal criteria, C4.5=perfection criteria)	Text 1	Text 2	Total Score/ **Mark**
C1 Pertinence of communication	…/ 3points	… / 3points	… /6points
C2 Textual coherence	.../2 points	…/ 2 points	…/ 4 points
C3 Mastery of linguistic resources	…/ 3points	…/ 3 points	…/ 6 points

C4 Quality of presentation	…/ 1point	…/ 1point	…/ 2points
C5 Originality	…/ 1point	…/ 1point	…/ 2points
Total Score/ **Mark**	.../**10points**	…/**10points**	…/**20points**

The task is **Write it up, task 2 p. 88**, and it was done, as requested by the researcher, just before the final project of the unit subject to observation (unit 4), time that was supposedly enough for the pupils to get acquainted with the different language resources needed for mobilization and integration. The task consists of writing a letter of reply suggesting a solution to a problem (see the first part of this chapter).

5.2.2. Evaluation Procedure

The evaluation will be done using the previously mentioned model of De Ketele (2013). The pupils' copies have been coded (See Appendix G).The results will be summarized in the table below: **Criteria:** (C1.2.3=**minimal criteria**, C4.5=**perfection criteria**) **C1:** Pertinence of communication; **C2:** Textual coherence; **C3:** Mastery of linguistic resources; **C4:** Quality of presentation; **C5:** Originality.

Table 72: Summary of Evaluation of Pupils' Writing Competencies.

Criteria	Minimal Criteria (8pts)			Perfection Criteria (2 pts)		Mark ../10
	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	
1	0.75/3	1/2	1/3	0.5/1	0.25/1	**3.50/10**
2	1.75/3	1.5/2	2/3	1/1	0.5/1	**6.75/10**
3	2.75/3	2/2	3/3	1/1	0.75/1	**9.50/10**
4	2.5/3	2/2	2.75/3	1/1	0.5/1	**8.75/10**
5	2.5/3	1.5/2	1/3	1/1	0.5/1	**6.50/10**
6	2.25/3	1.75/2	2.5/3	1/1	0.5/1	**8/10**
7	2.75/3	2/2	2.75/3	0.25/1	1/1	**8.75/10**
8	3/3	2/2	3/3	1/1	0.75/1	**9.75/10**
9	2/3	1.5/2	2.25/3	1/1	1/1	**7.75/10**
10	2.75/3	1.75/2	3/3	1/1	1/1	**9.5/10**
11	2.5/3	1.25/2	2/3	0.75/1	0.5/1	**7/10**
12	1.5/3	1.25/2	1/3	0.5/1	0.5/1	**4.75/10**
13	0/3	0/2	0/3	0/1	0/1	**0/10**
14	0/3	0.25/2	0/3	0.25/1	0/1	**0.50/10**
15	0/3	0/2	0/3	0.25/1	0/1	**0.25/10**
16	0.5/3	0.5/2	1/3	0.25/1	0.25/1	**2.50/10**
17	1/3	1/2	1/3	0.5/1	0.25/1	**3.75/10**
18	0/3	0/2	0/3	0.25/1	0/1	**0.25/10**

19	0.5/3	0.5/2	1/3	0.25/1	0.25/1	**2.50/10**
20	0/3	0/2	0/3	0.5/1	0/1	**0.50/10**
21	0.5/3	0.5/2	0.75/3	0.25/1	0.25/1	**2.25/10**
22	1.5/3	0.75/2	1.75/3	0.75/1	0.5/1	**5.25/10**
23	1.5/3	0.5/2	1/3	0.5/1	0.5/1	**4/10**
24	3/3	2/2	3/3	1/1	1/1	**10/10**
25	1/3	1.25/2	2/3	0.25/1	0.25/1	**4.75/10**

5.2.3. Discussion of the Results

As illustrated in the table above, 13 pupils out of 25 got more than 5 points out of 10, which does not really mean that those pupils actually developed the writing competence. Put differently, and as explained by De Ketele (2013, p. 67), because a competence is multidimensional, articulating one-dimensional decisions about the written productions calls for adopting an empirical plan consisting of complementary principles:

- Reconciling with minimal criteria and distinguishing them from perfection criteria.

- Resorting, as much as possible, to 3 written productions.

- Applying the ¾ rule, in which at least 75% of the whole mark is devoted to minimal criteria.

- Applying the 2/3 rule, consisting of requiring at least 2/3 of the mark devoted to minimal criteria should be attained.

If we consider again the results displayed in the table, we can notice that when applying the 2/3 rule, we can find 16 pupils out of 25 did not attain 2/3 of the mark devoted to minimal criteria, which is 8/10. These are pupils 1, 2, 5, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, and 24. Though pupils 2 and 5 got more than the average, they did not attain 2/3 of the 8 points devoted to the minimal criteria.

Still, such interpretations do not seem to be conducive to articulating conclusions about whether or not the writing competence has been developed. They bring, however, evidence

about the existence of some problems relating to ineffective teaching and learning of the writing skill, which, in turn, may ultimately be the result of different aspects of writing instruction at secondary school level.

Conclusion

The insofar evaluative language advanced about the writing component in the SE2 textbook is partly informative about the teaching and learning realities. Thus, coming to view writing from the prospect of using the target language for ultimate mastery of the writing competence necessitates going beyond the mere scrutiny of materials to consider the ability to frame the textbook to the demands of the target situations of foreign language use. Given the fact that competency is a multidimensional construct, the mere scrutiny of teaching materials seems insufficient to inform about the effectiveness of instruction. Thus, knowledge about pupils' written productions can interestingly bring evidence of competency mastery. The evaluation of pupils' written productions has actually confirmed the existence of some problems pupils have come to face in their process of writing competency development, a conclusion that can be articulated owing to the previously advanced interpretations.

Chapter Six: Discussion of the Findings and Pedagogical Recommendations.

Introduction

6.1. General Discussion of the Overall Findings.

6.2. Pedagogical Recommendations.

6.2.1. Demystifying the writing activity.

6.2.2. Promoting writing competency monitoring and development.

6.2.3. Maximising opportunities for alternative assessment.

6.2.4. Diversifying forms of feedback.

6.2.5. Rethinking the writing component in the textbook.

6.2.6. Initiating quality institutional textbook evaluation projects.

6.2.7. Teacher training programmes.

6.2.8. Creating a positive learning environment geared towards writing development.

6.3. Pedagogical Implications

6.4. Limitations of the Study.

Conclusion.

It is commonly assumed that the function of research is to add to our knowledge of the world and to demonstrate the 'truth' of the commonsense notions we have about the world (Nunan, 1992, p. 10).

Ultimately, the issue is not research strategies, per se. Rather, the adherence to one paradigm as opposed to another predisposes one to view the world and the events within it in profoundly different ways.   (Rist, 1977, p. 43; as cited in Nunan, 1992, p. 20)

Introduction

This chapter provides a general discussion of the insofar recorded research findings and provides logical connections and interpretations in relation to the literature and in the light of the articulated hypotheses. The chapter, subsequently, advances some recommendations and suggestions relevant to the research scope. More importantly, the chapter states some implications and alternative proposals with regard to teaching writing in the CBA classroom.

6.1. General Discussion of the Overall Findings

In an attempt to systematically approach such a general discussion, the researcher considers, subsequently, each specific aspect of the study as it was investigated through the four research tools and with account for the data generated from such investigations. As already stated in the general introduction, the study assumed that effective teaching of writing within the framework of the currently-adopted CBA partly results from the teachers' consideration and application of the principles of the CBA. The results recorded so far are thus to be discussed and interpreted in the light of the existence of any likely compatibility with the major claims of the CBA and with the intent to answer the research questions.

Firstly, secondary school teachers in Jijel District hold positive attitudes towards the teaching of writing in EFL in general, but not necessarily about the teaching of writing under the CBA, as they reported the existence of many problems that hindered the teaching of writing. These related to large size classes, to pupils' low level of writing abilities, to the

teachers' dissatisfaction with the writing component in the SE2 textbook, to the unavailability of materials, and to the absence of any teacher training programmes. The findings also denoted the teachers' negative views on their actual teaching of writing as they acknowledged their failure in teaching their pupils to write. The results of the classroom observation also confirmed the existence of some of these problems, especially the large number of pupils in a single class and the pupils' restricted level of writing proficiency. Such interpretations have come to answer the first research question: 'What attitudes do secondary school teachers of English hold towards the teaching of writing under the CBA?'

The results recorded from the questionnaire have also yielded the teachers' awareness and knowledge about the main principles underlying the CBA, namely, learner-centredness, outcome-orientation, promoting learners' autonomy, implementing diagnostic evaluation, promoting cooperation and collaboration, continuous and ongoing assessment, and mobilizing and integrating knowledge, skills, and resources. However, such awareness could not be deduced from the teachers' responses recorded from the same questionnaire, and which were concerned about their actual classroom practices. It could neither be inferred from the results of the classroom observation, for most of the teachers' practices were far from being CBA-oriented. Introducing pupils to the teaching aims and objectives was not very common practice, and so was the notion of engaging pupils in integration situations. Furthermore, the findings of the classroom observation point to the teacher's unawareness of the putting into practice of the subject approach in that-as it was observed-one of them completely deemphasized the idea that the learner should be the center of the teaching/learning situation and that his/her needs should be accounted for. Such results also denoted the teacher's non-explanation of the lessons connections to other courses, which relate to modularized instruction, a feature of CBA practices. The classroom

observation results, similarly, unveiled that using ICTs, promoting learners' autonomy, and implementing continuous assessment were not targeted. Very rare were those occasions when the two teachers engaged their pupils in practices geared towards autonomy, such as self and peer assessment. Likewise, no opportunities were established for using ICTs or monitoring learners' advance in learning. Thus, coming to articulate decisions about the teachers' awareness about the major claims of the CBA will be very relative given the fact that their knowledge was not fully confirmed through their classroom practices. We can, then, answer the second research question, 'Are secondary school teachers knowledgeable enough about the principles of the CBA and its implementation?' saying that the teachers are actually aware about the CBA claims, but possibly not about the how to implement such an approach. The fact of not adopting these principles in their classroom practices does not, however, mean that they are not knowledgeable about the CBA claims. Rather, this may relate to personal considerations.

As for the teaching of writing within the CBA framework, the findings denote the teachers' limited knowledge about such an issue. Put differently, the results of the questionnaire have come to reveal the teachers' very limited knowledge about the basic methodologies and approaches to writing instruction. Though knowledgeable they may be about the major claims of the CBA, and having voiced opinions on the process approach as the by and large successful orientation to writing instruction, the teachers did not really seem to involve pupils in situations as to invite peers for collaborative class work. This can but implicitly reflect the teachers' limited knowledge about process-oriented and process-genre pedagogies, advocating the importance of peer response in the writing act. Being that restricted can negatively impact the teachers' practices and make the teaching of writing approximate and far from being methodical. Such a conclusion could be inferred from their answers about their classroom practices, which reveal that they did rarely encourage their

pupils to practise self and peer assessment, peer revision and editing of drafts, peer feedback, nor did they incite their pupils to implement any alternative assessment tools of writing such as portfolios, reflective journals, and conferences, which are to the core of writing instruction within such an in-vogue orientation. In trying to answer the third research question, 'Are secondary school teachers of English knowledgeable enough about the teaching of writing under the CBA?', the answer is surely negative.

With reference to the previously cited interpretations, and on the basis of the findings recorded mainly from classroom observation, it can be concluded that the two teachers-the ones observed- did not, though unintentionally, fully account for all the underlying principles of the CBA in their writing classes, nor did they seem to be concerned about developing their pupils' writing competence. The second teacher did not elucidate the presupposed relation of the tasks to everyday life settings, nor did she frame practices in such a way as to make the pupils the center of the class. The two teachers did not train their pupils on writing for a given purpose, nor did they explicitly incite them to use appropriate writing strategies that would raise their awareness about and autonomy in the writing activity. Moreover, the results of the classroom observation confirmed the non-adoption of ICTs, alternative assessment, and formative and continuous assessment of writing was never aimed at. More importantly, a major deficiency that was confirmed through the observation relates to project work and the concern for integration. As a non-participant observer, the researcher remarked there was no monitoring of pupils' progress in the project work. Furthermore, the teachers did very little to train pupils on integrative writing tasks, other than those the textbook suggested, which are conducive to competency development. The teachers, then, did not track their pupils' progress in the continuum of writing development. Rather, they only worried about obeying the syllabus and the content of the textbook. All these interpretations lead to articulating answers to the fourth research

question, 'Do SE2 teachers of English apply the CBA principles when teaching writing?', saying that their practices-at least of the observed ones- did not seem to be compatible with the CBA claims.

Being an integral component of the teaching/learning situation, the writing component in the SE2 textbook did not escape criticism. Thorough examination of the writing tasks denoted the non-satisfactory way through which the design of the writing tasks was approached. Besides, the textbook evaluation findings revealed the fact that learners have not been accounted for in terms of academic needs, learning needs, learning styles, and self-regulation of their own learning of writing. Such negative accounts, anticipated from the questionnaire results, have also come to be confirmed through the classroom observation findings. That is not to exclude some mid-stand position accounts about the writing tasks in the SE2 textbook, which were partly satisfactory and partly compatible with the CBA, especially in relation to learners' autonomy and concern about integrative and real-life situations. As aforementioned, the project sections in the SE2 textbook, they rather involved pupils in collecting content knowledge and in applying and using the given grammatical forms and lexis more than actually practicing writing for successful functioning in society. It can then be concluded that the writing component in the SE2 textbook was not designed with respect to all of the basic principles of the CBA.

Recalling the above interpretations and answers to the research questions can confirm the existence of some problems in the teaching of the writing skill to second year secondary school level, a situation that could ultimately be inferred from the results of the evaluation of the pupils' written productions.

6.2. Pedagogical Recommendations

In relation to the advanced interpretations of the overall findings of this study, the following recommendations seem to be of particular relevance to improving the quality of

writing instruction within the CBA, as an attempt to successfully situate it in the continuum of developing the writing competence:

6.2.1. Demystifying the writing activity

Given its importance and centrality to teaching and learning EFL, the writing skill, which is by and large a multidimensional activity, should, by all means, be demystified. This implies widening opportunities for pupils to practise writing, starting from beginning levels, in such a way as to make them acquainted with the necessary practical considerations, through strategy training, by instructing pupils on the different writing styles and rhetorical and crafting strategies likely to enable them bypass the impediments of learning to write, an idea that was similarly emphasized by Harwood and Hadley (2004) and Grabe and Kaplan (1996). As explained by Grabe and Kaplan (1996), "students would also write extensively, carrying out the idea that writing proficiency requires constant practice, even if writing quantity, by itself, is not sufficient for writing improvement" (p. 264). The same idea was advocated by Shulman (1987; as cited in Raimes, 1991, p. 423), who labeled it as '*the wisdom of practice*'. This can help make learners active enough to avoid the unsung demotivating effect writing may exert on learners readiness to engage in such an activity.

For optimum results, teachers need to have enough knowledge, creativity, flexibility, and expertise in manipulating the target language in general, and the writing skill in particular, for being able to frame such a profile may help anticipate the quality of writing instruction. More importantly, teachers need to, fully, appropriately, but critically, adhere to the writing materials, through refined and purposeful adaptation practices, with account for their learners' needs, interests, and learning styles, and with making such practices geared towards development of the writing competence.

6.2.2. Promoting writing competency monitoring and development

Because competences are not taught but rather built, before engaging into the process of developing competencies, with its spiral nature, both teachers and learners should be aware about the interpretation of such a concept, for comprehension is a giant leap towards its development. This seems to be very demanding on the part of teachers and learners alike. For teachers, they will have to supervise the daunting task of exposing their learners to situations that are likely to work for such finality, but more ambitiously to make them aware of the details of such an experience and also responsive to it. For that, teachers need to reform their convictions and practices as well, and make them geared towards accepting the centrality of the learners' roles and participation to developing the writing competence. This may be done by divorcing the teachers' convictions about the centrality of classroom instruction and the acknowledgement of their roles as co-learners.

Because involving the learners in evaluation promotes learners' autonomy and competence construction, teachers should constantly involve their learners in evaluating their own learning, for this helps them assume responsibility for their own competence development. In so doing, they should not focus on content as much as on competency development. Concern about project work is very relevant to that. Put otherwise, teachers should rectify their classroom practices in relation to project works. They should involve their pupils and motivate them to do their projects right from the beginning of the unit. More importantly, they should themselves participate in this process and be co-learners.

Teachers should also devote sessions by the end of each sequence in every unit for integration. During such integration weeks, pupils are likely to consolidate the previously learned knowledge and utilize it appropriately to do problem solving tasks and get trained on integration.

6.2.3. Maximising opportunities for alternative assessment

The use of alternative assessment, assessment other than its traditional form, is highly advisable, especially within the scope of the CBA. As put by Jacobs and Farell (2003, p. 19),

> These assessment instruments attempt to mirror more closely real-life conditions and involve thinking skills. Although these instruments are often more time-consuming and costly, as well as less reliable in terms of consistency of scoring, they are gaining prominence due to dissatisfaction with traditional modes of assessment, which are faulted for not capturing vital information about students' competence in their second language.

According to Jacobs and Farell (2003), implementing alternative assessment does directly point to promoting learners autonomy, giving chance to students to comprehend and have input into how they are assessed. Furthermore, assessment should be concerned about life skills and appropriate functioning in society, making instruction purposeful and meaningful, especially through performance and task-based assessment. More importantly, and with reference to writing instruction, the use of peer assessment has been highly advisable, as it enhances and complements self and teacher assessment (Chen and Warren, 1996; as cited in Jacobs and Farell, 2003, p. 21). Within a similar vein is the adoption of portfolios in the writing class, which enables both teachers and learners track progress in generating written output (Jacobs and Farell, 2003), and which reconciles formative and certificative assessment of writing. Implementing conferences and reflective journals are also very conducive to writing development, for they help teachers escape routine and monotony in the writing class, and they have shown to be effective in promoting learners' autonomy and in raising their motivation to learning to write.

6.2.4. Diversifying forms of feedback

Overall, secondary school teachers should make their pupils benefit from diverse types of feedback with their different delivery forms, for the aim is to reduce pupils' frustration and reluctance to write. More importantly, teachers should engage their pupils in peer feedback practices as these help learners see similar problems and defects in their own writing. They are likely to accept each other's responses and will positively use such responses to revise their own written drafts (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). Moreover, teachers should, from time to another, engage their pupils in free writing tasks that are likely to train them on the different writing strategies and to familiarise them with the writing activity. They can even put them in situations where they are asked to reflect upon and comment on their written products. Furthermore, teachers can adopt one-to-one feedback, in which they are supposed to meet with their pupils, individually, even out of class, in order to explore the possible ways through which they can agree on how to improve their written performances (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

6.2.5. Rethinking the writing component in the textbook

Secondary schools teachers of English in Algeria are invited to rethink the adoption of some of the writing tasks included in the SE2 textbook, for these have been somehow non-satisfactory and not totally compatible with the claims of the currently-adopted teaching methodology. For that, teachers need to be flexible enough and also devoted to such a matter. They need to resort to the best of their adaptation skills and expertise and parallel them with satisfying their pupils' needs and the general aims of the CBA. As put by Grabe and Kaplan (1996),

> Teachers should not accept a textbook at face value but should examine it carefully to determine whether it coincides with the methodology adopted for instruction, whether it is appropriate to the intended instructional audience, and whether it is

reasonable in terms of the cultural parameters in which the instruction is being offered (p. 257).

Moreover, teachers should, through such adapted or newly-designed tasks, engage their pupils in challenging, problem solving, authentic writing tasks, and leave them free to recall and mobilize their previously learnt knowledge, skills, and resources, and select the ones they think needed to solve such problems. As for the textbook as a whole, it should be geared towards competence integration and should include more writing activities that focus on writing fluency, not only accuracy, emphasising the writing process as much as the final written product. The writing topics need to be realistic and interesting enough for both teachers and pupils, in such a way as to motivate them to share the writing experience together. More importantly, the use of ICTs should be reconsidered, especially with regard to teaching writing. Teachers can incite their pupils to practice informal writing to pen friends via social networks, out of class settings, for this can reduce their anxiety and fear from practicing the writing activity.

Because the textbook has the potential to be a very effective agent of change (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994, p. 323), it can be fully and appropriately exploited by including supplementary writing activities that will allow for teachers to enjoy being flexible enough in instructing their pupils on how to write. Put differently, necessary is to add a number of writing activities so as to be able to cater for learners' changing needs as much as possible. Another alternative consists of suggesting teaching websites or even webinars where pupils can find refuge if they are to learn about the writing skill and its practice.

6.2.6. Initiating quality institutional textbook evaluation projects

Initiating textbook evaluation projects is very important in promoting writing development. The educational authorities should periodically engage in textbook

evaluation projects that are likely to refine textbooks, syllabi, and materials. Such an enterprise requires the active participation of experienced teachers who are supposed to be mediators between the spellings of theory and the questioned reality and demands of daily practice. More importantly, the resulting proposals should be monitored by experts and researchers in the field of syllabus and material design and evaluation. An alternative practice could relate to surveying teachers' views and opinions on the different textbook sections that have come to cause problems to them and also to seeking suggestions for textbook revisions.

6.2.7. Teacher training programmes

Of crucial importance is scheduling teacher training programmes and practical workshops necessary for the teachers to get acquainted with specificities of writing instruction within the framework of the CBA and its putting into practice. Such workshops should be supervised by field researchers, university teachers, and inspectors. The ministry of national education should, with the help of inspectors, programme training seminars more frequently, especially for novice teachers, who may lack knowledge about pedagogy and classroom management skills. Furthermore, because teachers of English are by and large non-native speakers of English, the challenge is even greater. It is very important for teachers to own enough knowledge about the target language and the writing skill, for this will directly influence their classroom practices and readiness to teach their pupils writing. Workshops should, then, be done about the different writing methodologies, materials, activities, but also about how to adopt these in a CBA classroom in such a way as to inspire their classroom practices and make them in the route for efficacy. Relevant to all that are the words of Kroll (1994):

> Becoming a writer is a complex and ongoing process, and becoming a writing teacher is no less complex. A teacher's journey towards understanding the

complexity of both writing and teaching often begins with a look to the past, for scholarship originates from the ability to synthesise past insights and apply them in the pursuit of continued inquiry. (p. 1)

6.2.8. Creating a positive learning environment geared towards writing development

With reference to the results recorded in this study, the teaching of writing at secondary school level in Jijel District knows defection and malfunction. Such impediments relate to large size classes, unavailability of materials, syllabi and textbook implementation, and absence of any teacher training frameworks. For that, and because "The essential point is that local contexts of instruction often determine the effectiveness of instructional approaches" (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, p. 253), it is very prominent for the educational authorities to take urgent decisions in hopes of improving the current teaching situation of English, with particular reference to writing, in Algeria. To address the problem of large classes, the Ministry of Education should take measures to lessen the number of pupils per class, or ultimately devote extra sessions for reinforcement and redial work, especially for less skilled pupils. As for the unavailability of materials, it is possible for the educational authorities and textbook designers to incorporate additional writing tasks and authentic materials, especially for novice teachers who may not be skilled enough to design tasks or adapt ready-made ones. As for the problems encountered when implementing the textbook, the Ministry of Education should multiply opportunities for teachers to meet with their inspectors and discuss the issues that stand to cause problems for them, in addition to enabling them to attend national seminars and workshops that are likely to record their concerns about such issues. Concerning the writing tasks the deletion of which was suggested by the teachers, it is necessary for the textbook design teams, under the

supervision of the Ministry of Education, to suggest alternative writing tasks that are compatible with the CBA and that are supportive to the development of the writing competence. In what follows are some suggested writing tasks for the SE2 textbook 'Getting Through'.

6.3. Pedagogical Implications

On the basis of the results recorded and the brought about analyses, following are some suggested writing tasks designed as an attempt to provide alternative integrative writing tasks. These relate to unit four, '*Budding Scientist'*, which was topic for classroom observation. Because integration of competences is highly recommended in CBA textbooks, such proposals do supposedly meet the requirements and criteria of good integration situations advanced so far in the second chapter.

Original Task: Write it right p. 83: **Use the information below to write a short description about water properties. Use conjunctions 'if / when / as':**
Start like this:
   Like air, water is found almost everywhere. It is familiar to us in different forms-as drinking water, rain, water vapor, ice and snow.
   Water has some surprising qualities. For example,…….
   - Most liquids/ freeze/to become denser
     Water to become/ lighter
     You/to fill pan of water with ice cubes/you/to note/ unmelted
     Particles/to remain at the surface
     Why? Frozen water lighter than water in liquid form
   - Water to expand/to become ice
     To expand/it/to exert pressure
     To fill a glass bottle/and to put it in the freezer/bottle/to break
     Why? Expansion of frozen water/to exert pressure on glass bottle
   - Water molecules/to have/strong attraction to each other
     Force of attraction/to call/cohesion
     To moisten two packet mirrors/impossible to pull them apart.
     But dry the mirrors/not difficult at all to separate them
     Why? Water molecules on the surface of packet mirrors/to attract

Suggested writing task: Your school organizes a budding scientist contest in which you are supposed to make a presentation of a very simple energy saving device of your choice that you can use at home or in your school. Prepare a short description using the

appropriate tenses and getting inspired from some of the lessons you dealt with in the physics and computing courses.

You may find useful information on the links below:

https://www.energy.gov/articles/future-home-tech-8-energy-saving-solutions-horizon.

https://www.ibm.com/mobilefirst/ae/en/mobilesolutions/?lnk=mpr_bumf&lnk2=learn

Original task: Write it up p. 88:

1. **Imagine you are in a dilemma. Write a letter to an 'agony aunt' to ask for advice.**

Dear……,

I'm writing….

I find myself in a dilemma and I have no one to turn to. …..

2. **Now, imagine you are an 'agony aunt'. Read your partner's letter and reply by suggesting a solution to his/her problem. Keep to the following plan:**
- Introduction
- Expression of sympathy and reassurance
- Analysis of the problem
- Recommendations/suggestions

Suggested writing tasks:

1. Because of the Covid-19 pandemic, your life has become a daily monotony full of pressure and stress. You can do nothing but resort to social media and friends. Write a short email/message to a friend of yours in which you describe for him/her your routines at home and how such a situation has come to mark your life experience.

2. Your friend has replied to your post and in turn translated his/her very anxious state of mind he/she was found in. You felt the need to show sympathy and reassurance to your friend. Write a short reply in which you provide some solutions and invite him/her to share your experiences with a psychologist, in hope of putting an end to such a problem.

Original Tasks: Write it out (1,2, and 3) p 91:

1. A friend of yours has written to you a letter because s/he is anxious to know what you'll do if you pass or fail the baccalaureate exam. Reply to him/her by revealing to him/her your contingency plan just to relieve him/her of his/her anxiety.

> Your Address
>
> Opening……
> Thank you for…..
> Positive results: If I pass my…., I will….
>
>
> Negative results: If Ifail…, I will….
>
>
> Closing…….
>
> Greetings

2. Correct your mistakes. Then exchange drafts with your partner for further error checking.

3. Write a revised version of your letter and hand it to your teacher.

Suggested tasks:

1. Your friend has conducted a scientific experiment in your class demonstrating how an egg can get sucked into a bottle (see picture below). Your teacher asked you to submit a short summary of the experiment you saw using the appropriate 'if structure' and verb tenses. Write a first draft describing the experiment.

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Source: https://www.weareteachers.com/6th-grade-science-projects/

2. Exchange drafts with your partners and revise mistakes.

3. With your partner, reflect upon and discuss the steps you followed to write the report/summary.

Original task: Putting things together p 93 (the unit project for scientific streams).

- Your report should be about 300 words and not longer than 400.

- As you carry out the experiments, make careful observations and keep a record of the results. Use **If**.

- Give the details of your work as far as possible in charts, diagrams…

- The experiments can be carried out inside or outside school (school laboratory). Seek the help of your teachers if necessary.

- **Please do not try to experiment with things that may cause you harm. e.g., electricity, mixing chemicals together in a haphazard way.**

- It is preferable to choose experiments with water or air. Draw inspiration from the given pictures (p. 93).

Suggested project: Writing a report about how to create a learning pod.

Your teacher asked you to do homework and prepare oral presentations with your partners. You found it difficult to work and study from your home. Your friend suggested

the idea of creating an online pod in order to help you learn and share your courses with classmates and teachers. Use appropriate verb tenses and sequencers. Illustrate with screen shots or diagrams.

Example: **Same School/Class Learning Pod**

- **8 Learners, same grade, same class/teacher**
- **Scenario: All students are enrolled in the same school and class, and are participating in at-home synchronous* learning**
- **You can imagine this scenario with ANY similar grouping. Source: https://www.schoolathome-austin.com/what-is-a-learning-pod.html**

Get inspired from the following links: https://www.easyclass.com/

https://www.learndash.com/e-learning-for-kids/

6.4. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

In this study, some limitations have to be identified. The first limitation relates to the very small sample of classroom observation. Because it was almost impossible for the researcher to observe the teaching of the same unit in different secondary schools, and because the educational authorities did object to grant permission for conducting classroom observation in different schools, the researcher found no other alternative than observing the two teachers in the same school. Moreover, the observation period was not long enough to enable the researcher to get familiarized with the participants and the teaching environment. Furthermore, the researcher, as a non-participant observer, does not have enough expertise in conducting classroom observation, nor was she trained on so doing. The only observation skills she supposedly owns stemmed from her personal experience as a field practitioner and a researcher. Thus, the results of such an observation are not to be generalized. Still, they remain authentic records of the in-class writing instruction experience. Another limitation related to the fact that only teaching practices were investigated. No evaluation of the end-term examinations was carried out, nor did the researcher conduct any formal interviews with the inspectors of English.

Stemming from the current research experience, some research ideas have come to evolve. Above all, an experimental study is likely to generate more valid and reliable results as to what appropriate writing methodology would better fit into the CBA classroom, in comparison to other writing instruction traditions. More importantly, larger institutionally-funded textbook evaluation projects should be made operational, for this will by all means be conducive to refining syllabi, materials, and curricula that should account for the ever-changing needs of the teachers and learners alike.

Conclusion

The main concern of the present chapter was to review, to analyse, and to interpret the overall findings of the current study, with reference to the four research instruments employed, namely, the questionnaire, the classroom observation, the textbook evaluation, and the evaluation of the pupils' written productions. The results obtained from each were interpreted and compared in order to investigate any existing mismatches or contradictions and to infer the existence of any kind of problem. More importantly, the chapter also provided answers to the five research questions in the light of the research hypotheses. The chapter ultimately outlined some pedagogical recommendations, implications, along with some limitations and suggestions for further research.

General Conclusion

The present descriptive thesis was set to investigate the different realities of teaching of writing in the SE2 level in Jijel. It also evaluated both the writing component in the SE2 textbook of English and the second year pupils' written productions, with the intent to ultimately bring evidence of the extent to which the CBA- with the suggested textbook of English, the teachers, and the teaching and learning conditions-has been effective in developing learners' writing skill. The study was conducted through three phases. As a starting point, the researcher first surveyed the secondary school teachers' views and opinions about the CBA and the writing skill through a questionnaire. Such a questionnaire was piloted before it was administered to all secondary school teachers of English in Jijel. Only 83 teachers returned their questionnaire copies and not all of them provided answers to all questions.

The following step of such an investigation was concerned with observing the secondary school teachers' classroom practices, with the intent to compare them to their views and opinions collected through the questionnaire, and with the aim to establish logical connections and possible interpretations likely to unveil the realities of teaching writing within the confines of the CBA classroom. The observation was conducted in the same secondary school (Draa Mhammed Sadek, Jijel) in two different scientific stream classes taught by two different teachers. The data collection instrument was a self-constructed observation protocol comprising a set of items designed on the basis of prominent research literature in the field. Being oriented towards capturing and investigating the details of writing instruction in SE2 level, the protocol items were meant to examine the different classroom instructional and evaluation practices and the different integration situations that were integral parts of the teaching and learning activity. The protocol items did broadly aim at questioning the efficacy of instruction and at inferring

the existence of any compatibility with the CBA. The results to be collected were to confirm the teachers' knowledge about the approach, about the different writing methodologies, and the putting of these into daily practice.

The final phase of investigation consisted of an evaluation of the writing tasks included in the SE2 textbook via a checklist the researcher designed with inspiration from the wide range of relevant literature, and after having sought consensus from field practitioners and teachers with expertise. The writing tasks were subject to in-depth evaluation, and so were the pupils' written productions, and the obtained results were interpreted in the light of the research questions and hypotheses. The evaluation of the second year secondary school pupils' written texts was carried out using the framework introduced by De Ketele (2013), and which consists of a number of minimal and perfection criteria. The results of such an evaluation were to determine whether or not pupils were proficient enough in writing. The triangulation of quantitative and qualitative methods in this study was thought to be much informative and conducive to articulating conclusive comments.

On the one hand, the overall findings of the study revealed the existence of some defection in the SE2 classes of English in Jijel. The secondary school teachers of English were not aware about how to teach writing in the CBA classroom, not were their classroom practices responsive to such a teaching orientation. This can partly justify pupils' low achievements in writing and the inefficacy of writing instruction. Such interpretations have, then, come to confirm the first hypothesis. On the other hand, the results also denoted the fact that the writing tasks incorporated in the SE2 textbook were designed with account for obeying the basic principles of the CBA and that the teaching of writing to SE2 pupils was not that effective, a result that partly explains the inefficacy of writing instruction. Hence, the second hypothesis has as well been confirmed.

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Appendix A
PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is part of a research work leaned towards the teaching of writing under the Competency-Based Approach (CBA) in Algerian secondary schools, with particular reference to second year level. Your participation is of great contribution to the completion of such research work and would by all means add much to its validity.

Please tick the appropriate box (es), and give full answers when necessary. Your answers will remain anonymous and confidential.

Thank you in advance for devoting your time, and the best of your insights and cooperation.

Section One : General Information

1. What academic degree do you hold?
   a. Licence degree in English (LMD)
   b. Master degree in English (LMD)
   c. Licence degree in English (ENS)
   d. Licence degree in English
   e. Others (Please specify)……………………………………………………..
2. How long have you been teaching English?.....................................
3. How long have you been teaching English at the secondary school?.........................
4. How many pupils do you have in each class in average?..................
5. How would you rate your second year pupils' overall writing abilities in English? Please complete with **All**, **Many**, **Some**, **A few**, or **None**.
   a. …………. of the pupils have excellent writing abilities.
   b. ………….of the pupils have good writing abilities.
   c. ………….of the pupils have average writing abilities.
   d. ………… of the pupils have poor writing abilities.
   e. ………… of the pupils have very poor writing abilities.

Section Two: Teachers' Views on the Writing Skill and its Teaching

6. To what extent do you think the writing skill is central to learning English as a foreign language?
   a. Extremely
   b. Significantly
   c. Moderately
   d. Not at all
7. Please explain why you think so.
8. According to you, teaching writing entails
   a. Teaching pupils to learn how to write.
   b. Teaching pupils how to write to learn.

9. What do you think the main focus of writing should be? **(Please choose one or more options)**
   a. Grammatical accuracy
   b. Vocabulary building
   c. Spelling, capitalisation, and punctuation (mechanics)
   d. Appropriacy of ideas
   e. Unity, coherence, and cohesion

f. Genre (cultural communicative practice forming meaning within a given context and being mutually understood by the same discourse community)
g. Others (Please specify)…………………………………………………………

10. What do you think the overall aim of teaching the writing skill should be? **(Please choose one or more options)**
a. To help pupils enlarge their knowledge about a given topic/genre.
b. To help pupils engage in the writing activity.
c. To help pupils learn grammar rules and correctness.
d. To help pupils learn vocabulary skills.
e. To help pupils learn correct spelling and punctuation.
f. To help pupils link ideas appropriately.
g. To help pupils write using appropriate format/layout.
h. Others (please specify)……………………………………………………………

11. From your perspective, what is the most successful approach to teaching writing?
a. The product approach (Targeting the final written product)
b. The process approach (Targeting thinking processes, steps and strategies used to write)
c. The genre approach (Targeting social purposes of texts and final written product)
d. The process-genre approach (Targeting both genre and the final product)

12. Please explain why   ……………………………………………………………

Section Three: Teachers' Views on the CBA and its Implementation in the Algerian Context.

13. How would you estimate your overall knowledge about the CBA?
a. Very sufficient
b. Sufficient
c. Average
d. Limited

14. Please respond to the following statements about the CBA, and decide whether you strongly agree **(SA)**, you agree **(A)**, you are undecided **(U)**, you disagree **(D)**, or you strongly disagree **(SD)**.

Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD
a. The teacher's main concern is to make pupils autonomous individuals capable of coping with the demands of the world.					
b. The teacher should make outcomes explicit by reminding pupils about the objectives of each lesson.					
c. The teacher should assume different roles: a needs analyst, a facilitator, a guide, an assistant, an evaluator, and a co-learner.					
d. The teacher should implement diagnostic					

evaluation at the beginning of the school year.					
e. In the CBA classroom, the teacher should engage pupils in pair/group work activities.					
f. The teacher should continuously evaluate pupils' performances in class.					
g. Pupils should be active participants, autonomous learners, and evaluators of their own learning.					
h. Pupils should be able mobilize resources and integrate different skills for authentic meaningful communication and successful functioning in society.					

15. What do you think the major aim of the CBA with reference to the teaching of English in Algerian secondary schools is?..

16. To what extent do you think the English curriculum and syllabus match to the second year textbook 'Getting Through'?
    a. Extremely ☐
    b. Significantly ☐
    c. Moderately ☐
    d. Not at all ☐
    e. I do not know ☐

17. Do you think that the current teaching/learning conditions are favourable for implementing the CBA?
    a. Yes ☐   b. No ☐

18. Please explain why. …………………………………………………………..

19. To what extent do you think the CBA has succeeded in improving pupils' achievement?
    a. Extremely ☐
    b. Significantly ☐
    c. Moderately ☐
    d. Not at all ☐

Section Four: Teachers' Views on the Teaching of Writing under the CBA

  A. Teachers' Views on the Writing Materials

20. To what extent do you think the second year syllabus of English is helpful in developing pupils' writing abilities?
    a. Extremely ☐
    b. Significantly ☐
    c. Moderately ☐
    d. Not at all ☐

21. To what extent do you think the writing component is appropriately and sufficiently covered in the second year English textbook 'Getting Through'?

a. Extremely ☐
b. Significantly ☐
c. Moderately ☐
d. Not at all ☐

22. How often do you adapt (change or modify) parts/activities of the second year textbook?
    a. Always
    b. Sometimes ☐
    c. Rarely
    d. Never

23. Why do you opt for such adaptation? **(Please choose one or more options)**
    a. The activities are beyond students' level of ability ☐
    b. The activities are not appealing to students' interests ☐
    c. The activities do not match to students' needs and academic expectations ☐
    d. Others (Please specify)…………………………………………………………….

24. What specific parts (whole unit or activities) of the second year textbook would you suggest to be modified? **(Please write the numbers of both of the activity and the page)**

Unit	Page	Activity Number

25. How often do you opt for other materials for the teaching of writing?
    a. Always ☐
    b. Sometimes ☐
    c. Rarely ☐
    d. Never ☐

26. What type of materials do you generally opt for?
    a. Authentic materials ☐
    b. Ready-made materials from the internet ☐
    c. Others (Please specify)…………………………………………………………….

  B. Teachers' Views on the Teaching Methodology

27. As to the teaching of writing, how often do you practise the following in your class?

Frequency / Classroom practices	Always	Regularly	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
a. You act as a guide, you encourage pupils, and you provide positive constructive					

	suggestions on what has been written.				
b.	You choose the writing topics with consideration of pupils' interests and needs.				
c.	You engage pupils in implementing different writing strategies in the different writing processes.				
d.	You incorporate listening, speaking, and reading in your writing class.				
e.	You provide a model text of the genre, and you discuss, with pupils, the structure and organisation of such text meant for reaching a given purpose.				
f.	You engage pupils in different meaningful activities (brainstorming, discussing, reading the text).				
g.	You work together with pupils and start composing (pupils provide ideas, and you write the generated text).				
h.	You help pupils when writing their own texts, and you check their progress.				
i.	You ask pupils to revise their first drafts.				
j.	You ask pupils to revise each other's first drafts.				
k.	You proofread and edit pupils' final drafts.				
l.	You ask pupils to proofread and edit their final drafts themselves.				
m.	You ask pupils to proofread and edit each other's final drafts.				
n.	You introduce the project at the				

start of each unit.					
o. You ask pupils to present their written projects in class.					
p. You correct pupils' projects, and you give a score.					
q. You provide feedback on pupils' texts yourself.					
r. You ask pupils to provide their peers with feedback on their texts.					
s. You assess, correct, and score your pupils written productions.					
t. You ask pupils to assess, correct, and score their own written productions.					
u. You ask pupils to assess, correct, and score each other's written productions.					
v. You test pupils' writing skills at the start of the school year.					

28. When you teach your pupils writing, what is your major focus? **(Please choose one or more options)**
a. The final written product ☐
b. The processes and strategies involved in production ☐
c. The audience/readers' satisfaction ☐
d. The purpose of writing ☐
e. Genre
f. Others (Please specify)……………………………………………………. ☐

29. What type of feedback do you generally provide in relation to writing? **(Please choose one or more options)** ☐
a. Verbal comments
b. Written comments ☐
c. Marks ☐
d. Teacher-student conferencing ☐
e. Others (Please specify)………………………………………………………..

30. What evaluation procedures/tools do you generally opt for in relation to writing? **(Please choose one or more options)**
a. The portfolio ☐
b. The reflective journal ☐
c. The interview ☐
☐

d. Classroom debates
e. Conferences ☐
f. Others (Please specify)………………………………………………………………..

C. Teachers' Views on the Encountered Problems and Solutions.

31. To what extent do you think you have so far succeeded in teaching writing in your classes?
   a. Extremely ☐
   b. Significantly ☐
   c. Moderately ☐
   d. Not at all ☐
32. Please explain why. …………………………………………………………………
33. Do you encounter difficulties when teaching your pupils writing?
   a. Yes ☐   b. No ☐

34. If yes, what do these difficulties relate to? **(Choose one or more options)**
   a. To textbook implementation ☐
   b. To students' low level of ability ☐
   c. To a difficulty of the writing activities ☐
   d. To the difficult language of the assignments ☐
   e. Others (Please specify)…………………………………………………………..

35. What are the most appropriate strategies you view relevant to teaching writing?
   …………………………………………………………………………………………

36. How do you think you can improve your pupils' writing performances?
………………………………………………………………………………………….

Section Five: Further Suggestions.
   37. What additional comments/suggestions would you like to phrase as to the teaching of writing under the CBA?
   ………………………...

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix B
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is part of a research work leaned towards the teaching of writing under the Competency-Based Approach (CBA) in Algerian secondary schools, with particular reference to second year level. Your participation is of great contribution to the completion of such research work and would by all means add much to its validity.

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    e. To help pupils learn correct spelling and punctuation.
    f. To help pupils link ideas appropriately.
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e. I do not know

16. Do you think that the current teaching/learning conditions are favourable for implementing the CBA?
a. Yes   b. No

17. Please explain why.
………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………

18. To what extent do you think the CBA has succeeded in improving pupils' achievement?
a. Extremely
b. Significantly
c. Moderately
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   - c. Rarely ☐
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e.	You provide a model text of the genre, and you discuss, with pupils, the structure and organisation of such text meant for reaching a given purpose.					
f.	You engage pupils in different meaningful activities (brainstorming, discussing, reading the text).					
g.	You work together with pupils and start composing (pupils provide ideas, and you write the generated text).					
h.	You help pupils when writing their own texts, and you check their progress.					
i.	You ask pupils to revise their first drafts.					
j.	You ask pupils to revise each other's first drafts.					
k.	You proofread and edit pupils' final drafts.					
l.	You ask pupils to proofread and edit their final drafts themselves.					
m.	You ask pupils to proofread and edit each other's final drafts.					
n.	You introduce the project at the start of each unit.					
o.	You ask pupils to present their written projects in class.					
p.	You correct pupils' projects, and you give a score.					
q.	You provide feedback on pupils' texts yourself.					
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s. You assess, correct, and score your pupils written productions.					
t. You ask pupils to assess, correct, and score their own written productions.					
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c. The audience/readers' satisfaction
d. The purpose of writing
e. Genre
f. Others (Please specify)……………………………………………………….

28. What type of feedback do you generally provide in relation to writing? (**Please choose one or more options**)

a. Verbal comments
b. Written comments
c. Marks
d. Teacher-student conferencing
e. Others (Please specify)…………………………………………………………..

29. What evaluation procedures/tools do you generally opt for in relation to writing? (**Please choose one or more options**)

a. The portfolio
b. The reflective journal
c. The interview
d. Classroom debates
e. Conferences
f. Others (Please specify)…………………………………………………………..

C. Teachers' Views on the Encountered Problems and Solutions.

30. To what extent do you think you have so far succeeded in teaching writing in your classes?

a. Extremely
b. Significantly
c. Moderately
d. Not at all

31. Please explain why.

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…

32. Do you encounter difficulties when teaching your pupils writing?

a. Yes ☐   b. No ☐

33. If yes, what do these difficulties relate to? (**Choose one or more options**)

a. To textbook implementation ☐
b. To students' low level of ability ☐
c. To a difficulty of the writing activities ☐
d. To the difficult language of the assignments ☐
e. Others (Please specify)………………………………………………………………..

34. What are the most appropriate strategies you view relevant to teaching writing?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

………………

35. How do you think you can improve your pupils' writing performances?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

…………….

Section Five: Further Suggestions.

36. What additional comments/suggestions would you like to phrase as to the teaching of writing under the CBA?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

………………… Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix C

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

Date: …………………………   Class: ……………………
Time:………………………………….   Class size: …………………
Observation N°: …………………..   Material/Teaching aids: …………
Teacher's experience: ……………
Learning objective: ……………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………….
Target competencies: …………………………………………………………………………
Lesson focus: ……………………………………………………………………………………….
Unit:………………………………   Task:……………………..   Page: …….

I. Introducing the Lesson

Criteria	Done	Attempted to	Not Done
▪ Clear statement of aims and objectives.			
▪ Introducing pupils to the topic.			
▪ Activation of prior knowledge relevant to the writing course.			
▪ Explanation of the connections with other relevant lectures.			
▪ Teacher shows adequate and sufficient knowledge about the topic.			

II. Teaching/Learning Situation
1. Classroom practices

	Criteria	Done	Attempted to	Not Done
Teachers' and Learners' Practices	▪ Flexibility and learners involvement in topic selection.			
	▪ Explaining the relevance of the writing task to everyday life use.			
	▪ Strategy instruction in relation to writing tasks.			
	▪ Engaging learners in brainstorming, drafting, etc.			
	▪ Encouraging pupils to develop self-reliance skills.			
	▪ Monitoring learners' progress in the different writing phases.			
	▪ Feedback (format and type)……………………			
	▪ Adaptation of writing materials.			
	▪ Explanation of the project topic and requirements.			
	▪ Pair/group work.			
	▪ Using ICTs.			
	▪ Self -revision and correction of drafts.			

	▪ Peer-revision and correction of drafts. ▪ Use of portfolios.			
Evaluation practices	▪ Giving opportunity for continuous evaluation of writing. ▪ Self-evaluation. ▪ Co-evaluation. ▪ Peer-evaluation. ▪ Portfolio implementation. ▪ Reflective journal. ▪ Conferences. ▪ Discussions and debates. ▪ Others……………………………………			

2. Situation of Integration

Criteria	Yes	No
▪ The situation is in conformity with the exit profile.		
▪ Adaptation of tasks to learners' level.		
▪ The situation is new for the learners and activates critical thinking skills.		
▪ The situation is communicative and relates to everyday life.		
▪ The situation is doable with the resources in hand.		
▪ The situation suggests problem-solving.		

III. Overall Comments

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………

Appendix D
The Self-Constructed Checklist

Criteria	Yes	Partly	No

I.   <u>**General Attributes**</u>
    A. <u>**Compatibility**</u>
  1. Do the writing tasks objectives match to the general aims of teaching English under the CBA?			

B. <u>**Suitability to Learners**</u>
  2. Does the writing component help cater for mixed ability learners?
  3. Does the writing component accommodate different learning styles?			

C. <u>**Methodology**</u>
  4. Does the writing component include competencies that are relevant to everyday life situations?
  5. Does the writing component promote learner autonomy?
  6. Does the writing component promote skills integration?
  7. Does the writing component integrate ICTs?
  8. Does the writing component promote cooperation?
  9. Does the writing component involve learners in formative assessment?
  10. Does the writing component target both writing as a process and the final written product?			

II.   **Content**
  11. Does the writing component cover all writing elements (syntax, grammar, mechanics, vocabulary/word choice, organisation, audience, purpose, genre, content, writing processes)?
  12. Does the writing component help practise different text types?
  13. Is there enough variety of writing tasks?
  14. Are writing tasks communicative?
  15. Is there enough coverage of writing tasks?
  16. Is the writing component organized from easy materials to difficult ones?
  17. Do writing tasks help develop learners' writing strategies?			

Cunningsworth's Checklist (1995)

Aims and approaches

- [ ] Do the aims of the coursebook correspond closely with the aims of the teaching programme and with the needs of the learners?
- [ ] Is the coursebook suited to the learning/teaching situation?
- [ ] How comprehensive is the coursebook? Does it cover most or all of what is needed? Is it a good resource for students and teachers?
- [ ] Is the coursebook flexible? Does it allow different teaching and learning styles?

Design and organization

- [ ] What components make up the total course package (eg students' books, teachers' books, workbooks, cassettes, etc)?
- [ ] How is the content organized (eg according to structures, functions, topics, skills, etc)? Is the organization right for learners and teachers?
- [ ] How is the content sequenced (eg on the basis of complexity, 'learnability', usefulness, etc)?
- [ ] Is the grading and progression suitable for the learners? Does it allow them to complete the work needed to meet any external syllabus requirements?
- [ ] Is there adequate recycling and revision?
- [ ] Are there reference sections for grammar, etc? Is some of the material suitable for individual study?
- [ ] Is it easy to find your way around the coursebook? Is the layout clear?

Language content

- [ ] Does the coursebook cover the main grammar items appropriate to each level, taking learners' needs into account?
- [ ] Is material for vocabulary teaching adequate in terms of quantity and range of vocabulary, emphasis placed on vocabulary development, strategies for individual learning?
- [ ] Does the coursebook include material for pronunciation work? If so what is covered: individual sounds, word stress, sentence stress, intonation?
- [ ] Does the coursebook deal with the structuring and conventions of language use above sentence level, eg how to take part in conversations, how to structure a piece of extended writing, how to identify the main points in a reading passage? (More relevant at intermediate and advanced levels.)
- [ ] Are style and appropriacy dealt with? If so, is language style matched to social situation?

Skills

- [ ] Are all four skills adequately covered, bearing in mind your course aims and syllabus requirements?
- [ ] Is there material for integrated skills work?
- [ ] Are reading passages and associated activities suitable for your students' levels, interests, etc? Is there sufficient reading material?

Ur Penny (1996)

BOX 13.2: CRITERIA FOR COURSEBOOK ASSESSMENT

Importance	Criterion	
	Objectives explicitly laid out in an introduction, and implemented in the material	
	Approach educationally and socially acceptable to target community	
	Clear attractive layout; print easy to read	
	Appropriate visual materials available	
	Interesting topics and tasks	
	Varied topics and tasks, so as to provide for different learner levels, learning styles, interests, etc.	
	Clear instructions	
	Systematic coverage of syllabus	
	Content clearly organized and graded (sequenced by difficulty)	
	Periodic review and test sections	
	Plenty of authentic language	
	Good pronunciation explanation and practice	
	Good vocabulary explanation and practice	
	Good grammar presentation and practice	
	Fluency practice in all four skills	
	Encourages learners to develop own learning strategies and to become independent in their learning	
	Adequate guidance for the teacher; not too heavy preparation load	
	Audio cassettes	
	Readily available locally	

- ☐ Is listening material well recorded, as authentic as possible, accompanied by background information, questions and activities which help comprehension?
- ☐ Is material for spoken English (dialogues, roleplays, etc) well designed to equip learners for real-life interactions?
- ☐ Are writing activities suitable in terms of amount of guidance/control, degree of accuracy, organization of longer pieces of writing (eg paragraphing) and use of appropriate styles?

Topic

- ☐ Is there sufficient material of genuine interest to learners?
- ☐ Is there enough variety and range of topic?
- ☐ Will the topics help expand students' awareness and enrich their experience?
- ☐ Are the topics sophisticated enough in content, yet within the learners' language level?
- ☐ Will your students be able to relate to the social and cultural contexts presented in the coursebook?
- ☐ Are women portrayed and represented equally with men?
- ☐ Are other groups represented, with reference to ethnic origin, occupation, disability, etc?

Methodology

- ☐ What approach/approaches to language learning are taken by the coursebook? Is this appropriate to the learning/teaching situation?
- ☐ What level of active learner involvement can be expected? Does this match your students' learning styles and expectations?
- ☐ What techniques are used for presenting/practising new language items? Are they suitable for your learners?
- ☐ How are the different skills taught?
- ☐ How are communicative abilities developed?
- ☐ Does the material include any advice/help to students on study skills and learning strategies?
- ☐ Are students expected to take a degree of responsibility for their own learning (eg by setting their own individual learning targets)?

Teachers' books

- ☐ Is there adequate guidance for the teachers who will be using the coursebook and its supporting materials?
- ☐ Are the teachers' books comprehensive and supportive?
- ☐ Do they adequately cover teaching techniques, language items such as grammar rules and culture-specific information?
- ☐ Do the writers set out and justify the basic premises and principles underlying the material?
- ☐ Are keys to exercises given?

Practical considerations

- ☐ What does the whole package cost? Does this represent good value for money?
- ☐ Are the books strong and long-lasting? Are they attractive in appearance?
- ☐ Are they easy to obtain? Can further supplies be obtained at short notice?
- ☐ Do any parts of the package require particular equipment, such as a language laboratory, listening centre or video player? If so, do you have the equipment available for use and is it reliable?

Akil et al. (2018)

CHECKLIST OF QUESTIONS ON STUDENTS' PERCEPTION TOWARDS TEACHER-MADE COURSEBOOK

Aspects to evaluate	Questions	Answers		
Coursebook Goal	1. Is the coursebook goal relevant to your needs?	Yes	Partly	No
1. Contents	1. Is the coursebook complete? (Does it cover the components of writing (sentence structure, grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation?) 2. Does coursebook present a variety of essay types? 3. Do the topics discuss a variety of subjects? 4. Do the choices of topics relevant to your needs and interests? 5. Do the topics reflect socio-cultural background? 6. Are the explanations easy to be understood? 7. Are the tasks and activities interesting? 8. Do the tasks and activities help you express your knowledge, experiences, and interests in writing using a variety of essay types.			
Organization and Design	1. Is the coursebook well-arranged in each unit? 2. Is the coursebook arranged from easy to difficult? 3. Do the pictures and illustrations attract you? 4. Does the whole content of coursebook interesting?			
Methodology	1. Do the coursebook help you write step by step from planning, drafting, revising to editing? 2. Does writing process help you express your ideas accurately and fluently? 3. Does writing your own topics help you express ideas fluently?			

Mukundan & Nimehchisalem (2012)

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TEXTBOOK CHECKLIST

Evaluative criteria	Level of importance	Reword	Comment
I. General attributes			
A. The book in relation to syllabus and curriculum			
1. It matches to the specifications of the syllabus.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
B. Methodology			
2. The activities can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
3. Activities can work well with methodologies in ELT.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
C. Suitability to learners			
4. It is compatible to the age of the learners.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
5. It is compatible to the needs of the learners.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
6. It is compatible to the interests of the learners.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
D. Physical and utilitarian attributes			
7. Its layout is attractive.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
8. It indicates efficient use of text and visuals.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
9. It is durable.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
10. It is cost-effective.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
E. Efficient outlay of supplementary materials			
11. The book is supported efficiently by essentials like audio-materials.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
II. Learning-teaching content			
A. General			
12. Most of the tasks in the book are interesting.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
13. Tasks move from simple to complex.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
14. Task objectives are achievable.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
15. Cultural sensitivities have been considered.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
16. The language in the textbook is natural and real.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
17. The situations created in the dialogues sound natural and real.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
B. Listening			
18. The book has appropriate listening tasks with well-defined goals.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
19. Tasks are efficiently graded according to complexity.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
20. Tasks are authentic or close to real language situations.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
C. Speaking			
21. Activities are developed to initiate meaningful communication.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
22. Activities are balanced between individual response, pair work and group work.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
D. Reading			
23. Texts are graded.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
24. Texts are interesting.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
E. Writing			
25. Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration learner capabilities.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
26. Tasks are interesting.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
F. Vocabulary			
27. The load (number of new words in each lesson) is appropriate to the level.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
28. There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
29. Words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
G. Grammar			
30. The spread of grammar is achievable.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
31. The grammar is contextualized.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
32. Examples are interesting.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
33. Grammar is introduced explicitly and reworked incidentally throughout the book.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
H. Pronunciation			
34. It is contextualized.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
35. It is learner-friendly with no complex charts.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
I. Exercises			
36. They are learner friendly.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
37. They are adequate.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
38. They help students who are under/over-achievers.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
39.			
40.			

BOOK MAP

Unit	Topic	Discovering language		
		Grammar	**Pronunciation**	**Vocabulary**
1 SIGNS OF THE TIME	Lifestyles	●Semi-modal **used to** ●Present simple tense ● **Going to and will-** future ●Present continuous with future intention ●Modals **may/ might** ●Relative pronouns ●Link words: **in contrast to/by contrast/ however, on the contrary** ●The comparative and the superlative	● Vowels ●Diphthongs ●English and French phonics ● Homophones ● Homonyms ● Comma and full stop pauses ● English and French phonics	●Vocabulary related to food,clothes ... ●Suffixes **-ism,** **-ic, -ical, -less, -** **ist, -ary, -dom...**
2 MAKE PEACE.	Peace and conflict resolution	● Modals **can/could** ● Verb idiom: **was/ were able to/ will be able to/ has/have been able to** ●Modals: **must/have to/ need to** ●**Should have + past participle**	●Primary stress in connected speech ●Homonyms/ homophones ●Intonation in requests	●Vocabulary related to peace and citizenship ●Abbreviations and acronyms
3 WASTE NOT, WANT NOT.	World resources and sustainable development	● The present simple passive ●The past simple passive ●The future simple passive The present perfect simple passive ●The passive with modals, **must, can, may** and **should**	● Intonation (listing) ●Strong and weak forms of auxiliary **was** and **were** in the passive. ●Pronunciation of **must, can, should** in the passive. ●Problem consonants and vowels	●Strategies for checking a monolingual dictionary ●Study of a dictionary entry

BOOK MAP

Functions	Developing skills		Projects
	Listening and speaking	Reading and writing	
• Describing • Narrating • Predicting • Expressing certainty and doubt • Expressing intention • Comparing	• Listening for specific information • Lisening for general ideas • Talking about changes in lifestyles: eating habits, clothes ...	• Reading for specific information • Reading for general ideas • Reading a biography, a newspaper article... • Writing a policy statement, slogans, a newspaper article, a letter ...	• Writing a profile about lifestyles
• Expressing obligation and absence of obligation • Expressing ability and possibility • Criticising • Making requests	• Listening for specific information • Listening for general ideas • Solving problems through dialogue • Making a public address	• Reading a newspaper article • Discussing style • Writing a poem • Writing a class charter/ an acrostic • Writing a poem	• Writing a statement of achievements
• Narrating • Describing a process • Promising • Asking for and giving information • Reporting	• Listening to a lecture • Managing through a long conversation using discourse markers • Talking about the environment • Making a presentation of a product	• Reading a map / a newspaper article • Guessing the meaning of words through context • Analysis of paragraph organization • Writing a press release • Making an oral presentation	• Making a conservation plan

elbassair.net

BOOK MAP

Unit	Topic	Discovering language		
		Grammar	**Pronunciation**	**Vocabulary**
4 BUDDING SCIENTIST	Science and experiments	●If-conditional, type zero ●If-conditional, type one (revision) ●The comparative (revision)	●Diphthongs ●Stress in words ending in -gy, -ical, -ics ● Intonation in complex sentences with **if**.	●Vocabulary related to science, experiments ... ●Formation of adjectives with suffixes: -able, -ible ...
5 NEWS AND TALES	Literature and the media	●Past perfect tense with time conjunctions **when, after, before...** ●Past simple (consolidation) ●Past continuous (consolidation) ●**The + adjective** ●Comparatives : **as ...as** and **like** . ●Definite article **the**	●Silent letters **w, t, r, e, gh, l, s, k ...** ●Stress in compound words	●Adverbs ●Figures of speech (metaphors, similes) ●Suffixes for forming adjectives of nationality with **–ese , -ish, -ch ...** ●Transforming nouns into adjectives
6 NO MAN IS AN ISLAND.	Disasters and solidarity	● Reported speech (present perfect and the past simple) ●Reported speech (Present simple and future) ●Reported speech (Orders, requests ...) ●Link words: **for, since** ● Punctuation marks	●Emphatic stress ●Pronunciation of -ed at the end of verbs ●Sound-spelling links	●Vocabulary related to disasters and solidarity ● Reporting verbs

BOOK MAP

	Developing skills		Projects
Functions	Listening and speaking	Reading and writing	
●Expressing condition ●Making predictions ●Making and replying to suggestions	●Listening to a talk ●Talking about dilemmas ●Giving a short presentation	●Reading a report about an experiment ●Reading an advertisement ●Writing a letter seeking/ giving advice ●Writing a letter about a contingency plan	Writing: ●reports on scientific experiments ●an ABC of dreams
●Narrating ●Agreeing ●Disagreeing ●Asking for and giving opinion	●Listening to a folktale ●Making an oral summary of a tale ●Telling a tale ● Managing through a conversation	●Reading and interpreting a map ●Reading a newspaper article ●Reading a news story ●Writing a news story ●Writing a short story	●Writing a collection of stories
● Reporting ●Asking for and giving advice ●Quoting someone ●Making claims ●Expressing interest and surprise ●Disagreeing politely	●Listening to a radio interview ●Managing through a conversation ●Taking turns in an interview	●Reading a report ●Reading a pie chart ●Reading a newspaper article ●Writing a report ●Writing an announcement ●Writing a letter of opinion	●Making a survey

BOOK MAP

Unit	Topic	Discovering language		
		Grammar	**Pronunciation**	**Vocabulary**
7 SCIENCE OR FICTION?	Technology and the arts	• **If-conditional type 2** ●If-conditional type 3 ●**If only** • **Well + past participle**	• Emphatic stress with operators **do_** and **did..** • Stress in compound words	●Vocabulary related to films, literature ... ●Compound words ●Phrasal and prepositional verbs
8 BUSINESS IS BUSINESS	Management and efficiency	●Link words: **to,** **in order to, so that,** **in order that** ●Present perfect with **yet, since, for, just, still** (consolidation) ●Present perfect continuous	●Sentence stress ●Word stress ●Sound-spelling links	●Words related to business ●Prefixes **mis- ,dis-, im-, in-, un-, mal-** ●Long and short vowel sounds

BOOK MAP

	Developing skills		Projects
Functions	**Listening and speaking**	**Reading and writing**	
●Expressing condition ●Asking for and giving advice ●Expressing regret, ●Blaming ●Making speculations ●Expressing wishes	●Listening to a talk ●Managing through conversation by asking for clarifications, giving examples ... ●Reciting a poem	●Reading a newspaper article ●Reading a cartoon ●Writing a short text commentary ●Writing a biography ●Writing a lament ●Writing a short newspaper article	● **Writing miscellanies** ● **Making a repertory**
●Expressing complaints ●Apologizing ●Asking and answering questions ●Making comments	●Listening to a conversation ●Listening for general ideas ●Listening for specific information ●Making an interview	●Reading business letters: complaints, Dispatch advice... ●Reading for general ideas ●Reading for specific information ●Writing a business report ●Writing a profit and loss statement, a balance sheet...	●**Writing a business portfolio**

UNIT 1: SIGNS OF THE TIME

In this unit, you will <u>learn</u> the following:

DISCOVERING LANGUAGE

→ **Grammar**
- O Semi-modal **used to**
- O Present simple tense
- O **Going to** and the present progressive
- O **Will**-future
- O Modals **may, might ...**
- O Relative pronouns
- O Link words: **in contrast to/by contrast...**
- O The comparative and the superlative

→ **Pronunciation**
- O Comma pauses
- O Vowels and diphthongs
- O Sound-alikes (homonyms,homophones)

→ **Vocabulary**
- O Suffixes **-ic, -ical** and **-ism**
- O Words related to food, clothes...

DEVELOPING SKILLS

→ **Functions**
- O Narrating
- O Predicting
- O Expressing certainty and doubt
- O Talking about plans and intentions

→ **SKILLS**
- O Reading for general ideas and specific information
- O Listening for specific information and general ideas
- O Writing a policy statement
- O Writing a word map using suffixes
- O Writing a short essay using comparison and contrast
- O Writing a slogan

PROJECT

Making a Profile
About Lifestyles

See page 30 and get
organized before start-
ing the unit.

❶ This a student's paragraph. S/has made 10 mistakes in the use of tenses. Correct them using the semi-modal <u>used to</u>, each time you think it is appropriate.

I was born in the Kasbah of Algiers in 1949. My father is a docker: he works in the docks, loading and unloading ships. He goes to work early in the morning and comes back home late in the evening without getting any wages. At the time, dockers pay French foremen on the docks to get a day's work, but my dad never pays. So he doesn't get work every day. Mum cries but poor old dad never says a word. I remember, money is always the problem.

My sister Zohra and I don't have toys. So we go down the steep and narrow alleys of the Kasbah to spend the day in the French quarter near the harbour. All day long, we look at the toys displayed in shopwindows and envy the children of the French colonists playing in the park.....

❷ Imagine you are on an election campaign. Advertise your programme by writing a policy statement. Use <u>going to</u> and the clues below.

Fellow Citizens,
  If I am elected to office, I'm going to _____
  ● reduce food prices ● raise civil servants' salaries ● build a hospital
  ● impose higher taxes on cigarettes ● provide accommodation/houses for all ...
  (Add other examples of your own.)

❸ Homework: Find other words with the suffixes listed in the table above and use them in sentences of your own.

❺ Write 4 <u>definitions</u> using the information in the box.

A /nouns	B /categories	C Relative pronouns
A restaurant	place	when
A waiter	person	where
Beef	meat	which/that
Ramadan	month	who
A widow	woman	whose
This (is)	man	whom

See Grammar References N° 5, pp.191-192

Example:
A restaurant is a place where people dine out.

❶ Group work. Write five or six advertisement slogans for a car of your choice using the information in the table. Compare your answers.

Superlative and comparative forms	Adjectives and adverbs
Adjective/adverb + er + than ... more + adjective/adverb + than.... as + adjective/adverb + as not + as + adjective/adverb + as less + adjective/adverb + than the + adjective/adverb + est the most/least + adjective/ adverb	pretty beautiful cheap quickly safe comfortable expensive smoothly ...

❷ Complete the blanks in the short newspaper article that follows the tip box. Get help from the questions in italics.

TIP BOX

We generally organise written texts into paragraphs. Each paragraph develops an idea. There are many techniques for developing paragraphs. One of them is paragraph development by comparison and contrast. We express contrast by using the following link words in contrast to, by contrast, whereas, while, but, however, contrary to, unlike ...

What Do People Wear?

Climate, tradition and history affect the way people dress. For example, in Northern European countries, _____ (*What is the weather like?*). Consequently, people_____ (*What types of clothes do they wear?*). **By contrast** in Northern Africa_____(*What is the weather like?*). As a result,_____(*What types of clothes do North Africans wear?*) _____ (§1)

Differences in tradition also influence the types of clothes people wear. For instance, in Muslim countries, _____(*What types of clothes do people wear when going to wedding feasts?*), **in contrast to** America where ___(*What types of clothes do people wear when going to ceremonial occasions?*) ___. (§2)

Contrary to what some people think, history is no less important when it comes to clothes. In the past, young people in Algeria _____(*What types of clothes did they use to wear ?*) **whereas/in contrast** today they _____. A few years ago, the elderly people _____ _____, but nowadays, they _____ _____(§3)

The most important factor that determines dressing styles today is ___. So in most of the world people like to wear_____. However, there are still some countries which keep to their _____ in spite of globalisation. (§4)

☐ **Write it out**

Imagine you are one of the Bulgarian students visiting Algeria. Send an e-mail to an English penfriend of yours telling him/her about your plans for the next two months. Use the information in the box.

Start like this:

Dear ___,

I'm staying with an Algerian host family for the next two months. _____

Activity	Place	Time
stay/host family/two months	Algeria	
ecological visit	Blida and Mount Chréa	tomorrow
go down/tour there/2 weeks visit El-Oued	the Sahara	next week
coral fishing	El-Kala	August 2nd
visiting silversmiths	Beni Yenni	August 5th - August 8th
fly back	home	August 15th

PUTTING THINGS TOGETHER

Making a profile about lifestyles

Your lifestyles profile will be divided into three parts and will deal with three main aspects of life: **clothes food**, and **entertainment** in Algeria and abroad. Include pictures to illustrate your theme.

Part I . Lifestyles in the past

Note: Use **used to** when you write/talk about these life-styles.

Part II Present-day Lifestyles

Note: Use **the present simple** tense with link words **when/after/ before/ until/while**.

Part III Future Lifestyles

Note: Use **will/may/might** and their negatives in making your predictions.

UNIT: 2 MAKE PEACE !

In this unit, you will <u>learn</u> the following:

DISCOVERING LANGUAGE

→ **Grammar**
- ○ Modals **can and could**
- ○ Verb idioms: **was / will be able to...**
- ○ **Must/have to/ need to ...**
- ○ **Should have + past participle**

→ *Pronunciation*
- ○ Primary stress in connected speech
- ○ Pronunciation of abbreviations
- ○ Intonation in requests

→ *Vocabulary*
- ○ Vocabulary related to peace
- ○ Making a word chart using abbreviations

DEVELOPING SKILLS

→ *Functions*
- ○ Expressing ability and possibility
- ○ Expressing obligation and absence of obligation
- ○ Expressing appreciation

→ **SKILLS**
- ○ Listening for gist
- ○ Listening for specific information
- ○ Reading dictionary entries
- ○ Discussing style
- ○ Writing a public address
- ○ Writing a contract
- ○ Writing a poem

❷ Group work. Match the sentences in column A with their functions in Column B. Then write similar sentences to express the same functions.

Column A	Column B
1. Can you hear what he's saying?	A. warning
2. We could develop a culture of peace by being more tolerant.	B. ability
3. Contrary to what some people think, women can be tall and strong.	C. possibility
4. "I've hurt her feelings. What shall I do ?" "Well, you could apologize to her."	D. suggestion E. request
5. I wonder if you could come here and talk it over.	F. remote possibility
6. At the age of 17, you can take your driving licence with your parents' consent, but you can't vote.	G. offer
7. Don't lean out of this window; you could fall down.	H. permission
8. Can I help you?	

❏ **Write it right**

Imagine you entered a UNESCO competition for writing a poem against prejudice. Complete the blanks in the poem below to denounce prejudice (false opinion about others).

Down with Prejudices

Do you think a woman can be tall and strong ?
Do you think she can _____and _____?
Do you think she can_____ and _____ ?
Do you think a man can be small and pretty?
Do you think he can _____ and _____?
Do you think the elderly people can _____?
Do you think they _____ ?
_____
Do you think young people can be young and wise?
Do you think they _____?
If you do, then you deserve _____.

☐ Write it up

❶ Group work. Discuss and write a list of school regulations using the clues in the box and the auxiliaries in the table that follows . Then compare your answers.

> tolerate differences/ respect/ keep cool/ shout at each other, learn to listen to each other/ bully /impose ourselves on others/ cheat at exams/ accept the opinions of others/ insult others/ always agree with each other/ violent/ settle disputes peacefully (*Add other examples.*)

Obligation	Prohibition	Absence of obligation
We have to ___. We must/should/ ought to ___.	We mustn't ___.	We don't have to ___. We don't need to ___.

❷ Write your own acrostic for one of the following words: peace, democracy, dialogue, diversity, tolerance or consensus. Draw inspiration from the acrostic below.

> **Acrostic**
>
> R = Remember that YOU are responsible for the safety of your school.
> E = Esteem yourself; have self-respect.
> S = Show others respect.
> P = Promote peaceful resolution of conflicts.
> E = Engage in activites that you enjoy and that help others.
> C = Communicate openly about your concerns regarding school violence.
> T = Take the initiative to make your school safer.

❸ Class work. Distinguish between the duties and rights in the box. Then complete the class charter that follows. Discuss and add other items to the charter.

> Express opinions/ work hard/ respect the opinions of others/ meet together to exchange ideas/ free education/ tolerate differences/ good working conditions/health care/ respect the rights of others/ promote a culture of peace/ information/ co-operate to solve problems ....

COLONEL LOTFI SECONDARY SCHOOL, MASCARA
LITERARY STREAM, YEAR 2 - STUDENT GOVERNING BODY
CLASS CHARTER

We, the undersigned, after class discussion and referendum, have agreed on the following:

Article One: Rights

A. Children have the right to _____.
B. Children have the right to _____.
C. The school authorities must/mustn't/ _____.
D. _____.
E. The Parent-Teacher Association must/mustn't_____.

Article Two: Duties and Responsibilities

A. We have the duty to _____.
B. We must/mustn't _____.
C. We shall _____.
D. _____.

The present charter shall come into force and vigour as soon as it is deposited with the headmaster.

Date: _____   Signatures _____

_____

❏ **Write it out**

Imagine you are in Hyde Park at the Speakers' Corner, in London, England. Read the information in the tip box below. Then complete the speech that follows.

Imitate Martin Luther King's speech making the best use of the auxiliaries you have learnt in this unit.

TIP BOX

The main purpose of a speech is to inform, convince, and stimulate an audience. Speeches are generally made in an <u>oratorical</u> style which includes repetition of key words, phrases and sentences as well as a diction(choice of words) that can impress the audience.

Preamble of your speech

Ladies and gentlemen,let me make this point right away : age limits are not fair ! I want to vote, but I can't do that at the age of sixteen. "I'm sorry, you are too young", they say. I'm not an adult until I am nineteen. But when I buy a plane ticket, I have to pay the full fare. I am an adult although I'm just sixteen.

_____

(Use other age limits for sixteen-year olds to develop further the preamble: leave school/work full time/get married/boys join the army ...)

Body of the speech

Ladies and gentlemen, I have a dream that children of my age will be able to
_____. I have

A dream that _____.

Our grandparents were able to _____.

I hope we will be able to _____.

I hope we will be able to _____.

Conclusion

Thank you very much for your kind attention, ladies and gentlemen. Please sign the petition entitled DOWN WITH AGE LIMITS which is being circulated by my classmates. God bless you all !

A STATEMENT OF ACHIEVEMENTS

Your statement (record) of achievements will be about Nobel Peace Prize winners and will be presented in the form of a small sketchbook.

It will include:
- A checklist of the Nobel Peace Prize winners over the past ten years
- Two or three short biographies about two Nobel Peace Prize winners with two or three short statements of their achievements.

e.g., The Dalai Lama, Yasser Arafat, *Medecins Sans Frontières/* Doctors Without Borders, Nelson Mandela ...

- A list of potential candidates for the Nobel Peace Prize from Algeria and abroad for next year.

- Two or three short biographies and statements about their achievements.

- A written justification for your nominees. In what ways can their winning of the Nobel Prize contribute to a further advancement of peace in the world?

Unit 3: WASTE NOT, WANT NOT.

In this unit, you will <u>learn</u> the following:
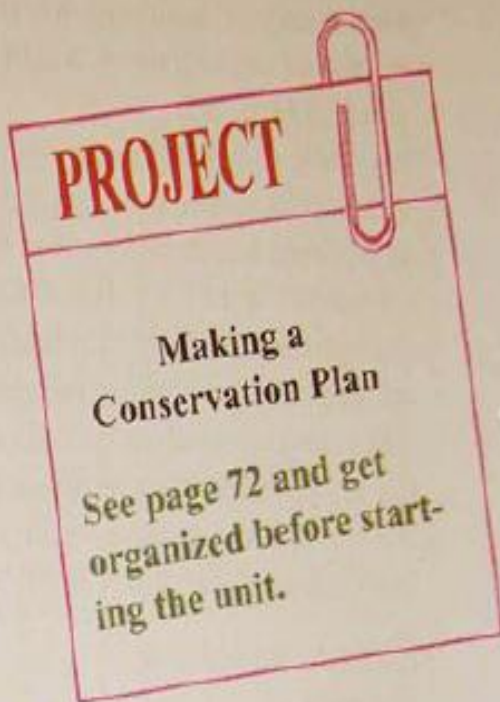
DISCOVERING LANGUAGE

Grammar
- ○ The present simple passive
- ○ The past simple passive
- ○ The future simple passive
- ○ The present perfect simple passive
- ○ The passive with modals: **must, can,**
  may and **should**

Pronunciation
- ○ Intonation (listing)
- ○ Strong and weak forms of auxiliary <u>was</u> and <u>were</u> in the passive.
- ○ Pronunciation of <u>must, can, should</u> in the passive.
- ○ Problem consonants and vowels

Vocabulary
- ○ Strategies for consulting a monolingual dictionary
- ○ Study of a dictionary entry

DEVELOPING SKILLS

Functions
- ○ Narrating
- ○ Describing a process
- ○ Promising
- ○ Asking for and giving information
- ○ Reporting

Skills
- ○ Paragraph organization
- ○ Reading for general ideas
- ○ Reading for specific information
- ○ Listening for specific information
- ○ Writing a press release
- ○ Making an oral and written presentation of a product

Right after the Exxon Valdez catastrophe, the owner of the shipping company made a press release to apologise for the damage and to promise reparation.
Re-write the press release using the secretary's notes in the box below and the future passive. You can add sentences of your own.

- 2 000 workers/recruit/ soon
- oil /recuperate with special machines
- beaches/clean/
- birds/wash out
- marine life/ restore
- tourist industry/compensate /for its losses
- hotel workers/employ/ by the company ...

Press Release

We make our sincere apologies for the damage caused by the wreck of the Exxon Valdez yesterday. We promise that _____.

❏ **Write it up**

Use the notes below to write a presentation of the solar home in the picture. Use appropriate <u>link words</u> from the tip box on the previous page. Add other link words if necessary.

Start like this

Ladies and gentlemen, this is our new type of solar home. It is better than other homes because it is environmentally friendly. It is totally operated by solar energy. _____.

Notes

- During winter, outside air/ capture/ warm/glass roof panels.
- This warm air/ force down/ into a water tank/ an air handling unit.
- The water in the tank/ heat/ and greater quantities of warm air/ release.
- The hot air then/send down a duct / in under-floor area.
- Warm air / rise / through floor to the living space.
- Some of the heated air /absorb/by concrete slab.It / release/at night.
- The process/ reverse/during summer.

Home technology: What's new ?

Air handling unit

Photovoltaic panels

Glass panels

Sheetmetal

Duct

Underfloor area

Concrete slab
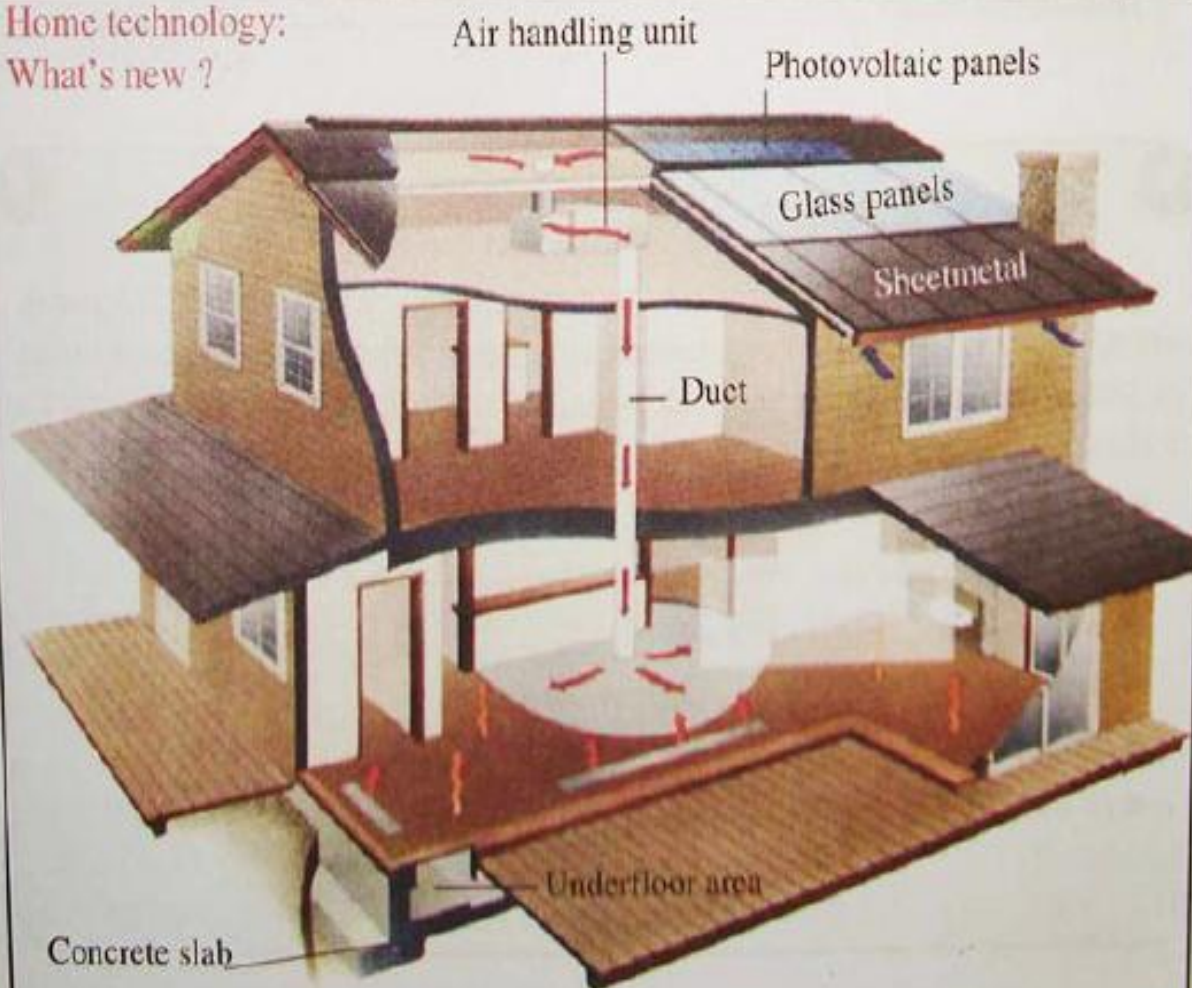
❺ **Pick out examples from the text on the previous page to complete the blanks in the tip box below.**

TIP BOX

There are generally **four types of sentences** in well-written **paragraphs**. Each type of sentence has a different function.

A. There are sentences **which focus on the general/main idea** of the paragraph as a whole. This type of sentence is called the topic sentence.

e.g., _____.

B. There are sentences which **give details to support/develop** the general idea made in the topic sentence. These sentences are called supporting sentences.

e.g., _____.

C. There are sentences that **provide a smooth transition from one idea to another**. They are called transitional sentences.

e.g., _____.

D. There are sentences which support the new idea.

e.g., _____.

E. Finally, there are sentences **which logically conclude the ideas discussed in the paragraph**. They are called concluding sentences.

e.g., _____.

---

❷ **The sentences in exercise 1 are not in the right order. Re-order them into a coherent newspaper article about desertification.**

Follow this process

Topic sentence → supporting sentences → transitional sentence
supporting sentences for a new idea → conclusion.

A CONSERVATION PLAN

Your conservation plan will be presented in the form of a prospectus. It will include:

A. a fact sheet synthesizing the main conservation measures that have already been taken by the Algerian government.

Conservation Fact Sheet

Natural resources:
   a. Soil : e.g., A "green" dam was built to stop desertification in ...
   b. Water: _____
   c. Wild life and open spaces (e.g, forests, animals...):_____
   d. Mineral Resources: ___
   e. Monuments: _____

Human resources:
   a. Health: _____
   b. Education: _____
   c. Culture: _____
   d. Economy: _____

أعكورن
Yakouren
VISITORS
we have very little
WATER
please help us
conserve it!

B. diagrams with presentations of how the public amenities and waste disposal systems work in your town. (Use sequencers and the present simple passive).

C. a country code and a town code (Use modals with the passive).

The Town Code

e.g., Energy saving resources must be used.

D. a map of an ideal (future) town with symbols and a small presentation.
   e.g., My ideal town will be built ....

UNIT 4: BUDDING SCIENTIST

In this unit, you will <u>learn</u> the following:

DISCOVERING LANGUAGE

→ Grammar
- ○ If-conditional: type zero
- ○ If-conditional: type one (revision)
- ○ The comparative adjectives (revision)

→ Pronunciation
- ○ Diphthongs
- ○ Stress in words ending in -gy, -ical, -ics
- ○ Intonation in complex sentences

→ Vocabulary
- → ○ Formation of adjectives with suffixes.

PROJECT

- Writing reports on scientific experiments
- Writing an A B C of Dreams

See pages 92 -93 and get organized before starting the unit.

DEVELOPING SKILLS

→ Functions
- ○ Expressing condition
- ○ Making predictions
- ○ Giving warnings
- ○ Making promises
- ○ Making offers, issuing threats
- ○ Making and replying to suggestions
- ○ Agreeing and disagreeing

→ SKILLS
- ○ Reading an expository text/report about an experiment
- ○ Listening for gist
- ○ Talking about dilemmas
- ○ Reporting results of a scientific experiment
- ○ Writing a caption
- ○ Writing an expository paragraph
- ○ Writing a letter asking for advice.
- ○ Writing a letter giving advice
- → ○ Writing a letter about a contingency plan

Use the information below to write a short description about water properties. Use the conjunctions <u>if</u>, <u>when</u> and <u>as</u>.

Start like this

Like air, water is found almost everywhere. It is familiar to us in different forms – as drinking water, rain, water vapor, ice and snow.

Water has some surprising qualities. For example, _____.

● Most liquids/freeze/ to become denser
Water to become/ lighter
You/ to fill pan of water with ice cubes/ you/to note/ unmelted particles/to remain at the surface
Why? frozen water lighter than water in liquid form

● Water to expand / to become ice
to expand/ it /to exert pressure
to fill a glass bottle/ and to put in the freezer/ bottle/to break
Why? expansion of frozen water/to exert pressure on glass bottle

● Water molecules/to have/strong attraction to each other
force of attraction/to call/ cohesion
to moisten two packet mirrors/ impossible to pull them apart.
But dry the mirrors/ not difficult at all to separate them
Why? water molecules on the surface of packet mirrors / to attract

❑ Write it up

❶ Imagine you are in a dilemma, write a letter to an 'agony aunt' to ask for advice.

Say why you are writing.

Dear _____,

I'm writing to _____.

Introduce yourself.

_____
_____
_____
_____

Explain the problem.

I find myself in a dilemma and I have no one to turn to. _____
_____
_____

❷ Now, imagine you are an 'agony aunt'. Read your partner's letter and reply by suggesting a solution to his/her problem. Keep to the following plan:

- Introduction
- Expression of sympathy and reassurance
- Analysis of the problem
- Recommendations/suggestions

❶A friend of yours has written you a letter because s/he is anxious to know what you'll do if you pass or fail the *Baccalauréat* exam. Reply to him/her by revealing to him/her your contingency plan just to relieve him /her of his/her anxiety.

Your address

Opening _____

Thank you for _____ .
_____
_____ .

Positive Results   If I pass my *Baccalauréat*, I'll _____ .
_____
_____
_____

Negative Results   If I fail my *Baccalauréat* exam, I'll _____ .
_____
_____
_____

Closing _____ .

Greetings _____

❷Correct your mistakes. Then exchange drafts with your partner for further error checking.

❸Write a revised version of your letter and hand it to your teacher.

THE A B C OF DREAMS (Literary Streams only)

Make a search into how people of your locality interpret their dreams and write an *A B C of Dreams* in the form of a poster with illustrations.

You can use the sample of the *A B C of Dreams* below written by a an English high school student as a model.

For thousands of years people have believed that dreams can tell us what will happen in the future. They were seen as 'divine messages'. Some people still believe that dreams foretell the future. Here are some of the most common dreams and their meanings.

Animals: If you dream of a pet, you will be happy. But wild animals, like lions and tigers mean you will have many enemies.

Ball: If you are playing with a ball in your sleep, you will receive some very good news.

Coffee: Drinking coffee shows that you will soon move house.

Drums: If you hear drums, you will quarrel with your family. If you see them, the quarrel will end.

Eating: This is an unlucky dream. It often means the end of a marriage or relationship.

Fish: One fish means you will get money. More than one fish means your friends will help you.

Grass: To dream of grass means that something wrong will happen to you if you don't leave the countryside. You must live in the city.

Hungry: Don't worry if you dream of being hungry. You will never be hungry in your life.

REPORT ON SCIENTIFIC EXPERIMENTS (Scientific Streams only)

● Your report should be about 300 words and not longer than 400.
● As you carry out the experiments, make careful observations and keep a record of the results. Use if.
● Give the details of your work as far as possible in charts, diagrams ... .
● The experiments can be carried out outside or inside school (school laboratory). Seek the help of your teachers if necessary.
● **Please don't try to experiment with things that may cause you harm.** *e.g.,* **electricity, mixing chemicals together in a haphazard way.**
● It's preferable to choose experiments with water or air. Draw inspiration from these pictures.

UNIT 5: NEWS AND TALES

In this unit you will learn the following:

Grammar
- Past perfect tense with time conjunctions when, **after, before**...
- Past simple (consolidation)
- Past continuous (consolidation)
- Comparatives with **...as ...as** and like .
- Definite article <u>the</u>

Pronunciation
- Silent letters <u>w</u>, <u>t</u>, <u>r</u>, <u>e</u>, <u>gh</u>, <u>l</u>, <u>s</u>, <u>k</u> ...
- Stress in compound words

Vocabulary
- Adverbs : naturally, fortunately ...
- Compound words
- Figures of speech (metaphors, similes)
- Transforming adjectives into nouns : **the** poor , **the** French ...

Functions
- Agreeing
- Disagreeing
- Asking for and giving opinion
- Narrating

SKILLS
- Reading and interpreting a map
- Reading a newspaper article
- Reading a news story
- Listening to a folktale
- Making a summary
- Writing a news story
- Writing a short story

(sidebar left: DISCOVERING LANGUAGE / DEVELOPING SKILLS)

PROJECT

Writing a Collection of Stories

See page 112 and get organized before starting the unit.

❏ Write it right

Use the guidelines below to tell a story about a disaster (an earthquake, a fire, a gas explosion, a sandstorm ...) to which you been witness.

- It was in ____ (year ?). It was ____ (which season , part of the month, or day was it?). (What was the weather like, was it raining, was the sun shining?)
- Where were you? What you and the other people around you were doing? (*Narrate in detail using the conjunction <u>while</u> .*)
- What happened suddenly? (*Use simple past with <u>suddenly</u>*) (*Narrate the rest of the events in detail using the past continuous or/and the simple past.*)
- Make the story more interesting by using one of the following adverbs: **luckily, fortunately, unfortunately** ...
- Describe what you saw around you when the disaster had passed. (*Use the past perfect. e.g., The furniture **had fallen** to the ground . ...)*

❹ Poetry competition. Write a poem using as many similes and metaphors as you can.

> **HOW A GOOD GREYHOUND IS SHAPED**
>
> *A head like a snake, a neck like a drake,*
> *A back like a beam, a belly like a bream,*
> *A foot like a cat, a tail like a rat.*
>
> *Anonymous*

❏ Write it up

Work in groups and write a short tale following the guidelines below.

- Begin the story like this: Once upon a time ....
- Describe the characters (physical appearance and personality)
- Describe the setting (where and when)
- Give a dramatic turn to the story (Something unexpected happened.)
- Imagine the rest of the story.
- Conclude with a happy or unhappy ending. 'And they all lived happily ever after.'

❸ Have a look at the tip box below. Then write a lead-in paragraph of three to four lines using the information in the table that follows.

> **TIP BOX**
>
> Lead-in paragraphs are the first paragraphs in 'hard' news stories (articles). They usually help the reader to answer important questions — **who, what, where, when** and sometimes **why** or **how** – very quickly . The other paragraphs in news stories give additional information.
>
> We generally use the past continuous, the past simple and the past perfect with link words like <u>while, when, as, before, after</u> to report 'hard' news stories.

Column A	Column B
1.Tragic Air Crash	Skyways Company / Yesterday, 120 passengers dead - no survivors - flying low – hit the Himalaya...
2. Train Crash Kills 20	Two trains – collide- Constantine- Tuesday 25 – no respect – traffic sign ...

❏ **Write it out**

❶ There is a wrong tense use in each of the statements in the accident report below. Correct them. An example is given to you.

Accident Report

Type of accident: ROAD ACCIDENT

Statement (s) by motorist (s) and eyewitnesses

A. He was holding a mobile to his ear with his left hand while he ~~drives~~ *was driving* with his right hand .
B. The motorist did not wear his seatbelt when the accident occurred.
C. While the bus driver he was driving, he talks to one of the passengers.
D. I checked the wing mirror when the lorry hit me from behind.
E. While I turned slowly into a narrow street, the pedestrian jumped in front of my car.

Statements by the traffic police officer
A. As soon as I was arriving at the scene of the accident, I made the traffic move.
B. The paramedics had taken the victims to hospital before I was arriving.
C. After I had questioned some witnesses, I had taken some photos of the damaged vehicles.
D. I didn't write my report until I questioned the eyewitnesses.
E. When I finish questioning the eyewitnesses, I went to hospital to question the injured motorists.

❷ Imagine you were a police officer. Write a report about an accident making the best use of the information in exercise 1 above.

Start like this:
An accident happened/occurred yesterday at 5 p.m. _____
_____
_____ .

WRITING A COLLECTION OF STORIES

Your collection of stories will include the various types of story you can think of. (e.g., a disaster story, a love story, a folktale, a news story, a fantasy story ...).

A. Each member of the group will write a story.
B. The group will write a foreword/ preface to the collection of stories
C. Every member of the group will give his/her short biography in the appendix.
D. Write a blurb for your collection of stories.
E. Illustrate your stories with pictures if you can.

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UNIT 6: NO MAN IS AN ISLAND.

In this unit you will learn the following:

DISCOVERING LANGUAGE

DEVELOPING SKILLS

PROJECT
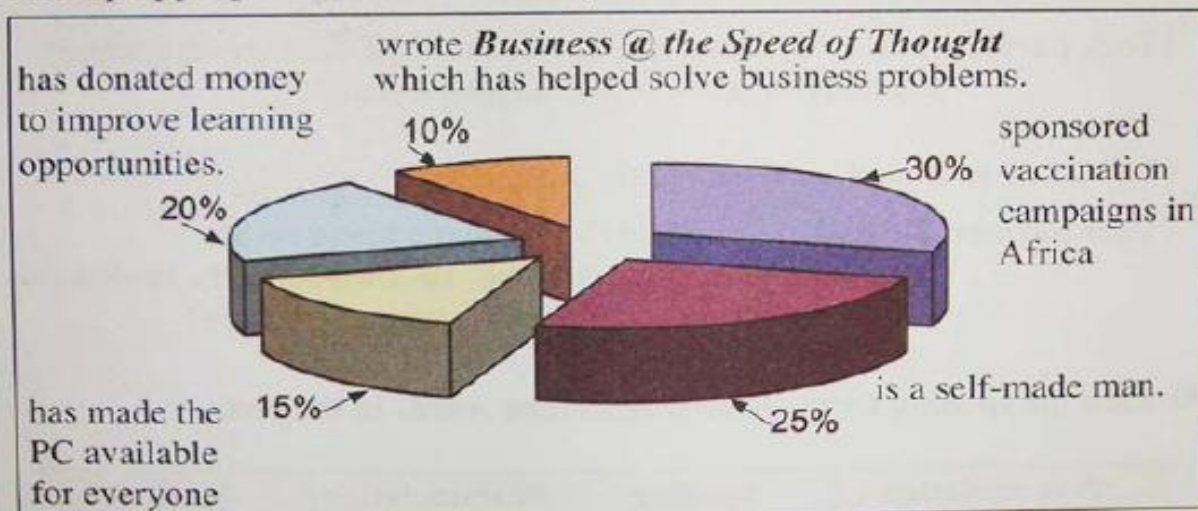
Making a Survey

See page 132 and get organized before starting the unit.

❏ Write it right

Use the information in the pie chart and the layout that follows to write a report about why Americans elected Bill Gates Man of the Year for 2005. Pick up appropriate verbs from the yellow box.

wrote **Business @ the Speed of Thought** which has helped solve business problems.

has donated money to improve learning opportunities.

10%

sponsored 30% vaccination campaigns in Africa

20%

has made the 15% PC available for everyone

is a self-made man.

25%

think - believe - consider - regard - reckon - state

LAYOUT

Why was Bill Gates elected Man of the Year?

Introduction:

Bill Gates was elected Man of the Year for 2005. We have carried out a public opinion survey to find out about the reasons why he was so elected.

Here are are our findings. 30% of our informants _____

_____

_____ .

These results suggest/show that _____ .

● Have a look at the tip box below. Then do exercise that follows.

👆
TIP BOX

When giving advice to someone, we should see to it that the reader understands the reason why we give each piece of advice. Otherwise, s/he won't take it seriously. Here are some of the link words, you can use to express reason: <u>because</u>, <u>for</u> and <u>as</u>.

● Write a short announcement advertising the precautions that people should take <u>before</u>, <u>during</u> and <u>after</u> an earthquake.

ANNOUNCEMENT

Dear citizen,

Our town is situated in an earthquake zone. We can't do anything to stop earthquakes, but we should see to it that safety measures are taken in order to limit both the loss of human life and material damage.

Before an earthquake, we'd better _____ because
_____ .
_____

During the earthquake _____
_____ , for _____
_____
_____

↙ After the earthquake _____ because
_____ .
_____

---

❸ Have a look at the tip box below. Then <u>Punctuate</u> the first paragraph of the article on the previous page to <u>separate</u> the reporter's words from those of his informant.

👆
TIP BOX

● When we write reports or stories, we often include pieces of conversation between quotation (speech) marks.
● When we quote, we can use either a comma or a colon after the reporting verb.
  e.g., S/he says/said, "The flood has tested our strength."
        They said: " We've risked our lives for other people."
● When the quotation comes at the beginning , we use only a comma.
  e.g., " They're taking food to their neighbours," he replied.

❏ Write it out

❶ Report the opinions below using the following verbs and expressions: <u>think/assert/believe/state/claim/maintain/</u> and <u>are of the opinion that ...</u> .

"We can reduce poverty in Africa by giving more food aid."
"Food aid is not the solution to starvation and malnutrition in Africa."

Start like this:
Some people think _____ .

❷ Now, develop an argument against the claims reported in exercise 1 on the previous page. Use the <u>hints</u> in the box below and <u>the notes</u> that follow.

Here are some hints:

Some people think/say _____ . This is totally wrong. / This view is open to doubt. / They seem to be / are mistaken./Serious doubt can be raised against this opinion/claim. / I disagree with this view. Though ____

- billions of dollars already spent on food aid
- African countries rich
- people still suffering from malnutrition / starvation
- vaccination campaigns
- thousands of people dying from hunger / famine
- people leaving villages for feeding centres
- Africa long history / culture
- people lazy and dependent on charity
- food not reaching the right people
- essential to deal with problem of poverty at root
- cancelling debt of poor countries
- music beautiful
- investing in sustainable development projects
- practising fair trade
- destroying the environment
- easy access of African products to international markets
- stopping conflicts to allow people to work on the land
- conserving human resources

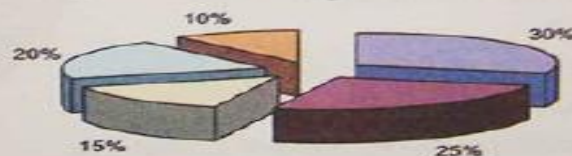## PUTTING THINGS TOGETHER

MAKING A SURVEY

Your survey will deal with people's <u>readiness</u> to face natural and man-made disasters, floods, fires, droughts, earthquakes, home/road accidents, etc.

It will be presented in the form of a booklet and will include the following:

● A short questionnaire (of 8 to 9 questions) addressed to a sample of informants. (Use questions containing the past simple and present perfect.)

● A short interview of one of the informants.

● Data collection questions and results.

(Cf. model in SE1 Book *At the Crossroads* pp. 72-73)

● A report with a graph.

● A set of safety instructions about the disaster (s) you've surveyed.

● A reminder of how people abroad deal with such disasters.

● Include pictures and slogans against carelessness and give a list of precautions in order to mitigate risks due to natural and man-made disasters .

UNIT 7: SCIENCE OR FICTION?

In this unit, you will <u>learn</u> the following:

PROJECT
- Writing Miscellanies
- Making a Repertory

See pages 152 & 153 and get organized before starting the unit.

---

❸ **Group work. Speculate and add some endings to the if-clauses below. Each group will write their favourite sentences on the board.**

A. If Thomas Edison hadn't invented the light bulb, _____.

B. If Alexander Fleming hadn't discovered penicillin, _____.

C. If Albert Einstein had died before developing nuclear physics, _____.

D. If World War II had not happened, _____.

☐ **Write it right**

Write a short newspaper article speculating about how things would have been different if the events in the box below had not happened. Give examples to illustrate your speculations about each event.

- Christopher Columbus's discovery of the New World
- The Industrial Revolution
- Karl Marx's writing of the *Communist Manifesto*
- The anti-colonialist struggle
- The development of the computer ...

Start as follows

I consider that there are five important events that have really marked modern history. If these events hadn't taken place, our world might/could/would have been totally different. If _____.

_____

_____

□ Write it up

❶ Read the information in the tip box below and complete the "lament" in the box that follows.

TIP BOX

A lament or elegy is a type of poem which expresses grief and regrets over what is definitely lost because of death or simply because of the passing of time.

Poems are written in verse. These verses or lines are put in blocks called stanzas. Good poems are those which have **similes, metaphors, rhyme, assonance** and **consonance**. So check the meaning of these words before you start writing your lament.

Repetition is a recommended technique because it makes the poem rhythmical and more emphatic.

Title	*LAMENT OVER LOST OPPORTUNITIES*
First stanza	Sometimes I lie in bed at night
	And think how my life could have been quite all right
	I think and think of all the opportunities I have lost.
	Oh! If only _____.
Second stanza	If only_____.
	I would have _____.
	If only_____.
	Then I would not have_____.
Third stanza	_____.
	_____.
	_____.
	_____.

❷ Correct your mistakes. Then recite your poem to your classmates.

❹ Now use your answers in exercise 3 above and the expressions in the tip box above to write a short commentary about the text on the previous page.

Here are some views, differing from the author's, to help you.
- It is true that some of the greatest discoveries happen by accident; but it is also true that it takes a genius to understand the meaning of the accident.
- It takes a lifetime of preparation and perspiration to make an invention.

Start like this : This text is about _____.

Write a short autobiography about Michael Faraday implying that his career furnishes a classical example of a poor boy who succeeded as a scientist.

TIP BOX

When you write a biography, you generally write about a chain of events in a famous person's life . You can't mention all the events that happened during that person's lifetime. Therefore, you have to select the most important ones. These events should be presented in a chronological order.

Biographies are also written to teach lessons in life. So choose some of the lessons you want to teach your reader. These lessons are often implied rather than stated openly and explicitly..

One of the greatest names in the history of electrical research in the first half of the nineteenth century is that of Michael Faraday. _____.

Place of birth: Newington, Surrey, England.

Date of birth: 1791

Father : poor blacksmith, moved to London
            to mend his fortunes

Brothers : Michael /Third son

Education : drop/ elementary grades

Apprenticeship : apprentice/ bookbinder

Personality : curiosity/ reading books / bind
                save money / attend lectures on science

Job : laboratory assistant to Sir Humphry Davy, one of the most famous
        scientists at the time
        Duties included bottle washing and other disagreeable chores
        Sir Humphry Davy/jealous/ Faraday/quit his job
        spend/ the rest of his time/ do research/ teach

Marriage : marry/ Sarah Barnard, a Silversmith's daughter.
            Sarah Barnard/devoted wife

Achievements : professor of chemistry 1833
                discovery of the principle of the dynamo
                discovery of radio waves 1845
                study of electrolysis
                introduced scientific terms such as 'anode' and 'cathode'

Though Faraday's electrical discoveries were his chief contributions to science, he also did important work in chemistry.

WRITING MISCELLANIES

Your miscellanies will be presented in the form of a journal. They will include the following:

a what-if section answering these questions:
- Suppose you could meet very famous people, who would they be? Why? And what would you say to them?
- Suppose you could live in another place and time in history, what would they be?

a shortlist of fantasies,
- If cows could fly ___.
- If time travel was possible ___.

a section about wishful changes,
- If I had money, ___.
- If I didn't have to go to school ___.

a world affairs section,
- If I were Kofi Anan, ___.
- If I were Prime Minister, ___.

an advice section,
- If I were you, ___.

Note
- Include cartoons in your miscellanies.
- Use **if-conditional, type two.**

MAKING A REPERTORY OF INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES

Your repertory will be about human achievements. e.g., inventions or discoveries in various fields: medicine, technology, astronomy ...
It will be presented in the form of a wall sheet or a magazine feature, and should include as many illustrations as possible.

Make sure, you
- use if-**conditional, type three** to underline the importance of the achievements.
- use **if only** to express regret about the bad use (or misuse) of the invention or discovery.
- give a title to your repertory. e.g. *My Seven, My Eight ... if you make seven or eight choices of history-making dicoveries/ inventions ...*

Draw inspiration from the following:

The Seven Medicines that Have Changed the World

All medicines are important to someone, but seven of them have completely changed the world: penicillin, ...

UNIT 8: BUSINESS IS BUSINESS.

In this unit, you will learn the following:

Grammar
- Link words: **to, in order to, so that/ in order that**
- Present perfect with **yet, since, for, just, still** (consolidation)
- Present perfect continuous

Pronunciation
- Shift of stress from verb to noun, noun to adjective, and from adjective to noun
- Contrastive and corrective sentence stress
- Sound-spelling links

Vocabulary
- Prefixes : **mis-, dis- , in-, un-** ...
- Words and phrases related to business

Functions
- Complaining (orally and in writing)
- Apologizing
- Asking and answering questions
- Making comments

SKILLS
- Reading business letters
- Reading for general ideas
- Reading for specific information
- Managing through a conversation
- Listening for gist
- Listening for specific information
- Making inferences
- Writing a report

DISCOVERING LANGUAGE

DEVELOPING SKILLS

PROJECT

Compiling a Business Portfolio

See page 174 and get organized before starting the unit.

❶ **Write an introductory sentence to express the purpose of each of the subjects of the letters in the box below. Use link word to and make the necessary changes.**

Start like this
  Dear Sir,
    I am writing /faxing/e-mailing you to ...

> **Subjects**: **A. Congratulations** for the new baby   **B. Apology** for the offence   **C. Application** for the job advertised in *USA Today*   **D. Enquiry** about the quotation for spring and summer clothing   **E. Information** about the merger of our company with the Yamakachi Company.

❷ **Check the meaning of the words in your dictionary and use them to write a profit and loss statement and a balance sheet.**

Profit and Loss Statement	
Turnover	_____
Less: -	
Cost of sales	
Materials	
Personnel	
Factory Overheads =	
Gross Profit	_____
Less: -	
- Distribution costs	
- Research and Development costs	
- Advertising and promotions costs	
- Interest payable =	
Net Profit before tax	_____
- Tax	
Net profit after tax	
- Dividends payable	
Retained profit	_____

Balance Sheet	
Fixed assets	
(Net written down value)	
Land and buildings	
Plant and machinery	
Vehicles	_____
Current assets	
Stock and work in progress	
Debtors	
Cash in bank	_____
Less: -	
Current liabilities	
Creditors	
Taxation	
Accruals	_____
	_____
Capital employed	_____
Share capital	
Share premium	
Retained profit	_____
Shareholders' funds	
Long-term loans	
Balance sheet total	_____

❶ Imagine you are a group of foreign investors interested in opening a business in Algeria. Send a facsimile to your consulate to ask for information. Use the information in the box below.

Subject: Information about Algeria.

Layout	Phrases
A. Opening greetings **B.** Introductory sentence	● Dear _____ . ● We are writing to _____ .
C. Own identification	● We are a group of investors interested in _____ .
D. Give details about the information you need	● Would you please send/give us _____ ? ● Would you kindly _____ ? ● Thank you in advance for any information you can give us about _____ .
E. Closing greetings	● We look forward to receiving your reply. ● Yours faithfully/Yours sincerely

❷ Pair work. Now imagine you were working at the consulate. Write a draft reply to the letter of enquiry that your partner has written in exercise 1. Start your letter like this:

Thank you for your fax dated _____ , asking for information about areas of investment in Algeria. I am pleased to be able to answer your questions regarding your plan to _____
_____ .

Algeria has a population of _____ .
There are indeed a lot of opportunities for investment in the fields of_____
_____

❷ Use the information on the next page to write an **annual** report for a company of your choice . Use the appropriate tense(s).
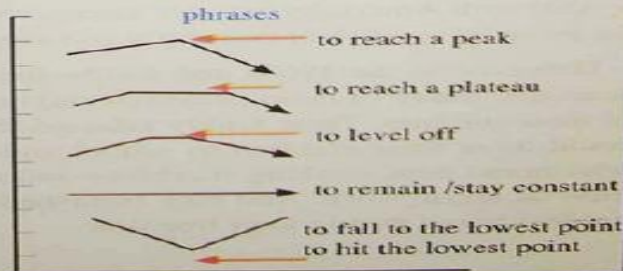
You can start like this:

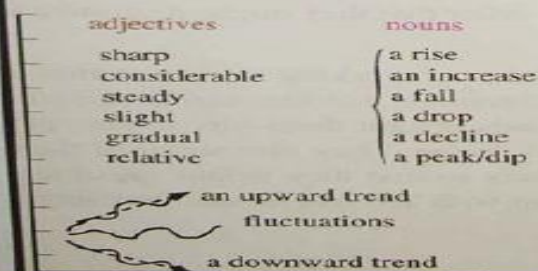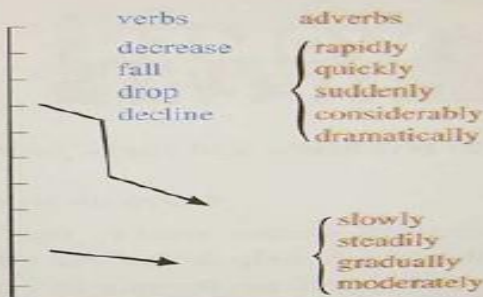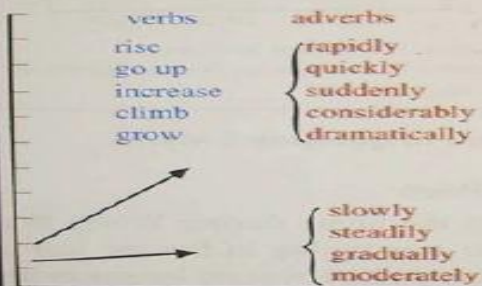The production has increased steadily from 650,000 to over 1 million packets of pasta. The number of accidents has fallen sharply from 20 to 2.___

ANNUAL REPORT

Re: Achievements this year
This year has been very successful for our company.

- production/output
- productivity
- sales
- profits
- investment
- turnover
- overheads
- absenteeism
- interests payable
- accidents

verbs	adverbs
rise go up increase climb grow	rapidly quickly suddenly considerably dramatically
	slowly steadily gradually moderately

verbs	adverbs
decrease fall drop decline	rapidly quickly suddenly considerably dramatically
	slowly steadily gradually moderately

adjectives	nouns
sharp considerable steady slight gradual relative	a rise an increase a fall a drop a decline a peak/dip

an upward trend
fluctuations
a downward trend

phrases

to reach a peak
to reach a plateau
to level off
to remain /stay constant
to fall to the lowest point
to hit the lowest point

❶ **Re-write the sentences of the text on the previous page which contain the link words so that and in order that using in order to/so as to /and to.**

Example

Most American women went to work outside the home during World War II *so that they might* help in the war effort.

Most American women went to work outside the home during World War II *in order /so as to* help in the war effort.

❷ **Re-write sentences A-E below using the link words and the modals in the box instead of the link words written in bold type. Make the necessary changes.**

so that	may, can, will
in order that	might, could, would

A. She took more than forty word-processing lessons **in order to** have a job promotion.

She took ....

B. The government refuses to increase the wages **so as not to** cause inflation.

The government refuses.. .

C. In order to increase the sales, the company recruited an expert in marketing. The company recruited ....

D. To protect the local industry, the government imposed new tariffs on imports.

The government imposed ....

E. In order not to disappoint private exporters, the government will lower the duties.

The government will lower the duties ....

❸ Write a confidential report using link words <u>so that/in order that</u> and modals <u>might/would/could</u>. Have a look at the tip box below first.

CONFIDENTIAL REPORT

Introduction:

The purpose of this report is to evaluate the performance of Leila Derradj, Production Manager of *Autocar*, during the year 2007. The report details the decisions that Leila Derradj took month by month in several areas.

Findings:
Leila Derradj was appointed on 2 January, 2005 / increase / production.
- February / re-organize/ department/ have more control
- March /introduce break time for workers on the assembly line/ improve
- the same month/ flexible time for female employees of the company
- April/put /suggestion boxes/ workers give/opinion
- June/ hold a meeting with the workers/ they/participate in decision-making
- introduce new clause in work contract/ workers

Conclusion:
Leila Derradj's decisions/lead/ management style. The annual turnover

Recommendations:

PUTTING THINGS TOGETHER

COMPILING A BUSINESS PORTFOLIO

Your business portfolio will include:
A. letters/telegrams/fax and telex messages on business situations;
   e.g ., an order form , a letter of enquiry, a thank-you letter , an advice of dispatch, an acknowledgement letter; a letter of complaint, a letter in reply to a complaint about poor service ...
B. letters on social situations related to business;
   e.g., invitations, thanks for hospitality, condolences, congratulations, New Year wishes
C. other business documents such as
   - a business/company organization chart, with a short description of how the company functions; (*See the model of the organization chart below.*)
   - an annual report for the achievements of a firm (include graphs)
   - a balance sheet
   - a report on employees ...
D. two or three short biographies about famous economists.
e.g.,Frederick Taylor, John Galbraith, Milton Freedman, John Keynes...

Organization chart

BOARD OF DIRECTORS WITH A CHAIRMAN

MANAGING DIRECTOR

Production | Marketing | Finance | Research & Development | Personnel

Markets Research | Sales | Advertising & Promotion | Financial Management | Accounting

① Dear Ahmed,

If thank you for sending me the letter, I'am really happy and I'll help you.

- I'am sorry to hear what happend to your freind "Sami". but all the problem have many way and solutions. I know you are in dilemma.

- So, your freind "Same" revealed his secret to you and insisted not to reveal it. why don't you revealed the secret and beging a new life. you could also not reveal the secret and continue your life simply with your friends.

- Finally, your problem will solve insallah.

Aaony aunt: Merwan

(2)

Dear Ahmed,

First of all, I would like to thank you for trusting me and asking for my advice. I can truly see what you are faced with.

First, you should to ask you friend why he is addicted to drugs? maybe has the problems in his family or maybe he hasn't a good friend in his city.

So, the only situation for your friend is to go to the doctor before to lose her healthy because drugs is a phenomenon for all human in this age.

Finally, I advice you to keeping touch for your friend because it is question of time and to not reveal his secret to any one

Take care

agony aunt

the mark	The remark

③

Dear Ahmed,

Thank you so much for wanting me and trusting me enough to tell me this big secret between you and your friend

I'm really sorry about the dilemma you are in, It must be so hard to see your friend suffer without knowing what to do to help him, but I'm sure everything is going to be okey.

First you have to know that the addiction to drugs is really hard and a long road ahead of you two. but he can overcome this addiction.

the mark	The remark

3

Dear Ahmed,

Thank you so much for wanting me
and trusting me enough to tell me this
big secret between you and your friend
I'm really sorry about the dilemma
you are in, It must be so hard to see
your friend suffer without knowing
what to do to help him, but I'am sure
everything is going to be okey.

First you have to know that the
addiction to drugs is really hard and
a long road ahead of you two. but
he can overcome this addiction.

-Dear Ahmed

- First of all, I am glad to know that you trust me and beleive in my advices, and helping you with dealing with your problem is such a pleasure for me.

- I can understand im with which hard situation you are in, but don't give up because every problem has a solution and nothing is impossible with help of Allah first and your braveness secondly.

- I m happy to see how much you love and care about your friend and you are loyal to him.

- Before I start giving you advices I m wondering about some points

have you spoken to him and try
to understand his problem? what's
the secret behind his addiction?
Does his parents know? Did he
try to stop?

   _ well, I'm order not to loose
his friendship, I guess that a good
choice is not to reveal his secret, because
he trusts you, But try to help him
stopping to stop getting drugs. So
what do you think about having
an honest, opened conversation and
put the cards on the table. and
  try to understand what's the matter
with him and his weird addiction,
How about letting him to meet a
psychologist maybe she will help
me to reduce his addiction and
finally to stop it. What if you
convince him to tell his mother
because she will understand him

and support him mentally and convince him to do some good things.

At the end, I beleive that you'll go out from this dillema and you will suceed to make your friend go out from his addiction as well, and your friendship will last forever. Don't be shy to come to me again, I'm always here to help you.

With all my love

Cilia

5

Dear Agony Aunt

First of all I would like to thank you for trusting me and asking for my advice. I can Really see what a dilemma you are faced with

everyone in this life have a problems I know if it's difficult but you have to fight and fight and still fight forever and be sure that god will be with you

I'am sure that every trouble have a solution. first you have to be brave and dan't lost hope. In my opinion, you should tell his friends the truth I know it's so hard But you have to do that if you don't want to lose your friends

Believe me, they will understand the harsh situation you put yourself in they will do their best to save you from drugs ....

there are so many ways to solve this problem if you refuse the last idea I have another one how about telling your friend Ahmed to meet to reveal your secret and promise him that you will stop since he is an honest person you always said that to me I'm sure that he helps you

I hope my advice is useful and they help you to solve your problem
with love Ahmed
take care

6

Dear Ahmed,

First of all I would like to thank you for choosing me and put your trust on me. I understand your situation and I know that you are in a dilemma.

I would like to give you this suggestion is to convaint your friend to tell his parents because they are the only ones who care about their son and do the best for him to get rid of this addictio

either, I'm thinking of giving your friend "sammy" some advises by your self, for example tell him the consequenses of this addiction, put in his head the ideas of full his time like doing some activities, travel, hanging out with the good peopl, like that maybe he will forget about drugs......

finaly, I hope these piece of advises would help your friend and I'm pretty shure he will get rid of this dilemma

Agony aunt

Dear Ahmed,

I recieved your letter and I really thank you for trusting me, I will certainly help you.

I'm sorry to hear that your friend Sami is addicted to drugs. I can really understand how much it is difficult to have a friend like Sami, I know that you want to help him, so there are many ways.

The drugs are a diseas which distroy who's addicted to it physically and mentally, of course you are scared if something happens to your friend at the same time if you reveal this secret you'll lose him forever and this is too bad. You really need help.

As you know any problem has a solution, so why don't you speak with Sami about the inconvinient of drugs

and what can happen to him if he gets an overdose. Or how about you tell his parents but they must promise you that they will not punish him but just help. Also you could help him to see a doctor like that your friendship will be forever and he will be a healthy person.

I hope that my suggestions will help you to get out of this dilemma

your sincerly
agony aount

Dear Mr Ahmed,

First of all, thank you for sending me your letter asking for help. and I'm here to find a solution that could help both of you.

I feel sorry about you because I find it a really big dilemma that's you are going to lose your friend it means ~~you are going to lose your friend~~ and I am asking you to take the risk and don't worry because every problem has a solution

However, I think your friend Sami isn't a serious personne and his is in a wrong direction that could make him a really miserable and a bad personne. So, I find some solution that can help you but I am asking my self how about his parents? did you think to tell him because his is there boy and they know him

more than you.

- From my experience and when I was reading. I found two solutions that could help you but in the end its your friend and the problem is yours. So, I find that you need to go and speak with him to know why he is in this direction it means to find the reason why he is doing that. Otherwise from my myself and if I am on your situation I am going to tell his parents and with every serious about there boy because it's not a situation that can his parents don't know about him and asked them them to take Sami to a special hospital

- to take a programme that can help him.

- In the end every so your problem is going to be done and you are going to find the solution that can help your friend

Aguny aunt Sey

Written expression :

Dear Ahmed,

First of all, I would like to thank you for trusting me and asking for my advice to solve your problem.

I have read your letter and I'm really sorry about what you are suffring from these days . I can truelly see what tressfuly problem (dilemma) you are in.

You are clearly in a big dilemma, but have you asked your parents what to do? or have you told your freind "Sami" that he have to tell his parents? I think you haven't.

Well, I know that if you reveal this secret, your freind "Sami" will be angry and would lose your freindship. So, Why don't you tell him that if the secreat

will be reavealed someday and no choice for
him ? How about telling his parents
about the screed without telling him?
You can also, tell him that you will reaveal
it and he will know what stressfully
situation you've lived !.

At the end, I hope these suggestions will
help you. I will be glad to hear from
you again.

Sincerly.
Dr Ama.

The plan is ?

1) Salutation .
2) to say thank you ..
3) expressing reassurance ...
4) Analysis the problem .
5) Suggestions ..
6) Closure .
7) Signature .

+ the frame .

Dear Ahmed,

First of all, I want to thank you about trusting me and asking for my advice.

I have read your letter with your said words and I get upset, but in the same time I am glad to see that you are a responsible person you care about your friend and you Don't want to lose your friend ship. Don't wory Amed! every problem has a solution. As I understand your friend Sami is addicted to drugs, and revealed his secret to you but he told you If you reaveal his secret, you will lose him. In short you are in a big dilemma.

There are many solutions to solve your problem, why don't you talk with him and adreise him to
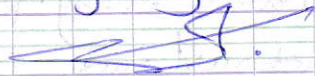
visite a doctor who can help him.
You could take him with you and
go to practise sport, you could
also stay with him all the time maybe
he can forget drugs.
I hope that my solution can help
you.
At the end please be optimiste and
don't forget, God is with you!
with my Love

Agony aunt

* P Reply to Ahmed to suggest a solution to his problem.

Dear Ahmed,

I'm agony aunt, I received your letter which you want to seek my advice for a solution.

I'm sorry but you're in big dilemma. In your letter you tell me that your problem is: your friendship Sami is addicted to drugs and he revealed his secret to you and insisted on you to not to reveal his secret, otherwise you would lose your friendship for ever.

I think I can find you suggestion or a solution for your problem and the solution is: why you don't tell to the parents of Sami, of course they are his parents and they will find a solution, or maybe you ②

must (to) go with your friend to a psychologist for to seek a solution and to stoping this drugs.

Finally, I wish that this suggestion is a solution for your dilemma with all my love

— agony aunt —

Dear Ahmed,

Thank you for the letter which I received today, I can see what a dilemma you are faced with.

I'm sorry to hear how difficult things are for you in the same time I'm glad because if you get in to touch thought, I have a couple of suggestions which might be helpful.

You are clearly a a caring person but, I wonder if you didn't speak with Sami? and I wonder, why don't you think about the causes that prevent you to reveal his secret? and why don't you think about the cause of sami to lose his friend ship for ever.

I'm sure there are many ways to solve this problem. Why don't you

A school Teenger called Sami is addicted To drugs, He revale his seeret To his friend Ahmed and insited on him not To reveal his secret other wise he would lose his friend ship for ever Ahmed found himself in dilemma and Wrote a letter To the gagore aunt seeking for advice because he dedn'T have anyone To Turn To.

Note	Observation
(14)	

Dear Ahmed:

Your School teenagers called Sami is
addicated to drugs. and you is in a big
dilemma. the drugs is very dangerese
of the helt for men. and drugs be
caused the caner and many problem
in your veretable life. she caused a
problem with your parents and police
and in your school; she will lose many.

and the created a programme of
the sports is created a good he
drugs is haram in islam and the
mouhamed she stups the drugs in hi
yes the solution of your diclama
the drugs. attention some of u
ship. and always practice the pro
that is the solution of your problem

Dear Ahmed

I'am Mohieddine I'am 16 ans old, I student
in Draa Mohamed Sadek you are in big
dilemma. I'm her to help you.
go to hosbital and go to you tell his
parent.
I hop this to help you

~~~~~ of subject !

Dear Ahmed

- thank you for your efforts to solve
your problem. We are amused to solve your
dilemme.
- I'm sorry Because your dilemma it's
difficult. But I'm her to give you solution
to your problem.
- In the firs one the drugs is dangers
dangerous to health. He has to participat
exercie of spert and stay Wug to He danger
f Riendes. read the book evelly day, and
for drews he has to stapes the druges.
Cho you for your inste interstend.

Agdug agdug aunt

(17)

Dear Ahmed;

thank you f asking me to help you
and I' really sorry about the situation of
your friend Cami

first of all drugs is a dangers fenamena
so you must fight with your friend
to get out from this dailomma. your
friend is stuck in dark and you must be
his flashlight & you must be light who
get him out.

so why don't talk with your friend
to tell his parent about the drugs and I'm sure
that they will help him becaus he stay. the
suffer off and   how about going to the
psyagloge he May help him

My dear Ahmed I want you to be carge

Dear Ahmed.
Hey. Ahmed I have .. in Solution
fo your problem -

(18)

Signature
"agony aunt"

Dear Ahmed,

Thank you for choosing me to seek for advice.

Your friend Sami is in a serious problem, addiction to drugs is very dangerous, he needs help as soon as possible, whenever you can going to lose your friendship or ... I suggest you to fill his moments a friendship and take him to the Rehab center. I hope this is going to help you and your friend Sami.

Yours,
Agony Aunt

Dear Ahmed,

First, Thank you to Suad, I would like to suggest a solution for your problem.

Secondly, I'm sorry because your friend is addicted to drugs, but don't worry because I will found a solution for this problem and you didn't lose his friend ship.

Marked   Re

Dear Sami.
First of all, I would like to thank
you for trusting me and asking for my
advice.
I'm sorry to hear how stressful things are
for you, you revealed your secret to
your friend and you make trusting him
but He reveal your secret otherwise
so don't worry Every problem has a
solution.
you are clearly النفسي person, I wonder if you
have spoken to him about all of this? is
he respect you.

I'm sure there are many solutions to solve this personal problem, why don't you to speak to your friend ? You could als... know the reason why he reveal ... secret, and I advice you don't talk him never after about your personal problems and

In the end, I hope these suggestion are useful

Sincerly
"Nerhane"

Dear Ahmed,

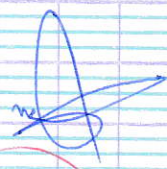You problem is a very hard problem, and Samy is your friend

First, suggest Samy to stop a drugs and not to turn to the friends of drugs

Second, suggest her a sign in a sport club for a respect his santer

Finally, if He not stop the drug, you will have not to turn to

Raouf

Dear Ahmed

I have recived your letter and I want to thank you for choosing me to help you It seemed you are in a bad situation and I feel sorry for you, but don't worry every problem has a solution.
You think that you are obliged to reveal the secret to help him but you will lose your friend ship or you keep the secret for you and Sami will stay addicted to drugs.
In this situation why don't you try to convaincre Sami to stop drugs or speak to his parents, if he refuses you could speak with his parents directly

This is the only advice that I can give you and I hope that will help you.

Your Agony aunt

Writing a reply to an "Agony Aunt" letter=

Dear Ahmmed,

I've recieved your letter, and I read it. And I couldn't stop thinking about you since then. I couldn't also stop the great feeling of gratitude that I felt rushing in my blood. I'm exceedingly thankful that you chose me and trusted me when you had no one to turn to.

Through your letter, I couldn't help but see what a caring person you are, and what friendship means to you and for that I say "congratulations". But don't stress, and don't panic, because everything is going to be alright.

I see that you feel stuck and helpless because on one hand, you want to help your friend, and wish the best for him.

And on the other hand, you don't want to betray him, who trusted you with such a big and dangerous secret, and who let you know about his struggles. But don't worry, my dear, I have many suggestions for you.

You could start with helping him emotionally and letting him know that you'll always be by his side for the sake of your friendship. Why don't you also push him to go to a doctor who would help him get over his addiction and start a drug-free life while keeping his secret? And how about joining some kind of sport, you and him, which would benefit him physically and mentally and help him forget about what he may be facing.

I hope my suggestions gave you
a little bit of help and closure,
and shed some light on solutions
you weren't even thinking of.

With love,
Agony Aunt.

25

Dear Ahmad,
First of all, thank you for
choosing me to help you, and
for asking me for advice, and I
wish that my advice will helping
you

In My opinion you have to
speak with his parents, because
they are the onlyones who can
help him to stop taking drugs,
and about his friends you don't
have to tell him about this problem,
and you about you, give him
some advice and speak with him
about the dangers of drugs and
and try to give him a solution
to stopped drugs

I wish that this letter can
help you

Mikael.

Résumé

Malgré la dissidence existante sur la méthodologie visant un enseignement efficace de l'écrit, les chercheurs et les praticiens ont admis le rôle positif d'un enseignement de qualité dans le développement des compétences à l'écrit. La présente étude vise à étudier l'efficacité de l'enseignement de l'écrit dans le cadre de l'approche par compétences actuellement adoptée dans les écoles secondaires de la wilaya de Jijel, avec l'intention de négocier et de planifier l'effort pour rendre cet enseignement plus efficace. L'étude explore les points de vue et les connaissances des enseignants sur les différentes traditions de l'enseignement de l'écrit et de l'approche par compétences à travers un questionnaire adressé à 83 professeurs d'anglais du secondaire à Jijel. Ce document tente également d'étudier leurs pratiques à travers une observation en classe menée dans deux espaces différents, en utilisant un protocole d'observation. L'étude vise également à analyser et à évaluer la composante rédactionnelle du manuel 'Getting Through' à l'aide d'une grille d'évaluation. La thèse se base sur l'hypothèse que l'enseignement inefficace de l'écrit tel que pratiqué actuellement peut résulter de la négligence des principes de l'approche par compétences de même que la relégation au second plan de ses principes dans la conception du manuel susmentionné. Les résultats ont révélé que les enseignants étaient conscients des principes de l'approche par compétences, mais qu'ils connaissaient peu les méthodes d'enseignement de l'écrit et leur mise en pratique. Les résultats ont également révélé l'existence d'une certaine incompatibilité entre le point de vue des enseignants et leurs pratiques, fortement confirmée dans l'élaboration de l'écrit dans le manuel de deuxième année secondaire. L'analyse des copies des élèves a aussi évoqué l'existence de problèmes reliés au développement de la compétence à l'écrit. Il est alors fortement recommandé de repenser l'efficacité de l'enseignement de l'écrit par la démystification de ce dernier et par la reconsidération de sa composante dans le manuel 'Getting Through'.

Mots clés: Approche par compétences; Enseignement de l'écrit; Évaluation; Manuel.

ملخص

على الرغم من الإختلاف الحالي حول وجود منهجية فعالة لتدريس التعبير الكتابي، فقد توصل الباحثون و الممارسون الميدانيون إلى الإقرار بدور التعليم النوعي في تطوير كفاءة التعبير الكتابي. تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى التحقيق في فعالية تعليم التعبير الكتابي في إطار المقاربة بالكفاءات المعتمدة حاليًا في المدارس الثانوية في منطقة جيجل ، قصد جعل تعليم التعبير الكتابي أكثر فاعلية. تستكشف الدراسة وجهات نظر الأساتذة حول تقاليد تعليم التعبير الكتابي و المقاربة بالكفاءات ومعرفتهم بها من خلال استبيان موجه إلى 83 أستاذ للتعليم الثانوي في اللغة الإنجليزية بولاية جيجل. بالإضافة إلى ذلك تبحث هذه الدراسة في ممارسات القسم الخاصة بهم ، من خلال الملاحظة التي تم إجراؤها في قسمين مختلفتين ، باستخدام بروتوكول مراقبة تم إنشاؤه ذاتيًا. تهدف الدراسة أيضًا إلى تحليل وتقييم تمارين التعبير الكتابي في كتاب السنة الثانية ثانوي للغة الإنجليزية ، باستخدام قائمة مراجعة. تستند هذه الأطروحة إلى افتراض أن التدريس غير الفعال للكتابة في نطاق هذا النهج قد ينجم عن عدم تطبيق الأساتذة لمبادئها ، وعن عدم مراعاة هذه المبادئ في تصميم تمارين التعبير الكتابي في كتاب السنة الثانية ثانوي للغة الإنجليزية. كشفت النتائج عن وعي الأساتذة بالمبادئ الأساسية للمقاربة بالكفاءات ، ولكن أظهرت معرفة محدودة حول منهجيات تدريس التعبير الكتابي وتطبيقها داخل القسم . تشير النتائج أيضًا إلى وجود بعض التعارض بين آراء الأساتذة وممارساتهم ، وكذا عدم توافق تمارين التعبير الكتابي في كتاب السنة الثانية مع أسس المقاربة بالكفاءات إضافةً إلى وجود نقائص في فعالية تدريس التعبير الكتابي وكذا في تطوير كفاءة الكتابة . لذلك يوصى بمراجعة فعالية تدريس التعبير الكتابي ، من خلال إزالة الغموض عن مهارة الكتابة وإعادة النظر في كيفية إدراجها في كتاب السنة الثانية ثانوي للغة الإنجليزية .

الكلمات الأساسية: المقاربة بالكفاءات؛ تدريس التعبير الكتابي ؛ تقييم؛ الكتاب المدرسي.