

CHAPTER ONE

The General Framework of the Study

1.0 Background

This study is carried out in Salalah in the southern region of the Sultanate of Oman. The researcher has noticed that the standard of composition writing of secondary school learners in composition writing is very low. Moreover, the students never stop complaining about their weakness and inability to write a composition efficiently. Hence, this subject has been chosen by the researcher to investigate the real reasons that lie behind this underachievement, hoping that this study will come up with effective solutions.

The importance of composition stems from the fact that it is the tool by which thoughts and ideas are communicated. Moreover, other people's thoughts could be explored through it. It is also considered as a mirror which reflects the students' achievement in the other areas of the language.

1.1 Statement of the Study

The one area of ELT in which there is an obvious underachievement in Salalah secondary schools, is composition writing. It appears to be a neglected area, which may have its effects on the learners' performance. Many students' achievement in English composition is noticeably very poor. They seem to get stuck in their search for words and develop mind blocks when they write a composition. In addition, their writing products seem to lack both fluency and accuracy. It is worth mentioning that a lot of students often write compositions that are not composed logically and do not contain clear examples and useful ideas. In other words, students do not support their writing product with sufficient specific details. This problem of students inability to write composition effectively, calls for an urgent solution and underlines a quick finding of solutions to put the teaching and learning of English composition on the right track. The modern trends and the changing scene of ELT, along with the

amazing media of technology can pave the way for innovative ideas to be generated by instructors as well as learners. Hence, the learners' writing competence could be improved.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

i-To find out to what extent are secondary school learners in Oman weak in writing free writing

ii-To know the extent to which teachers adopt suitable techniques in teaching students to write free compositions.

iii-To know to what extent is it important to integrate modern technology in teaching free compositions.

iv. To know to what extent do teachers give feedback on their learners' compositions regularly.

1.3 Hypotheses of the Study

i-The majority of Omani students at secondary level are weak in writing English composition.

ii-Most teachers of English language do not adopt suitable techniques in teaching free compositions.

iv- It is very important to integrate modern technology in teaching students to write free composition.

iii-A large number of students do not receive effective feedback from their teachers about their written compositions.

1.4 Questions of the Study

The problem of the study can be represented by the following questions:

i. To what extent are secondary school learners in Oman really weak in free writing?

ii. To what extent do teachers adopt suitable techniques for teaching free-writing?

iv. To what extent is modern technology integrated in teaching of free composition?

v. To what extent do teachers give feedback on their learners' composition on a regular basis?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The importance of this study stems from the complaint of the Omani learners about their inability to write composition effectively. Moreover, this study attempts to highlight the drawbacks and difficulties which negatively affect the teaching and learning of composition with the hope that the findings would be beneficial and advantageous for all teachers and learners. In addition, the study may give insights into the efficient free writing teaching and learning techniques.

Hence, there is an urgent need for finding effective solutions that can contribute to teaching and learning English composition properly. However, this complicated issue needs to be investigated and the findings can be applicable to another community with the same problem in future. If this problem is not tackled soon, no improvement whatsoever can be expected to take place at present or in future. This study attempts to discuss the problems of teaching and learning free writing in the Sultanate of Oman taking into consideration the new trends of ELT, and the changing role of the teacher and learner. It advocates the integration of modern technology into teaching free writing.

1.6 Method of Research

The writer used the Descriptive method of Research to investigate the problems of the learning and teaching of composition writing. Two versions of a questionnaire one for students and another for teachers have been designed. The questions were carefully set to ensure reliability and validity in the investigation process. In addition, an experiment has been conducted for the sake of collecting genuine data. The experiment also aimed at measuring the effectiveness of using group work technique and PowerPoint in teaching and learning composition.

A writing test for collecting primary data has been used. An interesting topic has been selected for students to write on. The collected data was analysed by SPSS programme and displayed in tables and histograms. Tabulated and analyzed also is the data gathered by observation. Students were selected from a number of secondary schools for boys and girls. The subjects were selected from the following secondary schools: Salalah Secondary School for Boys, Dhofar Secondary School for Boys, Al-Saada Secondary School for Girls and Khawla Secondary School for Girls. Full details will be given in chapter three.

1.7 Limits of the Study

To conduct the tests appropriately, the researcher faced some difficulties regarding arrangements needed for the carrying out of the testing process at Salalah secondary school for boys. The writing test was entitled 'The autumn in Salalah'. The arrangements include contacting different authorities to provide a separate room for the subjects to do the test, in addition to getting permission for testing and invigilating girl students.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework of the Research

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides some facts and related to the subject of the research. It is composed of two parts: (1) Literature Review & (2) Survey of Previous and Related Studies

2-1 Defining Composition

In general, “a composition” can be defined as a writing product that has a unity of thoughts in all its sentences paragraphs. It must be coherent, with sentences and ideas logically ordered. Also it must be clear and correct, involving a careful use of vocabulary, correct spelling, punctuation, good use of grammatical structures and a good conclusion.

Highlighting the components of productive writing. Morris (1956:132) argues that “matter form and style sum up the features of productive writing at the level of original composition.” This indicates that a good composition involves unity, coherence, emphasis, clarity and correctness. However, Ann (1983:7) maintains that, "Some teachers and researchers have stressed quantity of writing rather than quality." In other words, teachers should lay emphasis on content and fluency rather than focusing on the form when teaching composition.

Comparing communicative writing to speaking, Harmer (2004:3) states that "However long ago writing really started, it has remained for most of its history a minority occupation." This implies that all human beings speak their first language as a matter of course, whereas writing has to be taught. Hence, being a neglected area, the majority of people tend to communicate orally, while the minority practice communicative writing.

Pointing out the complexity of writing, Willis (1981:171) stresses the point that “composition is generally the most difficult task.” This statement implies that composition writing needs real efforts so as to be taught appropriately. Willis goes on claiming that proper guidance in class and much practice on similar topics of the exam could help pupils to be successful, whereas White (1980:16) investigates the area of composition writing asserting that, “when we write, we usually have a communicative purpose in mind.” This shows that the writer has to specify both purpose and topic before writing. In other words, learners must know what they are going to write about, as well as the purpose of their writing. They should also identify the audience to whom they are writing. Johnson (1976:98) states that:

"Merits for composition should be predicated on their neatness, correctness, length, style, but the highest merits should be given for the production of ideas, and original sentiments and forms of expression".

The above argument stresses the importance of good ideas and expressions besides, style and correctness. Pandis, Ward & Mathew (2006:176) believe that, the process-oriented strategy tends to help raising the texts quality and they become much easier as computer writing helps learners to revise repeatedly and facilitates editing. Ann (1983:10) believes that the teaching of writing has recently shifted its focus from the written product to process writing. Therefore, writers not only care about purpose and audience but also about how to write and how to get started. Harmer (2004: 3) points out that "the ability to write has to be consciously learned." He goes on to say that, "writing transcends time and space." This shows that, writing has to be taught systematically at schools, it cannot be acquired innately. Writing is more permanent, unlike speaking which is often considered transient.

Morris (1957:138) claims that, “Pupils tend to apply a single style to all their productive writing without regard to the language situation.” This indicates students’ inability and unawareness of the need for suiting the style to the subject. In other words, students need to have much practice in the use of the correct style by the analysis of miscellaneous good compositions by the teacher. Ann (1983:4) stresses the

point that learning to speak a language does not result in learning to write as a natural extension. This purports that we learn to speak our first language naturally, whereas learning how to write involves systematic teaching in school.

Tricia (1998:11) stresses the point that, "There is a widely held belief that in order to be a good writer a student needs to read a lot." In other words, students are exposed to models of different text types so that they can develop awareness of what constitutes good writing. Harmer (2004:3) points out that during the planning stage, writers have to take into consideration three primary elements: the purpose of their writing, the audience, the content structure.

The grammatical structures, idioms and vocabulary which students have been learning. Moreover, it tends to make them adventurous with the language and to take risks by saying more than what they have learned to say. In addition, their involvement with the language increases and they get the effort and ability to express ideas and become dexterous in using the eye, hand and brain and so learning is uniquely reinforced.

Harmer (2004:9) stresses the point that speaking is spontaneous, whereas writing lends itself to editing, checking and rectification. The purpose of the writing affects not only the text type they intend to produce, but also the language to be used and the choice of information to be included. Writers should think of the audience to determine how to shape their writing, how it could be laid out and how paragraphs could be structured. In addition, they can decide whether to choose formal or informal language. Thirdly, considering the content structure involves the decision of how best facts, ideas and arguments intended to be included are sequenced.

Marianne (2001:207) maintains that, "effective writing involves clarity, accuracy and organization of ideas." In other words, beside unambiguity, correctness, content and organization need to be concentrated on and given due consideration and attention. Tricia (1998:25) believes that, "The advent of the word processor in institutions which can afford the technology has great potential for encouraging

students to develop revision strategies."This indicates that, rewriting can be motivating when it is done quickly and easily. In the long run, students will develop their competence and capacity to revise their own work independently when putting pen to paper in future. However, Harmer (2004:5) holds that "As the writing process proceeds into editing, a number of drafts may be produced on the way to the final version." This purports that, writers ought to write several drafts that may ensure elimination of possible mistakes and facilitate good organization of ideas.

The goal of writing as well as the reader are highly significant. Hence, the teacher ought to prompt the learners to be aware of the message they want to convey and the audience. Ann (1983:9) argues that "although the teacher has been the audience for student writing, students tend to exert much more effort when they write communicatively for a real reader." This means that learners tend to put extra effort and do their utmost to come up with wonderful ideas when they confront the challenge of writing to a real reader rather than to their own teacher. Tricia (1998:9) advocates this viewpoint, she believes that, "Most of the writing we do in real life is written with a reader in mind." This indicates that, students write to a friend, a relative, a colleague, an institution or a teacher. They find it difficult to know what and how to write if they do not specify who their reader is, because the audience creates a context to the writer.

Marianne (2001:207) argues that teachers should encourage writing in today's modern world whether the student is writing on paper or using electronic mail. This purports that teachers should be aware of the significance of prompting and encouraging learners to write, whether they put pen to paper or send e-mails. In today's modern world of technology, students need to improve their communicative writing competence so as to get across their message and get in touch with other people. If teachers prompt the learners to use current technology creatively, this could result in improving the learners' achievement in composition writing. Moreover, if teachers are creative enough, they can come up with wonderful and explicit ideas that could reinforce the students' writing ability.

According to Ann (1983:3), as students exert effort to find what to put down next and how to put it on paper this helps them to generate the right word and the right sentence. Hence, writing is seen valuable in any language due to the relationship between writing and thinking.

The above viewpoint highlights the significance of developing the capacity and skill of thinking through providing learners with problem solving exercises, role-playing, quizzes, short story completion, cued dialogue, re-arrangement of sentences, letter writing. Such exercises can best be practised by exploiting the PowerPoint program. In order for the learners to develop their thinking power and originality of thought, the teacher must see to it that the afore-mentioned exercises should be planned carefully. The more teachers are creative and discrete in displaying these tasks, the more fruitful results students will reap. These techniques should be carried out in such a way as to draw the learners' attention and keep them adequately motivated and thoroughly involved throughout the class. Teachers should inculcate in learners the spirit of competition for ensuring utmost enthusiasm and interest. If learners are exposed to a variety of reading models, their thinking competence can be enhanced even further.

Harmer (2004:10) claims that:

"It is interesting to note that e-mail and text message communication have come up with a collection of emotions (sometimes called ('smileys')) to add more meaning and nuance to otherwise potentially ambiguous language."

In other words, people use certain symbols in e-mails to express their feelings. Hence, these symbols tend to eliminate ambiguity, add more clarity and make language extremely meaningful. He goes on to say that there is a need to be absolutely clear and unambiguous. Frequently readers can't go back to a writer and question what a sentence means or how it should be read. In other words, clearness is one of the most significant components of composition writing. On the other hand, ambiguity impedes, hinders and hampers understanding of the writer's flow of thoughts. He fails to generate explicit ideas to get his message across adequately.

Hence, it obstructs and stultify the intended meaning and the reader will be at a loss as the writing product has not engendered any satisfaction whatsoever. Tricia (1998:9) states that, " We can characterize good writers as people who have a sense of direction in their writing." This means that, unskilled writers tend to be much more haphazard and much less confident when tackling composition writing.

Allan (1993:382) states that "reading and writing are as inseparable as two sides of the same coin." In other words reading and writing are reciprocal activities, the outcome of a reading activity can serve as input for writing and writing can lead a student to further reading resources. Spack's (1988:42) advocates this viewpoint, he points out that " to become better writers, students need to become better readers."

Harmer (2004: 11) holds the point that " For many years the teaching of writing focused in the written product rather than on the writing process." In other words, the students' attention was directed to the what rather than the how of text construction. Thus, much emphasis has been laid on form rather than content, and the process approach has been absolutely neglected. Ann(1983:10) stresses this point that, "But in the process approach, the students do not write on a given topic in a restricted time and hand in the composition for the teacher to correct." In other words, students need to explore a topic through writing, write many drafts and show them to the teacher and colleagues. This will help them to think more and come up with new ideas. She goes on to say "Most people won't realize that writing is a craft. You have to take your apprenticeship in it like anything else." James (1998:237) believes that, "You could say that feedback is an overture to correction." This means that after teachers have given feedback they have to make a decision whether to stop at this phase or further their treatment by doing correction as well as remediation. In other words, feedback is an introduction to correction. Harmer (2004:31) points out that for practice and development of the student's capacity, skills and competence are of paramount importance.

Escholz (1980:63) defends the use of models in composition writing. He argues that "one good way to learn to write is to follow the example of those who

can write well." This indicates the value of reading; which is important to how students eventually write. It is worth mentioning that, reading and writing are inseparable, and inextricably linked. They are two faces to the same coin. So, reading is integral to writing.

Marianne (2001:207) maintains that through the skill of writing various messages could be communicated to the reader within the language teaching framework. This indicates how significant the writing is, it can be envisaged as a receptacle into which all of the other language skills pour. Pandis, Ward & Mathews (2006:176) state that, "Every now and then a man's mind is stretched by a new idea..and never shrinks back." In other words, if the teachers give their learners a cause to reflect, they can think even further, that is by giving them chances to think critically about their learning experiences.

Harmer (2004:31) holds that " the mental processes that a student goes through when writing differ significantly from the way they approach discussion or other kinds of spoken communication." This purports that, when students write, they need to think clearly, draw back past experiences, organize their ideas, then deliberate and reflect carefully for good word choice. However, when they speak, they tend to be more spontaneous as the context involves fluency to get their message across to their interlocutors.

He goes on to say that " When writing, students frequently have more time to think than they do in oral activities." In other words, they can go through what they know in their minds, and even consult dictionaries, grammar books, or other reference material to help them. Willis (1992:171) points out that " If students can be shown a model paragraph, they know more exactly what their target is. They are, therefore, far more likely to write better, learn more and feel more satisfied." This indicates that guided writing can help learners to know what is really wanted of them. It can also improve their achievement in composition writing and give them a feeling of satisfaction. Harmer (2004: 12) states that, " It is not just teachers who can respond to students' writing. It is often useful to have students look at work done by

their colleagues and respond in their own way." This implies that a learner needs to show his written product to his friends and classmates for exchanging views, getting more good ideas and proofreading. In addition, Kral (1999:176) believes that "Error-free writing without substance is not as good as substantive writing even with errors" Thus, pupils should provide both correctness and substance and the priority should be given to the content.

Johnson (1976:101) states that, "The learner's voice should be heard within the lines." In other words, the learner needs to be entirely involved in what he writes by providing coherent, clear and correct sentences. The learner must also reflect unity and originality of thought in his writing. Since writing is the silent speech of the pupil, Johnson's above-mentioned statement indicates that the pupil can be so engrossed in what he/she writes that the teacher believes he can hear the pupil talking through the lines. This is what could be referred to as genuine or original writing.

Investigating the area of composition, White (1980:104) advocates the integration of the four skills so that what pupils read or listen to supplies information for what they write. Ann (1983:3) points out that "the effort to express ideas and the constant use of eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning." In other words, the process of thinking and the generating of ideas takes place in the brain, then the eye guides the hand to put pen to paper.

Writers struggle to find the right word and how to put it down on paper. They often come up with new words and new ways of expressing their idea. Learners feel the need for finding the right word and the right sentence. Hence, there is a close relationship between writing and thinking which makes the writing skill invaluable and of paramount importance.

Harmer (2004:39) states that " The most effective learning of writing skills is likely to take place when students are writing real messages for real audiences." This purports the importance of prompting learners to be aware of the message they want

to convey, as well as the audience to whom they are writing. In other words, the purpose and audience should be clear in the student's mind.

Hairston (1982:78) details some further drawbacks in the product paradigm as she states that, "proponents of the product approach apparently viewed the composing process as linear, proceeding systematically from prewriting to writing to rewriting". In other words, those who advocate the product approach focus on form and length, they do not give due attention and significance to the process approach which concentrates on content and has a recursive nature. Another linguist, Langan (1988:19) points out that "One of the most common and serious problems in student writing is inadequate development." This indicates that, many students do not develop and support their writing product with solid reasons, clear examples or vivid ideas. In other words students do not provide sufficient specific details to support fully the point they are making.

It is believed that writers are limited to a single production of text, unlike the recursive nature of process writing. Hence the significance of rewriting is generally underestimated. Johnson (1987) states that, in addition to being pre-occupied with grammatical accuracy, the teacher tends to be a judge instead of being a facilitator. Terms like brainstorming, drafting, revising, editing and publishing are useful for talking about the parts of the writing process, which do not necessarily occur in a fixed order for individual writers in specific situations (Graves, 1996). Also, in the process approach, the students do not write on a given topic in a restricted time and hand in the composition for the teacher to correct – which usually means to find errors. Process writing enables learners to explore a topic through writing, showing the teacher and each other their drafts, and using what they write to read over, think about and move them on to new ideas.

(Meriwether, 1997). A student should be given the time for the process to work along with the appropriate feedback from readers such as the teacher or other students. This would enable the student to discover new ideas, new sentences, and new words as they plan, write a first draft and revise what they have written for a

second or subsequent drafts depending on their level of competence. Finally, it is believed that the process approach to writing is especially effective for learners of English as L2. It also lends itself to the student-centred learning supported by the communicative approach to the teaching of English.

Mina (1979:85) points out that "the student lacks confidence in himself in academic situations and fears that writing will not only expose but magnify his inadequacies," Hence, it is an act of confidence, an assertion of the importance of what has gone on inside the writer, to exhibit his thoughts or experiences. Krashen, (1984) advocates delaying feedback on errors until the final stage of editing and offers intensive reading practice as a long-range cure for the immediate problems of surface errors. James (1998:237) believes that "You could say that feedback is an overture to correction, which in its turn is an overture to remediation." This implies that after teachers have given feedback they have to make a decision whether to stop at this phase or further their treatment by doing correction as well as remediation.

2-2 Types of English Composition

There are three graded and integrated types of English composition: controlled composition, semi-controlled composition (guided composition) and free composition. Secondary school students need to be familiarized with two graded steps of composition writing, these steps are:

controlled composition.

Semi-controlled composition.

Learners if exposed to the above-mentioned types, and hence practiced them satisfactorily, they would be eligible to write a composition efficiently.

2-3 Techniques of Guided and Semi-guided Composition

2-3-1 Controlled Writing:

Al-Mutawa and Kailani (189:131) stress the point that “In controlled writing, pupils are usually provided with the needed keywords and expressions or a model of some type with directions for manipulation in rewriting the model” This shows that pupils at this stage need much support from the teacher as they cannot write independently. Kral (1999:170) argues that, "sometimes those grammar exercises are disguised as composition writing.” Hence, controlled composition incorporates techniques such as: missing words, word ordering, and re-arrangement of sentences, parallel paragraph and guide writing using pictures. The aim of these tasks is to ensure grammatically correct writing.

2-3-2 Techniques of Teaching Controlled Writing:

i.Missing Words:

According to Raimes (2013:107), missing words is an effective technique for learning composition writing. It trains secondary school learners to supply correct grammatical items. When they have enough practice, learners are expected to produce correct grammatical sentences. Learners should start this technique at the preparatory and reinforce it at secondary level. The researcher thinks that if the teachers use the PowerPoint programme creatively in introducing this technique, the learners' writing ability can definitely be enhanced. For instance, the teacher may organize the students into heterogeneous groups of five. Then the teacher tells students that they are going to have a competition. The group that wins will be awarded a prize. After that the teacher displays the example using the PowerPoint. Group leaders are then invited to take over displaying sentences. The group that provides the correct answer is awarded one point. Each group is given a name or a

letter(A , B, C, D). The group with the greater number of points is the winner. The teacher's role is just to guide and monitor students' performance.

Alternatively, groups may be asked to do the exercises on the computer. The teacher monitors the groups ' performance from his computer (the server) and announces the winning group. To further the practice at home, group leaders can be asked to e-mail their group members asking them to do the tasks and get feedback from them. Moreover, groups can be asked to design similar exercises at home and show them to the teacher the next day. The teacher after having checked the exercises, can ask students to chat with one another practicing this technique. This technique can be displayed creatively by using the PowerPoint using different colors to highlight the target grammatical points. The teacher should make sure that the objective is very clear and students know exactly what to do.

Example: (look) I.....at our classroom.

I can see Ali and Omar.

(read, write) Ali.....but Omar

This is my room. There.....four walls and..... (number)

Windows. There.....one door.

ii. Word Ordering:

The correct order and sequence of words in a sentence is very significant. Hence, word ordering technique helps learners to practice syntax. Learners are given some jumbled words which they have to re-arrange to make correct meaningful sentences. e.g. (speak, she, English, can, well) She can speak English well. Can she speak English well?

Learners can start practicing this technique at elementary, and it can be consolidated at preparatory and secondary levels. The teacher can follow the previously mentioned steps to apply this technique. In other words, by dividing students into heterogeneous groups and using the PowerPoint innovatively and giving hand-outs. Learners can be encouraged to carry out and practice this technique through

competitive ornaments. The winning group should be awarded a prize. Alternatively, such a technique can be practiced effectively if teachers get groups compete with each other. The teacher may further the practice of getting learners to work in their groups to do the tasks on the computer. The teacher can go round helping and guiding where necessary. For homework, group leaders e-mail their group members and receive a prompt feedback. The teacher should ask groups to design various tasks to carry out in class. The teacher may encourage the learners to explore the Internet and find similar exercises, do them and bring their answers to the teacher for checking.

<http://www.slideshare.net/MeibisN/techniques-to-teach-english>

iii. Re-arrangement of Sentences:

To point out the significance of the correct sequence and coherence of sentences, Al-Matwa&Kailani (1989:131) ascertain that rearrangement of sentences is a practical useful technique for learning composition. They go on to clarify that it is commonly used in preparatory and secondary schools. Besides, it can give learners insights into the correct sequence and coherence of sentences. It also familiarizes the learners with the unity of the paragraph and they can also practice making a good ending through it. However, to achieve a recognizable progress, teachers must see to it that, students do it independently and on their own. However, teachers may put into practice the afore-mentioned competitive techniques using the PowerPoint and distributing hand-outs to learners. Initially, students may work in groups, when they have had enough practice they can be asked to work individually. Finally, learners should be encouraged to design their own exercises to be practiced in class by all the students.

iv. Parallel Paragraph:

Parallel paragraph is a highly efficient technique for learning composition writing. However, it is never used in secondary schools in Oman. Learners are provided with a model paragraph and are asked to rewrite it by making some substitutions. Students should change some words in the model paragraph putting in other words to build up a new paragraph grammatically parallel to the one provided.. Teachers need to bear in mind that, all passages they select for applying this technique should be highly interesting for the learners, and they should be compatible with their knowledge and experience.

This technique enables learners to change the subject, or the subject and adverb either to the plural or singular . However, the technique in question could be more effective if it is introduced by PowerPoint then consolidated by exercises in hand-outs. Learners should do the exercises in groups. They can use the computer to write a paragraph or an e-mail monitored by the teacher. Group leaders may e-mail their group members asking them to do the task and e-mail back. The teacher can check groups' performance and award a prize for the group whose members have done the task correctly and satisfactorily. Learners can be asked to resort to the Internet for further practice. They should be able to add adverbs such as: yesterday, tomorrow, now, etc. They also should develop their ability of changing the point of view of the paragraph, affirmative to negative and the opposite.

<http://www.cod.edu/people/faculty/pruter/film>

v.Guided Writing Using Pictures:

Exploring controlled writing techniques, Morris (1956:76), argues that, guided writing using pictures is a commonly used composition writing technique. It involves a proper efficient teaching on the part of the teacher. It also requires providing the learners with the necessary vocabulary and structures beside the picture. Moreover, it requires brainstorming of the topic. It can be introduced in the preparatory and secondary levels.

If learners are put into groups, communication of ideas could result in a good production. Also if the teachers prompt individual pupils to answer questions about the picture, it will be a successful alternative. Thus, required statements that form a composition could be elicited. Finally, all the classes would be given an insight into the topic. Teachers should make sure that tasks in the hand-outs are crystal clear, and then they have to use the PowerPoint to attract the learners' attention. Learners will be highly motivated when they look at such enjoyable pictures being displayed by the projector. Similarly, it would be more fascinating if the tasks are prepared on the computer. In addition, learners are expected to practice this technique more enthusiastically in groups. They could exchange e-mails monitored by the teacher or group leaders.

Harmer (2007:120)

Techniques of Teaching Semi-controlled (Guided) Writing:

The secondary school teachers have to adopt the techniques which can best suit their learners. In this way, they can better their learners' writing ability, through a pupil-centered teaching and learning process.

i. Pictorial Exercises:

Morris (1957:134) advocates the adoption of the pictorial exercises technique, he explains that, in this technique the teacher gives the class some pictures or film strips. Then he explains the objective and elicits from learners what they will do in this task. After that, students are asked to write about the content or the sequence of events in the displayed pictures. The teacher then asks guide questions. He can use the PowerPoint programme with hand-outs, or prepare the exercises on the computer. Learners can be asked to explore the Internet in their groups and prepare a variety of exercises adding suitable and appropriate vocabulary and expressions.

By adopting this useful technique at secondary level, teachers can develop their students writing skill. It helps learners to work in groups to build up and generate sentences based on the provided pictures. Learners can be able to practice the correct ordering of sentences and provide a good opening and ending to their paragraphs. Morris (1957:135) thinks that, “ Pictures that tell a story without words are an excellent means for prompting both oral and written composition.” This shows the importance of pictures that tell a story, but the writing should follow the oral treatment.

ii. Narrative Exercise:

Teachers can adopt this helpful technique at the preparatory stage and reinforce it at secondary level. The teacher reads a story to the class, and then he/she writes some guide questions on the blackboard or issue hand-outs. Learners are then asked to retell or summarize the story in writing. After the teacher has given the model, learners are invited to practice telling stories and writing guide questions. As homework, learners can practise this technique by chatting via the facebook . Students in groups could prepare different exercises by resorting to the Internet and show them to the teacher the following day.

<http://lps.lexingtonma.org/Page/2254>

iii. Short Story Completion:

This technique is considered very important as it trains secondary school learners to deal with a dialogue completion of which the first few lines are provided. Alternatively, learners could be asked to write an ending to a story. Teachers have to encourage and prompt the learners to think carefully, as this technique develops imagination and originality of thought. Learners need to bear in mind that a good ending to a short story must draw the paragraph together. By using the PowerPoint and distributing hand-outs this technique can work out successfully. It can also be practiced on the computer in class, or at home via e-mail. By exploring the Internet through google, learners can prepare nefarious exercises and bring to the class to show them to the teacher.

Jurgen Wolff (2007:23)

iv. Letter Writing:

Letter writing is a supportive technique that can improve the learner's communicative writing competence. David (1994:22) claims that, letter writing is a significant technique which can be introduced at the preparatory and secondary levels. The teacher reads an interesting letter to the class. Students are shown how to write a letter (address, salutation and ending). Then the teacher gives some guide cues and the aim of the reply. Students write a letter based on the information provided. It would be better at this stage to start with personal or friendly letters.

Teaching letter writing can be much effective if students are given hand-outs and the PowerPoint is applied, highlighting the address, salutation and ending. Learners in their groups could be asked to write a letter to a friend. The group that writes the best letter should be given a prize. The teacher may ask each student to write a letter to his friend via e-mail or facebook . For further practice teachers can show the learners a model of an e-mail and get them practice in groups. Then the teacher may ask each group to write an e-mail to a friend. For homework, each

student could be asked to write an e-mail to a friend. Learners should bring their homework and hand it to the teacher for checking.

v. Cued Dialogue:

Cued dialogue is one of the important techniques for writing guided composition. Students can start learning this technique at the preparatory level. It would be much helpful if students are encouraged to use it at secondary level as well. Learners should be provided with some cues for a dialogue. Then students are asked to write the complete conversation. First teachers should give out hand-outs to all learners. Teachers may display the cues using PowerPoint or write them on the computer for learners to work in their groups. Groups can be prompted by the teacher to think of good cues to display using the projector. The group with the best cues wins and gets a good prize. To further the exercise, learners may work at home e-mailing each other and getting prompt feedback. Finally, learners could be asked to prepare more cues for the whole class to practice.

<http://www.meritnation.com/ask-answer/quest>

2-4 Factors That May Influence English Composition Writing:

Tricia Hedge, (2003:302) claims that there are three major factors which affect the English composition:

previous experience of the English language, the effect of mother tongue, the way composition is taught.

2.4.1 A learner's Previous Experience:

It is quite obvious that the first language interferes with the target language. Ellis (1986:19) argues that, "It is also a popular belief that the role of L1 in SLA is a negative one." It is clear that, L1 interferes with the learning of L2. Consequently, features of the L1 are transferred into L2.

2.4.2 The Mother Tongue Influence:

Nancy, (1976:112) & George Yule, (2003:175) claim that children usually master their mother tongue by imitating utterances produced by adults. So, children build up a knowledge of the patterns or habits of their first language and when they start SLA or FLL, they do the same. Al-Matawa and Kailani (1989:29) argue that, "Arabic and English are not cognates, and they differ in sound, structure, vocabulary and writing systems." According to this, problems are highly expected in writing composition.

2.4.3 The Way Composition is Taught:

The third factor that may affect English composition learning is the way composition is taught. Teaching of composition writing should be graded. Teachers must adopt the most appropriate techniques for each of the three types of composition. In addition, they must adopt the techniques of teaching composition as a process. Thus, learners can be expected to tackle free composition successfully, and they can provide error-free writing products. Destructive techniques of feedback should be discouraged. Tricia Hedge (2003:302)

2-5 Considerations in Writing a Good Composition:

Having practised controlled, semi-controlled and free composition, students are expected to manipulate language with some originality of thought and can provide error-free writing. In other words, common mistakes may completely disappear. Learners must have an understanding of the orthographic system especially at an earlier stage. In other words, they should know the relationship between sounds and written symbols. Students have to practise capitalization, punctuation, paragraph indentation and syllable division. Learners also should master the skill in sentence-combining to create an effective paragraph. In addition, they also need to be shown how to organize the whole composition. Learners should consider pre-writing, drafting, editing, proofreading and publishing when writing composition.

John Langan(1997:35)

2-6 Style: Formal And Informal:

Learners should avoid the following errors:

Mistakes due to wrong order of words.

Omission of necessary words.

The use of unsuitable words or expressions

In addition to the above, students should consider the following points:

i. Ellipsis:

If the words which are omitted are easily supplied, the ellipsis is allowed. e.g. Either the boy or the girl must come (Must come after the boy is omitted).

ii. Redundancy:

e.g. The reason of his failure was because of his laziness. The reason of and because of carry the same meaning, one of them should be omitted.

iii. Conversational Style:

Learners should not end their compositions with expressions, such as: “That is all I have to say on the subject” or “Here I end my composition”. So, learners should avoid informal expressions that are used in an ordinary conversation, they should use formal style and provide a good ending that holds the paragraphs together.

iv. Affectation:

Learners should avoid the use of phrases such as e.g. “canine specimen” for dog; “culinary department” for kitchen; etc.

v. Colloquialisms:

Colloquial phrases should be avoided although they are not disreputable like slang, but better to be avoided when writing composition. e.g. To end in smoke; tons of money; a good for nothing fellow; etc.

vi. Slang:

Learners should avoid the use of informal words such as e.g. kid, dad, nosy.

vii. Pedantry:

Students should not use the following phrases as their meaning is not clear enough to understand. e.g. He prefers to say “The custodian of the law” instead of “policeman” “lunar effulgence” instead of “moon-light.”

viii. Irrelevancy: e.g. As I am ill and as I have visited the doctor, I cannot meet you today. The clause “as I have visited the doctor” is not necessary.

ix. The Colourless Style:

e.g. People, such as teachers, students, doctors, lawyers, ministers, carpenters, visited the shop. It is called ‘colourless’ because it does not give good sense. It is opposite to ‘colourful style’ which means the use of fancy and pretentious words.

x. Similar Words:

Pupils often make mistakes because of the confusion between words of similar form. e.g. beside, besides farther, further later, latter loose, lose.

xi.Cliches: Students should avoid expressions that have been out through constant use. e.g.

pain in the neck.

had a hard time of it.

at a loss for words.

xii. Pretentious Words:

Sometimes students tend to use fancy and elevated words rather than simple and natural words:

e.g. While partaking of our morning meal, we engaged in an animated conversation.

MilonNandy (2004:34)

Teachers could exhibit their competence and proficiency in using the PowerPoint when tackling the above mentioned mistakes in style. It would be a good idea if they prepare hand-outs containing different types of mistakes in style. Learners in groups should be asked to find out these mistakes. The first group to finish the exercise correctly is the winner.

2-8 Structure And Lexis Employed in Composition Writing:

Omani learners often make the afore-mentioned faults in style, except affectation and pedantry, which are mostly committed by native speakers.

2-8-1 Lexis:

Learners must be familiar with both grammatical referential, cataphoric and anaphoric connectors. They also need to be familiar with lexical connectors, e.g. repetition of key words or the same word in different forms (deciding/decision), or

the use of synonyms, e.g. mad, insane and antonyms, e.g. good bad etc. Learners should have an adequate control of syntax and vocabulary in order to put ideas into writing.

Vocabulary is considered vital in learning composition. Scott, (2004:13) believes that "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed." Morris (1957:140) advocates this viewpoint confirming that: "Without vocabulary no style can be truly effective." This indicates that learners have to acquire as much appropriate vocabulary as they can to improve their writing, however, it should be graded for easier learning. Students can develop their word power by:

regular reading, vocabulary word sheets and vocabulary study books. Through reading a good deal, learners can learn words by experiencing them a number of times in a variety of sentences.

2-8 Useful Structures And Expressions for Composition Writing:

Identifying the learners' need for good structure, Milon (2004:14) holds the view that, for the sake of emphasis, however the adverb clause is sometimes placed at the beginning of a sentence. e.g. Because he was hungry, he stole some money. This example, represents the periodic sentence. The normal sentence order is represented by the loose sentence which has the subject or principal clause at the beginning. In a balanced sentence, the parts are similar in form but the contrast in meaning, e.g. He talks too much and works too little.

Learners ought to be reminded that, after the conjunctions "either... or" and "neither... nor". The verb agrees with nearer subjects. e.g. Either they or she has to say it. When two subjects are joined by "as well as" the verb agrees with the former subject. Learners also have to master the ability of combining sentences. e.g. He came here, he saw me, and he was pleased. These three short sentences should be combined to make a single sentence:

Seeing me, after coming here, he was pleased. He failed, he was sad, he could not sleep. The previous short sentences can be combined to form the following sentence: As he felt sad after his failure, he could not sleep. Milon (2004:10)

Being aware of the learners' need for developing their writing ability, Oshima & House (1997:38) maintain that students can use a compound sentence when they want to give equal weight to two closely related ideas (coordination). A complex sentence is used to emphasize one idea over another in a sentence (subordination). When a collective noun is regarded as a unity, it takes a verb in the singular, e.g. The crew was a good one. Learners need to be reminded that in composition writing, repeated nouns become pronouns, e.g. Ali is a mechanic. He has a big garage. If there may be misunderstanding, the full noun is used to avoid confusion. Singular nouns are first introduced with an indefinite article (a) or (an) or zero article if they are plural. The definite article (the) is used when the (an) noun is mentioned for the second time. Hence, pupils really need to be equipped with the above-mentioned writing conventions.

John Eastwood
(1995:198)

Realizing the learners' need to ameliorate their writing standard, Nandy, (2004) states that if learners try to speak carefully and correctly, they will have little difficulty in writing good composition and they can avoid making serious mistakes. Tenses should not be confused, sometimes the present tense has to be used in a sentence which starts in the past tense, especially when references are made to "facts" and "habits"

e.g. She said that the world is round.

His sister bought some fish because she likes fish very much. Milon (2004:1)

Learners should realize that the infinitive without 'to' is known as 'Bare Infinitive' and it is used after 'bid', 'let', 'make', 'see', 'hear', 'feel', 'watch', 'know'

e.g. Let him do the work. John (1995:144)

Teachers should point out that 'fairly' is used before positive adjectives and adverbs to indicate something that is desirable. But 'rather' can be used for things that

are desirable or undesirable. e.g. His speech was fairly interesting. Her song was rather boring. You have done rather well. Learners should be told that 'Rather' is used before comparatives and 'too'.

e.g. He is feeling rather better today. She teaches rather too fast. Rather also indicates one's attitude towards a person or thing. It is rather a silly question. Moving prepositional phrases to the beginning of some sentences also adds interest and variety to their sentences. When learners use time order or spatial order in a paragraph, they could move some prepositional phrases to the beginning of their sentences, and put a comma after them.

e.g. You arrive at Salalah City at the end of the rainy season.

At the end of the rainy season, you arrive at Salalah City.

However, not all prepositional phrases can be moved:

e.g. He married a girl with red hair.

It would be incorrect if students wrote: With red hair, he married a girl.

Appositives are nouns or noun phrases that refer to the same person or thing as a preceding noun in a sentence. They can be restrictive (necessary) or nonrestrictive (unnecessary) e.g. My friend Ali got married last week. In this sentence, Ali is an appositive because Ali and my friend are the same person. Ali is a restrictive (necessary) appositive because it is necessary to identify which friend got married. If we omit the word Ali, we don't know which friend got married. On the other hand, consider this sentence: Ali, my friend, got married last week. In this sentence, the appositive is my friend. It is nonrestrictive (unnecessary) because the name Ali already identifies the person who got married. If we omit my friend, we still know who got married. The fact that he is the writer's friend is not necessary to identify him. It is merely extra information. Appositives of one-a-kind items are always nonrestrictive. For example, Earth has only one moon, so any appositive of the moon in a sentence would be nonrestrictive. Similarly, adjectives such as tallest, strongest, oldest, most interesting automatically make the following noun one of a kind.

e.g. My son Sami looks just like me. Because there is more than one son, Sami is necessary to identify which one the writer means.

(Sami is a restrictive appositive)

My youngest son, Hazim looks just like me. (Because there is only one youngest son, Hazim is not necessary here. It is a nonrestrictive appositive). Learners need not use commas to separate the adjective clause from the rest of the sentence. e.g. Every culture in the world has special days that people observe with traditional food, customs, and events in an adjective that modifies the noun days.

Noel Burton(1989:196)

The gerund can be subject of a verb e.g. Collecting stamps is his hobby. It can also be object of a preposition. e.g. He devotes his time to reading novels. In addition, it can be complement of a verb e.g. What he dislikes is being lazy.

When we use the gerund, it is to be in the possessive case of the noun or pronoun. e.g. He insists on her being present on the occasion. If the reference is to an inanimate thing, the possessive form is not used. There is no possibility of the tree (not tree's) falling down in the near future. When the gerund is in the passive form, the possessive form is avoided. e.g. I do not approve of Zahir being insulted. I prefer going by train. (A general preference) I prefer to go by train. (On a particular occasion.) The following verbs usually take the gerund, avoid, detest, enjoy, help, mind.

John(1995:159)

'Afraid' when it takes the infinitive, denotes the thing that fear prevents a person from doing: The boy was afraid to cross the busy road. The gerund indicates a possible consequence that causes the fear.

e.g. The girl was afraid of being knocked down by some vehicle, if she crossed a busy road.

With the verbs remember, forget, regret) the infinitive refers to an action which occurs after the act of remembering, forgetting, or regretting. e.g.

i. Remember to post this letter. ii. I forgot to wash my hands before dinner.

We regret to inform you that it is impossible to comply with your request.

Learners ought to know that For+ gerund is used to mention the purpose of an object or an instrument.

e.g. i. This is a book for learning English grammar

ii. The altimeter is for showing the height above sea-level.

Use followed by the infinitive is also employed to dictate the purpose

e.g. He always uses the scissors to cut up meat.

The active and passive infinitives are both used especially after 'be'.

e.g. There is a lot of work to do.

There is a lot of work to be done.

Noel (1989:212)

Learners should remember that the verb 'to be', 'to seem', 'to become' and some with similar meanings to these (appear, feel, look grow, turn) have to be followed by adjectives, not by adverbs. This is due to the fact that these adjectives are complements qualifying the subjects. They do not modify the verbs:

The mob became furious.

He turned violent.

She looked sad.

When these verbs are used in a different sense, they have to be followed by adverbs:

e.g. The murderer appeared suddenly.

These plants have grown quickly.

After verbs of senses learners have to use adjectives:

e.g. The wood sounds hollow.

The pills tastes bitter.

The rose smells sweet.

Teachers can remind learners that 'shall' expresses a command or an order in the second and third person. e.g. You shall not steal. It is also used to express a polite request. e.g. Shall I help you. Shall I bring you something to drink.

Should is used in conditional sentences to express possibility, supposition or something that was not fulfilled:

e.g. If he should come, ask him to meet me in the office.

Teachers should clarify that 'If he should come' indicates little possibility of his coming. Should is used as an auxiliary after 'lest'. It does not take any other auxiliary. e.g. Work hard, lest you should fail. It is used to emphasize strangeness e.g. It is strange that he should have married such an old man. It is also used to give one's opinion of an event, expressing surprise, indignation or joy at it. e.g. Why should you be surprised. Teachers should point out that 'will' can be used to express probability or supposition. e.g. The door-bell is ringing. It will be the postman. Will can be used to indicate something that is proved or expected. e.g. These things will always happen. Oil, as well as wood, will float on water.

Learners need to know that would is used to express willingness or readiness, e.g. I would attend the meeting, but I'm afraid it is impossible. It is also used to denote repeated habitual acts in the past: e.g.

After lunch he would go to the library.

To show unwillingness or refusal, e.g. I asked John to tell me the secret but he would not.

To indicate something typical or inevitable, e.g. The bus would come late, just I'm in a hurry.

To express a preference to do something:

e.g. I would rather go by train than by bus.

vi. to refer to hypothetical situations, e.g. I wish you would not speak so loud.

Teachers have to make it clear that 'can' is used:

Instead of may for permission, e.g. Can I enter the room?

To express something that a person shows on certain occasions. e.g. He can be very stubborn.

The negative can't is used for what is not allowed. e.g. You can't smoke near a petrol pump. If we wish to refer to an achievement in the past through one's capacity, we should always use 'able to'. The use of could will make the sentence wrong. e.g. He was able to answer all the questions properly.

But the rule mentioned in (f) above does not apply to negative and interrogative sentences and the verbs of perception:

e.g. I couldn't paint it properly. Could you do that?

We couldn't see the scene properly. The audience could hear his speech clearly.

Could is used to mention conditions:

Could you lift that box (if you tried?)

'Can' as well as 'could' is used to refer to what is possible:

e.g. One of the prisoners escaped yesterday, he can (could) be anywhere.

'Can have' is used for a past action. e.g. He's an hour late, he can have been delayed by some accident. Teachers should point out that could is used to make a polite request especially when we write to a person who is superior to us. e.g. I shall be grateful to you. If you could issue me a conduct certificate. Could may also mean 'feel inclined to' e.g.

I could smack his face. This means I want to do this (but won't).

Teachers need to show learners examples of perfect passive infinitives.

e. g. He appears to have been greatly attracted by her beauty.

Teachers should remind their learners that the denial of permission is expressed 'can't', 'mayn't' is not used for this. It is worth mentioning that 'may' is used to indicate a purpose: e.g. He is ready to bell the cat so that others may live.

Must is used to express strong likelihood or probability. e.g. He must be a rich man. He must have reached London by this time. It is also used to express prohibition.

e.g. Students must remain silent in the library. The present continuous is used to show a repeated action often with 'always', 'constantly' to express one's irritation. e.g. He is always beating his wife. Learners need to remember that the present perfect continuous tense is used with verbs of a static nature such as stay, wait, sit, stand, lie, study, learn, live, rest.

e.g. We have been studying English for three years. John (1995:113)

Teachers ought to bring to learners' notice that 'hard' as an adverb means 'diligently', it usually follows the verb. e.g. He works hard to make both ends meet. 'Hardly'

when used as an adverb means 'only just, scarcely, barely'. It conveys a negative meaning. e.g. I could hardly understand his speech. For emphasis, 'hardly' can be used at the beginning of a sentence: Hardly (scarcely) had he reached the station, when the train left.

When writing free composition learners must pay attention to grammar, punctuation, and style. Style entails the following points:

2-9 Clearness:

Having identified the necessity for learners to master the process approach, Milon (2004:26) points out that clarity in composition writing can be achieved if learners practise punctuation, spelling, and the mechanics of free composition. Words, phrases, and clauses must be placed in the right order. Facts and ideas should be well arranged before pupils start writing their composition.

Ambiguity and absurdity should be avoided when writing composition. All pronouns (i.e. he, she, it, they, etc.) must be clear in their reference. e.g. Rami told Ahmed he had made a mistake. The meaning is not clear as the pronoun 'he' can refer either to Ahmed or Rami. Another example of ambiguity is "The men hunt lions and when they are killed by them, they are brought home." The pronoun "They" can refer to the men or lions, which makes the sentence confusing.

Repeating the meaning of a word must also be avoided. e.g. He gave her the gift free gratis for nothing. The two phrases "Free gratis" and "for nothing" carry the same meaning. One of them should be omitted. Words must be chosen accurately. The abbreviation (shortened words) such as, didn't, can't, exam, photo need not be used. The date should be written in figures. As a composition is supposed to be a writer's own thoughts, expressions such as: "I think," "in my opinion". "I shall now deal with" should not be used. Milon(2004:26)

2-10 Unity of the Topic:

Learners must keep the unity of sentences and ideas within each paragraph. Every paragraph should be an integral part of the whole composition. It must add a new idea to the reader and show the progress of the topic. All ideas in the different paragraphs should be well linked. Learners should avoid redundancy, ambiguity and absurdity. A good conclusion is of paramount importance. Alice & Ann (1997:98)

2-11 Emphasis:

According to Langan, (1997:89) Learners can obtain proper emphasis by proportioning their treatment to the importance of their ideas and by placing the most important ideas in the most emphatic positions (the beginning and end of the paragraph). Depending upon the nature of the material, students may choose one of these general methods for developing, individual paragraphs and series of paragraphs within a composition. They may arrange their material in:

Chronological order (in order of time):

Last week the Jones family went for a picnic. Unfortunately, they didn't enjoy it very much. Mrs. Jones cut her finger while she was cooking the food on the fire. He was very angry with himself. Later, the children fell off a wall and hurt themselves and the dog jumped into a wadi and nearly drowned itself. On the way home they bought some ice-cream to cheer themselves up. Unfortunately they all ate too much and made themselves sick. 'well I didn't enjoy myself.' Mr. John said when the family got home.

Spatial order (in order of space):

An Athlete's Room

As I entered the bright, cheerful space with its blue walls and red carpet. I noticed a closet to my right with door open. On the shelf above was a yellow baseball cap. Turning from the closet, I noticed a single bed. The bedspread was a brown, orange and red print of basketball, football, and baseball action scenes. A lamp shaped like a baseball was on the top of a small cupboard to the left of the bed. A

desk with books on top stood against the left wall. I walked toward it to examine it more closely. Next to the desk, was a window with colourful curtains that matched the bed sheet. As I was leaving the room, some gold medals caught my eye.

Langan, J. (1988)

Order of importance:

Living Alone

Living alone is a difficult experience. People who live alone, have to do all kinds of work by themselves. They must learn to put up curtains, clean the toilet, cook a meal and wash their clothes. When there are not fathers, husbands, mothers, or wives to depend on, a person must do everything he needs by himself. Those who live alone need to be strong enough to deal with different types of people such as neighbours, friends and visitors. Finally, singles should confront sad occasions and loneliness, both of which can shape singles into brave, patient and more independent people. Langan, J. (1988)

d) Learners can also develop their paragraphs by providing a series of examples to support a topic sentence. e.g.

The Cruelty of Children

Children can be very cruel. Very early, for example, they learn that words can wound. Little three-year-olds in nursery school call each other “dum-dum”, and older children invent cruel nicknames, like “fatty” or “four-eyes” to tease their schoolmates. And children who are just a bit older learn facts about other kids from their parents and use those facts to make someone break down and cry. Children also attack each other physically whenever a group of grade-schoolers return home, there is a lot of pushing, kicking and boxing. An argument will end in hair-pulling. But far worse than harsh words or physical violence is the emotional hurt children can cause their classmates. By preparatory school days, young teenagers start to shut out people they do not like. They ignore the kids whose looks, clothes, interests, or finances differ from their own. Many adults think that childhood is an ideal time, but there are terribly cruel things that can happen. Lanagan, J. (1988)

e) Students can explain things that happen in our lives by examining the causes or effects of an action e.g.

Why I Stopped Smoking

For one thing, I realized that my cigarette smoke bothered others. Particularly my wife and children, irritating their eyes and causing them a cough and sneeze. Also, smoking is a bad habit. Our house was filled with ashtrays piled high with butts, matchsticks, and ashes, and the children were always knocking them over. Cigarettes are expensive, and I estimated that the carton a week that I was smoking cost me about \$650 a year. Another reason I stopped was that the message about cigarettes being harmful to health finally got through to me. A heavy smoker I know from work is in hospital now with lung cancer. Cigarettes were also inconvenient. When I would smoke, I would have to drink something to wet down my dry throat, and that meant I had to keep going to the bathroom all the time, Most of all I decided to stop smoking because I felt exploited. I hated the thought of wealthy, greed-filled corporations making money off my sweat and blood. The rich may keep getting richer, but at least as regards to cigarettes-with no thanks to me.

Langan, J. (1988)

f) Learners should be able to compare or contrast two things e.g.

Electronic Versus Electric Typewriters

The electric typewriter I use in my job as a secretary is a Great improvement over the electric model I use at home. First of all, the electronic Brother C-60 is more convenient to use than my ten-year-old Royal. The electronic typewriter has a one-step correction key. The typewriter instantly removes the mistyped letter, word, or even line. In contrast, my electric has no correction key. If I spot an error, I have to paint it with correction fluid and wait for the fluid to dry before correcting the mistake. This is very time-consuming, especially when there are a lot of corrections to be made. Second, the electronic typewriter is fast and does not jam. When I type at top speed, the machine remembers all the letters I hit and keep printing them even if I go a bit ahead of the machines typing speed. On the other hand my electric's keys will sometimes jam together if I type too fast. Then I have to reach in and separate the metal bars before I can type again. Finally, the electronic typewriter is a much quieter machine. The sound of typing on an electronic is a gentle, low-pitched series of taps. The electric, however, makes a loud, clattery noise as I type. The sound seems to echo through the room and continue on my head even after I stop typing. The convenience, speed, and quiet of the electronic Brother I use at work has spoiled me for my old fashioned Royal at home. An electric typewriter simply outclasses everything that has come before.

Langan J. (1988)

g) Learners can divide or classify a subject according to a single principle.

Studying for a Test

The time a student spends studying for a test can be divided into three distinct phases. Phase 1, often called the "no problem" phase, runs from the day the test is announced to approximately forty-eight hours before the dreaded exam is passed out. During phase 1, the student is carefree, smiling and kind to helpless animals and small children. When asked by classmates if he or she has studied for the test yet, the reply will be an assured "No problem." During phase 1. no actual studying takes

place.

Phase 2 is entered two days prior to testing. For example, if the test is scheduled for 9 A.M. Friday. Phase 2 being at 9 A.M. Wednesday. During phase 2, again, no actual studying takes place. Phase 3, the final phase, is entered twelve hours before “zero hour.” This is the acute phase, characterized by sweaty palms, nervous twitches, and confused mental patterns. For a test at nine on Friday morning, a student begins exhibiting these symptoms at approximately nine o’clock on Thursday night. Phase 3 is also termed the “shock” phase, since the student is shocked to discover the imminent nature of the exam and the amount of material to be studied. During this phase, the student will probably be unable to sleep and will mumble meaningless phrases like “ a^2+C^2 ”.

This phase will not end until the exam is over. If the cram session has worked, the student will fall gratefully asleep. On waking up, he or she will be ready to go through the whole cycle again with the next test. Langan, J. (1988)

2.12 How a Free Composition Lesson is Taught

2.12.1 Free Composition Techniques:

In order that learners can improve their writing, they ought to consider the following techniques. Learners should state the main idea of a paragraph in the first sentence 'the topic sentence'. They ought not keep their readers guessing. Sentences need to be varied. In general, students have to use short sentences to emphasize ideas. On the other hand, they should use longer sentences to explain, define or illustrate ideas. Key words and ideas must be put at the beginning or end of a sentence. A main point should not be buried in the middle of a long sentence. To emphasize key words, learners should place them at the beginning or at the end. Sentence types should be varied by including occasional questions and commands. Sentence structures can be varied by blending simple, compound and complex sentences. Learners ought not to overwork the passive voice or forms of the verb to be. Instead, they can use dynamic verbs in the active voice. In order that learners may convey their message clearly and keep their readers engaged, they have to use

concrete and specific words that show what they mean. Learners ought to eliminate unnecessary words when revising their work. They may hear problems (of tone, emphasis, word choice, and syntax). Students ought to be on the lookout for common trouble spots when studying their final draft. They may overlook some errors when merely looking over their work. Learners can use a dictionary when proofreading. They must not trust their spellchecker.

When writing a topic sentence, learners should start with a general idea of what they want to write about. Learners then should limit their topic. They may make a list of all the limited topics they can think of that fit under the general topic. Besides, learners must provide solid evidence for any point they make. Any ideas they advance, must be supported with specific reasons or details. A reader should be provided with the bases for understanding. Students must use specific, rather than general phrases, words or sentences. Specific words create pictures in the reader's mind. They help capture interest and make meaning clear. Learners need to organize and connect the specific evidence and clear error-free sentences. Learners must make a striking opening; if they make a poor beginning, they prejudice the reader against them. On the other hand, if their conclusion is weak, the reader will have a bad impression about the whole composition.

John (1997:54)

2.12.2 Brainstorming:

Writing is a progressive activity. This means that when students first write something down, they have already been thinking about what they are going to say and how they are going to say it. Then after they have finished writing, they read over what they have written and make changes and corrections. Therefore, writing is never a one-step action; it is a process that has several steps. Prewriting is the first step in the writing process. In this step, students gather ideas to write about. Learners should be aware that, one way to gather ideas is to discuss a topic with their classmates and take notes. Jean Wyrick(2002:3)

2.12.3 Introduction:

The opening of an essay which typically identifies the topic, arouses interest, and prepares the audience for the development of the thesis. The primary purpose of an introductory paragraph is to attract the reader's attention and identify the topic and purpose of the essay. A thesis statement typically appears at the end of an introductory paragraph. Jean Wyrick (2002:31)

2.12.4 The Topic Sentence

The topic sentence is the most general statement of the paragraph. It is the key sentence because it names the subject and the controlling idea: the writer's main idea, opinion, or feeling about that topic. The topic sentence can come at the beginning or at the end of a paragraph. You should write your topic sentence as the first sentence of your paragraph for two reasons. First, it will tell the reader what you are going to say. Second, you can look back at the topic sentence often as you write the supporting sentences. It will help you stay on the subject as you write. The topic sentence is a complete sentence. It has three parts:

a subject, a verb, and a controlling idea. John Langan (1997:36)

Determining the subject of a topic sentence is a process of narrowing down an idea from general to specific. When the instructor suggests a very general topic, such as college, vacations, or nuclear power, for a writing assignment, learners must narrow it down to a limited topic that can be discussed in one paragraph. For example, the topic of sports, such as professional sports, team or individual sports, or water sports, that they can discuss. One writer might narrow down the subject of sports to the more specific subject of river rafting.

2-12-5 The Parts of a Paragraph

A paragraph is an orderly arrangement of sentences related to a single topic. Each paragraph should have unity, coherence, and proper emphasis. When writing a paragraph, students should write a true topic sentence. A topic sentence is the point that opens a paragraph. It is made up of two parts:

- i. The limited topic.
 - ii. The writer's idea about the limited topic.
- e.g. Car accidents are often caused by over taking.

In the above example the topic is 'car accident' and the keyword is 'often caused by over taking'. If a student makes one point and sticks to that point, he will have unity in his paragraph.

A paragraph is a group of related sentences that develops one main idea, which is the topic of the paragraph. Each paragraph is a separate unit. It is marked by indenting the first word from the left-hand margin or by leaving extra space above and below the paragraph. A paragraph is made up of three kinds of sentences that develop the writer's main idea, opinion, or feeling about a subject. These sentences are (a) the topic sentence, (b) supporting sentences, and (c) the concluding sentence. The writer may add a final comment after the conclusion. Jean Wyrick (2002:47)

River Rafting

River rafting is a challenging sport with important requirements. First of all, planning your trip carefully ensures your safety at all times. Therefore, the river-rafting company you choose should have a good safety record. You can select a river rafting trip from level i (no experience) to level vi (the most experience). At level i, the river moves slowly and does not have many dangerous rocks and boulders, so you can actually enjoy the scenery. At each level up the scale, there is an increasing number of powerful waves and dangerous rocks. When the river is high from melting snow, the current is fast, and the ride is rough. Therefore, it is only for the most experienced river runner. In addition, river rafting requires special equipment. You ride an inflatable rubber boat with an expertly trained guide and a group of six to eight people. Everyone must wear a life jacket and a helmet and be able to use a paddle at the more difficult levels. Finally, you must be alert at all times. You must stay safely in the raft as it makes its way down the raging river. The guide will shout instructions, and the passengers must obey instantly and work as a team to avoid

disaster. The chances of falling overboard are great. When someone does, the passengers will try to grab and pull him or her aboard. Because river conditions can be dangerous at the higher levels of difficulty, the wild, exciting adventure is only for the courageous and experienced. In short, if you are fearless and in good physical condition and can react quickly, river rafting is the ideal outdoor sport for you.

2-12-5-1 The Topic Sentence:

In the above paragraph entitled "River Rafting", the first sentence is the topic sentence. It tells the reader what the paragraph is about: requirements for river rafting. The fifteen supporting sentences that follow supply the details about river rafting. The seventeenth, or next to last, sentence is the concluding sentence. It makes a final statement about the topic and tells the reader that the paragraph is finished. The very last sentence is the writer's comment about the subject. Now, learners can study each part of the paragraph in detail.

2-12-5-2 Supporting Sentences:

The next part of the paragraph is the supporting sentences. They develop the topic sentence by giving specific details about the topic. In order to choose details to support the topic sentence, rephrase it as a question, and then answer that question with your supporting sentences. For example, in the model paragraph you read about river rafting, the topic sentence is "River rafting is a changing sport with important requirements." If you turn that statement into a question, it will say :

What important requirements are necessary for river rafting? The supporting sentences in the paragraph must answer this question by explaining what the important requirements are. You can see that the supporting sentences list the important requirements for river rafting.

Another question students can ask about their topic sentence is how they can prove this. Their supporting sentences should give some facts or examples that prove their topic sentence is true. For example, suppose they wrote this topic sentence: Traditional American family relationships have changed greatly in the last

thirtyyears. They could then ask themselves how they can prove that this is true. They could prove or support it by giving facts such as these:

x out of x marriages end in divorce (in the United States).

x out of x children live in homes with only one parent.

x percent of couples living together are not legally married.

Still another way to develop their topic sentence is to give examples. Suppose they wrote this topic sentence:

Tokyo is the most expensive city in the world.

How can this topic sentence be proved? Student can prove or support this topic sentence by giving examples of the cost of different activities in Tokyo such as these:

Cost of a dinner at a medium-priced restaurant

Rent for an average two-bedroom apartment

Cost of a ride on public transportation

Cost of a medium- -priced hotel room

In short, in order to develop their topic sentence, students must write supporting sentences that prove, or support, their idea. An easy way to do this is to rephrase their topic sentence as a question or to ask themselves:

How can this be proved?

2.12-5-3The Concluding Sentence :

After students have finished writing the last sentence supporting the main point of a paragraph, they must end the paragraph with a concluding sentence. This sentence tells the reader that the paragraph is finished, and it completes the development of the subject of the paragraph.

The concluding sentence is like the topic sentence because both are general statements. However, the topic sentence is usually the first sentence, a general statement that introduces the topic to be discussed in the paragraph. The concluding sentence is also a general statement, but it is the last sentence and ends the paragraph. The concluding sentence reminds the reader of the topic sentence in fact, the concluding sentence can be written like the topic sentence but in different words.

When a student writes a concluding sentence, he, can use one of the following methods :

State the topic sentence in different words, not just copy the topic sentence.

Summarize some (or all of the main points in the paragraph.

Begin the concluding sentence with a phrase that tells the reader that the paragraph is completed:

All in all,..... In other words,.....

In any event,..... In short,.....

In brief,..... Therefore,.....

Indeed,.....

Here are examples of topic sentences:

River rafting is a challenging sport with important requirements. Mountain climbing is a very hazardous sport with special requirements and strict climbing rules.

Here are the concluding sentences for each of the above topic sentences:

(In short,) if you are fearless and in good physical condition and can react quickly, river rafting is the ideal outdoor sport for you. Enjoy the glorious landscape, for that is your reward for having made it to the top of the mountain! Alice & Ann (1997:75)

2- 12- 5- 4The Concluding Comment:

After the concluding sentence of a paragraph, a student may add a concluding comment. This sentence is the writer's final comment or thought about the subject of the paragraph. The purpose of the final comment is to give the reader something to think about and to remember about the paragraph. In the following example, the second sentence is the writer's final comment about river rafting.

Because river conditions can be dangerous at the higher levels of difficulty, the wild, exciting adventure is only for the courageous and experienced. In short, if you are fearless and in good physical condition and can react quickly, then river rafting is the ideal outdoor sport for you.

A paragraph is a group of related statements that a writer develops about a subject. The first sentence states the specific point, or idea, of the topic. The rest of the sentences in the paragraph support that point, or idea.

An essay is a piece of writing that has more than one paragraph. It is divided into three parts:

a beginning, a middle, and an end. The beginning is called the introduction, the middle is called the body, and the end is called the conclusion. The introduction and the conclusion are usually one paragraph each. The body may have from one to an unlimited number of paragraphs.

Mother of Hope

Mother Teresa was a Roman Catholic nun in Calcutta, India. She worked with many nuns who belong to the Order of the Missionaries of Charity. The order feeds the poor and has established schools, orphanages, and youth centres. People everywhere admired Mother Teresa for her dedication to destitute adults and children all over the world.

Mother Teresa 'Agnes GonxhaBojaxhiu' was born on August 27, 1910, in Skopje ("sko-pee-ay"), the capital city of Macedonia. Her family was very religious and helped the hungry and homeless. When she was nine, her father died and life became difficult. However, the family was happy and full of love.

At eighteen, Agnes became a nun at the Loreto Abbey in Dublin, Ireland, and adopted the name Mary Teresa. A few months later, she became a teacher at the Loreto Convent School in Calcutta, India, where she taught the daughters of wealthy people. Later, she was named the principal of the school and was called Mother Teresa.

In 1948, Mother Teresa left the order to live among and to help the poorest people in Calcutta. After she learned about the illnesses of the poor, she started to work with the Missionaries of Charity and medical professionals who had volunteered their help. Subsequently, her work expanded to ninety-five countries,

including Venezuela, Italy, Tanzania, Great Britain, Australia, and the United States.

Mother Teresa was admired all over the world for her work. In 1979, she was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in Norway. Young Norwegians presented her with thousands of dollars they had collected to help her in her work. At Harvard University graduation ceremonies, Mother Teresa received an honorary award. The day before the ceremony, she spoke to the graduates, who listened with great respect and gave her a standing ovation. In November 1995, in a ceremony at St. Paul's Church in San Francisco, thirty nuns became volunteers for Mother Teresa. Indeed, Mother Teresa was respected by people in all walks of life."

Mother Teresa died on September 6, 1997 at the age of 87. Mother Teresa had spent most of her life caring for the forgotten people of the world. She felt unworthy of the many honors she had received. However, they enabled her to raise funds to continue her fine work among the destitute, and for that, she was truly grateful.

Each paragraph is a separate unit that is marked by indenting the first word from the left-hand margin or, as shown in the essay about Mother Teresa, by leaving extra space above and below the paragraph. For example, the essay about Mother Teresa has six paragraphs. The first paragraph is the introduction. It names the topic of the essay, Mother Teresa. It describes Mother Teresa's life and her work at the order with the other nuns. The last paragraph is the conclusion. It brings the essay to a close and ends with the writer's final thoughts to give the reader something to think about. The second through fourth paragraphs in the middle are the body, which develops the main points of the essay. Each body paragraph discusses a different feature of the subject.

Paragraph 2 (the first body paragraph) tells about Mother Teresa's early life at home with her family. Paragraph 3 (the second body paragraph) tells about her decision to become a nun and her positions as teacher and principal. paragraph 4 (the third body paragraph) describes her life and work with the poor and sick people

in Calcutta, India. Paragraph 5(the fourth body paragraph)explains people's admiration for Mother Teresa and the awards she had received.

Alice & Ann(1997:4)

2-13 How to Develop a Paragraph

David, (1994:137) argues that, a paragraph can be more effective if it is unified. In other words, all the details in the paragraph should be on target, supporting the topic sentence. Learners should use sentences of moderate length. Every sentence must contain a finite verb and its sense should be complete. Too many short sentences should be avoided as they may give the feeling of monotony. Sentences should be well linked and coherent. They must be arranged in a logical order. Coherence can be achieved by the use of transitional devices such as “however”, “ as a result “, “but” etc. A good paragraph should contain introductory sentences, supporting sentences and concluding sentences. Learners can obtain emphasis if they place the most important ideas in the most emphatic positions. Each paragraph should discuss a particular integral and complementary idea. A good conclusion to a paragraph is paramount.

Traditionally, writing has been divided into several forms. There are nine patterns of paragraph development:

1. Exposition which includes: a) Examples b) Comparison or contrast c) Process
d) Definition e) Cause and effect f) Division and classification
2. Description 3. Narration 4. Argumentation or persuasion

Langan(1997:135)

Here are some important instructions to follow when students handwrite or type essay assignments:

2-13-1 Handwritten Paragraph

Students should use 8 1/2- inch by 11-inch lined, three-hole binder paper. The three holes should be on the left side as they write. Teachers have to remind them to write on one side of the paper only. In addition, learners should write their name on the top right corner, and center the title on the top line. They ought to leave one

blank line, and start their paragraph on the third line. Moreover, they should indent one inch from the left margin to begin the paragraph, and leave the left and right margins blank. They ought to remember not to write in the margins. They should be reminded to leave a blank line between each line of writing, and to leave the bottom line blank.

www.handwritingworksheets.com/flash/printdots/paragraph/

2-13-2 Typed Paragraph:

Learners should use 8 1/2-inch by 11-inch white paper, and type on one side of the paper only. They should type their name in the top right corner, and center the title about 1 1/2 inches from the top edge of the paper. Four blank lines between the title and the first line of their paragraph must be left. They should indent five spaces to begin the paragraph. Learners have to leave one-inch margins on both sides and the bottom of the paper, and they must not type in the margins. They should double space. (leave one blank line between each line of typing.)

www.fsymbols.com/computer/paragraph/

2.14 Teaching a Free Writing Lesson

To teach composition efficiently, first and foremost the teacher has to introduce the subject, clarify difficulties and write cue words and outlines. Students then discuss and communicate facts and ideas from their own experience, to use English in a realistic context. The teacher may ask students individually to speak about each point written on the blackboard. Students are encouraged to ask further questions for getting more information about each point. Thus, the whole class will be involved in this lively discussion. The teacher then follows the same technique in dealing with the other points.

Students can write important words, expressions or structures while the discussion is going on. Learners are given assignments to be done as homework. They should prepare a rough draft on the subject that has been discussed orally. While they are writing, the teacher moves around the room to give individual help provided that learners' concentration should never be distracted.

The teacher may remind the learners about the features that lead to ambiguity, redundancy in expression, incoherence or lack of sequence and subject development. Students can write creatively if they can avoid the afore-mentioned features. The final step in composition writing procedures is the reinforcing or re-teaching process. In order to reinforce some grammatical constructions or other items involved in composition writing, the teacher after having finished with marking, may re-teach the composition and provide the learners with exercises (oral or written). Al-Matawa and Kailani, (1989,139) stress that, alternatively, learners could be organized into 'buzz' groups of four or five to discuss the outlines. They should be asked to prepare a rough draft of their composition. They may be asked to refer to appropriate books and newspapers, or they can consult friends and family members.

All ideas that learners advance, must be supported with specific reasons or details. A reader should be provided with the basis for understanding. Students must use specific, rather than general phrases, words or sentences. Specific words create pictures in the reader's mind. They help capture interest and make meaning clear. Learners need to organize and connect the specific evidence and clear error-free sentences. Learners must make a striking opening; if they make a poor beginning, they prejudice the reader against them. On the other hand, if their conclusion is weak, the reader will have a bad impression about the whole composition. Teachers can apply the following technique. They can write the word 'Power' vertically on the blackboard. 'P' stands for plan, 'o' symbolizes organize, 'w' stands for write, 'e' indicates edit and finally, 'r' symbolizes re-write.

2.11 Organization

A paragraph is a group of related statements that a writer develops about a subject. The first sentence states the specific point, or idea, of the topic. The rest of the sentences in the paragraph support that point, or idea.

An essay is a piece of writing that has more than one paragraph. It is divided into three parts: a beginning, a middle, and an end. The beginning is called the introduction, the middle is called the body, and the end is called the conclusion. The

introduction and the conclusion are usually one paragraph each. The body may have from one to an unlimited number of paragraphs.

Alice & Anne (1997:98)

Hillocks (1986:113) describes instructional mode as the role the teacher plays in the classroom as well as the different types of activities he carries out and their sequence. In addition, the specificity and clarity of the objectives of the learning tasks. He points out three main instructional modes found in classrooms – the presentational, natural process and environmental modes. The presentational mode of teaching writing has relatively clear and specific objectives. In addition, the teacher should prompt learners to discuss concepts they need to learn and apply. Besides, the learners study models and materials that explain and clarify the concept. Teachers give learners certain exercises which follow previously learned rules or initiating a new pattern. It is a prerequisite for teachers to give students feedback on their writing. The most widely used approach to writing instruction is the presentational mode. It is the least effective of the three modes which Hillocks identified and studied. The natural process mode has general objectives, it tends to increase fluency and skill in writing. In addition, it prompts the learners to practise free writing about interesting topics. It also encourages them to write for peers, and get positive feedback from them. Moreover, it provides learners with opportunities to revise their writing product and highly interact with each other. According to Hillocks, this mode is 50 percent more effective than the presentational mode. Instruction in the environmental mode has clear and certain objectives. In addition, the materials and problems which teachers select should keep students engaged with each other to carry out certain processes which are significant to some components of writing.

Besides, students in small groups, ought to practise activities about solving problems and hold discussions, which are suitable to peer interaction to deal with certain tasks. Hillocks holds that, "In contrast to the natural process mode, the concrete tasks of the environmental mode make objectives operationally clear by

engaging students in their pursuit through structured tasks" (p. 122). The environmental mode proved to be over four times more effective than the traditional presentational mode and three times more effective than the natural process mode.

<http://www.ioe.ac.uk/ghillocks/ghillockspaper>

2.14-2 Editing

Editing is a necessary part of the writing process. When a student edits something he has written he inevitably makes it better. This is especially true when it comes to writing essays. Proofreading and editing an essay can seem tedious, but it is actually a simple task if a student tackles it in an organized manner. Learners should remember to take it slow and check for one thing at a time. Chances are learners used a word processor to compose their essay. Most word processing programs are equipped with a spellchecker. To begin editing their essay, learners need to use the spellchecker option to check for spelling errors. They correct problems as they go. Next, they need to use the grammar checker on their word processing program (if it has one) to check for grammar errors. Most grammar checkers now look for comma usage, run-on sentences, passive sentences, tense problems, and more. Using their judgment and the grammar checker's suggestions, learners can edit their essay.

Now it's time for learners to begin manually checking their essay. They should print a copy. Errors will be easier to catch on paper than on a computer screen. They ought to begin by reading the thesis statement of their essay. Is it clear and easy to understand? Does the content of the essay properly support the statement? If not, they should consider revising the statement to reflect the content. Learners need to make sure that their introduction is concise and adequately developed. It should be more than a statement of their intentions and opinion. The introduction should set the tone of their essay- a tone that continues throughout. The tone should be consistent with the subject matter and the audience that they want to reach. In addition, learners should check the paragraph structure of their essay.

Each paragraph should contain pertinent information and be free of empty sentences. Moreover, students have to get rid of any sentence that seems slightly

irrelevant. They should also check their transition sentences. Their essay will appear choppy if there is not a clear transition from one idea into the next. The conclusion of their essay should reference their thesis statement. It should also be consistent with the structure and/or argument of their essay. Learners should take extra time to polish their conclusion. It will be the last thing the reader sees and the first thing that they remember. Students then read their essay aloud and pause in their reading as punctuation indicates. This will help them determine how their essay flows and sounds. If students hear something that they don't like, they should change it and see if it sounds better.

Once the content of their essay has been rewritten, it's essential that learners manually check for spelling, grammar, and punctuation errors. Their word processor will not catch everything. Check carefully for subject/verb agreement, tense sequence, plurals and possessives, fragments, run-ons, and comma usage. Once they have checked all of these things, they should check again. If possible, have someone else read their essay and offer suggestions for improvement. If they don't have anyone who can do this for them, they should do it themselves. Because they've spent so much time looking at it by now, they should set their essay aside for a couple of days before going back to it. This will allow them to critique it with a fresh pair of eyes. They ought to use a word processing program to do one last spell check and grammar check. If time allows, they need to read through it one more time before handing it in. Alice&Ann(1997:45)

2-14-3 Ten Tips for Proofreading Effectively

The following 10 tips should help students see or hear their errors before anybody else does:

i. Give it a rest:

If time allows, students should set their text aside for a few hours (or days) after they've finished composing, and then proofread it with fresh eyes. Rather than remember the perfect paper they meant to write, they're more likely to see what they've actually written.

ii. Look for one type of problem at a time:

Students ought to read through their text several times, concentrating first on sentence structures, then word choice, then spelling, and finally punctuation. As the saying goes, if you look for trouble, you're likely to find it.

iii. Double-check facts, figures, and proper names:

In addition to reviewing for correct spelling and usage, students should make sure that all the information in their text is accurate.

iv. Review a hard copy:

Students have to print out their text and review it line by line: rereading their work in a different format may help them catch errors that they previously missed.

v. Read your text aloud:

A student can ask a friend or colleague to read it aloud. They may hear a problem (a faulty verb ending, for example, or a missing word) that they haven't been able to see.

vi. Use a spellchecker:

The spellchecker can help learners catch repeated words, reversed letters, and many other common errors--but it's certainly not foolproof.

vii. Trust your dictionary:

Learners' spellchecker can tell them only if a word is a word, not if it's the right word. For instance, if they're not sure whether sand is in a desert or a dessert, they could visit the dictionary (or our Glossary of Commonly Confused Words).

viii. Read your text backward:

For catching spelling errors learners can read backward, from right to left, starting with the last word in their text. Doing this will help them focus on individual words rather than sentences.

ix. Create your own proofreading checklist:

Keep a list of the types of mistakes they commonly make, and then refer to that list each time they proofread.

xii. Ask for help:

Students may invite someone else to proofread their text after they have reviewed it. A new set of eyes may immediately spot errors that they've overlooked.

<https://newportal.wis.edu.hk/.../TenTipsforproofreadingEffectively.pdf>

2-15 Punctuation

Punctuation is necessary to make sentence meaning clear. The meanings of the following two sentences are different:

Stop Bill!

Stop, Bill!

The first sentence tells someone to stop Bill. The second sentence tells Bill to stop. There are three punctuation marks that learners can use at the end of a sentence : the period, the question mark, and the exclamation mark.

A period (full stop) should be put at the end of a statement.

e.g. My name is Khalid Ahmed.

I don't like to give interviews.

Learners must put a question mark at the end of a question.

e.g. What is your name?

Do you speak English?

They have to put an exclamation mark at the end of a sentence to show strong feeling.

It sure is hot today!

I'm crazy about soccer!

Learners should be cautious not to over use exclamation marks. They can compare these two paragraphs:

The telephone rang at midnight! I ran to answer it! I didn't hear a voice! I said, " Hello! " There was no answer! I was frightened!

The telephone rang at midnight. I ran to answer it. I didn't hear a voice. I said, " Hello!" There was no answer. I was frightened!

The first paragraph has too many exclamation marks. The second paragraph, with only one exclamation mark at the end of the last sentence to show strong

feeling, is more effective. The teacher can ask a good student to display the rules for using punctuation marks. Teachers provide learners with clear meaningful sentences. Using the PowerPoint groups do an exercise by rewriting sentences with full punctuation. The group that has the fewest mistakes is the winner. Punctuation marks must be highlighted.

Another bright student displays sentences that are wrongly punctuated. This exercise of error analysis is very important. Students in their groups are asked to rewrite the sentences with correct punctuation. The group that writes all the sentences correctly is the winner.

For further practice and consolidation, teachers can ask a group to design a task for its reciprocal group to do. The group that doesn't commit any mistake is the winner, hence, it should be awarded a prize on condition that the teacher makes sure that each group member can do the task correctly on his own.

Alternatively, groups have to do a task on computer. They have to add the correct punctuation missing. Teacher walks round giving help and guidance where needed. Groups are assigned a task to do for homework by exchanging e-mails or by chatting whichever they find easier and more interesting.

Finally, all groups e-mail the teacher giving feedback. Learners are advised to highlight their punctuation marks. The winning group must be awarded a good prize provided that every member should convince the teacher by giving an adequate evidence of his understanding of the task.

JeanWyrick(2002:499)

The teacher may divide the class into groups and gives each group a set of cards containing nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The teacher makes four columns on the whiteboard and writes nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The game goes like this: Each group try to sort out the jumbled words as quickly as they can. The quickest group to sort the cards is the winner. Alternatively, the teacher sticks the cards at random into the four columns. Then he encourages each group to rearrange them as quickly as possible. The winning group is the one which is the

quickest to finish. Another technique is to stick the cards face down at random into the four columns, then each group try to rearrange the cards faster than the other groups. Furthermore, a teacher could flash a card which contains a verb for two seconds and asks groups to write the word down, the group that writes all the verbs displayed correctly wins. Then teacher extends the game to incorporate nouns, adjectives and adverbs.

The three above techniques can be adopted when dealing with infinitive, past and past participle (irregular verbs). For further practice, teachers can stick the verbs with missing infinitives, past form or participle. Students provide the missing words by writing them correctly. The teacher may think of displaying the regular and irregular verbs, sometimes omitting the infinitive, the past form or the participle.

Alternatively each group carries out the exercise differently and the correspondent group has to provide the missing words. The group with the fewest mistakes is the winner. The teacher assigns the groups an exercise on computer and lets them work on their own. Then the teacher allows them two minutes to finish. The teacher monitors them and goes round giving help and guidance where necessary. The group with the fewest mistakes is the winner.

For homework, group leaders exchange e-mails or chat with each other practising. Finally, each group sends feedback to the teacher. The winning group must have all its members fully understand the task. The teacher checks and makes sure each student in the winning group can give the correct answers orally and in writing.

Jermy (2000:243)

2-16 Capitalization:

Teachers ought to make learners aware that a title is used to attract attention and generally tells the reader what to expect. It is usually a phrase, not a sentence. Although a one-paragraph composition does not require a title, students should use one for each writing assignment. A title will help them keep their mind on the topic as they write. It would be more effective if the PowerPoint is used with capital letters

highlighted. Teachers should distribute handouts containing examples and tasks. Then the teacher explains the objective and what the learners are expected to do.

Learners should capitalize the first, last, and important words in a title.

e.g. Chose Vacation Spot

They should not capitalize short prepositions such as :on, to, in, and for; short,e.g. How to Fight Stress. Conjunctions such as and, or, and so; and the articles a, an, and the should not be capitalized.

e. g. Winning the Lottery

Learners ought to be reminded to capitalize a short word if it is the first word in a title. The problem of, Single Parenting , The Advantages of, Public Transportation Teachers ought to familiarize the learners with the following important rules for capitalization. The first word of a sentence and the pronoun I should be capitalized. e.g. Mother Teresa is admired for her work all over the world. The nuns and I try to care for poor, sick people throughout the world. Learners should capitalize abbreviations and acronyms, which are words formed from the first letters of the words in the names of organizations such as:

USA AIDS UN UNICEF WHO

Proper nouns which include names of deities should be capitalized. e.g.

God , Allah , Shiva

Learners should capitalize names of people and their titles, such as: Jane P. Doe, Ph.D. , Diana, Princess of Wales

Dr. Jonas Salk , Professor Henry Higgins , Mr. and Mrs. John O. A title without a name should not be capitalized.

e.g. the general, the prime Minister, the math Professor, the prince, the king . Students ought to capitalize names of specific places they could find on a map, such as:

Gary, Indian Lake Victoria, Mediterranean Sea , Telegraph Avenue North, First Street

Names of days, months, and special days must be capitalized.

e.g. Monday , Independence, January Ramadan

However, the names of the seasons need not be capitalized.

e. g. summer, spring

Learners should capitalize names of specific groups of people (nationalities, races, and ethnic groups) languages and religions. e.g.

Asian, Russian, , Moslem , American , English , Jehovah's Witness Arabic

Names of geographic areas should be capitalized.

e.g. The Middle East, the Southwest, the North, Jane's home is in the South, but Tom comes from the East Coast. But learners ought not to capitalize the names of compass directions.

e.g. Drive east for two blocks and then turn south.

They should capitalize names of school subjects with course numbers.

e.g. Business Administration , 17 B German 101, Chemistry 10 A

However, they should not capitalize names of classes without numbers,except languages, for example:

computer science, business administration, Economics, German conversation, English composition

Names of specific structures such as buildings and bridges must be capitalized.

e.g. Golden Gate Bridge, Park Plaza Hotel, the White House,

Kensington Palace . Teachers should point out that (businesses, clubs, schools) ought to be capitalized.e.g.

Sears, Roebuck & Co. , Muscat Bank, International Student's Club, University of California, St. Mary's High School, American Heart Association

Furthermore, titles of compositions, stories, books, magazines, newspapers, plays, poems, and movies must be capitalized. Introducing Myself, Introduction to Academic Writing, All Quiet on the Western Front, Star Wars

Alice&Ann (1997:10)

2-17 Sentence Variety

If students follow the same pattern when writing sentences, their writing product may become boring and monotonous. To create variety and interest in their writing style, learners can use four different methods.

- i. Add a second complete thought (coordination) e.g. Ahmed turned all the lights off, and then he locked the door.
- ii. Add a dependent thought (subordination) e.g. Even though I was tired, I stayed up to watch the horror film.
- iii. Begin with a special opening word or phrase.

Students can use five openers to start their sentences:

- a. Past participle: -ed word, e.g. Tired from a long day of work, Adil fell asleep on the mat.
- b. Gerund: -ing word, e.g. Using the fax machine, Nadir sent the message quickly.
- c. Adverbs and adjectives: -ly word, e.g. Reluctantly, she agreed to write the letter.
- d. Word group: e.g. To get to the airport on time, you must leave now.
- e. Prepositional phrase: e.g. With Omar's help, Fatma painted very beautiful pictures.
- iv. place adjectives or verbs in a series. e.g.

Khalid put the big brown bag into his small yellow car.

Before the Eid, Nadia made some cakes, decorated the house, and bought a lot of sweets.

Langan(1997:537)

2-18 Group Work:

As the adoption of a pupil-centred learning process is one of the aims of this study, teachers need to lay much emphasis on group work. Group work can make learners more interactive and confident. Exchange of ideas among the group members can help learners become more communicative and productive. The communicative skill is of great importance for both oral and written product. Moreover, learners can practise English in context through role play, dialogues or interviews. Kral (1999:160)

Secondary school students can also develop their spelling ability through group work activities, dictation and games such as “hangman out”. In this game, pupils are usually divided into two groups, then from each group a member is selected for a spelling competition. If any of the two competitors makes a mistake, he/she will move one step towards a gibbet. If he finishes the six steps then he will be hanged out. Alternatively, learners can be exposed to a variety of exercises such as: plurals of nouns, of numbers, of letters of words ending in ‘y’ doubling final consonant, suffixes, combinations and abbreviations. Learners can also improve their spelling by:

- i. using the dictionary
- ii. keeping a personal spelling list.
- iii. mastering commonly confused words
- iv. understanding basic spelling rules
- v. studying a basic spelling list

To help students write a coherent composition, teachers need to equip their students with transitional words or phrases such as:

Addition: e.g. and, furthermore, also.

Comparison: e.g. likewise, similarly.

Result: e.g. accordingly, hence, therefore, etc.

Contrast and concession: e.g. although, but, even if, whereas, however.

Passage of time: e.g. at least, afterwards, then.

Enumeration: e.g. first, second, finally etc.

Example: e.g. for example, in other words, namely.

Summary: e.g. in brief, in conclusion.

Other connecting words: e.g. repeated words, pronouns, synonyms etc.

Group work can be an effective technique if it is applied correctly and properly. It is not only motivating learners, but it fosters active learning and develops critical thinking. In addition, communication and decision-making skills could be

enhanced through it. However, it involves careful planning, or else , it may turn out to be so frustrating to both learners and instructors.

If teachers would like to implement group work successfully in their classrooms, they should be aware of the objective of the activity. They should start by giving a relatively easy task in the beginning of the term to arouse students interest in group work and encourage their progress. Collaborative exercises should be stimulating and challenging.

Groups of 4-5 tend to balance well the need for diversity, productivity, active participation and cohesion. The less skillful the group members, the smaller the groups should be. The teacher ought to have students form groups before he gives them instructions. Students work best together if they know or trust each other.

The teacher should have students introduce themselves to their group members. He has to consider introducing an ice-breaker or an activity designed especially to build a sense of teamwork. A teacher should explain the task clearly. Learners should know exactly what they have to do. Teachers need to describe what the final product of their group work will look like. Visual structures like charts and sequential diagrams are as helpful as sentence starters and specific questions. Teachers should give learners a time limit. Learners can work much better when they face a challenge, and they feel that they are racing against time.

Teachers have to assign group tasks that encourage involvement, interdependence, and a fair division of labour. All group members should feel a sense of personal responsibility for the success of their team mates and realize that their individual success depends on the group's success. In addition, teachers ought to allocate essential resources across the group, so that group members are required to share information (e.g., "Jigsaw" method) or to come up with a consensus; randomly select one person to speak for the group; or assign different roles to the group members so that they are all involved in the process (e.g., recorder, spokesperson, summarizer, checker, skeptic, organizer, observer, timekeeper, conflict

resolver, liaison to other groups). Knowing that peers are relying on the group leader is a powerful motivator for group work.

Another strategy for promoting interdependence is specifying common rewards for the group, such as a group mark. The size a teacher chooses will depend on the number of students, the size of the classroom, the variety of voices needed within a group, and the task assigned. In addition, the teacher should prepare written instructions for the students. The teacher could either post the instructions on an overhead or PowerPoint slide or, if some of the groups will leave the room, distribute a handout.

Setting ground rules for group interaction is of vital importance. Especially for extended periods of group work, a teacher can establish how group members should interact with one another, mentioning principles such as respect, active listening, and methods for decision making.

A teacher needs to let students ask questions. Even if he believes that his instructions are crystal-clear, students may very well have legitimate questions about the activity. The teacher should give them time to ask questions before they get to work.

As students do their work, the teacher has to circulate among the groups and answer any questions raised. However, the teacher has to be unobtrusive and avoid interfering with group functioning; he should allow time for students to solve their own problems before getting involved. He can even consider leaving the room for a short period of time, because his absence can increase students' willingness to share uncertainties and disagreements (Jaques : 2000). He has to express his confidence in them as he circulates the room. If the teacher happens to come upon a group that is experiencing uncertainty or disagreement, he should avoid the natural tendency to give the answers or resolve the disagreement. The learning that is accomplished through group work might be slower, but it is generally harder won and thus better. If necessary, the teacher may clarify his instructions, but he should let students struggle—within reason—to accomplish the task. (Race:2000).

2-19 Correcting English Compositions

Part of ineffective teaching also is the negligence of common mistakes. White (1980:109) argues that, " We can learn a lot from our students' errors for they are often a better guide to improve our teaching." This shows that learners learn some of the teachers knowledge, while teachers can learn from their learners' mistakes.

When correcting pupils' compositions, the teacher may circle all the mistakes, or selected ones would be enough. The teacher may circle the mistakes which he/she thinks they will not reappear, as the correct forms have been mentioned during the discussion stage. On no account should the teacher write the correct alternative form on the learners' papers, as spoon-feeding can negatively affect learning composition. Teachers must make sure that their learners have corrected their mistakes.

Alternatively, every teacher can develop his/her own correction symbols and get his/her students well acquainted with them. Teachers must underline mistakes and they must write in the margin some symbols which indicate the different types of mistakes: SP= spelling, S-V=subject-verb agreement, prep= wrong preposition, tns=wrong tense, ||= new paragraph, ww= wrong word, neg= wrong negative form,

Johnson, (1976,101) argues that, " In a majority of cases, dull writing probably can be traced back to the teacher." This purports that, any underachievement in composition writing could be attributed to the performance of the teacher. In other words, inefficient writing can indicate improper teaching. Morris (1956: 138) asserts that for achieving a good performance in free composition writing, teachers need to discuss the subject orally and make notes. This shows that, what pupils say orally constitutes the form of their writing. Al-Matawa and Kailani (1989:137) raise the point that pupils may write a rough draft of their composition at home, but the final copy must be written in class. This would ensure that pupils use their own knowledge and ideas, because they may resort to outside sources such as parents or friends for the sake of help.

Harmer (2000:263) states that, "interest is a primary ingredient of motivation." So, if teachers of English would like to get their pupils adequately motivated to improve their writing skill, they have to choose topics of interest in composition writing. Kral (1999 :172) supports this idea, stressing that, "It is much more difficult for students to write if they are required to write about something they have no interest in." This implies that learners should be provided with topics that lend themselves to facility of expression. It is advisable that teachers may start with descriptive and narrative topics or letter-writing, and later they can introduce argumentative, expository or abstract writing.

Being a highly complex area of ELT, composition needs to be taught properly. Believing that composition is a rather complicated activity, Amiran and Mann (1982:3) claim that "Students do not and cannot write well." Teachers should remember that a high level of proficiency can be achieved through a pupil-centred learning process. In other words, a teacher should engage the whole class in a lively discussion, to get across ideas and facts. To allow for individual practice, the teacher's talking time should be minimized. If learners are adequately motivated and well taught, teachers can ensure fruitful results. This can presumably be achieved if teachers adopt and foster the use of PowerPoint in a creative way. In addition, modern technology and technological media such as e-mail can cleverly be exploited. Morris, points out that, "Written mistakes left unchecked tend to become habitual." This necessitates the immediate checking and rectification of mistakes.

2-20 Feedback:

Although it has been agreed that the teacher's written feedback should cover form, content and organization. However, it is still debatable which elements must feedback focus on and emphasize. According to Ferris (2002) , grammar comes first since it can help learners improve their language accuracy in the short term. Hence, this short-term improvement is important for the long-term progress of learners.

Reid (1993:218) advocates the view that " error feedback must help students improve their writing by communicating feedback detailed enough to allow students to act, to commit to change in their writings." Nevertheless, some researchers have a quite different attitude towards teacher error feedback. They hold that excessive attention to student errors could be offensive and discouraging to student writers. In addition, it could also be so harmful as it can change the shift of students and teachers time and attention from more significant aspects of writing, such as process, development of ideas and organization.

2-21 Remedial Work:

The final step in composition writing procedures is the reinforcing or re-teaching process. In order to reinforce some grammatical organized constructions or other items involved in composition writing, the teacher after having finished with marking, may re-teach the composition and provide the learners with exercises (oral or written).

Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989:139) stress that, alternatively, learners could be organized into 'buzz' groups of four or five to discuss the outlines. They should be asked to prepare a rough draft of their composition. They may be asked to refer to appropriate books and newspapers, or they can consult friends or family members.

2-22 Techniques of Teaching Free Writing in Oman

In Oman, teaching of English composition is graded. Learners are first exposed to controlled composition, then guided and free composition, which is introduced at a later stage (Preparatory Level)

2-22-1 Controlled Composition:

Learners start learning controlled composition at the elementary level. They practise different techniques such as: missing words, word ordering, rearrangement of sentences, etc.

2-22-2 Guided Composition:

Students start learning this type of composition at the preparatory level as well as the secondary level. They practise techniques such as: pictorial exercise, letter writing, narrative exercises etc. At the secondary level, most of the students' guided writing is centred on pictures, tables with some information, spider-gram and timeline techniques.

2-22-3 Free Composition:

In Oman learners begin learning descriptive and narrative writing at the preparatory level. Langan (1988:171) asserts that "When you describe something or someone, you give a picture in words to your readers." This involves careful use of vocabulary as descriptive writing requires sharp colourful details on the part of the students. Omani learners are often asked to write a short description of an object or a person or tell a story or describe a journey or narrate a series of past time events. Free writing is focused on descriptive and narrative. In other words, free composition is developed in chronological order and spatial order.

2.24 Teaching of Free Writing Through Computer

What is PowerPoint?

PowerPoint is a complete presentation graphics package. It gives people everything they need to produce a professional-looking presentation. Moreover, it offers word processing, outlining, drawing, graphing, and presentation management tools- which are designed to be easy to use and learn. Radanov (2008) explains that, PowerPoint is a type of presentation software that allows one to show coloured text and images with simple animation and sound."

<http://www.britishcouncil.org/serbia-elta-newsletter-march->

This tool can be shown on a computer screen or by using a projector with a large screen for the whole class who can view the same presentation at the same time. PowerPoint has many features which make it a useful classroom tool. It can save teacher's time because the materials that are introduced through PowerPoint can be reused many times. It also allows teachers to vary their teaching methods and break the routine (Ahmed, 2005). Regarding the learners, PowerPoint is a fun and a motivational tool which presents knowledge in an interactive way. In addition, the different multi-media applications PowerPoint offers can appeal to various learning styles (e.g. visual, auditory and kinaesthetic learners). Moreover, Steele & Johnson (n.d) claims that using PowerPoint's big screen allows all learners (at the front and back of the class) to see what is being introduced. They argue that, when used appropriately, it can enhance the teacher's instruction and learners' motivation.

Of course, teachers must also be aware of potential disadvantages of using PowerPoint. Tufte (2003), for example, notes that teachers should be moderate in their use of animations, transitions, and other multi-media effects. He also emphasizes that teachers ought to focus on the content of what they will present rather than on how to present. Ahmed (2005) and Steele & Johnson (n.d.) warn that overusing PowerPoint can make learners feel bored and reduce the effectiveness of this teaching tool.

When the teacher creates a presentation using PowerPoint, the presentation is made up of a series of slides. These slides can also be presented as overhead transparencies or 35mm slides. In addition to slides, teacher can print audience handouts. He/She has to be aware of his audience and what they already know about the material. A teacher has to decide what he exactly wants them to learn by the end of the class. He should also specify where the presentation will take place and under what conditions.

Once a teacher has finished putting his presentation slides together, and got his computer plugged into the projector, all eyes are on him in the classroom. First, he should think about goals and purpose of handouts. Teachers should use fewer slides with concise text. They have to right-click, and on the shortcut menu, click next. They can go to the previous slide by pressing backspace.

A teacher should not parrot PowerPoint as it makes the lesson boring to the audience. PowerPoint is intended to provide a visual element to spoken remarks that augments and discusses what is displayed. Teachers should keep in mind that 99% of the time, they should be looking at their students, not at the projection screen or their computer screen.

PowerPoint is effective in holding students' attention, however, teachers should keep learners focused on them rather than on their slides. If learners keep onlooking at the slides while the teacher is talking, they will switch off and become as if they are watching television. Teachers should time their talk keeping in mind students' attention and learning styles. They should also remember that another potential problem could occur when their important comments coincide precisely with the appearance of a fresh PowerPoint slide. Having the simultaneous visual and auditory input splits the students' attention, and it's likely that the visual input will win out. Teachers need to bring up a new slide, and then give their students a chance to check it out before teachers begin verbally broadening and amplifying what's on the screen.

PowerPoint is most effective as a visual accompaniment to the spoken word, not as the vehicle for all of the content of a lecture. A teacher should not be shy about blanking the screen on occasion when he needs his students to focus on him.

A teacher ought to mix up the media. Putting a range of media into his PowerPoint presentations allows him to appeal to a wide variety of learning styles.

PowerPoint allows the teacher to bring in many different kinds of media – including graphic images, colored and “textured” backgrounds, photographs, sound files, video clips, animations, and, of course, text.

He can also hyperlink pages within the presentation to Web pages, as well as to other pages within the presentation. A teacher should hide his pointer. Since PowerPoint can easily steal the show, he should make sure that he does everything he can to keep distractions to a minimum. Some students are easily distracted when the pointer (arrow) moves across the screen during the presentation. To circumvent this problem, teachers can use the arrow keys. So that he can anticipate potential problems.

But PowerPoint can be used interactively as well. Ask students to anticipate information on an upcoming slide, or use PowerPoint for interactive games using action buttons, for instance, to navigate slides or hide the pointer. To hide the pointer, once the Slide Show View is started, press the Ctrl-L key combination. This hides the pointer even if the mouse moves. If the teacher needs to display the pointer during the presentation, press the Ctrl-A key combination.

To prepare the learner to get a good mastery over the various aspects and components of a good writing product, the teacher can use the PowerPoint programme. This fascinating wonderful media through which multitudinous, nefarious exercises could be displayed. These exercises tend to help students become more productive and could get their message across in a clear comprehensible manner. Students are least expected to run short for words or switch off while putting pen to paper. The researcher assumes that by exploiting the PowerPoint in teaching composition writing, fruitful results can be brought about as the learners' writing

ability would probably improve. For instance, the teacher starts by organizing his students into heterogeneous groups. Then he/she chooses the brightest students to be group leaders. After that, the teacher distributes handouts and points out the objective of the tasks and the reason for giving out handouts. Then the teacher displays a model.

Missing words

Example: (look) I.....at our classroom.

(see/can) I Ali and Omar.

I am looking at our classroom.

I can see Sami and Omar.

The following are useful composition writing techniques. If the teacher adopts them and applies them properly and creatively, the learner's achievement could possibly improve. Teachers may consider integrating all technological media into teaching composition by putting these techniques into effect. Controlled composition techniques incorporate:

- i. Missing words
- ii. word ordering
- iii. re-arrangement of sentences
- iv. parallel paragraph
- v. guided writing using pictures

Semi-controlled composition techniques include:

- i. pictorial exercises
- ii. narrative exercises
- iii. short story completion
- iv. letter writing
- v. e-mail writing
- vi. cued dialogue

The round table technique:

The technological media that can be used by teachers of English to up-lift their students' writing competence are:

- i. the PowerPoint
- ii. the Internet
- iii. the e-mail
- iv. google

2-25 Free Writing Through PowerPoint

In order to teach free writing using PowerPoint, teachers need to enable their learners to master the four basic skills- understanding, speaking, reading and writing. Helping learners to practise role-playing to master communicative competence is of paramount importance. Learners must be able to practise dialogues about everyday life situations and events. In other words, they need to use language in context. Moreover, teachers have to provide learners with lexis and grammatical structure that could help them put their thoughts into words and convey their message explicitly.

Jane, (1992:12)

By using PowerPoint teachers can get their learners practise controlled composition techniques. These techniques involve organizing the learners into groups and giving out handouts. To apply such techniques properly, teachers must prompt the groups to compete and the winning group should be awarded a prize. The teacher's role should be monitoring, facilitating and guiding.

The PowerPoint can help raise the spirit of competition among learners. If learners are adequately motivated by teachers, they are expected to participate positively and hence come up with wonderful ideas and organize them in their proper sequence. Furthermore, teachers can expose learners to guided composition techniques. Besides, they can encourage students to practise the round table technique. In this technique, the teacher displays the title of the composition and then gets the first group leader to provide an appropriate topic sentence. The second group should think of a good helping sentence. The different groups go on providing sentences by turn until they conclude by generating an appropriate concluding sentence.

Teachers should exhibit their creativity in displaying how to provide a topic sentence, supporting sentences with clear examples, vivid ideas, explicit specific details, a good conclusion and a final thought. Instructors need to show the learners model paragraphs to practise unity, correctness, coherence, emphasis, editing and

proofreading. Teachers can also train students in how to use a check list for editing their paragraph. Students could modify and improve their writing product.

In addition, learners can practise joining sentences using correct connecting words or conjunctions such as: and, but, for, yet, so, therefore, however, hence, thus, furthermore, also and since. Furthermore, teachers can display simple sentences and gets groups to change them into compound and complex sentences.

Learners should practise narrative, descriptive to help them become independent, fluent, spontaneous and confident writers. Proper guidance on the part of teachers is of paramount importance to help learners develop their language through free writing. It is rightly said- " Free activities only make the internal external."

Instructors can also use PowerPoint to get their learners practise synonyms, antonyms, nouns, verbs and adjectives. Learners should be encouraged to classify words into nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. In addition, learners must practise nefarious spelling exercises such as: jumbled letters, provision of missing letters and cross word puzzles. Teachers could give the meaning of a word and the number of letters, learners should guess the correct word. Alternatively, a student could mime a word then the teacher asks groups to spell it correctly or write it on the board. The teacher may further the exercise by displaying pictures of different objects and gets groups to provide and spell the right word.

Scott, (2004:9)

Teachers can display exercises on capitalization and punctuation and get learners do them in groups as competitive exercises at the end of which a prize is given to the winners. Moreover, teachers need to exhibit passages with key prepositions highlighted, then learners practise in groups providing the correct missing prepositions. Finally, instructors should get their learners practise some phrasal verbs and idioms.

John, (1995:286)

2-26 Internet As a Recourse for Efficient Writing

Teachers can ask learners in groups to explore the Internet and try to find the synonyms or antonyms of certain nouns, verbs and adjectives. Moreover, they can be asked to read a short story and write a summary of it, or read a paragraph and write a parallel one. Learners should be prompted to read aloud their summary to their classmates. Alternatively, the teacher may ask the students to read a text and underline all the nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Then, learners should sort out the words in the text and write them into four different columns. The group that does the task correctly should be awarded a reward. Furthermore, students could read in groups an e-mail to a friend and then write similar e-mails to each other. A reward must be given to the group with the best e-mail. In addition, learners can look for phrasal verbs such as: put off, look up, look after, give in, see off, in the Internet using google. Then the teacher asks students in groups to read these phrasal verbs aloud to the rest of the class. Learners could further their search and look for idioms such as:

"Actions speak louder than words " and use them in meaningful correct sentences. They can also try to gather as many prepositions as they can using the Internet, and use them in context.

Teachers may also ask learners to write an e-mail in group and use adverbs of frequency. Many English teachers recognize the potential of the Internet for long distance communication. It enables English learners to communicate with others across the globe. However, many teachers fail to realize that the Internet can be of great benefit not only for long-distance exchanges but also for linking students in a single classroom.

Historically, writing instruction focused on handwriting and on correctness of the product. Teachers laid much emphasis on the mechanics of writing, such as sentence structure, spelling, correct punctuation, and rules. Students were usually asked to write on assigned topics or for purposes such as essay exams. They were

seldom asked to write for an audience other than the teacher and the quality of the writing

was much more likely to be assessed on the basis of the correctness of its content and mechanics rather than on style or creative expression of ideas.

2-27 Technology as a Tool

In this new information age, a link has been made between technology and TEFL. The Internet has brought about a revolution in the teachers' prospective due to the reliability of the tools offered through the net. The Internet is gaining immense popularity in foreign language teaching as a result a lot of instructors and learners embrace it. The Internet provides a huge amount of human experience. It helps learners to learn by doing things as well as they become productive rather than receivers of knowledge. In addition their thinking skills become more flexible and they become able to choose what to explore. Computers are a source of motivation and they are so popular among learners for being associated with fun and games. Hence, students can be highly motivated and independent whenever they tackle a variety of activities.

First, teachers should get learners practise the basic functions of the Internet, browser, back, and forward. Then teachers get students to practise the basic functions of e-mail, send, reply, check inbox and take address. Secondly, learners should know how to send a descriptive introduction about themselves. Thirdly, they should practise the reading skill of scanning for specific information in an introduction. Finally, they should get to "meet" the Internet partner to exchange views, ideas, information and experience.

2-28 E-mail and Free Writing

Many people enjoy sending and receiving e-mail, especially if they share a common interest. Writing e-mails to a friend in English allows learners as much time as they need to write the message and look up any words or grammar that they don't know. If students are paying for each minute that they are connected to the internet, they may want to write e-mails while they are not connected and then connect just to type the message and send it. E-mails are usually written in a less formal style than letters. It is common to start an e-mail with the name of the person you are writing to, without starting with the word "Dear". The following are examples of some appropriate ways to start and end an e-mail:

When students are writing to their partner, they should start by using the person's first name or nickname. They could end by using "Take care", or "Love", or "Thinking of you". For signature, learners can write either their first name or nickname. When learners are writing to a friend, they should start by using the person's first name. However, they could end by using one of these phrases "Best wishes", "Yours", "Take care". Their signature should include their first name. For writing to someone in their own company, learners ought to start by using the person's first name. They could end their e-mail by writing either "Regards", or "Best wishes". Finally, they sign their first name and last name. Below their signature, they should write their job title, department, and phone number (or extension)

Writing to someone in another organization or someone in a formal position of responsibility involves using the person's title (e.g. Mr, Mrs, Ms, Dr) and surname, (Smith), or just "Sir/Madam" if they don't know the name. Learners should end their e-mail by writing "Regards". They ought to sign by putting their first name and last name. They might add their title after this in brackets if they want to make it clear if they are a man or woman). Below this, they may put their job title (if appropriate) and contact details (learners may want to include their telephone number or address)

Examples:

To ITC members

From Mustafa

Subject Guess where I am?

Hi everyone!

It's ten days since we left Cape Town but finally we've reached the Land Down Under. Can you guess where I am? Yes, Australia! We had lots of problems getting here but we are now enjoying this great city. It's warm and sunny. We've visited the Sydney Opera House where you can go to listen to music. It's located on The Rocks where the first people who built Sydney lived. From the harbour, we caught a ferry to Taronga Park Zoo. There are some great restaurants to eat in, museums to visit and walks to go on. Have you visited Sydney?

Best wishes.

2-29 A Letter to a Friend

The teaching of this genre should be conducted off-line practising the activities and models from the Practise Writing book, which provides good models and focuses on the most important aspects of this type of writing. As a preliminary activity to writing a letter to a friend, students could be asked to go to www.marlo.com/card.htm, the site where they can send free cards with animated pictures, accompanying music, etc.

The students find great fun in this activity. They could choose from among funny pictures, write a few lines to their friends and send the cards. The site gives some phrases commonly met in informal letters to choose from, so the writing itself is not too demanding, and the task can be used with lower-level students as well. The prerequisite for this technique is that students have their individual e-mail accounts, since they are asked to type their address for sending confirmation notice. The lesson is extremely motivating for students, and apart from being great fun it introduces the formal features of a letter to a friend in a friendly way. In order to make students' writing authentic and purposeful, to motivate them additionally and

to give them the chance to participate in a real writing exchange, a student key pal connection should be established. This can be easily done either into class or somewhere abroad which most closely matches the specifications of his own classroom and which has the same goal, to learn how to interact in writing via e-mail. After setting up such a connection, it is the teacher's role to stimulate real writing interaction with a person of the same age and similar interests. It is likely to make students interested and motivated when they receive actual responses. E-mail exchanges may lead to close cooperation and real friendship, and certainly they increase students' cultural awareness and teach them how to appreciate different cultures. Harmer (2007:119)

Flat 3

156 Centenary Road,
Mumbai,
India
June 15th

Dear Rosemary,

I've just received your letter-thanks. It was nice to hear from you. Well, we've been here for three weeks already. I still can't believe it. But things have definitely improved since the bus left us at the roadside on that first day. For a minute I wanted to turn round and go home again. You know me, I'm a great pessimist. But Mariel always thinks everything is going to be fine. In less than a day she had found us a flat and here we are.

I've found a job giving private conversation classes. Not quite what I'm used to, but it's still teaching and my students are lovely. Mariel hasn't got a job yet, but she's made contact with various people in the film industry here and hopes she'll get work soon. So the big news is, we've made our decision. We've decided to stay. This is our home.

Please give my love to David and the kids. Why not come and visit us soon?

Lots of love,

Brenda

2-27-1 A Formal Letter

After having analyzed the model, vocabulary and structures from the book during an off-line introductory class, students could be asked to visit the site of Amnesty International (www.amnesty.org) or the World Wildlife Fund (<http://www.panda.org/home.cfm>).

Example:

Friends Book Store,
15 A Harsh Nagar,
Meerut.
16.2.74

To

M/s Popular Booksellers

HazratGunj,

Lucknow,

Dear Sirs,

We have recently come to the book trade and will need a lot of books. Will you please let us know what your terms and conditions of business are? In particular, we would like to know the amount of discount you would allow, and the time you would normally take to supply our orders. We need the following books before the end of the present month:

S.No.	Authors	Titles	Quantity
1.	Kulkarni&Srinivas	Introduction to Pol. Sc.	8
2.	Masood and Sharma	A Textbook of Physics	10
3.	Mukerjee and Kapoor	A Handbook of Chemistry	10
4.	Goel and Madhusudan	An Essay Approach to Indian Philosophy	5

An early reply will be greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

AttamPrakash

For Friends Book Store

2 South Street

Liverpool L17 6HS

11 August

Dear Liz

Just a quick note to thank you for the wonderful day we spent with you on Sunday. The kids really enjoyed themselves and it was a rare treat for me to sit back, glass in hand, while you and John did all the hand work of entertaining them. Anyway, the two of you must come and have dinner with me sometime soon. I'll put the kids to bed and we'll have a really civilized evening. I'll give you a call during the week and we can arrange something.

Love,

Rachel

Formal letter

179 San Jacinto Blvd

San Antonio. TX 78210

September 3, 2000

Denver Chamber of Commerce

124 Highfield Road

Denver. CO 80201-1023

To whom it may concern:

We are planning to spend our vacation in Denver over Christmas and would like some information on available lodging in the area. We would appreciate it if you could

send us information about inexpensive hotels in the Denver Area. A city map and brochures about activities and sights in the city would also be appreciated.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Laura Jensen

Applying for job

26 Windmill Road

Bristol BS2 6DP

24 May 2000

Ms Emma Campbell

Personnel Manager

Multimedia Design

4 Kennington Road

London SE1 8DD

Dear Ms Campbell

I am writing to apply for the position of assistant designer advertised in the Evening Post of 23 May. Please find enclosed a copy of my CV.

I have a degree in Graphic Design from Anglia Polytechnic University. Since graduation last summer I have been working for EMS Corporate

Imaging on a contract basis. I have become particularly interested in interactive and multimedia work and now wish to develop my career in that direction. I would welcome the chance to work as part of a small, dynamic team

where I could make a significant contribution while developing my skills yet further.

I would be happy to show you a portfolio of my work.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely

Peter Green

2-30 Prepositions:

The preposition is a word used before a noun and pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing named by the noun or pronoun stands in regard to something. The noun or pronoun that is used with a preposition is its object. It is in the 'objective case' and is governed by the preposition:

The parcel came to me (not I) from him (not 'he')

When a preposition stands alone, it becomes an adverb and when it connects two clauses, it becomes a conjunction.

She ran up and gave me a letter. (adverb)

He ran up the hill to reach its peak. (preposition)

My friend has not been quite well since yesterday.

I could not see him, since he went to Khartoum last week.

No mishap has taken place since. (adverb)

A. The expression of time

i. 'At' is used:

a. For a certain moment or point in time.

He woke up at dawn and had his food at seven o'clock.

The bus bound for Medani leaves at 2.30 p.m.

(similarly at noon, at sunset, at midnight)

ii. For festivals

We get holidays at Christmas.

iii. 'On' is used:

(a) For a specific day, a special day, one's birthday." Anniversary of one's death or a day of the week.

I shall arrive there on Monday.

On Christmas Day presents are given.

On her twenty first birthday she was married.

Mandela was born on July18, 1918.

She was born on the night of 15th October 1960.

(We also say on Monday afternoon, on Thursday evening, on Christmas Day morning etc.)

(b) Before 'eve' the preposition is 'on'. On the eve of the examination she burnt the midnight oil.

iv. 'In' is used before words to denote a period of time.(In summer, in the year 1968, in the morning, in the evening, in the daytime, in the English lesson, in the summer holidays)

'in' is also used:

to indicate the total length of time for the completion of something.

This train will reach Atbara in five hours.

He ran the distance in two hours and fifteen minutes.

b. to indicate a period at the end of which something will happen.

Please return in an hour's time.

v. 'During' is used to express the idea:

That an occurrence or a situation exists throughout a period.:

During the World Wars people suffered.

At some point of time in the continuance of.

He called to see me during my absence.

vi. 'By' denotes the latest time by which something is to be done:

You must reach home by seven o'clock.

'By' is also used before 'day' and 'night' in the sense 'during'

He drives his car fast by night.

vii. 'For' shows the extent of time:

I have been working here for the past ten years. I waited for him for two hours.

The preposition 'at' , 'on' and 'in' are not used if the time is preceded by an adjective:

I met him last week.

I shall meet you next month.

He goes to college every day.

Though 'next Monday' does not take the preposition 'on', 'Monday next' requires it. So we should say 'on Monday next'. Learners should remember that 'yesterday', 'today' and 'tomorrow' are followed by 'morning', 'afternoon' and 'evening', 'today' is not. We must say 'this morning', 'this afternoon', and 'this evening' (not 'today morning', 'today afternoon', 'today evening'). We can say 'tomorrow night', but not 'yesterday night' and 'today night'. 'Last night' and 'tonight' can be respectively used for 'yesterday night' and 'today night'.

John Eastwood(1995:286)

Teachers should point out that when no specific place of residence is mentioned, students must use the preposition 'on' e.g. He lives on an island. For smaller towns and villages students should use 'at' e.g. They live at Canterbury. However, for large towns and cities learners must use 'in'. e.g. He was born in Cairo and educated in London. Learners should use 'in' with a place of residence such as houses if no specific mention is made. e.g. She wants to live in a bungalow. But if a particular house or residence is mentioned, learners use 'at'. e.g. The British Prime Minister lives at 10 Downing street. If the names of universities or colleges or some other institutions are mentioned 'at' is generally used. e.g. Nehru was educated at Cambridge. If it is a building, students should use 'in'. e.g. His son works in a bank. However, if it is not a building, learners ought to use 'on'. e.g. He works on a farm. Teachers have to remind learners to use 'at' if a particular place is mentioned. e.g. He is employed at the public library. After a preposition students should use the gerund, not the infinitive. e.g. He devotes his time to reading books.

www.ego4u.com/en/cram-up/grammar/prepositions

2-31 Role Play:

Ments (1999) believes that role play involves learners to be either themselves or someone else in a particular situation. In other words, they may take the role of real people or themselves. Al-Matawa&Kailani (1989) describe role play as a technique that provides an opportunity to practise a new structure in the context of natural communicative usage.

According to Lucantoni (2002), role play can be very enjoyable for learners and provide excellent opportunities for using language in real life situations. It is a communicative activity where the learners can use the language spontaneously. It also helps learners to develop speaking skills in real life situations. Ments (1999) and Livingstone (1983) agree that role play enhances learners' motivation and involvement in the learning process. Ments (1999), holds the belief that role play lends itself to mixed ability groups and it provides learners with opportunities to practise and develop communicative skills. Role play involves imagination on the part of learners. In other words, learners need to be imaginative. They also need to use background knowledge as well as communicative skills. Larsen –Freeman (1986) and Edwards (1999) stress the point that role play, whether structured or less structured, are significant in the communicative approach because they give learners an opportunity to communicate in different social contexts and in different social genres.

However, role play has certain potential disadvantages. Ments (1999), points out that it may be difficult for teachers to maintain discipline during role play and they could lose control over the learners. He goes on to say that role play can be time-consuming and it requires space and other resources. Thornbury (2005) argues that teachers need to be careful when choosing and carrying out role plays as some learners feel inhibited when performing in front of their classmates.

Cameron, (2001:30) holds the view that role plays, like any learning activities, should suit the learners' age and social-cultural experience. Teachers should select the activities that allow learners to use the language they know. Gradation is of paramount importance, so they should start with simple dialogues before moving on to more advanced interactions. In addition, the role play should be interesting, exciting and motivating. Furthermore, role plays should create a context where instructors should pay more attention to the message rather than to the language accuracy.

In preparation for role play, teachers need to expose their learners to key vocabulary and expressions. Role cards or cue cards, as Bygate (1987) suggests, can

also be supplied to facilitate the roles they will be taking on. Lucantoni, (2002:51) maintains that teachers ought to give learners ample time to read necessary information and arrange their ideas. During role plays learners need to be encouraged and they have to stay reassured that mistakes and hesitations will not be penalized.

Role Cards:

i. Role Play 1:

Role 1: You come from Oman. Ask others about their names and their nationalities.

Role 2: You are Japanese. Greet your friends, ask them about their names. Ask about their likes and dislikes.

Role 3: You are Greek. Tell your friend about your name and your nationality.

ii. Role Play 2:

Role 1: You want to go to the park and you don't know the way. Ask your friend to tell you where the park is.

Role 2: Listen and follow the directions to the park.

Role 3: Help your friend to find the way to the park.

iii. Role Play 3 :

Role 1: You go to a restaurant with _____. Ask _____ what she wants. Order the food. Pay the bill.

Role 2: You go to the restaurant with _____. Look at the menu and tell _____ what you would like to eat and drink.

Role 3: You are the waiter. Give the menu to the customers. Take their order. Give them the bill.

iv. Role Play 4:

Role 1: You want to go swimming. You hate table tennis. You love the cinema.

Role 2: You want to go cycling. Suggest going to the cinema.

Role 3: You don't want to go swimming because it is cold. You don't have a bicycle.

You like table tennis. You love the cinema. Jane Willis(1992:12)

2-32 Writing Process Instruction

Gradually the processes of writing began to be obvious and explicit. In 1970s much concern for teaching the writing process emerged. It comprises four steps: pre-writing, writing, editing, and revision. Over time, teachers concerned with writing instruction came to realize that real writing is a much complex, messy, reflexive and recursive process. Instructors started to encourage students to write on topics of their own choosing, write for their own purposes, and perhaps most significantly, write to real audiences. After that students were invited to write exclusively in the genre of their choice and no attention was paid to mechanics of writing and they were no longer required.

During the 1990s there was increasing call for rigorous academic standards and writing instruction shifted once again. In the early twenty-first century, teachers of writing started to strike a balance between product and process writing. In other words, a writing product involves genre, audience, purpose, situation, and even what is viewed as correctness.

The exposure initiated in the modeling stage can be followed with process writing activities based on agreed topics from the reading/modeling activities. It has been proven that the process approach in writing is beneficial to L2 language teaching and learning situations and this has to be exploited. In teaching composition skills, the teacher is concerned with the student's ability to develop clear ideas and to organize and elaborate on them. At this point, the recursive nature of writing should be emphasized and students ought to be encouraged to evaluate and make any necessary changes that will improve the writing during and not after the process.

It's noticeable that the teachers' evaluation neglects the content/meaning of the students' writing and concentrates on form and surface level errors of spelling, punctuation and organization. A common characteristic of the product oriented paradigm is that the teacher is not only pre-occupied with grammatical accuracy, but also acts as a judge of students' writing rather than a facilitator. This gave rise to

teachers making such negative comments as, "Mind your grammar", "Pay attention to your spelling" and so on without much comment on meaning/communication.

Alice&Ann(1997:214)

2-33 The New Role of Teacher

The role of the teacher and learner has changed completely. The teacher has no longer become exclusively the giver of information, talking most of the time while learners are seen mere passive recipients. The new role of the teacher is to facilitate the learning process. He has become a guide, a facilitator, a supervisor, a super-intender, a prompter and an advisor. The teacher must see to it that, his learners are positively involved in the learning process. He needs to be discrete in grouping his students into either homogeneous or heterogeneous groups according to the nature of the lesson he is handling. He should be able to take the right decision at the right time. For instance, when to prompt, when to interfere if the necessity arises. Moreover, his role is to encourage his learners to take part in every activity positively. The teacher should take into consideration the individual differences. He should inculcate and implant confidence in his learners by keeping them highly motivated. Thomas Kral(1999:9)Accordingly, the learning process has no longer become teacher-centred. It should always be seen as pupil-centred. In other words, the student constitutes the pivot around which the whole teaching and learning process rotates. On the other hand,the teacher's new role is exclusively guiding and monitoring students' performance inside the classroom.The Internet is one of the most powerful tools for teachers to help students collaborate and participate actively in the learning process. However, the wealth of available resources may cause confusion among students and discourage them from participating, if they are not given the necessary guidelines. When students are faced with thousands of Internet sources they cannot effectively handle such large amounts of information.

One of the most important tasks for teachers is to assist their students so that they can discover what they enjoy most according to their level of linguistic competence. Teachers are also responsible for the evaluation of all the web tools

offered. In an Internet based lesson, a teacher is a facilitator helping students build their own learning strategies.

The teacher's role includes planning, analyzing, organizing, coordinating, and problem-solving. The advent of the Internet which is an invaluable source of information, and the wide spread of technology in our life creates new opportunities for language learning. Teachers of English gain access to the immense variety of authentic materials relating to all spheres of life for free. Harmer (2000:235)

The Internet as a teaching aid, or as a teaching medium, through which students are taught how to write different writing genres. Basic writing genres include a letter to a friend, a formal letter, a biography, a description of a person, a for-and-against essay, a notice and an advertisement, a description of a festival/ceremony, a description of a book/film/play, a newspaper report, an opinion essay and a description of a place. Teachers can make writing instruction more interesting, appealing, and motivating. Hence, on-line lessons should be incorporated into the curriculum. Compared with traditional instruction, on-line instruction can provide recency to the classroom, since students can experience problems or read about issues which relate to the present day, and are not out-dated due to the time that passes from the publication of the course-book.

www.edutopia.org/redefining-role-teacher

2- 34 Motivation

Since learners are so fond of current modern technology and media it seems a good idea to integrate composition writing learning with current technology. Learners will be much motivated to focus and reflect on what they write. Once they have fully practised certain tasks and exercises, they can be eligible to generate good and satisfactory writing products. In order that learners may become efficient writers, they need to acquire the tools and comprehend the components of a good writing product. Hence, a good writing product involves the mastery over these components on the part of the learners.

To achieve this end, the researcher believes that we can improve our learners' writing ability if we take into account the current trends and orientation of English language teaching. The changing scene of ELT underlines a more advanced view and prospective of tackling this problematic and complex area of ELT.

Motivation involves creativity, innovation and ingenuity. On the other hand, traditional old teaching methods tend to make the lesson so boring, vapid and tedious. Creativity could be seen in its best forms when putting into practice a variety of exercises and displaying them, using current technology and media.

On the other hand, learners today are seen more productive, by virtue of their continuous participation during the lessons. Being adequately motivated, they are expected to take part most of the time. Time allotted for learners' practice of the language should be two thirds of the class time. The teacher's talking time should not exceed ten minutes. In other words, the teacher's talking time ought to be reduced and minimized, while the learner's talking time should be increased and maximized. Moreover, the changing scene of ELT necessitates that both teachers and learners have to be creative and innovative. Teachers could motivate and prompt their learners by encouraging critical thinking, role playing, problem solving, songs and quizzes. Furthermore, teachers could implant the soul of competition that could probably enhance the students' writing ability and help them to think more clearly and critically. Thus, learners could become active participants rather than passive recipients.

The more students are involved in exercises, the more confident and communicative they become. Fluency and accuracy can be achieved if learners are exposed to a variety of tasks and exercises covering all the aspects, genres and components of composition writing.

Tricia Hedge(2003: 22)

The communicative approach is to be adopted to uplift the learners' communicative competence. However, eclecticism is also recommended as long as it consolidates, reinforces and enhances the learners' writing skill. If the learners

become communicative in oral talk through role-playing, their communicative writing ability could be improved. Therefore, a spacious classroom is of high significance to achieve this end. Hence contextualization is momentous and should be emphasized, adopted and correctly applied.

It is worth mentioning that, both teachers and learners must be creative and they have to up-date their knowledge. They have to make use of the revolution of technology that has prevailed worldwide. Innovation entails good planning and careful thinking on the part of teachers and learners. On the other hand, lack of creativity can be one of the factors that could possibly underlie learners' demotivation and negatively affect their self-esteem and morale. Thus, unique application of computer's amazing innovation is primary and highly significant. Computer programmes such as PowerPoint and Internet (google&email) can be exploited to prompt learners, motivate them and improve their writing skill. By designing certain useful tasks and exercises which cover all genres of free writing, and by making learners much more communicative with a reasonable degree of fluency and spontaneity, students writing ability can improve.

Alternatively, learners can be asked to design and prepare various assignments and exercises individually or in homogeneous or heterogeneous groups using PowerPoint or Internet. The key to efficient free writing is presumptively, the full awareness of both teachers and learners of the new ELT orientation and the adoption of contemporary teaching approaches and theories. Hence, decontextualization, non-communication, demotivation, lack of creativity and innovation may be seen as dangerously destructive and subversive factors as far as free writing competence and efficacy are concerned. They tend to undermine the bridge to free writing and hold back learners' progress.

Al-Matawa&Kailani, (1989:23)

2-35 The Spelling Challenge:

Many people say that English spelling is irregular and therefore difficult, and they make a feature of the lack of spelling-sound correspondence which, although not unique, is a feature of English. They point out that the same sounds can be spelt differently, as in *threw* and *through* which both have the same vowel sound ; and the same spelling can be pronounced differently, as in *threw* and *sew* or *through* and *trough* which are said with completely different vowel sounds.

Victoria & Robert, (1993:379)

English spelling is complex but it is not completely random and is , in fact , fairly regular , there are usually clear rules about when certain spellings are and are not acceptable. English spelling rules do often have exceptions but these usually only apply to a small number of individual words. A standard regularity such as the fact that "gh" at the end of words is silent, for example , is broken by words like *enough*; yet *enough* is only one of seven words that behave in such a way. In the same way many English language spellers 'i' before ' e ' except after 'c' to explain the spelling of *believe* vs. *conceive* , but there are exceptions to this familiar rule (e.g. *seize* , *weird* , *species* , *neil*). However, it is worth remembering that exceptions which cause confusion are just that-exceptions.

Harmer (1993:379)

Learners of English need to be aware about how we use different spellings to distinguish between homophones (words that sound the same but are spelt differently) such as *threw* and *through*. Pairs of words that sound identical- like *sun* and *son* , *sew* and *so*, *threw* and *through*- are immediately differentiated in writing. What can be seen as a disadvantage in terms of sound and spelling correspondence, in other words, is actually serving an important and useful purpose.

Spellings make English relatively easy to read. Word roots, for example, are always recognizable even when we add affixes: prefixes (like *un-* , *dis-*) or suffixes (like *-ist* , *-able*, and *-ed*). It is easy to perceive the connection between *sing* and *singing*, or between *art* and *artist* , or *rule* and *ruler*. And similarly, the function of

affixes isreflected in their spelling. For example, the –ist and –est endings are pronounced the same as in the words artist and fastest, it is the spelling that makes it that clear whereas the first ending denotes someone who does something (art) the second gives a one- syllable adjective, it's superlative adjective.

John Eastwood (1995:376)

2-35-1 Teaching Spelling:

Jeremy, (2004, 47) states that "The best way of helping students to learn how to spell is to have them read as much as possible." In other words, students should be exposed to extensive reading (reading longer texts, such as simplified readers, for pleasure) which helps them to remember English spelling rules and their exceptions, although many students may need some encouragement to do this kind of reading.

However, as teachers we can be more proactive than this. We can raise the issue of sound and spelling correspondence, give students word formation exercises, get them to work out their own spelling rules, and use a number of other activities to both familiarize themselves with spelling patterns and also practise them. Here are some ideas:

Students hear words and have to identify sounds made by common digraphs (pairs of letters commonly associated with one sound, e.g. ck pronounced / k / .

Although reading aloud may have some disadvantages (without preparation students tend to read falteringly), nevertheless it can be very useful when the teacher takes students through a short text, getting them to listen to words and then repeat them correctly, and then coaching them in how to read the passage 'with feeling'. If the text has been chosen to demonstrate certain spellings (as well as being interesting in itself) , it can focus the students' minds on how specific spellings sound or indeed on how specific sounds are spelt. Students can read and listen to a series of words which all share the same sound (e.g. small, always, organized, four, sort, and more) and then identify what the sound is . They can go on to see if the sound is present or not in other similarly spelt words (call, our , work, port). Such an activity raises their awareness of the convergence and divergence of sounds and their spellings.

The same effect can be achieved by focusing on a particular sound. Students can be asked to listen to a number of different words containing the same letter and they then have to say what the sound of the letter is in each case. If the letter in question is a , for example, students can say for each word they hear whether it sounds like the a in cat , or in a bottle, or in many , or in say , or whether it sounds like the o in or. Teachers can come up with wonderful ideas to display letters using the PowerPoint programme. For example, jumbled letters or words with missing letters under pictures, cross-word puzzles. The teacher may divide the class into groups of five. The teacher gives a model for students to follow. Then they have a competition. The teacher should make sure that certain letters are highlighted. The group that finishes the task first with the fewest mistakes is the winner. The group is awarded five marks. Then the teacher assigns his learners some exercises to be done at home using the e-mail. Each group leader e-mails his group members asking them to do the task and then e-mail back. Moreover, learners can be asked to design tasks having the same pattern and display them on a wall chart.

Jermy, (2004:

144)Alternatively, learners in pairs can ask each other questions while chatting using the Internet. For instance, to practise words with the letter 'i ' and final silent 'e' at the end such as 'drive'

- i. What does a driver do? He.....a car.
- ii. How are you today? I'm..... .
- iii. Three +two equals..... .
- iv. Five plus four equals..... .
- v. Can you....a camel? Can you..... a bike?

T: A word consists of five letters (the teacher displays a picture)

P: strike

T:A word of four letters (the teacher displays a picture)

P: hide

The teacher may display pictures of action verbs such as: drive, walk, run, throw, draw, eat, swim, read, sing, dance, play, drink, write, clean, get up, draw. The teacher displays or flashes a word and asks students to spell it, then, he displays the word again and gets learners to check their spelling.

Teachers can get learners practise the following spelling rules using PowerPoint accompanied by handouts. They can display plurals of nouns ending in 'y'

Examples:

	Singular	Plural
day	days	
key	keys	
donkey	donkeys	

Learners should always remember that a vowel+ y in the singular add s to make the plural. (Vowels are a e i o u)

Examples:

Singular	Plural
city	cities
sky	skies

Instructors should help learners to understand that a consonant + y in the singular change y to i and add es

Spelling 2: Verbs ending in Y

3rd person present simple tense

Examples:

Infinitive	3rd person present simple
say	he/ she says
buy	he / she buys

Learners need to remember that a vowel + y in the infinitive add s to make 3rd person present simple.

Examples:

	Infinitive	3rd person present simple
try		he / she tries
cry		he / she cries

Teachers should bring to learners' notice that a consonant + y in the infinitive change y to i and add es

Past tense of regular verbs ending in y

Examples:

Infinitive	Past tense
cry	cried
spy	spied

Learners should bear in mind that a consonant + y in the infinitive change y to i and add -ed

(Irregular verbs do not follow this rule.)

For example, the past tense of say is said.

John Eastwood, (1995:379)

Teachers need to get learners practise adjectives in the superlative – the + adjective + -est

	The most + adjective
Examples: a sad day	- the saddest day
a happy day	- the happiest day
an important day	- the most important day

Adjectival clauses:

Examples: It was the day I joined the Air Force.

Instructors must get learners to practise verbs doubling the consonant in the present and past participles.

Examples:

Infinitive	Present participle	Past participle
stop	stopping	stopped
transmit	transmitting	transmitted

Learners must double the consonant in the present and past participles when:
The verb ends in a single consonant and the final vowel is stressed.

Teachers should point out that the past participle of irregular verbs do not follow this rule.

Examples:

put	putting	put
get	getting	got

Learners have to practise adjectives doubling the consonant in the comparative and superlative.

Examples:

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
hot	hotter	hottest
red	redder	reddest

Students must double the consonant in the comparative and superlative when:
The adjective ends in a single consonant and the final vowel is spelled with a single letter and the final vowel is stressed.

Teachers need to get students practise the following words and highlight the vowel sound /i/

Examples: feet read thief receive

The vowel sound in italics in each of these words is pronounced /i/
eeea

Examples: *need* *peace*

There are no rules for the spelling of words with ee or ea, so learners must learn the spelling of each of these words.

ieei

Examples: thief receive
 piece deceive
 believe

Teachers need to explain the rule, i comes before e except after the letter c.

ieei not pronounced /i/

Examples: either height friend neighbor society neither. There are no rules for the spelling of these words. Students must learn the spelling of each word. The teacher dictates individual words. Students have to write them in their books or on the board. The students have 3 columns. In the left column there is a list of words. The students read the left column. Then they cover it and write the words in the middle column. Then they compare what they have written with the left column, and if necessary, write the word correctly in the right column. Students are given an alphabetical list of animals. They have to write the words in one of the three columns (headed 'pets' , 'farm animals' , and 'wild animals'). The teacher can ask questions (e.g. 'What's the first day of the week?' 'What pet starts with c and ends with t?' 'When does a new year start?') and the students have to write one-word answers. All of the above activities are designed to give students practice in physically writing.

Coherence : in addition to unity, every good paragraph in a composition must have coherence. One way to achieve coherence is through the use of transition signals.

2-36 Linking words / Phrases:

Teachers can get learners practise the following linking words using PowerPoint. Teachers provide an example for each phrase and ask learners in groups to provide similar examples. The fastest group to do the task correctly wins the competition.

But rather = instead , however , it is

Owing to = as a result of

Therefore = thus

Obviously = clearly

Furthermore = moreover

So that = in order that

As a result of = as a consequence of

Due to = owing to

As well as = in addition to

As a result = consequently

Not only... but also = both.....and

To sum up = In conclusion

Rather than = instead of

John Eastwood (1995:323)

2-37 Correcting Common Errors

Learners frequently make the following mistakes which they need to avoid in order to improve their performance in composition writing.

As: students should avoid using as when they mean "since" or "because"

Properly used, as expresses duration, not cause:

Correct: He frowned as I rang up the bell. (duration)

Poor: I called the police as I did not want trouble.

Better: I called the police since [or because] I didn't want trouble.

The double genitive is a common mistake

e.g. (i) This is a fault of my brother. (ii) This is my brother's fault

Not, This is a fault of mybrother's.

The word between refers to two persons, things, etc. "among" refers to more than two. e.g. (i) The food was shared between the two travellers. (ii) The money was divided among the five boys.

The word "mutual" refers to something that is shared between two persons, such as love, friendship, respect, etc. It is therefore incorrect to say :They were introduced by a mutual friend." (i) There was understanding between the two friends.

(ii) Mutual suspicion destroyed the friendship between the two ladies.

If a feeling is shared among more than two persons, the word "common" should be used instead of "mutual".

" Due to" is an adjective, not a preposition. It must qualify a noun or pronoun.

"Owing to" is used as a compound preposition.

e.g. (i) His accident was due to the rain. (ii) Owing to his illness, he could not walk.

"Let's" is a transitive verb and must therefore take an object.

e.g. (i) Let you and me go. (not "I") (ii) Let her and him do it. (not 'she' and 'he')

2-38 The Definite Article

i. When substances are used in the general sense, the definite article is not used:

Iron is a useful metal.

Gold is costly.

ii. Learners, however, use the article, if there is a qualifying clause or phrase:

e.g. The gold you have bought from the Gulf is of superior quality.

The coal from Newcastle is not cheap.

iii. Before the names of meals the definite article is not used:

He takes breakfast late.

When does he have lunch?

iv. Diseases and games do not take the definite article:

He suffers from diabetes.

He plays hockey and cricket.

Students should remember that before 'plague' the definite article is often used.

v. Festivals do not take the definite article:

Christmas, Pass-over, Deepavali, Easter

vi. The definite article is not used before 'king' 'queen' and 'Pope' when they are followed by their names:

King Henry v , Queen Elizabeth II, Pope John

vii. Before abstract nouns the article is not required:

Beauty is Truth.

Veracity always pays.

viii. When 'man' is used to represent mankind, it does not take the definite article:

Man is a reasoning animal.

'Woman' too does not require the article when it is used in the general sense.

Woman is man's companion in life.

ix. 'Parliament' does not take the definite article:

He was elected to parliament.

x. When 'home' is used alone, it does not take the definite article:

He is at home.

She is on the way home.

xi. Before the names of single islands and peaks, the definite article is not used:

Madagascar, Everest.

xii. Languages do not take the definite article:

French, German and Spanish are some of the languages spoken on the Continent.

xiii. 'All day' as well as 'all night' does not take the definite article:

She has been working hard all day and all night.

xiv. Before 'bed' 'church' hospital ; prison, school, 'college' and 'university' the definite article is not used when they are visited for their primary purposes:

He went to bed late at night.

Christians go to church on Sundays.

The thief was put into prison.

The litigant goes to court every day.

xv. When they are visited for other purpose, the definite article is used:

Arun's father went to the school to see the Headmaster.

He called at the hospital to see a patient.

xvi. Before modes of conveyance no article is used:

He goes there by air/ by sea/ by land/ by train /by bus/ on horseback/
by boat.

xvii. After 'elect', 'declare' etc. the definite article is omitted before a noun, if it designates a unique office. (e.g. President, Chairman) Nehru was elected president of the Indian National Congress (A. S. Hornby " Guide to patterns and Usage in English " p. 74)

xviii. Before names of relations like 'father' 'mother' , 'aunt' and 'uncle' and also cook and nurse meaning our cook and our nurse the definite article is usually omitted:

Father has just returned home.

Cook has been very idle.

Nurse has been looking after the child all these days.

xix. Before the names of seas, oceans, rivers, strait and canals the definite article is used:

The Mediterranean, the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the Atlantic, the Pacific, the Bay of Bengal, the Thames, the Ganges, the Suez Canal, the English Channel, the Straits of Gibraltar, the Persian Gulf.

xx. Names of mountain ranges take the definite article:

The Himalays, the Alps, the Pyrenees, the Andes.

xxi. If the name of a country suggests that it is made up of smaller units or constituents, we have to use the definite article:

The United States, the United Kingdom.

xxii. Islands and some places take the definite article:

The West Indies, the Philippines, the Netherlands, the Transvaal, the Sahara, the Congo

xxiii. The definite article is used before the following:

The sun, the moon, the stars, the earth (but on earth) the horizon, the atmosphere, the Equator, the Poles, the Deccan, the Black Forest, the Evening Star, the Morning Star, the World, the Koran, the Bible, the Old testament, the Gita, the Illiad, the Odyssey, the Vedas, the Upanishads, the West, the East.

xxiv. The definite article is used in some expressions that have become landmarks in history:

The Middle Ages, the Dark Ages, the Norman Conquest, the Crusades, the Magna Carta, the War of the Roses, the French Revolution, the Glorious Revolution, the Renaissance, the Reformation, the Reign of Terror, the Gun powder Plot.

xxv. The definite article is used before a proper noun to indicate the likeness to a famous person or thing:

Kalida's is the Shakespeare of India.

Coinbatore is the Manchester of South India.

xxvi. The definite article is used to stress the pre-eminence of one over others:

He is the novelist of our time.

Einstein is the genius of the twentieth century.

xxvii. The definite article is used before the names of universities, newspapers, trains and ships:

The university of Calacutta, The University of Delhi.

"The Hindu" , the "Daily Telegraph".

The "Golden Arrow" runs from London to Paris.

The "Enterprise" is a famous nuclear war-ship.

xxviii. If the name of a university begins with a proper noun, it does not take the definite article:

Khartoum University, Sudan University

xxix. The definite article is used before a plural surname to mean family:

The Smiths, the Nehrus, the Tagores.

xxx. The article is used with the names of inventions:

We don't know who invented the wheel.

The telephone is a most useful invention

xxxi. It is used to represent the entire species.

Please note the noun is singular.

The tiger is a very ferocious animal.

xxxii. The article is used with nouns to express a unit:

His car does thirty to the gallon.

He is paid by the hour.

xxxiii. Before ordinal numbers the definite article is used:

Armstrong is the first to land on the moon. (21 July'69)

The second chapter of the novel is interesting.

xxxiv. The definite article is used with adjectives and participles to mention all the members of a class:

The rich, the poor, the needy, the young, the wounded, the dying, the down-trodden, the oppressed.

xxxv. It is used before the names of musical instruments:

Einstein played the piano.

xxxvi. The definite article is used to mention the people of a nation collectively:

The English are a disciplined people.

xxxvii. The definite article is used before certain nouns:

(a) The bar, the army, the navy, the church, the clergy, the laity.

(b) The nobility, the public, the peasantry, the masses.

© The sciences, the humanities, the professions, the arts.

Some of our teachers are very good at the sciences, the humanities and the arts.

'In the last century there was a great social difference between business and the professions'.

xxxviii. The definite article is used before a proper name to mention a person who died recently or who has lately left a post.

The late Mr. Joshi, the late Mr. Swaran Singh.

Mr. Sharma, the late chairman made a speech.

xxxix. The definite article is usually used before the superlative:

Tagore is the greatest Indian writer of the present century.

However, when the superlative is used in the sense 'very', it takes only the indefinite article.

This is a most useful reference book. (A.S. Hornby "Guide to Patterns and Usage in English" p. 128

xl. At times, the definite article is used before a common noun to mention its attributes:

The poet in Wordsworth came out when he saw the daffodils.

The mother in the woman made her bring up the hapless child.

xli. The definite article also does the function of an adverb:

The earlier you pass the examination, the better.

xlii. It is also used before the comparative:

This radio is the better of the two.

xliii. The definite article is used in some set phrases:

He played the fool/ the man / the lover.

He is the man of the hour /year.

It is also used in some questions like, 'What is the matter, the trouble etc?

John Eastwood (1995:198)

2-37 Using Transition Signals:

Transition signals are words and phrases that connect the idea in one sentence with the idea in another sentence. They are expressions like first/ second, moreover, however, and in brief. They make the movement between sentences in a paragraph smooth, so the reader does not have problems understanding the writer's ideas. Transitional signals are also used in multi-paragraph compositions to make the movement from one paragraph to the next logical and smooth. The following paragraph is easier to read and understand because the writer has used transition signals. Each transition signal shows the relationship of one sentence to another.

The teacher can display this paragraph using PowerPoint and highlight the transition signals.

Americans love their pet dogs, so they do many things for them. First of all, they treat their pets like human beings. They like to talk to their dogs and treat them like children. For example, my neighbor, Mrs. Green talks to her dog Ruffy all the time. Also, she takes him for a walk twice a day and will not leave him when he is sick. Moreover, Americans send their dogs to training school to learn to be good and to listen to commands. Second, Americans spend a lot of money on their pets. They feed them expensive dog food with flavors that people like such as beef, chicken, liver, and cheese. Also, their pets have brightly colored balls, rubber bones, and other toys to play with. Some dogs even wear collars with colourful, sparkling stones that look like diamonds or rubies. Some owners bathe their dogs in the bathtub, while others take their pets to a dog beauty shop. First, their toenails are clipped. Then their fur is brushed and trimmed. Finally, they are given a bath with special dog shampoo. This beauty treatment costs about forty dollars. In brief, because Americans love their pet dogs a lot, they are willing to spend both time and money on them. They believe that "a dog is man's best friend" because dogs are loyal and dependable and are wonderful companions.

Transition signals

Usage	Sentence Connectors	Conjunctions	Subordinators
Coordinating	Subordinating		
To list ideas	first (second, etc.)		
In time order or order	first of all then		
of importance	next after that finally		
To add another idea also	furthermore	and	

in addition

finally

moreover

besides

To add an opposite idea	on the other hand	but	although
	however		even though

To add a similar idea	similarly	and	
	likewise		

also

To give an example for example

For instance

To give a cause (or reason)		for	because
			since
			as

To give an effect (or result)	therefore	so	
	thus		

consequently

as a result

To add a conclusion	in brief	
	all in all	

indeed

in other words

in short

in the end

Teachers need to clarify how coordinators, sentence connectors, and subordinators are used to combine sentences. Coordinators (coordinating conjunctions) make compound sentences from two independent clauses:

And

Or

Independent clause, but + independent clause.

For

So

Yet

Nor

I like to swim, but I don't like to jog.

Swimming is good exercise, so I swim everyday. Some sentence connectors can be used with a semicolon and a comma to join two independent clauses into a compound sentence, or they can be used at the beginning of a sentence with a comma only.

therefore,

thus,

consequently,

on the other hand,

however,

I hate jogging; therefore, I never do it.

Or

I hate jogging; Therefore, I never do it.

Other sentence connectors can only be used at the beginning of a sentence and are usually followed by a comma.

All in all +sentence

In brief,

In brief, everyone should exercise regularly.

First,

First of all,

Second,

Third, +sentence

Then

Next,

Finally,

First, bend at the waist, touch the floor, and count to five.

Second, raise your body slowly.

Then raise your hands above your head and count to five.

Finally, drop your arms to your sides.

Repeat the above exercises six times.

Learners should bear in mind that 'Then' is usually not followed by a comma.)
Subordinators (subordinating conjunctions) are the first words in dependent clauses. A dependent clause must be added to an independent clause to make a complex sentence. Remember that the clauses can be in either order. If the dependent clause is first, put a comma after it.

e.g.

I exercise every day although I hate it.

Walking is good for you because it exercises the heart.

Because I have gained ten pounds, the doctor ordered me to get into an exercise program.

Alice &Ann, (1997:174)

2-40 Using Consistent Pronouns:

Another way to achieve coherence in writing is through the writer's consistent choice of such elements as person (I, he, she, it, they, you, one), voice (active or passive), and register (formal or informal).

In the following paragraph, the subject nouns and pronouns are consistent, and the paragraph has coherence. Teachers are recommended to display the paragraph exploiting PowerPoint, highlighting subject nouns and pronouns.

Alice &Ann, (1997:108)

2-40-1 Coherent Paragraph:

Students who know a few Latin and Greek roots and prefixes have an advantage over students who don't know them. They can often guess the meaning of

unfamiliar words. If for example, they know that the prefix circum-means 'around,' they can guess the meaning of words such as circumference, circumvent, circumstance, and circumnavigate when they read them in a sentence.

Langan (1997:112)

Teachers should remind learners that they must be consistent. If they use the pronoun I at the beginning of their paragraph, they should keep it throughout. If they begin with a singular noun such as a student or singular pronoun such as he, she, or it, they should not change to plural the student or they.

www.writingtranto.ca/advice/planning-and-organizing/paragraphs

2-41 Exercises for Vocabulary Development:

The best way of developing students' vocabulary is to expose them to language in authentic contexts, situations or exercises. The following examples are specimens of vocabulary exercises that are useful for vocabulary building. However, the English language teacher is requested to design his own exercises to help pupils increase and develop their vocabulary. Teachers can get their learners practise these activities through the PowerPoint. Learners have to do the tasks in the handouts in groups. Teachers need to give rewards to winners immediately.

Howard, (1988:94)

Inference Exercises:

Here the teacher may present to his students short appropriate contexts containing the target words. Then he asks them to infer the meaning of these unknown words from the given contexts.

Examples:

- i. All the ____ has been completely spent and not a single penny is left for buying a sandwich (money).
- ii. The exhibition contains different types of _____ buses, cars, lorries, coaches, trams, bulldozers, and cranes (vehicles).

The _____ you showed me yesterday is too large for my small family (villa or house)

Synonyms and Antonyms:

The teacher organizes the class into heterogeneous groups. Then he gives out cards. Each card has a verb on one side and the antonym on the other side. He then sets up a competition. He divides the whiteboard into four columns A, B, C & D. Using the PowerPoint, he displays a verb and elicits the antonym from a volunteer student. e.g. T: take P: give, then the teacher displays a verb, the quickest group member to pick up the correct antonym is awarded one mark. The group with more marks is the winner. After that group A competes with group B. A student from one group sticks a verb on the board and asks the other group to provide the correct antonym. The group that scores more marks is the winner, then the teacher asks groups to reverse by sticking the antonyms asking the competing group to provide the synonym. Then the teacher may do the same game with adjectives. e.g. good=bad, noisy=quiet, lazy=active, slow=fast, early=late, strong=weak, brave=coward, ill=well, fat=thin, beautiful=ugly, careful=careless, clever=stupid. The teacher follows the same technique with nouns. e.g. man=woman, boy=girl. It would be a good idea if the teacher uses the intranet (server) to monitor students who should work individually on the task matching synonyms with antonyms. As homework group members e-mail each other to practise preparing for the next competition. The teacher may ask learners to collect some money to buy prizes for the winning group in each competition, or the school administration can make provision of some funds for this purpose.

Synonyms and Antonyms Exercises:

This type of exercise can be misleading because not all synonyms or antonyms are interchangeable. For example border and frontier are not true synonyms since each has its own connotations. The teacher, therefore, should be careful not to give students confusing items when dealing with such exercises. Examples:

Synonyms:

I have never seen such a big elephant. It is really _____ (very large, huge).

ii. Indicate the synonyms of the underlined words:

Familiar: close, intimate, fraternal, confidential, chummy.

Annoy: irritate, bother. Irk , vex, provoke , aggravate, peeve, rile.

Antonyms in brief contexts:

The two boys resemble each other in appearance, but they _____ in behaviour (differ).

Our last boss was mean, but the newly appointed boss

seems very _____. It is a pleasure to work with him

(generous).

I have lent Yousif another five dinars; that is the fourth

time he has _____ money from me this month

(borrowed).

© Antonyms formed by using prefixes: Fill in the blanks with a word beginning with il-, im- , in- , ir- ,

un- , dis-, which is opposite in meaning:

A	B
direct	_____ (in-)
logical	_____ (il-)
potent	_____ (im-)
regular	_____ (ir-)
honest	_____ (dis-)
happy	_____ (un-)

Howard Jackson (1988:74)

Area of reference exercises: These are useful for practising, revising and developing vocabulary. In such exercises students are asked to make word clusters (or group or sets) or to match with others with which they are most commonly used. Examples:

Word-sets:

Politics : cabinet, parliament, minister, diplomacy, non-aligned, conference, etc.

Business: import/export , shareholders, stock market, capital, account, retail, etc.

Hospital : doctor, nurse, patient, operation, intensive care, surgery, etc.

Media : newspapers, television, radio, journals, periodicals, circulars, etc.

Other useful exercises of area of reference are matching exercises. For example, students may be asked to match words, say, in column 'A' with words in column 'B' :

A	B
ice	stop
police	cream
post	bag
exercise	station
bus	office
shopping	book

Collocation Exercises:

Collocation is useful for learning vocabulary since it deals with words that normally occur together. Collocation exercises need not necessarily use difficult or passive vocabulary. One variation of collocation is a completion exercise.

Examples:

a ___ of cigarettes

a ___ of tea

a ___ of beans

a ___ of wine

a ___ of matches, etc.

Another type of collocation exercise is the completion of expressions such as:

Swim like _____

Sharp as _____

Strong as _____

Weak as _____ etc.

Scale Exercises: In such exercises, students arrange given words either in ascending or descending order starting with the largest or smallest item.

Examples:

grape, lemon, orange, grapefruit.

5, 1, 3, 9, 6, 4, 7, 2, 8

room, flat, house, factory.

gale, wind, breeze, storm, hurricane, etc.

Semantic Field Exercises: These aim at establishing relationships between words in the general area of meaning. One type of such drills is to ask students to give as many terms as they can, belonging to a certain category or area of meaning. For example, the teacher may ask the class to write down all the terms they know related to family relationships, mass media, sports, etc. As an example of family relationships, students may give words like: mother, father, son, daughter, brother, sister, parents, cousin, nephew, step-father, grandfather.

As a variation of this type of exercise, the teacher may provide the class with a picture or drawing of an object with numbers on specific parts. Then he asks students to list the target word for each number in the drawing. Suppose the teacher gives the students a drawing of the human body with certain numbers on it, the exercise then goes as follows:

Number in drawing	Term required
1	head
2	foot
10	eyes
3	nose
12	teeth
7	forehead
4	mouth
6	arm

Compound Exercises: Here the aim is to produce one form for compound phrases. For example, the form for the person who goes to a theatre is theatre-goer. What is the form for the person who:

- Plays football (football player)
- Teaches French (French teacher)
- Pays taxes (taxpayer)
- Drives a bulldozer (bulldozer driver)
- Draws maps (map drawer)

Word-structure Exercises: These exercises constitute an effective way of expanding vocabulary and a useful means of inferring word meaning. They involve the use of prefixes and suffixes attached to the root word. The teacher can employ such words in various ways. Thus he may ask students to work out the meaning of affixed forms either in context or by definition. Examples:

(i) Give the meaning of the underlined words:

- He found a lot of misprints in the book.
- People usually dislike humid weather.
- She tried to pass the driving test, but she was unsuccessful.
- One can buy almost anything one needs at a supermarket.

(ii) Find the definition in column 'B' which matches the word in column 'A'.

A	B
Trilogy	of, on with two sides
Polymath	able to speak many different language
Bilateral	a series of three related books, plays, etc
Multilingual	person with great skill in many branches of knowledge.

www.englishvocabulary.com exercises.com

2-41-1 Vocabulary Games and Activities:

Vocabulary games are essential to the learning process because they:

- i. give students a chance to revise the words they have already learned;
- ii. vitalize learning;
- iii. create a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom;
- iv. motivate students to communicate in English;

v. activate reluctant or unwilling students.

However, vocabulary games require, among other things, careful preparation and organization on the part of the teacher before presenting them to the class. In addition, the students should be aware of the aim of the activity and of the manner in which it is going to be conducted. There are hundreds of vocabulary games of various levels, objectives and types. The teacher has to choose what best serves his teaching purpose. Here are some popular games for general consideration or orientation.

i. The teacher chooses a five-letter word such as, for example, table, and asks students to write it across the top, putting one letter above each of the five squares as shown in the diagram; then he asks them to write the words nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs down the left hand side.

	T	A	B	L	E
Nouns	teacher	answer	business	limit	event
Verbs	think	arrive	begin	leave	erase
Adjectives	tender	angry	busy	lazy	equal
Adverbs	thoroughly	anxiously	beautifully	luckily	evenly

ii. One student thinks of an object available in the classroom. Then he asks the class what it is. He could say, for example, I can see (or think of) something beginning with 'M' , What is it? (map).

A variation of this guessing game is 'Twenty Questions' which is well-known by language teachers. A student thinks of a person, object or event which the other students of the class have to guess within a limit of twenty questions.

iv. Students are given a jumble of letter cards, on each card there is a letter of the target word. The task for students is to rearrange the letter-cards in the correct order. This activity is very useful for spelling.

v. This game is often called 'odd man out' or 'intruder'. The teacher provides the class with groups of words in the same semantic field but in each group there is one word which does not belong to the others. For example:

silver, copper, wood, gold (wood)

traditional, old, modern, ancient (modern)

The students must spot the intruders and explain why they do not belong.

vi. This game is a useful activity. The students try to find as many words as they can, beginning at the top of the wheel and moving in a clockwise direction. Other useful vocabulary activities are the following:

Finding antonyms or synonyms of known words.

Classifying words under appropriate categories, e.g. food, fruit, vegetables, animals, furniture, sports, relatives, flowers, etc.

Writing words that sound the same, room, spoon, noon, etc.

Cutting out and labeling pictures.

Preparing lists of words related to touch, smell, sound, feeling, e.g.

touch: soft, hard, rough, smooth, sticky, damp, icy, wet, etc.

Preparing recipes, shopping lists, etc.

String words: The teacher says or writes a sentence like this: I went to town and I bought apples, then he asks individual students to say the sentence with an additional word each time. e.g. I went to town and I bought apples and bread. I went to town and I bought apples, bread and coffee, and so on. The game can be played alphabetically.

<https://www.spellingcity.com/spelling-games-vocabulary-gameshtml>

2-42 Outlining a Paragraph

An outline is a helpful guide for students to use as they write a paragraph. In an outline, they should list their ideas in the order in which they will write about them. Then when they write the rough draft, they can refer to their outline. Doing so will help them to stay on the topic and to write a well-organized paragraph.

This is what a simple outline looks like:

Simple outline Topic sentence

Main supporting sentence

Main supporting sentence

Main supporting sentence

etc.

Concluding sentence

Simple outline Snow Skiing

Snow skiers must take extreme precautions on the slopes.

They must consider the weather conditions.

They must consider that Snow skiing is a safe and enjoyable winter sport if skiers take a few precautions.

A more detailed outline might look like this:

Detailed Outline

Topic sentence

Main supporting sentences

Supporting detail

Supporting detail

Supporting detail

Main supporting sentence

Supporting detail

Supporting detail

Supporting detail

Main supporting sentence

Supporting detail

Supporting detail

Supporting detail

etc.

Concluding sentence:

In this detailed outline, main supporting sentences A, B, and C are the main points of the paragraph. Each of them supports the topic sentence. Supporting details 1, 2, and 3 are the supporting details for each main supporting sentences and a

different number of supporting details. This is how a detailed outline for our example about snow skiing might look:

Model: detailed outline

Snow Skiing

Snow skiers must take extreme precautions on the slopes.

i. They must consider the weather conditions.

a. Temperature

b. Wind

c. Storm or clear weather

ii. They must consider the slope conditions.

a. Icy surfaces

Rocks and tree stumps

Visibility

Crowds

iii. They must consider their own ability.

a. Beginner

b. Intermediate

c. Expert

iv. They must obey the warning signs.

a. Out-of-bounds markers

b. Closed trails and runs

c. Avalanche danger

d. "Slow" and "merging" trails

e. Hazards

Snow skiing is a safe and enjoyable winter sport if skiers take a few precautions.

www.youtube.com/watch?v=xlr15rklcpl

2-40-1 Using an Outline:

After students have prepared an outline, the next step, writing a rough draft, is easy. Because they have already organized their ideas, they can concentrate on writing smooth and grammatically correct sentences. They should start with the topic sentence, and follow the points in their outline. They ought to use the outline as a guide. If they want to change something, they could do so. An outline is only a guide to help learners. They should not feel that they cannot add, delete, or change during this step in the writing process. Here is the final paragraph about snow skiing after it was edited. The topic sentence and concluding sentences are in bold type, and the main supporting sentences are underlined. Students can notice the changes that have been made. The paragraph generally follows the order of the ideas in the outline, but some sentences have been changed. Even the topic sentence is a little different.

John, (1997:26)

Model:

Edited paragraph:

Snow Skiing

Snow skiing takes a few precautions on the slopes for their own safety and the safety of other skiers. Before going out, they should check weather conditions. If it is stormy, they may not want to go at all. Extreme cold can be dangerous, especially for beginning skiers, and wind makes skiing unpleasant. Skiers should also know the conditions of the ski slopes. In the early morning, the slopes may be icy. Hitting a patch of ice at high speed can cause hard falls and injuries. If the snow is not very deep, skiers should watch for rocks and tree stumps. If visibility is poor because of blowing snow or fog, skiers should slow down. In addition, skiers should ski cautiously if the slopes are very crowded, especially in areas where there are many beginning skiers. Of course, skiers should consider their own ability and not ski on runs that are too steep. Beginners and intermediates should not ski down runs marked "expert" or "advanced." Finally, skiers must obey all warning signs. Some of these signs warn them about closed trails, avalanche danger, and hazards such as rocks.

Skiers, should not ski beyond the out-of bounds signs because if they fall and are injured, no one will find them. Also, they should always obey the "slow" signs in congested areas. If skiers take a few precautions, snow skiing can be a safe winter sport that can be enjoyed by people of all ages. Are you ready? Let's hit the slopes!

Editing Checklist

Writers Questions Peer Editor's Answers and Comments

Format

a. Is the format correct? Check the title, indenting, margins and double Spacing

Organization

b. Does the paragraph begin Copy the topic sentence.
with a topic sentence?

3. Does the topic sentence have Underline the topic and circle the
a clear controlling idea? controlling idea.

c. Do the supporting sentences How many supporting sentences are there?

"prove" the main idea stated Do they prove the main idea?
In the topic sentence? Yes no somewhat

d. Does the paragraph end with Copy the concluding sentence.
a concluding sentence?

e. Is there a final comment? yes no

Does it fit the paragraph? yes no

Grammar and Mechanics

a. Is there a period at the end Check each sentence. Does each one
end with a period?

of each sentence? Yes no Add any missing periods

b. Are capital letters used where Write down any words that should be
necessary? capitalized and are not:

c. Are commas used correctly? Circle any comma errors. Add missing
commas.

d. Are verb tenses correct? Underline any verbs that you think are not

correct and discuss the correction with the writer.

Sentence Structure

- | | |
|---|--|
| a. Does each sentence have a subject and a verb and express a complete thought? | Check each sentence. Underline any sentences that you have doubts about. |
| b. Does each verb agree with its subject? | Write down any subjects and verbs that do not agree. |
| c. Are both simple and compound sentences used? | Which sentence type does this writer use the most often? |

Circle one: simple compound other

2-43 Overview of Essay Organization

An essay is a group of paragraphs about one topic and also has three main parts: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion.

2-43-1 The Introductory Paragraph:

The introduction is the first paragraph of the essay. It introduces the topic of the essay and arouses the reader's interest. There are several ways to write an introductory paragraph. A "funnel introduction" has two parts: several general statements and one thesis statement. General statements give the reader background information about the topic of the essay. They should lead the reader gradually from a very general idea of their topic to a very specific idea. The first general statement in a funnel introduction just introduces the topic, like the lens of a camera moving in for a close-up picture, each sentence that follows becomes more and more focused on a specific topic. There is no exact rule about the number of general statements students need, however, they should try to write at least three or four, and they should be interesting enough to hold the reader's attention. It is permissible to sprinkle a few interesting details in the general statements in order to attract the reader's interest. However, students should not give any details that belong in the body of the essay. The thesis statement introduces the main idea of the essay.

- i. It states the specific topic of the essay.
- ii. It may list the subtopics of the main topic.
- iii. It may also mention the method of organization.
- iv. It is the last sentence of the introduction.

If you read the introductory paragraph of the model essay "The Computer Revolution." , you can see how the sentences gradually move from the general topic of technology to the specific topic of two areas that have been changed by personal computers. This introductory paragraph resembles a funnel, wide at the top (beginning) and narrow at the bottom (end).

We live in the age of technology. Every day, new technology appears, ranging from mini-CDs that contain entire encyclopedias of information to giant space telescopes that can send photographs of distant stars back to earth. Of all the new technological wonders, personal computers have probably had the greatest influence on the daily lives of average people. Through computers, we can now talk to people in any country, research any topic, work, shop, bank, and entertain ourselves. Personal computers have especially revolutionized communication and business practices in the past twenty years.

- i. The first two sentences introduce the general topic of technology.
- ii. The mini-CDs and giant telescopes are mentioned to attract the reader's interest.
- iii. The next two sentences narrow the general topic of technology to the specific topic of personal computers. The details keep the reader interested without revealing the essay contents.
- iv. The final sentence is the thesis statement. It names the two subtopics or specific areas changed by personal computers:
communication and business. By using PowerPoint teachers can explain the above sentences explicitly to learners.

Alice & Ann (1997:118)

2-43-2 Body Paragraphs:

The body of the essay is made up of one or more paragraphs. Each of these paragraphs has a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and sometimes a concluding sentence. Each of the body paragraphs supports the thesis statement.

Look at these two body paragraphs of the model essay. The topic sentence of each paragraph introduces an area that has been changed by personal computers. Then each topic sentence is followed by several sentences that give specific examples of the changes.

Thesis statement:

Personal computers have especially revolutionized communication and business practices in the past twenty years.

Topic sentences:

a- Perhaps the most important effect of personal computers has been to expand our ability to communicate with the outside world.

Besides improving communication personal computers have made it possible to do business from home. Jean Wyrick (2002:47)

2- 43-3 The Concluding Paragraph:

The conclusion is the last paragraph of the essay. It does three things:

a-It signals the end of the essay.

b-It summarizes the main points.

It leaves the reader with the writer's final thoughts on the subject.

Just as the introductory paragraph has two parts, the general statements and the thesis statement, the concluding paragraph has two parts, the concluding sentences and the final thoughts.

Alice & Ann (1997:121)

2-43-4 Concluding Sentences:

The first part of the concluding paragraph summarizes the main points or repeats the thesis statement in different words. This may require one or more than one sentence. The first sentence of a concluding paragraph sometimes, but not always, begins with a conclusion transition signal such as In brief or In short. It is not always necessary to use a conclusion signal, and you should avoid the overused phrases In conclusion and In summary. Teachers should make use of PowerPoint to illustrate thesis statement, the topic sentence, supporting sentences, the concluding paragraph and the concluding sentences.

Thesis statement:

Personal computers have especially revolutionized communication and business practices in the past twenty years.

Concluding sentences:

In brief, the computer age has arrived, and it is changing our lives. computers have made communicating and doing business faster and more convenient, and they have greatly increased our access to information. Jean Wyrick (2002:83)

2-43-5 Final Thoughts:

In the second part of the concluding paragraph, students may write their final comments on the subject of their essay. This is the place to express their opinion, make a judgement, or give a recommendation. However, they should not add any new ideas in the conclusion because it is the end of their essay. They should just comment on what they have already discussed. e.g.

Just as the invention of automobiles had an unplanned consequence- the growth of suburbs, so will the invention of personal computers. We will have to wait and see what these unintentional consequences will be.

www.wikis.engage.com/wikis

2-43-6 Transitions Between Paragraphs:

Just as it is important to use transition signals to show the connection between ideas within a paragraph. It is also important to use transition signals between paragraphs to show how one paragraph is related to another. For example, in the model essay, both body paragraphs are about the positive effects of computers. Therefore, the writer uses an "additional idea" transition signal at the beginning of the second body paragraph to show that another positive idea will be discussed. Furthermore, she repeats the first topic (communication) to link the two paragraphs even further.

e.g. Besides improving communication, personal computers have made it possible to do business from home. She could have used any of the transition signals in the list that follows. practiced before. The advantage of using 'Besides and In addition to' is that you can repeat the topic of the preceding paragraph in the same sentence that you name the topic of the next paragraph. This technique helps link the body paragraphs into a coherent, cohesive essay.

Learners should be aware about the use of Besides which appears in both lists. In the list on the left, Besides is a sentence connector and must be followed by a comma and an independent clause. In the list on the right, Besides is a preposition. Because it is a preposition, it must be followed by a noun or gerund, which is an- ing word used as a noun. Similarly, in addition is a sentence connector, and in addition to is a preposition.

Look at the examples below the chart. In the first pair, besides and in addition to are used with gerunds. In the second pair, they are used with nouns.

"Additional Idea" Transition signals

Sentence Connectors	Prepositions
Furthermore.....	Besides.....
In addition.....	In addition to....
Moreover,.....	
Besides,...	

e.g. Besides suffering from the cold, we also suffered from hunger. In addition to suffering from the cold, we also suffered from hunger. Besides the cold, we also suffered from hunger. In addition to the cold, we also suffered from hunger.

If the next paragraph is about an opposite idea, learners can use one of the following transitions:

2-43-7 "Opposite Idea" Transition Signals

Sentence Connectors	Subordinators	Prepositions
On the other hand,... However,...	Although... Even though...	Despite... In spite of....

Like the prepositions in the previous list, the two prepositions in this list can be followed by gerunds or by nouns.

e.g. Despite being wet and hungry, we continued our hike.

In spite of the rain and our hunger, we continued our hike.

2-44 Logical Division of Ideas:

When students write an essay, they must divide their topic into paragraphs. One method of dividing a topic is to use time order. For example, he could write about the breakup of the Soviet Union by telling the events in the order that they happened, writing about each separate event in a separate paragraph. Another method of dividing this topic might be to write about the various causes of the breakup. To do this, students should group them into social, political, and economic causes and write about each group separately.

Dividing a topic by grouping ideas that have something in common is called logical division of ideas. Learners can organize the information on many topics by this method. For example, they can divide the topic of sports into individual sports

and team sports; or summer, winter, and year round sports; or sports played with a ball and sports played without a ball; and so on.

<https://www.bellevuecollege.edu/asc/writing/.../paragraphtransitions.pdf>

2-42-1 Developing a Logical Division Topic:

After students have divided their topic into groups, the next step is to explain or define each group. For example, suppose a student was writing a logical division essay on the topic "Kinds of Lies." He might first divide his topic into "good" lies and "bad" lies. Since there is more than one kind of good lie and more than one kind of bad lie, students could then divide both of these further. Each kind of lie could become the topic of one body paragraph.

Here are three body paragraphs, each explaining a different kind of bad lie. Students can see that each one begins with a topic sentence that (a) names the kinds of lie and (b) explains what it is. Then one or two examples follow. Each paragraph ends with a concluding sentence that further explains the kind of lie.

Thesis: There are three kinds of bad lies.

Body Paragraph 1:

The first kind of bad lie is the self-protective lie. Its purpose is to protect the liar from being blamed or punished. Children often tell this kind of lie to avoid getting into trouble. "I didn't throw the rock. I don't know how the window got broken." Telling a police officer that you were going only thirty-five miles per hour when you were really going sixty is another example of this kind of lie. Even though these self-protective lies do not harm anyone else, they damage the liar's credibility.

Body paragraph 2:

A slightly different kind of bad lie is the kind that people tell to gain some advantage for themselves over others. For instance, John exaggerates his salary and responsibilities on a previous job when he applies for a new job. This kind of lie may or may not harm someone else. The company that hires John might find that he is perfect for the job. On the other hand, the company might find that he is unqualified.

Then the company would have to hire someone else after spending a lot of time and money to train John. Moreover, the job applicants who were honest but who didn't get hired definitely suffered harm from John's lies.

Body Paragraph 3:

The worst kind of bad lie, however, is the kind people internationally tell in order to hurt or cause trouble for another person. For example, if the boy who broke the window says that another boy threw the rock, he is guilty of telling this kind of lie. Another example of this kind of lie is malicious gossip: "I heard that her new boyfriend just got out of jail," or "I saw his girlfriend at the disco with another guy last night." This kind of lie definitely harms other people; in fact, that is its purpose.

Alice & Ann, (1997:147)

2-42-2 Using Examples for Support:

Whenever a learner makes a statement that is not an obvious truth, he needs to prove it. One way to prove that a statement is true is to support it with examples: Suppose a student wrote this thesis sentence:

Manhattan is a wonderful place to visit if you are planning a trip to the United States.

If his readers have never been to Manhattan, he will have to convince them that Manhattan is worth visiting. To convince them, he could describe some of Manhattan's tourist attractions. These could be examples.

- a. Manhattan has many tourist attractions. (topic sentence)
 - i. Greenwich Village (example)
 - ii. Statue of Liberty (example)
 - iii Central Park (example)
 - iv. Chinatown (example)
 - v. Times Square (example)

In another paragraph, a student could write about the variety of fine restaurants in Manhattan.

b. Furthermore, there is an unlimited selection of fine restaurants in Manhattan.
(topic sentence)

i. French- Les Pyrenees (example)

ii. Italian- La scala (example)

Chinese- Ruby Foo's (example)

iv. Japanese- Benihana of Tokyo (example)

v. Thai- Bangkok 54 (example)

He could also write about the excellent shopping, hotels, or cultural events. He would write a separate paragraph for each topic and give specific examples of shops, hotels, and theatres and concert halls. Examples don't have to be proper nouns of course. They can also be statements of fact. For instance, students would have to use facts to prove statements such as the following:

i- The earth is getting warmer at an alarming rate. (topic sentence)

ii. These two examples are facts that support the topic sentence.

iii. Since 1880, global temperatures have risen about 5 degrees Celsius.

vi. Eight of the twelve years between 1980 and 1992 were the hottest in the 115-year history of global measurement.

Introducing Examples:

Students can introduce examples in their paragraphs by using one of the following phrases:

For example, _____ (sentence) _____ .

For instance, _____ (sentence) _____ .

For example and for instance are interchangeable and can come at the beginning,

in the middle, or at the end of a sentence. Learners should notice the use of commas in these examples:

For example, teenagers today have to study harder in school.

Teenagers today, for example, have to study harder in school.

Teenagers today have to study harder in school, for instance.

A student can also use these structures with examples.

One

Another

An example of _____ (noun phrase) is (noun phrase).

A second

A third

_____ (noun phrase) _____ is an example of

_____ (noun phrase or clause). _____ .

....such as _____ (noun phrase) _____ .

One example of a nearby tourist attraction is Lake Tahoe, where one can look at beautiful scenery or gamble in busy casinos. Indira Gandhi, who was prime minister of India for a total of fifteen years, is an example of a woman who led her nation during difficult times.

New York's excellent Chinese restaurant, such as Ruby Foot's, are famous around the world.

There are three kinds of clauses which are useful when you write an opinion essay: reason, contrast, and result clauses. The following chart lists the transition signals that introduce these kinds of clauses. The transition signals are classified into three groups: sentence connectors, coordinators, and subordinators.

Langan, (1997:141)

2-44-3 Transition Signals:

Kinds of Clauses	Sentence Connectors	coordinators	Subordinators
Reason (to Give reasons)			because since As
Contrast (to add	however	but	even though

Opposite ideas) nevertheless

although

Result (to give therefore so

Results or effects) consequently

Reason Clauses:

Reason clauses answer the question "why?" Because, since, and as are subordinators that introduce dependent reason clauses. They give the reason for the idea in the independent clause. The reason clause can come before or after the independent clause.

Example: Volcanoes are always dangerous. (Statement)

Why are volcanoes always dangerous?

... because they give no warning signals. (reason)

Volcanoes are always dangerous because they give no warning signals.

Because volcanoes give no warning signals, they are always dangerous. Learners should remember that if the dependent clause comes at the beginning of a sentence, they must use a comma.

2-44-4 Contrast Clauses:

Contrast clauses are independent or dependent clauses that present an idea that contrasts with another idea in the sentence. However and nevertheless are sentence connectors that introduce contrast clauses. They connect the idea in the first clause with a contrasting idea in the second clause. These sentence connectors tell the reader that an opposite idea from the first clause will follow. However and nevertheless should be followed by a comma.

Example: A motorcycle is fun to ride. (statement)

A motorcycle can be dangerous. (contrasting or opposite idea)

A motorcycle is fun to ride, however, it can be dangerous.

Jean, (2002:226)

2-44-5 Result Clauses:

Result clauses are independent clauses that tell the result of something described in the first independent clause. Therefore and consequently are sentence connectors that connect two independent clauses when the second clause is the result of the first clause. They have the same meaning as the coordinator so. Both therefore and consequently should be followed by a comma.

e.g. Marriage is back in style. (statement)

Many couples are taking the big step. (result)

Marriage is back in style: therefore, many couples are taking the big step.

Comparison and Contrast Essays:

Comparing and contrasting, thinking about similarities and differences, is an activity that we do every day whenever we have to make decisions. When buying a new car, you compare and contrast several cars before choosing one. When thinking about what classes to take next semester, you compare and contrast the teachers and the class hours before making your choices. Even deciding where to eat involves comparing and contrasting.

We also frequently make comparisons and contrasts in writing. In the business world, you may have to evaluate proposals from two companies who want to do business with you, or you may have to evaluate two job applicants, two computer systems, or two health insurance plans.

Langan, (1997:158)

2-45 Block Organization:

A comparison and contrast essay can be organized in several ways. The most basic pattern is called block organization. In block organization, the similarities are discussed together in one block (which can be one paragraph or several paragraphs). Then the differences are discussed together in one block. The following outline shows that the model essay uses block organization. The two paragraphs of similarities are a block, and the four paragraphs of differences are a block.

i. Introduction

A. General statement

B. Thesis statement

ii. Similarities-elementary schools

A. Class size and composition

B. One teacher

C. Curriculum

iii. Similarities- years of compulsory education

A. Number of years

B. Ages

Differences- schedule

Hours per day

Days per year

Differences in types of schools

A. One sequence or two

B. Academic and vocational

Differences in private schools

A. Religious and not religious

B. Financing

vii. Differences- higher education

viii. Conclusion

Concluding sentence(s)

Final thoughts

Students may of course, discuss the differences first and then the similarities.

Thesis Statements

The thesis statement in a comparison-contrast essay should clearly name the topics of the comparison. It should also indicate that this is going to be a comparison-contrast analysis. The thesis statement sometimes also names the points on which the topics are going to be compared and contrasted. Look at the thesis statement of the model essay.

However, a comparison of school systems in Europe and the United States reveals several similarities but a great number of differences.

The topics are named:

School systems in Europe and school systems in the United States

These words show that the essay will be a comparison-contrast analysis:

A comparison of several similarities but a great number of differences:

Here are some further examples of thesis statements for comparison and contrast.

These sentences are about two car models.

Comparison only; The Super XL and the Magna XL are alike in several ways.

Contrast only: The Super XL and the Magna XL have some very important differences

Concluding Paragraphs:

The concluding paragraph of a comparison-contrast essay can follow the same pattern as other conclusions: concluding sentence (s) followed by the writer's final thoughts. The concluding sentence of the model essay restates the thesis in different words:

Even though the countries of Europe and the United States seem very similar in many ways, their educational systems are quite different. The final comment is often a recommendation or a judgment in a comparison-contrast essay:

For the same money, I believe the Magna XL, is the better car to buy. Based on these data, I recommend that our company buy the XYZ rather than the ABC computer system. However, in the model essay, the writer wanted to avoid making a judgment:

No one can say if one system is better than another system, for each one fits its own needs, economies, and traditions the best.

Alice & Ann,(1997:196)

2-46How to write an essay

Learners could be asked to write many different types of essays in English during the course of their studies. These may include factual essays, descriptive essays or stories. They may also be asked to write letters, emails, reports, or pages from a diary as writing exercises. The phrases below all relate to the language they might want to use in a discursive essay (an essay in which learners are asked to discuss something.)

The title of the example essay is:

" Despite the increased availability of 'healthy' food and our greater knowledge of what makes a healthy diet, we are fatter and less healthy than ever before. Discuss.

Before they start, learners should make sure they understand what they are expected to do in writing the essay. If learners do not understand some words, they can look them up in the dictionary. It might help for them to put the essay title into more

simple language-the process of doing this will help them to be sure that they understand it. Another way of writing this essay title might be: Although we know more about healthy food and healthy eating than ever before, we are fatter and less healthy than ever before.

In a discursive essay, learners have to write about the things they agree or disagree with about the title of the essay, give their reasons for their opinions, and finally state what their conclusions (their final opinions) are, based on the things they have discussed.

Jean, (2002:226)

Saying what you agree with:

Learners will first need to read the essay title carefully, and decide what they agree or disagree with about it or whether they think it is true. Learners may want to use these words and phrases to say what they agree with or what they think is true about the statement.

Certainly: It is certainly true that.....

It is certainly the case (true) that

Certainly more people than ever before are overweight.

It is certainly the case that we know more about healthy eating than ever before.

Learners can use these phrases to give reasons why they think something is true about the statement in the essay title:

Perhaps this is because.....

This could be because.....

This could / may / might be a resulting.....

This could / may / might be due to.....

This may be attributable to.....(formal)

Examples:

Perhaps this is because people today eat the wrong kinds of food.

This could be due to the fact that people today eat the wrong kinds of food.

This could be due to the fact that people today eat the wrong sort of food.

Giving additional reasons:

Learners could use these words and phrases when they want to give another reason why they agree or disagree with the statement:

Another reason (for this) might be.....

It is also true / the case that.....

In addition.....

Furthermore.....

Moreover.....

Examples:

People often eat the wrong type of food.

Furthermore, they exercise less

People often eat the wrong types of food and in addition they exercise less.

Adding a more important reason :

Learners should use these phrases to add a reason that they think is more independent than the one they have just given.

More importantly.....

More significantly.....

What is more.....

Examples:

People often eat the wrong types of food and what is more, they exercise less.

People often eat the wrong types of food and more importantly, they exercise less.

Saying what the result of something is:

Learners can use these phrases when they have just given an example of a particular situation that exists and they now want to say what the effect of this is:

Thus.....

As a result.....

For this reason.....

Consequently.....

This has the effect of.....

Therefore.....

Examples:

People these days take less exercise.

As a result, they are overweight and less fit.

People these days take less exercise.

Consequently, they are overweight and less fit.

People these days take less exercise. This has the effect of making them overweight and less fit.

Giving different opinion:

When learners write a discursive essay, they will probably want to mention more than one side of an argument. They should use these words and phrases to write about fact or opinions that might not support or might be very different from those they have just mentioned:

However,.....

Nevertheless, / nonetheless,.....

On the other hand,

Even so.....

Yet (formal).....

Examples:

There is no doubt that people are getting fatter,

However, we are not unhealthier in every way.

There is no doubt that people are getting fatter,

On the other hand, we are not unhealthier in every way.

There is no doubt that people are getting fatter, but even so we are not unhealthier in every way.

Making an argument stronger:

Often learners will want to add facts to further support an argument. Learners can use these words and phrases to do this:

Indeed,.....

In fact /the fact is / in actual fact.....

Actually.....

Learners should not use this at the beginning of a sentence in formal writing.

Examples:

People are not less healthy in every way.

Indeed, in some ways we are healthier.

People are not less healthy in every way.

In fact, in some ways we are actually healthier.

Introducing facts to support your opinion:

It makes your argument much stronger if you can use some proven facts or evidence to support your opinion. Use these phrases to mention research or other proof that supports your argument:

Recent research shows /suggests.....

A recent report /survey showed.....

There is evidence to suggest that.....

The latest /most recent figures suggest (that).....

Examples:

A recent report /survey showed that on average we are living ten years longer than our parents.

There is evidence to suggest that on average we are living longer than our parents.

Ending an essay:

At the end of their essay learners will want to state their conclusions (their final opinions after they have considered all the facts).

This usually involves summarizing the main arguments and facts that support their opinions. Learners should use these phrases to write their conclusions:

To conclude.....

To sum up.....

In summary.....

In conclusion.....

Example:

To conclude / In summary, while we are in some respects less healthy, in many ways we are healthier than ever before.

Alice & Ann, (1997:121)

Other useful phrases:

Below are some other phrases that learners may find useful in their essay writing:

Saying that something is generally true.

Very often in a discursive essay learners may want to say that something is true for most of the time or on most occasions, even though it may not be true in every case. Learners could use these words and phrases to say that something is generally true:

Generally / in general.....

Generally speaking.....

As a general rule.....

In some cases.....

On the whole.....

For the most part.....

Examples:

On the whole we are a fatter nation than we were fifty years ago.

Generally speaking we are a fatter nation than we were fifty years ago. Learners should practice writing about the present, the past and the future.

a. The present:

Learners could use these words and phrases to say that something is true or something is happening at the present time:

Today.....

Currently.....
Nowadays.....
These days.....
Recently.....
In this day and age.....
In recent years.....
In /Over the past few years.....

Examples:

Nowadays it is quite normal to snack between meals.

It is quite normal to snack between meals these days.

Over the past few years it has become quite normal to snack between meals.

b. The past:

Learners may use these words and phrases to write about what happened or was true in the past:

In the past.....
In previous years.....
Previously /formerly.....
At one time /once.....
Then /at that time.....

Examples:

In previous years food was eaten only at mealtimes.

At one time, food was only eaten at mealtimes.

Food was previously /formerly only eaten at mealtimes

c. The future:

Learners may use these words and phrases to write about something that might happen or be true in the future:

In the future.....
One day /some day.....
The day will come when.....

In years to come.....

Examples:

One day /some day scientists may discover a cure for obesity.

Scientists may discover a cure for obesity in the future.

In years to come scientists may discover a cure for obesity.

Giving your opinion:

Use these words and phrases to write about what their opinion is:

I believe that.....

It is my feeling that.....

It is my opinion that.....

In my opinion / view.....

Examples:

In my opinion / view, far too much advertising of fast food is aimed at children.

It is my opinion that far too much advertising is aimed at children.

I believe that far too much advertising is aimed at children.

Giving other people's opinions:

Learners could use these words and phrases to say what someone else's opinion is:

According to x.....

In x's opinion / view.....

Many / some people argue (that).....

As x says / writes.....

As x argues / claims / explains /points out.....

Examples:

According to Ian Thompson, the fast-food industry is partly to blame.

As Ian Thompson points out, the fast-food industry is partly to blame.

Saying that something is certainly true:

Learners could use these words and phrases to say that they think something is definitely true:

Undoubtedly /without a doubt.....

Definitely / certainly.....

Undeniably.....

Unquestionably.....

Example:

Children today are unquestionably / undoubtedly less active than their parents were as children.

Children today are definitely / certainly less active than their parents were as children.

Saying that something might not be true:

Learners could use these phrases to say that something might not be true:

It is not necessarily true (that).....

It is not necessarily the case (that).....

Not everyone agrees that.....

It seems unlikely that.....

It is not very likely (that).....

Example:

It is not necessarily the case that fatter people are less healthy than thin people.

Not everyone agrees that fatter people are less healthy than thin people.

Alice & Ann, (1997:188)

2-47 Composition Assessment

General Impression Marking Scheme based on criteria relating to the following:

- i) relevance: assessing whether the piece of writing successfully covers the specific theme/topic.
- ii) range of structures: use of direct/ reported speech, passive voice, conditionals, etc.
- iii) vocabulary: wide range and appropriate level of vocabulary and idiomatic expression (At this level candidates are expected to present a variety of more sophisticated vocabulary.)
- iv) organization: ideas well planned and organized in paragraphs according to the relevant model, use of linking words, etc
- v) register: appropriate writing style: formal/ informal, personal/ impersonal, use of colloquial English, etc

Marking Scheme

A Very Good = successful accomplishment of the task (20-18) - all points required by theme/topic fully covered/ minimal errors

-wide range of sophisticated structures and vocabulary used

-well-organized with a variety of linking devices

- paragraph organization and style used: appropriate

Overall assessment: very positive impression, ambitious in concept, natural in style

B Good = good realization of the task

(17-15) - points required by theme/ topic covered in sufficient detail /few errors

- good range of structure and vocabulary used- general accuracy

- quite well-organized, suitable linking devices

-paragraph organization and style used: appropriate

Overall assessment: positive impression, sufficiently ambitious and natural in style

C Satisfactory = reasonable performance of the task

(14-12)

- main points required by the theme/ topic covered in some detail/ several errors
- adequate range of structure and vocabulary
- sufficiently organized, simple linking devices
- paragraph organization and style used: appropriate

Overall assessment: quite satisfactory impression, ideas communicated , simple in concept and style

D In need of improvement = task not adequately achieved

(11-8)

- some omissions and / or irrelevant material / basic errors
- range of structures and vocabulary limited
- rather badly organized , few linking devices
- paragraph organization and style used : not appropriate

Overall assessment : message not clearly communicated to the reader / insufficient control of the language

(Successful Writing Proficiency)

Comments : grade C

Performance level: Satisfactory

The task has been recognized and dealt with reasonably, and the argument is sustained.

A variety of structures (e.g. There is a great deal of heated debate about) have been used.

The vocabulary range is quite good (e.g. enhancing , vanity, unethical), despite several inaccuracies (e.g. safeness, liquids)

The control of language is mixed. The first paragraph is more sophisticated than the other paragraphs , which possibly suggests a rehearsed beginning.

Although natural sounding expressions and structures have been used , there are errors in syntax and grammar. (e.g. the most large companies, this which is clearly, carried on , unlikely to have been made , it cannot be ignored the fact.)

Organization and paragraphing has been dealt with capably with a good

progression of ideas.

The piece has a largely formal register with mainly correct passive instructions (e.g. are tested on , be tested for

The impression created is of a reasonably successful attempt at the task, despite obvious weaknesses.

Composition Assessment

Model B

There is a great deal of heated debate about the issue of animal experimentation. Many people are against such testing completely, believing that animals have rights just like humans. Other people, however, believe that human life is more valuable than animal life and therefore, animal experimentation is always justified. Firstly, the most large companies that produce cosmetics test their products on animals. This which is clearly not justified because cosmetics are mainly used for enhancing the appearance of humans. Therefore, it is not fair to use or kill animals simply to satisfy people's vanity.

Secondly, animals are used in experiments carried on to find out about the hazards of smoking. This also seems rather unnecessary as it is widely acceptable that smoking causes cancer and other diseases. By using animals in experiments, research are unlikely to have been made any new discoveries that are important enough to justify the testing.

On the other hand, medical research is very important and serious indeed. In fact, most drugs are tested on animals before they are given to human beings to make sure of their safeness. Obviously, this is very acceptable, because otherwise, we do not know whether the drugs are safe or effective.

Furthermore, it cannot be ignored the facts many products and substances used by people in a daily basis, such as shampoos and other liquids, must also be tested for safeness. This is especially for the little babies as they are very sensitive and unless one knows that these substances have been tested thoroughly, how can one use them on himself or his child if he doesn't know the possible side effects?

In conclusion, I believe that animal experimentation is sometimes justified, but not always. If such testing means making life safer for people, it is acceptable, however, killing animals to test cigarettes or cosmetics seems unethical and unjustified.

2.21 Previous Studies:

Dawood Ahmed who has been teaching in Salalah for the last eighteen years, is a Sudanese senior English teacher, who conducted a survey under the supervision of the Omani Ministry of Education in 1998. It was entitled, "A survey on why students' achievement in English is generally poor". It was presented in the general conference for teachers of English in Muscat. The paper came out with the result that many of the pupils lack motivation. They ignore or neglect doing their homework and they do not revise or memorize their lessons. There is also some lack of interest among learners. Parents have a lot to do with this lack of interest and motivation. The school administration, to some extent is to be held responsible as well.

The previous study of Dawood is different from this current study. It investigated the problem of the low standard of secondary school students in Oman in English language in general. Two versions of a questionnaire for learners and teachers were used as a data gathering tool.

As for this present study, it has attempted to investigate problems of teaching English composition in Salalah. A questionnaire, testing and observation have been used as tools for collecting data. Hence, this study is a pioneer work researching this particular area of ELT in the Sultanate of Oman. There are no previous studies on composition writing problems in Oman.

Mohammed Abdulrahman Ahmed carried out a study in 2013. It is entitled " Investigating University Students Competence in Writing Dissertations At Both Linguistic And Organizational Levels. His study aims at investigating the difficulties facing the students of the English Language in writing dissertations at the linguistic and procedural stage at university level. It tries to respond to the questions which state that the students are poor in using the procedure; grammatical rules and cohesive devices for the clarity and organization of their dissertations. The descriptive analytical method was used to analyse the collected data from the students' dissertations. It is hypothesized that the students need to master the method and the basic skills of writing. It was found out that the students were not capable to

use the required strategy and essential elements of writing effectively. However, a remedial course could be introduced to promote the students' standards at the linguistic and the procedural level to produce coherent dissertations.

Ahmed's study is different from this current study because it focuses on service level errors, cohesive devices, clarity and organization. In other words, it focuses on the product approach rather than the process approach. In addition, it does not integrate modern technology into writing dissertation. Moreover, it does not include group work technique, motivation, feedback, role play and the new trends of teaching writing.

Mohammed Ilyas Mohammed Aradeb's study carried out in 2010, was entitled " Evaluation of Writing Performance of Second Year English Language Students in Kordufan Universities." An interview, a test and a ready-made material were used as tools for data collection. Then statistical analysis such as percentages and mean values were utilized to analyze the data collected to obtain accurate results. The researcher reached a conclusion that:

Students were to some extent good in the use of appropriate language, spelling and handwriting.

Students were weak in sentence and paragraph construction and the use of punctuation marks.

Students' weak performance is due to a number of reasons such as:

Students' weak writing performance in the basic and secondary levels.

Students were not interested in practicing the skill of writing.

The researcher recommended the following:

-There should be qualified teachers in the field of writing.

- Comprehensive studies in the field of writing should be carried out.

Aradeb's research is different from this current study as it lays much emphasis on service level errors as well. It neglects the importance of the process approach of teaching free writing. It also does not include the PowerPoint, the Internet and e-mail writing. Group work, role play, motivation and feedback are not incorporated at all.

JianLing Liao carried out a study in 2010 at Graduate College of the University of Iowa. It was entitled: "The Impact of Interactive Discussions On L2 Chinese Composition Writing. Grounded in both interactionist and collaborative learning theories, his study empirically investigates the effects of interactive second language (L2) practice on subsequent individual L2 Chinese composition writing. In L2 classrooms, the learning of writing is often treated as an individual act. Two forms of interactive discussion were investigated: online text chat communication and face-to-face- (FTF) oral discussion. Six third-year Chinese L2 learners participated in the study. The participants conducted five online-chat and five FTF pair discussion tasks. Upon completion each interactive task, students immediately wrote a 350-character composition independently on the topic that was addressed in the interactive session. Interviews were also conducted individually with the participants to elicit learner perception data. The primary results indicated that both mediums had benefits for the development of L2 Chinese writing in both cognitive and social dimensions, including improving L2 composition writing fluency and heightened motivation for learning Chinese writing.

The collaborative pattern and the transfer process, however, differed between the two mediums. The collaborative pattern in the FTF conversations was relatively unequal. The transfer process from the online chats to post-chat composition writing was more of a parallel process, whereas a more selective transfer pattern was seen from the FTF sessions to the post- FTF composition writing. The FTF conversations also stimulated a deeper thinking process and activated higher-level cognitive skills. In summary, the findings in his study support the integration of interactive practice in the learning of L2 Chinese writing.

Liao's study integrates modern technology into investigating the problems of composition writing. However, it does not lay emphasis on grammar, spelling, punctuation and capitalization. Moreover, it does not shed light on the process approach of teaching free writing. Hence, it is obviously different from this current study.

Dr. Kamal R. Mourtaga has written an article entitled "Poor Writing in English: A Case of the Palestinian EFL learners in Gaza Strip" at the Islamic University of Gaza (IUG). The article aims to determine why Palestinian EFL learners are weak writers. Specially, it tests the following two hypotheses:

Palestinian EFL instructors misunderstand the writing process.

Palestinian EFL learners lack the linguistic competence in general, and practice of writing in particular.

After collecting data from a teacher questionnaire, and using the Chi Square Test, results revealed that while Gaza EFL instructors misunderstand the nature of the writing process, their learners do not practice enough writing in English. Finally, some pedagogical suggestions stated to develop EFL writing in Gaza such as using innovative classroom techniques within the process approach and dealing with learners in a human fashion. He added that such activities are important, but they do not help as most learners are unable to produce short sentences, paragraphs and letters to friends.

Therefore, the study aims at finding out the possible causes of the learners' poor writing. In other words, the researcher hypothesizes that Palestinian EFL learners are weak writers because of the following two causes :

Palestinian EFL instructors misunderstand the writing process.

Palestinian EFL learners lack the linguistic competence in general, and practice of writing in particular.

Mourtaga's research came out with general findings. It does not specify exactly the steps which learners need to follow when dealing with writing as a process. There is no mention of service level errors and mechanics of writing. Moreover, it does not incorporate modern technology into teaching free writing. Besides, it does not highlight group work techniques, role play, motivation or feedback. Therefore, there is a great difference between Mourtaga's study and this current study.

Murad Hassan Mohammed Sawalmeh, carries out a Ph.D under the title, "Error Analysis of Written English Essays: The case of students of the Preparatory Year

Program in Saudi Arabia at University of Ha'il, Saudi Arabia. His study attempts to investigate the errors in a corpus of 32 essays written by 32 Arabic-speaking Saudi learners of English. All the participants in the study were male students who graduated from Saudi secondary schools and joined the preparatory Year Program at University of Ha'il. The instrument used for this study was participants' written essays in English Language . All of the errors in these essays were identified and classified into different categorizations. The results show that the Arabic speakers in the study made ten common errors. These errors are: (1) verb tense, (2) word order, (3) singular/plural form, (4) subject-verb agreement, (5) double negatives, (6) spellings, (7) capitalization, (8) articles (9) sentence fragments and (10) prepositions. On the basis of these results, a group of recommendations to further research are suggested and some pedagogical implications which might assist ESL/EFL teachers with some helpful suggestions and teaching strategies that will reduce future problems regarding writing English essays among Arab learners.

It's clear that Sawalmeh's research concentrates on service level errors. It focuses on the product approach in his investigations. For instance, it lays much emphasis on grammatical structure, syntax, , singular/plural, and capitalization. So it is different from this current study as it does not mention the recursive nature of composition writing. In addition, it does not point out the significance of group work, role play,, motivation, and feedback. Besides, it does not foster the computer-assisted teaching of composition, nor does it highlight the changing scene of ELT.

In his research which was entitled, " Applied Error Analysis of Written Production of English Essays of Tenth Grade Students in Ajloun Schools" Dr. FirasZawahreh investigated the written English errors of tenth grade students in females and males' schools in Ajlounin Jordan in 2012. It was conducted on purpose of identifying the written errors of English committed by the tenth grade, estimating the predominant errors and the least ones and explaining the causes of the written errors of English committed by the tenth grade students. The sample of study consisted of 350 students selected randomly from group of schools in Ajloun. The students were asked to write

a free essay about " A journey to the ancient city of Jerash in Jordan" in an ordinary English language exercise in the class. Then the essays were collected and analyzed depending on a table of errors among tenth grade students in Ajloun schools within morphology were errors of lack of agreement between subject and the main verb. Secondly, the most predominant errors among tenth grade students in Ajloun schools within function words were errors of insertion of preposition. Thirdly, the most predominant errors among tenth grade students within syntax were errors of omission of the main verb. Fourthly, the most predominant errors among tenth grade students within tenses were errors of using present instead of past. Fifthly, the most predominant errors among tenth grade students within lexical items were errors of lexical items wrongly used in place of others.

Zawahreh's study mainly focuses on errors of grammar, syntax and preposition. In other words, it focuses on the product approach, rather than the process approach. It is different from this current study as it does not incorporate using modern technology in teaching composition. It also does not encourage the communicative approach, group work activities, motivation or feedback. Finally, it does not accompany the new trends of ELT.

Jua Hwang carried out a study in China in 2010 at University of Hawai'I at Manoa. It is entitled. " A Case Study of the Influence of Free Writing on Writing Fluency And Confidence of EFL College-level Students. His study investigates three areas of importance to the field of L2 writing: (a) to examine the influence of practicing guided free writing on EFL college-level students" " Writing fluency, (b) to observe if there are any fluency benefits of practicing guided free writing that transfer to writing fluency in general. And (c) to illustrate how practicing guided free writing helps improve students' confidence in English writing.

During the study, a total of 208 guided free writing samples written by eight EFL college-level students over eight weeks were analyzed in terms of fluency by words per minute in order to measure writing fluency, and one-way ANOVA. Students' pretest and post test writing were then compared in terms of fluency (words per

minute) by conducting paired-samples-tests, and the same pretest and post test writings were also rated for quality so as to observe whether the fluency benefits of free writing were transferred to new writing done in this EAP context, where the pressure of feedback and grading typically exist. Finally, the results of a survey were analyzed using descriptive statistics to investigate how students perceive free writing in terms of increasing their confidence in their English writing.

The results showed that practicing guided free writing for eight weeks had a statistically significant influence on improving the students' writing fluency. Moreover, it was found that the increased writing fluency might have been transferred to other writing done in this EAP context, where students have more pressure to write due to feedback or grading. Finally, most of the students agreed that practicing guided free writing had a positive effect on their confidence in English writing. The results of the study highlight the importance of focusing on English writing fluency rather than giving central attention solely to grammatical accuracy in ESL or EFL classes.

Hwang's study lays much emphasis on guided writing as a necessary step for preparing learners for free writing. However, it does not highlight controlled writing. It focuses on writing fluency and feedback. But it does not give much emphasis to grammatical accuracy. Hence, Hwang's research is also different from this current study which highlights the significance of both form and content of English composition. In addition, the use of modern technology is encouraged as well. Moreover, it points out the necessity of group work activities, communication, motivation and feedback. Finally, this current study incorporates the graded and integrated types of composition.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is allotted to the procedures adopted in conducting the study. Population, sampling, tools of data collection and analysis will be discussed in detail.

3-1 Population:

This study is targeting a large number of secondary school students and teachers in the Sultanate of Oman. They were considered as the population from which the sample of this study is derived.

3.2 Sample of the Study:

One hundred and eighty learners from different schools in Salalah were selected randomly; ninety of these subjects were males, the remaining ninety were females. The samples were chosen from all three levels of secondary school. Their ages were between sixteen and eighteen. Fifty teachers of English, from different secondary schools, were selected randomly as well to carry out the investigation. Their experience range from 4 to 25 years.

3.3 Instruments of Data Collection:

3.3.1 Questionnaire:

To investigate the problem of composition writing, two versions of questionnaire have been set. The first version consists of twenty questions for the learners. As for the teachers' version of the questionnaire, twenty questions have also been designed.

3.3.2 Writing Test:

For the sake of collecting genuine data, the researcher has used testing as a second data gathering tool. Samples were mixed up and divided into ten groups randomly. There were five groups of males and the remaining five groups were of females. Groups were tested; one group at a time. To allow for an adequate time needed for the discussion stage, ten students were put into each group. The topic is entitled “The autumn in Salalah”.

3.3.3 Observation chart:

To see the effectiveness of PowerPoint and group work technique on students achievement in composition writing, an observation chart has been used. Eighty learners have been selected randomly. Samples were mixed up and divided into four groups. In each group there were twenty learners. Ten of them were boys, and the remaining were girls. Five teachers were chosen at random to evaluate the response of the different groups. Groups were tested, one group at a time. The experimental approach, as described by Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2000), is appropriate when we need to make a comparison to see the effectiveness of two different instructional strategies (Swetnam, 2000). Groups were referred to as A, B, C & D. The same topic 'The autumn in Salalah' as well as guide questions and cue words were chosen for carrying out the experiment.

3.4 Procedure:

The researcher uses the descriptive and empirical method to investigate the problems of learning and teaching of composition writing in the Sultanate of Oman. The questions were carefully set to ensure liability and validity in the investigation process. The researcher has used computer to analyze the data collected from the answers to questionnaire in the form of tables and histograms, by using SPSS

programme(Statistical Packages for Social Sciences). Genuine data collected by testing students' writing ability, has been tabulated and analyzed as well.

To facilitate collecting the data by questionnaire, four adverbs of frequency have been selected. Questions are carefully worded, so that they can represent the target issue they are supposed to measure. They are phrased in clear, simple and coherent language. Seven English language teachers and four inspectors evaluated and judged the questions for the two versions of the questionnaire. Four adverbs of frequency are used to indicate a certain degree " Always" indicates 80% and "never" indicates zero mark. Subjects are supposed to respond by ticking the adverb of frequency given. Illustration tables and graphs are incorporated.

The testing was conducted during the school hours. The researcher invigilated the different groups to ensure that the students write from their own knowledge and experience. The time allotted for the writing test was one hour. The test was conducted seriously. It took ten days to finish testing the ten groups of students. An interesting topic was selected for the writing test. It was a guided composition. The topic lends itself to facility of expression, moreover, the autumn in Salalah is considered a special occasion and the most popular season of the year for the Omani people. The testing was conducted during the first and second periods. Learners were provided with guide points, expressions and questions to help them discuss the topic thoroughly. Cue words were provided: rain- popular- fine weather- hotels- green mountains- springs-many cars- different countries.

The researcher then stimulated the students to discuss each point on the outline one at a time. Then students were encouraged to talk orally about the topic and answer a number of questions. The aim of these questions is to help the students communicate ideas, moreover, the answers to these questions are supposed to form the content of what the students are going to write. The researcher took into consideration the pupils' low standard when setting the questions (see appendix c). The first question aims at prompting the learners to generate an opening sentence. It deals with the starting of the autumn in Salalah. Question two focuses on the

duration of the autumn. Question three helps the learners to describe the weather during this season. The response to question eight contains the description of the tourists and the countries from where they come. Question nine deals with the supporting sentences which discuss the kinds of entertainment and different programmes introduced during the autumn. Question ten covers the description of hotels, restaurants and the types of food served on this occasion, whereas question fifteen prompts learners to produce a concluding sentence which reflects what people do during this season in Salalah. The supervision and investigation were done by the researcher himself. Having finished with marking and assessment, the researcher used computer to tabulate and analyse the collected data.

To carry out the experiment, the first group (A) was tested by a traditional composition writing lesson. Samples were organized to sit on individual basis. The researcher used the blackboard only as a teaching tool. With the second group (B) the researcher used PowerPoint and samples were seated individually separated from one another to evaluate the learners' achievement and response. Samples in the third group (C) were organized into four groups without being exposed to PowerPoint. Both group technique and PowerPoint were used with the fourth group (D). The researcher has designed a check-list for the evaluation of different groups' response. The experiment was conducted during the first and second period. It took two days to finish testing the four groups.

The observers have been asked to record the learners' response, participation and interest throughout the four lessons. The questions are coherent, clear and carefully worded to test the samples' response. The researcher has clarified to the observers how the check-list was meant to be used. Observers had to write 'yes' or 'no' and they should add comments to their responses to each question. The first question aims at measuring the percentage of interest of samples in different groups. The second question focuses on whether learners were reluctant when taking part in discussion. Question three deals with number of students who participated in the discussion. The fourth question aims at revealing the number of learners who took part in oral talk.

Question five aims at learners' correct responses. The sixth question focuses on students' ability to use the words and expressions accurately. The sheet contains the following questions:

1. Did the pupils show any interest in the lesson?
2. Did they seem reluctant to take part in the discussion?
3. How many students took part in the discussion?
4. How many students participated in oral talk?
5. Did the learners answer the questions correctly?
6. Did they use the words and expressions accurately?

A colleague was asked to record on a tally sheet any learners' behaviour that may occur. He should also count how many times the learners volunteered to answer in each lesson by just putting a mark on the tally sheet. In addition, he had to classify the learners' responses into correct and incorrect. Collected data has been tabulated and analysed by computer.

3.6 Validity:

Validity Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Part 1	Value	.977
		N of Items	20a
	Part 2	Value	.992
		N of Items	20b
	Total N of Items		40
Correlation			.981
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient			.913

3.7 Reliability

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.991	40

The testing questions and the experiment questions were carefully worded to suit the students' level. In addition, questions were evaluated by a jury of inspectors and teachers to ensure liability.

Chapter four will be assigned to classifying describing and analyzing data.

CHAPTER FOUR

Presentation, Discussion, and Interpretation of Results

4-0 Introduction:

This chapter deals with analysis of data collected, presentation, discussion and interpretation of the results. Illustrations in the form of graphs and histograms are incorporated. Analysis of the data is composed of four parts:

- i. Analysis of the students' responses to a questionnaire.
- ii. Analysis of the teachers' responses to a questionnaire.
- iii. Analysis of the data collected by testing students.
- iv. Analysis of the data gathered by conducting an experiment.

(1) Analysis of the students' response to the questionnaire

Question 1: How often do you often write composition about interesting topics

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	7	7.0
Sometimes	29	29.0
Frequently	45	45.0
Always	19	19.0
Missing	0	
Total	100	100.0

Valid cases 100. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-1: Writing composition about interesting topics

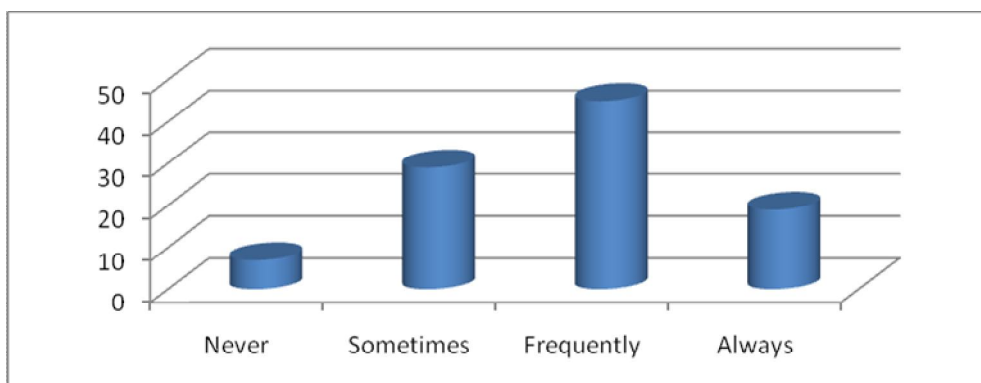


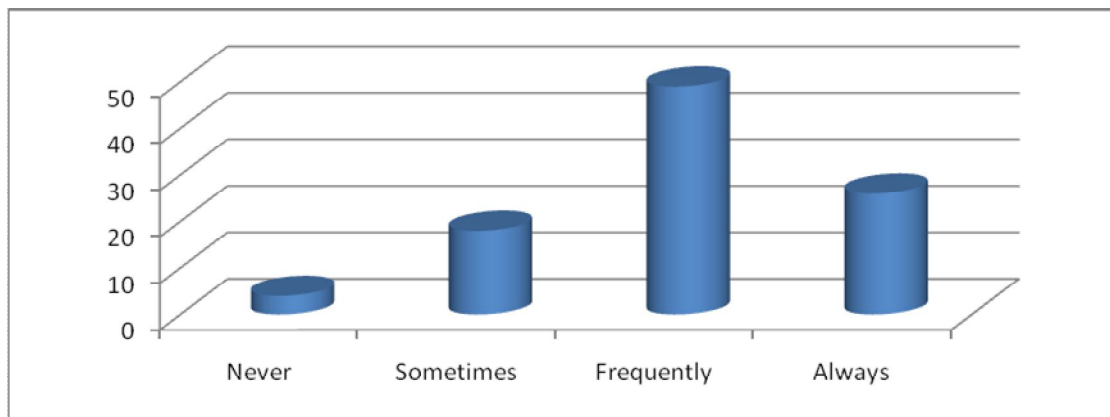
Table and histogram 4-1 indicate that seven students (7%) never write composition about interesting topics, whereas, twenty nine students (29%) sometimes do. The figure also illustrates that forty five students (45%) frequently write composition about interesting topics, while nineteen learners (19%) always do.

Question 2: How often do you brainstorming the topic?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	4	4.0
Sometimes	18	18.0
Frequently	49	49.0
Always	26	26.0
Missing	3	3.0
Total	97	100.0

Valid cases 97. Missing cases 3.

Histogram 4-2: Brainstorming the topic



Histogram 4-2 illustrates that four students (4%) never brainstorm the topic, whereas nineteen students (19%) sometimes do. Forty seven students (47%) frequently brainstorm the topic, while twenty six (26%) always do.

QuestionThree: How often do you take part in discussion during writing composition in class?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	6	6.0
Sometimes	55	55.0
Frequently	21	21.0
Always	18	18.0
Total	100	100.0

Valid cases 100. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-3: Taking part in discussion when writing composition

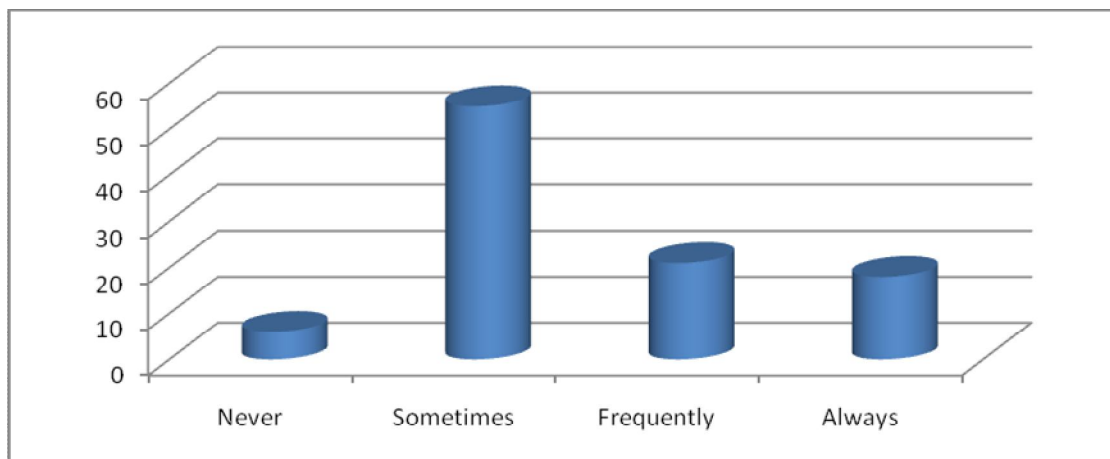


Figure 4-3 indicates that six students (6%) never take part in the discussion when they write composition, whereas, fifty five students (55%) sometimes do. Twenty one students (21%) frequently participate in the discussion when they write composition while eighteen students (18%) always do.

Question 4: How often do you think in English when you writing composition?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	20	20.0
Sometimes	45	45.0
Frequently	13	13.0
Always	22	22.0
Total	100	100.0

Valid cases 100. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-4: Thinking in English when writing composition

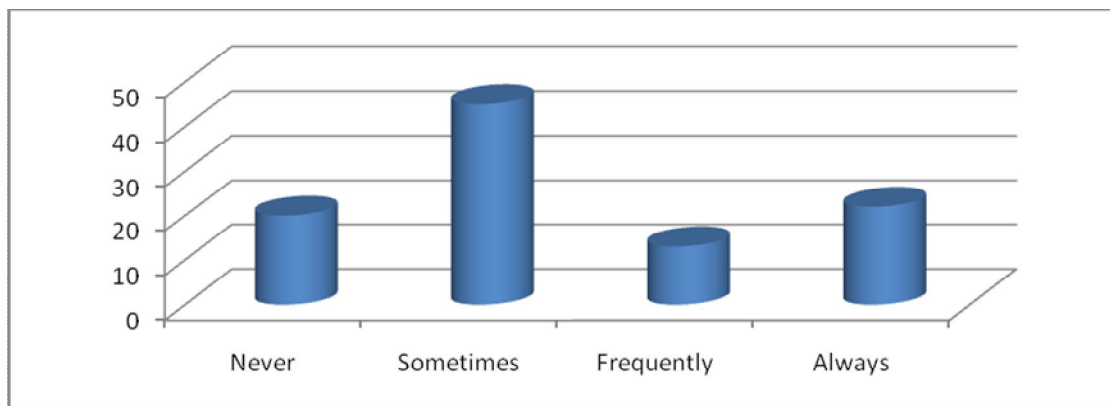


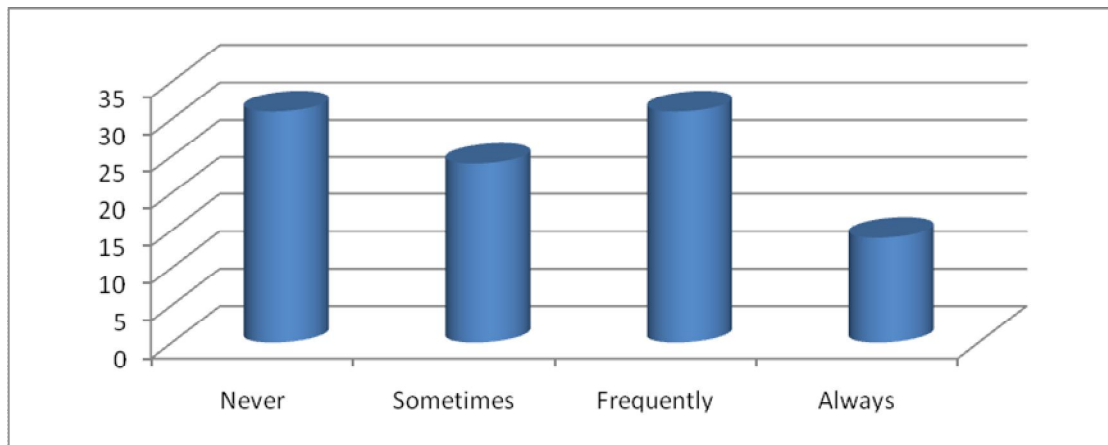
Table and histogram 4-4 show that twenty students (20%) never think in English when they write composition, while forty five students (45%) sometimes do. Thirteen students (13%) frequently think in English when they write a composition, whereas, twenty two students (22%) always do. So, the majority (65%) of the learners tend to think in their mother language and then translate into the target language.

Question 5: How often do you write composition in group?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	31	31.0
Sometimes	24	24.0
Frequently	31	31.0
Always	14	14.0
Total	100	100.0

Valid cases 100. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-5: Writing composition in group



Both table and histogram 4-5 illustrate that thirty one students (31%) never write composition in group, whereas, twenty four students (24%) sometimes do. Thirty one students (31%) frequently write composition in group, while fourteen students(14%) always do.

Question 6: How often do you use cue words and expressions when writing composition?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	6	6.1
Sometimes	37	37.
Frequently	15	15.2
Always	41	41.4
Missing	1	1.0
Total	99	100.0

Valid cases 99. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-6: Using cue words and expressions when writing composition

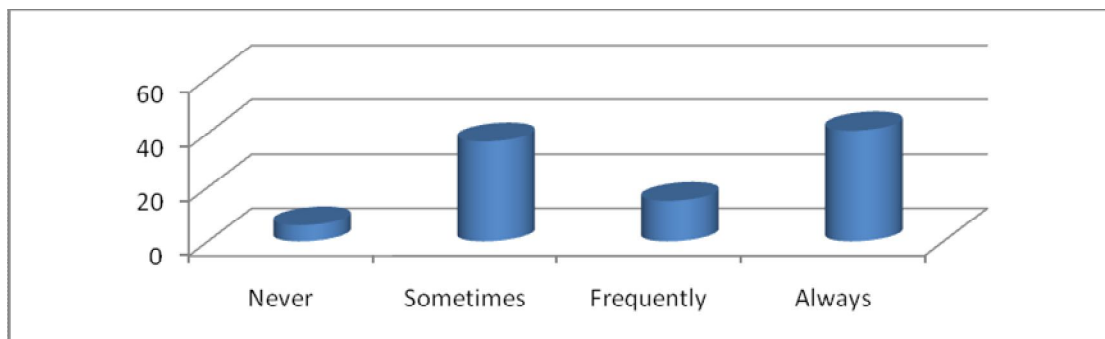


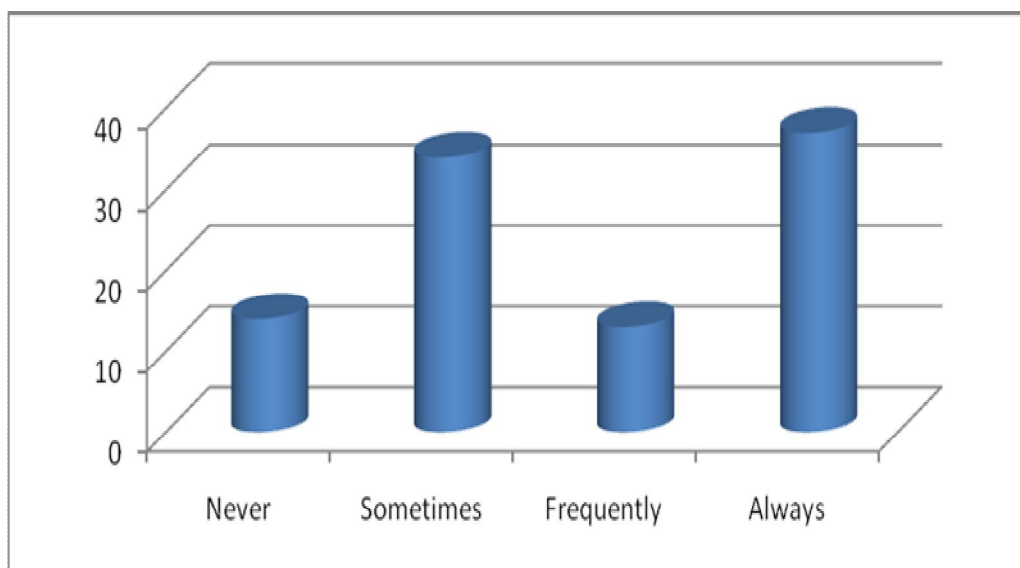
Table and histogram 4-6 indicate that six students (6.1%) never use cue words and expressions when they write composition, while thirty seven students (37.3%) sometimes do. Fifteen students (15.2%) frequently use cue words and expressions when writing composition, whereas, forty one learners (41.4%) always do.

Question 7: How often do you write composition on your own?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	14	14.3
Sometimes	34	34.7
Frequently	13	13.3
Always	37	37.7
Missing	2	
Total	98	100.0

Valid cases 98. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-7: Learners writing composition on their own



Both table and histogram 4-7 illustrate that fourteen students (14.3%) never write composition on their own, while thirty four students (34.7%) sometimes do. Thirteen students (13.3%) frequently write their composition independently, and thirty seven learners (37.7%) always do.

Question 8: How often learners get stuck while writing composition?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	13	13.1
Sometimes	37	37.4
Frequently	34	34.3
Always	15	15.1
Missing	1	1.0
Total	99	100.0

Valid cases 99. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-8: How often learners get stuck while writing composition

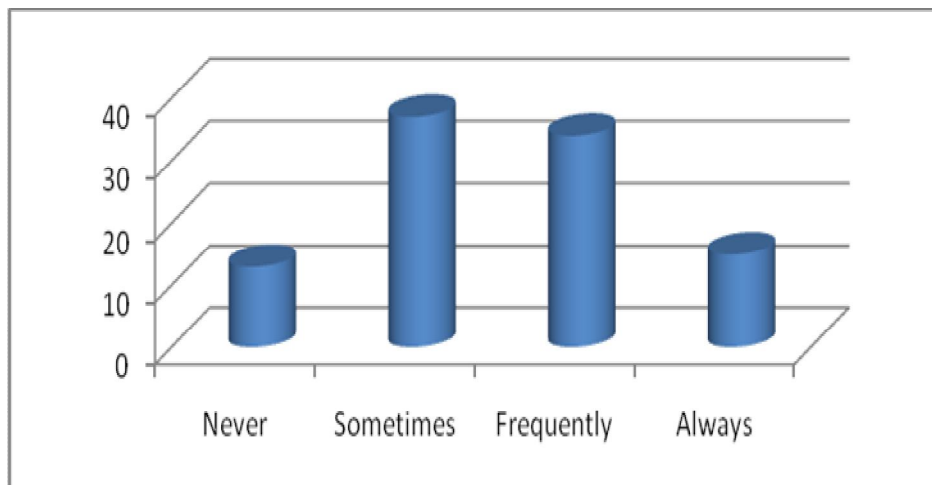


Figure 4-8 shows that thirteen students (13%) never get stuck while writing composition, while, thirty seven (37%) sometimes do. Thirty four students (34%) frequently get stuck while writing composition, whereas, fifteen students (15%) always do.

Question 9: How often do you Talk orally about the topic?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	12	12.2
Sometimes	30	30.6
Frequently	15	15.3
Always	41	41.8
Missing	2	2
Total	98	100.0

Valid cases 98. Missing cases 2.

Histogram 4-9: Talking orally about the topic

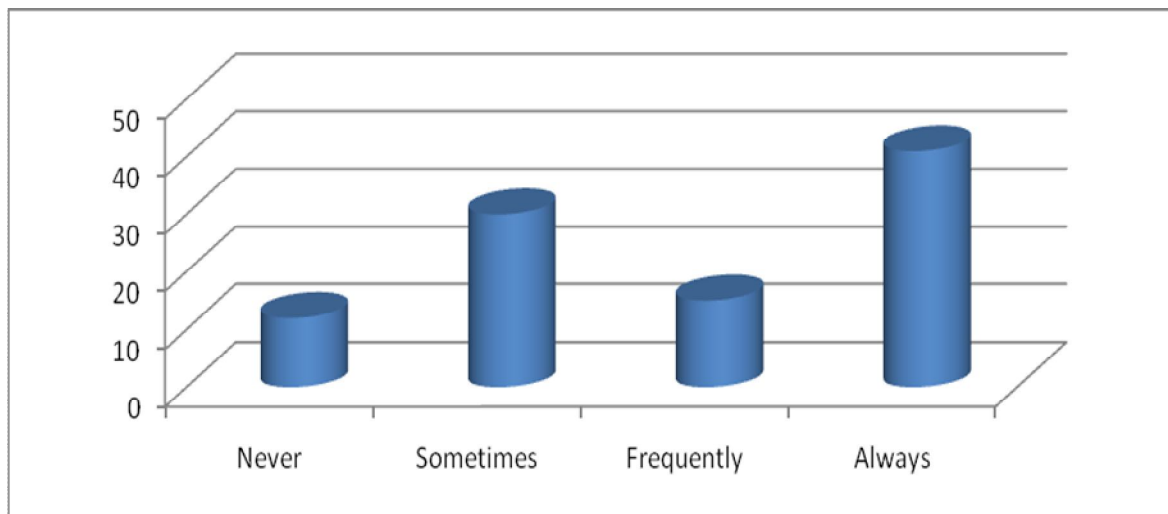


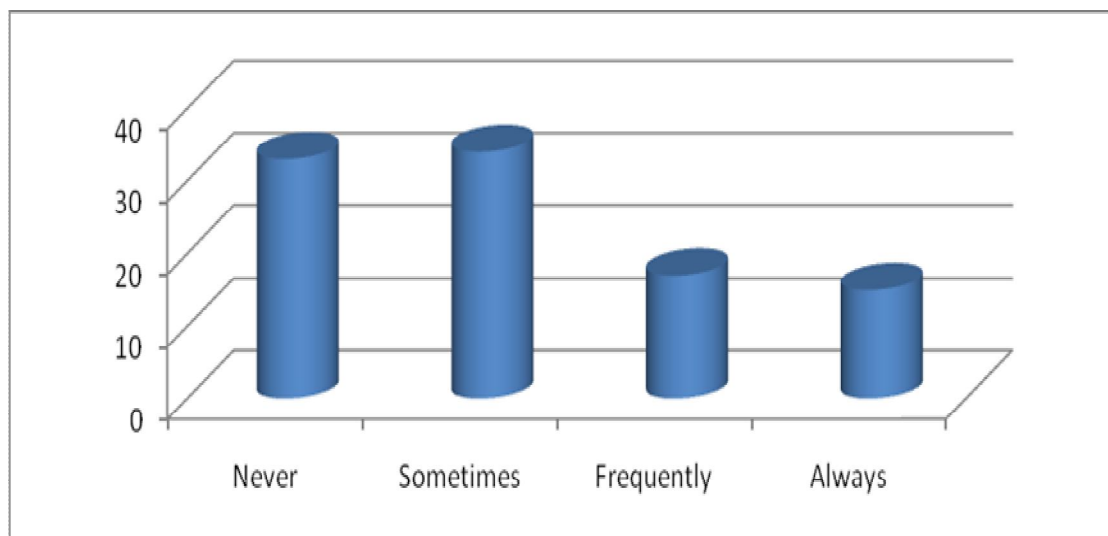
Figure 4-9 illustrates that twelve students (12.2%) never talk orally about the topic, while thirty students (30.6%) sometimes do. Fifteen students (15.3%) frequently talk orally about the topic, whereas forty one students (41.8%) always do.

Question 10: How often do you write a draft of your composition ?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	33	33.3
Sometimes	34	34.3
Frequently	17	17.2
Always	15	15.2
Missing	1	1
Total	99	100.0

Valid cases 99. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-10: Writing a composition draft



Histogram 4-10 indicates that thirty three students (33.3%) never write a draft of their composition, whereas, thirty four students (34,3%) sometimes do. Seventeen learners (17.2%) frequently write a draft of their composition, while fifteen students (15.2%) always do.

Question 11: How often do you read a proof (draft) of your composition?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	9	9.0
Sometimes	22	22.0
Frequently	37	37.0
Always	32	32.0
Total	100	100.0

Valid cases 100. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-11: How often students proofread their composition

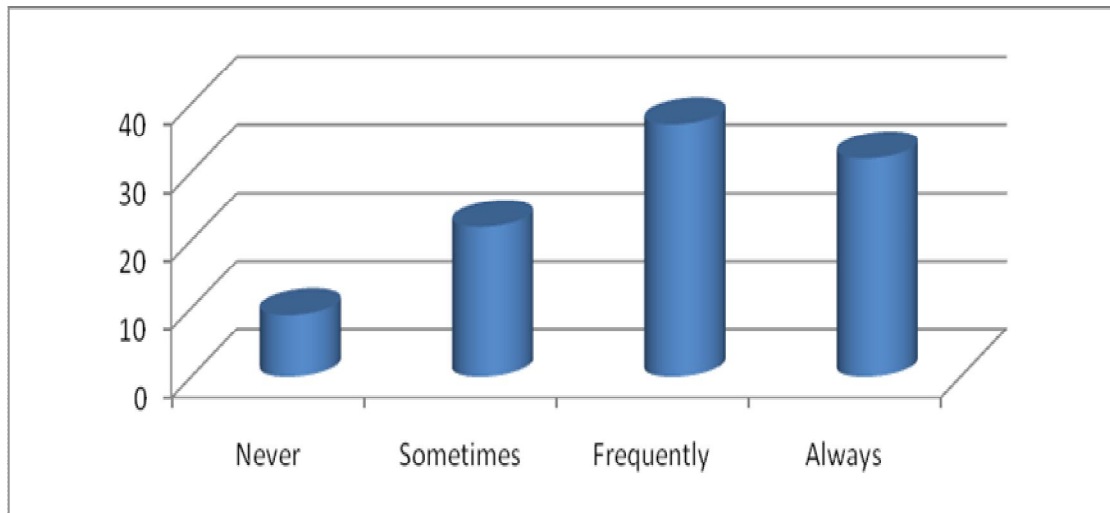


Table and histogram 4-11 illustrate that nine students (9%) never proofread their composition, whereas, twenty two students (22%) sometimes do. Thirty seven students (37%) frequently proofread their composition, while thirty two (32%) always do.

Question 12: How often do you write your composition in class?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	7	7.0
Sometimes	32	32.0
Frequently	18	18.0
Always	43	43.0
Total	100	100.0

Valid cases 100. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-12: Writing composition in class

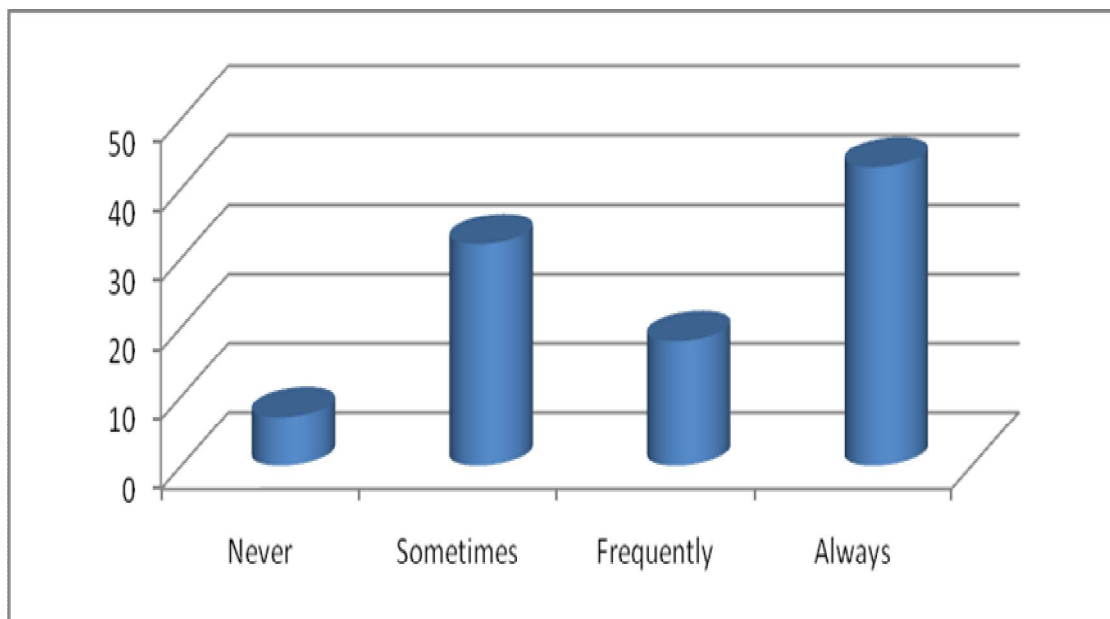


Figure 4-12 shows that seven learners (7%) never write their last version of composition in class, while thirty two students (32%) sometimes do. The histogram also shows that eighteen learners (18%) frequently write their last version of composition in class, whereas forty three (43%) always do.

Question 13:How often do you get feedback on your composition?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	12	12.1
Sometimes	45	45.4
Frequently	15	15.2
Always	27	27.3
Missing	1	1
Total	99	100.0

Valid cases 99. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-13: How often do get feedback on your composition?

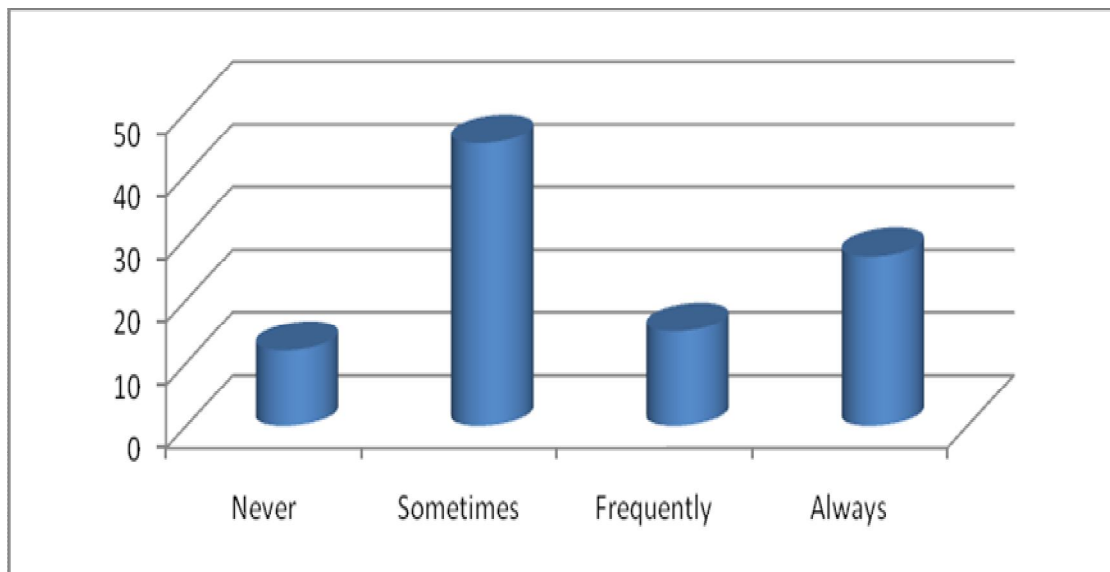


Table and histogram 4-13 show that twelve students (12.1%) never get feedback on their compositions, whereas, forty five students (45.4%) sometimes do. Fifteen students (15.2%) frequently get feedback on their compositions, while twenty seven (27.2%) always do.

Question 14:How often do you correct mistakes?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	15	15.2
Sometimes	33	33.3
Frequently	20	20.2
Always	31	31.3
Missing	1	2
Total	99	100.0

Valid cases 99. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-14: Correcting mistakes

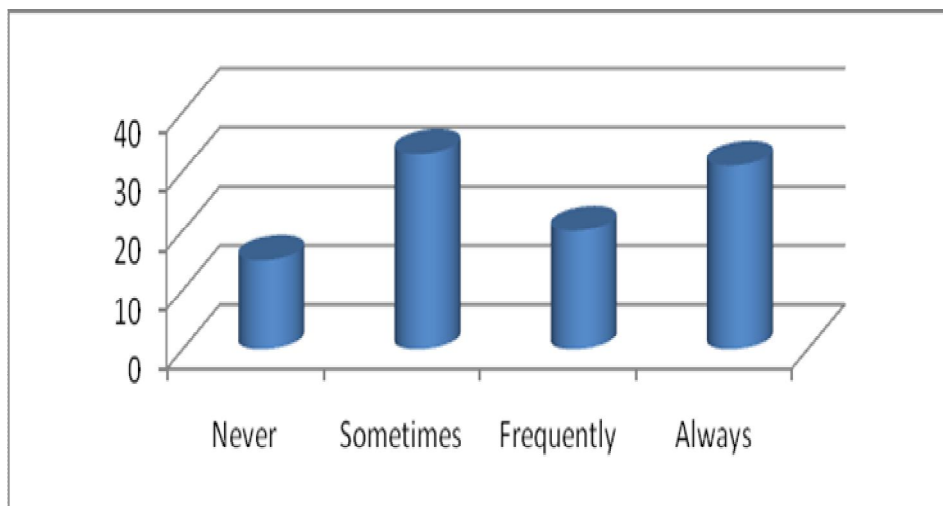


Table 4-14 and histogram illustrate that fifteen learners (15.2%) never correct their mistakes, while thirty three students (33.3%) sometimes do. The figure also, displays that twenty students (20.2%) frequently correct their mistakes, whereas, thirty one students (31.3%) always do. This means, approximately half of the samples do not correct their mistakes.

Question 15:How often do you do remedial work?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	19	19.2
Sometimes	32	32.3
Frequently	26	26.3
Always	22	22.2
Missing	1	2.0
Total	99	100.0

Valid cases 99. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-15: Doing remedial work

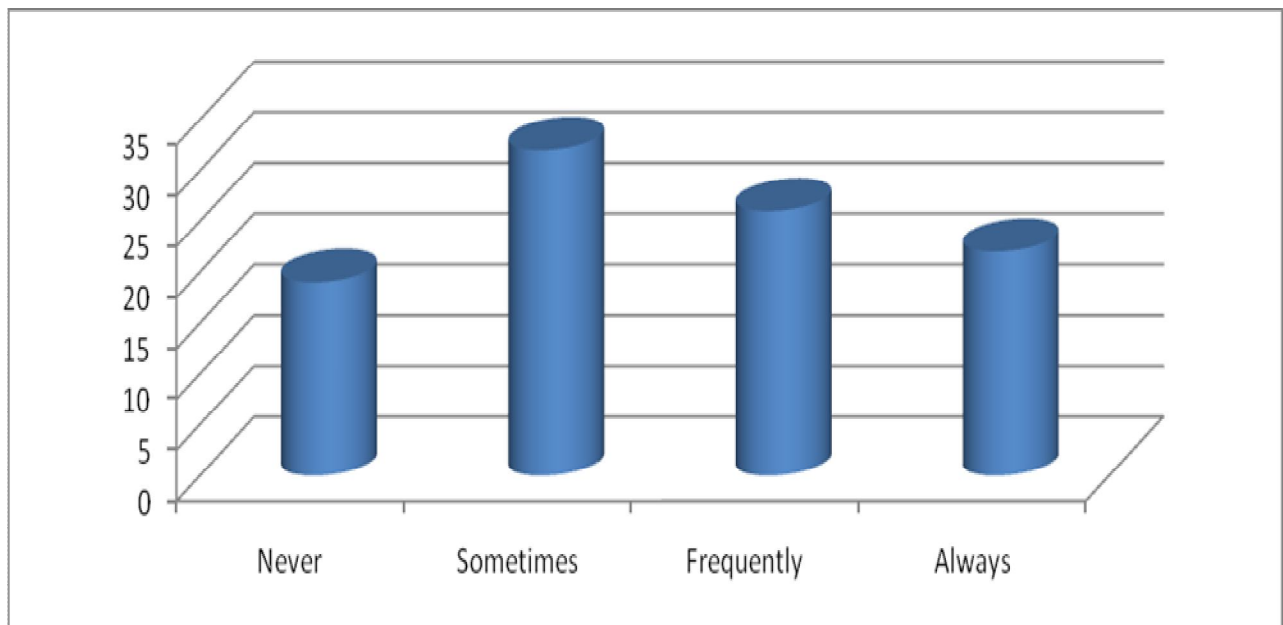


Table and histogram 4-15 indicate that nineteen students (19%) never do remedial work, whereas, thirty two students (32%) sometimes do. Twenty six students (26%) frequently do remedial work, while twenty two (22%) always do.

Question 16: How often do you feel bored when you write composition?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	24	24.4
Sometimes	42	42.8
Frequently	10	10.2
Always	22	22.4
Missing	2	2.0
Total	98	100.0

Valid cases 98. Missing cases 2.

Histogram 4-16: How often learners feel bored when writing composition

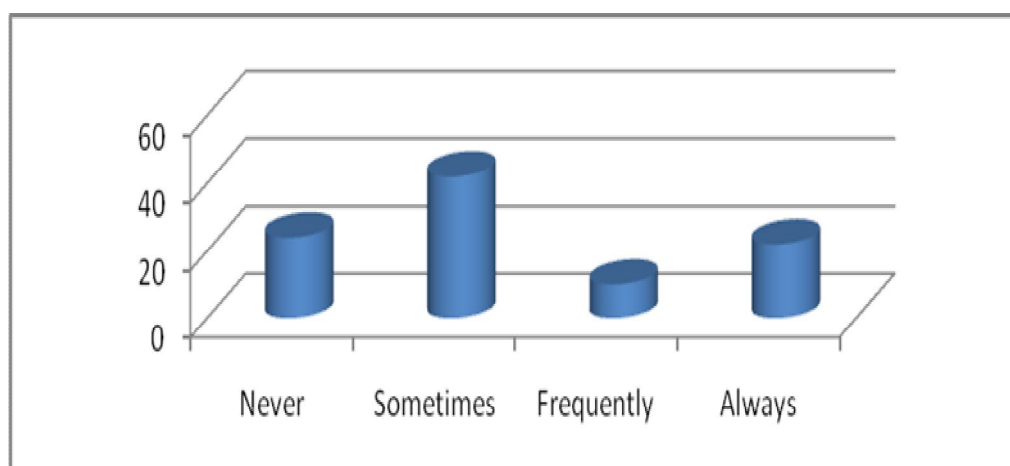


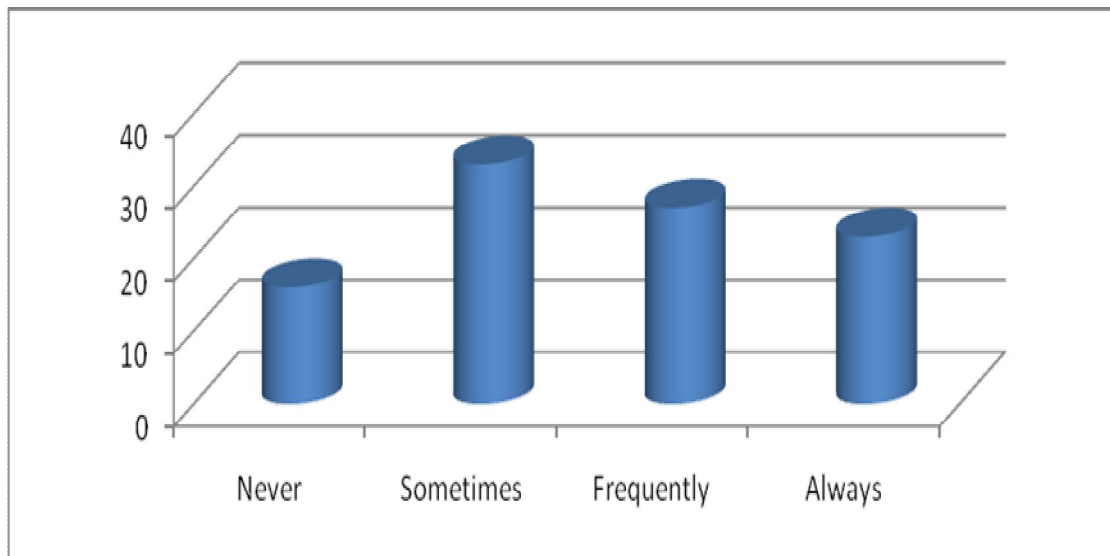
Table 4-16 and histogram illustrate that twenty four students (24.4%) never feel bored when they write composition, while forty two learners (42.8%) sometimes do. The histogram also displays that ten students (10.2%) frequently feel bored when they write composition, whereas, twenty two learners (22.4%) always do.

Question 17: How often do you use English outside the class?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	16	16.2
Sometimes	33	33.3
Frequently	27	27.3
Always	23	23.2
Missing	1	1.0
Total	99	100.0

Valid cases 99. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-17: Using English outside the class



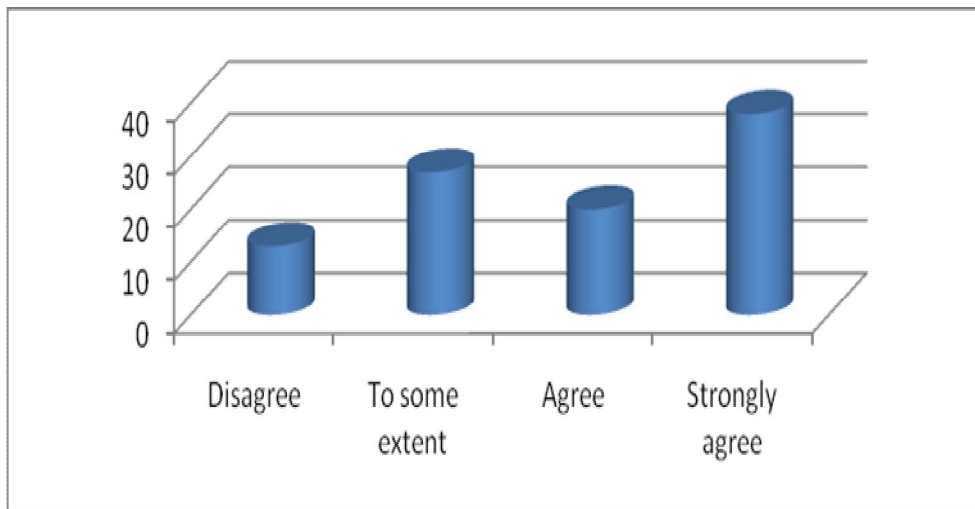
Both table and histogram 4-17 indicate that sixteen students (16%) never use English outside class, whereas, thirty three students (33%) sometimes do. Twenty seven students (27%) frequently use English outside class, while twenty three students (23%) always do.

Question18: Can PowerPoint improve your writing ability?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Disagree	13	13.3
To some extent	27	27.6
Agree	20	20.4
Strongly agree	38	38.8
Missing	2	2.0
Total	98	100.0

Valid cases 98. Missing cases 2.

Histogram 4-18: PowerPoint can improve students' writing ability



Both table and histogram 4-18 show that thirteen students (13%) disagree that the PowerPoint can improve their writing, whereas, twenty seven (27%) students agree to some extent. Twenty students (20%) agree that using PowerPoint can help improve students' writing ability, while thirty eight students (38%) strongly agree.

Question19: Is writing an E-mail useful in learning free writing ?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Disagree	25	25.5
To some extent	18	18.3
Agree	30	30.6
Strongly agree	25	25.5
Missing	2	2.0
Total	98	100.0

Valid cases 98. Missing cases 2.

Histogram 4-19: Writing e-mail is useful in free writing learning

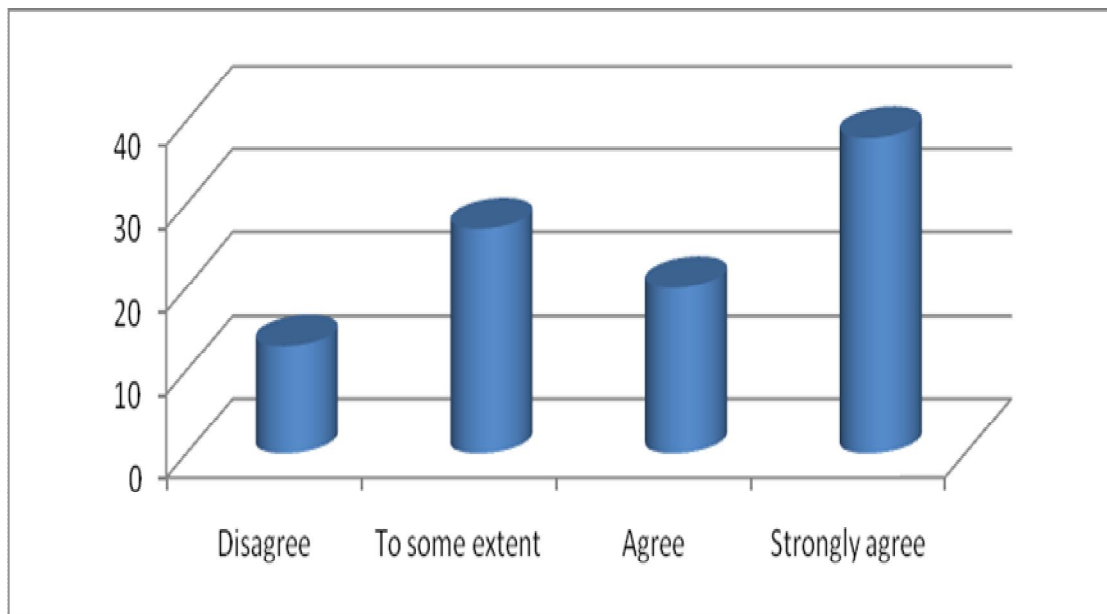


Figure 4-19 illustrates that twenty five students (25%) disagree that writing e-mail is useful in free writing learning, whereas eighteen students (18%) agree to some extent. Thirty students (30%) agree that writing e-mail is useful in free writing learning, while twenty five students (25%) strongly agree.

Question 20: How often do you take part in role playing in class?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	25	25.3
Sometimes	25	25.3
Frequently	31	31.3
Always	18	18.2
Missing	1	1
Total	99	100.0

Valid cases 99. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-20: Taking part in role playing in class

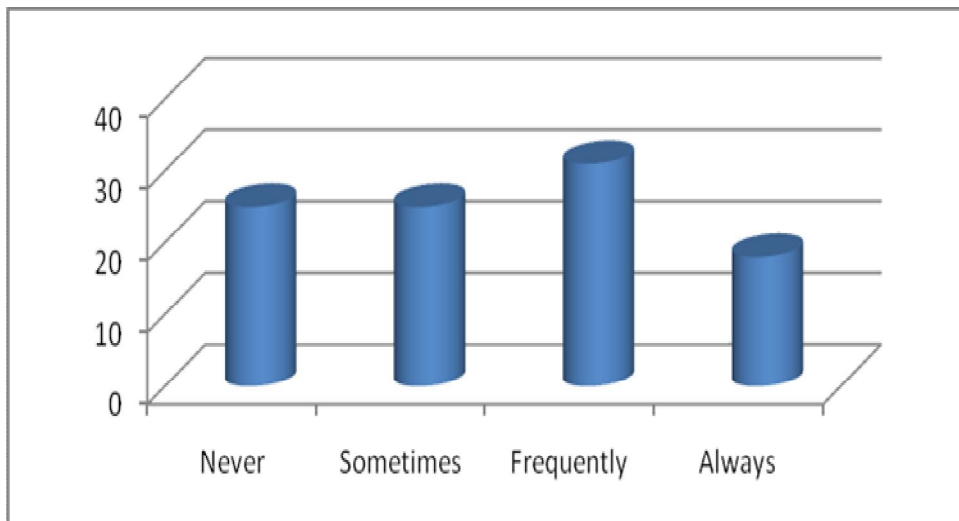


Table and histogram 4-20 illustrate that twenty five students (25%) never take part in role playing in class, whereas twenty five (25%) sometimes do. Thirty one students (31%) frequently take part in role playing in class, while eighteen students (18%) always do.

Question 1: How often do you write a composition about an interesting topics?

Never	5	10.0
Sometimes	16	32.0
Frequently	15	30.0
Always	14	28.0
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-21: Selecting interesting topics

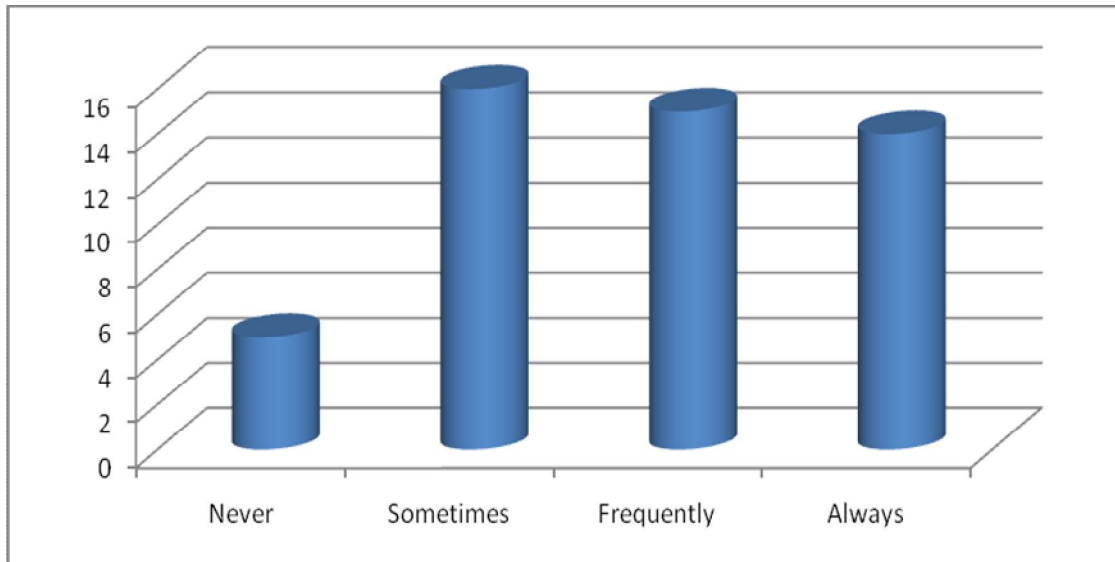


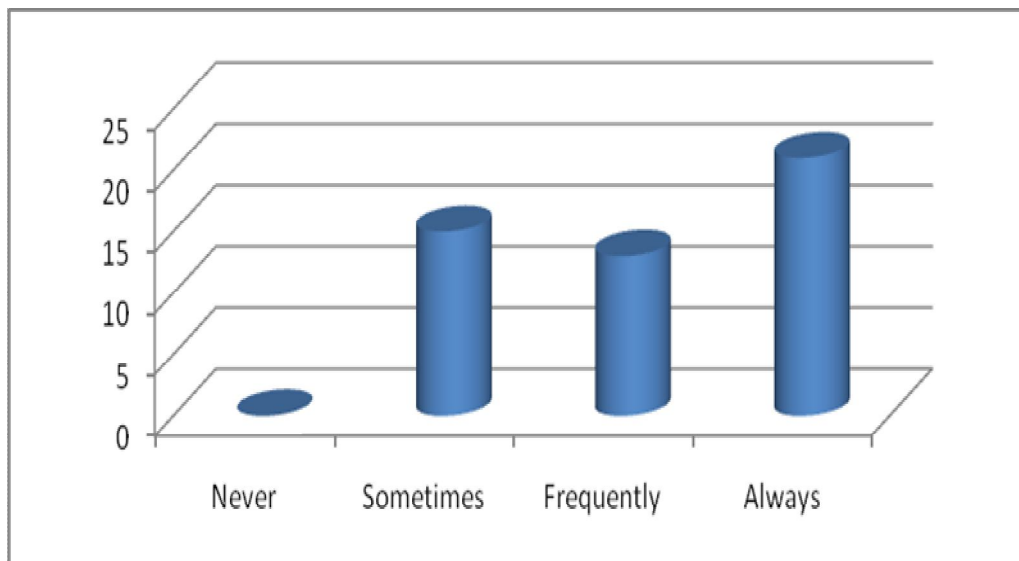
Table and figure 4-21 show that five teachers (10%) never select interesting topics, whereas sixteen students (32%) sometimes do. The figure illustrates also that fifteen students (30%) frequently select interesting topics, while, fourteen teachers (28%) always do.

Question 2: How often do you brainstorm the topic?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	0	0
Sometimes	15	30.6
Frequently	13	26.5
Always	21	42.8
Missing	1	2
Total	50	

Valid cases 48. Missing cases 2.

Histogram 4-2: Getting students brainstorm the topic



Both table and histogram 4-2 illustrate that fifteen teachers (30.6%) sometimes get the students brainstorm the topic. Thirteen teachers (26.5%) frequently do, whereas twenty one teachers (42.8%) always do.

Question 3: How often do you write cue words and expressions on the blackboard?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	0	0
Sometimes	16	32.0
Frequently	13	26.0
Always	21	42.0
Total	50	100.

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-3: Writing cue words and expressions on the blackboard

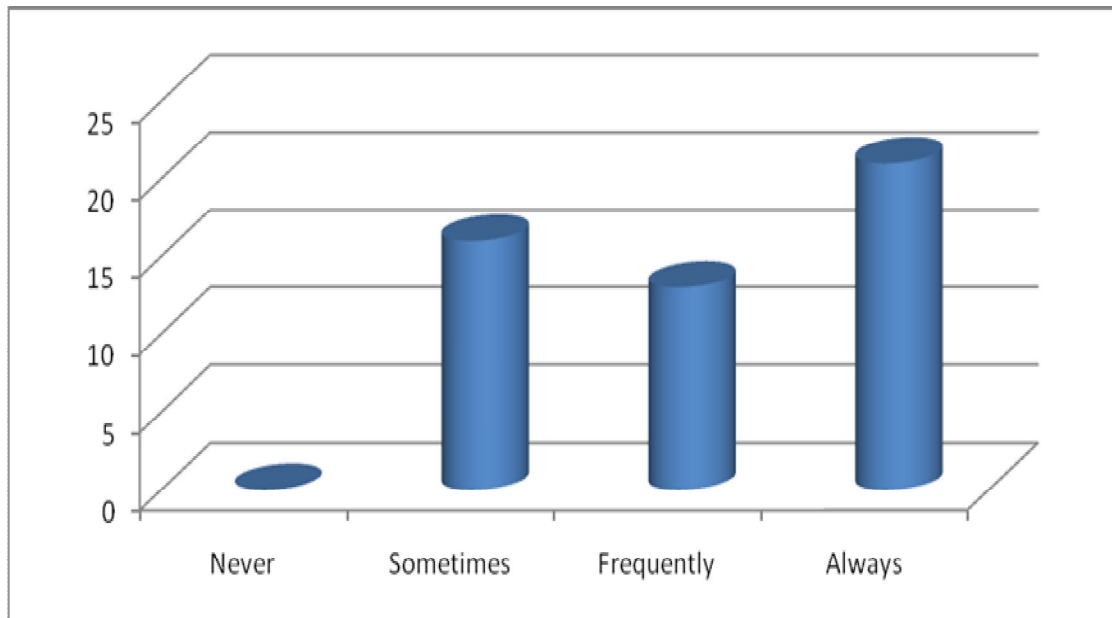


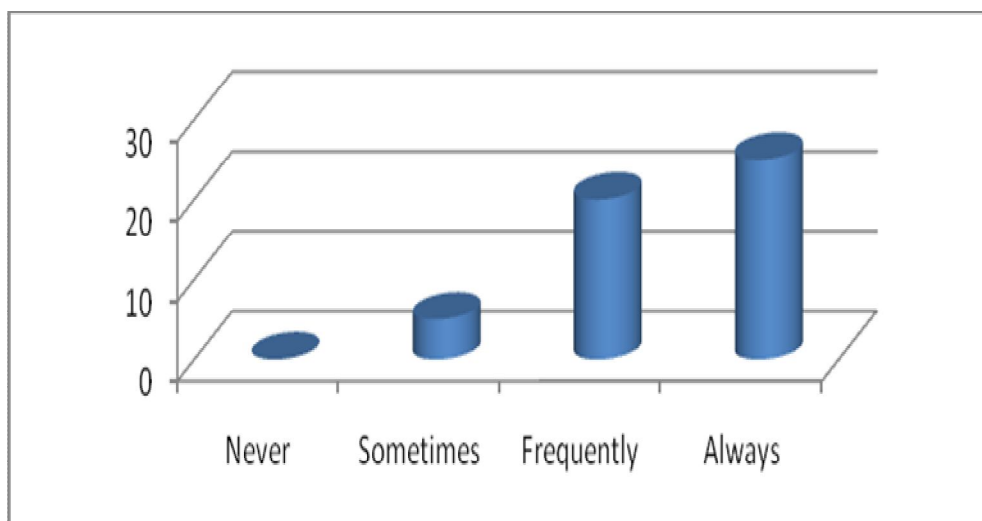
Figure 4-3 illustrates that sixteen teachers (32%) sometimes write cue words and expressions on the blackboard, It shows that, thirteen teachers (26%) frequently write cue words and expressions, whereas, twenty teachers (42%) always do.

Question 4: How often do you involve learners in answering questions about a picture?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	0	0
Sometimes	5	10.0
Frequently	20	40.0
Always	25	50.0
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-4: Involving learners in answering questions about a picture



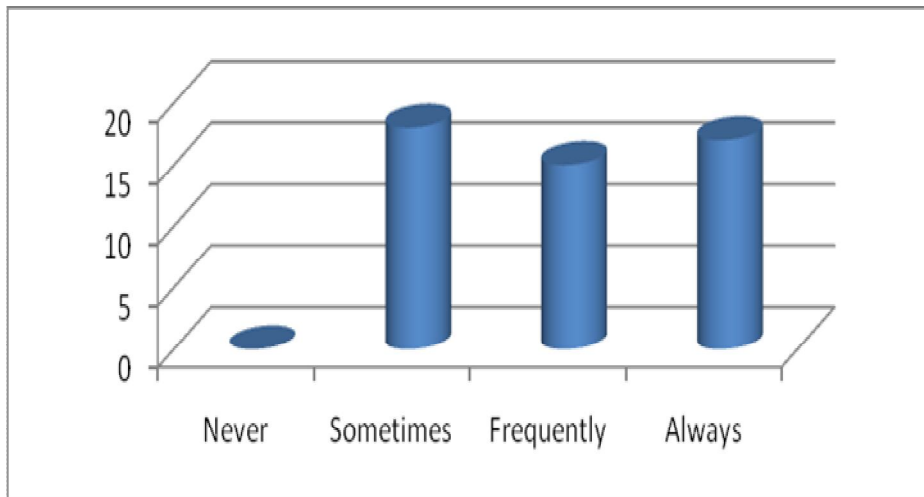
Both table and histogram 4-4 illustrate that five teachers (10%) sometimes involve students to answer questions about the picture. In addition, the figure illustrates that twenty teachers (40%) frequently get learners to answer questions about the picture, while twenty five teachers (50%) always do.

Question 5:How often do you give individual attention?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	0	0
Sometimes	18	36.0
Frequently	15	30.0
Always	17	34.0
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-5:Giving individual attention



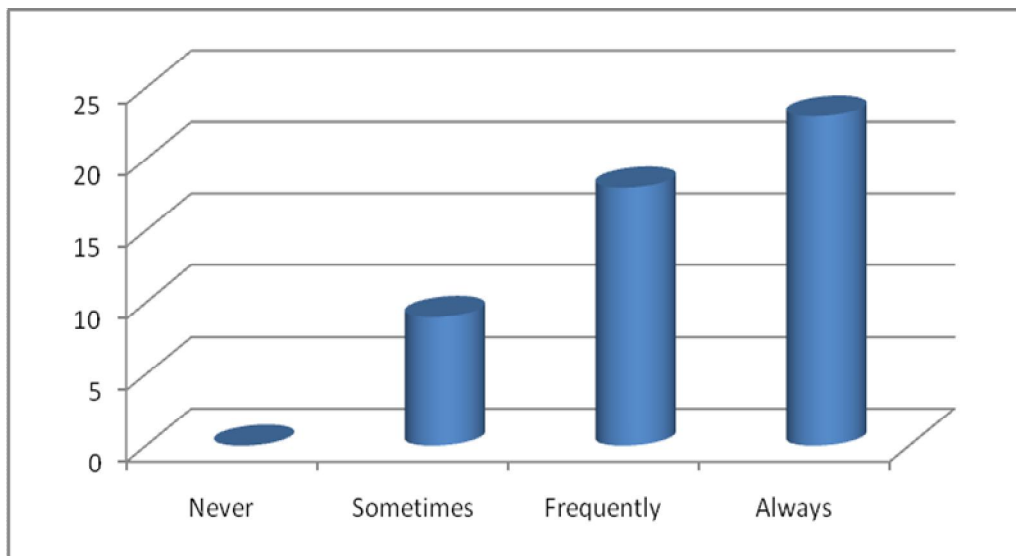
Histogram 4-5 shows that eighteen teachers (36%) sometimes give individual attention. The figure also illustrates that fifteen teachers (30%) frequently give individual attention, while seventeen teachers (34%) always do.

Question 6: How often do you get individual students to talk orally about the topic?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	0	0
Sometimes	9	18.0
Frequently	18	36.0
Always	23	46.0
Missing		
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-6: Getting individual students to talk orally about the topic



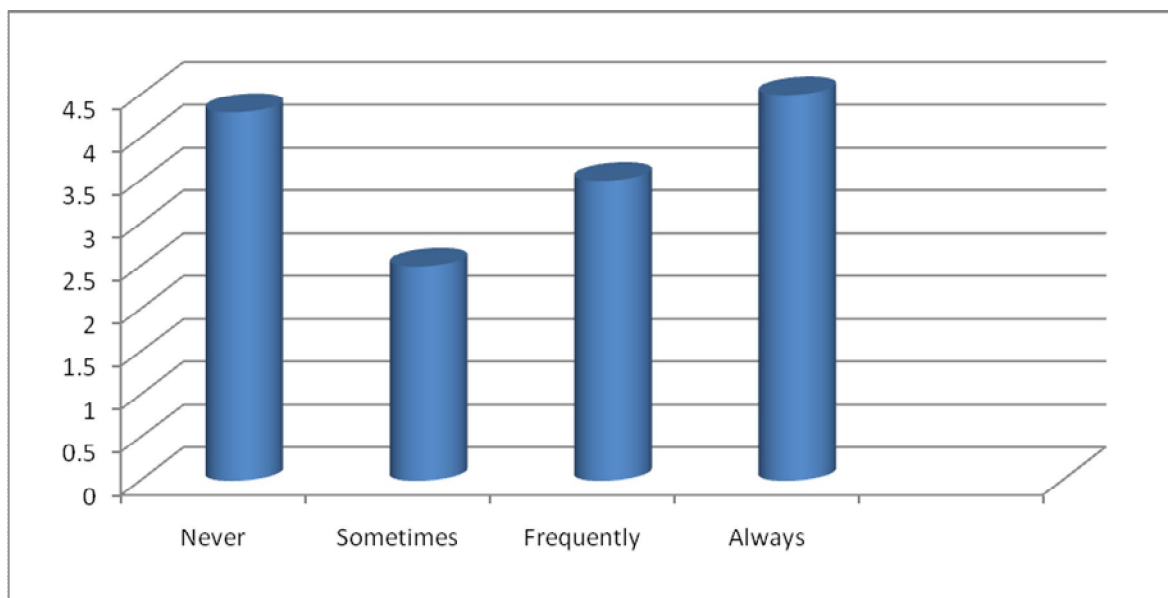
Both table and histogram 4-6 show that nine teachers (18%) sometimes get individuals to talk orally about the topic, while eighteen teachers (36%) frequently do. The histogram also displays that twenty three teachers (46%) always get individuals to talk orally about the topic.

Table 4-27:How often do you organize students into groups?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	4	8.16
Sometimes	22	44.9
Frequently	20	40.8
Always	3	6.1
Missing	1	1.0
Total	49	100.0

Valid cases 49. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-27: Organizing students into groups



Both table and histogram 4-7 illustrate that four teachers (8%) never organize the students into groups, whereas, twenty two teachers (44%) sometimes do. In addition,

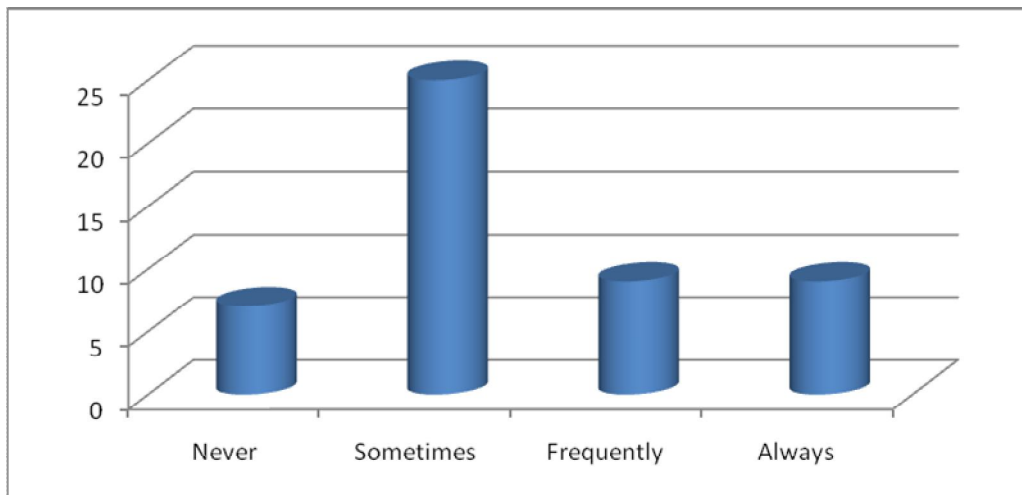
the figure illustrates that twenty teachers (40%) frequently organize the students into groups, while three teachers (6%) always do.

Question 8: How often do you ask learners to write a composition draft at home?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	7	14.0
Sometimes	25	50.0
Frequently	9	18.0
Always	9	18.0
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-8: Asking learners to write a composition draft at home



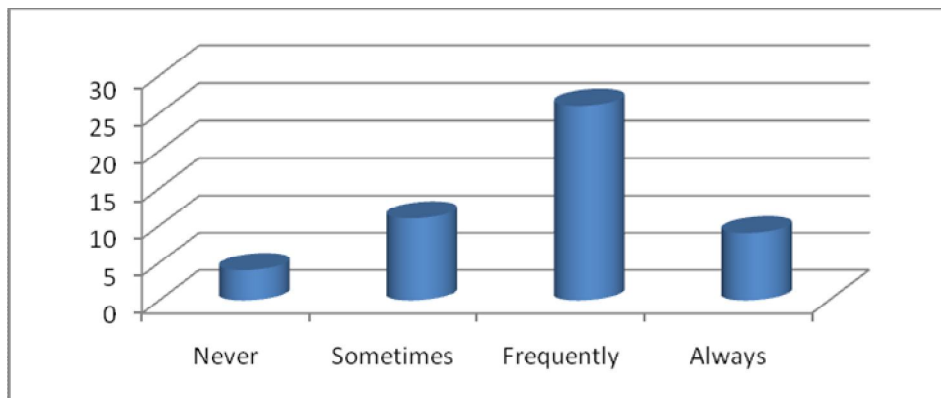
Histogram 4-8 shows that seven teachers (14%) never ask the students to write a draft at home, whereas, twenty five teachers (50%) sometimes do. Nine teachers (18%) frequently ask the students to write a draft at home, while nine teachers (18%) always do.

Question 9: How often do you get students to proofread their compositions?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	4	8.0
Sometimes	11	22.0
Frequently	26	52.0
Always	9	18.0
Missing	0	
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-29: Getting students to proofread their composition



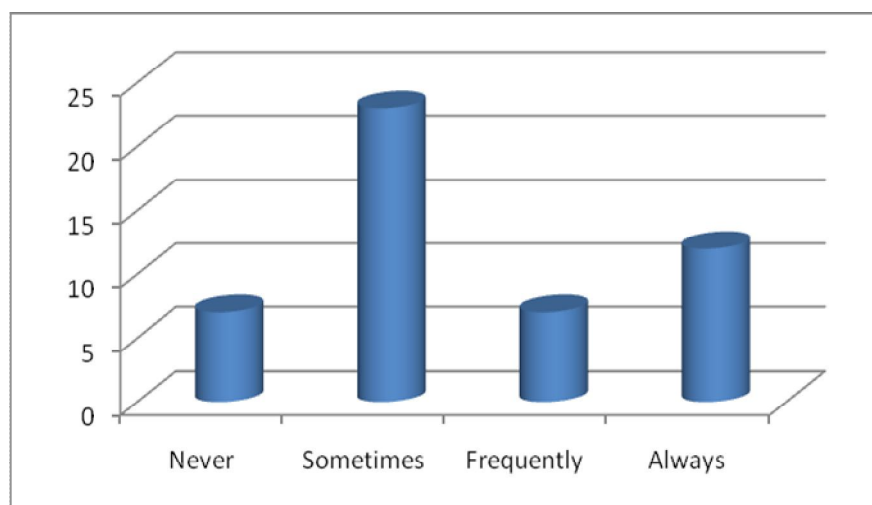
Both table and histogram 4-9 illustrate that four teachers (8%) never get the students to proofread their compositions, whereas, eleven teachers (22%) sometimes do. Moreover, the figure illustrates that twenty six teachers (52%) frequently get the students to proofread their compositions, while nine teachers (18%) always do.

Question 10: How often do you get learners to write the last version in class?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	7	14.2
Sometimes	23	46.9
Frequently	7	14.2
Always	12	24.4
Missing	1	2
Total	49	100.0

Valid cases 49. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-30: Getting learners to write the last version in class



Both table and histogram 4-10 illustrate that seven teachers (14.2%) never get the students to write the last version of their composition in class, while twenty three teachers (46.9%) sometimes do. Seven teachers (14.2%) frequently get the students to write the last version of their composition in class, whereas, twelve teachers (24.4%) always do.

Question 11: How often do you help students while they are writing composition?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	0	0
Sometimes	12	24.0
Frequently	19	38.0
Always	19	38.0
Missing	0	
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-11: Helping students while they are writing composition

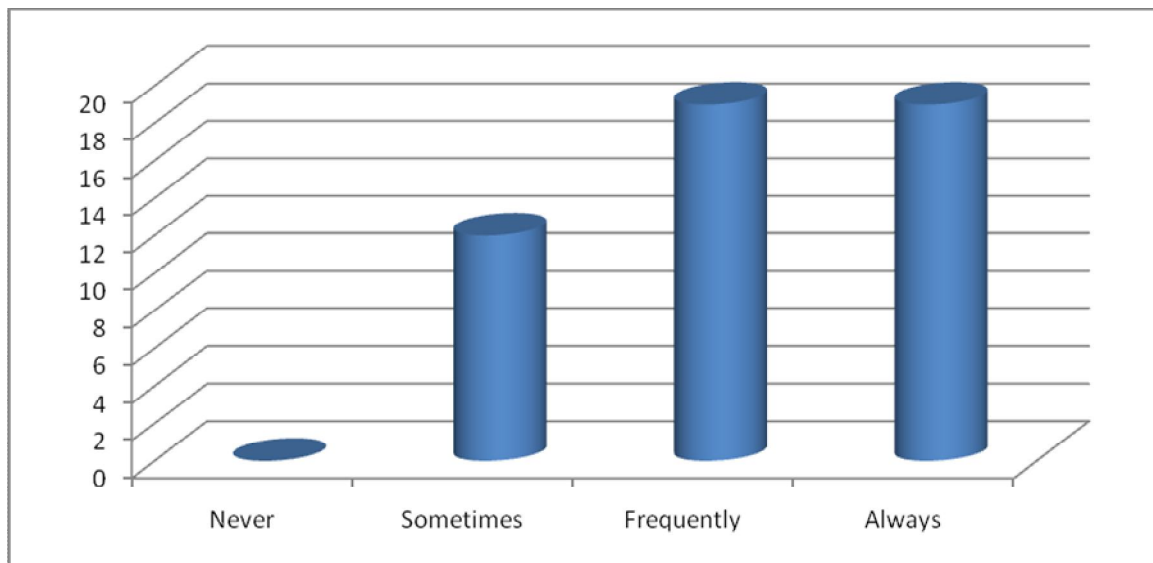


Table and figure 4-11 illustrate that twelve teachers (24%) sometimes help the students while they are writing. In addition, the figure illustrates that nineteen teachers (38%) frequently help the students while they are writing, whereas, nineteen teachers (38%) always do.

Question 4-12: How often do you use symbols when marking to indicate mistakes?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	6	12.0
Sometimes	22	44.0
Frequently	8	16.0
Always	14	28.0
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-12: Using symbols when marking to indicate mistakes

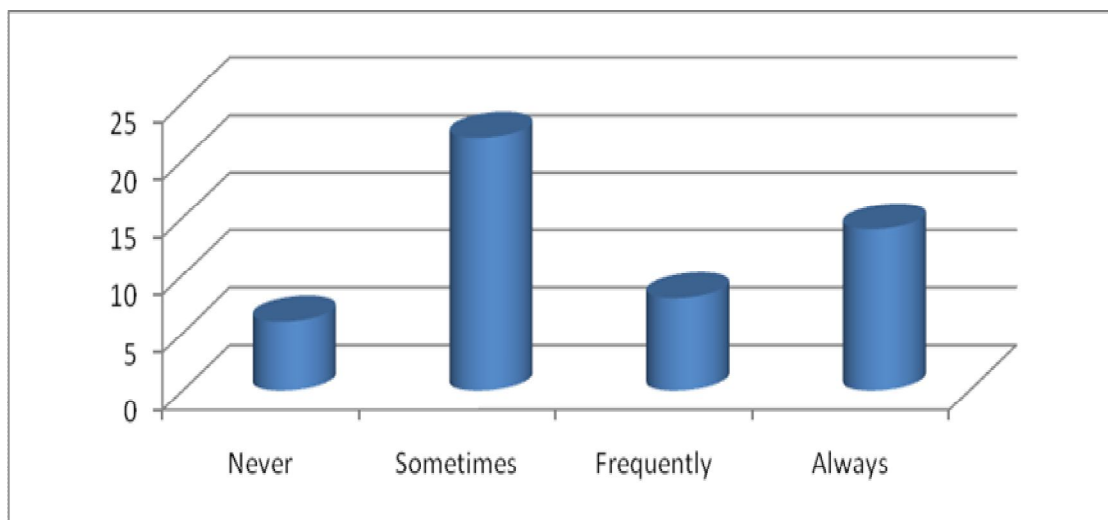


Figure 4-12 illustrates that six teachers (12%) never use symbols in marking to indicate mistakes, whereas, twenty two teachers (44%) sometimes do. Eight teachers (16%) frequently use symbols in marking to indicate mistakes, while fourteen teachers (28%) always do.

Question 13: How often do you give feedback on students' writing

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	0	0
Sometimes	18	36.0
Frequently	15	30.0
Always	17	34.0
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-13: Giving feedback on students' writing

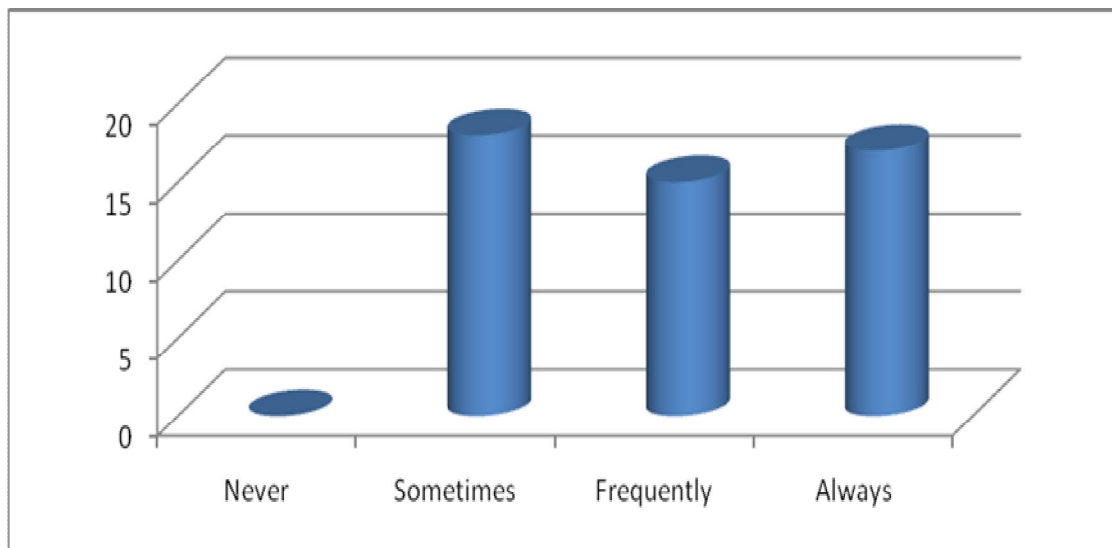


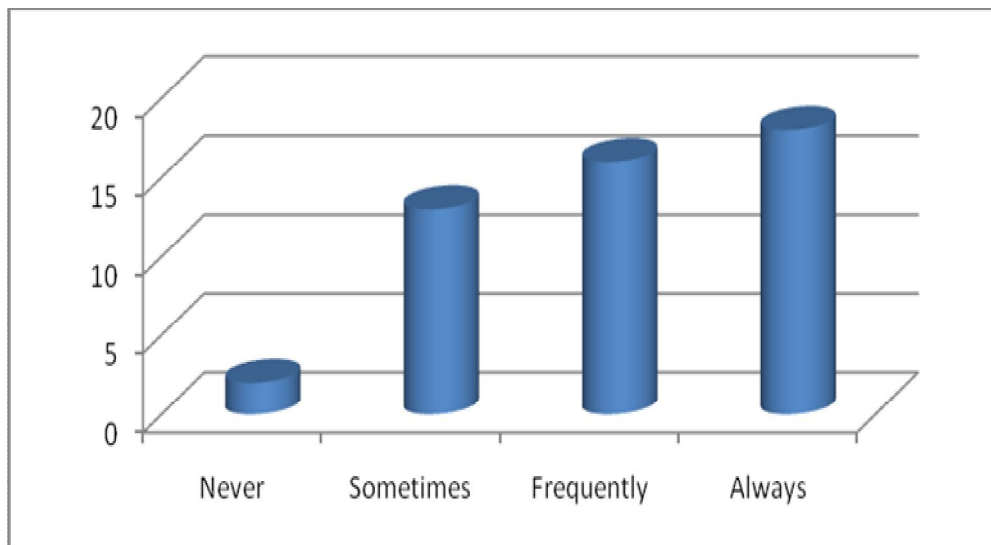
Table 4-13 and figure 4-13 displays that eighteen teachers (36%) sometimes give feedback on the students' writing, while fifteen teachers (30%) frequently do. The figure also displays that seventeen teachers (34%) always give feedback on the students' writing.

Question 14: How often do you check students' correction of mistakes

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	2	4.0
Sometimes	13	26.5
Frequently	16	32.6
Always	18	36.7
Missing	1	2
Total	49	100.0

Valid cases 49. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-14: How often teachers check students' correction of mistakes



Histogram 4-14 indicates that two teachers (4%) never make sure that students have corrected their mistakes, while thirteen teachers (26.5%) sometimes do. Histogram and table 4-34 also display that sixteen teachers (32.6%) frequently make sure that the students have corrected their mistakes, whereas, eighteen teachers (36.7%) always do.

Question15: Communicative learners may write fluently and accurately

Items	Responses	Frequency
Disagree	4	8.2
To some extent	19	38.8
Agree	19	38.8
Strongly agree	7	14.3
Missing	1	2
Total	49	100.0

Valid cases 49. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-15: Communicative learners may write fluently and accurately

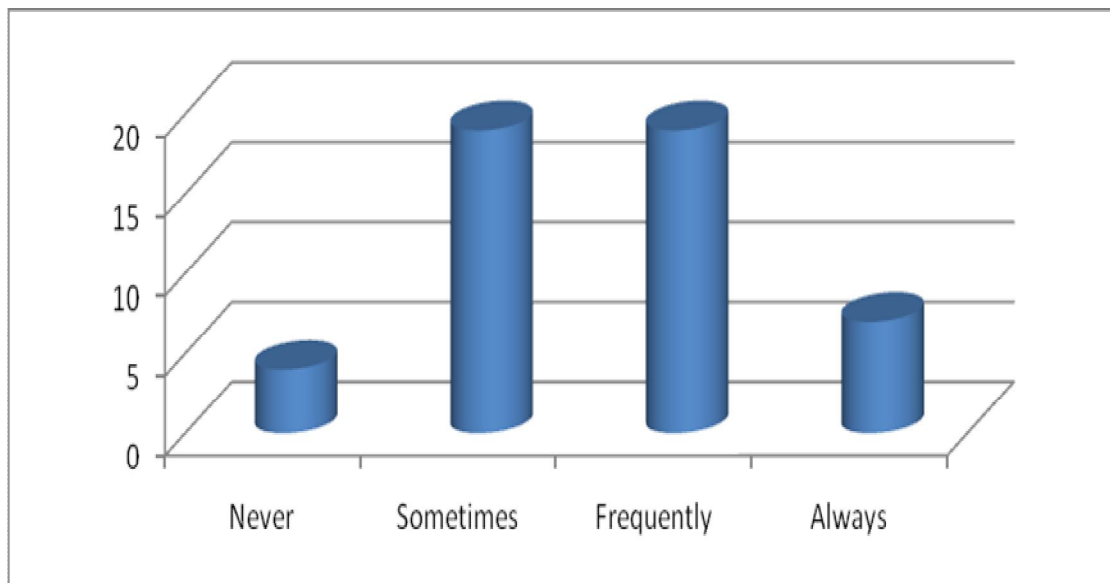


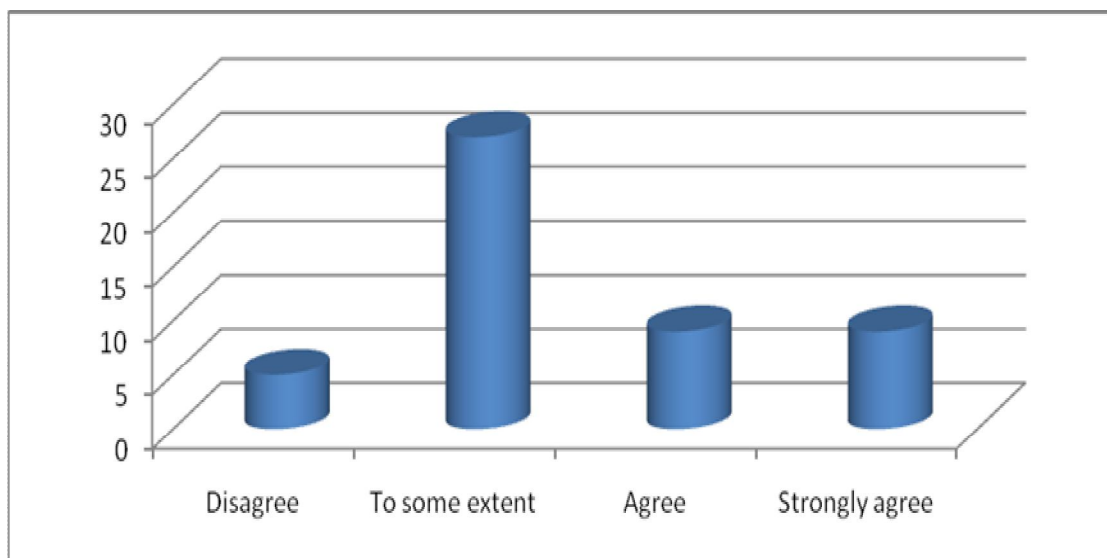
Figure 4-15 illustrates that four teachers (8%) disagree that communicative learners can write correctly, whereas, nineteen teachers (38%) agree to some extent. Nineteen teachers (38%) agree that communicative learners can write correctly, while seven teachers (14%) strongly agree.

Question 16: PowerPoint can improve learners' writing ability

Items	Responses	Frequency
Disagree	5	10.0
To some extent	27	54.0
Agree	9	36.0
Strongly agree	9	0
Missing	0	
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-16: PowerPoint can improve learners' writing ability



Both table and histogram 4-16 indicate that five teachers (10%) disagree that by using PowerPoint learners' writing ability can improve, whereas twenty seven teachers (54%) agree to some extent. Nine teachers (18%) agree that by using PowerPoint learners' writing ability can improve while nine teachers (18%) strongly agree.

Question 17: The Internet is a helpful resort for learners to improve their writing

Items	Responses	Frequency
Disagree	10	20.0
To some extent	22	44.0
Agree	10	20.0
Strongly agree	8	16.0
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-17: The Internet is a helpful resort for learners to improve their writing

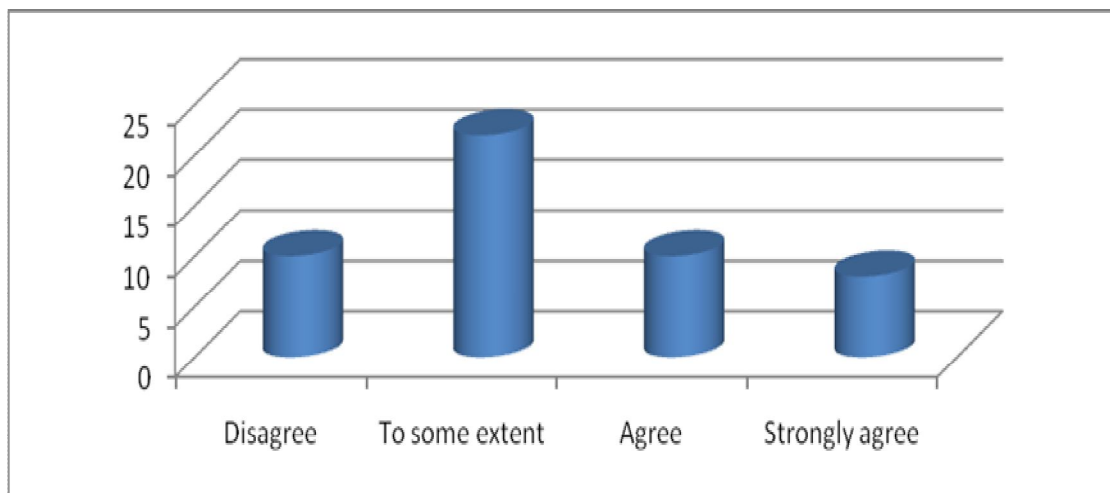


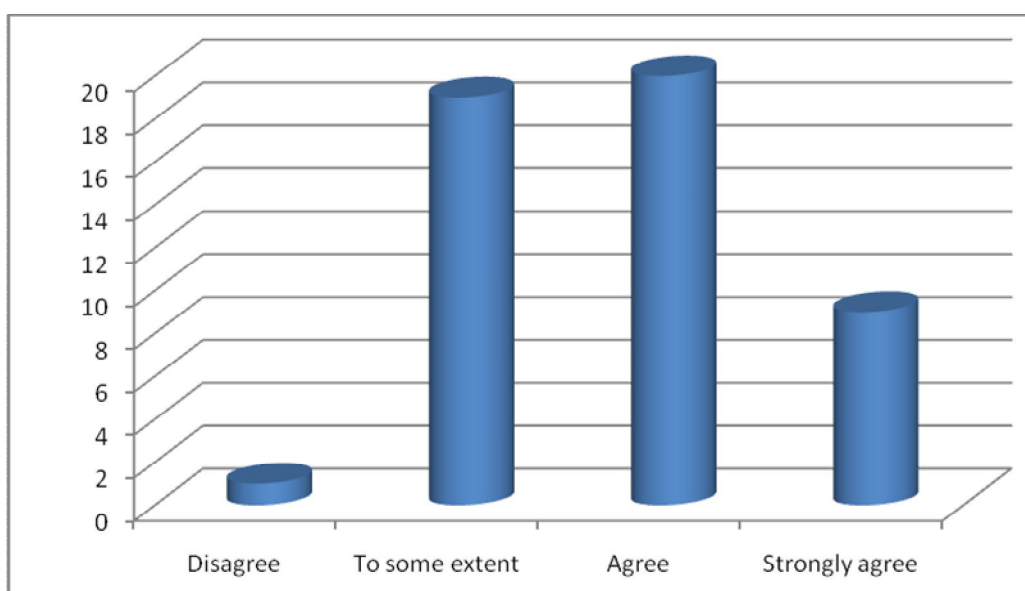
Table and histogram 4-17 show that ten teachers (20%) disagree that the Internet is a helpful resort for learners to improve their writing, while twenty two teachers (44 %) agree to some extent. The figure also displays that ten teachers (20%) agree that the Internet is a helpful resort for learners to improve their writing, whereas eight teachers (16%) strongly agree.

Question 18: E-mail writing enhances learners' achievement in composition writing

Items	Responses	Frequency
Disagree	1	2.0
To some extent	19	38.8
Agree	20	40.
Strongly agree	9	18.
Missing	1	2.0
Total	49	100.0

Valid cases 49. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-18: E-mail writing enhances learners' achievement in composition writing



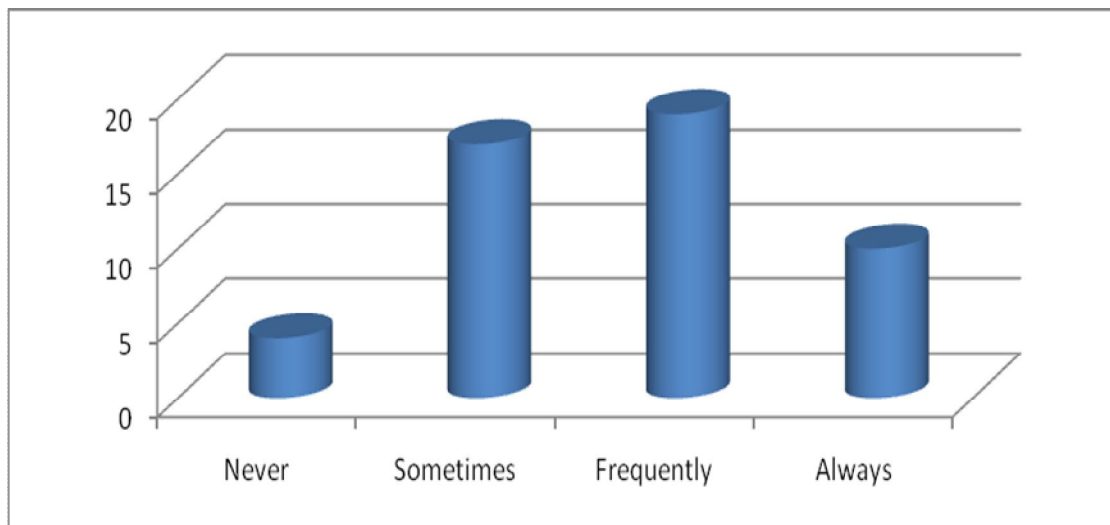
Histogram 4-18 indicates that one teacher (2%) disagrees that e-mail writing is so useful for enhancing the learners' achievement in composition writing, whereas nineteen teachers (38%) agree to some extent. Twenty nine teachers (56%) agree that e-mail writing is so useful for enhancing the learners' achievement in composition writing, while nine teachers (18%) strongly agree.

Question 19: Allotting enough time for oral communication through role playing

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	4	8.0
Sometimes	17	34.0
Frequently	19	38.0
Always	10	20.0
Total	50	100.0

Valid cases 50. Missing cases 0.

Histogram 4-19: Allotting enough time for oral communication through role playing



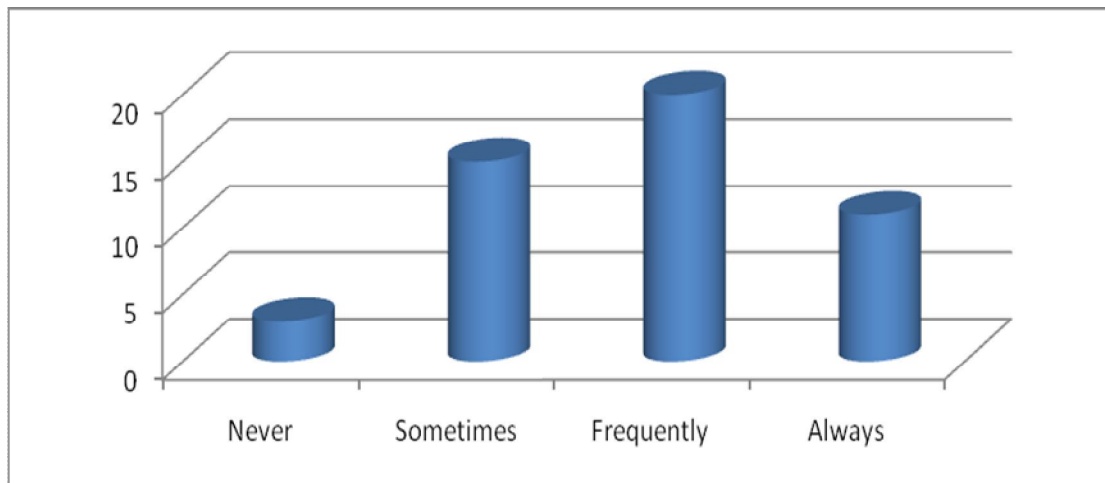
Both table and histogram 4-19 show that four teachers (8%) never allot enough time for oral communication through role –playing, whereas, seventeen teachers (34%) sometimes do. Nineteen teachers (38%) frequently allot enough time for oral communication through role-playing, while ten teachers (20%) always do.

Question 20 How often do you teach composition as a process?

Items	Responses	Frequency
Never	3	6.1.0
Sometimes	15	30.6
Frequently	20	40.8
Always	11	22.4
Missing	1	2.0
Total	49	100.0

Valid cases 49. Missing cases 1.

Histogram 4-20: Teaching composition as a process



Histogram 4-40 illustrates that three teachers (6%) never teach English in context, whereas fifteen teachers (30%) sometimes do. The figure also indicates that twenty one teachers (42%) frequently teach English in context, while eleven teachers (22%) always do.

4-1 Writing Test:

The writing test has revealed significant findings. The following tables show percentages of learners' performance in form and content of composition writing.

Table 4-21: Subjects' marks and percentages in assigned composition

No. of Pupils	Marks (20)	1-4	5-8	9-12	13-16	17-20
100	Percentage	26%	40%	15%	19%	0%

The table above illustrates that twenty six learners (26%) scored from 1-4 marks out of 20. Forty students (40%) scored from 5-8 marks. Fifteen learners (15%) scored from 9-12 marks, while 19 students (19%) scored from 1-16.

Table (4. 22) Subjects' weak performance in composition writing (form)

No. of pupils	Grammar	Spelling	Punctuation	Capitalization	Spacing
100	84%	85%	89%	72%	35%

The above table illustrates learners' weakness in composition writing. The categories contained in the table constitute the form of composition writing. The percentage of weakness in grammar is 84%, while in spelling it is 85% and in punctuation it is 89%. In capitalization, the percentage of weakness is 72% whereas, in spacing it is 35%.

Table (4. 23) The distribution of the subjects' general percentages of weakness in the content of composition

No. of pupils	Content	Unity	Coherence	Emphasis	Clarity	Correctness
100	Percentage	60%	64%	81%	27%	92%

The above table contains the categories of the content or qualities of a good composition. It shows the percentage of the learners' weakness in the different categories of the content of composition. Sixty students (60%) do not have the skill of maintaining unity of thoughts in all sentences within a paragraph; while sixty four students (64%) cannot link sentences correctly. Eighty one students (81%) made wrong emphasis, whereas, twenty seven students' writing products (27%) lack in clarity. It is known that ambiguity hinders the showing of relationship and blocks progress of thought. Finally, ninety two students (92%) did not use vocabulary carefully and there are a lot of spelling and punctuation mistakes, besides wrong structures.

Table 4-24 Learning composition on an individual basis through blackboard

categories	Interested learners	Reluctant learners	Taking part in discussion	Participation in oral talk	Correct answers	Incorrect answers
Number of learners	3	10	6	5	5	14
Percentage	15%	50%	30%	25%	25%	70%

The above table shows that 3 learners (15%) were interested in learning composition, while ten learners (50 %) were reluctant in their response. Six learners (30%) took part in the discussion, whereas five learners (25 %) participated in oral talk. Five learners (25%) provided correct answers, while fourteen learners (70%) gave incorrect answers.

Table 4-25 Learning composition on an individual basis through PowerPoint

categories	Interested learners	Reluctant learners	Taking part in discussion	Participation in oral talk	Correct answers	Incorrect answers
Number of students	6	8	10	8	5	13
Percentage	30%	40%	50%	40%	25%	65%

This table displays that six learners (30%) were interested in learning composition, while eight learners (40%) were reluctant in their response. Ten learners (50%) took part in the discussion, whereas eight learners (40%) participated in oral talk. Five learners (25%) supplied correct answers, while thirteen learners (65%) gave incorrect answers.

Table 4-26 Learning composition through group work and blackboard

categories	Interested learners	Reluctant learners	Taking part in discussion	Participation in oral talk	Correct answers	Incorrect answers
Number of learners	8	6	12	11	7	11
Percentage	40%	30%	60%	55%	35%	55%

The above table displays that eight learners (40%) were interested in learning composition, whereas six learners (30%) were reluctant in their participation. Twelve learners (60%) took part in discussion, while eleven learners (55%) participated in oral talk. Seven learners (35%) provided correct answers, while eleven learners (55%) gave incorrect answers.

Table 4-27 Learning composition through group work and PowerPoint

categories	Interested learners	Reluctant learners	Taking part in discussion	Participation in oral talk	Correct answers	Incorrect answers
Number of learners	10	5	14	15	10	7
Percentage	50 %	25%	70%	75%	50%	35%

The above table shows that ten learners (50%) were interested in learning composition, whereas five learners (25%) were reluctantly taking part. Fourteen

learners (70%) took part in the discussion, while fifteen learners (75%) participated in oral talk. Ten learners (50%) provided correct answers, whereas seven learners (35%) supplied incorrect answers.

4-2 Discussion of Teaching and Learning Composition:

The researcher has come out with the following findings: Both histogram 4-1 and table 4-1, entitled, " Writing composition about interesting topics" show that thirty six students (36%) do not write composition about interesting topics. Students tend to switch off or feel bored when they write about topics that are outside the circle of their concerns and interest. In other words, students cannot generate effective writing products, if the topic they have to deal with is irrelevant to their needs, ambitions and doesn't tackle every day life situations. Students get the feeling of satisfaction that they have accomplished something worthwhile when they write about interesting topics. Hence, the above percentage indicates that a considerable number of students are not prompted enough to generate good ideas to provide a good writing product. Losing interest may result in losing confidence. So, the researcher's assumption that " Most of the teachers are not teaching composition properly" is strongly enhanced. A good teacher should always select interesting topics to motivate his learners to come up with wonderful ideas. However, if students are asked to write about disinteresting topics, no improvement whatsoever can be witnessed. Thus, composition teaching would be teacher-centred, whereas it should be pupil-centred. As helping Omani students to attain a good mastery and command of composition is one of the aims of this study, ELT should be pupil-centred.

By looking at histogram 4-2, entitled, "Brainstorming the topic" illustrates that seventy five learners (75%) frequently brainstorm the topic when they write composition. This technique provides learners with good ideas and gives them insight into the topic. Moreover, brainstorming tend to pave the way for students to generate a good composition. On the other hand, without brainstorming it would be difficult for students to come up with vivid ideas and arrange them satisfactorily. Hence, this percentage does not support hypothesis number 11

Both histogram 4-3 and table 4-3, entitled, "Taking part in discussion when writing composition" show that thirty nine students (39%) do not participate in composition discussion (prewriting). Oral composition helps students communicate ideas and thoughts. As composition is considered the silent speech of the student, the above-mentioned percentage indicates that students are not prompted enough to generate ideas and gain confidence to provide a good product. Losing confidence may result in losing interest. So, the researcher's assumption that "Most of the teachers are not teaching composition properly" is strongly enhanced. A good teacher should involve all his students at the discussion stage. Thus composition would be pupil-centred. As helping Omani students to attain a good mastery and command of composition is one of the aims of this study, ELT should be pupil-centred. Through interaction, practice and using English in context, students can become communicative and productive both in oral and written composition.

Histogram 4-4, entitled, "Thinking in English when writing composition" illustrates that sixty five learners (65%) do not think in English when writing composition. Hence, the interference of the mother tongue affects the students' performance negatively as a considerable number of students tend to translate ideas from L1 into L2. This supports hypothesis number 1 "Most of the Omani students are weak in composition writing."

By looking at histogram 4-5, under the title, "Writing composition in group", it is clear that fifty five students (55%) do not write composition in group. This implies that a great number of students are deprived of sharing ideas with their classmates, avoid potential grammatical or spelling mistakes and make good emphasis in their writing product. On the other hand, weak students may lose good students' help and support which helps implant confidence in them. This result supports the researcher's assumption that "A large number of teachers are not teaching composition properly".

Histogram 4-6, entitled "Using cue words and expressions when writing composition" shows that forty three students (43%) do not use cue words, whereas,

sixty one learners (61.6%) tend to use the cue words, which is a positive point. Cue words and expressions are meant to help the learners form the main ideas, as well as guiding them to the most important points and facts to organize and unify their writing product. Unity of thoughts and style are key factors in composition writing. The previous result shows that a considerable number of students are using cue words technique. This does not enhance hypothesis 11 "The majority of teachers are not teaching composition satisfactorily."

Histogram 4-7, entitled, "Learners writing composition on their own" illustrates that forty eight students (48%) do not write composition on their own. It is obvious that a considerable number of learners never write their compositions independently. Hence, this result supports hypothesis number 1 "The majority of Omani students are weak in composition writing."

In histogram 4-8, entitled, "How often learners get stuck while writing composition", it is clear that fifty learners (49.5%) get stuck when writing composition. This indicates that a great number of learners run short for ideas or vocabulary to develop their writing production satisfactorily. This result backs up hypothesis number 1 "The majority of Omani students are weak in writing English composition"

In histogram 4-9, entitled, "Talking orally about the topic", it is obvious that forty two (42.5%) do not talk orally about the topic. It is clear that a great number of teachers are not involving many of their learners in oral talk. Thus, forty two students (42%) are being deprived from exchanging ideas, passing information and proving their capability of being interactive, productive and communicative. Consequently, confidence, fluency and interest may be lost. By not practising oral composition satisfactorily, learners' performance in written composition can get affected. Learners can correct their mistakes while practicing orally. However, hypothesis 1 is not supported. "The majority of Omani students are weak in writing English composition"

Histogram 4-10, entitled " Writing a composition draft" illustrates that sixty seven learners (67.5%) do not write a draft of their composition. This supports the researcher's assumption that "Most Omani learners are weak in composition writing".By writing a composition draft, students can avoid serious mistakes and they can develop confidence and feel the pleasure of learning the language. This feeling increases interest and encourages the learner to be more creative and productive.

Histogram 4-11, which carry the title, "How often students proofreadtheir composition" displays that sixty nine learners (69%) proofread their compositions. This considerable percentage indicates that almost two third of the learners do apply the afore-mentioned technique which helps learners correct their grammatical and spelling mistakes before submitting their composition for marking. Hence, the above percentage does not reinforce hypothesis number 1 "The majority of Omani students are weak in writing English composition.

Histogram 4-12, which carries the title, " Writing composition in class" displays that sixty one learners (61.5%) do write their composition in class, while thirty nine students (39%) do not, which is not a high percentage. However, those who do not write in class could get help from parents, friends or classmates. Hence,, to ensure that learners write from their own experience and using their own thoughts, teachers must see to it that all their learners write the last version of composition in class. By so doing, learners may improve their achievement. Hence, hypothesis number 1 is not enhanced. "The majority of Omani students are weak in writing English composition."

By looking at histogram 4-13, under the title "How often learnersget feedback on their composition", it is clear that fifty seven learners (57%) do not get feedback on their compositions. This indicates that a considerable number of students are not expected neither to avoid serious mistakes nor improve their writing ability. This result supports the researcher's assumption that "A large number of teachers are not teaching composition appropriately".

In histogram 4-14, entitled, "Correcting mistakes ", it is obvious that forty eight learners (48.6%) do not correct their mistakes (which is a large number). So that mistakes may not become habitual and in order to help learners improve their writing ability and avoid repeating the same mistakes, teachers must make sure that learners have corrected their mistakes. It should always be remembered that students can learn from their mistakes. Teachers can also learn from their learners' mistakes. Nevertheless, hypothesis 1 is not enhanced. "The majority of Omani students are weak in writing English composition"

Histogram 4-15, entitled, "Doing remedial work" illustrates that fifty one learners (51%) do not do remedial work. Remedial work tends to help learners to avoid repeating the same mistakes in future, thus, some progress is expected to take place afterwards. Hence, the above percentage consolidates the researcher's assumption that " A large number of teachers are not teaching English composition properly".

Histogram 4-16, entitled "How often learners Feel bored when writing composition", illustrates that sixty six students (66.9%) feel bored when they write composition. This indicates that two third of the Omani learners are not interested in learning composition. This result confirms hypothesis 11. " Most teachers are not teaching composition competently".

Histogram 4-17, which has the title, " Using English outside the class" displays that forty nine learners (49.5%) do not use English outside the class. This implies that the use of English is confined to the classroom. In other words, learners are exposed to English forty minutes a day which is a short period of time. In order to make a good progress in English, much practice is required on the part of learners. Therefore, using English outside the class is a prerequisite if effective performance in composition is to be sought. Thus, hypothesis number 1 "The majority of Omani students are weak in writing English composition" is strongly reinforced.

By looking at histogram 4-18, entitled, " PowerPoint can improve students' writing ability" reveals that fifty eight students (58%) strongly agree that the PowerPoint can help learners to improve their achievement in composition writing. The more

creatively this program is used by teachers, the more satisfactory and adequate the result will be. This result enhances the researcher's assumption that "A large number of teachers are not teaching English composition efficiently".

Histogram 4-19, entitled, "Writing e-mail is useful in free writing learning". This illustrates that fifty five learners (55%) strongly agree that using e-mail in teaching English composition is useful. Learners are often seen very fond of using this technology in their every day life situations. Hence, getting them to practise composition writing through the medium they are most interested in is expected to bring fruitful results. If learners are asked to correspond with one another in quite an ordinary way, unknowingly their achievement will increase as they confront the challenge of getting their message across. Learners are seen more enthusiastic and highly motivated when prompted to contact their friends. So, the above mentioned percentage consolidates the researcher's assumption that " A large number of teachers are not teaching English composition effectively"

Figure 4-20, under the title, "Taking part in role-playing in class" displays that fifty learners (50.5%) do not get the opportunity to practise role playing in class. Role playing tends to expose the learners to interact in dialogue about every day life situations. In addition, they practise English in context. Moreover, they can become communicative in oral talk. They can also become spontaneous and confident. If learners are to become communicative writers, teachers should bear in mind the importance of making them communicative in oral talk. Thus, taking part in role playing is highly important. Hence, the above percentage strengthens the researcher's assumption that "A large number of teachers are not teaching English composition adequately".

By looking at figure 4-21, which has the title " Selecting interesting topics", it is obvious that twenty one teachers (42%) do not select interesting topics. Hence, a remarkable number of learners are not inspired. This, does not enhance the researcher's supposition that "Most teachers are not teaching composition effectively". However, learners can never be expected to write impressively on a

topic that is of little importance or interest to them or about which they have little information or knowledge.

Histogram 4-22, entitled, " Getting students to brainstorm the topic" displays that thirty four teachers (69.3%) adopt the technique of topic brainstorming. This implies that this technique is being widely used in Oman. It is also clear that the adoption of topic brainstorming technique by teachers can allow the learners to arrange their thoughts and communicate ideas. Thus, the researcher's assumption that "Most teachers are not teaching composition effectively" is not supported.

Histogram 4-23, entitled, " Writing cue words and expressions on the blackboard" shows that thirty four teachers (68%) write cues on the blackboard. It is clear that the majority of teachers are using this technique, which is appreciable. This result does not reinforce the researcher's assumption that "Most teachers are not teaching composition efficiently".

Histogram 4-24, which has the title, "Involving learners in answering questions about a picture" illustrates that forty five teachers (90%) are applying the aforementioned technique. Students can learn much more if they are involved in asking and answering questions about the picture. Hence, the researcher's supposition that "Most teachers are not teaching composition properly", is not enhanced.

Histogram 4-25, which carries the title, "Giving individual attention" illustrates that eighteen teachers (36%) do not give individual attention when teaching English composition. Individual attention involves among other things group work, as bright students can support weak ones. Teachers may also assign them simple tasks and give them close follow up, besides, giving them more help and guidance. The aforementioned percentage reinforces the researcher's assumption that " A large number of teachers are not teaching English composition properly."

Histogram 4-26, which has the title, "Getting individual students to talk orally about the topic" displays that forty one teachers (82%) always get individual students to talk orally about the topic. By so doing, learners can avoid serious mistakes and

exchange ideas and information. This result does not confirm the researcher's assumption that "Most teachers are not teaching English composition properly."

Figure 4-27, entitled, "Organizing the students into groups" displays that twenty six teachers (52%) do not organize their learners into groups. Group work if applied perfectly, can improve the learners' achievement as weak students can benefit from bright ones. Moreover, group work tends to encourage weak learners to be more outspoken and stop feeling shy. In addition, weak and average learners can take part in the discussion confidently. Moreover, there is the soul of competition that can be created by giving them problem solving exercises, quizzes, cross word puzzles and oral talk. If teachers adopt the use of PowerPoint creatively and allot some prizes for winning groups, this technique of group work can enhance the learners' achievement in composition writing. Hence, the researcher's assumption that " A large number of teachers are not teaching English composition effectively." is enhanced.

Histogram 4-28, entitled "Writing a composition draft at home" displays that thirty two teachers (64%) do not ask the learners to write a draft of their composition at home. This supports hypothesis 11 "Most teachers do not teach composition effectively". By writing a draft of their composition, learners can get the opportunity to organize, check and correct their mistakes before writing the last version of their composition in class. Above that, topics may be written by family members or friends.

By looking at histogram 4-29, under the title, "Getting students to proofread their composition", it is obvious that thirty five teachers (70%) do get their learners to proofread their compositions. This considerable percentage shows that a great number of learners proofread their compositions. In other words, they check their writing products for spelling and grammatical mistakes. During the writing process it is not always easy to single out every error as the student's mind is occupied with the struggle of developing the topic in question. However, during the proofreading process much of the burden will be unshouldered. So the writer can see more clearly the errors he might have made inadvertently. Proofreading in the writing process is

considered of paramount importance. Hence, the afore-mentioned percentage does not invigorate hypothesis number 1 " The majority of Omani students are weak in writing English composition."

Histogram 4-30, entitled, " Getting learners to write the last version in class" displays that thirty teachers (60%) never get their students to write the last version of their composition in class. It is evident that a great number of teachers never apply this significant technique when teaching composition. This, confirms hypothesis number 11 "Most teachers of English are not teaching composition properly".

Histogram 4-31, entitled, "Helping students while writing composition" indicates that thirty eight teachers (76%) help their learners while they are writing composition. Teachers are expected to provide help and guidance for their learners whenever needed. This guidance provided by the teacher, can stop a lot of mistakes that could have occurred before submitting their writing products. Hence, the above percentage does not support the researcher's assumption that "Most teachers are not teaching composition competently."

Histogram 4-32, entitled, "Using symbols in marking to indicate mistakes" shows that twenty eight teachers (56%) are not using the technique of marking symbols. If a teacher does not use symbols, mistakes cannot be identified, and thus, learners may not improve their writing. This result supports the researcher's supposition that "Most teachers do not teach composition efficiently".

Teachers' responses in figure 4-33 entitled, "Giving feedback on students' writing", show that thirty two teachers (64%) do give feedback on their learners' writing. Feedback is essential as it helps learners improve their writing by identifying their mistakes and analyzing various types of composition. So, learners may never ameliorate their achievement without feedback. This result does not back up hypothesis 11. "Most teachers are not teaching composition properly".

Histogram 4-34, entitled, "How often teachers check students' correction of mistakes" displays that thirty four teachers (68%) make sure that learners have corrected their mistakes. It is clear that a remarkable number of teachers are keen on

following up their learners' performance so as to help them attain a good mastery and command of composition writing. If students do not correct their mistakes, these mistakes may tend to become habitual and no progress whatsoever, can be expected to take place. Hence, hypothesis 11 is not reinforced.

Histogram 4-35, entitled, "Communicative learners can write composition fluently and accurately" illustrates that twenty six teachers (53%) strongly agree that communicative learners always write composition accurately and satisfactorily. Oral talk in a composition class constitutes the writing product which learners are going to produce. In order that learners could become communicative writers, they ought to be communicative speakers. Hence, the above percentage enhances the researcher's assumption that "Most teachers are not teaching composition appropriately.

By looking at histogram 4-36, which has the title, "PowerPoint can improve the learners' writing ability" displays that eighteen teachers (36%) back up the researcher's view that the PowerPoint can improve the learners' writing ability. Learner's attention can easily be drawn by exploiting this technological media of which students are so fond. If teachers use PowerPoint innovatively, their learners can be highly motivated. Hence, hypothesis number 11 is strongly reinforced.

Histogram 4-37, under the title, " The Internet is a helpful resort for learners to improve their writing " illustrates that forty teachers (80%) support the researcher's assumption that by asking the learners to explore the Internet as an information resource, they can get a lot of information, vocabulary and idioms. Thus, the above percentage consolidates hypothesis number 11 "English composition is not taught properly and creatively.

By looking at histogram 4-38, entitled, "E-mail writing enhances learners' achievement in composition writing" it is clear that twenty nine teachers (58%) are in favour of using e-mail in teaching composition because students seem highly interested in chatting with and e-mailing one another. Teachers can exploit it to enhance and improve their learners' word power, grammar, spelling and

communicative competence. Hence, the researcher's assumption that " A great number of teachers are not teaching composition adequately.

Figure 4-39, under the title, " Allotting enough time for oral communication through role-playing" displays that twenty nine teachers (58%) allot enough time for oral communication when conducting role-playing, whereas twenty one teachers (42%) never do. In order that every student can take part in role-playing, teachers should see to it that ample time is allocated for this activity. In other words, time should be divided equally among learners. Role-playing is often done by outstanding students and the rest of the class are seen just as audience. Teachers should do their best to help their learners get communicative competence so as to be communicative both orally and in writing. The afore-mentioned percentage enhances hypothesis number 11 " A great number of teachers are not teaching composition effectively."

Histogram 4-40, entitled, "Teaching composition as a process " illustrates that thirty one teachers (63%) do not teach composition as a process . In other words, learners practise English in real life situations. Authenticity is of vital importance as it provides learners with communicative competence. Moreover, they can get more spontaneity, confidence and accuracy. In addition, they make a good register and genre. Process writing has a recursive nature, hence it is of great importance. Learners should practise free writing through the following steps: pre-writing, drafting, editing and proofreading to generate a good writing product. However, the afore-mentioned percentage does enhance hypothesis number 11 "A majority of teachers are not teaching composition satisfactorily."

Table 4-41, entitled, "Subjects' marks and percentages in assigned composition" illustrates that eighty one learners (81%) scored from 1-2 marks. The performance of sixty six students (66%) is below average, whereas fifteen students' performance (15%) is average. Nineteen students' performance is rather good. This enhances the researcher's assumption that "Most Omani learners are weak in composition writing".

Table 4-42, entitled, " Subjects' weak performance in composition writing (form)" displays that 84% constitutes the percentage of weakness in grammar, while the percentage of weakness in spelling is 85%. In punctuation, the percentage of weakness is 89%, whereas, the percentage of weakness in capitalization is 72% . It is clear that the subjects are weak in the (form) of composition. So, hypothesis number 1 "Most Omani learners are weak in composition writing" is strongly enhanced.

Table 4-43, entitled, "The distribution of the subjects' general percentages of weakness in unity is 60%, while their percentage of weakness in 'coherence' is 64%. The learners' percentage of weakness in 'emphasis' is 81%, whereas, in 'correctness' it is 92%. This shows that hypothesis number 1" Most Omani learners are weak in composition writing" is strongly supported.

Table 4-44, entitled, " Individually seated students and composition writing through blackboard" shows that five learners (25%) were interested in learning composition, while ten learners (50%) were reluctant to provide any ideas. Six learners (30%) took part in the discussion, whereas five learners (25%) participated in oral talk. Five learners (25%) provided correct answers, while fourteen learners (70%) gave incorrect answers. This indicates that both hypothesis number 1 and 2 are strongly enhanced.

Table 4-45, entitled, " Learning composition through PowerPoint " illustrates that six learners (30%) were interested in learning composition, whereas, eight learners (40%) were reluctant to give any ideas. Ten learners (50%) took part in the discussion, while eight learners (40%) participated in oral talk. Five learners (25%) gave correct answers, whereas, thirteen learners (65%) provided incorrect answers. This verifies hypothesis number 1&2. It is obvious that the performance of group B is better than group A. Due to the use of PowerPoint the percentage of interested learners in group 'B' is bigger than group 'A'. In addition, the percentage of reluctant learners in group 'B' is less than that of group 'A'.

Table 4-46, entitled, " Learning composition through group work and blackboard" shows that eight learners (40%) were interested in learning composition, while six

learners (30%) were reluctant to take part during the lesson. Twelve learners (60%) took part in the discussion, whereas, eleven learners (55%) participated in oral talk. Seven learners (35%) provided correct answers, while eleven learners (55%) gave incorrect answers. By virtue of group work technique, the performance of group 'C' is better than that of group "A" . Furthermore, there were more interested learners in group "C" than those in group " A". Working in group, learners can be more confident and interactive. Hence, the group work technique is of paramount importance as it tends to enhance learners' writing ability, confidence and performance in general. This result verifies hypothesis 1& 2.

Table 'D' above illustrates that ten learners (50%) of the learners were interested in learning composition, whereas, five learners (25%) were reluctant to interact during the composition writing lesson. Fourteen learners (70%) took part in the discussion, while fifteen learners (75%) participated in oral talk. Ten learners (50%) provided correct answers, whereas, seven learners (35%) supplied incorrect ones. It is crystal clear that the learners' interest and performance was much better than the performance of group 'A' , 'B' and 'C' due to the exposure of learners to group work as well as PowerPoint. Thus, hypothesis number 2 has been strongly enhanced. Finally, group work and PowerPoint are the corner stone for the development, improvement and enhancement of the learners' writing ability.

The following results enhances hypothesis 11 " A majority of teachers of English are not teaching composition properly".

4-3 Discussion of Findings in Terms of Constructed Hypotheses of the Study:

The following results enhance the studies'hypotheses that 'A great number of Omani learners are weak in composition writing', which constitutes hypothesis number 1.

Histogram 4-24, entitled, "Thinking in English" displays that sixty five learners (65%) do not think in English when writing composition. Hence, the features of L 1 are reflected in L 2 which may result in committing nefarious mistakes. This verifies hypothesis number 1.

Histogram 4-6, entitled "Writing a composition draft" illustrates that sixty seven learners (67%) do not write a draft of their composition. In other words, composition is taught as a product rather than a process. Hence, hypothesis number 1 is strongly enhanced.

Table 4-41, entitled " Subjects marks and percentages in assigned composition", shows that eighty one learners (81%) scored from 1-2 marks. The performance of sixty six students (66%) is below average, whereas fifteen students' performance (15%) is average. Nineteen students' performance is rather good. This verifies hypothesis number 1.

Table 4-42, entitled "Subjects' weak performance in composition writing (form) displays that eighty four learners (84%) are weak in grammar, while eighty five learners (85%) are weak in spelling. In punctuation, the percentage of weakness is (89%), whereas, the percentage of weakness in capitalization is (72%). This result consolidates hypothesis 1 as well.

Table 4-43, entitled, "The distribution of the subjects' general percentages of weakness in the content of composition". In "unity", (60%) of the learners are weak, while in 'coherence' (64%) of the subjects are weak. Learners' percentage of weakness in 'emphasis' is (81%), whereas, in 'correctness' it is (92%). This shows that hypothesis number 1 is strongly supported.

Table 4-44, entitled, " Students learning composition on an individual basis through blackboard" shows that five learners (25%) were interested in learning composition, while ten learners (50%) were reluctant to provide any ideas. Six learners (30%) took part in the discussion, whereas five learners (25%) participated in oral talk. Five learners (25%) provided correct answers, while fourteen learners (70%) gave incorrect answers. This indicates that both hypothesis number 1 and 2 are strongly enhanced.

Table 4-45, entitled, " Learning composition through PowerPoint " illustrates that six learners (30%) were interested in learning composition, whereas, eight learners (40%) were reluctant to give any ideas. Ten learners (50%) took part in the

discussion, while eight learners (40%) participated in oral talk. Five learners (25%) gave correct answers, whereas, thirteen learners (65%) provided incorrect answers. This verifies hypothesis number 1&2. It is obvious that the performance of group B is better than group A. Due to the use of PowerPoint the percentage of interested learners in group 'B' is bigger than group 'A'. In addition, the percentage of reluctant learners in group 'B' is less than that of group 'A'.

Table 4-46, entitled, " Learning composition through group work and blackboard" shows that eight learners (40%) were interested in learning composition, while six learners (30%) were reluctant to take part during the lesson. Twelve learners (60%) took part in the discussion, whereas, eleven learners (55%) participated in oral talk. Seven learners (35%) provided correct answers, while eleven learners (55%) gave incorrect answers. By virtue of group work technique, the performance of group 'C' is better than that of group "A" . Furthermore, there were more interested learners in group "C" than those in group " A". Working in group, learners can be more confident and interactive. Hence, the group work technique is of paramount importance as it tends to enhance learners' writing ability, confidence and performance in general. This result verifies hypothesis 1& 2.

Table 'D' above illustrates that ten learners (50%) of the learners were interested in learning composition, whereas, five learners (25%) were reluctant to interact during the composition writing lesson. Fourteen learners (70%) took part in the discussion, while fifteen learners (75%) participated in oral talk. Ten learners (50%) provided correct answers, whereas, seven learners (35%) supplied incorrect ones. It is crystal clear that the learners' interest and performance was much better than the performance of group 'A' , 'B' and 'C' due to the exposure of learners to group work as well as PowerPoint. Thus, hypothesis number 2 has been strongly enhanced. Finally, group work and PowerPoint are the corner stone for the development, improvement and enhancement of the learners' writing ability.

The following results enhances hypothesis 11 " A majority of teachers of English are not teaching composition properly".

Histogram 4-1 and table 4-1, entitled, "Students' participation in discussing composition" displays that sixty one students (61%) do not participate in composition discussion (prewriting). This result verifies hypothesis number 11.

By looking at histogram 4-16, under the title "Writing a draft composition" it is clear that thirty two teachers (64%) do not ask the learners to write a draft of their composition at home.

Histogram 4-17, entitled, "Use of symbols in marking" shows that twenty eight teachers (65%) are not using the marking symbols technique. Thus, hypothesis II is consolidated and enhanced. Histogram 4-18, entitled "Teachers getting students to write the last version in class" displays that thirty teachers (61.1%) never get their students to write the last version of their composition in class. So, this result confirms and verifies hypothesis 11.

Histogram 4-40, entitled " Teaching composition as a process" illustrates that thirty one teachers (63%) follow the product approach in teaching composition rather than the process approach. In other words, they focus on level service errors, whereas the emphasis should be on the production of ideas and on organizing them in a proper sequence. Teachers have to follow the process approach in teaching composition. Therefore, this result consolidates and enhances hypothesis II.

Finally, the below result verifies hypothesis number III that " A large number of Omani learners do not get effective feedback." Histogram 4-8, entitled, "Students getting feedback" illustrates that fifty seven subjects (57%) do not get feedback on their compositions.

4-4 Statistical Analysis

Frequency tables:

Each table represents a separate case of study that has been applied on sample consists of 100 for students and 50 for teachers including missing numbers within each sample.

Frequencies were calculated according to the occurrence each variable as being tested in the case study.

4-4-1 Reliability Analysis:

Reliability analysis allows you to study the properties of measurement scales and the items that compose the scales. The Reliability Analysis procedure calculates a number of commonly used measures of scale reliability and also provides information about the relationships between individual items in the scale. Intra-class correlation coefficients can be used to compute inter-rater reliability estimates.

Models: The following models of reliability were used:

- Alpha (Cronbach). This model is a model of internal consistency, based on the average inter-item correlation.
- Split-half. This model splits the scale into two parts and examines the correlation between the parts.
- Guttman. This model computes Guttman's lower bounds for true reliability.

Kindly note that each of the 20 cases has been tested separately then all 40 tested together to show the degree of the correlation between all cases that should fall between 1 & -1 i.e. when there was positive correlation the result will be near to 1 and vice versa.

In the cases of this study correlations were all positively reported near to 1 by using different types of correlation.

Q1: writing composition about interesting topics

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Never	7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Sometimes	29	29.0	29.0	36.0
Frequently	45	45.0	45.0	81.0
Always	19	19.0	19.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Q2: How often do students brainstorm the topic

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Never	4	4.0	4.1	4.1
Sometimes	18	18.0	18.6	22.7
Frequently	49	49.0	50.5	73.2
Always	26	26.0	26.8	100.0
Total	97	97.0	100.0	
Missing System	3	3.0		
Total	100	100.0		

Q3: Taking part in discussion

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Never	6	6.0	6.0	6.0
Sometimes	55	55.0	55.0	61.0
Frequently	21	21.0	21.0	82.0
Always	18	18.0	18.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Q4: Thinking in English

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Never	20	20.0	20.0	20.0
Sometimes	45	45.0	45.0	65.0
Frequently	13	13.0	13.0	78.0
Always	22	22.0	22.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Q5: Writing composition in group

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Never	31	31.0	31.0	31.0
Sometimes	24	24.0	24.0	55.0
Frequently	31	31.0	31.0	86.0
Always	14	14.0	14.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Q6: Using cue words and expressions

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Never	6	6.0	6.1	6.1
Sometimes	37	37.0	37.4	43.4
Frequently	15	15.0	15.2	58.6
Always	41	41.0	41.4	100.0
Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing System	1	1.0		
Total	100	100.0		

Q7: Writing composition on their own

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	14	14.0	14.3	14.3
	Sometimes	34	34.0	34.7	49.0
	Frequently	13	13.0	13.3	62.2
	Always	37	37.0	37.8	100.0
	Total	98	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Getting stuck while writing composition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	13	13.0	13.1	13.1
	Sometimes	37	37.0	37.4	50.5
	Frequently	34	34.0	34.3	84.8
	Always	15	15.0	15.2	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Q10: Writing a draft of composition

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	33	33.0	33.3
	Sometimes	34	34.0	67.7
	Frequently	17	17.0	84.8
	Always	15	15.0	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0
Missing	System	1	1.0	
Total		100	100.0	

Q11: How often students proofread their composition

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	9	9.0	9.0
	Sometimes	22	22.0	31.0
	Frequently	37	37.0	68.0
	Always	32	32.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	

Q12: Writing composition in class

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	7	7.0	7.0	7.0
	Sometimes	32	32.0	32.0	39.0
	Frequently	18	18.0	18.0	57.0
	Always	43	43.0	43.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Q13: How often students get feedback on their composition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	12	12.0	12.1	12.1
	Sometimes	45	45.0	45.5	57.6
	Frequently	15	15.0	15.2	72.7
	Always	27	27.0	27.3	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Q14: How often students correct mistakes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	15	15.0	15.2	15.2
	Sometimes	33	33.0	33.3	48.5
	Frequently	20	20.0	20.2	68.7
	Always	31	31.0	31.3	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Q15: How often learners do remedial work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	19	19.0	19.2	19.2
	Sometimes	32	32.0	32.3	51.5
	Frequently	26	26.0	26.3	77.8
	Always	22	22.0	22.2	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Q16: Students feeling bored when writing composition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	24	24.0	24.5	24.5
	Sometimes	42	42.0	42.9	67.3
	Frequently	10	10.0	10.2	77.6
	Always	22	22.0	22.4	100.0
	Total	98	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Q17: Using English outside the class

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	16	16.0	16.2	16.2
	Sometime s	33	33.0	33.3	49.5
	Frequentl y	27	27.0	27.3	76.8
	Always	23	23.0	23.2	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Q18: The PowerPoint may improve students' writing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	13	13.0	13.3	13.3
	To some extent	27	27.0	27.6	40.8
	Agree	20	20.0	20.4	61.2
	Strongly agree	38	38.0	38.8	100.0
	Total	98	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.0		
	Total	100	100.0		

Q19: Writing e-mails is useful in learning composition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	25	25.0	25.5	25.5
	To some extent	18	18.0	18.4	43.9
	Agree	30	30.0	30.6	74.5
	Strongly agree	25	25.0	25.5	100.0
	Total	98	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.0		
	Total	100	100.0		

Q20: Students taking part in role-playing in class

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	25	25.0	25.3	25.3
	Sometimes	25	25.0	25.3	50.5
	Frequently	31	31.0	31.3	81.8
	Always	18	18.0	18.2	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Q21: The selection of interesting topics

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	5	5.0	10.0	10.0
	Sometimes	16	16.0	32.0	42.0
	Frequently	15	15.0	30.0	72.0
	Always	14	14.0	28.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q22: How often do you get students brainstorm the topic

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Sometimes	15	15.0	30.6	30.6
	Frequently	13	13.0	26.5	57.1
	Always	21	21.0	42.9	100.0
	Total	49	49.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		50	50.0		

Q23: How often do you write cue words and expressions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Sometimes	16	16.0	32.0	32.0
	Frequently	13	13.0	26.0	58.0
	Always	21	21.0	42.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q24: How often teachers involve students in answering questions about a picture

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Sometimes	5	5.0	10.0	10.0
	Frequently	20	20.0	40.0	50.0
	Always	25	25.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q25: How often do you give individual attention

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Sometimes	18	18.0	36.0	36.0
	Frequently	15	15.0	30.0	66.0
	Always	17	17.0	34.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q26: How often do you get individuals to talk orally

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Sometimes	9	9.0	18.0	18.0
	Frequently	18	18.0	36.0	54.0
	Always	23	23.0	46.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q27: How often do you organize students into groups

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	4	4.0	8.2	8.2
	Sometimes	22	22.0	44.9	53.1
	Frequently	20	20.0	40.8	93.9
	Always	3	3.0	6.1	100.0
	Total	49	49.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		50	50.0		

Q28: Teachers asking students to write a draft at home

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	7	7.0	14.0	14.0
	Sometimes	25	25.0	50.0	64.0
	Frequently	9	9.0	18.0	82.0
	Always	9	9.0	18.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q29: How often teachers get students to proofread their composition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	4	4.0	8.0	8.0
	Sometimes	11	11.0	22.0	30.0
	Frequently	26	26.0	52.0	82.0
	Always	9	9.0	18.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q30: Teachers getting students to write the last version in class

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	7	7.0	14.3	14.3
	Sometimes	23	23.0	46.9	61.2
	Frequently	7	7.0	14.3	75.5
	Always	12	12.0	24.5	100.0
	Total	49	49.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		50	50.0		

Q31: Teachers helping students while they are writing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Sometimes	12	12.0	24.0	24.0
	Frequently	19	19.0	38.0	62.0
	Always	19	19.0	38.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q32: Teachers' use of symbols when marking composition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	6	6.0	12.0	12.0
	Sometimes	22	22.0	44.0	56.0
	Frequently	8	8.0	16.0	72.0
	Always	14	14.0	28.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q33: Teachers giving feedback on their students' writing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Sometimes	18	18.0	36.0	36.0
	Frequently	15	15.0	30.0	66.0
	Always	17	17.0	34.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q34: How often teachers make sure that students have corrected their mistakes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	2	2.0	4.0	4.0
	Sometimes	13	13.0	26.0	30.0
	Frequently	16	16.0	32.0	62.0
	Always	19	19.0	38.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q35: Communicative leaners can write fluently

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	4	4.0	8.2	8.2
	To some extent	19	19.0	38.8	46.9
	Agree	19	19.0	38.8	85.7
	Strongly agree	7	7.0	14.3	100.0
	Total	49	49.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		50	50.0		

Q36: PowerPoint may improve the learners' writing ability

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	5	5.0	10.0	10.0
	To some extent	27	27.0	54.0	64.0
	Agree	9	9.0	18.0	82.0
	Strongly agree	9	9.0	18.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q37: Internet can help learners improve their writing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	10	10.0	20.0	20.0
	To some extent	22	22.0	44.0	64.0
	Agree	10	10.0	20.0	84.0
	Strongly agree	8	8.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q38: E-mail writing could enhance learners' achievement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	1	1.0	2.0	2.0
	To some extent	18	18.0	36.7	38.8
	Agree	21	21.0	42.9	81.6
	Strongly agree	9	9.0	18.4	100.0
	Total	49	49.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		50	50.0		

Q39: Allotting enough time for oral communication through role-playing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	4	4.0	8.0	8.0
	Sometimes	17	17.0	34.0	42.0
	Frequently	19	19.0	38.0	80.0
	Always	10	10.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	50	50.0	100.0	

Q40: Do you teach English composition as a process

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	3	3.0	6.1	6.1
	Sometimes	15	15.0	30.6	36.7
	Frequently	20	20.0	40.8	77.6
	Always	11	11.0	22.4	100.0
	Total	49	49.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		50	50.0		

4-4-1 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Part 1	Value	.977
		N of Items	20a
	Part 2	Value	.992
		N of Items	20b
		Total N of Items	40
Correlation			.981
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient			.913

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.991	40

Recommendations and conclusion are discussed in Chapter Five

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF RESULTS.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5-0 Introduction:

This section displays the results reached by the data gathering tools in the investigation process.

5-1 Results:

The analysis of the data has revealed that English composition is not taught properly in many secondary schools in Salalah, which supports hypothesis number 1. The results show that the percentage of the learners' weak performance in spelling is 85%. In addition, the percentage of weak performance in grammar is 84%, whereas the percentage of weakness in punctuation is 89%. In capitalization the percentage of learners' weak performance is 72%. This result enhances the studies' hypothesis that "Most Omani learners are weak in composition writing".

The learners' percentage of weakness in unity in the content of composition, is 60%, while their percentage in coherence is 64%. In emphasis, the learners' percentage of weakness is 81%, whereas, the percentage of weakness is 27% in clarity. In correctness, the learners' percentage of weakness is 92%. This supports hypothesis number I that "Most Omani learners are weak in composition writing". Fifty seven learners (57,5%) never get feedback on their composition, whereas, forty two (42,5%) always do. This verifies hypothesis number III, that "Most students do not get feedback on their compositions".

5-2 Recommendations:

According to the conclusions drawn in the previous part of the study, the researcher suggests the following recommendations:

- i. Teachers should focus on teaching controlled composition effectively by adopting various appropriate techniques.

- ii. Teachers should adopt effective techniques for teaching guided composition.
- iii. Teachers should follow up pupils' exercises.
- iv. Learners should develop their word power by regular reading, vocabulary word sheets and vocabulary study books. Learners need to develop their spelling ability through group work activities, dictation and games such as 'hangman out'. Teachers need to get their learners to practise exercises such as plural of nouns, of numbers, of letters, of words ending in 'y', doubling final consonant and practicing suffixes.

Learners should be trained to use the dictionary, keep a personal spelling list, master commonly confused words and helped to understand basic spelling rules.

- v. Learners should be exposed to the highly recommended techniques for teaching free composition such as discussion, oral composition, writing a composition draft, writing composition in class, getting feedback on their composition, mistakes corrected, practicing unity and coherence.

- vi. Learners should be adequately motivated by providing them with interesting and familiar topics, so that they may not lose interest. Teachers can create the desire for learning composition among learners through group work and by choosing interesting topics and award prizes for winning groups. Learners need to practise a variety of classroom activities such as:

role-playing, problem-solving, mock interview, classroom debates, contests in writing stories. Teachers should make learning composition more pupil-centred.

- vii. Feedback is of paramount importance to improve the learners' writing ability. More time should be allotted for free composition lessons and English must be taught in context at earlier stages so as to help learners become communicative and express themselves in real life situations adequately.

Teachers need to adopt the process writing techniques, use group work technique, exploit the PowerPoint media, foster e-mail writing and encourage their learners to explore the Internet to further their achievement in free writing.

5-3 Conclusion:

This study attempts to investigate the problems of teaching and learning English composition at the secondary level in the Sultanate of Oman. The study aims at highlighting the difficulties that face learners as well as methods for helping them to get a good mastery and command of writing English composition. The study also emphasizes the adoption of a pupil-centred teaching and learning process. In addition, much emphasis has been placed on grading and integrating the three types of composition (controlled composition-guided composition- free composition). The study incorporates five chapters, the first of which is an introduction. The first chapter deals with the problem, objectives, hypotheses, significance, questions, limits and methodology of the study, chapter two handles the theoretical background of teaching composition and previous studies.

Methodology used for carrying out the study is dealt with in chapter three, whereas chapter four classifies the collected data. Finally, conclusion and recommendations are discussed in chapter five to represent the findings and the proposed solutions. Proper composition learning and teaching techniques are included as well. Incorporated in the study are some tables and histograms to illustrate teachers' and students' responses. One hundred learners and fifty teachers were selected randomly to carry out the investigation. Two versions of a questionnaire, a writing test and an experiment were selected as data gathering tools.

According to the collected data, most of secondary school Omani learners have much difficulty in writing English composition. It has been verified that they are weak in the form and content of composition writing. Moreover, a great number of teachers do not adopt the appropriate techniques for teaching composition.

In the light of these findings, the researcher recommends among other things that teachers should put into practice the highly recommended techniques for teaching controlled, semi-controlled and free composition. Adequate motivation and contextualization are found key factors, both of which can help improve learners' achievement in composition writing. The adoption of group work technique, process

writing techniques, role play, PowerPoint, e-mail writing and the Internet is of paramount importance.

The researcher hopes that the findings of this study would be helpful and beneficial for both teachers and learners.

5-4 Suggestions for Future Studies:

The researcher proposes the following points for future researchers:

- i. The adoption of the process techniques of teaching free writing.
- ii. Researchers could think of various ways of integrating modern technology into free writing classroom.
 - i. Keeping learners highly motivated through competitions and rewards.
 - ii. Innovation and creativity are of paramount importance to improve the learners' achievement in free writing.
 - iii. Feedback is the corner-stone for up-lifting students' writing ability.

References

- Ahmed, M. A. (2013) Investigating University Students Competence in Writing Dissertations At both Linguistic And Organizational Levels. (A Case Study). Khartoum.
- Al-Mutawa, N. and Kailani, T (1989). Methods of Teaching English to Arab Students. London: Longman.
- Aradeb, M. I. M. (2010) Evaluation of Writing Performance of Second Year English Language Students in Kordufan Universities. (A Case Study). Khartoum.
- Dawood, A. M. (1998) Why Students' Achievement is Generally Poor. Survey) Salalah. Eastwood, J. (1995) Oxford Guide to English Grammar Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Ellis, R (1986). Understanding Second Language Acquisition. Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- Fromkin, V. & Rodman, R. (1993) Introduction to Language. New York:
- Hamp-Layons, L. & Heasley B. (2008) Writing Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Harmer, J. (2007), How to teach English London: Longman
- Harmer, J. (2000). The Practice of English Language Teaching. London: Longman.
- Hatchingson, T. & Waters, A. (1995) English for Specific Purposes. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hedge, T. (1985). Pen to Paper. Edinburgh: Thomas Nelson and Sons.
- Hedge, T. (2003). Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Horn, R. (2009) Research & Writing Dissertations. London: Short Run Press.
- Huddleston, R. (2004) English grammar An outline Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Hwang, J. (2010) A case Study of the Influence of Free writing on Writing Fluency And Confidence of EFL College-Level Students. (A Case Study). Hunan.
- Jackson. H. (1988) Words and their Meaning New York : Longman.
- James, C. (1998) Error in Language Learning and Use. Addison Wesley. Longman Limited.

- Johnson, K. (1981) *Communicate in Writing*.
London: Longman
- Johnson, N. A. (1976). *Current Topics in Language. Introductory Readings*. Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers.
- Jolly, D. (1994). *Writing Tasks*.
London: Cambridge University Press.
- Kral, T. (1999). *Teacher Development Making the Right Moves*.
Washington. Office of English Language.
- Krashen, S. (1984) *Writing: Research, theory and applications*.
London: Oxford University Press.
- Langan, J. (1988). *English Skills with Readings*.
New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.
- Langan, J (2008) *College Writing Skills with Readings*
New York: McGraw-Hill Companies.
- Langan, J. (1997) *English Skills*
New York : McGraw-Hill Companies
- Littlewood, W. (1991) *Communicative Language Teaching*
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Livingstone, C. (1983) *Role Play in Language Learning*.
London: Longman.
- Liao, J. (2010) *The Impact of Interactive Discussions On L2 Chinese Composition Writing*.
(A Case Study). Iowa.
- Long, H. & Jack, C. (1997) *Second Language Writing*.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M. (2003) *English Vocabulary in Use*
Cambridge: Cambridge university Press.
- Ments, M. (1999) *The Effective Use of Role Play*
London: Kogan Page.
- Morris, L. B. A. London (1956). *The Art of Teaching English as a Living Language*.
Cambridge: Cambridge.
University Press.
- Mourtag, K. (2012) *Poor Writing in English*.
(A Case Study). Gaza.
- Nandy, M. (2004) *How to Write Good English*
Kuala Lumpur: KiddibirdSdn. Bhd.
- Oshima, A.&Hosue, A. (1997) *Introduction to Academic Writing*
London: Longman.
- Phillips, S. (1993) *Young Learners*
Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Radanov, L. (2008). *PowerPoint presentations in EFL classroom-"PowerPointitis" or a challenge ?* Retrieved 1 December 2008 from
- Raimes, A. (2013) *Techniques in Teaching Writing*

- New York: Oxford University Press.
- Randolph & Greenbaum S. (1985) A comprehensive Grammar of
The English Language
London: Longman.
- Richards, C. J. (1997) New Interchange
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, C. J. (1990) The Language Teaching Matrix
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, C. J. (1993) Language Teaching And Applied Linguistics.
Singapore: Longman
- Roach, P. (1995) English Phonetics and Phonology.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Roberts, Noel, B. (1989) Analysing Sentences
An Introduction to English Syntax.
London: Longman.
- Ryall, M. (2000). Tapestry Reading 2.
Oxford: Heinle & Heinle.
- Sawalmeh, M. H. M. Error Analysis of Written English Essays
(A Case Study). Ha'il.
- Schmitt, N & McCarthy, M. (1997) Vocabulary Description,
Acquisition and Pedagogy
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Shemesh R. & Waller S. (2000) Teaching English Spelling
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Smedley, D (1983) Teaching the Basic Skills, Spelling, Punctuation and Grammar in
Secondary English.
London: Methuen.
- Stern, H. H. (1991) Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching
Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Thornbury, S & Harmer, J. (2004) How to Teach Vocabulary
London: Longman
- Tufte, E. (2003) PowerPoint is Evil. Retrieved 8 October 2007 from
<http://www.wired.com/wired/archive/11.09/ppt2.html>
- White, R. V. (1980) Teaching Written English.
Oxford: Heinemann International
- Willis, J. (1992). Teaching English Through English.
London: Longman.
- Wingersky, J. (2004) Writing Sentences and Paragraphs
Arizona: Glendale Community College
- Wolff, J. (2007) Your Writing Coach
London: Nicholas Brealey.
- Yule, G. (2003) The Study of Language
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wyrick, J. (2002) Steps to Writing well with Additional Readings
Zawahreh, F. A. S. (2012) Applied Error Analysis of Written Production of English
Essays of Tenth Grade Students in Ajloun Schools.
(A Case Study).Ajloun.

http://www.britishcouncil.org/serbia-elta-newsletter-march-powerpoint_presentations_in_efl_classroom.doc

<http://www.cod.edu/people/faculty/pruter/film>

<http://lps.lexingtonma.org/Page/2254>

<http://www.meritnation.com/ask-answer/quest>

<http://www.ioe.ac.uk/ghillockpaper1>.

www.ego4u.com/en/cram-up/grammar/prepositions

www.readwritethink.org.professionaldevelopment

www.edutopia.org/redefining-role-teacher

www.writingutoronto.ca/advice/planning-and-organizing/paragraphs

www.englishvocabularyexercises.com/

<https://www.spellingcity.com/spelling-games-vocabulary-gameshtml>

www.youtube.com/watch?v=xlr15rklcpl

www.wikis.engage.com,Wikis

<https://www.bellevuecollege.edu/asc/writing/...paragraphtransitions.pdf>

www.infotrac.thomsonlearning.com,InfoWrite,ModesofExpression

<https://www.msu.edu/~jdowell/135/transw.html>

www.spellingcity.com/

www.fsymbols.com/computer/paragraph/

www.writing.com.

www.westernRiver.com

www.grammar.about.com/od/improveyourwriting/a/tipsproofreading.htm

<https://search.yahoo.com/search?ei=utf-88cfr=yff20&p=punctua>

www.clarion.edu/67269pdf

<https://owl-englishpurdue.edu/owl/resource/573/Q1/>

www.infed.org/mobi/what-is-groupwork

www.grammarbook.com/punctuation/capital.asp

<https://newportal.wis.edu.hk/.../TenTipsforproofreadingEffectively.pdf>

www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Editing

www.handwritingworksheets.com/flash/printdots/paragraph/

Appendix (A)

A questionnaire for secondary school teachers in the
Sultanate of Oman. Teaching composition at the
Secondary Level in the Area of Salalah

Name of the teacher.....

Name of school.....

Specialization.....

Experience.....

Answer the following questions:

Please make a tick (/) against your choice:

How often do you write composition about interesting topics?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you brainstorm the topic?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you take part in the discussion during composition writing in class?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you think in English when you write composition?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

How often do you write composition in group?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

How often do you use cue words and expressions?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

How often do you write composition on your own?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

How often do you get stuck while writing composition?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

How often do you talk orally about the topic?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you write a draft of your composition?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you proofread your composition?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you write your composition in class?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you get feedback on your composition?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you correct mistakes?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

How often do you do remedial work?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

How often do you feel bored when you write composition?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

How often do you use English outside the class?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

The PowerPoint can improve your writing ability?

- Disagree ()
- To some extent ()
- Agree ()
- Strongly agree ()

Writing e-mail is useful in learning composition writing.

- Disagree ()
- To some extent ()
- Agree ()
- Strongly agree ()

How often do you often take part in role- playing in class?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

Appendix (B)

Questionnaire (ii) Students Version

Name of school.....

Name of student.....

Class.....

Answer the following questions. Please make a tick (/) against your choice:

How often do you write composition about interesting topics?

- | | |
|------------|-----|
| Never | () |
| Sometimes | () |
| Frequently | () |
| Always | () |

How often do you brainstorm the topic?

- | | |
|------------|-----|
| Never | () |
| Sometimes | () |
| Frequently | () |
| Always | () |

How often do you take part in the discussion during composition writing class?

- | | |
|------------|-----|
| Never | () |
| Sometimes | () |
| Frequently | () |
| Always | () |

How often do you thin in English when you write composition?

- | | |
|-----------|-----|
| Never | () |
| Sometimes | () |

Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you write composition in group?

Never ()
Sometimes ()
Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you use cue words and expressions?

Never ()
Sometimes ()
Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you write composition on your own?

Never ()
Sometimes ()
Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you get stuck while writing composition?

Never ()
Sometimes ()
Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you talk orally about the topic?

Never ()
Sometimes ()

Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you write a draft of your composition?

Never ()
Sometimes ()
Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you proofread your composition?

Never ()
Sometimes ()
Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you write your composition in class?

Never ()
Sometimes ()
Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you get feedback on your composition?

Never ()
Sometimes ()
Frequently ()
Always ()

How often do you correct mistakes?

Never ()
Sometimes ()
Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you do remedial work?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you feel bored when you write composition?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

How often do you use English outside the class?

Never ()

Sometimes ()

Frequently ()

Always ()

The PowerPoint can improve your writing ability?

Disagree ()

To some extent ()

Agree ()

Strongly agree ()

Writing e-mail is useful in learning composition writing.

Disagree ()

- To some extent ()
- Agree ()
- Strongly agree ()

How often do you often take part in role- playing in class?

- Never ()
- Sometimes ()
- Frequently ()
- Always ()

Appendix (C)

A composition Writing Test

Write about the autumn in Salalah. (in not less than 150 words).

You can use the following guide words and phrases.

Exhibition - enjoy - July and August - restaurant – tourists – rain -popular - fine weather - hotels -green mountains - springs - many cars - different countries.

The researcher gets the learners to answer the following questions:

When does the autumn start?

How long does it last?

How does Salalah look like during this season?

Is there much rain?

What do the mountains look like?

Are there any springs?

How is the weather like during the autumn?

Do any visitors come to Salalah during this season?

Why is it special and important?

Where do the tourists usually stay?

Why do people like autumn in Salalah?

Are there any exhibitions?

What items can you see there?

Is there any music or dancing?

How do people spend their time?

Appendix D
Check List

1. Did the pupils show any interest in the lesson?
2. Did they seem reluctant to take part in the discussion?
3. How many students took part in the discussion?
4. How many students participated in oral talk?
5. Did the learners answer the questions correctly?
6. Did they recall the words and expressions?

A tally Sheet

Group	No. of interested learners	No. of disinterested learners	No. of correct responses	No. of incorrect responses	Comment
A					
B					
C					
D					