



Sudan University of Science and Technology
College of Graduate Studies



College of Education

**Investigating the Effect of Progressive Writing Program on
Enhancing University Students Descriptive Essay (A Case
Study of Aljouf University - KSA)**

تقصي أثر برنامج الكتابة المستمرة في تطوير المقال الوصفي لدى الطلاب
دراسة حالة طلاب جامعة الجوف - المملكة العربية السعودية (الجامعيين)

**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of PhD in Education (ELT)**

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Dedication

To my mother's soul

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Abstract

The current study investigated the effect of the progressive writing program on enhancing the students' essay writing skill. The study adopted an analytical and descriptive methodology, using two tools: two tests (pretest and posttest) and a questionnaire. The subjects were randomly selected from the second year students majoring in English at the college of Sciences and Arts of Jouf University in Gurayat. Students were subjected to a pretest at the beginning of the course and a posttest after treatment to find out whether the intervention has made a difference in the subjects' performance. A questionnaire for the instructors was also administered to find out about the students' attitudes towards essay writing from instructor' prospective. A statistical package was used for data analysis and interpretation. The findings showed a noticeable improvement in the students' performance after the intervention. These finding indicate a positive impact of the progressive writing program on enhancing the subjects' essay writing skill. Interestingly, the results of the instructors' questionnaire about the students' attitudes towards writing was positive though this finding was in line with the subjects' actual performance in the pretest. Based on these findings, the study recommends that Instructors should run the writing process completely in the class, monitor their students, check assignments and give feedback. They should also follow up their students and keep giving them feedback.

Abstract (Arabic Version)

تتقصى الدراسة الراهنة أثر برنامج الكتابة المستمرة التدريجي في تعزيز مهارة كتابة المقال لدى الطلاب. تتبنى الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي مستخدمة اداتين لجمع البيانات. اختبارين (قبلي وبعدي) واستبيان. تم اختيار العينة عشوائيا من طلاب اللغة الانجليزية بالمستوى الثاني بكلية العلوم والآداب-جامعة الجوف ، المملكة العربية السعودية. اخضع الطلاب لاختبار في بداية المقرر واختبار آخر في نهاية المقرر بالقريات بغرض معرفة الفرق في أداء الطلاب الذي يحدثه التدخل بتقديم البرنامج. تم استخدام الحزمة الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية لتحليل وتفسير البيانات. أظهرت النتائج تقدما ملحوظا في أداء العينة بعد التدخل (المعالجة). تشير تلك النتائج الى أثر إيجابي لبرنامج الكتابة المستمر المتدرج في تعزيز مهارة كتابة المقال لدى العينة. ومما يلفت الانتباه أن النتائج الإيجابية لاستبانة رأي الأساتذة حول موقف الطلاب من الكتابة لا يعكسه أداء الطلاب الفعلي في الاختبار القبلي. بناء على تلك النتائج، توصى الدراسة مدربي وأساتذة اللغة بإدارة الكتابة المستمرة التدريجية في قاعة الدرس ومتابعة وتصحيح الواجبات وتقديم تغذية راجعية. كما يجب عليهم الاستمرار في المتابعة وتقديم التغذية الراجعة.

Table of Contents

No.	Topic	Page No.
	Dedication	li
	Acknowledgement	iii
	Abstract	vi
	Abstract (Arabic)	V
	Table of Contents	vii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION		
1.0	Overview of the Study	1
1.1	The Statement of the Study Problem	4
1.2	The Significance of the Study Problem	6
1.3	The Objectives of the Study Problem	7
1.4	The Question of the Study	7
1.5	The Hypotheses of the Study	8
1.6	Research methodology	9
1.7	The Scope of the Study	9
CHAPTER TWO : LITERATIURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES		
2.0	Introduction	10
2.1	The Writing Skills	10
2.2	Writing Theories and Approaches	11
2.2.1	Writing Theories:	12
2.2.1.1	Cognitive Theory	12
2.2.1.2	Creative Writing Craft and Composition Theory	14
2.2.1.3	Activity Theory	17
2.2.1.4	Social Constructionist Theory	18
2.3	Teaching Writing	19
2.3.1	Writing as a Process	20
2.3.2	Writing Stages	22
2.4	Teaching Writing Approaches	26
2.4.1	The Controlled – to – Free Method	27
2.4.2	The Free – Writing Approach	29
2.4.3	The Power Writing Approach	31
2.4.4	The Product-Oriented Approach	32
2.4.5	The Process Approach	35
2.4.6	The Genre Approach	39

2.5	Remedial Instruction	41
2.5.1	Definition of Remedial Instruction	41
2.5.2	The need for remedial instruction	42
2.5.3	Choosing Remedial Instruction	43
2.6	Students Attitudes towards Writing	45
2.6.1	Definition of Term	45
2.6.2	The Effect of Attitudes	46
2.6.3	Attitudes and Writing Achievement	47
2.6.4	Literary Environment and Attitudes	49
2.6.5	Self-Efficacy Beliefs	51
2.6.6	Self-Efficacy and Writing Performance	52
2.6.7	Implication for Classroom Writing Instruction	53
2.7	Previous Studies	54
Summary of the Chapter		59
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY		
3.0	Introduction	60
3.1	Population of the Study	60
3.2	Sample of the Study	61
3.3	Instruments of the Study	62
3.3.1	Pretest Posttest	62
3.3.2	The Questionnaire	63
3.4	Validity of the Instruments	64
3.4.1	Validity of the Test	64
3.4.2	Validity of the Questionnaire	65
3.5	Reliability of the Instruments	66
3.5.1	Reliability of the Test	66
3.5.2	Reliability of the Questionnaire	67
3.6	Statistical of Validity and Reliability	68
3.7	Statistical Instruments	71
3.8	The Remedial Progressive Writing	71
3.8.1	Definition of the Remedial Program	72
3.8.2	Steps of Constructing Instructional Program	73
3.8.3	Diagnosis	73
3.8.4	Preparation	73
3.8.5	Guidance of Learning	73
3.8.6	Evaluation	74
3.8.7	Follow-up	74
3.8.8	Principles of the Remedial Program	74
3.8.9	Program Construction	75

3.8.10	Content of the Program	75
3.8.11	Program Techniques and Activities	75
3.9	Procedures	77
3.10	Data Analysis Techniques	78
Summary of the Chapter		78
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION		
4.0	Introduction	80
4.1	Data Analysis	80
4.1.1	Questionnaire Analysis	80
4.2	Application of the Study's Tool	86
4.2.1	First Hypothesis	86
4.2.2	Second Hypothesis	92
4.2.3	Third Hypothesis	124
4.3	Testing of the Hypotheses	130
4.3.1	Testing of the First Hypothesis	131
4.3.2	Testing of the Second Hypothesis	137
4.3.3	Testing of the Third Hypothesis	155
4.4	Pre-and post-test Analysis	161
4.4.1	Testing of the Test Hypotheses	163
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS		
5.0	Summary	169
5.1	Findings of the Study	170
5.2	Recommendations	171
5.3	Suggestions for further studies	172
BIBLIOGRAPHY		173
LIST OF TABLES		
3.1	Referees of the instruments, their jobs and places of work	68
3.2	Statistical Reliability and Validity of the questionnaire	70
3.3	statistical reliability and validity of sample of pretest posttest	70
4.1	The frequency distribution for qualification	81
4.2	The frequency distribution of age	82
4.3	The frequency distribution of experience in teaching	83
4.4	The frequency distribution for the employment status	84
4.5	The frequency distribution for the specialization in ELT	85
4.6	The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)	86
4.7	The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)	88
4.8	The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)	89
4.9	The frequency distribution for statement no.(4)	90
4.10	The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)	91

4.11	The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)	93
4.12	The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)	94
4.13	The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)	95
4.14	The frequency distribution for statement no.(4)	97
4.15	The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)	98
4.16	The frequency distribution for statement no.(6)	100
4.17	The frequency distribution for statement no.(7)	102
4.18	The frequency distribution for statement no.(8)	103
4.19	The frequency distribution for statement no.(9)	106
4.20	The frequency distribution for statement no.(11)	104
4.21	The frequency distribution for statement no.(13)	106
4.23	The frequency distribution for statement no.(15)	107
4.24	The frequency distribution for statement no.(16)	108
4.25	The frequency distribution for statement no.(19)	109
4.26	The frequency distribution for statement no.(20)	111
4.27	The frequency distribution for statement no.(21)	112
4.28	The frequency distribution for statement no.(22)	113
4.29	The frequency distribution for statement no.(23)	114
4.30	The frequency distribution for statement no.(24)	116
4.31	The frequency distribution for statement no.(25)	117
4.32	The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)	118
4.33	The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)	119
4.34	The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)	121
4.35	The frequency distribution for statement no.(4)	122
4.36	The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)	129
4.37	The Median of the statement of the first hypothesis	131
4.38	Chi-square test results of the statement of the first hypothesis	133
4.39	The Frequency distribution for the first hypothesis	135
4.40	The Median of the statement of the second hypothesis	137
4.41	Chi-square of test of second hypothesis	143
4.42	The Frequency distribution for the second hypothesis	153
4.43	The medium of the third Hypothesis	155
4.44	Chi-square of test of third hypothesis	157
4.45	The Frequency distribution for the third hypothesis	159
4.46	Descriptive Analysis of the pretest and posttest	161
4.47	The Frequency Distribution of the Student pretest posttest	163
4.48	Different between pretest and posttest	164
LIST OF FIGURES		
4.1	The frequency distribution for qualification	81

4.2	The frequency distribution of age	82
4.3	The frequency distribution of experience on teaching	83
4.4	The frequency distribution for the employment status	84
4.5	The frequency distribution for the specialization in ELT	85
4.6	The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)	87
4.7	The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)	88
4.8	The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)	89
4.9	The frequency distribution for statement no.(4)	91
4.10	The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)	92
4.11	The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)	93
4.12	The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)	95
4.13	The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)	96
4.14	The frequency distribution for statement no.(4)	97
4.15	The frequency distribution for statement no.(6)	100
4.16	The frequency distribution for statement no.(7)	101
4.17	The frequency distribution for statement no.(8)	102
4.18	The frequency distribution for statement no.(9)	104
4.19	The frequency distribution for statement no.(10)	105
4.20	The frequency distribution for statement no.(11)	106
4.21	The frequency distribution for statement no.(12)	107
4.23	The frequency distribution for statement no.(13)	109
4.24	The frequency distribution for statement no.(14)	110
4.25	The frequency distribution for statement no.(15)	111
4.26	The frequency distribution for statement no.(16)	112
4.27	The frequency distribution for statement no.(17)	114
4.28	The frequency distribution for statement no.(18)	116
4.29	The frequency distribution for statement no.(19)	117
4.30	The frequency distribution for statement no.(20)	119
4.31	The frequency distribution for statement no.(21)	120
4.32	The frequency distribution for statement no.(22)	121
4.33	The frequency distribution for statement no.(23)	122
4.34	The frequency distribution for statement no.(24)	124
4.35	The frequency distribution for statement no.(25)	125
4.36	The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)	126
4.37	The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)	127
4.38	The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)	127
4.39	The frequency distribution for statement no.(4)	129
4.40	The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)	130
4.4	The Frequency Distribution of the first hypothesis	135

4.41	The Frequency Distribution of the second hypothesis	160
4.42	The Frequency Distribution of the third hypothesis	162
4.43	Descriptive Analysis for pretest and posttest	163
4.44	The frequency Distribution of the student pretest posttest	169
APPENDICES		
Appendix A		181
Appendix B		184

Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview of the Study

Language is a means of interaction between and among people Larsen (2003: 2). This explains to what extent learning language is important and should have more concentration and interest since people are social creatures. Among language skills, writing has an active role for the instruction of second-language learners because it is not only an effective tool for the evolution of academic language proficiency and a vital skill for academic success, but it also allows second language learners to enhance their perception of knowledge gaps (Warchauer,2010). Writing concerns both, the study and the practice to develop, so to develop your writing skills, you need to acquire both. For both native speakers and those who enroll in learning English, it is important to note that writing is a Process, not a “Product” Oshima and Hogue (1997: 2). Since writing is a process that means it develops through steps. Moreover, Fegerson and Mickerson (1992: 7) state that writing is a skill that is acquired through study. Writing is one of English skills that should be taught integratedly, but it is regarded as the most difficult language skill to learn . This to a large extent show how writing is important and should have remarkable and significant interest.

English language has recently become a global language due to its domination over the world. It is – now- the first most important medium of communication required in any field. As a result learners all over the world tend to acquire and master it to satisfy their needs and cope with future jobs .And due to the necessity of writing skill in the language, EFL/ESL writing has become a basic requirement for participation and interaction with the global community in which English is the

prevalent language. Thus, learners who are skillful in EFL/ESL writing will be able to express themselves efficiently and have more privilege when applying for future jobs compared to other peers. Therefore, more attention and interest have been increased to the domain of writing. A lot of effort has been exerted for the sake of developing writing performance of the learners, different strategies and new approaches have been presented. Due to the importance of writing and because it is not an easy task, it requires hard work, better understanding and more practice.

Writing has always been considered an important skill in teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or second language (ESL). It inspires logical thinking, encourages students to focus their attention and sort out their ideas, and develops their ability to summarize, analyze and criticize. Writing enhances learning by thinking in, and reflecting on the target language (Luchini, 2010:73). Among all language skills (listening, speaking and reading) writing is one of the pillars on which learning English as an EFL/ESL is built. A presentation of written text takes long time and effort, and follow certain procedures and techniques. It is not an easy task for EFL/ ESL learner to craft a text unless they are well-trained. Learners should "utilize all the means they have, such as lexical, syntactic, discourse and rhetorical knowledge, to achieve certain writing objectives." (Yan, 2010:29).

Writing is a complex process since it requires comprehensive ability of grammar, spelling, punctuation and mastering cognitive knowledge to organize ideas in a a logical way, to makes sense. Nunan (2003: 88) defines writing as a process of thinking to invent ideas,thinking about how to express them into an effective piece of writing, and arranging these ideas into a statement and later in a paragraph clearly. Brown (2001: 335) states that written products are often the result of

thinking, drafting, and revising procedures that require specialized skill, skill that not every speaker develops naturally. This indicates that writing is a well – connected steps of process necessary to follow to gain the skill.

To achieve this goal, curriculum designers, institutional managers, instructors and researchers have to exert a lot of effort to design a curriculum that meet the learners' particular needs and achieve the goals to develop students and learners.

Writing is a productive skill – beside speaking- in which learners need to activate and use their linguistic abilities such as syntactic, lexical, punctuation, discourse knowledge, and organizational ability to perform certain writing tasks. Thus, to write coherently, cohesively, fluently and appropriately in English, Tangpermpoon (2008: 1) stated that writing is the most difficult skill to acquire. It takes considerable time and effort to become a skillful EFL/ESL writer. That's why writing instruction is supposed to have an increasing role in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and English as a second language (ESL). This is to improve the student's performance in writing skill to master writing different genre.

Developing students writing performance is the main concern and interest in human studies in general and English language teaching (ELT) in particular. There are many ways that can be followed to promote students' writing. Writing is not a one step process, just a written text handed to the audience, it is a long a process, it is a connection of thought and time. It starts from an idea thought about, brainstormed, drafted down, edited, and presented finally to the audience. This process is recursive,final draft leads to the editing and so on; writing is connected steps, one follows the other. Immersing students in a working process following writing steps, can be a successful way to develop learners' writing skill. Many studies were conducted on writing, addressing different aspects of writing, filled

the literary gaps, came out with good results, and added to the universal knowledge. Most of these studies focused on investigating the students target performance in writing and has given results depending on this investigation. Very few of these studies focused on investigating writing performance after a remedial progressive writing program students expose to, and few of them were conducted focusing on certain genre, unlike this study which tries to focus on the development of students writing skill on a certain genre, namely descriptive writing, after being immersed in a certain remedial progressive writing program. This study tries to focus on the performance of students who are given remedial progressive writing program on descriptive writing, a kind of genre that has not been researched a lot. The study presents the statement of the problem that frames the study topic and the significance of the study, followed by the objectives of it. The study also suggests some questions as guide for the study and hypothesizes some answers for them to check their verification.

1.1 Statement of the Study Problem

Writing is very important productive skill and it should have more concentration to get developed. It is receiving a lot of interest and considerable effort nowadays. A Lot of researches have been done and approaches applied to explore problems and solutions suggested to develop the students' writing performance. Recently, in Sudan a considerable amount of researches have been done on writing, discussing different genre and offered useful information added to the universal knowledge. However, there are a lot of serious writing problems still annoy the educational institutions and need to be tackled.

The researcher as an "ESL" instructor at some Sudanese and Saudi Arabian universities, experienced some of these problems during his teaching period of time. A very clear weakness is found in university students' writing performance.

Mostly, university students in Sudan and Saudi Arabia, - the area where the researcher practice his job - face this serious problems regarding writing performance. These writing problems might be due to the fact that writing is a very long complicated process, the approaches that used in teaching writing do not suit the curricula and materials, the syllabi taught do not match the students' level and needs, or students themselves do not exert enough effort towards mastering writing skill to achieve their goals, because of the of motivation or due to their attitudes towards writing itself.

Writing descriptively has been reported as one of these serious writing problems students have. Students face difficulties to write a simple piece of essay describing, a person, a place or a thing, which is the major issue that the study attempts to investigate. Students commit a lot of errors in writing activity. Most of their writing is not well organized. It is also full of grammar mistakes, sentence structure and punctuation errors. Students do very well in the grammatical oriented questions and, but their performance in writing tests and exams is relatively weak. It paid the researcher attention and attracted his interest to coin the idea and study this phenomena. The researcher keeps doing a lot of effort to develop the students' performance. One of these efforts was giving students some pieces of different descriptive writing on different topics. A remarkable development appeared on the students' writing performance although the period is short. The output actually pleased the researcher and encouraged him to carry on the process to the end. The researcher thought of narrowing down the application of this idea on descriptive writing performance of the students to see there is some enhancement. This is the start point kept itching the researcher, and tries to push it further to get logical and convincing results depending on scientific process.

According to the above mentioned probabilities and the observations experienced by the researcher, the idea of going through this study became a hope and dream of research.

To overcome these problems, urgent strategy is strongly needed. The strategy should tackle the weakness appeared in students writing skill, and a quick remedy is required to promote the students' writing performance.

1.2 The Significance of the Study

This study states that no one can deny that perfect writing plays a vital role on enhancing the students' learning and motivate them towards achieving learning goals. Writing is a very important skill and it contributes significantly to the production of the students later. The researcher believes that the promotion of students' writing performance will help a lot in developing the level of the students and increases their knowledge which later can assist them to achieve their goals of study, and then aids them to add to the universal knowledge. Therefore, the researcher thinks that writing should have more concentration and concerns especially in this level to ground a suitable base and stand point for students. Furthermore, the researcher believes that the attitudes of the students is very important and crucial towards literacy and learning. If the students' interest is positive towards writing, then their writing will be developed and enhanced. So, The researcher thinks that knowing the area of attitudes needs to be discussed and tackled because it is the corner stone of developing learning. The researcher appreciates the efforts done in the field of writing, but more efforts and contributions to the field is highly needed. The researcher hopefully looking forward to promising results from this study that pushes writing process further, and language presentation in general, because the researcher thinks, if the productive skills promote, receptive skills will follow, due to their integration to

each other. The researcher also expects that the study will give good insights about the writing performance of students and to what extent it contributes to the writing process, so the study is thought to be very significant for students due to its importance to promote their writing performance. It is also hoped to be significant for the syllabus designers, academic institutions, teachers, educational policy makers and researchers with regard to designing educational curricula.

1.3 The Objectives of the Study

The study aims at achieving the following objectives:

- 1\ investigating the difficulties and problems students face in writing descriptive essay.
- 2\ finding out whether the remedial progressive writing program will enhance the students' writing performance, or if the remedy make difference in the students' writing tasks.
- 3\ finding the significant relationship between using remedial progressive writing program and the development on the students' descriptive writing?
- 4\ identifying the students' attitude towards writing
- 5\ investigating the students' writing skills ability before the implementation of the course.
- 6\ knowing whether the teachers give feedback about their students' writing.

1.4 The Questions of the Study

The study suggests the following questions and attempts to find out reasonable answers for them.

- 1/ what are the writing problems noticed in the students' descriptive essay?

2/ to what extent does using progressive writing program enhance students' descriptive writing?

3/ to what degree is there any significant relationship between using remedial progressive writing program and the development on the students' descriptive writing?

4\ what is the students' attitude towards the writing skills?

5\ What is the students' writing skills ability before the implementation of the progressive writing program?

6\ to what extent do the teachers give feedback about their students' writing?

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study:

The study stated the following hypotheses:

1/ there are some problems as spelling, grammar, sentence structure, and organizations in the students' descriptive essay.

2/the remedial progressive writing program will have positive impact on the students' writing performance.

3/ there is a correlation between the remedial progressive writing program and the development on the descriptive writing performance.

4\ the students have negative attitudes towards their descriptive writing.

5\ the students' ability before implementation of the program is weak

6\ teachers either do not give feedback or don't give enough feedback about the writing of their students.

1.6 The Research Methodology

The study adopted an analytical and descriptive methodology, using two tools: two tests (pretest and posttest) and a questionnaire. The subjects were randomly selected from the second year students majoring in English at the college of Sciences and Arts of Jouf University in Gurayat. students were subjected to a pretest at the beginning of the course and a posttest after treatment to find out whether the intervention has made a difference in the subjects' performance. A questionnaire for the instructors was also administered to find out about the students' attitudes towards essay writing from instructor' prospective. A statistical package was used for data analysis and interpretation.

1.7 The Scope of the Study

The study focuses only on writing, targeting the impact of the remedial progressive writing program on students' descriptive essay writing performance, others skills and other types of writing are not concerned. The study also applied on the students of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Aljouf university, College of Sciences and Arts, level four. Add to that, the study will be in the second semester of 2017/2018. Generalization of the study results later, will be upon the abovementioned scopes.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature that related to the topic of the study. It contains ideas and thoughts of some scholars who concern with writing fields. This literature pave the way to the fulfillment of the study and prove at the same time the significance of the study and to what extend tackling the statement of the problem, bridge some universal gap and contribute a lot of the field of writing.

2.1 The Writing Skill

Zen (2005:2) defines writing as one of the four skills, commonly accepted goals of learning a foreign language, but often a skill that “falls through”. Archibald (2001:153-160) mentions that writing is a skill that needs knowledge and proficiency in many areas. It is a multidimensional skill. It is a complex skill that results from the interaction of the writer's knowledge, experience, skills and the cognitive demands of the task.

Bello (1997:1). states that writing is a continuous process of discovering how to find the most effective language for communicating one's feelings and thoughts. He maintains that writing is challenging, whether it is in a native language or in a second language.

Orwig (1999: 2) gives a definition of writing as a skill saying that: It is a productive skill that is more complicated than it seems at first, and often seems to be the most difficult of the skills since it has a number of micro skills such as: using orthography correctly, spelling and punctuation conventions, using vocabulary in a correct way and using the appropriate style.

Salah (2009:11) defines writing as a craft that needs tools. These tools are the sub-skills of writing such as mechanics of writing and text organization. The researcher

defines writing as a means that used to express needs and feelings by using a variation of certain tools and sub-skills.

Writing is a complex intellectual exercise (Franklin, 2008) that is organised and takes a gradual process (Oguntope & Agbana, 2000; Egbe, 2002) in order to produce a meaningful text clearly and effectively (Latilo & Beckely, 2008). Empirical work from several domains has demonstrated that many students, especially less competent writers tend to overestimate their ability (Stone & May, 2002). Common areas where students write include report, essay, letter writing, project writing, assignments, note taking etc. Studies have indicated less than optimal writing instruction in the classrooms (Graham & Harris, 2002; Troia, 2005; Wray et al., 2000). This is evident in the teacher self-report data from the 1998 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) that nearly seven out of ten teachers indicate they employ process-oriented instruction to teach composition, yet not more than a third of those teachers spend ninety minutes per week, which is supposed to be the minimum per week or more than ninety minutes per week teaching writing (National Centre for Education Statistics, 1998). The need to instruct and motivate the students on the importance of writing task is necessary, so that they can perceive that the writing task is related to their needs in school and after graduation. Dynamic (2010) asserts that the art of letter writing should not be neglected; these are the building blocks of our civilisation (p.1). It is very clear from what the above mentioned how much writing is important and how effective is it in the language, that why too many scholars concern of it and sought deeply to discover its world. Below are some examples of the theories of writing.

2.2 Writing Theories and Approaches

Writing is a very demanding and complex task. Even a seemingly simple text, can require considerable effort and expertise. Writing is a goal directed and self-

sustained activity requiring the skillful management of the writing environment; the constraints imposed by the writing topic; the intentions of the writer(s), and the processes, knowledge, and skills involved in composing (Zimmerman & Reisemberg, 1997). It entails much more than this, however, as writing is a social activity involving either an implicit or explicit dialogue between writer(s) and reader(s). Moreover, writing competence in one social community does not ensure competence in another. For instance, a good technical writer may not be a good novelist. What and how people write is also influenced by the cultural, societal, institutional, political, and historical background in which they are situated (Schultz & Fecho, 2000). To illustrate, students' concepts about writing are shaped, at least in part, by institutional decisions about pedagogy and curriculum. If a school's writing program places a heavy emphasis on correct form, students' revising efforts will most likely involve editing. A different approach to revising is likely, though, if form is deemphasized and meaning and process are stressed. Here the study tries to present some theories and approaches to writing to show how writing business deserves all these efforts done to show it's importance in the language field.

2.2.1 Writing Theories:

The study tries to draw the attention of the readers, researchers and those who have interests in language in general and writing specifically to some writing theories and their contribution to the domain of writing.

2.2.1.1 Cognitive theory:

Given its complexity, it is not surprising that there is currently no model or theory of writing that fully or adequately captures it. One conceptual approach to studying writing focuses mostly on the individual writer and concentrates on understanding the cognitive and the motivational processes involved in composing (Graham, 2006). This cognitive or cognitive/motivational approach is exemplified in an

influential model of writing developed by Hayes (1996). In his model, he takes into account, at least in part, the interaction between the task environment for writing and the internal capabilities of the writer. The task environment includes both a social component (e.g., the audience, other texts read while writing, and collaborators) as well as a physical component (e.g., text read so far and the writing medium, such as a word processor). Internal factors include four main elements. First, cognitive processes: text interpretation, reflection, and text production. These processes allow the writer to form an internal representation of the writing task that can be acted upon; devise a plan to reach one or more writing goals; draw conclusions about the audience and possible writing content; use cues from the writing plan or text produced so far to retrieve semantic information that is then turned into written sentences; and evaluate plans and text and modify them as needed. Second, motivation, which includes the goals, predispositions, beliefs, and attitudes that influence the writing process. Third, long-term memory—knowledge of the writing topic and audience as well as linguistic and genre knowledge, including task schemas that specify how to carry out particular writing tasks. Fourth, working memory, which serves as an interface between cognitive processes, motivation, and memory, providing a space for holding information and ideas for writing as well as carrying out cognitive activities that require the writer's conscious attention.

In the model proposed by Hayes (1996) only limited attention is devoted to the social nature of writing. The influence of writing community, culture, society, institution, politics, and history are mostly ignored. One or more of these factors are captured in sociocultural theories of writing. For example, Russell (1997) developed a theory for explaining how macro-level social and political forces influence micro-level writing actions and vice versa. A basic unit in this model is an activity system, which examines how actors (an individual, dyad, or

collective—perceived in social terms and taking into account the history of their involvement in the activity system) use concrete tools (e.g., writing) to accomplish some action with some outcome (this is accomplished in a problem space where subjects use tools in an ongoing interaction with others to shape an object over time in a shared direction). Russell's theory also employs the concept of genre, “as typified ways of purposefully interacting in and among some activity system(s)” (p. 513). Genres are stabilized through regularized use of tools within and among individuals, creating a relatively predictable way of interacting with others, but they are only stabilized-for-now structures, as they are subject to change depending upon the context. Newcomers to an established activity system appropriate some of the routinized tools used by others (e.g., a particular structure for writing), but interactions between and among individuals and activity systems can change typified ways of acting Primary grade students mastering basic writing skills. (i.e., genres), as they may be modified or abandoned in response to changing conditions.

2.2.1.2 Creative Writing Craft and Composition Theory

First-year students tend to think of most writers as creative writers. These institutionally constructed boundaries between creative writing and composition theory continue to be broken down in writing classrooms, but composition students are typically not exposed to authors' discussions about craft. Tim Mayers (2005), in his book (Re)Writing Craft, argues that “craft criticism . . . can and should serve as a bridge between creative writing and composition studies” in order to “forge an academic disciplinary area in which writing is of primary concern” (p. xiv). Mayers' argument hinges on the idea that creative writers and composition theorists need to share a department in most major universities because of their shared concerns. He recognizes that “because first-year composition courses are usually required of all students, whereas creative writing courses are not. . . students

in creative writing courses... want to be in those courses,” and, therefore, that “creative writing students...are far more likely to think of themselves as writers and to enjoy writing” (pp. 114- 115). As illustrated by Elbow and Belanoff’s (2003) text, composition instructors want their students to consider themselves writers and take their writing seriously. However, as Mayers points out, required course classroom environments differ from the atmosphere in a class the student elected to take. We agree with Mayers’ classroom distinction, and we also make it a goal in our classrooms to promote the idea that students should see themselves as writers. We see the marriage of composition theory and creative writing craft in the first-year writing classroom as a way to help our students see themselves as writers.

In the first-year writing classroom it is important that students see themselves as writers in order to stay engaged and motivated while developing and discovering their own complex writing processes. However, similar to an issue found in Writing About Writing classrooms, many composition instructors may be concerned that engagement with creative writing craft or composition theory will either put students into a writing-centered vacuum or into a creative writing course that does not focus on other academic writing. Through Writing Across the Curriculum theory, however, we understand more fully the effects that a strong foundation in writing theory/practice has on students’ performance across the disciplines. The WAC approach, which promotes both writing to learn and writing in the disciplines, gives students the opportunity to use writing as a tool to better learn course material and to learn a particular discipline’s specific conventions and genres. Mayers (2005) also presents a dichotomy of concern for writing instructors, stating that he “understand(s) that writing is an act of discovery...but [does not] want to do [his] students a disservice by proceeding from a notion of writing their future professors will not share” (p. 135). Like Mayers, the researcher recognizes that writing is about exploration but also that first-year writing courses are required

by almost all major post-secondary institutions because students need to learn the skill set that will aid their future academic and career writing endeavors.

Smitherman & Amanda (2011) stated that this recognition leads the researcher back to the conundrum that is composition. For decades, those of us who research and teach composition have situated our thinking around the fact that writing is both a discipline and a skill. Unlike so many other disciplines, writing is at once transparently connected to almost every class on campus. Institutional pressures often inform what we teach in the first-year writing classroom, so we often leave out theory to make way for a skill set, arming students with a “bag of tricks,” or set of general writing practices, to get through writing across the disciplines. Considering creative writing craft may be the link so that more explicit theory can inform student writers.

We do not want the first-year writing classroom to turn into a creative writing course or a remedial course about composition theory. Mayers (2005) suggests that “even in a composition course that focuses exclusively on the academic, analytical, and interpretive essay” students should be asked questions like, “How did you plan for these pieces before you wrote them?” and “Did you discover anything new while you wrote?” in order for the student to “understand writing processes” and “to find poetic elements even in the most rigidly structured types of writing” (p. 135). Again, Mayers, like Elbow and Belanoff (2003), sees the interaction between creative writing craft and composition theory as being reflective, with the added goal of recognizing the creative element in any academic writing situation. Mayers also suggests assigning some creative writing in composition courses, but mentions that he “rarely teach(es) the university’s required first-year composition course” and admits some of the difficulties he has encountered engaging his third-year composition students in the creative writing process (p. 137-138). We are not necessarily promoting creative writing in the first-year writing classroom;

however, we hope to expose students to craft criticism in order to contextualize composition theory.

2.2.1.3 Activity theory

Nicole Hewes (2012) provides a method for describing and analyzing activity systems for writing and how they interact with macro-level activity systems involving academic discipline, culture, institution, society, and so forth. To illustrate activity theory in action an example is given below of how political, institutional, societal, community, cultural, and historical factors might influence what happens in the class focusing on story writing. In this particular instance, the teacher's decision to concentrate on story writing was shaped by the district curriculum guide and the state's high-stakes testing program (story writing was emphasized in both) as well as the teacher's and his/her students' interest in story telling. The way in which story writing was introduced and taught was influenced by the teachers' beliefs about how to teach (which was previously influenced by his/her teacher preparation program, his/her own teachers as a child, and the culture of the school). In providing story writing instruction, the teacher used the same general routinized approach that he/she had applied when teaching personal narratives and other types of writing. Students also continued to generate papers using the same general script they had been using since the start of the school year: selecting a topic, briefly planning what to say, making a draft, sharing it with a peer, revising and editing it, and sharing part or all of it with the class and at home. While this script for writing was followed by most students, some of them modified it by eliminating a step (e.g., planning) or adding ones (e.g., sharing plans with a peer). The last of these modifications had a ripple effect in the classroom, as almost all of the students started sharing their plans with a peer. To provide students with concrete examples of stories, the teacher read traditional stories to the children (stories taken from his/her own dominant culture).

2.2.1.4 Social Constructionist Theory

The main idea of this theory is that knowledge is constructed by group discourse. People construct their sense of selves from communal ideas and attitudes. Language is the means for discovering and articulating a separate uniqueness. Language is the means for discovering selfhood by giving voice to all culturally-based understandings which constitute people experience. Thus "We" as the "subject" of our experience is a composite entity articulated in language of our communal experiences. Four Lines of Research:

1. Discourse communities: group talk produces meaning.
2. Sociology of science: development of forms.
3. Ethnography: Concerned with context of the language situation.
4. Marxist: politics of production.

Knowledge is built through collaboration and agreement. Opposition must be included or there is a reversion to individualist construction which reverts back to defining individuals as instruments of the language which defines them (cognitive process). Central question for deciding which camp to join: Do we control language, or does language control us? Social constructionists see the interaction of the individualizing power of the mind and the collective social authority of language as reciprocal and as the essential dynamic from which we make meaning. Connection with Poststructuralist theory : writer, reader, and text are socially constructed entities, constituted by vast interpretative frameworks. Language is a "web of meaning." There is no underlying truth. We exist as relationships between words. No connection between signifier (content) and signified (object). Discourse community denotes a group of individuals bound by common interests/conventions which will influence production of text within that group.

2.3 Teaching Writing

Harmer (2001: 79-84) explains four reasons for teaching writing to students of English as a foreign language .They are reinforcement, language development, learning style and writing as a skill.

1. Reinforcement: some students acquire languages in an oral /aural way, others get benefit from seeing the language written down. "The visual demonstration of language construction is invaluable for both understanding and memory". It is useful for students to write the new language shortly after studying it.

2. Language development : the process of writing is different from the process of speaking, the former helps us to learn as we go along. "The mental activity of constructing proper written texts is part of the ongoing learning experiences."

3. Learning style : some students are quick at acquiring language just by looking and listening. Others may take longer time spent in producing language in a slower way is invaluable. So, writing is appropriate for those learners.

4. Writing as a skill: the most essential reason for teaching writing is that, it is a basic language skill like speaking, listening and reading. Students need to know how to write letters, compositions, essays and reports and how to use writing's conventions. Archibald (2004: 5) notes that, "although proficiency in writing is somewhat related to overall language proficiency, improvements in general language proficiency do not necessarily affect a student's proficiency in writing in their L2. However, writing instruction can be effective in raising proficiency in a number of areas. Recent approaches to instruction have recognized that, while weak areas can and should be specifically addressed, writing must always be seen as culturally and socially situated." Cumming (2002: 123-134) cautions writing teachers to be wary of exercises that attempt to break writing down into component skills as such exercises often eliminate portions of the task that are important to the personal and cultural significance of the writing. Learners' needs are different at

various stages in their learning and that teachers must develop tasks to accommodate this. A detailed discussion was given of teaching approaches at beginning, intermediate and advanced levels of proficiency. At lower levels frequent, short writing activities can help to build familiarity and develop a useful, productive vocabulary. The variety and length of tasks can be extended for intermediate level students - developing more complex themes and building a repertoire of strategies for effective writing. Advanced level students need to develop a greater understanding of genres and the place of writing in particular discourse communities. They also need to develop their strategies and establish their own voice in the second language. Monaghan (2007: 4) notes that teaching writing would include writing strategies, defined as methods of imparting necessary knowledge of the conventions of written discourse and the basis of grammar, syntax through various pedagogical methods. Ultimately, teaching writing means guiding students toward achieving the highest ability in communicating in words.

2.3.1. Writing as a Process

Min (2007: 42) in her study writes down, "Process writing is learning how to write by writing," This current emphasis in writing instruction focuses on the process of creating writing rather than the end product .The basic premise of process writing is that all learners can write and the focus here is on creating quality content and learning the genres of writing. Lynch (1996:155). says that teaching writing has been shifted since 1970s.It was concerned with the product, with the learner's answer. The focus was on accuracy of mechanics of writing (spelling, grammar, vocabulary and punctuation marks. Since 1970s, there has been a great interest in the process of writing .This approach is more concerned with giving about it the right way.

Harmer (2004: 4-6) tells us something about the process of writing and the stages a writer goes through so as to produce a piece of writing. He suggests four main elements: Planning, the writer has to think about three issues (purpose, audience and content structure.) Drafting, is the first version of a piece of writing. Editing (reflecting and revision) and finally the final version.

Oshima and Hogue (1981: 4-15) identify four stages of the writing process: (prewriting, planning, writing and revising drafts and the final copy)

Stage 1: Prewriting

Two steps should be focused on: choosing and narrowing a topic and brainstorming.

Prewriting (step 1) Choosing and narrowing a topic

When students are given a choice to write about a topic they like, they must narrow the topic to a particular aspect of that general topic. This means, the topic should not be too broad to write in one paragraph because it is impossible to cover a topic like "environment" in only one paragraph.

Prewriting (step 2) Brainstorming

Brainstorming means generating ideas that help students write more quickly on the topic they are interested in using three techniques: listing, free writing and clustering. Teachers should help students learn how to use each of them and decide which is the most productive one.

Stage 2: Planning

Students are asked to organize the ideas they generated by brainstorming.

Stage 3: Writing and revising drafts

Students are asked to write a draft or more till they produce a final copy. This can be done by: writing the first draft, revising content and organization, proofreading the second draft for grammar, spelling and punctuation marks. Stage .

Stage 4:writing the final copy: after making the needed corrections, students can write the final copy.

2.3.2 Writing Stages

Writing is not an easy task as it needs skills and high thinking abilities. It is a productive skill of important stages which should be focused on during teaching writing. White and Arndt (1991: 5) assert, writing serves as cyclical process. This means that when students are revising their writing, they might return to the prewriting phase so as to expand their ideas. They show the nature of the writing stages as in the following diagram.

Millrood (2001:147) describes three –phase frame work of teaching to write: - Pre-writing (schemata-the previous knowledge a person already has- activation, motivation for writing, preparation for he writing, familiarization with the format of the text.).

- While-writing(thesis development, writing from notes, proceeding from a given beginning phrase and following a plan)

- Post-writing(reflection on spelling and grammar errors, sharing the writing with other students-redrafting, peer editing) Shin-Chien (2007:25-31) in his study differentiates between two kinds of strategies in the writing process. Cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The first involves strategies for using knowledge to solve problems, the second concerns monitoring, controlling, and understanding one's strategies. Sometimes they overlap with each other. He adds, writing consists of three main cognitive process/strategies: planning, translating and reviewing.

Planning is divided into three sub-strategies: generating ideas, organizing and goal-setting. **Translating** is done when writers put their ideas into visible language. Finally, **reading and editing** are the sub-strategies of reviewing. Lindsay and knight (2006: 94-95) divide writing into three stages:

- **Pre-writing stage**-the teacher sets the task, learners [prepare for what they will write.
- **The writing stage**- the learners do the task, for example, writing a report, a story, a letter.
- **post- writing**- feedback and follow-up work.

2.5 Purposes of Teaching Writing

Teachers of English often choose writing tasks from textbooks to help students improve their writing ability. The writing tasks that teachers select from text books and assign to students can help them become confident writers and independent thinkers. Foong (1999: 30-47) points out four purposes for teaching writing:

1. Writing for language practice

Writing can be taught for practicing language forms to develop accuracy and correctness. It is basically for reinforcement, training and imitation of language forms. In language-based writing tasks, students would be given writing exercises that would reinforce language structures that have been taught through the manipulation of grammatical patterns. For example, students would be given a paragraph and asked to perform substitutions, transformations, expansions or completion exercises.

2. Writing for rhetorical practice

In writing tasks that teach rhetorical forms, teachers would provide the content and use model essays as stimuli for writing. Students will imitate the rhetorical and syntactic forms by following the chosen model passage. Examples of such tasks are : writing guided compositions in which the content and organization are given by the teacher, reading a passage and writing a composition with parallel organization, and reading an essay and analyzing its organizational pattern and writing a similar essay on a related topic.

3. Writing for communication

Teaching writing began to shift its emphasis on accuracy and patterns to the ability to understand and convey information content. Completing a communicative writing task would require greater awareness of writer's purpose, audience and the context of writing. Here, writing has a social function. Such communicative writing tasks stimulate real life situations where a writer will write to convey some information to a reader.

4. Writing as a discovery and cognitive process

Writing tasks in the classrooms have begun to shift their focus to the process of writing which has been influenced by the humanistic and cognitive approaches. The process approach has two main schools of thought: the expressive and the cognitive. The expressive school of thought stresses the importance of self-development. Writing is viewed as an expressive mode through which student writers use writing as a means to explore or discover meaning by themselves and develop their own voice. According to the cognitive school, writing researchers begin to study the mental processes during the act of composing. They find that good writers do not have only a large repertoire of strategies, but also they have sufficient self-awareness of their own process. In addition to the previous purposes of writing, Foong (1999), recommends some classroom practices for teaching writing to the teachers to follow in their schools. They are:

- Allowing students to generate their ideas through pre-writing strategies and by writing the topics that are related to the students' world experiences for writing to be meaningful.
- Creating opportunities for students to select their own topics.
- Providing feedback on drafts that stimulates and encourages students to rethink and revise ideas instead of focusing on form and accuracy.
- Conferencing with students to help them gain insights and understanding of

their writing process and to provide them with support.

- Promoting collaborative rather than competitive learning in the classroom.

Flower and Hayes (1981) as cited in (Conner, 1996: 75). theorize that writing as a cognitive process consists of four interactive components: task, environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the composing processes themselves. The task environment consists of writing topic, the audience, the degree of the urgency of the task, and the text produced so far. The writer's long-term memory retains definitions of the topic, the identity of the audience, and possible writing plan. the writing processes include planning, translating and reviewing. Planning involves generating ideas, goals, and procedures. Translating involves expressing ideas and goals in verbal forms, and reviewing includes evaluating and revising. Additionally, Tang (2007: 52-53) proposes some principles for developing writing skills and how they can be applied in a Chinese ESL classroom. The principles applied in teaching writing are:

- Raising students` awareness: students should be helped to see the role of writing in language learning.

- Students having ideas: student is not only the exposition of ideas, but also the working out of ideas". it is teachers` responsibility to help students analyze their own ideas through teaching.

- Reading to write: writing does not exist alone. Before a learner starts to write, he/she needs to read so as to learn the language and get familiar with certain patterns or rhetorical structures.

- Teaching process writing: process writing is characterized by the awareness of the writer of the writing process and the intervention of a teacher, or peers at any time during the process of writing to improve writing skills instead of fixing

mistakes. This approach aims at enabling students to share information, make personal choices about reading and writing, take the responsibility of their own learning task, take writing as process, and develop cooperation.

- Creating a learner-centered classroom in active communication: basically, writing is a verbal communication. The view that writing is a verbal communication finds strongest support in Bakhtin's dialogic theory of language. It implies the interactive nature of writing.

2.4 Teaching Writing Approaches

Teaching writing has seen numerous approaches and methods crossing its way since the early eighties. The focus has shifted from sentence structure and grammar drills to usage and text organisation. Its understanding and use are largely valued in every discipline, each of which requires a specific method of teaching. Teachers first, students then, have become aware of the fact that writing takes particular conventional forms in different contexts. Consequently, a great number of approaches and methods of teaching have come out. Although none of these approaches can be considered as ideal, they have all proved to be successful in one period or another. The immediate consequence is that today there are several approaches which are competing in writing classrooms and in course books. The aim of this paper is to outline some of the current innovative strategies and methods of teaching writing to ESL students. The teaching of writing was essentially based on the notion of controlled, or guided, composition. It prevailed from the mid-1940s to the mid-1960s, and in the mid-1960s, however, teachers began to doubt about the efficiency of the controlled composition. This led to a focus on 'rhetorical functions' which stated that the work was not to be done at the sentence level, but at the discourse level. Since then, the focus was on the paragraph and the composition and their types of development such as description, narration, argumentation and exposition. The process approach of the early 1980s

brought up new concepts and principles in the field of teaching writing. Below some teaching approaches are reviewed.

2.4.1 The Controlled-to-Free Method

In the 1950s and 1960s, when the Audio-lingual approach prevailed, writing was taught only to reinforce speech. It was believed that the mastery of grammatical rules could lead to that of the foreign language, especially in its spoken form. This belief encouraged the teaching of grammar in the time allocated to writing. It was in such circumstances that the method known as controlled-to-free emerged. It consists essentially in providing the students with pieces of writing such as sentences or paragraphs, and asking them to make some grammatical or lexical changes such as using the present tense instead of the past, or the plural instead of the singular etc. to change phrases into clauses or vice versa. This type of exercise makes the learners write frequently and gives them the opportunity to produce their own writings without mistakes because their productions are strictly controlled. Only after having improved this first type of highly controlled-writing can the students move to free compositions in which they express their own ideas. Between extremes, there are exercises where the students are provided with all or some of the language they need. The shift from controlled-to-free writing takes place gradually as the teacher's guidance decreases gradually from the first exercise to the last. When commenting on this shift J. Abbot and P. Wingard (1992) pointed out that: "The important thing is to adjust the exercise to the class so as to strike the right balance between predictability and unpredictability (228). In other words, when guiding the students in the course of an exercise, we must supply them with substantial amount of information, but not all lest it should lead to dullness, if on the other hand, we do not clarify our expectations in a free work; we run the risk of confusion. A typical example of gradual shift from controlled to free work can be as follows: at first, we assume that the teacher is dealing with the

descriptive type of writing with a focus on the use of transitional expressions like “however”, “in addition to”, etc. and new vocabulary.

- The first exercise consists in supplying the students with a small paragraph containing some underlined words, in which the author describes his partner. “Andrew is a very flexible person...”
- After the reading and comprehension sessions, students are given a list of adverbs and adjectives and are invited to use them in four sentences taken from the text.
- After having arranged the sentences, the learners are asked to combine them by means of transitions they will choose from a list given by the teacher (moreover, however, furthermore, but, in addition to, besides ...)
- Lastly, the learners are required to produce a paragraph on the basis of a topic given by the teacher, in which he asks them, for example, to describe their best friend. Students are encouraged to use the adverbs, adjectives and transitions, they have studied.

Perhaps, one of the most outstanding attributes of the controlled-to-free method is that it emphasizes accuracy rather than fluency. As it focuses on the structural aspect of the language and neglects its communicative aspect. A. Raimes (1983) wrote: “This approach stresses three features: grammar, syntax, and mechanics.” (p. 76) The table below drew by Crookes and Chaudron, (1991, p. 52) shows the main differences between controlled and free techniques in the practical stages of a lesson:

CONTROLLED

Teacher-centred

Manipulative

Structured

Predicted- student responses

Pre-planned objectives

FREE

Student-centred

Communicative

Open-ended

Unpredicted responses

Negotiated objectives

Set curriculum

Cooperative curriculum

2.4.2 The Free-Writing Approach

The Free-writing Approach is essentially based on the belief that when we write freely and frequently, we improve our ability in that language skill. Free writing means that the students write without teacher's interference, and are encouraged to emphasize content and fluency first. Once the ideas are expressed on paper, the teacher intervenes to provide some assistance to improve grammatical accuracy. For Peyton and Staton (1996), "Learners write for a period of time in class on a topic of interest to them. This writing can take many forms, including quick writings, which are time-limited, done individually, and not always shared; and dialogue journals, written to a teacher, a classmate or another partner who then responds." On the other hand such writings "may be kept in a notebook. From these pieces, themes may emerge that can act as a facilitator for more extensive writing that is discussed, revised, edited, and published."(p. 16-32) Free writing is of two types: when it is focused, it answers a question or a topic proposed by the student himself. The teacher's interference is very limited because he gives his instructions at the beginning of the exercise and allows the students to write freely. He usually insists on the freedom to write without worrying about grammar or spelling as they are not of primary concern. In fact, when the teacher reads the students' compositions, he comments on the ideas expressed in the composition without correcting the mistakes. Sometimes, the student is invited to read his writing aloud so as to become involved in writing for an audience. (Raimes, 1983) Content and audience are seen as the most important parameters in the free-writing approach. As freedom is given to students to choose their own topics, they are motivated to write, and it is highly likely that they believe in what they write. When free-writing is unfocused, it becomes a personal activity which consists in jotting down on paper any idea that comes to one's mind. Sometimes, we obtain

short coherent passages, but generally the students generate incoherent non-unified blocks. However, the advocates of the free-writing argue that despite the risk for the students to produce non-coherent and non-unified passages, this method has the advantage of making them write with more spontaneity. (Raimes, 1983) So, we notice that the defenders of this method are interested in quantity rather than in quality. Moreover, the freedom that the students have in the choice of their topics can be an important stimulus for motivation. It is much easier for a student to produce successful compositions when he knows about the subject he is developing. It is clear that the free-writing cannot be used successfully with beginners because it requires some basic notions of writing. Sometimes the free-writing activity results from a reading session. It is called reflective writing because it is practised after reading a short story and reflects on what learners have just read. C. Anderson (1992) writes that free writing allows students to put their thoughts on paper even if they are not "sounding right" or "academic". He adds, "'Free' suggests the need to forget the rules and just go." Therefore, when adopting this method, one should not feel concerned with grammar, punctuation, spelling or style. "You should think about the thinking." Anderson (1992) strongly encourages that "while free writing, you (the writer) should not reread what you have already written. Rather, if stuck on what to write next, just continue to write anything that comes to mind or rewrite the last word until another idea comes to mind. You should incorporate your thoughts and not summarize or retell the story. To facilitate this type of writing, you might implement "reading with and against the grain" while reading. You can then reflect on this experience in your free write." (p. 198) The act of free-writing allows the students to think about the text being written without the pressure of having an audience. While revising, he/she can decide what ideas are usable, what sentences need to be rewritten and which should be thrown out. Free-writing does not always produce "interesting" or good

material. However, as Anderson (1992) has written, "Free-writing makes a mess, but in that mess is the material you need to make a good paper or memo or report."(p. 200)

2.4.3 The Power Writing Approach

The origin of this approach draws back to 1989 when J. E. Sparks (1989) of the University of Southern California published his book entitled "Power Writing". He studied many non-fiction writers from Aristotle to contemporary authors and concluded that all these authors presented a main idea and supported it with appropriate details. From this observation, J.E. Sparks developed the concept of "Power Writing", a method of writing which assigns numerical values to main idea, major and minor details. One of the components of Power Writing as presented originally is a method of simple paragraph construction called the "Powergraph". This method not only includes a formula for writing paragraphs, but also aids students in the identification of main idea and supporting details. Traditional Power Writing, according to Sparks, is based on a numerical approach to the structure of writing. It erases and replaces the complex and ambiguous abstract terminology with a numbered structure that students can easily keep in mind. This numerical structure can be used in all types of development: expository, argumentative, narrative and descriptive; and for all forms of writing such as paragraph and composition. In fact, it consists in teaching students how to organize their thoughts before they engage in the act of writing. Structured writing is always preceded by structured thinking. These concepts are taught with an emphasis on types of exercises which are gradually complex and which contribute to develop the students' skills to expand complexity in their thinking and writing. The first formula is the 1-2-2. This formula will construct a basic three-sentence paragraph in which Power 1 refers to the main idea of the paragraph, and Power 2 to major detail. The 1-2-2 formula trains a student to differentiate between general and

specific terms. Once the students have mastered the 1-2-2 formula, the teacher may extend to power 3 sentences. This one would be 1-2-3-2-3 formula. A third power sentence tells more about the second power sentence that precedes it as well as relating to the main idea. In 2004, Shirley Poulton integrated other numbers in the formula referring to specific traits of effective writing such as sentence fluency, ideas and content, organizational structure, and conventions. She also presented each power in a specific colour within the chart. Below is an introduction to the numerical structure of Power Writing as proposed initially by S.Poulton (2004):

Numerical Structure of Power Writing

Power 1 Focus, main idea, topic sentence or thesis statement

Power 2 Major supporting ideas to power 1

Power 3 Details, elaboration, examples about power 2

Power Zero Voice and extra information

Poulton (2004) sees that once the structure is mastered, all writers can elaborate, vary and create competent writing. “Stronger writers will bend and rearrange the format to allow their skills and creativity to blossom. Weaker writers will compose a well-thought out, well organized piece of writing that includes sentence variation, elevated word choice, and voice. No longer will you have students who have quantity but no quality, and students who have neither quantity nor quality. All students will become proficient in each type.

2.4.4 The Product-Oriented Approach

Broadly speaking, a product-oriented approach, as the title indicates, is concerned with the final result of the writing process. It gives precedence to classroom activities which require from the learner to be engaged in imitating and transforming model texts. In other words, the product approach has its origin in the traditions of rhetoric and focuses its study on model texts in order to make students aware of the text features. It consists in analysing the students’ writing in order to

identify and quantify their strengths and weaknesses. It is clear that when such an approach is adopted it leads to accuracy. In fact, it attempts to make the student familiarized with the conventions of writing through a model, before he gets his final draft. Before the advent of the communicative approach, language teaching was concerned with pre-specified objectives for the learners. Their needs were carefully identified, and the syllabus designers had to provide the means that would enable these needs to be realised. The product approach was a means-to-an-end, and the teaching of writing was language focused. Since the far past, writing was viewed as secondary and priority was given to speaking. The emphasis was on correctness and copying models. The model text is always taken as the starting point. It is studied and analysed from all points of view: structures of grammar, content, sentences organisation, and rhetorical patterns. After manipulating these features, student are given a new topic and invited for a parallel writing task. R.V. White (1988) points out that “such a model-based approach remains popular in EAP for one very good reason – much EAP writing is very product-oriented, since the conventions governing the organization and expression of ideas are very tight.” (p. 6) Thus, the learner has to become thoroughly familiarized with these conventions and must learn to operate within them. It would seem to make sense, therefore, to adopt a model-based tradition when teaching students such conventions. The interest of such an approach is in the correct use of form. Naturally, the role of the model is important in the sense that it leads the students from a point of departure to an end with a task to replicate. The model then comes first and shows a completed text as well. “What the model does not demonstrate”, says White (1988), “is how the original writer arrived at that particular product. In other words, it gives no indication of process.” (p.6) In the product approach the model comes at the beginning, and the product comes at the end—both are, in fact,

final drafts: the model is final before becoming first. White (1988) puts more emphasis on such a model by saying:

Not only does the model come first in the teaching sequence, it also shows a finished text. In other words, the focus right from the start is on the product, which is, of course, someone else's writing. What the model does not demonstrate is how the original writer arrived at that particular product. In other words, it gives no indication of process. (p.7)

Another explicit description of the product approach is proposed by Pincas (1984) who sees writing as being primarily about linguistic knowledge, with attention focused on the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices. She identifies four stages in the approach: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing. She explains that the teacher introduces a topic or uses guides provided by a textbook, discusses them and maybe provokes a little class discussion and then explains how students are going to write a composition based on them. Then, the students would be invited to write before handing their writings to the teacher. The teacher grades the composition and makes some comments on the paper focusing on form rather than on content. Such an approach is thoroughly teacher-centred. (p. 5) We cannot deny the advantages of the product approach, because of the linguistic knowledge it supplies the learners with. It recognizes and satisfies the students' needs in terms of rules and structures. A model text gives a clear idea about the organisation of words and sentences. After all, imitation is one efficient way among others through which we can learn, and under some particular circumstances there is no other way except imitation to communicate some special structures. The Algerian educational system has long been dominated by the product approach, focusing on the students' final piece of writing rather than on how it was produced. Today we have come to realize that writing was evaluated on the basis of the final product and on grammatical accuracy, while very little

attention was given to the whole process of writing. Actually, neither teachers nor students were interested in the process of generating ideas. From this observation, some scholars started debating on the failure of the product approach which emphasises the form and neglects the content. By content is meant process skills and all knowledge about texts and the way these texts are organised. Escholz (1980) criticized the model-based approach pointing out that “models tend to be too long and too remote from the students’ own writing problems”. He argued that such detailed analytical work encourages students to see form as a mould into which content is somehow poured. In general, Escholz views the imitation of models as being “stultifying and inhibiting writers rather than empowering them or liberating them.”(p. 232)

2.4.5 The Process Approach

The past forty five years brought significant changes in writing research and in the approaches to teaching writing. Earliest work in the teaching of writing was based on the notion of controlled or guided composition. In the 1960s, however, teachers began to feel that controlled composition was not enough. Until the 1970s, most studies of writing were about the written product. During this decade, the focus shifted from product to process, and the main reason for this change was the new awareness that each piece of writing had its own history and followed its own developmental path. The process approach was not, however, universally accepted by teachers with writers such as Reid (1984) arguing that “it did not address issues such as the requirements of particular writing tasks. This led to a focus on examining what is expected of students in academic and professional settings and the kinds of genres they need to have control of to succeed in these settings.” (p. 29) Before engaging in the presentation of the process approach to writing, one should bear in mind that the act of writing is a complex individualized process. Before the implementation of the process pedagogy, writing classes generally

ignored the writing process. Teachers assigned papers, graded them, and then handed them back. They devoted all their time to the product - its clarity, originality, and correctness - but they paid no attention to the writing process. Traditional approaches to the teaching of writing focused on the product: in other words, the production of neat, grammatically correct pieces of writing (Mahon, 1992). As explained previously, product approach centred on “one-shot correct writing for the purpose of language practice” (Cheung and Chan, 1999, p. 16) and a “one-shot effort by the teacher to evaluate the students’ attempts” (Pennington and Cheung 1993, p.5). During the early 1980s, an important shift from the product approach to the process approach occurred. This new trend in the teaching of writing consists mainly in stressing writing as a process and de-emphasising writing as a product. With the rise of the process approach, the central focus is no longer on the finished text, but on the steps that make up the act of writing. Some of these steps have yet to be identified; the most used in the literature are setting goals, generating ideas, organising information, selecting appropriate language, drafting, revising, writing, editing and publishing. At first glance, these steps seem to be complex activities, but one should always remember that the student must inevitably go through them in order to produce a good paragraph. Most instructional models of the writing process are based on Hayes and Flower's (1980) original description of the process, which consists of three sub processes: planning, translating, and reviewing. The objective of the process approach is to make the student aware of, and gain control over, the cognitive strategies involved in writing. It operates at the level of the individual's specific needs. In this context, T. Caudery (2003) explained:

In the early seventies, communicative teaching methodology and work on functional/notional syllabuses directed our attention more firmly towards the specific needs of the individual learner. These needs were viewed not

only in terms of particular language items but also of particular types of communication, and the resulting realization that different learners actually had different requirements with respect to language skills meant that new attention was given to, among other things, the teaching of writing. In this context, the process approach arrived on the scene at a very opportune moment.

For many scholars, this teaching approach concludes with editing as a final stage in text creation, rather than an initial one as in a product oriented approach. The process oriented approach, according to them, may include identified stages of the writing process such as: pre-writing, writing and re-writing. Once the rough draft has been created, it is polished into subsequent drafts with the assistance of peer and teacher conferencing. Final editing and publication can follow if the author chooses to publish their writing (Murray, 1992). To reinforce the definition of the process-based approach, we will quote Murray (1992):

“The process-oriented approach refers to a teaching approach that focuses on the process a writer engages in when constructing meaning. This teaching approach concludes with editing as a final stage in text creation, rather than an initial one as in a product-oriented approach. The process-oriented approach may include identified stages of the writing process such as: prewriting, writing and re-writing. Once the rough draft has been created, it is polished into subsequent drafts with the assistance of peer and teacher conferencing. Final editing and publication can follow if the author chooses to publish their writing (p. 16).

If it is right that there is no total consent on the definite number of stages within the writing process, scholars recognize that the following are the most recursive ones:

Prewriting: The writer gathers information and plays with ideas during the prewriting stage. Prewriting activities may include drawing, talking, thinking, reading, listening to tapes and records, discussion, role playing, interviews, problem solving and decision making activities, conducting library research, and so on.

Drafting: The writer develops his/her topic on paper during the drafting stage. Beginning may be painful and difficult, producing false starts and frustration in the writer. In the process-oriented approach, the focus is on content, not the mechanics of writing.

Revising: During this stage, the writer makes whatever changes he/she feels are necessary. Revision may involve additions and deletions; changes in syntax, sentence structure, and organization; and in some cases, starting over completely.

Editing: Polishing of the draft takes place in the editing stage. The writer gives attention to mechanics such as spelling, punctuation, grammar, and handwriting, and may also make minor lexical and syntactic changes.

Publishing: Publication refers to the delivery of the writing to its intended audience. The major aim of the process approach is to train students how to generate ideas for writing, plan these ideas, take into account the type of audience, draft and redraft in order to produce a final written paper that is likely to communicate their own ideas. Teachers who use this approach give students time to get ideas and feedback on the content of what they write in their drafts. As such, “writing becomes a process of discovery for the students as they discover new ideas and new language forms to express them” (Raimes 1983, p. 76). “Furthermore, learning to write is seen as a developmental process that helps students write as professional authors do, choosing their own topics and genres,

and writing from their own experiences or observations” (Raimes, p. 78). A writing process approach requires that teachers give students greater responsibility for their own learning. Students make decisions about genre and choice of topics, and collaborate as they write. With the process approach, the student needs to realise that what he/she considers as a final product is just a beginning in the process of writing. In fact, he/she must always keep in mind that it is possible to improve his/her writing; and to do so, he/she needs to go through different stages like finding new ideas, new words or new sentences, and revising before writing. Besides, with the process approach, the learner is not expected to write on a given topic in a restricted time, and wait for the teacher to correct his paper. He/she rather writes a first draft, shows it to the teacher or to another student, reads it again, enriches it, and revises it before writing the final draft. So, when adopting this approach, the teacher gives his students enough time to not only get more ideas but to express them in new language forms as well. We notice that this approach places the tasks of revision on the students through making them read and rewrite. Moreover, it gives them opportunities to review, clarify and reorganise what they have written on their own. In contrast with the product-based approach, the process-based approach encourages students to write as much as possible without worrying about mistakes. Thus, the focus is on fluency rather than accuracy.

2.4.6 The Genre Approach

Since the 1980s, the 'genre approach' to teaching writing has taken place under different forms in different parts of the world. It has also had different underlying goals as well as focused on different teaching situations. In Britain and the United States, for example, teachers have been mostly concerned with the use of the genre approach in ESL classes. The genre approach to teaching writing is mainly concerned, as the name indicates, on teaching particular genres that students need control of in order to succeed in particular situations. This might include an

emphasis on the content of text as well as the context in which the text is produced. The fundamental principle that underlies the genre-based approach is that language is functional; that is, it is through language that we achieve certain goals. Another important aspect of this view is the one that sees language as occurring in particular cultural and social contexts, and thus, cannot be understood outside its context. Particular genres are used to fulfill particular social functions in particular contexts. Language, then, is not to be separated from the social and cultural context in which it appears. The objective of adopting genre approach is to enable students to use appropriate registers which are important for them. In the field of second language writing, 'The Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning' has defined the genre approach as "a framework for language instruction" (Byram, 2004) "It is based on examples of a particular genre. By framework is meant guiding students. The genre framework supports students' writing with guiding principles about how to produce meaningful passages." (p. 234) But first, what is a genre? Swales (1990) referred to genre as "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p. 58). His definition offers the basic idea that there are certain conventions or rules which are generally associated with a writer's purpose. For example, personal letters tell us about their writers' private stories. Most genres use conventions related to communicative purposes; a personal letter starts with a cordial question in a friendly mood because its purpose is to maintain good relationships with friends, and an argument essay emphasizes its thesis since it aims at making an argument. Traditionally, genres were seen as fixed types of development classified into categories and subcategories. For example, exposition, argument, description, and narratives were considered as the large categories, with sub-types such as definition, cause and contrast, business letter etc (Freedman & Medway, 1994). Thus, in the traditional view of genres, teaching genres means

teaching textual regularities in form and content of each genre; i.e. teaching the rules that govern each type of development. The positive sides of the genre approach are that it acknowledges that writing takes place in a social situation and is a reflection of a particular purpose, and it understands that learning can happen consciously through imitation and analysis. It is important for writing teachers to connect these two elements in order to help students understand how and why linguistic conventions are used for particular rhetorical effects. Moreover, because genres reflect a cultural ideology, the study of genres additionally opens for students an awareness of the assumption of groups who use specific genres for specific ends.

2.5 Remedial Instruction

In this section the study present the bases and the principles of the use of the intervention. It also provides shows the nature of the remedy used.

2.5.1. Definition of remedial instruction

Basically, remedial instruction is a type of clinical teaching. It is a “spiral process of assessment—instruction—re-assessment” (Tseng, 2008, p.9). The subjects are targeted at low achievement learners, or under-prepared students. After the teacher diagnoses students’ learning difficulties, a remedial course will be designed in accordance with students’ needs. And then the teacher takes initiative in offering the instruction, and an evaluation will be conducted during and after the implementation of the remedial instruction to examine the actual effectiveness of the course. Minor adjustments would be made based on the results of the evaluation to ensure that students are able to catch up in regular classes.

Grubb et al (1999, p. 174) defined remediation as “a class or activity intended to meet the needs of students who initially do not have the skills, experience or

orientation necessary to perform at a level that the institutions or instructors recognize as ‘regular’ for those students.” Institutions identify such students either by administering placement tests in basic skills or by noting deficiencies in course completion or grades from school transcripts. It is especially noteworthy that the placement tests that are used to identify students for remediation are usually calibrated to select students who have severe deficiencies, typically those lacking the skills required at elementary grade.

2.5.2 The need for remedial instruction

Remedial instruction is designed to help students who fall behind academically to catch up to a desired level. It has become “an indispensable component of higher education” in countries such as the United States, Canada, or Japan (Zhang, Shou, and Ishino, 2008, :331). As universities are more available to high school graduates, the demand for students’ basic academic abilities has been lowered in admission. After entering the universities, some of the students encounter great difficulties comprehending lectures as they lack the required academic knowledge to manage college-level work (Attewell, et. al 2006). Thus, remedial programs are provided to help these students compensate for the insufficient learning in previous academic settings so that they can “gain the skills necessary to complete college-level courses and academic programs successfully” (Weissman, et al 1997) Remedial programs are usually offered during normal school hours; however, more and more schools offer after-school and summer-school programs. Programs implemented after school or in summer are reported to be more successful as students do not have to miss the normal classroom instruction while attending the remedial course (Allington and Bennett, 2009). In addition, the intensive program can bring students up to speed quickly. Based on the teaching materials and curriculum design, remedial programs include the following types: compensatory

program, supplemental program, tutorial program, adaptive program, basic skills program, and learning strategies training program. The compensatory program provides necessary services to at-risk students who are from disadvantaged backgrounds to help them overcome learning problems and increase academic achievement. It also requires the involvement of school staff and parents (Chang, 2001). The supplemental program is a support program that aims to help students master content-oriented materials, improve study skills or test-taking strategies tailored to the specific needs of a class. The higher-achieving tutors can offer extra explanation and practices to the underachieving students and meanwhile reduce teachers' workload. In the adaptive program, the teacher uses alternative instructional strategies and resources to meet the learning needs of individual students for them to effectively master basic skills in academic subjects (Wang, 1980). The teacher could choose different teaching materials or even compile materials that appeal to students' interest and learning level. Alternative evaluation methods, rather than traditional paper and pencil tests, could be used to measure students' achievement. In the basic skills program, the instruction focuses on teaching students to acquire the basic skills required in certain subjects so that they can academically prepare for college-level work. With respect to the learning strategies training program, it aims to help students become more effective and efficient learners by teaching them thinking, learning and self-management strategies.

2.5.3 Choosing Remedial Interventions

If there is any consensus among educators concerning remediation, it is that so called drill-and-skill approaches are falling out of favour. Yet, while there is no reliable national survey on teaching techniques for remedial courses in community colleges, casual observation at many sites suggests that drill-and-skill approaches are still dominant .(Grubb et al,1999). Such courses are based upon the

presentation of concepts, operations, or classification schemes and repetitive practice to master them, and they are often combined with learning laboratories. This style of pedagogy has many drawbacks, including the fact that many remedial students have serious attitudinal obstacles to learning in this way. Often it is the same style that the students were exposed to in high school, which may have contributed to their difficulties in the first place. Beyond that, its abstract and isolated nature may prevent students from seeing its usefulness in real-world situations and from applying the skills that are learned to later academic and vocational coursework. Based on previous literature on remediation in higher education and adult learning, Levin and Koski (2007) found the following ingredients to be central for designing successful interventions for underprepared students in higher education:

1. Motivation: building on the interests and goals of the students and providing institutional credit toward degrees or certificates.
2. Substance: building skills within a substantive or real-world context as opposed to a more abstract approach.
3. Inquiry: developing students' inquiry and research skills to help them learn about other subjects and areas about which they might be curious.
4. Independence: encouraging students to do independent meandering within the course structure to develop their own ideas, applications, and understandings.
5. Multiple Approaches: using collaboration and teamwork, technology, tutoring, and independent investigation as suited to student needs.
6. High Standards: setting high standards and expectations that all students will meet if they make adequate efforts and are given appropriate resources to support their learning.

7. Problem Solving: Viewing learning less as an encyclopedic endeavor and more as a way of determining what needs to be learned and how, and then implementing “the how.”

8. Connectiveness: emphasizing the links among different subjects and experiences and how they can contribute to learning rather than seeing each subject and learning experience as isolated and independent.

9. Supportive Context: recognizing that to a large degree learning is a social activity that thrives on healthy social interaction, encouragement, and support.

2.6 Students Attitudes towards Writing

Writing is often a challenging subject for students. To help students develop their writing skills, teachers employ a variety of techniques for students to learn and use when writing. However, teachers must delve further to understand and learn about their students’ attitudes towards writing. This should be done because attitude is an important factor that plays a large part in students’ literacy learning. Attitude affects motivation to learn and write and influences how students approach the task of writing. Attitudes are based on self-efficacy beliefs, and that is important to understand as well. Negative attitudes can make writing even more challenging. Therefore, understanding attitude and its effect on the development of successful writers is important for guiding writing instruction. If teachers learn about and understand students’ attitudes towards writing, this knowledge can impact their instructional practices positively (Kearet al., 2000). It is for these reasons that I wanted to investigate students’ attitudes towards writing and the affect attitude has on their writing progress.

2.6.1 Definition of Terms

An attitude can be defined as ‘a psychological tendency to view a particular object or behaviour with a degree of favour or disfavor (Albarracin at al (2005). Attitudes are generally understood to be formed through a process of individual subjective

evaluation (involving a rational assessment of costs and benefits), but also influenced by affective and emotional responses and related beliefs. Attitudes are defined as being specific to an object or behaviour while beliefs are more generic, relating to a wider worldview, and tend to be more stable.

Attitude– “a learned predisposition to respond to an object in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 336) *Self-efficacy* - “people’s beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives. Efficacy beliefs influence how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave” (Bandura, 1993, p. 118).

2.6.2 The Effect of Attitudes

Writing is a complex activity that requires multiple skills, thought processes, and affective components (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006). It is a means of communication. It can relay information or provide entertainment. How people approach writing depends on attitude, interest, and objective. Attitude is an affective component of motivation (Graham, Berninger, & Fan, 2007) and can either propel people forward to take initiative or cause them to retreat and avoid tasks. This is important to consider because children’s literacy learning is affected by their beliefs, morals, feelings, and motivation (Bottomley, Henk, and Melnick, 1997). If students’ attitudes towards writing are negative, they will most likely avoid writing; whereas if attitudes are positive, they will probably engage in writing. This will then hurt or help their earning and grades. In this chapter, five ideas related to attitude and writing performance will be discussed. The ideas are attitude and writing achievement, literacy environments and attitudes, self-efficacy, self-efficacy and writing performance, and implications for classroom writing instruction. A person’s attitude is a developed tendency to respond to a task or object positively or negatively (Fishbein&Ajzen, 1975). According to Cunningham (2008), children begin to develop attitudes toward reading and writing before they are enrolled in

kindergarten. The reason for this early development of attitudes is because infants and toddlers get exposed to written text at home and in preschool settings (Cunningham, 2008). At this stage of life, children are seeing print on everyday items such as cereal boxes and books. They also are holding writing utensils and scribbling and drawing. Self-efficacy, an aspect of attitude, is a belief people have about their capabilities towards tasks they encounter throughout their lives. “Efficacy beliefs influence how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave” (Bandura, 1993, p. 118). Self-efficacy beliefs can determine whether or not a person will take initiative to act upon a task and persevere when a task is challenging (Pajares&Valiante, 2006). If a student believes he can obtain a desired academic outcome, he will take the initiative and persevere. On the other hand, if a student believes he cannot obtain a desired academic outcome, he most likely will not be motivated to take initiative and persevere with the task.

2.6.3 Attitudes and Writing Achievement

Graham, Berninger, and Fan (2007) state that little attention has been given to the relationship between attitude and writing achievement. It was only Knudson (1991, 1992, 1995) who examined children’s attitudes towards writing in the 1990’s. In one study, Knudson (1995) wanted to examine the relationship between writing achievement and attitude towards writing as well as the relationship between grade level and gender and attitudes towards writing. The participants involved were 430 first- to sixth-grade students from one year-round school in southern California. Students from three classrooms at each grade level participated. The students in grades 1-3 were given the Knudson Writing Attitude Survey for Primary Grade Students (Knudson, 1992), and the students in grades 4-6 were given the Knudson Writing Attitude Survey for Children (Knudson, 1991). These instruments contain 19 items in Likerttype format and have five possible responses ranging from almost always to almost never. They were administered to the students in their

classrooms, and then a choice of writing prompts was given. Finally, Knudson (1995) interviewed 12 randomly selected students at each grade level individually. This was done to discover what students of different grade levels understand of writing tasks and activities, their perceptions of the importance of writing, and to expand upon responses given on the surveys. Two of Knudson's colleagues and two former classroom teachers, but current graduate students, reviewed the interview procedures that contained 10 open-ended questions before it was conducted. To analyze the data, Knudson (1995) used a stepwise multiple regression. At each step, Knudson assessed R-square values to determine which variable, or variables, had an effect on students' writing performance. The holistic scores on the writing sample was the dependent variable and the students' grade, gender, and writing attitude score were the independent variables. Results of Knudson's study verified previous findings that grade, gender, and writing performance are positively related. Results also showed there was a connection between student attitudes towards writing and writing competence. In addition, Knudson found that above average writers are more likely to be upper grade female students who have positive attitudes toward writing.

Regarding students' understanding of writing tasks and activities, results from the interview indicated that children view writing as drawing when they begin school, as printing when they advance grades in school, and as cursive writing by sixth grade (Knudson, 1995). Writing stories and reports were preferred by the majority of children rather than writing in workbooks. For one question, the first and second grade students stated that they "learn/learned to write at home or that they taught themselves" (p. 93). In response to another question, students in grades 1-6 said they would work on "improving the mechanical features of their writing" (p. 93) in order to write better than they already do. Finally, all students in grades 1-6

believed writing is imperative for job success, but they could not tell which type of writing is needed.

A study by Graham, Berninger, & Fan (2007) investigated elementary school students' writing achievement and their attitudes towards writing by testing the following three models:¹⁰

“writing attitude influences writing achievement in a unidirectional manner, writing achievement influences writing attitude in a unidirectional manner, and the effects of writing attitude and achievement are bidirectional and reciprocal” (p. 516). For this study, attitude was defined as “an affective disposition involving how the act of writing makes the author feel, ranging from happy to unhappy” (p. 516). Participants were 128 first grade and 113 third grade students from a large Northwestern, metropolitan school district. The participants either wrote about a surprising event or funny event that happened at school, and they also completed a seven question survey about attitudes toward writing. In a quiet room, trained research staff individually assessed each child as they completed the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test-2 (WIAT-2) Written Expression subtest.

The model that best fit the data with reasonable convergence was model 1: writing attitude influences writing achievement. This was ascertained because the standardized values of the path between all observed variable, such as writing for fun at home, and their corresponding factors (e.g. writing attitude factor) were statistically significant with z values larger than 1.96 (Graham et al., 2007). Similar to Knudson (1995), Graham et al. found that students with positive attitudes towards writing had higher writing achievement. However, unlike Knudson, Graham et al. found that girls were not significantly different from boys on writing achievement.

2.6.4 Literacy Environments and Attitudes

Cunningham (2008) examined the effect literacy environments have on young children's attitudes towards reading and writing. The 201 students between 5 and 6 years old in this study were chosen from 11 magnet schools in a large, urban, Midwestern school district. In the first week of the school year, the students completed a survey about attitudes toward reading and writing. The Student Attitudes Toward Reading and Writing Survey (Trehearne, Healy, Williams, & Moore, 2003) was administered by their kindergarten teacher or the school's literacy coach to groups of two or three children. They also had their oral language and literacy skills assessed and scored by their classroom teacher. This was done using the TROLL, or Teacher Rating of Oral Language and Literacy (Dickinson, 1997). For this 5-10 minute assessment, teachers do not need prior specialized training to assess an individual child's current language skills, reading skills, and writing abilities. Rather than formal testing of actual development, the TROLL relies on a teacher's professional judgment of a child's development. To assess the quality of the language and literacy environments in each classroom, an instrument called the Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation (Smith et al., 2003), or ELLCO Toolkit, was used. Three separate tools are provided in the ELLCO Toolkit. However, Cunningham (2008) used one tool called Classroom Observation for this study. Six literacy coaches and early childhood educators had to be trained by a certified ELLCO trainer, and inter-rater reliability was established after the training. Classrooms were observed by one trained observer. Classrooms were rated as exemplary, basic, or limited based on fourteen items that are conceptually grouped into the following two dimensions: general classroom environment and language, literacy, and curriculum. Items for general classroom environment dimension include: organization of the classroom, contents of the classroom, presence and use of technology, opportunities for child choice and

initiative, classroom management strategies, and classroom climate. Items for the language, literacy, and curriculum dimension include: oral language facilitation, presence of books, approaches to book reading (preschool) or writing opportunities and instruction (school-age), approaches to curriculum integration, recognizing diversity in the classroom, facilitating home support for literacy, and approaches to assessment. The Classroom Observation is scored according to a 5-point scale (5-exemplary, 4-proficient, 3-12basic, 2-limited, 1-deficient), which is used for each of the fourteen items. The item scores are summed and a mean score from the total points is determined (Cunningham, 2008). Results from the study indicated that classrooms rated exemplary (representing the fourteen items) in their support of literacy development had students with the most-positive attitudes toward reading and writing (Cunningham, 2008). Students with more negative attitudes towards these subjects appeared in low quality literacy environments. Low quality literacy environments were those not representing the fourteen items from the ELLCO. There were no significant differences between student attitudes and their gender; however there were significant differences between at-risk students and their attitudes. These students who receive free or reduced-price meals had more negative attitudes towards reading and writing than students not considered at risk. The results suggest that the student's at-risk status, the student's level of literacy development, and quality of the environment to support literacy may be connected with a student's attitude toward reading and writing.

2.6.5 Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Researchers have established that students' self-efficacy beliefs are highly predictive of academic outcomes (Pajares&Valiante, 2006). According to Bandura (1977), as well as Pajares and Valiante, self-efficacy beliefs are better predictors of students' academic accomplishments than knowledge, skills, or previous attainments. In addition, "Self-efficacy beliefs contribute to motivation in several

ways: they determine the goals people set for themselves, how much effort they expend, how long they persevere in the face of difficulties, and their resilience to failures” (Bandura, 1993, p. 131). That is why thought patterns and emotional reactions are influenced by self-efficacy beliefs. If students believe that things are harder than they really are, they have low self-efficacy. As a result, students will feel anxiety and stress. If students have a high sense of self-efficacy, they will demonstrate great effort and perseverance when they undertake a task (Pajares&Valiante, 2006).

In other words, the choices students make and the course of action they pursue depend upon the self- perceptions they have about their capabilities. When students feel competent and confident about an activity or task, they will most likely select it; whereas if they do not have those feelings, they will avoid it (Pajares&Valiante, 2006). Similarly, if students are motivated towards an academic subject, they will be more willing to repeat tasks within that subject. Repeating tasks will help students improve their skills and increase their chances of achieving success in that subject (Knudson, 1995).

2.6.6 Self-Efficacy and Writing Performance

In a study by Pajares and Valiante (1997), path analysis was employed to determine the “influence of writing self-efficacy, perceived usefulness of writing, writing apprehension, and writing aptitude on an essay writing performance” (p. 353). Two hundred eighteen fifth-grade students from three public schools participated in the study. Two schools were in the South and one was in the Southwest. Students completed instruments that measured self-efficacy, perceived usefulness, and apprehension. To measure self-efficacy, The Writing Skills Self-Efficacy scale (Shell, Murphy, and Bruning, 1989) was used. On this scale, eight items require students to measure their confidence regarding their performance with writing skills such as grammar, usage, composition, and mechanics. Students

may provide any score between 0 and 100 for each skill. To “assess students’ judgments of the importance of writing for successfully accomplishing various academic and life endeavors” (Pajares&Valiante, 1997, p. 356), the 1014 item Perceived Usefulness of Writing scale, was used. This was an adaptation by Pajares and Valiante of the Writing Outcome Expectations Scale (Shell, et al., 1989). Students were also given 30 minutes to write an essay on the prompt, “My Idea of a Perfect Day”. This was the performance measure instrument. To grade the essays, holistic scoring with a 5-point scale was used by one of the researchers and a second expert reader. The students’ writing aptitude was rated by their language arts teachers near the end of the first semester. By rating the aptitudes at that time and again before students wrote their essays, the teachers were already familiar with the students’ writing. The results revealed that writing performance is predicted by the elementary students’ self-efficacy perceptions. In other words, writing apprehension, perceived usefulness of writing, and essay-writing performance is directly influenced by students’ self-efficacy beliefs about their own writing capability (Pajares&Valiante, 1997). Pajares and Valiante also found that female students perceived writing as more useful than male students. In addition, female students had higher self-efficacy and lower apprehension towards writing than male students. However, there were no differences in writing performance between boys and girls. Another study by Pajares and Valiante (2006) examined students’ self-perceptions of their own writing competence, or writing self-efficacy beliefs. They state there is a relationship between writing self-efficacy, other motivation constructs related to writing, and writing outcomes in academic settings. Their findings indicate that students’ motivation for writing is influenced by their confidence in their writing capabilities.

2.6.7 Implications for Classroom Writing Instruction

Students with positive self-efficacy will most likely seek out and engage in writing

activities. These students may show they are interested in improving their writing skills also 15 (Bottomley, Henk, & Melnick, 1997). Studies have shown that students with positive attitudes toward writing had higher writing achievement (Knudson, 1995; Graham et al., 2007). One study revealed elementary students' self-efficacy perceptions predict writing performance (Pajares & Valiante, 1997). However, not every student will come to a classroom with positive self-efficacy towards writing. That is why it is so necessary for classroom teachers to understand and be cognizant of student self-efficacy and attitudes towards writing. Students' self-efficacy and attitudes can influence teachers' instruction and the methods used to teach writing.

It is also important to investigate and identify students' beliefs about their academic capabilities because they are significant components of motivation and behavior (Pajares & Valiante, 1997). Teachers need to improve student attitudes toward, and motivation for, writing and pay particular attention toward minimizing negative feelings, which leads to avoidance behaviors (Tunks, 2010). Since writing is not only a cognitive activity, but also an emotional activity, all phases of the writing process are influenced by affective components.

2.7 Previous Studies

In this section, the researchers presents some previous studies related to the topic of the study. These studies resemble the topic of the study in some aspects; topic, data, methodology or the significance of the study. Therefore it benefits the learners a lot.

The first Study: Gouty and Lid (2002) in their thesis “improving the students' writing ability the use of the teachers' intervention” in Illinois Chicago, described a program to improve student writing ability. The targeted sample of the study consists of first and third grade students in a middle class community in the

Midwest. Materials that develop writing activities are developed. A writing unit is also constructed. The tools of the study are surveys, teacher and student writing performance and self-editing checklists. The results indicated an increase in the students` use of grammar and vocabulary. Student improvement also increased in self- editing skills and attitude toward writing. Portfolio assessment is highly recommended as an alternative to traditional assessments. Some writing activities used in this study are adopted during the stages of explaining the writing process in the program at hand.

The Second Study: Kowalewski. E (2002) in their study ‘improving the students’ writing in the elementary classroom, in Saint Xavier, described a program for instructing students in the writing process in order to improve their writing skills. The population of the study consisted of fourth and fifth grade students in a middle class community in northern Illinois. The total population of the school was 566 students. The sample of the study consisted of 76 students distributed into three sites. Site (A) 24 students, site (B) 26 students, site (C) 26 students. The collected data showed lack of use of progress writing skills because there was a lack of skills related to organization and revision in the writing process. And also a lack of teacher modeling, reflection and the time given for student writing. The study suggested some solution strategies for the problem such as: increasing the time allowed for writing, more teacher modeled demonstrations of writing techniques like (organization, ideas, word choice, sentence fluency, voice and conventions).The results of the study showed a marked improving in students writing. The students showed greater ability to communicate more effectively through their writing at the end of the program.

The Third Study: Bassett et al (2001) in their study “keys to improving writing in the primary grades”, Illinois, Chicago. Saint Xavier university. aimed at describing a program for improving writing skills. The targeted population consists

of first and third graders in two middle class communities in the southern suburbs of Chicago. The need for improving in writing skills is documented through observation, checklists, writing samples and surveys. The suggested strategies for teaching writing sub-skills are: parents involvement, through newspapers and articles, the use of writing centers, the use of e-mail, letter writing, free choice of topics, the use of literature to read writing, author's chair, interactive journals or notebooks, allowing inventive spelling, cross curricular writing and encouraging at home writing. Findings of the program show an increase the targeted students` writing abilities, a positive attitude toward the writing process, an increased confidence in the editing and revising of student work and increased parental involvement in the area of writing. The suggested strategies for teaching writing in this study can be activated during the stages of the current program.

The Fourth Study: Lambert (1999) in the study “helping 12th grades honors English students improving writing skills through conferencing” implemented a program to help twelfth grade honors English students` writing skills through conferencing. The targeted sample consisted of thirteen students who experienced difficulties in writing effective written pieces. Students` writing included fragments, run-on sentences, and improper use of punctuation. The objectives of the program were to improve students` abilities to write sentences that include transitions and sentence variety, and also, to improve their attitudes toward writing. The researcher used Stanford Achievement Test to give students` scores (pre-post test) strategies mainly include collaborative learning, revision conferences. These strategies improve students` writing skill effectively. This study is useful for the present one as it gives a model of teacher /student conference which is helpful to the current suggested program.

The Fifth Study: Harrington et. al (1998) in their study “improving writing through the use of varied strategies”, Saint Xavier university and IRI/Skylight,

aimed at describing a program for increasing student skills in writing. The population of the study consisted of fifth grade talented, regular education and students in a middle class. The study took place in western suburb of a Midwestern city. The tools of the study were teachers surveys, student surveys, writing samples, local assessments and checklists. The collected data revealed that teachers report student frustration, lack of "seeing real life" connection and in poor writing skills. The teacher also reported that limited time, previous failure and lack of modeling fostered poor writing skills. The study suggested four major categories of intervention:

- goal setting conferences.
- cooperative learning.
- graphic organizers.
- use of rubrics.

The results of the study revealed that students showed increased enjoyment of writing, students developed their habits of goal setting and the students became proficient at peer editing.

The Sixth Study: Cumberworth and Hunt (1998) in their study “improving middle schools students’ writing skills and attitude toward writing, Saint Xavier university, aimed at describing a program for improving middle school writing skills and their attitudes toward writing. The population of the study consisted of seventh and eighth graders in western Illinois. The program was implemented at a middle school in the Quad City metropolitan area. The school had 1,100 students in grades five through eight. He program lasted for 18 weeks. The tools of the study were the teacher's observation, student surveys, writing samples and a writing checklist was used to assess students` samples. Through these tools the researcher observed the weak writing skills, ineffective use of the writing process and students` poor attitudes toward writing. When the researcher analyzed the

collected data, it showed that students were unmotivated to use the writing process and there was a lack in a cognitive awareness of the purpose of the writing process. They revealed little emphasis on revision skills and also students have no "real world" purpose for writing. The study suggested three major categories of intervention:

- providing real world purposes for writing.
- implementing a change the amount of strategies related to the writing process.
- emphasizing metacognitive strategies related to the writing process.

The results of the study showed there was a positive increase in students attitudes toward writing and the use of the writing process was improved, revision in particular.

The Seventh Study: Hopkins (2002) in his study “improving tenth grade students five paragraph essay writing skills using various writing strategies, Nova, Southeastern university applied and developed his study to assist low- achieving tenth grade students` essay writing skills. According to first term examinations in the scholastic year 2002, many students were not performing on their grade level in regards to the writing process. The goal was to help students write successfully and understand the elements of the five- paragraph essay. The objective of the study was to help students write successfully and understand with 70% accuracy in (prewriting – drafting revision , and finalization of essay writing , this was done by pre / post tests. The researcher improved the stages of the writing process such as: prewriting , drafting , revision , proofing and publishing of the five - part essay . To reach and achieve the objectives the researcher use graphic organizers for clustering diagrams , charts , revision charts , peer editing and scoring rubrics. The researcher recommended that the time spent on peer editing clustering methods and writing portfolios be increased and rubrics be used to help students in essay writing. The study was implemented in Bethel High school in Virginia. The school

had 966 male students and 984 female students. The population of tenth graders was 504:255 male students And 249 female students. The study lasted for six weeks, 18 interventions were implemented to assist low achieving students with their ability to improve essay writing skills. This study is useful for the current one as it gives clear ideas about the stages of the writing process.

Summary of the Chapter

Writing is a very wide area that is hard to cover at one point. In this chapter the study came through some points related to the area of the study. the study touched provides some information about writing theory, teaching writing and teaching approaches of writing due to it's importance in influencing students' writing performance positively or negatively. The study also presented some points about the remedial instructions, the intervention used throughout the study as an instrument for investigating it's impact on the students'. attitudes of the student towards writing is of significant role as well in students' writing performance, therefore the study make a survey to this area. Again, writing still needs to be tackled thoroughly investigating all its' sides do to its' significance in language as general.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The methodology of the research is like a vehicle by which researchers travel to their studies destinations. Therefore, the methods of the research are considered a very important step in the research and given a very remarkable concentration. The researcher adopted the analytical descriptive method in this study because it is believed the most suitable one to describe clearly and in details the statement that targeted. In this chapter the researcher presents and shows in details, the population of the study which is considered the bones of the study, the sample, and how is selected out of the amount of the population, and the criteria followed for selecting the sample regarding the subject information like: age, level of education and the gender. The researcher also shows in this chapter the suitable and working instruments adopted for collecting the data for the study justifying how and why they are chosen. In addition to that, the researcher explains the procedure and techniques used in dealing with the data collected reaching to the final results.

3.1 Population of the Study

Population is defined as a complete set of elements (persons or objects) that possess some common characteristic defined by the sampling criteria established by the researcher. It is generally divided into two types: target population and accessible population. Target population (universe) The entire group of people or objects to which the researcher wishes to generalize the study findings, and Accessible population which is the portion of the population to which the researcher has reasonable access; may be a subset of the target population. The

population of this study is divided into two portions: the first portion is the students of college of sciences and Arts, Aljouf university, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The age of students who are targeted in the study ranged from 20 to 22 years old. They enrolled in a regular study and their major field is English language. These students go to the university directly from the high secondary schools without having preessional program or courses. In their first year at the university, before specializing in English, they study general language skills in addition to different subjects of other fields, then they study courses of English language and literature until they graduate.

The second portion is the instructors in the college of the sciences and Arts. These instructors are from different countries. Some of them are from Egypt, India, Sudan, Jordan and other gulf countries. They are different in age, religions, cultures, and interests. Some of them are Ph.D. holders while other are M.A holders. They are ranked as professors, associated professors, assistant professors and lecturers.

3.2 Sample of the Study

A sample is simply a subset of the population. The concept of sample arises from the inability of the researchers to test all the individuals in a given population. The sample must be representative of the population from which it was drawn and it must have good size to warrant statistical analysis. The main function of the sample is to allow the researchers to conduct the study to individuals from the population so that the results of their study can be used to derive conclusions that will apply to the entire population. It is much like a give-and-take process. The population “gives” the sample, and then it “takes” conclusions from the results obtained from the sample. The number of the students in the English department at college of Sciences and Arts is approximately 200. They are distributed into eight

levels, from semester one to semester eight. They register their hours individually and the system allows them to take according to their average. For instance, you find some students carries some course in level one and an other course in level three. This merit makes them meet different students from different levels. Following the sampling criteria, 50 students are selected randomly for the sake of the study, and implementation of the remedial program. The number of the instructors are 200, the researcher selected randomly 65 instructors out of them to respond to the questionnaire prepared.

3.3 Instruments of the Study

Instrument is the general term that researchers use for a measurement device (survey, test, questionnaire, etc.). To help distinguish between instrument and instrumentation, consider that the instrument is the device and instrumentation is the course of action (the process of developing, testing, and using the device). Instruments fall into two broad categories, researcher-completed and subject-completed, distinguished by those instruments that researchers administer versus those that are completed by participants. Researchers chose which type of instrument, or instruments, to use based on the research question. Usability refers to the ease with which an instrument can be administered, interpreted by the participant, and scored or interpreted by the researcher. The study uses the pretest posttest and questionnaires as suitable tools for fulfilling and meeting the study requirements.

3.3.1 Pretest Posttest

A pretest-posttest design usually happens where participants are studied before and after the experimental manipulation. There is only one group and all of them are in the experimental condition. The group are given the test or try the

experiment before being exposed to the manipulation. At the end of the manipulation period the group are exposed to the same test, experiment or a like. The reason you run a pretest-posttest experiment is to see if your manipulation, the thing you are looking at, has caused a change in the participants. Since everyone is being manipulated in the same way, any changes you see across the group of participants is likely from the manipulation; the changes are ascribed to the manipulation. This means you test them before doing the experiment, then you run your experimental manipulation, and then you test them again to see if there are any changes. The pretest for this study is divided into five questions, all about writing descriptively, covering the remedial program students are expected to expose to. The total marks of the test is 50 marks. Question one checks the students spelling, giving them incorrect words asking them to correct their spelling mistakes. The second question test the sentence formation. The students are asked to arrange the sentences to make good and useful sentences. Question three is about arranging scattered sentences to organize a paragraph. Question four is general question. Student are expected to respond to items like: how is the weather today, and a like. Question five, which is the last question is about writing descriptively, the students are asked to describe their "home town".

3.3.2 The Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions (or other types of prompts) for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. It also a list of a research or survey asked to respondents, and designed to extract specific information. It serves four basic purposes: to collect the appropriate data, make data comparable and amenable to analysis, minimize bias in formulating and asking questions, and to make questions engaging and varied.

Questionnaires have advantages over some other types of surveys in that they are cheap, do not require as much effort from the questioner as verbal or telephone surveys, and often have standardized answers that make it simple to compile data. However, such standardized answers may frustrate users. Questionnaires are also sharply limited by the fact that respondents must be able to read the questions and respond to them. Thus, for some demographic groups conducting a survey by questionnaire may not be concrete. The study chose the questionnaire as one of instrument that meets its requirements. It is chosen, designed and given to the instructors to find the attitudes of the students they teach towards writing in general and descriptive writing in particular. The questionnaire consists of five sections with 40 items: the first section provides 5 items about the background of the instructors; their age, academic qualifications, years of experience and employment status and specializations. The second section checks the attitude of the instructors or their point of views towards the writing of the students. The third section seeks the responses of the instructors regarding enquiries about the writing ability of their students; their comprehension, understanding and awareness, and the last section is about the feedback the instructors give to their students.

3.4 Validity of the Instruments

The study used two instrument to collect the data of the study, pretest posttest and questionnaire. The pretest posttest for collecting the data of the students as the main subject of the study, and the questionnaire for collecting the data of the instructors. Below the provides the validity of these two instruments

3.4.1 Validity of the Test

The test, as a data collection tool, must produce information that is not only relevant but free from systematic errors: that is, it must produce valid information. In general, a test is valid if it measures what it claims to measure. A test, however,

does not possess universal and eternal validity for use in one situation but invalid if used in another. Cronbach (1964, P. 103) says that a test which helps making one decision in a particular research situation may have no value at all for another. This means that a researcher should not ask “Is this test valid?” The relevant question to ask is “How the test is valid for the decision he wishes to make?” or in general for “What decision is this test valid?”

The validity of the test is usually reported in terms of validity coefficient. It is the coefficient correlation between the test and the criterion measures which have been used in the procedure of validation. Lovell and Lawson (1973) recommend that a test ought to have a validity of at least + 0.79, but many tests with lower coefficients can be used in the absence of better ones, especially if they measure something for which other test has been constructed.

3.4.2 Validity of the Questionnaire

Instruments are valid if they measure what they are supposed to measure and accurately achieve the purpose for which they were designed (Patten, 2004; Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001). Patten (2004) emphasizes that validity is a matter of degree and discussion should focus on how valid a test is, not whether it is valid or not. According to Patten (2004), no test instrument is perfectly valid. The researcher needs some kind of assurance that the instruments being used will result in accurate conclusions (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001).

Validity involves the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of inferences made by the researcher on the basis of the data collected (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001). Validity can often be thought of as judgmental. According to Patten (2004), content validity is determined by judgments on the appropriateness of the instrument’s content. Patten (2004) identifies the three principles below to improve content validity:

- * Use a broad sample of content rather than a narrow one.
- * Emphasize important material.
- * Write questions to measure the appropriate skill.

These three principals were addressed when writing the survey items. To provide additional content validity of the survey instrument, the researcher formed a focus group of five to ten experts in the field of ELT who provided input and suggestive feedback on survey, test and interview items.

3.5 Reliability of the Instruments

The study adopted two instrument as reliable for collecting the data of the study, the pretest posttest and the questionnaire. The pretest posttest was given for the students and the questionnaire was provided for the instructors. Below the present the reliability of both pretest posttest and the questionnaire.

3..5.1 Reliability of the Test

Reliability is synonymous with the consistency of a test, survey, observation, or other measuring device. Reliability coefficient is often the statistic of choice in determining the reliability of a test. This coefficient merely represents a correlation which measures the intensity and direction of a relationship between two or more variables.

Test-Retest reliability refers to the test's consistency among different administrations. To determine the coefficient for this type of reliability, the same test is given to a group of subjects on at least two separate occasions. If the test is reliable, the scores that each student receives on the first administration should be similar to the scores on the second. We would expect the relationship between he first and second administration to be a high positive correlation.

One major concern with test-retest reliability is what has been termed the memory effect. This is especially true when the two administrations are close together in time. For example, imagine taking a short 10-question test on vocabulary and then ten minutes later being asked to complete the same test. Most of us will remember our responses and when we begin to answer again, we may just answer the way we did on the first test rather than reading through the questions carefully. This can create an artificially high reliability coefficient as subjects respond from their memory rather than the test itself. When a pre-test and post-test for an experiment is the same, the memory effect can play a role in the results.

Parallel Forms Reliability. One way to assure that memory effects do not occur is to use a different pre- and posttest. In order for these two tests to be used in this manner, however, they must be parallel or equal in what they measure. To determine parallel forms reliability, a reliability coefficient is calculated on the scores of the two measures taken by the same group of subjects. Once again, we would expect a high and positive correlation if we are to say the two forms are parallel.

3.5.2 Reliability of the Questionnaire

A questionnaire must not only be valid, but also reliable. Reliability is basically the ability of the questionnaire to produce the same results under the same condition. Reliable questionnaires yield consistent results from repeated samples and different researchers over time. Differences in results come from differences between participants, not from inconsistencies in how the items are understood or how different observers interpret the responses. A standardized questionnaire is one that is written and administered so all participants are asked the precisely the same questions in an identical format and responses recorded in a uniform manner. Standardizing a measure increases its reliability.

Apparent Reliability and Validity

In order to check the apparent validity for the study questionnaire and validation of its statements according to the formulation and explanation, the researcher showed the questionnaire to the (5) of the Ph.D. holders as referees who are specialists in the study field. Some of the referees made some suggestions, and others agreed that the questionnaire is suitable. In any way, the researcher studied all suggestions, and some corrections on this questionnaire have been done. The following table shows the referees, their jobs and places of work.

Table (3-1) The referees of the instruments, their jobs and places of work

No.	Name	Job	Place of Work
1	Prof. Rajeshwar Pal Singa	Linguistics Professor	Shri Ram College of higher education, India
2	Dr. Elhafiz Mohammed Ahmed		Jouf University, KSA
3	Dr. Zeinab Tahir Hamad Mohammed	Assistant Professor, EFL	King Absalaziz University, KSA
4	Dr. Dawood Mohammed Gubair	Assistant Professor, ELT	University of Khartoum, Sudan
5	Dr. Abbas Hussain Abdalradi	Assistant Professor, ELT	Alqasim University, KSA

3.6 Statistical of Reliability and Validity

It is meant by the reliability of any test, to obtain the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition,

the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

1. Split-half by using Spearman-Brown equation.
2. Alpha-Cronbach coefficient.
3. Test and Re-test method
4. Equivalent images method.
5. Guttman equation.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which has been designed for.

The researcher calculated the validity statistically using the following equation:

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

The researcher calculated the reliability coefficient for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using (split-half) method. This method stands on the principle of dividing the answers of the sample individuals into two parts, i.e. items of the odd numbers e.g. (1, 3, 5, ...) and answers of the even numbers e.g. (2,4,6 ...). Then Pearson correlation coefficient between the two parts is calculated.

Finally, the (reliability coefficient) was calculated according to Spearman-Brown Equation as the following:

$$\text{Reliability Coefficient} = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r}$$

r = Pearson correlation coefficient

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher was distributed about (15) questionnaires to respondents. In addition, depending on the answers of the pre-test sample, the above Spearman-Brown equation was used to calculate the reliability coefficient using the split-half method; the results have been showed in the following table:

Table (3-2) The statistical reliability and validity of sample about the study questionnaire

Axis	Reliability	Validity
First	0.72	0.85
Second	0.77	0.88
Third	0.80	0.89
Overall	0.86	0.93

Table (3.3) The statistical reliability and validity of pre & posttest sample about the study

Test	Reliability	Validity
Overall	0.70	0.84

We note from the results of above table that all reliability and validity coefficients for pre-test sample individuals about each questionnaire's theme, and for overall questionnaire, are greater than (50%), and some of them are nearest to one. This indicates to the high validity and reliability of the answers, so, the study questionnaire is valid and reliable, and that will give correct and acceptable statistical analysis.

3.7 Statistical Instruments

In order to satisfy the study objectives and to test its hypotheses, we use the following statistical instruments:

1. Graphical figures.
2. Frequency distribution.
3. Person correlation coefficient.
4. Spearman-Brown equation for calculating Reliability coefficient.
5. Median.
6. Non-parametric Chi-square test.

In order to obtain accurate results, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. In addition, to design the graphical figures, which are needed for the study, the computer program (Excel) was also used.

3.8 The Remedial Progressive writing

Remedial (also known as developmental education, basic skills education, compensatory education, preparatory education, and academic upgrading) is assigned to assist students in order to achieve expected competencies in core academic skills such as literacy and numeracy. The main components of the

program including its objectives, contents, techniques and strategies, timing and the evaluation are presented in this chapter. This chapter also presents the basis on which the program was built on, the practical steps followed by the researcher. The idea of constructing such a suggested program emanated from the urgent and demanding need for improving the writing skills generally and descriptive writing in particular, of the students of Aljouf university. Accordingly, the program was designed, contents of the program were chosen, organized and modified to meet the mentioned needs. Among such serious considerations given high attention are the program's suitability for students' levels and abilities, the language employed in the program, and the educational atmosphere where the program is intended to be implemented .

3.8.1 Definition of the Remedial Program

Many researchers agreed on similar definitions of the suggested program.

They almost have a typical image of what it is meant to be. The main components of the suggested program were similarly described by the researchers as a well-organized series of activities that function together and aim at achieving desirable change in the learners' characters. The program is " a group of well designed activities that aim to develop the knowledge, attitudes and skills of the trainees, promote their competencies, guide their thinking and improve their work performance" (Good, 1998:613). In addition, AL-Farra (1989:175) defines it as the experiences that are well designed for the purpose of teaching and training through the feature of certain level of performance. It is based on arranged units that include basic elements: importance, goals, content, learning activities, instructional aids, reference and means of evaluation. Moreover, Afana (2000:75) defines a program as a well-designed and arranged instructional unit that includes a group of

experiences, activities, aids, techniques and means of evaluation for the purpose of developing defined skills.

In the light of the above definition, the researcher defines the program as

"a group of well-planned and designed activities that aim to develop the learners' skills by using selected content, instructional aids and constant process of evaluation.

3.8.2 Steps of Constructing Instructional Program

Canale and Swain (1998:33) suggested five steps that make up a model of a good teaching program. Below is a description of these patterns and an explanation of how each step was taken into consideration in building up the suggested program.

3.8.3 Diagnosis

Diagnosis means the initial evaluation or assessment of the teaching learning situations. In this stage the teachers attempt to define the students' present state of knowledge, skills, competencies and their needs as a basis to target what is missing and trying to cover it. The researcher's background as a an English teacher and still carrying out the job, this helps to give a rationale image of students' writing in general and the writing skills in particular and also form a rationale in constructing the suggested program.

3.8.4 Preparation

In this step, the teacher get ready for the instructions. The teacher defines the aims of the program, motivates the students and manages the setting for the instruction. In this research, the aims of the program was defined by the researcher taking into account the results of the students in the in the pretest that run at the beginning of the semester as stone corner in performing the remedial sessions

3.8.5 Guidance of Learning

The researcher intentionally emphasized different techniques and activities that can provide opportunity for all students to promote their writing skills. In this

procedure of learning guidance actual instruction is surely included. It presents information or skills, shows the students how to interact and respond, encourage them to be active with learning situations and monitor their engagement in the presented activities.

3.8.6 Evaluation

Evaluation provides a clear picture, through different evaluation techniques, about the progress of both teachers and learners in performing their tasks. The suggested program included constant process of evaluation through the stages considering the program itself by formative and summative tasks of evaluation.

3.8.7 Follow-Up

It is the step of re-organizing the learning experiences with the purpose of production. This final step included activities which help the students to apply the learnt experiences. All units in the suggested program provide several activities for this purpose. The researcher took into consideration the previous ideas and referred to the educational literature that dealt with similar suggested programs; the researcher came to a conclusion of the basic principles for planning such program as the following:

1. The overall goals and the principles need to be determined of supporting objectives,
2. Selecting a suitable content in view of the objectives,
3. Scheduling the time plan considering the time needed for each unit,
4. Choosing the appropriate teaching approach, strategies and activities in addition to the working team, and
5. Assigning procedures for assessing the students' achievement of the program objectives.

3.8.8 Principles of the Remedial Program

The following principles are considered by the researcher during designing

the program :

- 1.The modern role of the teacher in the age of technology is not merely a collector or a walking encyclopedia, but a guide, a trainer and developer of the students' intellects.
- 2.The writing skills are down and surely students' achievement is affected. So, writing skill should be focused on.
- 3.The objectives of the program are designed to enable the students practice and then improve their skills of writing , particularly those important skills related to the descriptive writing business.
- 4.The remedial program takes into account the individual differences among learners though all of them are considered to the target sample and all of them suffer the same problem the research needs to tackle.
- 5.Time planning is a crucial issue in the remedial program.
- 6.Variety of teaching aids is a must in the remedial program.
- 7.The remedial program is related to learners' likes and preferences.

3.8.9 Program Construction

The components of the program were constructed primarily according to the above mentioned basics as follows:

3.8.10 Content of the Program

The contents of this remedial program were selected with awareness to help and train the students to improve their descriptive essay writing skills through the presented practice. The contents of any educational program are the substance of teaching and then consist of facts, concepts, skills and attitudes.

3.8.11 Program Techniques and Activities

The program techniques and activities were designed in the light of the program's aim and content, the researcher also reviewed the related previous studies in the writing skills to benefit from the various activities used in this program. It is worth

mentioning that the researcher adopted a series of techniques and activities that suit the learning atmosphere. Stage one is preparation before class; stage two is classroom teaching; and stage three is learning after class. During these stages, teachers and students set teaching objectives, choose teaching content and design teaching activities mutually (Wolvin and Coakley ,1992). The researcher here planned every item in dvanced.

3.8.11.1 Pre-writing Activities

The activities chosen during pre-writing phase may serve as preparation for writing in several ways. During pre-writing the researcher: Set a purpose or decide in advance what to do, Set some warming activities, Decided if more revision of knowledge is needed, Made students aware of the type of task they will do through presentation, and Provided opportunities for group or collaborative work.

3.8.11.2 While-writing Activities

While-writing activities relate directly to students' engagement in the task of writing , and students do them during the time decided for practice planning while –writing activities. The researcher kept in mind the following points:

Giving the student time to practice writing, Encouraging students to monitor their writing, and Giving an immediate feedback whenever possible.

3.8.11.3 Post-writing Activities

The researcher writes questions on the board and asks students to answer them. Students are also stimulated to talk and actively participate in the task. Students are asked to check their work. Students are encouraged to respond to what they wrote . The teacher evaluate the writing task. The strategies used should be checked to ensure their appropriateness for the purpose and for the task

3.8.11.4 Evaluation

Evaluation is intended by the evaluator as a basis for improvement the writing skill . It is the process of determining significance or worth, usually by careful appraisal

and study. Evaluation is a primary part of any instructional program. It signifies the positive or negative aspects of the program .Simply, the process of evaluation is seen as indicators for teachers and students' success.

3.8.11.5 Feedback

With regards to the basis and principles of remedial program, the instructional techniques and the students productions, the researcher then check, assess and give immediate feedback. In addition to this, the researcher requested the students to respond to the feedback given immediately, and follow it up, before moving to another point in the instructional process.

3.9 Procedures

After the researcher received the feedback of the referees on the pretest and the questionnaire, the procedure of the research started. At the beginning of the second semester, when the students enrolled and started going to the college regularly, they were given the pre test . Students were divided into two groups of similar portions, distributed and organized in similar well equipped classes; well seated and well ventilated. All known and familiar exams' instructions were applied to administer the test. The time of the test is two hours, students were allowed to submit their paper and leave the class after the half time of the test, after the invigilators make sure that the students write their personal information needed. When the students finished the test and submitted their papers to the invigilators, papers then are checked, marked and saved. At the end of the semester, students were given the same questions that they were given at the beginning of the semester , as posttest. The researcher followed the same procedure and administration applied for the pretest. After the administering of the posttest, both, the pretest and the posttest were then analyzed together to see the difference and how the results are related to these differences.

With regard to the questionnaire, the targeted instructors were given the questionnaire at the end of the semester. They were 50 instructors involved in teaching the students of the college. The questionnaire items made very clear, the responses are also clear and understood, and the researcher was present for any explanation or enquiry. The ready answered forms of the questionnaire together with the pretest and posttest all together were given to an expert in statistics. The expert was expected to analyse and give the researcher explanation and illustration. These explanations are either accept the hypotheses of the research or reject them.

3.10 Data Analysis Techniques

When the procedure stage finished, the data collected by the questionnaire and the pretest – posttest was sent for the analysis. The expert used the following suitable tools to fulfill the requirements of the research. The tools that used are:

1. Graphical figures.
2. Frequency distribution.
3. Person correlation coefficient.
4. Spearman-Brown equation for calculating Reliability coefficient.
5. Median.
6. Chi-square

In addition to the above mentioned tools, in order to obtain accurate results, Statistical Package for Social Sciences, (SPSS) was also used. Beside (SPSS), Computer programs was also used to design the graphical figures which are needed for the study. The analysis, investigation, evaluation and interpretation of the collected data will be presented in chapter four.

Summary of the Chapter

The methodology is a very long process because it is the bones of the study body. Briefly, the students were given a pretest , then exposed to an intervention, an intensive, progressive writing program, and were given the same test as posttest at

the end of the intervention period. The instructors were given a questionnaire to know their students; attitude towards writing. The study adopted the analytical and descriptive approaches to analyse the data collected using appropriate statistical instruments for this kind of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter data analysis and interpretation of the data are presented and organized according to the results of the tools used in the study. Data analysis for the study and test of its hypotheses will be presented and interpreted through the following analysis.

4.1 Data Analysis:

The study used two instruments for collecting the data of the study, pretest posttest and a questionnaire. The data collected using these instruments were analysed and discussed. This section provides in detail the tables, graphs and the discussion of the results found.

4.1.1 Questionnaire Analysis

The following table and figure shows the number of distributed questionnaire, the number of received questionnaire with full-required information and the responses percentage.

The study sample respondents differ according to the following characteristics:

- The respondents from different academic qualification (B.A., M.A., Ph.D.).
- The respondents from different age (30-40 year, 30-50 year, 50-60 year).
- The respondents from different years of experience (1-5 years, 5-10 ,above 10 years).

- The respondents in term of employment status (fulltime, part time).
- The respondents in term of specialized in ELT (yes, no, partially).

The following is detail description for study sample individuals according to the above variables (respondents' characteristics):

1-The Qualification

Table no.(4-1) The frequency distribution for qualification

Qualification	Number	Percent
B.A.	5	7.5
M.A.	42	62.7
Ph.D	20	29.9
Total	67	100.0

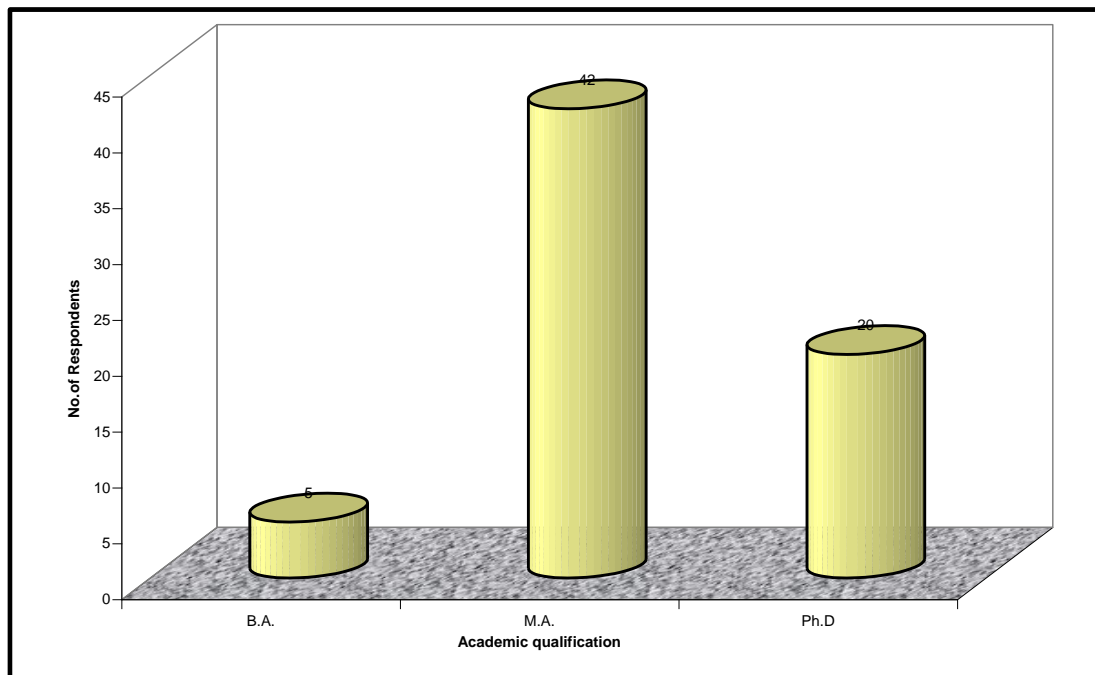


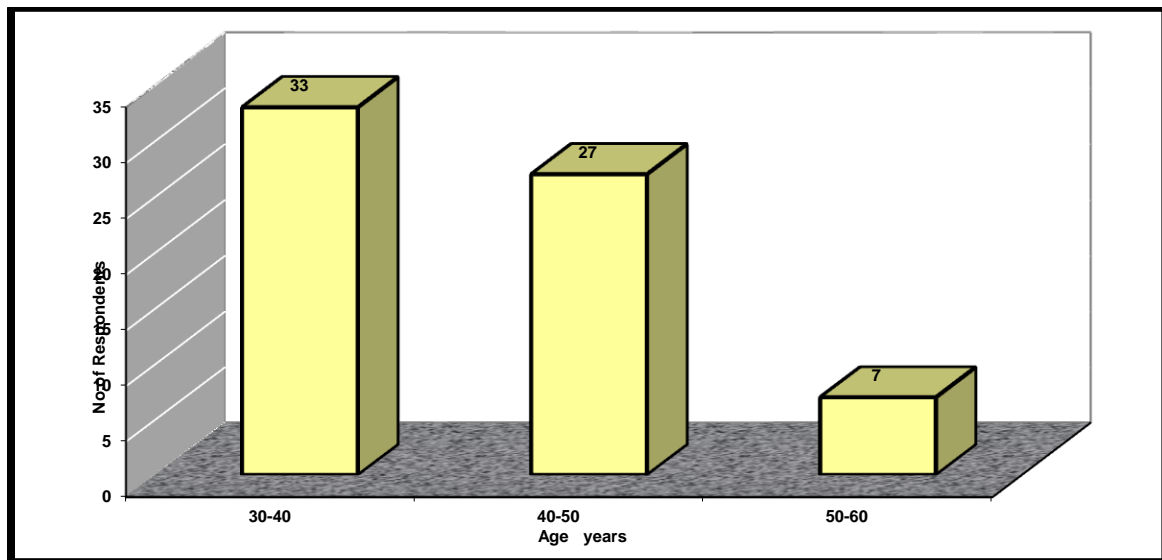
Figure no.(4-1) The frequency distribution for the qualification

From above table and figure, it is shown that most of the study's respondents have M.A. as qualification, the number of those was (42) persons with percentage (62.7%), The respondents who have B.A. as qualification was (5) persons with (7.5%),. In addition, there are (20) persons with percentage (29.9%) whose qualification is Ph.D.

2- The Age

Table no.(4-2) The frequency distribution for the age

Age class (year)	Number	Percent
30-40	33	49.3
40-50	27	40.3
50-60	7	10.4
Total	67	100.0



Figure

Figure (4-2) The frequency distribution for the age

We note from the table (3-2) and the figure (3-2), that most of the sample's respondents are of the age between (30) and (40) year, their number was (33) persons with percentage (49.3%), and (27) persons with percentage (40.3%) aged between (40) and (50) year. Lastly, there are (7) persons with percentage (10.4%) are of the age between (50) and (60) year.

3- Experience in Teaching Writing

Table no.(4-3) The frequency distribution for experience in teaching writing

Experience	Number	Percent
1-5 years	15	22.4
5-10 years	27	40.3
above 10 years	25	37.3
Total	67	100.0

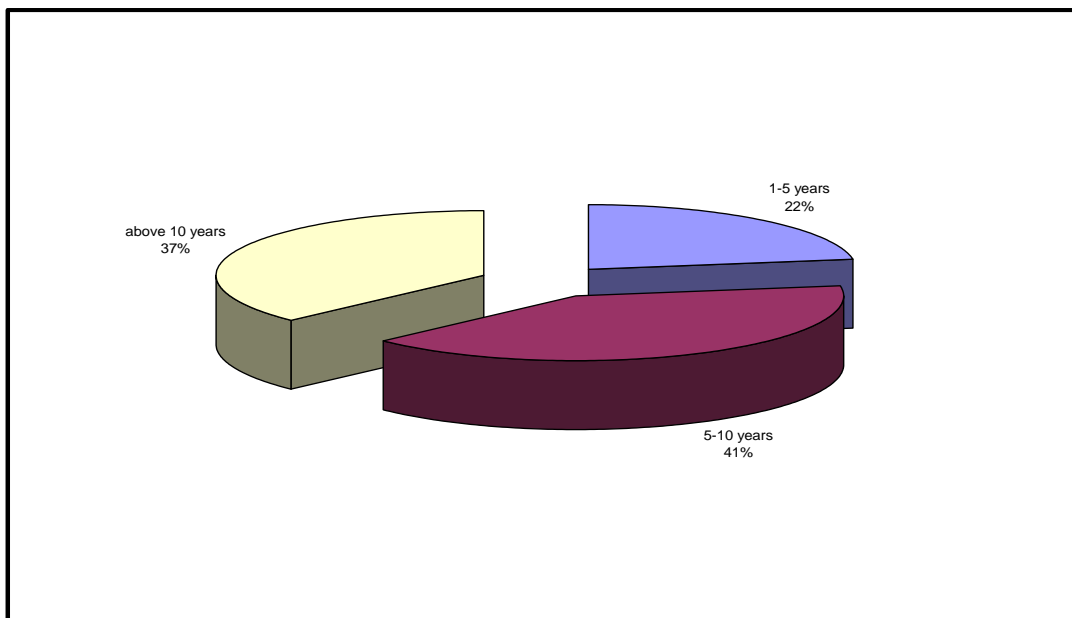


Figure no.(4-3) The frequency distribution for year of experience

We note from the table no.(3-3) and the figure no.(3-3) that, most of the sample's respondents have experience between (5) and (10) years, their number was (27) persons with percentage (40.3%). The number of sample's respondents who have experience between (1) and (5) years was (15) persons with percentage (22.4%).and (25) persons with percentage (37.3%) have experience above (10) years.

4- Employment Status

Table no.(4-4) The frequency distribution for the employment status

Status	Number	Percent
Fulltime	62	92.5
Part time	5	7.5
Total	67	100.0

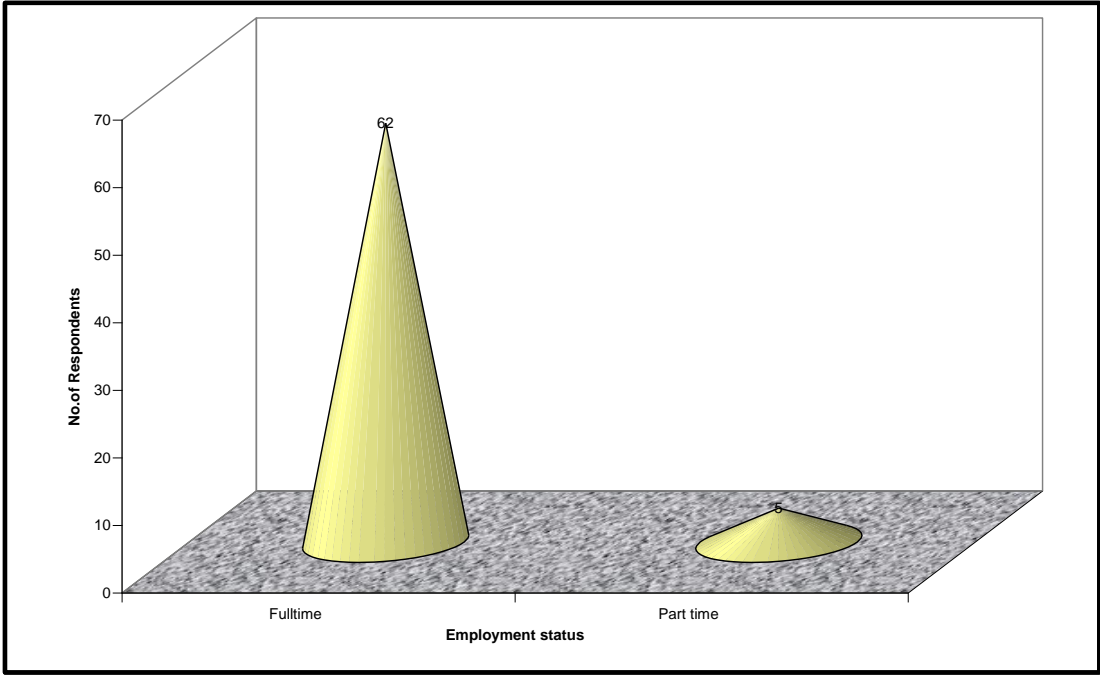


Figure no.(4-4) The frequency distribution for the employment status

From above table and figure, it is shown that most of the study's respondents are fulltime, the number of those was (62) persons with percentage (92.5%). The number of respondents who are part time was (5) persons with (7.5%).

5- Specialized in ELT

Table no.(4-5) The frequency distribution for the specialization in ELT

Specialized	Number	Percent
Yes	52	77.6
No	5	7.5
Partially	10	14.9
Total	67	100.0

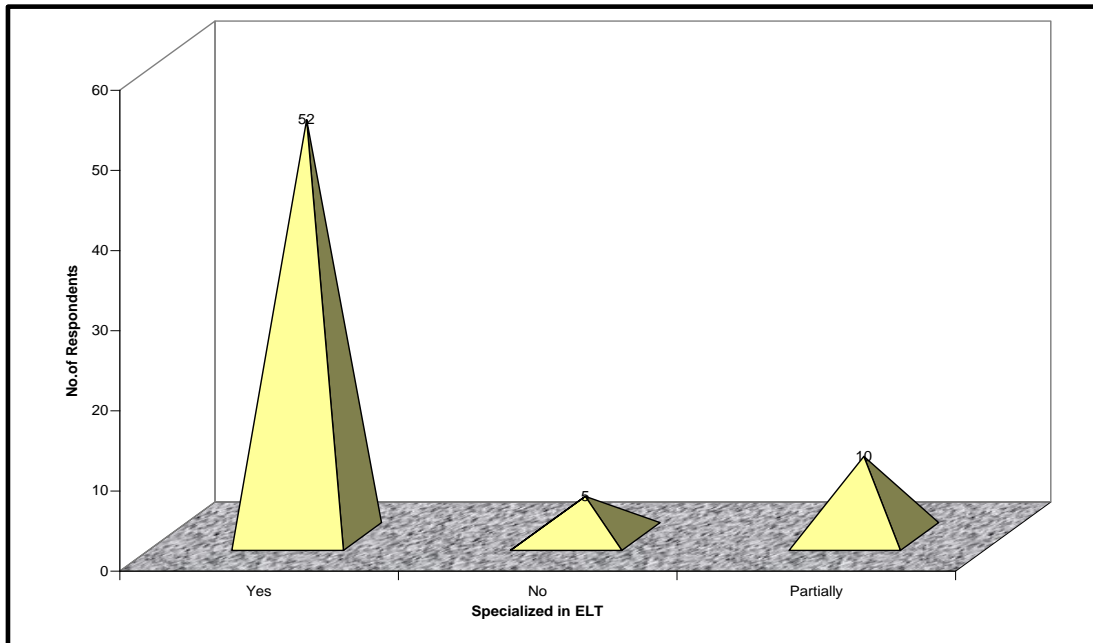


Figure no.(4-5) The frequency distribution for the specialization in ELT

From above table and figure, it is shown that most of the study's respondents is yes , the number of those was (52) persons with percentage (77.6%). The respondents who chose no were (5) persons with (7.5%).., and the respondents who are partially ELT were (10) persons with (14.9%)

4.2 Application of the Study's Tool

After the step of checking questionnaire reliability and validity, the researcher had distributed the questionnaire on determined study sample (67) persons, and the researcher constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (Strongly agree, Agree, Not sure, Disagree, Strongly disagree) to quantitative variables (5, 4, 3, 2 ,1) respectively, also the graphical representation have done for this purpose.

4.3 Verification of the Study Hypotheses

The following are the verification of the hypotheses of the study. There are presented one after the other.

4.3.1 First Hypothesis: the students have negative attitudes towards their descriptive writing.

Statement No.(1): Your Students Enjoy Writing.

Table no. (3-7) and figure no.(3-6) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(1).

Table no.(4-6)The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	3	4.5

Agree	21	31.3
Not sure	9	13.4
Disagree	24	35.8
Strongly disagree	10	14.9
Total	67	100.0

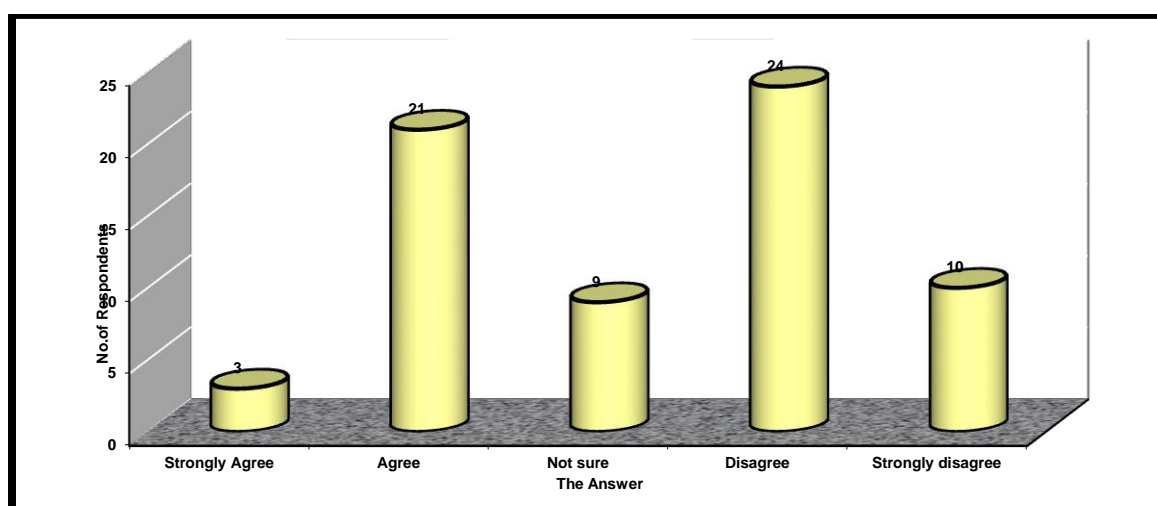


Figure no.(4-6) The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)

It is clear from table no.(3-7) and figure (3-6) that there are (3) persons in the study's sample with percentage (4.5%) have strongly agreed with " Your students enjoy writing ". There are (21) persons with percentage (31.3%) have agreed on that, and (9) persons with percentage (13.4%) were not sure about that, and (24) persons with percentage (35.8%) have disagreed about that, while (10) persons with percentage (14.9%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(2): Your Students think Writing Sessions are boring.

Table no. (4-8) and figure no.(3-7) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(2).

Table no.(4-7) The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	14	20.4
Agree	38	56.7
Not sure	3	4.5
Disagree	10	14.9
Strongly disagree	2	3.0
Total	67	100.0

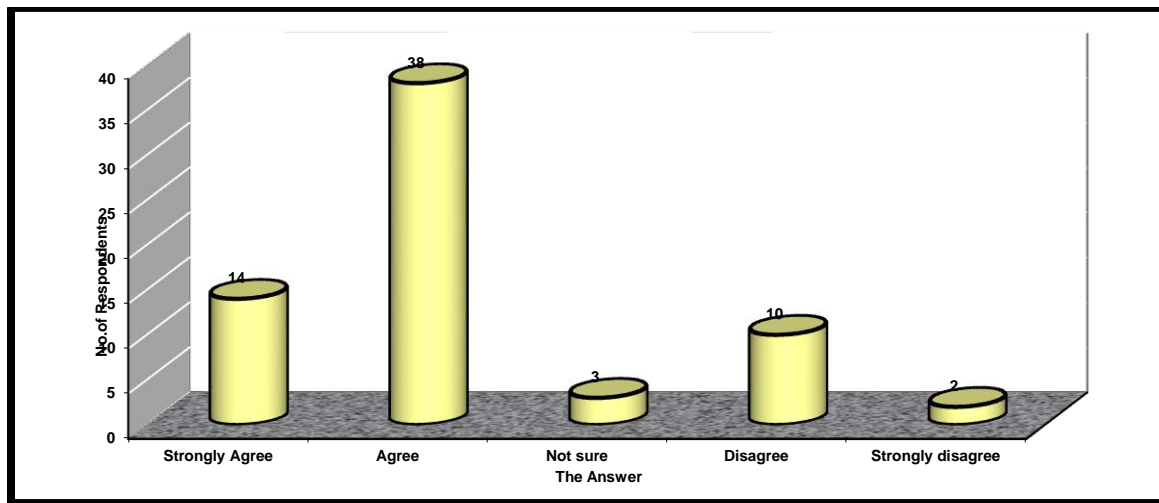


Figure no.(4-7) The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)

It is clear from table no.(3-8) and figure (3-7) that there are (14) persons in the study's sample with percentage (20.4%) have strongly agreed with " Your students think writing sessions are boring ". There are (38) persons with percentage (56.7%) have agreed on that, and (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) are not sure about that, and (10) persons with percentage (14.9%) have disagreed about that, while (2) persons with percentage (3.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(3): Your students think writing is useful.

Table no. (4-9) and figure no.(3-8) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(3).

Table no.(4-8) The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	10	14.9
Agree	34	50.9
Not sure	14	20.9
Disagree	7	10.4
Strongly disagree	2	3.0
Total	67	100.0

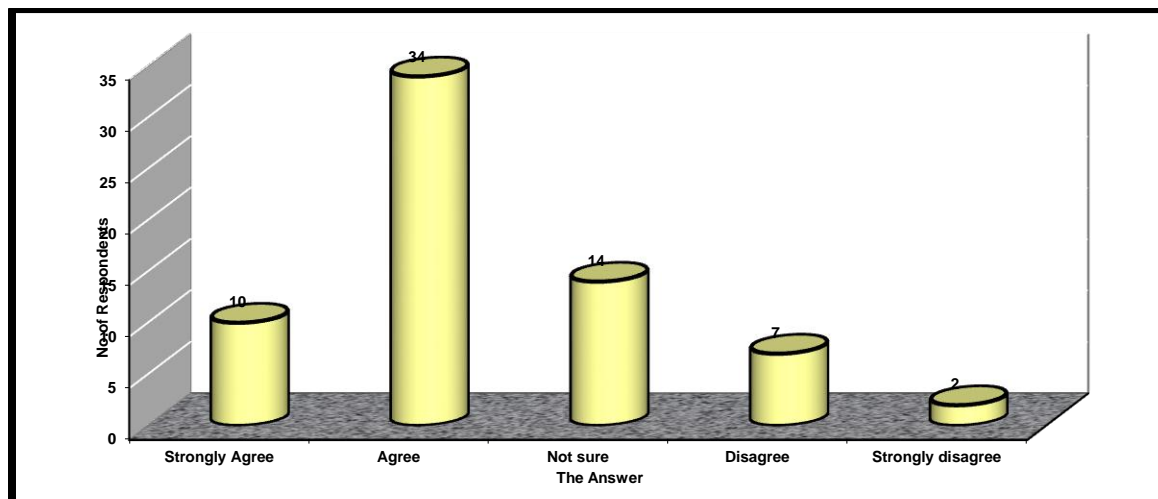


Figure no.(4-8) The frequency distribution for the statement no.(3)

It is clear from table no.(3-9) and figure (3-8) that there are (10) persons in the study's sample with percentage (14.9%) have strongly agreed with " Your students think writing is useful ". There are (34) persons with percentage (50.9%) have agreed on that, and (14) persons with percentage (20.9%) are not sure about that, and (7) persons with percentage (10.4%) have disagreed about that, while (2) persons with percentage (3.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(4): Your students enjoy sharing with friends a draft of what they have written.

Table no. (4-10) and figure no.(3-9) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(4).

Table no.(4-9) The frequency distribution for Statement no.(4)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	11	16.4
Agree	20	29.9
Not sure	16	23.9
Disagree	18	26.9
Strongly disagree	2	3.0
Total	67	100.0

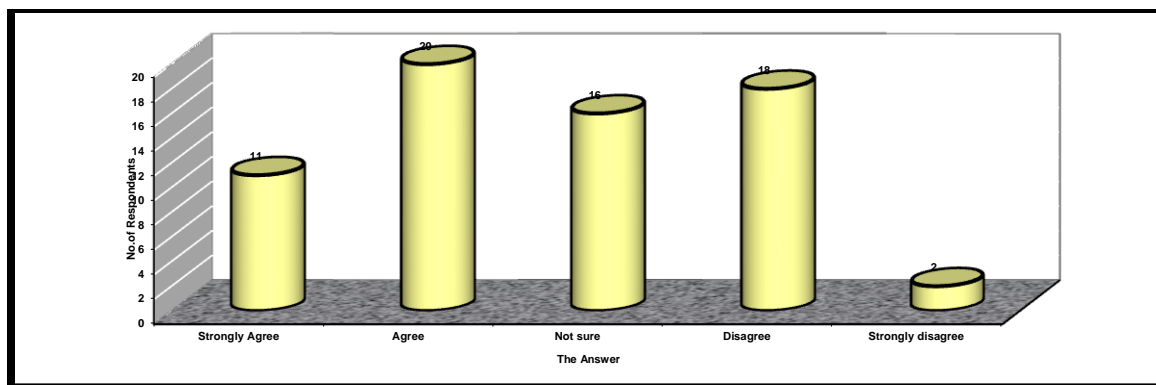


Figure no.(4-9) The frequency distribution for statement no.(4)

It is clear from table no.(3-10) and figure (3-8) that there are (11) persons in the study's sample with percentage (16.9%) have strongly agreed with " your students enjoy sharing with friends a draft of what they have written ". There are (20) persons with percentage (29.9%) have agreed on that, and (16) persons with percentage (23.9%) are not sure about that, and (18) persons with percentage (26.9%) have disagreed about that, while (2) persons with percentage (3.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(5): Your students submit assignment in time and enquire about feedback.

Table no. (4-11) and figure no.(3-9) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(5).

Table no.(4-10) The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	9	13.4
Agree	37	55.2
Not sure	5	7.5

Disagree	13	19.4
Strongly disagree	2	4.5
Total	67	100.0

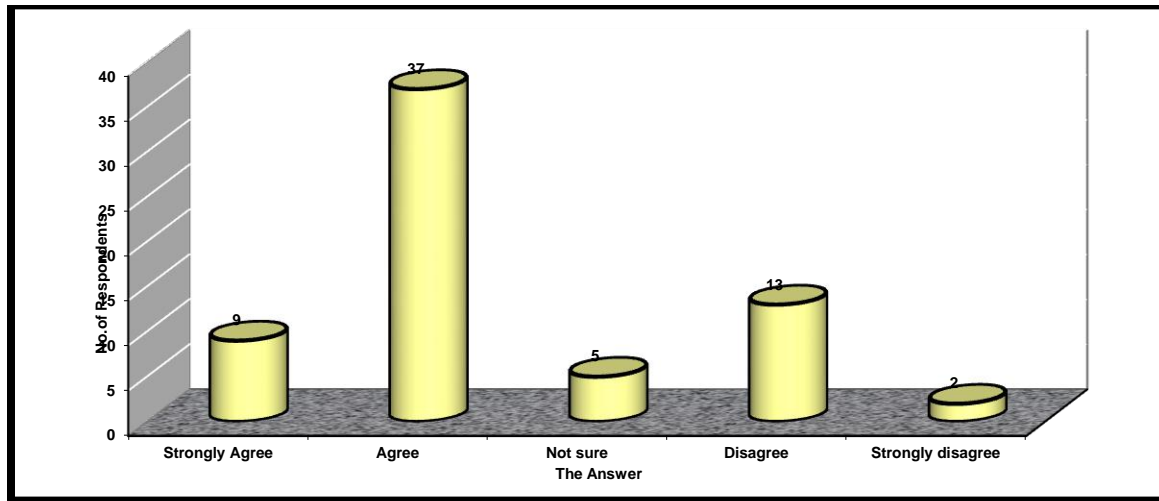


Figure no.(4-10) The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)

It is clear from table no.(3-11) and figure (3-9) that there are (9) persons in the study's sample with percentage (13.4%) have strongly agreed with " Your students submit assignment in time and enquire about feedback ". There are (37) persons with percentage (55.2%) have agreed on that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.5%) are not sure about that, and (13) persons with percentage (19.4%) have disagreed about that, while (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

4.3.2 Second hypothesis: the students' ability before implementation of the program is week

Statement No.(1): On a topic of interest, your students can generate lots of words fairly.

Table no. (4-12) and figure no.(4-10) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(1).

Table no.(4-11) The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	9	13.4
Agree	37	55.2
Not sure	5	7.5
Disagree	13	19.4
Strongly disagree	3	4.5
Total	67	100.0

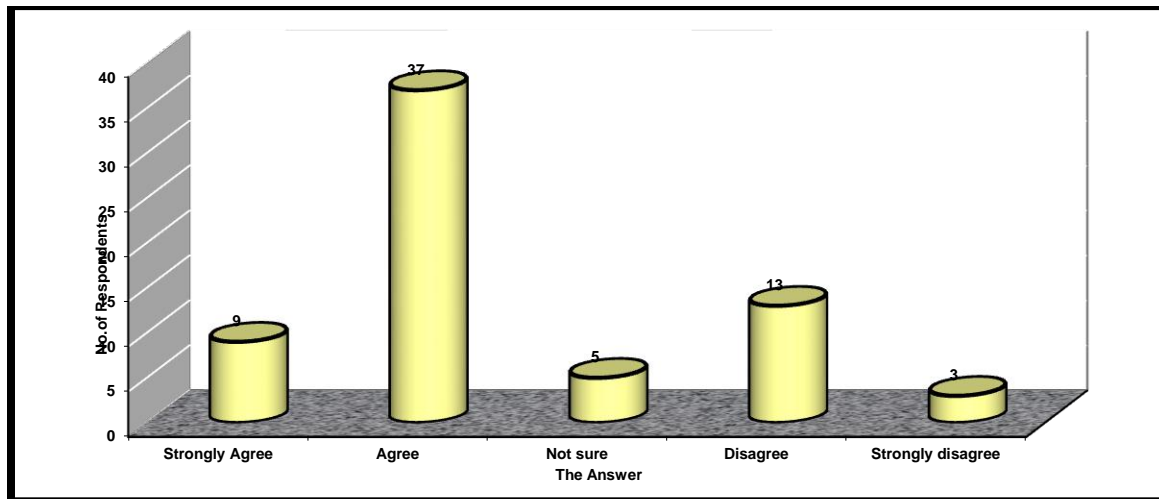


Figure no.(4-11) The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)

It is clear from table no.(4-12) and figure (4-10) that there are (9) persons in the study's sample with percentage (13.4%) have strongly agreed with " On a topic of interest, your students can generate lots of words fairly ". There are (37) persons with percentage (55.2%) have agreed on that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.5%) are not sure about that, and (13) persons with percentage (19.4%) have disagreed about that, while (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(2): On a topic of interest, your students can come with ideas or insights they had not thought of earlier.

Table no. (4-13) and figure no.(4-11) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(2).

Table no.(4-12) The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	6	9.0
Agree	33	49.3
Not sure	9	13.4
Disagree	14	20.9
Strongly disagree	5	7.5
Total	67	100.0

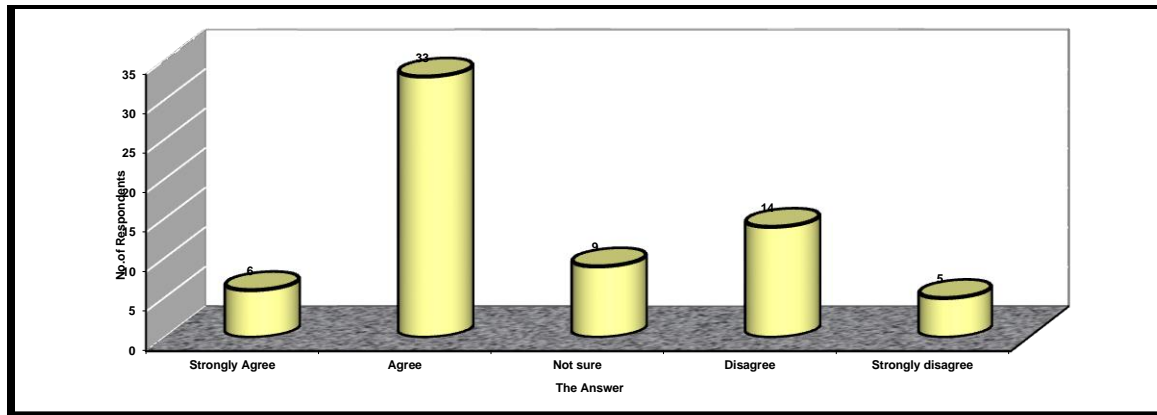


Figure no.(4-12) The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)

It is clear from table no.(3-13) and figure (3-11) that there are (6) persons in the study's sample with percentage (9.0%) have strongly agreed with " On a topic of interest, your students can come with ideas or insights they had not thought of earlier ". There are (33) persons with percentage (49.3%) have agreed on that, and (9) persons with percentage (14.9%) are not sure about that, and (14) persons with percentage (20.9%) have disagreed about that, while (5) persons with percentage (7.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(3): On a topic of not much interest (perhaps an assigned topic), your students can generate lots of words ideas.

Table no. (4-13) and figure no.(3-12) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(3).

Table no.(4-13) The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	7	10.4
Agree	26	38.8

Not sure	10	14.9
Disagree	24	35.8
Total	67	100.0

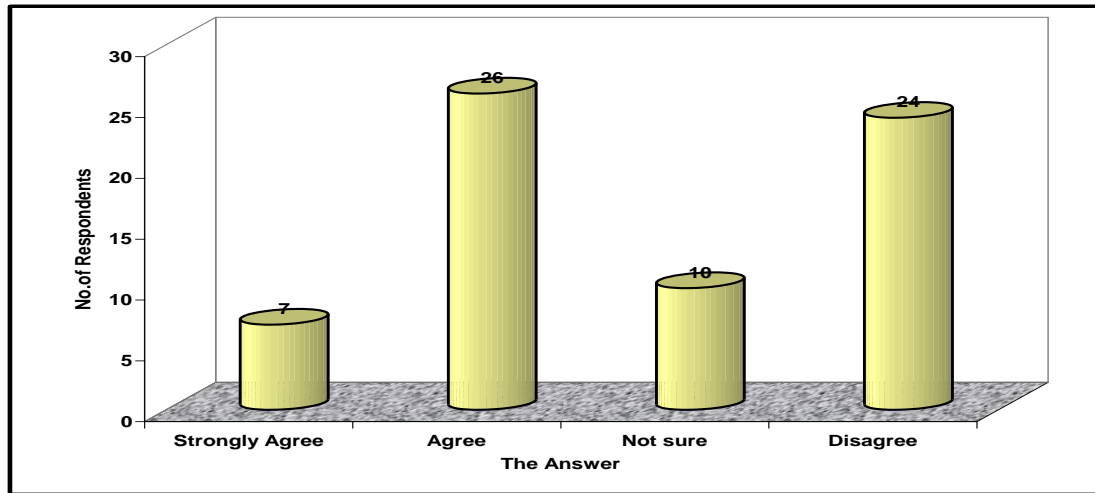


Figure no.(4-13) The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)

It is clear from table no.(3-14) and figure (3-12) that there are (7) persons in the study's sample with percentage (10.4%) have strongly agreed with " On a topic of not much interest (perhaps an assigned topic), your students can generate lots of words ideas ". There are (26) persons with percentage (38.8%) have agreed on that, and (10) persons with percentage (14.9%) are not sure about that, and (24) persons with percentage (35.8%) have disagreed about that.

Statement No.(4): Your students can come with ideas or insights they'd not thought of before.

Table no. (4-15) and figure no.(3-13) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(5).

Table no.(4-15) The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	6	9.0
Agree	34	50.7
Not sure	7	10.4
Disagree	19	28.4
Strongly disagree	1	1.5
Total	67	100.0

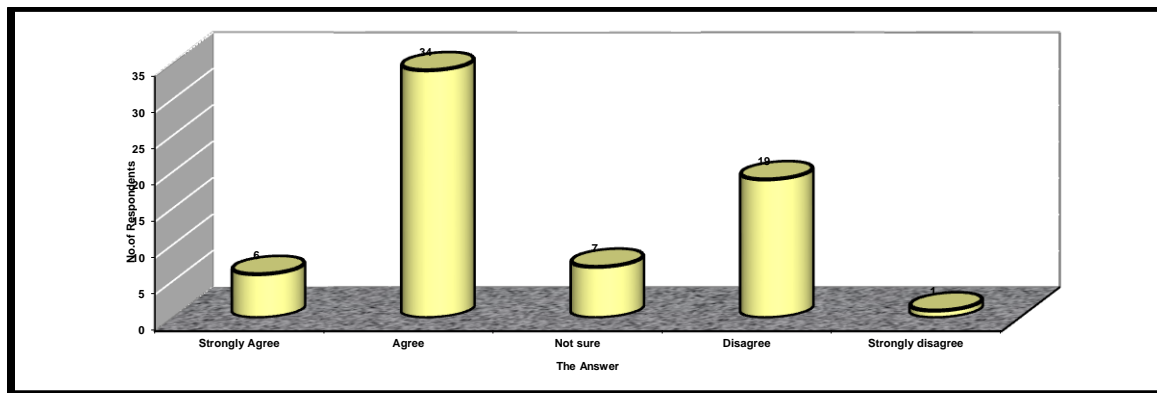


Figure no.(4-13)The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)

It is clear from table no.(4-15) and figure (3-13) that there are (6) persons in the study's sample with percentage (9.0%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can come with ideas or insights they'd not thought of before ". There are (34) persons with percentage (50.7%) have agreed on that, and (7) persons with percentage (10.4%) are not sure about that, and (19) persons with percentage (28.4%) have disagreed about that, while only one person with percentage (1.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(5): Your students can revise in the literal sense of "revision"- thus, rethink and change their minds about major things they have said.

Table no. (4-16) and figure no.(4-14) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(6).

Table no.(4-16) The frequency distribution for statement no.(6)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	8	11.9
Agree	26	38.8
Not sure	8	11.9
Disagree	21	31.3
Strongly disagree	4	6.0
Total	67	100.0

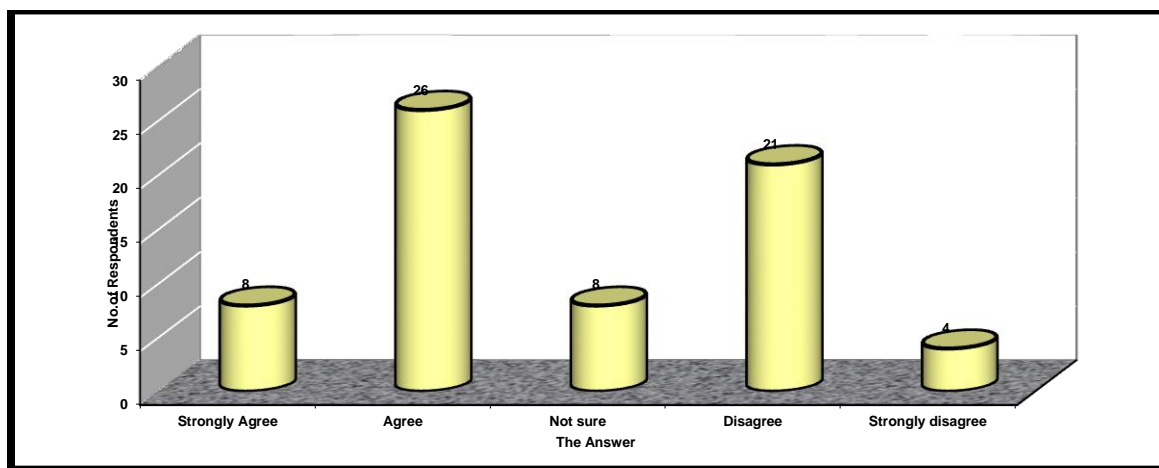


Figure no.(4-14) The frequency distribution for statement no.(6)

It is clear from table no.(4-16) and figure (4-14) that there are (8) persons in the study's sample with percentage (11.9%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can revise in the literal sense of "revision"-thus, rethink and change their minds about major things they have said ". There are (26) persons with percentage (38.8%) have agreed on that, and (8) persons with percentage (11.9%) are not sure about that, and (21) persons with percentage (31.3%) have disagreed about that, while (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(6): Your students can find a main point in a mess of their disorganized (first draft) writing.

Table no. (4-17) and figure no.(4-15) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(6).

Table no.(4-17) The frequency distribution for statement no.(6)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	9	13.4
Agree	20	29.9
Not sure	13	19.4
Disagree	18	26.9
Strongly disagree	7	10.4
Total	67	100.0

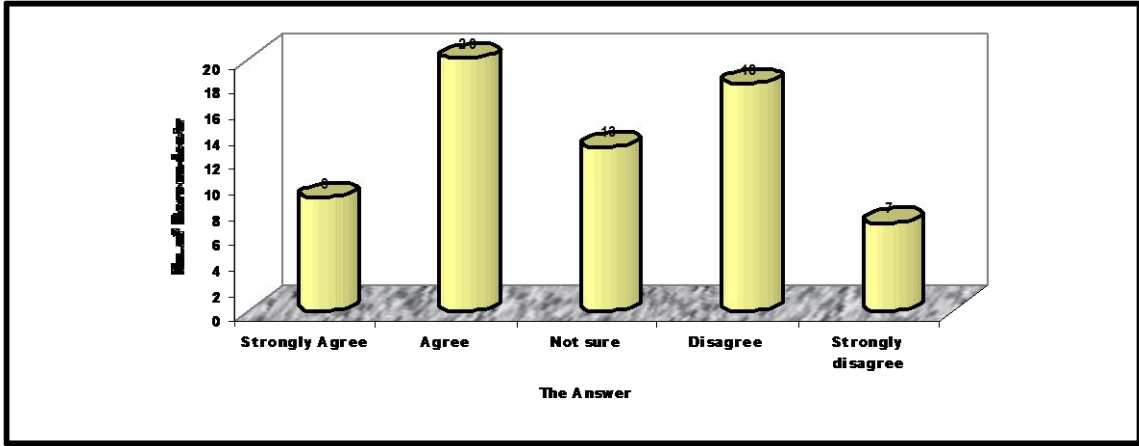


Figure no.(4-15) The frequency distribution for statement no.(6)

It is clear from table no.(4-17) and figure (4-15) that there are (9) persons in the study's sample with percentage (13.4%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can find a main point in a mess of their disorganized (first draft) writing ". There are (20) persons with percentage (29.9%) have agreed on that, and (13) persons with percentage (19.4%) are not sure about that, and (18) persons with percentage (26.9%) have disagreed about that, while (7) persons with percentage (10.4%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(7): Your students can make a new shape of a piece of their writing which they had previously organized.

Table no. (4-18) and figure no.(3-16) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(7).

Table no.(4-18) The frequency distribution for statement no.(7)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	7	10.4
Agree	26	38.8

Not sure	10	14.9
Disagree	19	28.4
Strongly disagree	5	7.5
Total	67	100.0

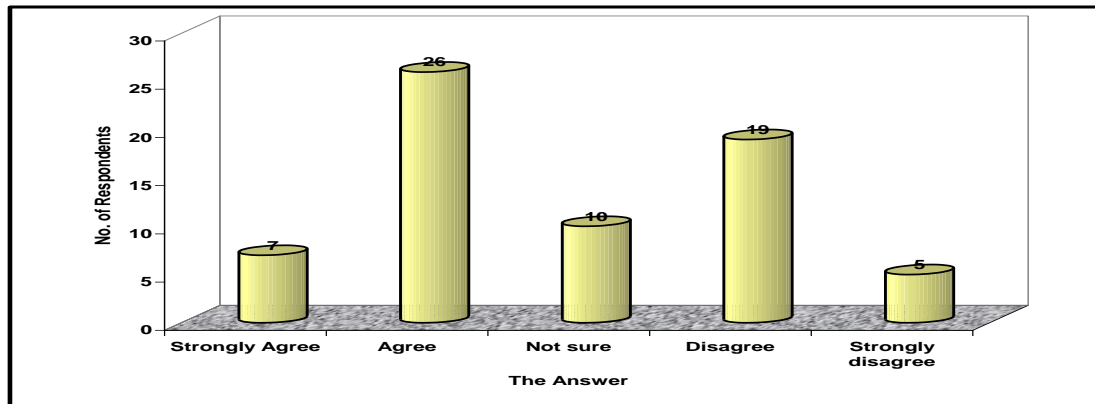


Figure no.(4-16) The frequency distribution for statement no.(7)

It is clear from table no.(4-18) and figure (4-16) that there are (8) persons in the study's sample with percentage (11.9%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can make a new shape of a piece of their writing which they had previously organized ". There are (26) persons with percentage (38.8%) have agreed on that, and (10) persons with percentage (14.9%) are not sure about that, and (19) persons with percentage (28.4%) have disagreed about that, while (5) persons with percentage (7.5%) have strongly disagreed about that

Statement No.(8): In their first draft, your students can find problems in their reasoning or logic and straight them out.

Table no. (4-19) and figure no.(4-17) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(8).

Table no.(4-19) The frequency distribution for statement no.(8)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	8	11.9
Agree	23	34.3
Not sure	13	19.4
Disagree	21	31.3
Strongly disagree	2	3.0
Total	67	100.0

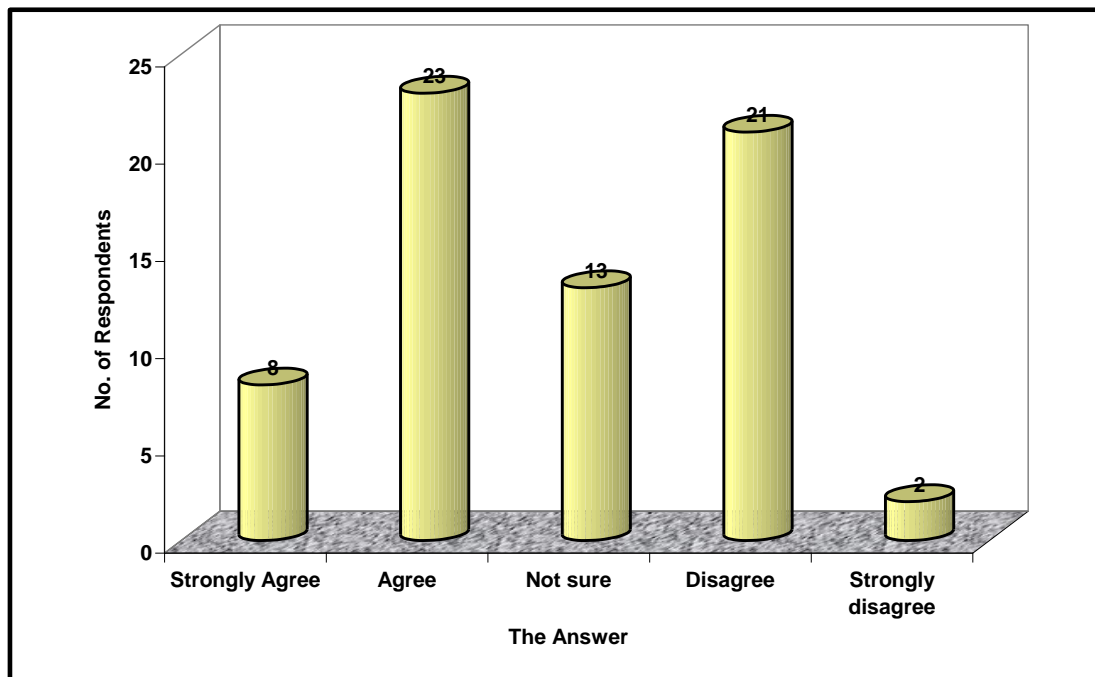


Figure no.(4-17) The frequency distribution for statement no.(8)

It is clear from table no.(4-19) and figure (4-17) that there are (8) persons in the study's sample with percentage (11.9%) have strongly agreed with " In their first draft, your students can find problems in their reasoning or logic and straight them

out ". There are (23) persons with percentage (34.3%) have agreed on that, and (13) persons with percentage (19.4%) are not sure about that, and (21) persons with percentage (31.3%) have disagreed about that, while (2) persons with percentage (3.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(9): Your students can make their sentences clear, and they are clear to readers on first reading.

Table no. (4-20) and figure no.(4-18) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(9).

Table no.(4-20) The frequency distribution for statement no.(9)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	12	17.9
Agree	25	37.3
Not sure	9	13.4
Disagree	20	29.9
Strongly disagree	1	1.5
Total	67	100.0

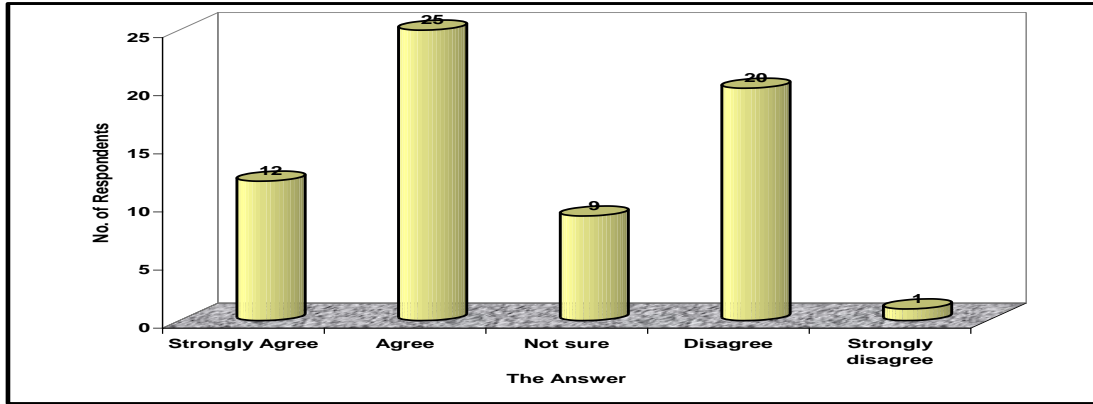


Figure no.(4-17) The frequency distribution for statement no.(8)

It is clear from table no.(4-20) and figure (4-18) that there are (12) persons in the study's sample with percentage (17.9%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can make their sentences clear, and they are clear to readers on first reading ". There are (25) persons with percentage (37.3%) have agreed on that, and (9) persons with percentage (13.4%) are not sure about that, and (20) persons with percentage (29.9%) have disagreed about that, while only one person with percentage (1.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(10): Your students can easily edit their writing for contents, thought, and ideas that related to the topic.

Table no. (4-21) and figure no.(4-19) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(10).

Table no.(4-21) The frequency distribution for statement no.(10)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	9	13.4
Agree	32	47.8

Not sure	14	20.9
Disagree	8	11.9
Strongly disagree	4	1.5
Total	67	100.0

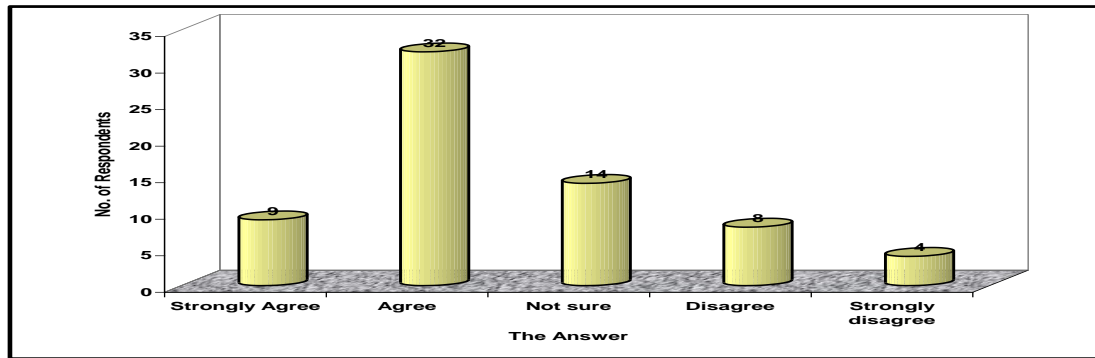


Figure no.(4-17) The frequency distribution for statement no.(8)

It is clear from table no.(4-21) and figure (4-19) that there are (9) persons in the study's sample with percentage (13.4%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can easily edit their writing for contents, thought, and ideas that related to the topic ". There are (32) persons with percentage (47.8%) have agreed on that, and (14) persons with percentage (20.9%) are not sure about that, and (8) persons with percentage (11.9%) have disagreed about that, while (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have strongly disagreed about that

Statement No.(11): Your students can guess how most readers will react to something they have written.

Table no. (4-22) and figure no.(4-20) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(11).

Table no.(4-22) The frequency distribution for statement no.(11)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	10	14.9
Agree	14	20.0
Not sure	12	17.9
Disagree	27	40.3
Strongly disagree	4	6.0
Total	67	100.0

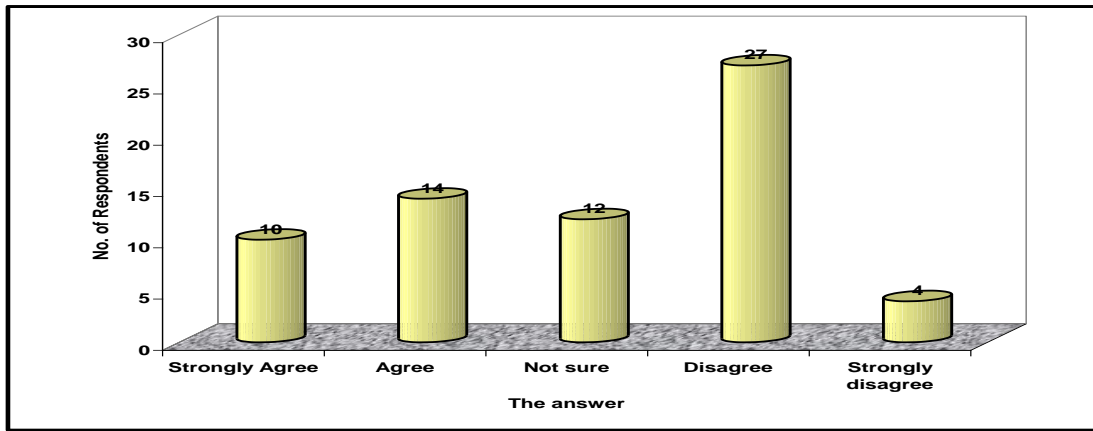


Figure no.(4-20) The frequency distribution for statement no.(11)

It is clear from table no.(4-22) and figure (4-20) that there are (10) persons in the study's sample with percentage (14.9%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can guess how most readers will react to something they have written ". There are (14) persons with percentage (20.0%) have agreed on that, and (12) persons with percentage (17.9%) are not sure about that, and (27) persons with percentage

(40.3%) have disagreed about that, while (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have strongly disagreed about that

Statement No.(12): Your students can adjust something they have written to fit the needs of specific readers.

Table no. (4-23) and figure no.(4-21) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(12).

Table no.(4-23) The frequency distribution for statement no.(12)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	2	3.0
Agree	22	32.8
Not sure	14	20.9
Disagree	25	37.3
Strongly disagree	4	6.0
Total	67	100.0

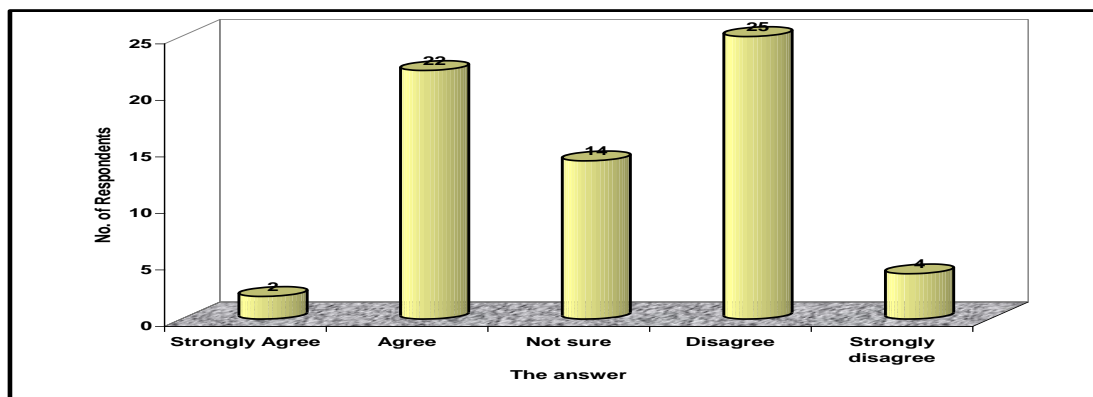


Figure no.(4-20) The frequency distribution for statement no.(11)

It is clear from table no.(4-23) and figure (4-21) that there are (2) persons in the study's sample with percentage (30.0%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can adjust something they have written to fit the needs of specific readers ". There are (22) persons with percentage (32.8%) have agreed on that, and (14) persons with percentage (20.9%) have not sure about that, and (25) persons with percentage (37.3%) have disagreed about that, while (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have strongly disagreed about that

Statement No.(13): Your students can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic.

Table no. (4-24) and figure no.(4-22) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(13).

Table no.(4-24) The frequency distribution for statement no.(13)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	6	9.0
Agree	19	28.4
Not sure	12	17.9
Disagree	26	38.8
Strongly disagree	4	6.0
Total	67	100.0

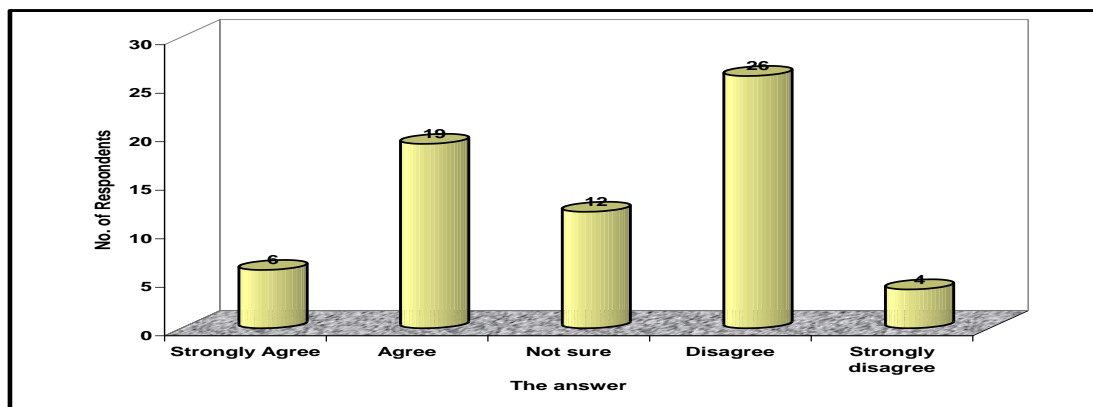


Figure no.(4-20) The frequency distribution for statement no.(11)

It is clear from table no.(4-24) and figure (4-22) that there are (6) persons in the study's sample with percentage (9.0%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic ". There are (19) persons with percentage (28.4%) have agreed on that, and (12) persons with percentage (17.9%) are not sure about that, and (26) persons with percentage (38.8%) have disagreed about that, while (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(14): Your students can write on an assigned topic without difficulty.

Table no. (4-25) and figure no.(4-23) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(14).

Table no.(4-25) The frequency distribution for statement no.(14)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	5	7.5
Agree	12	17.9

Not sure	10	14.9
Disagree	26	38.8
Strongly disagree	4	6.0
Total	67	100.0

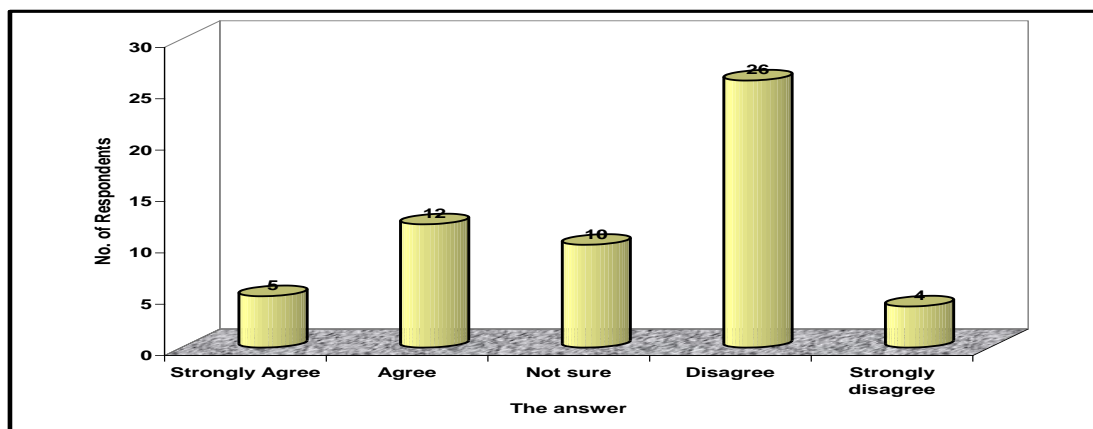


Figure no.(4-23 The frequency distribution for statement no.(14)

It is clear from table no.(4-25) and figure (4-23) that there are (5) persons in the study's sample with percentage (7.5%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can write on an assigned topic without difficulty ". There are (12) persons with percentage (17.9%) have agreed on that, and (10) persons with percentage (38.8%) are not sure about that, and (26) persons with percentage (38.8%) have disagreed about that, while (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(15): Your students can easily find examples to support their ideas.

Table no. (4-26) and figure no.(4-24) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(15).

Table no.(4-26) The frequency distribution for statement no.(15)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	4	6.0
Agree	34	50.7
Not sure	4	6.0
Disagree	21	31.3
Strongly disagree	4	6.0
Total	67	100.0

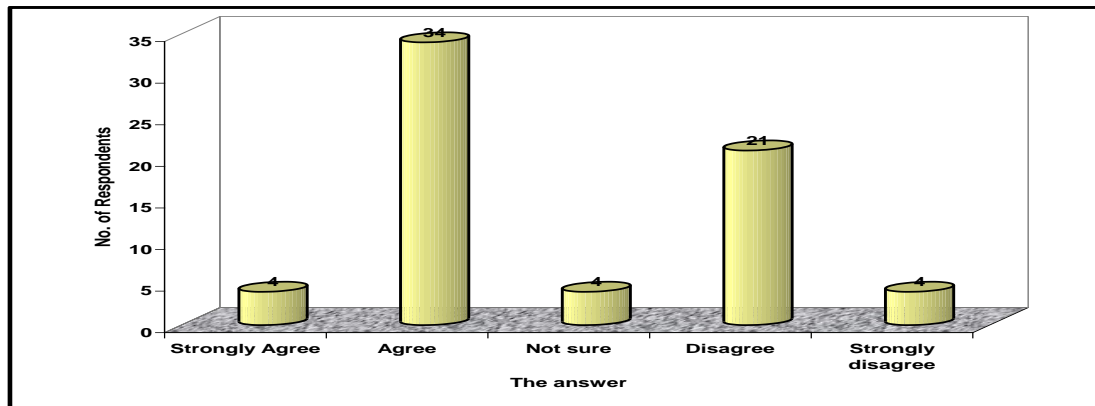


Figure no.(4-24) The frequency distribution for statement no.(15)

It is clear from table no.(4-26) and figure (4-24) that there are (4) persons in the study's sample with percentage (6.0%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can easily find examples to support their ideas ". There are (34) persons with percentage (50.7%) have agreed on that, and (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) are not sure about that, and (21) persons with percentage (31.3%) have disagreed about that, while (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(16): Your students can justify their ideas in their composition.

Table no.(4-27) and figure no.(4-25) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(16).

Table no.(4-27) The frequency distribution for statement no.(16)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	3	4.5
Agree	27	40.3
Not sure	14	20.9
Disagree	20	29.9
Strongly disagree	3	4.5
Total	67	100.0

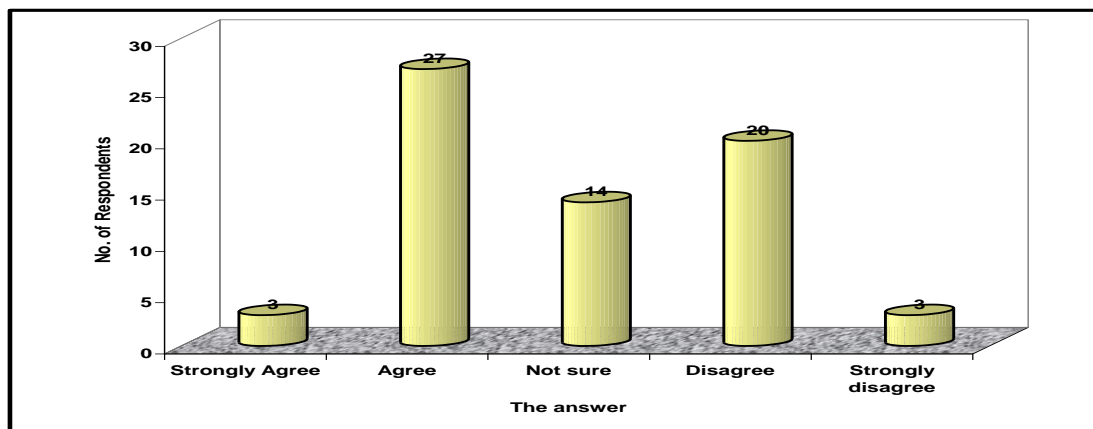


Figure no.(4-25) The frequency distribution for statement no.(16)

It is clear from table no.(4-27) and figure (4-25) that there are (3) persons in the study's sample with percentage (4.5%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can justify their ideas in their composition ". There are (27) persons with percentage (40.3%) have agreed on that, and (14) persons with percentage (20.9%) are not sure about that, and (20) persons with percentage (29.9%) have disagreed about that, while (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(17): Your students can produce error-free structure.

Table no.(4-28) and figure no.(4-26) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(17).

Table no.(4-28) The frequency distribution for statement no.(17)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	10	14.9
Agree	22	32.8
Not sure	10	14.9
Disagree	22	32.8
Strongly disagree	3	4.5
Total	67	100.0

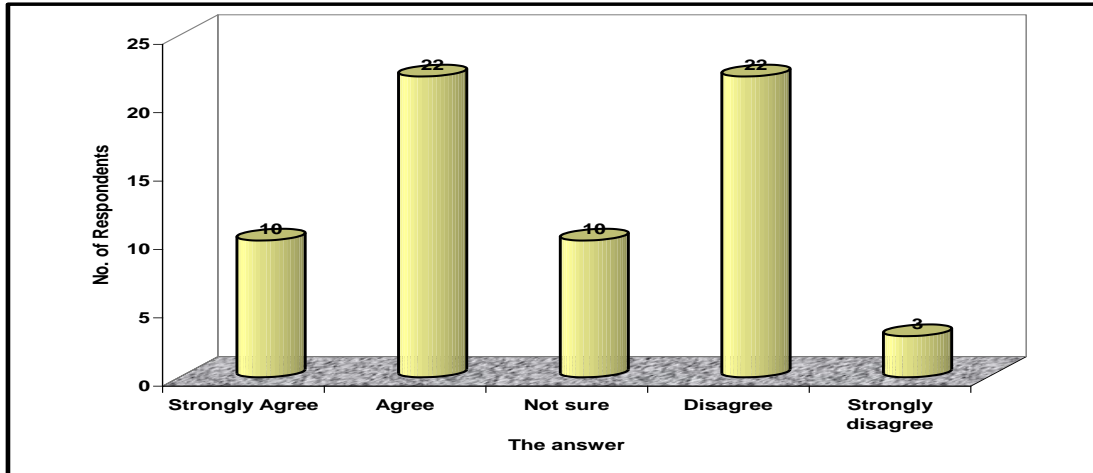


Figure no.(4-26) The frequency distribution for statement no.(17)

It is clear from table no.(4-28) and figure (4-26) that there are (10) persons in the study's sample with percentage (14.9%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can produce error-free structure ". There are (22) persons with percentage (32.8%) have agreed on that, and (10) persons with percentage (14.9%) are not sure about that, and (22) persons with percentage (32.8%) have disagreed about that, while (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(18): Your students can use the punctuation correctly.

Table no.(4-29) and figure no.(4-27) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(18).

Table no.(4-29) The frequency distribution for statement no.(18)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	1	1.5
Agree	19	28.4

Not sure	8	11.9
Disagree	29	43.3
Strongly disagree	10	14.9
Total	67	100.0

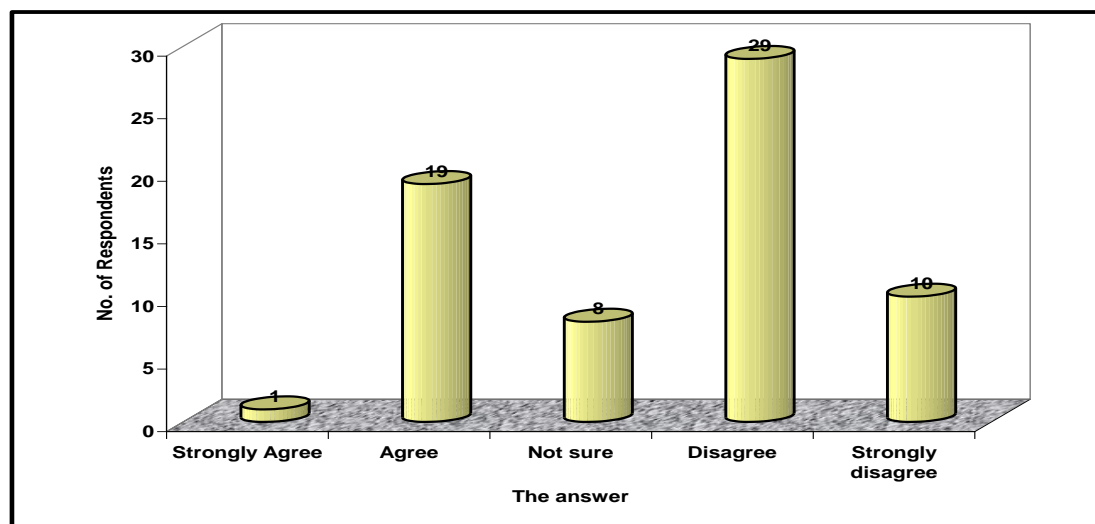


Figure no.(4-27) The frequency distribution for statement no.(18)

It is clear from table no.(4-29) and figure (4-27) that there is only one person in the study's sample with percentage (1.5%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can use the punctuation correctly ". There are (19) persons with percentage (28.4%) have agreed on that, and (8) persons with percentage (11.9%) are not sure about that, and (29) persons with percentage (43.3%) have disagreed about that, while (10) persons with percentage (14.9%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(19): Your students can edit their composition for mistakes such as punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing and spelling.

Table no.(4-30) and figure no.(4-28) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(19).

Table no.(4-30) The frequency distribution for statement no.(19)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	7	10.4
Agree	22	32.8
Not sure	6	9.0
Disagree	25	37.3
Strongly disagree	7	10.4
Total	67	100.0

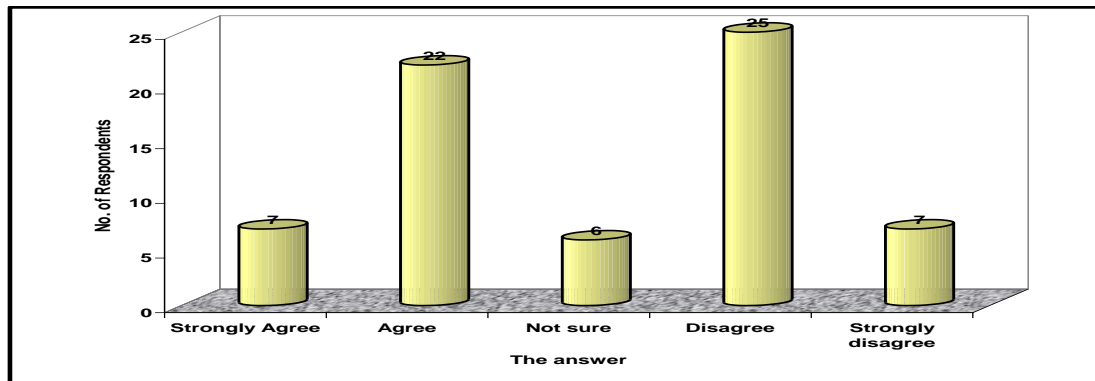


Figure no.(4-28) The frequency distribution for statement no.(19)

It is clear from table no.(4-30) and figure (4-28) that there are (7) persons in the study's sample with percentage (10.4%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can edit their composition for mistakes such as punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing and spelling ". There are (22) persons with percentage (32.8%) have agreed on that, and (6) persons with percentage (9.0%) are not sure about that, and

(25) persons with percentage (37.3%) have disagreed about that, while (10) persons with percentage (14.9%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(20): Your students can easily use structures they have learned in their class accurately.

Table no.(4-31) and figure no.(4-29) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(20).

Table no.(4-31) The frequency distribution for statement no.(20)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	5	7.5
Agree	27	40.3
Not sure	11	16.4
Disagree	20	29.9
Strongly disagree	4	6.0
Total	67	100.0

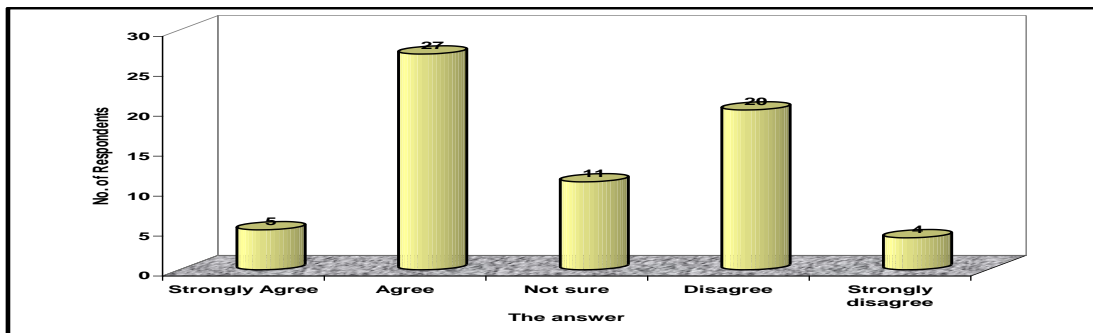


Figure no.(4-29) The frequency distribution for statement no.(20)

It is clear from table no.(4-31) and figure (4-29) that there are (5) persons in the study's sample with percentage (7.5%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can easily use structures they have learned in their class accurately ". There are (27) persons with percentage (40.3%) have agreed on that, and (11) persons with percentage (16.4%) are not sure about that, and (20) persons with percentage (29.9%) have disagreed about that, while (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(21): Your students can easily use structures they have learned in their class accurately.

Table no.(4-32) and figure no.(4-30) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(21).

Table no.(4-32) The frequency distribution for statement no.(21)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	3	4.5
Agree	16	23.9
Not sure	12	17.9
Disagree	29	43.3
Strongly disagree	7	10.4
Total	67	100.0

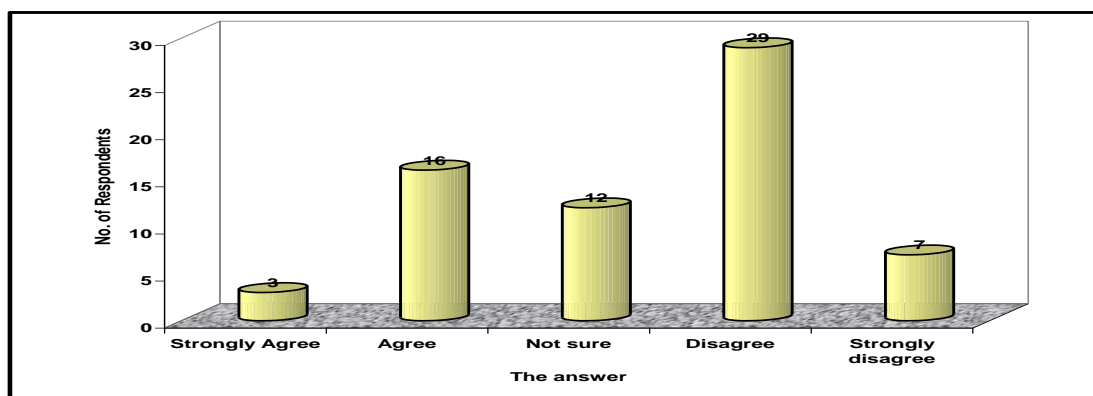


Figure no.(4-29) The frequency distribution for statement no.(20)

It is clear from table no.(4-31) and figure (4-29) that there are (3) persons in the study's sample with percentage (4.5%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can easily use structures they have learned in their class accurately ". There are (16) persons with percentage (23.9%) have agreed on that, and (12) persons with percentage (17.9%) are not sure about that, and (29) persons with percentage (43.3%) have disagreed about that, while (7) persons with percentage (10.4%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(22): Your students can manage their time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing.

Table no.(4-33) and figure no.(4-31) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(22).

Table no.(4-33) The frequency distribution for statement no.(22)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	25	37.3
Agree	11	16.4
Not sure	29	43.3

Disagree	1	1.5
Strongly disagree	1	1.5
Total	67	100.0

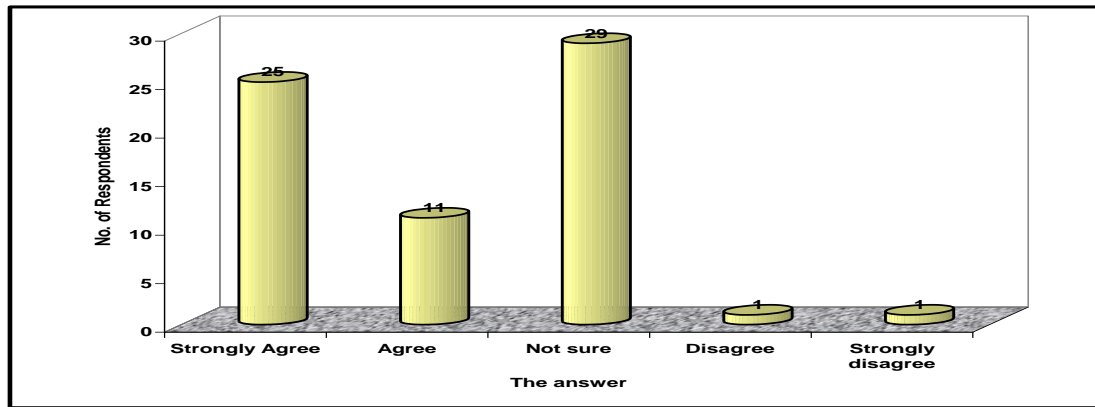


Figure no.(4-31) The frequency distribution for statement no.(22)

It is clear from table no.(4-32) and figure (4-31) that there are (25) persons in the study's sample with percentage (37.3%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can manage their time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing ". There are (11) persons with percentage (16.4%) have agreed on that, and (29) persons with percentage (43.3%) are not sure about that, and only one person with percentage (1.5%) have disagreed about that, while only one person with percentage (1.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(23): Your students notice problems or 'stuck points' in their writing and figure out the causes.

Table no.(4-34) and figure no.(4-32) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(23).

Table no.(4-34) The frequency distribution for statement no.(23)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	5	7.5
Agree	20	29.9
Not sure	18	26.9
Disagree	17	25.4
Strongly disagree	7	10.4
Total	67	100.0

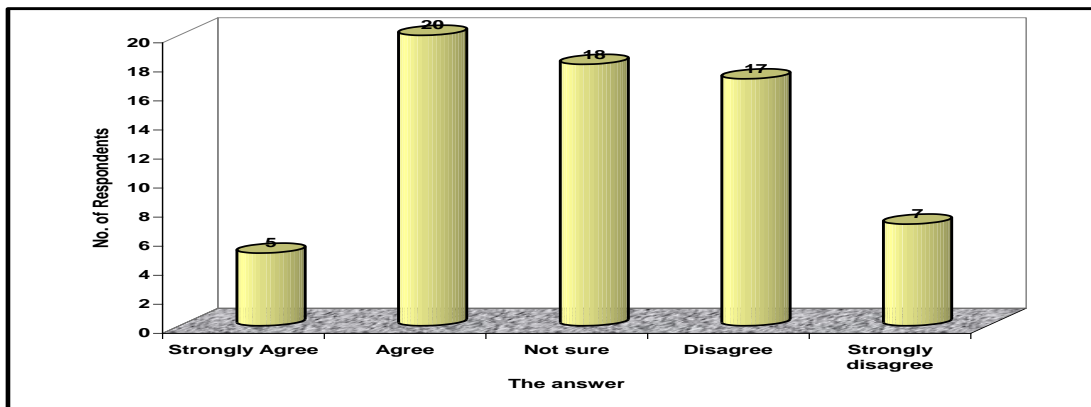


Figure no.(4-32) The frequency distribution for statement no.(22)

It is clear from table no.(4-33) and figure (4-32) that there are (5) persons in the study's sample with percentage (7.5%) have strongly agreed with " Your students notice problems or 'stuck points' in their writing and figure out the causes ". There are (20) persons with percentage (29.9%) have agreed on that, and (18) persons with percentage (26.9%) are not sure about that, and (17) persons with percentage (25.4%) have disagreed about that, while (7) persons with percentage (10.4%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement.(24): Your students make changes in writing about the noticed stuck points.

Table no.(4-35) and figure no.(4-33) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(24).

Table no.(4-35) The frequency distribution for statement no.(24)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	8	11.9
Agree	20	29.9
Not sure	15	22.4
Disagree	19	28.4
Strongly disagree	5	7.5
Total	67	100.0

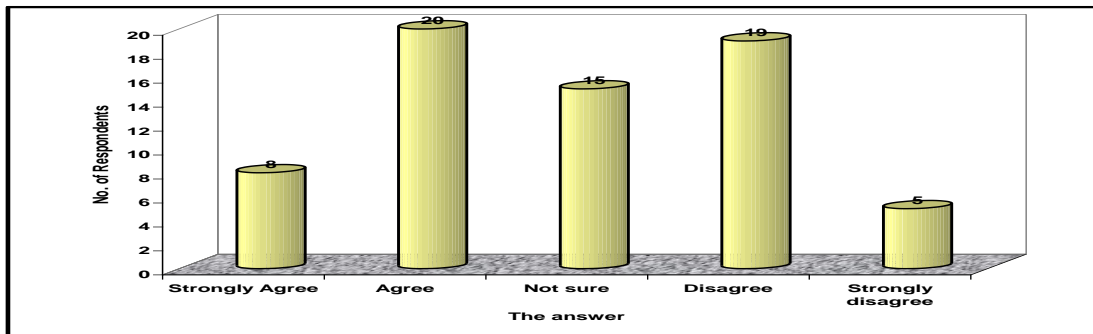


Figure no.(4-33) The frequency distribution for statement no.(24)

It is clear from table no.(4-34) and figure (4-33) that there are (8) persons in the study's sample with percentage (11.9%) have strongly agreed with " Your students make changes in writing about the noticed stuck points ". There are (20) persons

with percentage (29.9%) have agreed on that, and (15) persons with percentage (25.4%) are not sure about that, and (17) persons with percentage (25.4%) have disagreed about that, while (7) persons with percentage (7.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(25): Your students can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about.

Table no.(4-36) and figure no.(4-34) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(25).

Table no.(4-36) The frequency distribution for statement no.(25)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	20	29.9
Agree	37	55.2
Not sure	5	7.5
Disagree	4	6.0
Strongly disagree	1	1.5
Total	67	100.0

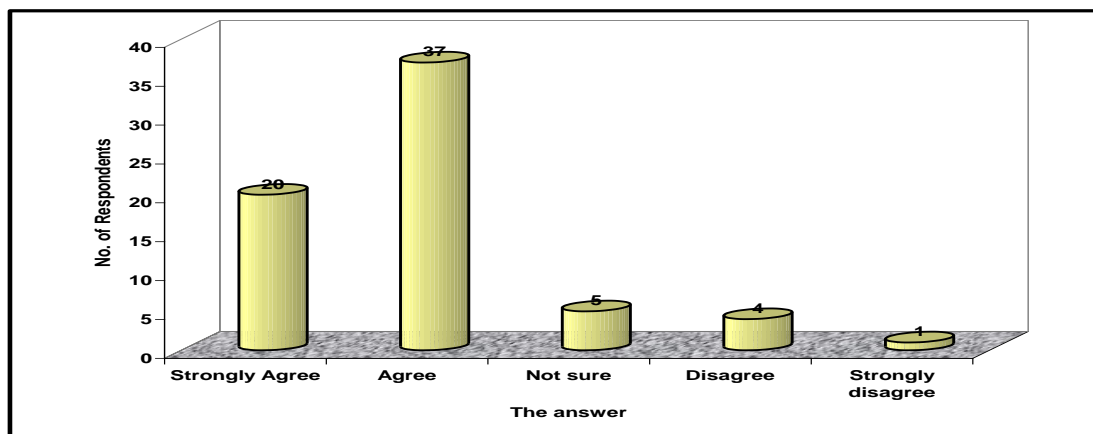


Figure no.(4-34) The frequency distribution for statement no.(25)

It is clear from table no.(4-35) and figure (4-34) that there are (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (29.9%) have strongly agreed with " Your students can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about ". There are (37) persons with percentage (55.2%) have agreed on that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.5%) are not sure about that, and (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have disagreed about that, while only one person with percentage (1.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

4.3.3 Third hypothesis: teachers either do not give feedback or don't give enough feedback about their students' writing

Statement No.(1): You give noncritical feedback – telling your students what you think about their writing.

Table no. (4-36) and figure no.(4-35) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(1).

Table no.(4-36) The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	23	34.3
Agree	32	47.8
Not sure	6	9.0
Disagree	5	7.5
Strongly disagree	1	1.5
Total	67	100.0

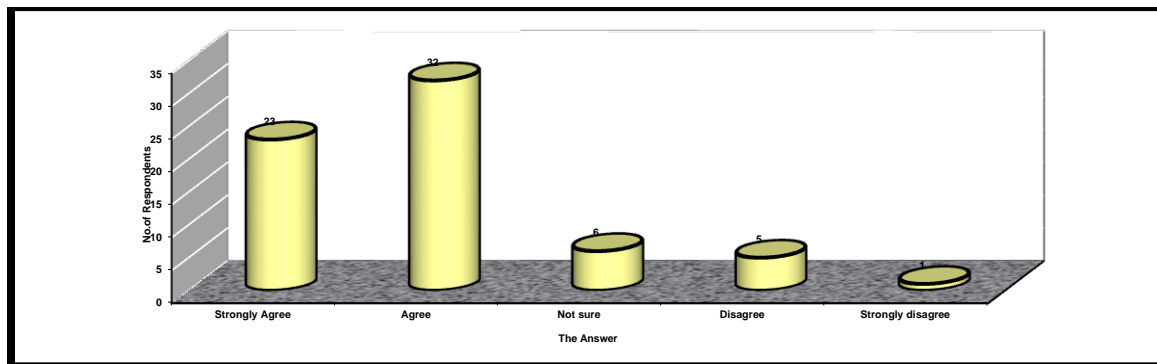


Figure no.(4-35) The frequency distribution for statement no.(1)

It is clear from table no.(4-36) and figure (4-35) that there are (23) persons in the study's sample with percentage (34.3%) have strongly agreed with " You give noncritical feedback – telling your students what you think about their writing ". There are (32) persons with percentage (47.8%) have agreed on that, and (6) persons with percentage (9.0%) are not sure about that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.5%) have disagreed about that, while only one person with percentage (1.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(2): You give your students a 'criterion-based feedback' – telling them how their draft matches up against the most common criteria of good writing.

Table no. (4-37) and figure no.(4-36) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(2).

Table no.(4-36) The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	27	40.3
Agree	32	47.8
Not sure	5	9.0
Disagree	2	3.0
Strongly disagree	1	1.5
Total	67	100.0

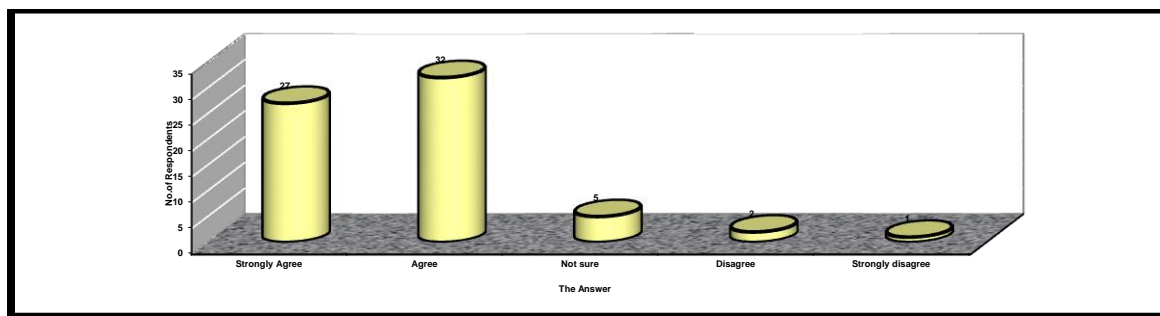


Figure no.(4-35) The frequency distribution for statement no.(2)

It is clear from table no.(4-37) and figure (4-36) that there are (27) persons in the study's sample with percentage (40.3%) have strongly agreed with " You give your students a 'criterion-based feedback' – telling them how their draft matches up

against the most common criteria of good writing ". There are (32) persons with percentage (47.8%) have agreed on that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.5%) are not sure about that, and (2) persons with percentage (3.0%) have disagreed about that, while only one person with percentage (1.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(3): You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding sentence structure.

Table no. (4-38) and figure no.(4-37) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(3).

Table no.(4-37) The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	29	43.3
Agree	30	44.8
Not sure	3	4.5
Disagree	4	6.0
Strongly disagree	1	1.5
Total	67	100.0

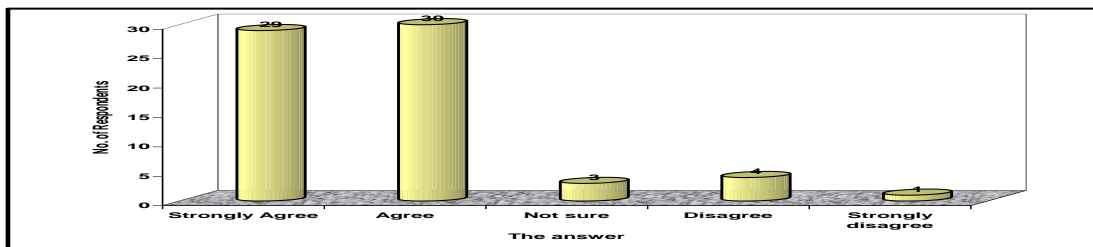


Figure no.(4-37) The frequency distribution for statement no.(3)

It is clear from table no.(4-38) and figure (4-37) that there are (29) persons in the study's sample with percentage (43.3%) have strongly agreed with " You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding sentence structure ". There are (36) persons with percentage (53.7%) have agreed on that, and (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) are not sure about that, and (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have disagreed about that, while only one person with percentage (1.5%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(4): You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding paragraph organization.

Table no. (4-39) and figure no.(4-38) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(4).

Table no.(4-39) The frequency distribution for statement no.(4)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	22	32.8
Agree	36	47.8
Not sure	3	10.4
Disagree	4	11.9
Strongly disagree	2	3.0
Total	67	100.0

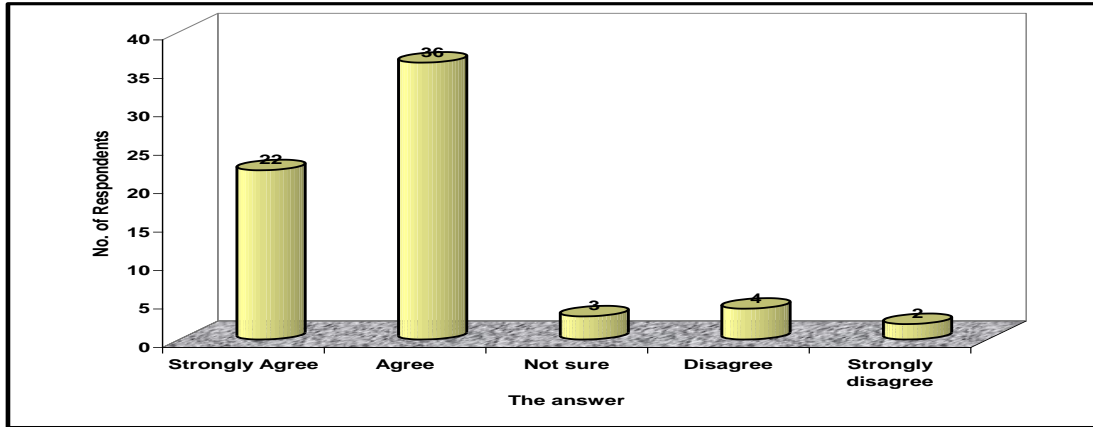


Figure no.(4-38) The frequency distribution for statement no.(4)

It is clear from table no.(4-39) and figure (4-38) that there are (22) persons in the study's sample with percentage (32.8%) have strongly agreed with " You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding paragraph organization ". There are (36) persons with percentage (53.7%) have agreed on that, and (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) are not sure about that, and (4) persons with percentage (6.0%) have disagreed about that, while (2) persons with percentage (3.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Statement No.(5): You give your students feedback about reasons of their mistakes.

Table no. (4-40) and figure no.(4-39) show the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(5).

Table no.(4-40) The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	18	26.9
Agree	32	47.8

Not sure	7	10.4
Disagree	8	11.9
Strongly disagree	2	3.0
Total	67	100.0

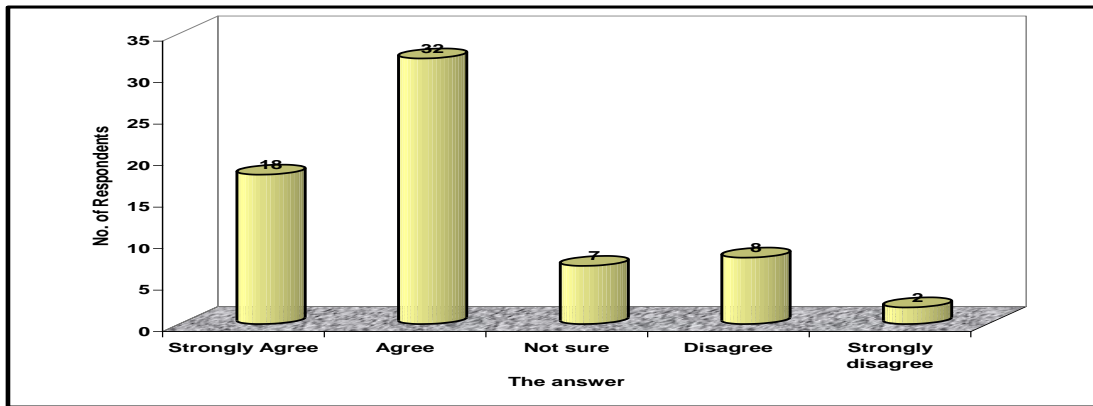


Figure no.(4-39) The frequency distribution for statement no.(5)

It is clear from table no.(4-40) and figure (4-39) that there are (18) persons in the study's sample with percentage (26.9%) have strongly agreed with " You give your students feedback about reasons of their mistakes ". There are (32) persons with percentage (47.8%) have agreed on that, and (7) persons with percentage (10.4%) are not sure about that, and (8) persons with percentage (11.9%) have disagreed about that, while (2) persons with percentage (3.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

4.4 Testing of the Hypotheses

To answer the study's questions and check its hypotheses, the median will be computed for each question from the questionnaire that shows the opinions of the study respondents about the problem of the study. To do that, we will give five

degrees for each answer "strongly agree", four degrees for each answer "agree", three degrees for each answer "not sure", two degrees for each answer "disagree", and one degree for each answer with "strongly disagree". This means, in accordance with the statistical analysis requirements, transformation of nominal variables to quantitative variables. After that, we will use the non-parametric chi-square test to know if there are statistical differences amongst the respondents' answers about hypotheses questions.

4.3.1 Testing of the First Hypothesis

The first hypothesis in this study states the following:

“Students have negative attitudes towards writing descriptive essay.”

The aim of this hypothesis is to show that what is the students attitude to wards the writing. To test this hypothesis, we must know the trend of respondents' opinions about each question from the hypothesis's questions, and for all questions. We compute the median, which is one of the central tendency measures, that uses to describe the phenomena, and it represents the centered answer for all respondents' answers after ascending or descending order for the answers.

Table no.(4-1) The median of the statements of the first hypothesis

No	Question	Median	Result
1	Your students enjoy writing.	2	Disagree
2	Your students think writing sessions are boring.	4	Agree
3	Your students think writing is useful.	4	Agree
4	Your students enjoy sharing with friends a draft of what they have written.	4	Agree

5	Your students attend classes regularly and punctually.	4	Agree
	Overall	4	Agree

From the table (4-1), it has shown that:

- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 1st question is (2). This value means that, most of the respondents' have disagreed with that "Your students enjoy writing".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 2nd question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' agreed with that "Your students think writing sessions are boring".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 3rd question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "Your students think writing is useful".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 4th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "Your students enjoy sharing with friends a draft of what they have written.".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 5th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "Your students attend classes regularly and punctually".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers about the all questions that related to the first hypothesis is (4). This value, in general, means that most of the respondents' have agreed with all what mentioned about the first hypothesis

above results do not mean that all the respondents in the sample have agreed with the questions because as mentioned in the tables from no.(4-7) to no.(4-11) there are some respondents who have disagreed with the questions. So, to test the statistical significance of the differences among the answers of the respondents for the first hypothesis, the chi-square test will be used to indicate the differences for each question of the first hypothesis. Table no.(4-2) explains the results of the test for the questions as follows:

Table no.(4-2)Chi-square test results statements of the first hypothesis

No	Questions	Degree of freedom	Chi-square value
1	Your students enjoy writing.	4	23.07
2	Your students think writing sessions are boring.	4	63.82
3	Your students think writing is useful.	4	45.31
4	Your students enjoy sharing with friends a draft of what they have written.	4	15.46
5	Your students attend classes regularly and punctually.	4	56.36

According to the table, we can demonstrate the results as follows:

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 1st question was (23.07) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-7), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the

respondents, which support the respondents who have disagreed with that “Your students enjoy writing”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 2nd question was (63.82) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-8), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that Your students think writing sessions are boring”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 3rd question was (45.31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(3-9), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that Your students think writing is useful”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 4th question was (15.46) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-12), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students enjoy sharing with friends a draft of what they have written”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 5th question was (56.46) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-11), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have strongly agreed with that “Your students attend classes regularly and punctually”.

From above, we note that the first hypothesis was achieved for each question that related to this hypothesis, and to check the achievement of hypothesis for all questions, we see that the number of the questions is (10), and for each question there is (46) answers, so the total number of answers will be (46) answers. The following table summarizes these answers:

Table no.(4-3) The frequency distribution for statements of the first hypothesis

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	47	14.0
Agree	150	44.8
Not sure	47	14.0
Disagree	72	21.5
Strongly disagree	19	5.7
Total	335	100.0

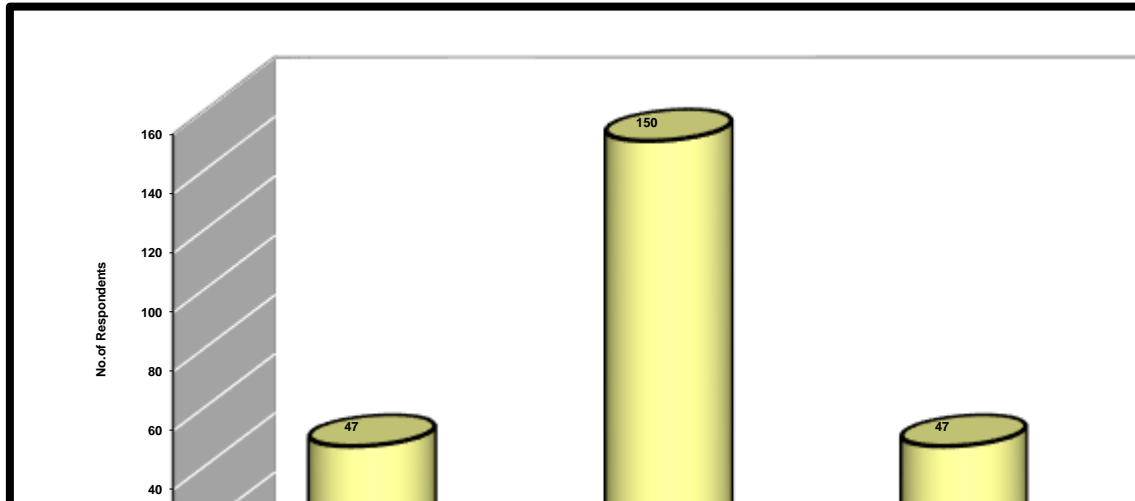


Figure no.(4-1) frequency distribution for statements of the first hypothesis

It is clear from table no.(4-3) and figure (4-1) that there are (47) answers with percentage (14.0%) have strongly agreed about all questions that related to the first hypothesis, (150) answers with percentage (44.8%) have agreed on that, (47) answers with percentage (14.0%) were not sure about that, while (72) answers with percentage (21.5%) have disagreed; also (19) answers with percentage (5.7%) have strongly disagreed about that. The value of chi-square test for the significant differences among these answers was (149.52) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-3), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with the first hypothesis.

From above results, we see that the first hypothesis that states **“Students have negative attitudes towards writing descriptive essay”** is fulfilled.

2- Testing of the Second Hypothesis

The second hypothesis in this study states the following:

“the students' ability before implementation of the program is weak”

The aim of this hypothesis is to show that what is the students writing skills ability before the implementation of the course.

To test this hypothesis, we must know the trend of respondents' opinions about each question from the hypothesis's questions, and for all questions. We compute the median, which is one of the central tendency measures, that used to describe the phenomena, and it represents the centered answer for all respondents' answers after ascending or descending order for the answers.

Table no.(4-4) The median of statements of the second hypothesis

No	Question	Median	Result
1	On a topic of interest, your students can generate lots of words fairly.	4	Agree
2	On a topic of interest, your students can come with ideas or insights they had not thought of earlier.	4	Agree
3	On a topic of not much interest (perhaps an assigned topic), your students can generate lots of words ideas.	4	Agree
4	Your students can come with ideas or insights they'd not thought of before.	4	Agree
5	Your students can revise in the literal sense of "revision"- thus, rethink and change their minds about major things they have said.	4	Agree

6	Your students can find a main point in a mess of their disorganized (first draft) writing.	4	Agree
7	Your students can make a new shape of a piece of their writing which they had previously organized.	4	Agree
8	In their first draft, your students can find problems in their reasoning or logic and straight them out.	4	Agree
9	Your students can make their sentences clear, and they are clear to readers on first reading.	4	Agree
10	Your students can easily edit their writing for contents, thought, and ideas that related to the topic.	4	Agree
11	Your students can guess how most readers will react to something they have written.	2	Disagree
12	Your students can adjust something they have written to fit the needs of specific readers.	2	Disagree
13	Your students can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic.	2	Disagree
14	Your students can write on an assigned topic without difficulty.	2	Disagree
15	Your students can easily find examples to support their ideas.	4	Agree
16	Your students can justify their ideas in their composition.	4	Agree
17	Your students can produce error-free structure.	4	Agree
18	Your students can use the punctuation correctly.	2	Disagree
19	Your students can edit their composition for mistakes such as punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing and spelling.	2	Disagree
20	Your students can easily use structures they have learned in	4	Agree

	their class accurately.		
21	Your students can manage their time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing.	2	Disagree
22	Your students notice problems or 'stuck points' in their writing and figure out the causes.	3	Not sure
23	Your students make changes in writing about the noticed stuck points.	4	Agree
24	Your students can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about.	4	Agree
	Overall	4	Agree

From the table (4-3), it has shown that:

- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 1st question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "On a topic of interest, your students can generate lots of words fairly".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 2nd question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agree with that "On a topic of interest, your students can come with ideas or insights they had not thought of earlier".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 3rd question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "On a topic of not much interest (perhaps an assigned topic), your students can generate lots of words ideas".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 4th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed

with that “Your students can come with ideas or insights they'd not thought of before.”.

- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 5th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have strongly agreed with that “Your students can revise in the literal sense of "revision"-thus, rethink and change their minds about major things they have said”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 6th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have agreed with that “Your students can find a main point in a mess of their disorganized (first draft) writing”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 7th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have agreed with that Your students can make a new shape of a piece of their writing which they had previously organized”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 8th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have agreed with that “In their first draft, your students can find problems in their reasoning or logic and straight them out”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 9th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have agreed with that “Your students can make their sentences clear, and they are clear to readers on first reading”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 10th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have agreed with that “Your students can easily edit their writing for contents, thought,

and ideas that related to the topic”.

- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 11th question is (2). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have disagreed with that “Your students can guess how most readers will react to something they have written”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 12th question is (2). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have disagreed with that “Your students can adjust something they have written to fit the needs of specific readers”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 13th question is (2). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have disagreed with that “Your students can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 14th question is (2). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have disagreed with that “Your students can write on an assigned topic without difficulty”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 15th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have agreed with that “Your students can easily find examples to support their ideas”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 16th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have agreed with that “Your students can justify their ideas in their composition”.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents’ answers of the 17th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents’ have agreed with that “Your students can produce error-free structure”.

- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 18th question is (2). This value means that, most of the respondents' have disagreed with that "Your students can use the punctuation correctly".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 19th question is (2). This value means that, most of the respondents' have disagreed with that "Your students can edit their composition for mistakes such as punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing and spelling".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 20th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "Your students can easily use structures they have learned in their class accurately".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 21th question is (2). This value means that, most of the respondents' have disagreed with that "Your students can manage their time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 22th question is (3). This value means that, most of the respondents' are not sure with that "Your students notice problems or 'stuck points' in their writing and figure out the causes".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 23th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' are not sure with that "Your students make changes in writing about the noticed stuck points".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 24th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' are not sure with that "Your students can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to

write about”.

- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers about the all questions that related to the second hypothesis is (4). This value, in general, means that most of the respondents' have agreed with all what mentioned about the second hypothesis

above results do not mean that all the respondents in the sample have agreed with the questions because as mentioned in the tables from no.(4-18) to no.(4-26) there are some respondents who have disagreed with the questions. So, to test the statistical significance of the differences among the answers of the respondents for the second hypothesis, the chi-square test will be used to indicate the differences for each question of the first hypothesis.

Table no.(4-5) explains the results of the test for the questions as follows:

Table no.(4-5) Chi-square test results for statements of the second hypothesis

No	Questions	Degree of freedom	Chi-square value
1	On a topic of interest, your students can generate lots of words fairly.	4	15.06
2	On a topic of interest, your students can come with ideas or insights they had not thought of earlier.	4	50.36
3	On a topic of not much interest (perhaps an assigned topic), your students can generate lots of words ideas.	4	24.30
4	Your students can come with ideas or insights they'd not thought of before.	4	17.84
5	Your students can revise in the literal sense of "revision"-thus, rethink and change their minds about major things they have said.	4	21.89
6	Your students can find a main point in a mess of their disorganized	4	20.22

	(first draft) writing.		
7	Your students can make a new shape of a piece of their writing which they had previously organized.	4	25.06
8	In their first draft, your students can find problems in their reasoning or logic and straight them out.	4	33.85
9	Your students can make their sentences clear, and they are clear to readers on first reading.	4	39.76
10	Your students can easily edit their writing for contents, thought, and ideas that related to the topic.	4	30.52
11	Your students can guess how most readers will react to something they have written.	4	21.42
12	Your students can adjust something they have written to fit the needs of specific readers.	4	31.88
13	Your students can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic.	4	25.02
14	Your students can write on an assigned topic without difficulty.	4	18.15
15	Your students can easily find examples to support their ideas.	4	55.76
16	Your students can justify their ideas in their composition.	4	18.15
17	Your students can produce error-free structure.	4	33.24
18	Your students can use the punctuation correctly.	4	20.84
19	Your students can edit their composition for mistakes such as punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing and spelling.	4	35.02
20	Your students can easily use structures they have learned in their class accurately.	4	25.76
21	Your students can manage their time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing.	4	29.34

22	Your students notice problems or 'stuck points' in their writing and figure out the causes.	4	29.94
23	Your students make changes in writing about the noticed stuck points.	4	27.95
24	Your students can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about.	4	68.15

According to the table, we can demonstrate the results as follows:

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 1st question was (15.06) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-12), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “On a topic of interest, your students can generate lots of words fairly”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 2nd question was (50.36) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-13), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “On a topic of interest, your students can come with ideas or insights they had not thought of earlier”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 3rd question was (24.30) which is greater

than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-14), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that On a topic of not much interest (perhaps an assigned topic), your students can generate lots of words ideas”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 4th question was (17.84) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-15), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can come with ideas or insights they'd not thought of before”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 5th question was (21.89) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-16), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can revise in the literal sense of "revision"-thus, rethink and change their minds about major things they have said”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 6th question was (20.22) which is greater

than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-17), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can find a main point in a mess of their disorganized (first draft) writing”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 7th question was (25.06) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-18), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can make a new shape of a piece of their writing which they had previously organized”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 8th question was (33.85) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-19), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “In their first draft, your students can find problems in their reasoning or logic and straight them out”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 9th question was (39.76) which is greater

than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-20), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can make their sentences clear, and they are clear to readers on first reading”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 10th question was (30.52) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-20), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can easily edit their writing for contents, thought, and ideas that related to the topic”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 11th question was (21.43) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-21), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can guess how most readers will react to something they have written”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 12th question was (31.88) which is greater

than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-22), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can adjust something they have written to fit the needs of specific readers”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 13th question was (31.88) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-23), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have disagreed with that “Your students can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 13th question was (25.02) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-24), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have disagreed with that “Your students can write on an assigned topic without difficulty”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 14th question was (18.15) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the

significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-25), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have disagreed with that “Your students can easily find examples to support their ideas”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 15th question was (55.76) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-26), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can justify their ideas in their composition”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 16th question was (18.15) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-27), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can produce error-free structure”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 17th question was (33.24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-28), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the

respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “Your students can produce error-free structure”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 18th question was (20.84) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-29), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have disagreed with that “Your students can use the punctuation correctly”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 19th question was (35.02) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-30), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have disagreed with that “Your students can edit their composition for mistakes such as punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing and spelling”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 20th question was (25.76) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-31), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have disagreed with that

“Your students can easily use structures they have learned in their class accurately”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 21th question was (29.34) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-32), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who are not sure about that “Your students can manage their time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 22th question was (29.94) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-33), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who are not sure about that “Your students can manage their time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 23th question was (27.95) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-34), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the

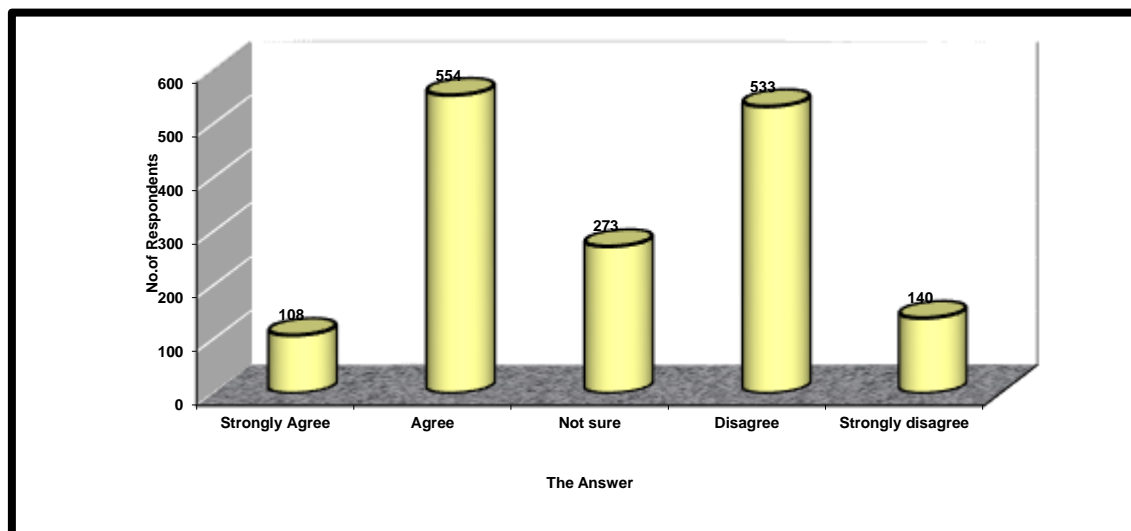
respondents, which support the respondents who are not sure about that “Your students make changes in writing about the noticed stuck points”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 24th question was (27.95) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-35), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who are not sure about that “Your students can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about”.

From above, we note that the second hypothesis was achieved for each question that related to this hypothesis, and to check the achievement of hypothesis for all questions, we see that the number of the questions is (24), and for each question there is (67) answers, so the total number of answers will be (1608) answers. The following table summarizes these answers:

Table no.(4-6) The frequency distribution for statements of the second hypothesis

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	108	6.7
Agree	554	34.5
Not sure	273	16.10
Disagree	533	33.1
Strongly disagree	140	8.7
Total	1608	100.0



Figure

no.(4-2) frequency distribution for statements of the second hypothesis

It is clear from table no.(4-6) and figure (4-2) that there are (108) answers with percentage (23.9%) were strongly agreed about all questions that related to the second hypothesis, (554) answers with percentage (34.5%) were agreed on that, (273) answers with percentage (16.10%) were fairly agreed about that, while (533) answers with percentage (33.1%) were disagreed; also (140) answers with percentage (8.7%) were strongly disagreed about that. The value of chi-square test for the significant differences among these answers was (544.69) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-6), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with the second hypothesis.

From above results, we see that the second hypothesis that states “**the students' ability before implementation of the program is weak**” is not fulfilled.

4.3.3 Testing of the Third Hypothesis

The third hypothesis in this study states the following:

“Teachers either do not give feed back or don't give enough feedback about the writing of their students”.

The aim of this hypothesis is to know whether teachers give enough feedback for their students after writing process or not.

To test this hypothesis, we must know the trend of respondents' opinions about each question from the hypothesis's questions, and for all questions. We compute the median, which is one of the central tendency measures, that used to describe the phenomena, and it represents the centered answer for all respondents' answers after ascending or descending order for the answers.

Table no.(4-7)The median of statements of the third hypothesis

No	Question	Median	Result
1	You give noncritical feedback – telling your students what you think about their writing.	4	Agree
2	You give your students a 'criterion-based feedback' – telling them how their draft matches up against the most common criteria of good writing	4	Agree
3	You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding sentence structure	4	Agree
4	You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding paragraph organization	4	Agree
5	You give your students feedback about reasons of their mistakes.	4	Agree

	Overall	4	Agree
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From the table (4-7), it has shown that:

- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 1st question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "You give noncritical feedback – telling your students what you think about their writing".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 2nd question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "You give your students a 'criterion-based feedback' – telling them how their draft matches up against the most common criteria of good writing".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 3rd question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding sentence structure".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 4th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agree with that "You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding paragraph organization.".
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers of the 5th question is (4). This value means that, most of the respondents' have agreed with that "You give your students feedback about reasons of their mistakes.
- The calculated value of the median for the respondents' answers about the all questions that related to the third hypothesis is (4). This value, in general, means that most of the respondents' have agreed with all what mentioned about the third hypothesis

above results do not mean that all the respondents in the sample have agreed with the questions because as mentioned in the tables from no.(4-36) to no.(3-40) there are some respondents who have disagreed with the questions. So, to test the statistical significance of the differences among the answers of the respondents for the third hypothesis, the chi-square test will be used to indicate the differences for each question of the third hypothesis. Table no.(4-8) explains the results of the test for the questions as follows:

Table no.(4-8)Chi-square test of statements of the third hypothesis

No	Questions	Degree of freedom	Chi-square value
1	You give noncritical feedback – telling your students what you think about their writing.	4	53.52
2	You give your students a 'criterion-based feedback' – telling them how their draft matches up against the most common criteria of good writing	4	66.06
3	You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding sentence structure	4	64.87
4	You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding paragraph organization	4	68.00
5	You give your students feedback about reasons of their mistakes.	4	42.33

According to the table, we can demonstrate the results as follows:

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 1st question was (18.07) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what

mentioned in table no.(4-36), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that You give noncritical feedback – telling your students what you think about their writing”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 2nd question was (66.06) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (3) and the significant value level (1%) which was (11.34). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-37), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “You give your students a 'criterion-based feedback' – telling them how their draft matches up against the most common criteria of good writing”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 3rd question was (64.87) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-38), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding paragraph organization”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 4th question was (68.00) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-39), this indicates that, there are statistically

significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding paragraph organization”.

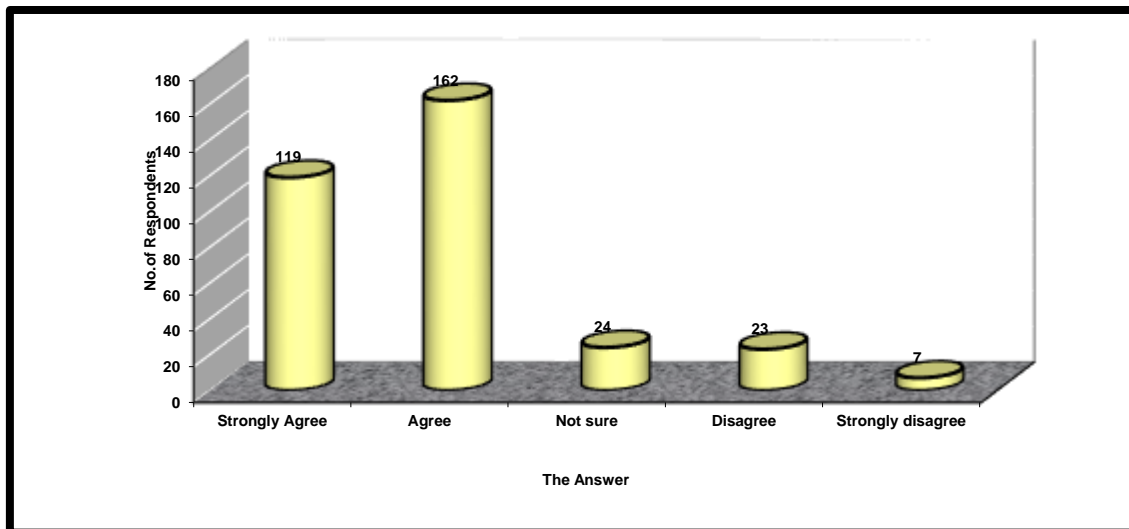
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the 5th question was (42.33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (3) and the significant value level (1%) which was (11.34). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-40), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with that “You give your students feedback about reasons of their mistakes”.

From above, we note that the third hypothesis was achieved for each question that related to this hypothesis, and to check the achievement of hypothesis for all questions, we see that the number of the questions is (5), and for each question there is (67) answers, so the total number of answers will be (335) answers. The following table summarizes these answers:

Table no.(4-9) The frequency distribution for statements of the third hypothesis

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	119	35.5
Agree	162	48.4
Not sure	24	7.2
Disagree	23	6.9
Strongly disagree	7	2.1

Total	335	100.0
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Figure

no.(4-3) frequency distribution for statements of the third hypothesis

It is clear from table no.(4-9) and figure (4-3) that there are (119) answers with percentage (35.5%) were strongly agreed with all questions that related to the third hypothesis, (162) answers with percentage (48.4%) were agreed with that, (24) answers with percentage (7.2%) were fairly agreed about that, while (23) answers with percentage (6.9%) were disagreed; also (7) answers with percentage (2.1%) were strongly disagreed about that. The value of chi-square test for the significant differences among these answers was (285.28) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-9), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with the third hypothesis.

From above results, we see that the third hypothesis that states “**Teachers either do not give feed back or don't give enough feedback about the writing of their students**” is not fulfilled.

4.4 Pre-and post-test Analysis

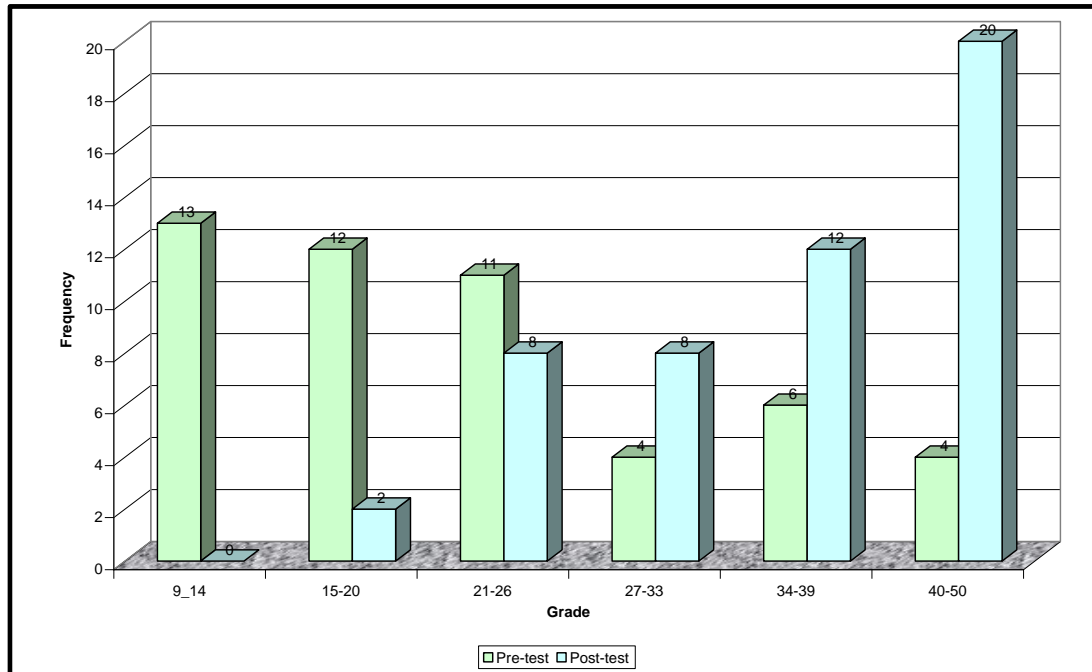
The test was conducted before and after the manipulation of the profram. Through the usage of this pretest and postest, the researcher aims to find answers to the following question

- 1/ what are the writing problems found in the students’ descriptive essay?
- 2/ to what extend using progressive writing program enhance students' descriptive writing?
- 3/ is there any significant relationship between using remedial progressive writing program and the development on the students’ descriptive writing?

Table (4.1) Descriptive analysis for pre-test and post- test

Grade	Pre		Post	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
9-14	13	26.0	0	0.0
15-20	12	24.0	2	4.0
21-26	11	22.0	8	16.0
27-33	4	8.0	8	16.0
34-39	6	12.0	12	24.0
40-50	4	8.0	20	40.0

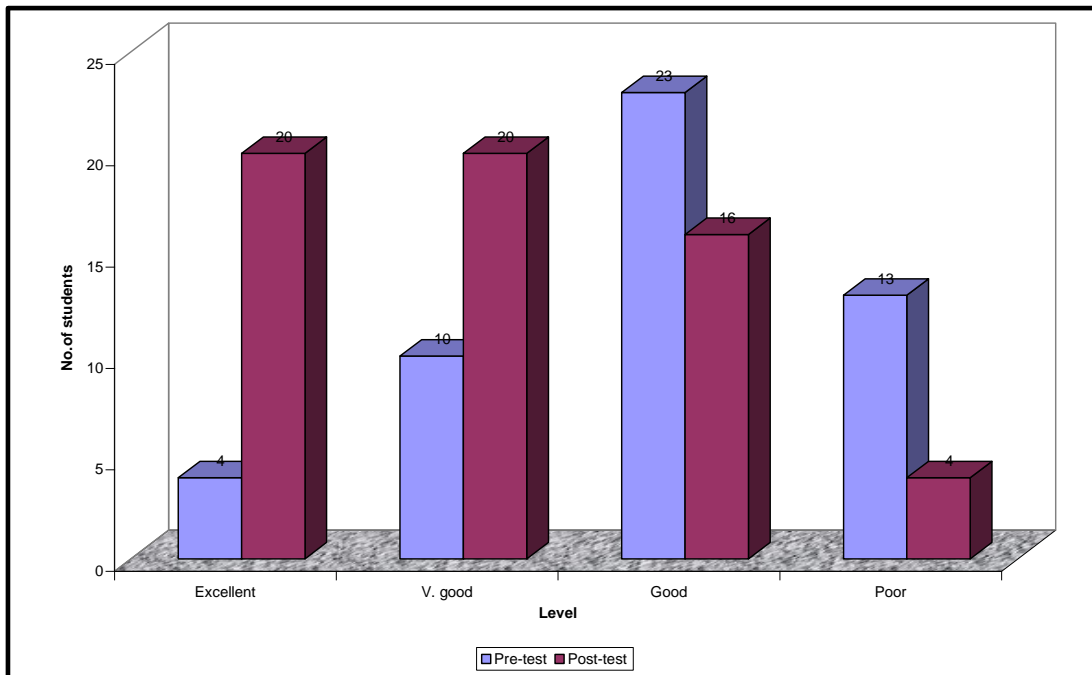
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0
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We note from the table (4-1) and the figure (4-1), shows. The respondent's number whom they have grade between (9-14) was (13) students with percentage (26.0), the respondent's number whom they have grade between (15-20) was (12) students with percentage (24.0), while (11) students with percentage (22.0) have grade between (21-26) students, grade between (27-33) was (4) students with percentage (8.0), grade between (34-39) was (6) students with percentage (12.0). In addition the have grade between (16-20) was (4) student with percentage (8.0) for pre group. For post the respondent's number whom they have grade between (15-20) was (2) student with percentage (4.0), the respondent's number whom they have grade between (21-26) was (8) students with percentage (16.0), while (8) students with percentage (16.0) have grade between (27-33) students, while (12) students with percentage (24.0) have grade between (34-39) students. In addition the have grade between (40-50) was (20) student with percentage (40.0).

Table (4.3) Frequency distribution of the students' pre- test and post test.

Group	Level			
	Excellent	V. good	Good	Poor
Pre-test	4	10	23	13
Post-test	20	20	16	4



4.4.1. Testing the Study Hypotheses

The first hypothesis in this study state the following:

"There are some problems as spelling, grammar, sentence structure, and organizations in the students' descriptive essay".

Table no.(4.20): Different between pre & post test

Test	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-value	P-value
Pre	22.94	10.42	-12.378	0.000
Post	35.40	8.62		

From above table, it is clear that:

The P-value of T-test (0.000) is less than significant level (0.05) that mean there is statistical difference between pre test and post test for post test. This indicates the following:

- 1/ The remedial progressive program has a bi grole in solving the problems found the students writing which appeared in the pretest
- 2/ That the remedial progressive writing program has positive impact on the students' writing performance.
- 3/ There is a correlation between the remedial progressive writing program and the development on the descriptive writing performance.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter gives the discussions of the data of the study in details. It discusses the results based on the hypotheses mentioned earlier in this study, build the discussion on the tables and figures shown above. It goes through every point presenting, discussing, explaining, and proving.

CHPATER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 summary

The study aims at finding out whether there is an enhancement on the writing performance of Aljouf university students after applying a progressive writing intervention. To achieve this aim, the researcher adopted two instruments to collect the intended data for the study. The first instrument was the questionnaire for the instructor of the students, and the second instrument was the pretest post test for the students who are the subject of the study.

The questionnaire took place at the beginning of the second semester of the academic year 2017\2018, to provide information about the instructor personal information, qualifications, the attitudes of the students' towards writing, students' abilities before the implementation of the intervention, and the feedback given by the instructors for the students after writing sessions.

The pretests posttest which was the second instrument took place at the beginning and the end of the second semester respectively. The purpose behind applying the pretest posttest was to find whether there is a correlation between the students performance before and after the implementation of the progressive writing intervention. The results of the pretest posttest altogether collected, computed and analysed to find whether there is an improvement on the students' performance.

Depending on the results of the collected and analysed data using the instruments mentioned above, the researcher finds answers and justification for the questions

and hypotheses of the study, the researcher also provides the findings and interpret them due to the results appeared.

5.1 Findings of the Study

The findings of this study will be provided in the following:

- Although in some points of the questions regarding the first hypothesis, most of the answers agree with the ideas, writing is useful and students sharing of the ideas concerning writing, the overall result of the hypothesis show that students have negative attitudes towards writing, this fact is supported by the quality of the writing done by the students in the pretest posttest. The students writing is very weak which indicates their attitude and the way students think about writing.
- The study also showed that students have good ability to write descriptive essay, the matter which rejected by the pretest and posttest marks. The results of the students in the pretest and posttest showed that students ability is weak before the implementation of the remedy course, so the questionnaire result might not reflect the reality and the level of the students, that might happen because of the bias answers of the instructors, misunderstanding of the items, or the carelessness of some respondents. Anyway the results of the test do not agree with the result of the questionnaire regarding the students' ability.
- Although the study showed that teachers give good feedback to their students after writing sessions, the results of the students' work disprove that. If teachers give good feedback to their students, their writing is supposed to be good, and their results will be high, the matter which did not happen. The answers of the teachers in this regard can be ascribed to the

previous knowledge that part of teachers job is to give feedback to their students which – the researcher thinks – affect the respondents' answers.

- There is a remarkable and significant enhancement on the students' descriptive essay writing, this clearly appeared in the students' marks; the students' marks in the posttest are mostly higher than the pretest marks. There is a correlation between the pretest and posttest results. This indicates that the study achieved its objectives.
- The pretest and posttest cover different aspects of writing: spelling, grammar, sentence structure, and organizations in the students' descriptive essay, and the study showed a very good and remarkable development concerning this side. The remedial progressive program has a big role in solving the problems found in the students' pretest writing.
- There is a significant correlation between the pretest and posttest and that is clear in the marks of both.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the researcher recommends the following:

- The students' attitude towards writing is negative, so students need to be motivated towards writing, given better sessions and supported to enhance their attitude.
- Progressive writing session and interventions are highly needed and overgeneralised specially for the first levels, to get the required development on the students' writing ability.
- Giving feedback is a part of teachers' job, so Instructors should concentrate on giving more feedback to their students and follow them up.

- Instructors should run the whole writing process in the class, monitor their students, give and check assignments.
- Questionnaire items are very important in answering the questions of the study, so monitoring and explaining the items for respondents while answering the questionnaire, is of great importance.
- Students' abilities of the same level are sometimes different so considering this point is very important while designing pretest posttest.

5.4 Suggestions for further studies

- Students, curriculum and teaching approaches are the most components of learning process that should have more interest and concerns. Therefore the study suggests that these aspects should be studied and tackled deeply.
- Since the study focused on descriptive essay writing and attitudes of the students towards writing, other types of writing need to be studied, so the study suggest running some researches on argumentative, expository, narrative essay writing and others. In addition to that, the study also suggests focusing on other aspects that have effect on writing rather than attitude.
- Generally the students' writing is poor, so the need for enhancing and developing it seem very urgent and necessary. Further studies on this regard will important and of promising results.

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Appendix A

Progressive Writing

Time: 1-3

Student's name

Question One: Correct the spelling of the following words.

freindly.....diferent.....
chellanging.....Devirse.....
prestegiuous.....abraod.....
intreacting.....expinseve.....
empourtint.....signefecent

Question Two: put the following words in the correct order.

1\ neighbor / delicate/ plants / flower / My

.....

2\ Free/ smells/ These / are, but/ for /price.

.....

3\ field /A walk /the /in /can /exciting/ be

.....

4\ I /see /always /people /when/ I /walk /interesting

.....

5\ suburban/ My/ / is/ big/ apartment/ sunny

.....

6\ room/ painted/ I/ a pale/ my/ blue

.....

7\ men/ are/ Rich/ generous

.....

8\ is/ a graceful/ Tany/ dancer

.....

9\ walked/Mariam/ with/ little/ her/ sister

.....

10\ were/ painting/ happily/ children/ pictures/ colorful.

.....

Question Three; Organize the following into the correct order to make a descriptive paragraph.

1It is a day for families to celebrate together.

2.....For this meal, most families eat many traditional foods such as Kabsa or Fakhtha bel Laban (leg of lamb with yoghurt).

3.....Everyone eats more than usual, and at the end of the day, we are all stuffed (full) with delicious food.

4.....On EidulFitr, Muslims all over the world pray Salal Eid in large congregations.

5.....The most important activity on this day is praying and giving charity to the poor.

Question Four: Give appropriate answers for the following questions.

1\ What is the weather like today?

.....

2\ What does your friend look like?

.....
3\ How was the film you watched last night?

.....
4\ What color and kind of your mobile phone?

.....
5\ How often do you play football?

.....
Question Five: In not less than 200 words, write a descriptive essay on the following topic:

(My Home Town)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Appendix B

Questionnaire

Background about the instructors:

- 1) Academic qualification: a) BA B) MA c) PhD
- 2) Age: a) 30-40 B) 40- 50 c) 50 -60
- 3) Experience in teaching writing: a) 1-5 years B) 5-10 years c) above 10 years
- 4) Your employment status: a) fulltime B) part time
- 5) Are you specialized in ELT: a) yes B) No c) partially

Answer guide.

Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Section 1: Students attitude toward learning writing.

6	Your students enjoy writing.					
7	Your students think writing sessions are boring.					
8	Your students think writing is useful.					
9	Your students enjoy sharing with friends a draft of what they have written.					
10	Your students attend classes regularly and punctually.					
11	Your students submit assignment in time and enquire about feedback.					

Section 2: Students' writing ability before the implementation of the course.

12	On a topic of interest, your students can generate lots of words fairly.					
13	On a topic of interest, your students can come with ideas or insights they had not thought of earlier.					
14	On a topic of not much interest (perhaps an assigned topic), your students can generate lots of words ideas.					
15	Your students can come with ideas or insights they'd not thought of before.					
16	Your students can revise in the literal sense of "revision"-thus, rethink and change their minds about major things they have said.					
17	Your students can find a main point in a mess of their disorganized (first draft) writing.					
18	Your students can make a new shape of a piece of their writing which they had previously					

	organized.						
19	In their first draft, your students can find problems in their reasoning or logic and straight them out.						
20	Your students can make their sentences clear, and they are clear to readers on first reading.						
21	Your students can easily edit their writing for contents, thought, and ideas that related to the topic.						
22	Your students can guess how most readers will react to something they have written.						
23	Your students can adjust something they have written to fit the needs of specific readers.						
24	Your students can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic.						
25	Your students can write on an assigned topic without difficulty.						
26	Your students can easily find examples to support their ideas.						
27	Your students can justify their ideas in their composition.						
28	Your students can produce error-free structure.						
29	Your students can use the punctuation correctly.						
30	Your students can edit their composition for mistakes such as punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing and spelling.						
31	Your students can easily use structures they have learned in their class accurately.						
32	Your students can manage their time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing.						
33	Your students notice problems or 'stuck points' in their writing and figure out the causes.						
34	Your students make changes in writing about the noticed stuck points.						
35	Your students can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about.						

Section 3: Teachers' Feedback on Students' Writing.

36	You give noncritical feedback – telling your students what you think about their writing.						
37	You give your students a 'criterion-based feedback' – telling them how their draft matches up against the most common criteria of good writing.						
38	You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding sentence structure.						
39	You give your students a detailed feedback on their writing regarding paragraph organization.						
40	You give your students feedback about reasons of their mistakes.						