

**Mersin Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü**

**Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi
İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü**

74192

**THE EFFECTS OF THE PROCESS APPROACH TO TEACHING
WRITING ON TURKISH STUDENTS' WRITING SKILLS AND
OVERALL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY IN EFL**

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**T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM VE ARAŞTIRMA
BİLİM VE TEKNOLOJİ BAKANLIĞI
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**

Mersin

Eylül, 1998

Mersin Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne,

Bu çalışma jürimiz tarafından Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı

Anabilim Dalında YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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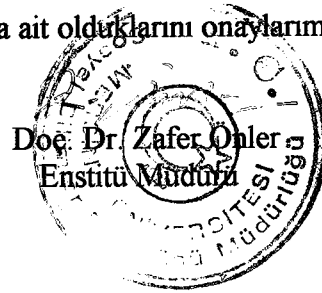
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Onay

Yukarıdaki imzaların, adı geçen öğretim elemanlarına ait olduklarını onaylarım.

10/09/1998



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am very grateful particularly to my thesis advisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özler Çakır for her invaluable guidance throughout this research.

I am also thankful to Prof. Dr. Ayhan Sezer for his constructive criticism of my selection of the research question.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ertuğrul Gödelek never turned me down in my requests for data analyses of the tests administered, so I would like to thank him here.

I am also indebted to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mustafa Aksan, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yeşim Aksan, of the English Department for their general advice in my studies.

I am very pleased to have prepared a thesis with my master group, Amil Özden, Mehmet Ulu, Filiz Yakupoğlu and Vildan Özdemir.

My thanks are also due to my wife and children for their endless patience during my work.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

In many schools where English is intensively taught such as Anadolu Lisesi and Süper Lise, which recently appeared here and there, writing classes are either absent or do not receive the adequate interest that they deserve. Unaware of writing as a mode of learning (Emig 1988) and as a perfect way of retention of linguistic information (Byrne 1988), English teachers persistently teach grammar usually in a linear fashion rather than as a cyclic process.

What prompted us to conduct this research was a 7-year-long observation of the students in the preparatory and upper classes of Mersin Anadolu Dış Ticaret Meslek Lisesi. Even though the prep students receive 18 grammar, 4 speaking, 2 writing and 4 seminar classes a week, neither in speaking nor writing lessons do the students express themselves accurately, fluently and appropriately. What the students acquire in grammar lessons abundantly remain as linguistic raw material that should be processed in speaking and writing classes. Unauthentic speaking lessons involving only sentential work dependent on the course book and unproductive writing lessons represented only by reading and talking about pictures and sometimes writing a single draft cannot provide an atmosphere where natural linguistic improvement and retention occur.

While choosing the process approach to writing as our experimental variable, our purpose was not only to teach writing effectively but rather to see to what extent writing with this approach helps students to improve their overall English

proficiency and to retain their existing cumulative linguistic knowledge. We thought process writing would act as a linguistic web converging all the language skills where the students would be using the language contextually and communicatively.

Our expectation that the process approach to writing will significantly affect the overall language proficiency of the students is linked with the connection between writing, speaking, reading, grammar and vocabulary. Writing and reading have a reciprocal relationship, so improvement in one of them leads to improvement in the other (Williams 1989) and in order for this relationship to occur, reading and writing should be developed in close collaboration (Byrne 1988). Writing naturally reinforces grammar and vocabulary (Pereira 1991) and enables students to acquire new structures and lexical items while the teacher is responding and giving feedback to student drafts. Peer edition and feedback strategies becoming activated in well organized student groups in the process approach are highly effective in grammar, vocabulary and writing improvement.

In the prep classes of our school, writing classes take up only 2 hours of the total 28 language classes a week. Combined with other detrimental factors, these writing classes are rather useless, boring and therefore unproductive. The small number of the writing lessons in the prep classes, dominantly pictorial writing course books and ineffective product-oriented approaches to writing employed by some indifferent teachers set the stage for the fact that the students benefit almost nothing fruitful from these writing lessons. By employing a process approach to the teaching of writing we attempted to create a language milieu where the students could use their ever-accumulating linguistic knowledge in meaningful contexts, correct their

erroneous knowledge through student-teacher and student-student interactions, and learn more things than the control group at the lexical, grammatical, writing and reading levels.

As Raimes (1983) points out, systematic teaching of writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms and vocabulary, thus helping our students to learn. In our case, writing with a process approach is regarded as a remedy both for reinforcing the grammar points being currently taught and for the students to retain their already existing, previous language knowledge. It is generally observed that students' temporary mastery of individual grammar points taught in a linear fashion does not suffice to equip them with a lasting linguistic proficiency unless they have the opportunities to practice them in the language learning process through writing or speaking. We do not regard writing as a way of reinforcing individual grammar points currently being taught in any unit or a separate lesson. This is what we see in audiolinguistic view. We look upon writing as a means of retaining the whole amount of language acquired up to a certain time and thus known at that time. We believe that writing is the best way for students to re-activate all the huge dormant volcanos of knowledge that they have built up in their mental storage up to a certain time. Our purpose is to show that suprasentential writing, if frequently done, retrieves bytes of linguistic knowledge to an easily accessible part of our memory, and keeps them there in the short-term memory ready to use for a longer time they would stay without writing, thus preventing them from becoming dormant in the remote parts of the memorial structure of the brain. About the fact that writing takes the language as a

whole, Raimes (1983) suggests that sentence level grammar instruction for language teaching deals with bits of language, whereas suprasentential or discourse level writing and reading work focuses on language as a whole. Writing will develop in the learners a higher capacity for contextualisation and coherence in their use of the language being taught. This implies that better contextualisation and coherence generated with the improvement of writing skills are something connected with proficiency and fluency in language as a whole rather than with individual bits of grammar knowledge possessed by students.

We chose the process approach to writing for the treatment since we think it goes well with our expectations of this research. Our choice of the process approach as a method to employ in the writing classes of the experimental group is naturally based on recent researches. Current studies in reading and writing theory have shown that the *process* is more important than the teaching of language points in unconnected and isolated sentences in a linear fashion (Celce-Murcia and Hilles, 1988; Zamel, 1983;). The process approach to writing not only offers a perfect method for the students to improve their writing skills but also develop their grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension levels simultaneously. The obvious benefits of prewriting activities are another reason for our choice of this approach to writing instruction. During these various activities all language skills are intensively used to activate students' linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge and to fill each other's content schemata to write efficiently. In this way extensive comprehensible input is provided for the students during these communicative activities, for they read, speak and write a lot (Pica, 1986). All this fosters writing fluency.

Recent research into language teaching has shown that it is impossible to teach a language effectively without skill integration (Chastain 1988, Byrne 1988, McDonough and Shaw 1993). Skill integration can be defined as teaching the language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking in conjunction with each other just as it naturally occurs in life outside the classroom. Nevertheless, many teachers continue to persistently teach dominantly grammar throughout the intensive language courses of prep classes in Turkish Anatolian high schools. In the upper classes nothing such as writing and speaking is witnessed. Chastain (1988) suggests that teachers should always seek to integrate as many of the four skills as possible into the language teaching process. To make language teaching as effective as possible, Byrne (1988: 6) argues that "exposure to the foreign language through more than one medium, especially if skills are properly integrated, appears to be more effective than relying on a single medium alone." Byrne (1988) also states that using the same technique during the writing lesson proves to be boring and demotivating. It is for this reason that he and many others advocate using a variety of skills during writing lessons as well as in other language lessons.

The fact that skill integration is very important for learning a language effectively should draw our attention to the nature of prewriting activities in the process approach which we chose for our writing classes in the experimental group. Readings, oral discussions, interviews, initial writings of notes, exemplification of grammar points, semantic maps and finally drafting are both good examples of skill integration and enable us to refrain from boringly using the same writing technique,

which Byrne (1988) is against. According to Byrne (1988; 98) a common activity for skill integration is project work which engages the student in some research such as reading or interviewing and discussing before writing. Similarly we prepared four writing projects which lasted twelve weeks to complete.

The process approach represents a recent shift from product-oriented approaches to a process-oriented one. While a product-oriented approach focuses on writing only one draft at the end of each lesson without any adequate feedback from the teacher and any idea generation activities, the process approach stresses the importance of knowing what sort of prewriting activities that a competent writer engages in before writing those so called good pieces. Writing is in no way a simple thing that can be done at a single sitting. Smith (1982), Zamel (1983), Raimes (1983 and 1987) suggest that writing is a nonlinear, recursive and generative process that involves several steps: prewriting, composing and rewriting. Oluwadiya (1992: 12) lists the following as the principal features of this approach:

1. a view of writing as a recursive process that can be taught;
2. an emphasis on writing as a way of learning as well as communicating;
3. a willingness to draw on other disciplines, notably cognitive psychology (see Hayes and Flower, 1980 and White, 1988) and linguistics (see Wilkins, 1974 and Krashen, 1981);
4. the incorporation of a rhetorical context, a view that writing assignments include a sense of audience, purpose and occasion;
5. a procedure for feedback that encourages the instructor to intervene during the process (formative evaluation), and so aid the student to improve his first original drafts;
6. a method of evaluation that determines how well a written product adapts the goals of the writer to the needs of the reader as audience; and
7. the principle that writing teachers should be people who write (Young 1978, Hairston 1982 and Dauite, 1985).

To sum up, the process approach stresses that a language learning milieu must consist of communicative activities that foster interaction enabling students to share each other's linguistic and extralinguistic background knowledge. It emphasizes that students should write on the basis of a predetermined purpose and audience. Furthermore it takes language as a whole rather than dealing with bits of grammar points in a linear, unconnected fashion. Feedback, which usually seems to be absent in traditional product-oriented approaches, enables students to see their erroneous knowledge of both form and organization of content. The process in which students strive to write maximally efficiently makes visible those areas where students are in desperate need of clarification. Prewriting activities, a combination of reading, speaking, grammar and reading, are the best asset of the approach that seems to be lacking in many other approaches.

These features of the process approach to writing, which we elaborated on in Chapter II, seemed to us to be suitable enough to solve the problems that we experience in many language teaching educational settings. We set out for this research hoping that the process approach to writing could not only lead to better writing skills but could also be considered as if a distinct, comprehensive method or a tool with which to put the whole language teaching process on the right tract.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The present research aims to find out whether there is a significant difference between the experimental group treated with the process approach to writing and the control group left with a traditional, product-oriented approach in

terms of writing skills and overall language proficiency, namely reading, grammar and vocabulary levels. The study involves two second-term prep classes of Mersin Anadolu Dış Ticaret Meslek Lisesi at the intermediate language proficiency level.

The effects of writing lessons conducted with the process approach on the students' ultimate writing, grammar, reading and vocabulary levels will be investigated and in this connection remedies will be sought and suggestions will be brought about for the students to better learn the target language and to practice what they have learned in contextual language learning activities.

1.3. Research Questions

The study hypothesizes that the students in the experimental group treated with the process approach to writing instruction will significantly outperform the students in the control group left with a traditional approach in terms of writing skills and overall language proficiency levels, namely grammar, vocabulary and reading levels. The research questions were as follows:

1. Is there a significant difference in the overall language proficiency levels of the experimental group treated with the process approach and the control group left with a traditional approach?
 - 1.1. Is there a significant difference between the postexperimental grammar levels of the groups?
 - 1.2. Is there a significant difference between the postexperimental vocabulary levels of the groups?
 - 1.3. Is there a significant difference between the postexperimental reading comprehension levels of the groups?

2. Is there a significant difference between the writing skills of the experimental group treated with the process approach and the control group left with a traditional approach?
- 2.1. Is there a significant difference between the groups' production of coherent texts?
- 2.2. Is there a significant difference between the groups' production of cohesive texts in terms of conjunctions, transitional signals and pronominal references?
- 2.3. Is there a significant difference between the groups' pretest and posttest contextual language use in terms of tenses, prepositions, articles, subject-verb agreements, lexical items and word class errors?

1.4. Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to the prep students of Mersin Anadolu Dış Ticaret Meslek Lisesi, which is attended after the secondary school. The researcher is the teacher of main English course and writing class of the experimental group, and another teacher with the same teaching experience is the teacher of the control group.

The limitation about the materials used is that both classes have the total number of 28 English classes, 2 of which are reserved for writing lessons. The four writing projects, along with topics, pictures, readings, sample writings and eventually techniques were used only in the experimental group. The writing teacher of the control group had her students write on the same topics but without using the process approach or project materials. They dealt with their writing course book most of the time. The experimental treatment is limited to four writing projects which cover a descriptive narrative about Tarzan, another descriptive narrative about Robin Hood, a

comparison between Robin Hood and The Forty Thieves, an argumentative about whether Robin Hood is true robber or a hero, a comparison and contrast essay about urban and rural life, and describing a process—how tea is produced.

Totally 24 students were used in the experiment. In terms of the time spent, the study is limited to 12 weeks.

1.5. Significance of the Study

In an EFL or ESL situation, writing instruction should have a power which is integrative of the other language skills. Although this unique property of writing potentially exists in itself, it can only be achieved by using a communicative and interactional approach which stresses process rather than product. This process is the one which involves attention to audience, purpose, mood, recursiveness, fluency, coherence, cohesion and finally accuracy. This process is the one which stresses prewriting activities and multiple drafting. This is the process approach to writing.

The chief importance of this study lies in its aim to unearth the merits of conducting writing lessons with the process approach in an EFL situation. Creating contexts to use the language being studied and retention of what has already been learned, especially grammar and vocabulary have always been a problem in language learning. The solution lies largely in regarding language learning as a process in which the skills are developed integratively, not in a unconnected manner. So as to practice for the retention and improvement of the target language, the process approach to writing is a valuable aid not only because a variety of prewriting activities integrate all the language skills while enlivening students' content and linguistic schematas to write with, but also because multiple drafting on the basis of interactions with the classmates

and the teacher-generated feedback are expected to gradually perfect students' contextual language use and textual capacity. In a writing class carried out with a process approach, two things should be immediately visible. First, quantity of writing increases considerably due to the profuse idea-generation activities and initial playing down of grammatical accuracy. Second, quality of writing improves gradually in terms of linguistic and textuality criteria thanks to the oral and written feedback especially by the teacher.

As a comprehensive study that investigates the effects of the process approach to writing on Turkish students' writing skills in terms of coherence, cohesion and contextual language development and their overall language proficiency levels in terms of grammar, reading and vocabulary levels, this study aims to highlight the latent powers of writing lessons in language teaching. We aim to set free students enslaved by imperfect writing books, indifferrent teachers and ineffective approaches to writing instruction in EFL situations in Turkish language-dominated schools like Anadolu Lise and Süper Lise.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

II. 1. Introduction

This chapter covers review of literature about approaches, especially the process approach to writing instruction. The process approach was thoroughly covered here because we used it as our experimental variable. Although our control group was left studying writing traditionally without any specific writing approach, many approaches to the teaching of writing, most of which can be considered traditionally product-oriented, were included here in this chapter to have an overall look at teaching writing. In connection with our research hypotheses, we also included writing as a learning tool, writing-reading connection, writing-grammar connection and writing-vocabulary connection.

II. 2. Other Approaches to Writing Instruction Apart From the Process Approach.

In a broad sense each of the various approaches mentioned below focuses on varying areas of the act of writing. Nevertheless, there is a unique feature common to most of them. The traditional approaches usually have the common feature that "they all focus on the message, the product, the written composition, analyzing style, organizational patterns, rules of usage" (Freedman, Pringle and Yalden 1983: 4).

For traditional approaches to teaching writing, which are product-oriented, Nunan (1995: 87) gives a good description:

Product-oriented approaches to the development of writing favour classroom activities in which the learner is engaged in imitating, copying, and transforming models of correct language. This usually occurs at the level of the sentence. In course books produced in the 1960s and 1970s, there is the belief that before

students can be expected to write coherent paragraphs they should have mastered the language at the level of the sentence. Writing classes should therefore be devoted in the first instance to sentence formation and grammar exercises.

Due to the product-oriented approaches, coursebooks and eventually product-minded teachers, writing classes become a boring sequence of plan-write-revise. As Carnicelli (1980) states, a traditional writing class consists of giving students a topic, making them write a first draft which the teacher views as the end product, and assigning another topic. No time or opportunity is available for prewriting or rewriting. In a typical product-centred approach writing is directed towards a predetermined goal along with text manipulation activities.

Before writing of the process approach to writing, the backbone of our thesis, we deemed it convenient to give brief descriptions of chief traditional approaches to the teaching of writing. Approaches such as the Free-Writing Approach and Paragraph-Pattern approach may also be considered as techniques used in the Process Approach, but they do not form the whole but only part of this approach.

II. 2. 1. The Controlled-to-Free Approach

With its too much focus on formal correctness, the approach was a product of the Audio-lingual method, which dominated the 1950s and 1960s. The strict control of the approach over the writing act and students is explicable by the fact that it emphasizes linguistic accuracy rather than fluency or originality. Raimes (1983) puts this overguidance down to the subservience of writing to speech in Audiolingualism in that it served to reinforce speech by consolidating grammatical and

syntactical forms. Another figure in the literature, Byrne (1988), associates the approach's strict control with the assumption that allowing students to write what they want leads to many mistakes in their written work.

A sequential procedure is followed in writing classes. Students are first given sentences, then paragraphs to copy or manipulate grammatically by converting present to past, plural to singular or questions to statements. They combine sentences or form clauses and change lexical items. All these are done according to a teacher-generated predetermined activity plan. Furthermore, students generate nothing of their own; they work on *given* materials.

Byrne (1988: 22) states that "gradually the amount of control is reduced and the students are asked to exercise meaningful choice." It is not until they reach a high intermediate or advanced level that students are allowed to try any free compositions (Raimes, 1983). As the name 'the controlled-to-free approach' suggests, students are first strictly controlled about writing but at a later stage they are permitted, though not thoroughly, to express themselves freely.

II. 2. 2. The Free-Writing Approach

In contrast with the controlled-to-free approach, this approach emphasizes fluency or quantity of writing rather than formal accuracy. Raimes (1983) states that according to proponents of this approach, the important thing is that intermediate level students should put content on paper fluently first. Then accuracy will gradually follow. Little or no correction of errors is okay with this approach.

Typical writing lessons begin with the teacher asking the students to write freely on any topic they like without worrying about any mistakes. By time

students are said to become less and less inhibited to write. Teachers usually do not read and hardly ever correct these short writings. Byrne (1988) implies that this way of writing may be useful as an out-of-classroom activity in the form of keeping a diary, with the biggest benefit being students' recovery from fear of writing. Raimes (1983: 7) argues that audience and content are naturally regarded as important in the approach simply because "the free writings often revolve around subjects that the students are interested in ..."

II. 2. 3. The Paragraph-Pattern Approach

Neither formal correctness nor fluency of content is emphasized in this approach. It is organization that is stressed. About the conduct of a typical writing lesson Raimes (1983: 8) states:

.... Students copy paragraphs, analyze the form of model paragraphs, and imitate model passages. They put scrambled sentences into paragraph order, they identify general and specific statements, they choose or invent an appropriate topic sentence, they insert or delete sentences....

This way of studying writing is not suitable for beginners because paragraph is seen as the basic unit of written expression. Moreover, students often work on someone else's product, that is model paragraphs, which means that they should perhaps be at the advanced level of language proficiency to cope with organizations of various types of paragraphs. However, Baskoff (1981) argues that model paragraphs can be used with students at any level of proficiency by using adopted paragraphs when necessary.

II. 2. 4. The Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach

This approach encourages students to improve a number of writing skills simultaneously. Students are given writing tasks that lead them to pay attention to both organization and the necessary grammar and syntax. They are made to see the connection between what they are trying to write and the forms necessary for writing it. For instance, if they are to write a passage describing a process, the words like *first*, *then*, *later*, *at this stage*, and the passive form of the simple present tense are reviewed or taught for the first time if not yet known before the writing task.

II. 2. 5. Shortcomings of the Traditional View of Teaching Writing and the new trend

Hobelman and Wiriyachitra (1990:37) point out that the traditional approach to writing is deficient in two aspects:

First, the teacher views the student's writing as a *product*.... Second, the teacher focuses on *form*, i.e., syntax, grammar, mechanics and organization, rather than on content. The content is seen mainly as a vehicle for the correct expression of the grammatical and organizational patterns taught, and the correct choice of vocabulary.

As for the modern approach to writing instruction, it consists of a merging of the communicative approach and the process approach. Writing is now seen as a communicative act. Audience and purpose are stressed. Meaning is emphasized rather than form. The process that good writers go through while producing a written work are taught to students. Writing is seen as a process divisible into three stages: prewriting, drafting and revising. The following title dissects the Process Approach to writing instruction, which we employed as the experimental treatment.

II.3. The Process Approach to Writing Instruction

II.3.1. A General Look at the Approach

The process approach is a recent approach to writing which represents a shift of focus from the product generated at the end of a writing process to the process that skilled writers go through to write their *good* pieces. About the nature of this process we would say that it is a recursive one that involves several stages such as prewriting, drafting and revising. It is a nonlinear process. What is regarded as the end product in a traditional writing class is looked upon in this new approach as one of the initial drafts from which to arrive at better end products through polishing on and on. It is now recognized that competent writers do not produce their products in a single try, but that writing is a long painful process where the final text is achieved through writing multiple drafts. About the nature of this new approach to writing Hobelman and Wiriyachitra (1990: 37) state briefly that

... writing is seen as a communicative act. Students are asked to think of their audience, the reader, and their purpose for writing. Meaning is stressed, rather than form. And writing is seen as a process which can be divided into three stages: prewriting, composing, and revision. Students are trained to use the methods that good writers use in writing.

The process approach emphasizes the communicative value of writing. Byrne (1988) stresses the importance of making students aware of the fact that any piece of writing is an attempt to communicate something. Effective communication requires a clearly determined purpose and knowing about the target listener or the reader. The writer does not work on his project of writing a piece without a purpose in mind. It is a must for him to take into account and maintain contact with a certain

readers lot. To address the right audience and to express his purpose clearly he has to organize his writing by using certain logical and grammatical cohesive devices. All these are essential criteria for a meaningful and efficient piece of discourse.

In the process approach writing lessons are not regarded as a way of getting aware of students' grammatical errors. Rather than grammar, producing a meaningful text is important. Of course this does not mean that linguistic knowledge is unnecessary. Instead of grammatical accuracy, quantity is given priority at the initial stages of a writing attempt. At the prewriting and drafting stages interaction and collaborative work between learners have the greatest emphasis with the hope that such collaboration will enhance motivation and develop positive attitudes towards writing (Nunan 1991). Obviously students will be writing less efficiently when forced to write with demotivated pens as is the case in many traditional writing classes. The variety of techniques or activities that characterize the process approach is another thing which brings students' affective filters down by keeping them unbored all the time. The teacher's early, untimely, and tactless concern with grammatical accuracy of student papers demotivates students and impedes the effective employment of such activities.

After a certain level of language proficiency grammar is not an end in itself but a means to an end and this end is producing meaning. In fact, the role of grammar in effective writing is not downplayed as is seen at the first glance. Grammatical accuracy is needed to complete the writing task; not at the beginning of the process of writing a piece. On this point, Keh (1991: 18) states:

Actual attention to grammar in the multiple draft writing process is usually delayed until the product stage... the rationale for this delay is that students' attention at first – during the composing stages – is on expressing content and developing these ideas into an organized, coherent whole. Premature attention to grammar hinders the flow of ideas.

Another feature of this approach, which we mostly observe at the prewriting stage, is that students' content and formal schematas are reactivated through the use of texts read or listened to and the use of visual materials. More important is not the reactivation of relevant sleeping mental data but the interpersonal sharing of the background knowledge of each student. This collaborative use of each other's mental world pays in return in the form of more enhanced content schematas on the part of each student, which adds to the fluency with which he is writing.

With the introduction of the process approach to writing it became more important than before to highlight the differences between written and spoken language. Awareness of these differences enables the writer to write explicit and expressive pieces. Speaking is referential and often occurs in the presence of the things or events relevant to the content of one's speech. It fully makes use of the spatio-temporal context (Brown and Yule 1983). On the other hand, writing is often decontextualized. It requires the hard work of organizing information into a coherent text. The amount of shared knowledge between writer and reader always tends to be less than that found between speaker and listener. Richards (1990) states that a great deal of things can be left unsaid, or only implied owing to the fact that the participants in conversation often share background knowledge about the topic. Since the speaker and the listener often share the same environmental context, the speaker economizes

on the words he uses because the things or events in their immediate environment complete the message. But "in communicating a message writers are usually distant in time and place from the person(s) with whom they wish to communicate" (Nunan 1991: 86). Therefore, the writing of any sentence such as *I looked at the tree* requires the writer's early mention of the presence of a tree at the place he is writing of. The spatio-temporal features of utterances should be readily visible in the text for the target audience to comprehend it.

Writers have to make inferences about the relevant knowledge of their target readers lot. Hence, writing is creating context in which we can give our messages explicitly. It is interesting that any sentence we produce to teach grammar is usually more or less meaningful, whereas a sentence decontextualized from a text often loses its meaning which it has in that particular text. Then the context of the text gives a particular sentence a particular meaning. Such explicit writing by considering how much information the writer shares with his target audience is called reader-based prose. Diary or journal keeping where the writer writes to himself with a context most of which is unclear to outsiders is something called writer-based prose. Reader-based prose is emphasized in the process approach to teaching writing although writer-based prose in the form of diary keeping is also used only as a technique for students to develop their writing fluency.

Although the process of writing is divided into the three stages of prewriting, drafting, and revising, they are not to be thought to be in complete isolation from each other. It would be wrong to devote only the prewriting stage to idea generation because it is never possible to know exactly what one will write in

advance. No matter how carefully the writer has planned what to write, many ideas are in fact created during the act of writing itself. These three subprocesses mentioned above influence each other simultaneously. Take revision; we revise not only the finished product but also any utterance that we produce during the whole writing process. Everything is recursive and nonlinear in this process. Evaluation of what has been written is also not something done by the teacher at the final stage. Rather, it is equally the responsibility of the student writer at every stage (White and Arndt 1991).

Richards (1990: 108) cites Raimes (1985: 229) and gives the following composite picture of what competent writers do during the process of writing:

They consider purpose and audience. They consult their own background knowledge. They let ideas incubate. They plan. As they write, they read back over what they have written... Contrary to what many textbooks advise, writers do not follow a neat sequence of planning, organizing, writing, and then revising. For while a writer's product –the finished essay, story or novel– is presented in lines, the process that produces it is not linear at all.

Hairston (1982: 86) lists the following features as those of the process approach:

1. It focuses on the writing process; instructors intervene in students' writing during the process
2. It teaches strategies for invention and discovery; instructors help students to generate content and discover purpose.
3. It is rhetorically based; audience, purpose, and occasion figure predominantly in the assignment of writing tasks.
4. Instructors evaluate the written product by how well it fulfills the writer's intention and meets the audience's needs.
5. It views writing as a recursive rather than linear process; prewriting, writing, and revisions are activities that overlap and intertwine.

6. It is holistic; writing is an activity that involves the intuitive and nonrational as well as the rational faculties.
7. It emphasizes that writing is a way of learning and developing as well as a communication mode.
8. It includes a variety of writing modes, expressive as well as expository.
9. It is informed by other disciplines, especially cognitive psychology and linguistics.
- 10 It views writing as a disciplined creative activity that can be analyzed and described; practitioners believe that writing can be taught.
- 11 It is based on linguistic research and research into the composing process.
- 12 It stresses the principle that writing teachers should be people who write (Hairston, 1982: 86 cited in Hollingsworth and Eastman 1988: 18-19)

II.3. 2. Stages of Writing

II.3. 2.1.Prewriting / Idea Generation

In a classroom setting prewriting activities are conducted to assist the students in developing a plan for producing an essay, to help them with the process of elaboration. It is clear that if they already have some bits of ideas before drafting, they will be at ease to start composing. Gebhart and Rodrigues (1989: 39) state the following on the subject of idea generation through prewriting techniques:

To generate is to spark ideas, to trigger insights, to activate thought processes – to somehow muster the information and insights you need for a writing project. The need to generate ideas can surface at anytime while you are writing, drafting, revising, or editing. But, when you have the time, you should pay particular attention to generating as much material as you can at the beginning of a writing project. By gathering the information you need before drafting, you give yourself an opportunity to get a head start on your writing project. With the content of your paper under control, you can focus on other matters while you draft.

The commonly used techniques that help students generate ideas and put them in writing are given below:

II.3.2.1.1 Brainstorming

It can be used individually or as a group activity. It is a technique used to unblock one's thinking. The writer tries to bring to his mind as many ideas about a topic as he can. In a writing class the student writer overrides his mental blocks in the following way. Either the writing person asks himself a set of questions or the teacher presents some questions to the students, asking them to write down all the words, ideas, and phrases that occur to them. "The purpose of this technique is to let associations connect with one another in the mind, like rubbing sticks together to create a spark." (Veit and Clifford, 1985: 3)

II.3.2.1.2 Clustering / Mapping

Mapping what you think or know about a certain topic on a piece of paper enables you to look at your ideas and to establish relationships between them. The proximity and distance between the cities of ideas on your map become visible, letting you create new associations so as to arrive at different ideas unplotted on the map. It is a good technique for creative thinking that can be used at all stages of writing. "A nonlinear brainstorming process that generates ideas, images and feelings around a stimulus word until a pattern becomes discernible" (Carr 1986:20). The stimulus word—crucial words to focus on— is written and circled. All that the students know about that word is written with arrows radiating outwards from it like a flower.

This form of brainstorming should be quickly done by the students on a scrap paper to prevent any ideas from escaping the short-time memory.

II.3.2.1.3. Looping

It refers to writing unhaltingly anything that comes to one's mind without any fear of making errors. This again helps to record what one thinks about the given topic before it escapes his short term memory. The writer sums up all that he has written in a single sentence which is encircled to be used as a topic sentence or a generalization to be amplified. Then he begins fast writing again, reads back over what he has written, sums all the sentences up in an expressive sentence and then encircles it again. Each encircled sentence is called a loop. Hence the name *looping* for this technique.

II.3.2.1.4. Cubing

It refers to consideration of the topic under study from the following six points of view:

- Describe it: Examine the topic or object closely and write descriptively all you think about it.
- Compare it: Write about what the topic is similar to and different from.
- Associate it: (with something that you are already familiar with; What does it remind you of?)
- Analyze it: (by telling what it is composed / made of if it is an object)
- Apply it: How can it be used to improve the society/your learning etc.
- Argue for or against: Take a firm stand. Write arguments you are in favor of and against. (Spack 1984: 657)

Going through these stages of cubing the students must have generated a lot of ideas and materials for writing the initial draft.

II.3. 2.1.5. Debating / Group discussion

Two or more opposing groups are formed and given a series of arguments and counterarguments with which to begin a discussion. Each group has a secretary to jot down any novel ideas expressed by the discussants. They orally express what they think so as to generate ideas, thoughts, concepts about the arguments previously given to them.

II.3.2.1.6. Quick writing

Student writers are allowed five or ten minutes to write on the given topic without worrying about spelling, repetition and punctuation. Organization of ideas is also not important at this stage.

II.3.2.1.7. Interviewing:

Students interact and share what each knows about the topic under study. They are allowed to interview each other informally. They take notes about each other's interests and backgrounds, which reduces stress as well. After these interviews they are given some time by the teacher to organize their initial drafts.

If students are to interview someone outside the school environment, they are expected to prepare a set of well-chosen questions. The teacher helps them with item construction in their interview forms. The information gathered from a famous or important person through the interview can be used to describe him/her or to write an essay about a certain topic involving several interviewees' attitudes towards it.

II.3.2.1.8. Fantasizing / Mediating / Mind Transportation

Students put away all their classroom possessions. They make a voyage into a fantasy world while sitting quietly in class (Dakelman 1973). After this brief silence the teacher ends the silence with some questions like the following:

What would you do if you were the prime minister?

II.3.2.1.9. Reading

Extensive or intensive reading studies in class may be used as a prewriting experience where students generate ideas in parallel with whatever they read. For example, the reading of a model/sample passage about obesity familiarizes the students with notions, facts, concepts, language used about it. This fills their content schemata in their mind to be used as the source from which to select and write. Novels or short stories can be introduced partly so that the students produce ideas, fantasize similar things.

II.3.2.2. Drafting

At this stage the writer/student gets ideas generated at the prewriting stage onto paper in rough form. A rough plan with uncompleted and changeable paragraphs begins to emerge at this stage. Yet the writer continues to alternate between the prewriting and drafting phases. What he has written itself usually creates more ideas, plans and goals (Richards 1990). The writer still stays flexible to any new ideas occurring to him while writing. This is the first draft, not the final stage where the paper is put into its flawless form. However, drafting is not like quick or free writing in that the writer begins to write at the paragraph level. Audience, purpose, and form

begin to be considered. In classroom writing activities while drafting or to gain the ability of drafting well may include:

1. **Elaboration exercise.** Students are given a sentence and collectively elaborate and develop it.
2. **Reduction exercise.** Students are given a wordy and complex paragraph and break it down into simpler sentences.
3. **Jumbled paragraph.** Students are given a jumbled paragraph and reorder the sentences.
4. **Jumbled essay.** Students are given a jumbled set of paragraphs and reorder them to make an essay.
5. **Quickwriting.** Students quickwrite various sections of their composition: beginnings, central sections, conclusions. (Richards 1990: 113)

II.3. 2.3 Rewriting / Revising

Redrafting stage requires that at least an initial draft should have been roughly completed. A competent writer may have to write many rough drafts before he/she is satisfied with his/her writing. Therefore a lot of reshaping and reconstructing of an existing draft is absolutely essential for an efficient revision. Further polishing of rough drafts is necessary because one's intention in his/her early writing sessions will be different from those in later drafts. Veit and Clifford (1985) suggest that different writers use different revision strategies. Some write a draft first to the end and then compose an entirely revised draft, whereas some others make on-the-spot revisions. Such writers engage in an ongoing revising process in which they write a brief piece, read back over what they have written before proceeding, and then go on writing. One tactic for making revisions soundly is to let a paper sit for a few days untouched and to read it with a fresh perspective and with new eyes. Another is to have a friend read it and tell you his/her opinion of it.

II.3. 3. The Roles of Learners

In process-oriented classrooms there is a shift from language-focused activities to learner-centered tasks characterized by students assuming control over what they write, how they write and the assessment of their own writing. A writing program described by Diaz, Moll, and Mehan (cited in Zamel 1987: 704-5) states:

students became engaged in their own ethnographic research, collecting data from their own community, and produced writing based on their analysis of this information. Their skills, experiences and strengths became the basis for further instruction, and responsibility for and control of learning shifted from teacher to student. In this way students who would otherwise do little or no classroom writing because of their language difficulties were better prepared for academic work in English.

Learners' dependence on the teacher gets less, and they work collaboratively with each other with more opportunities for meaningful language use. Carey (1986, cited in Richards 1990:110) describes a workshop for elementary school children, giving information about how children selected topics, engaged in collaborative writing, and developed typical interaction patterns:

1. Topics came from experience at home and in school and from imitation of peers. "Cult" figures like Garfield and literary forms like choose-your-own-adventure books provided models.
2. Writing together evolved from social talk and created a context for the composing process that offered multiple points of view, natural motivation, and minimized the need for direct teaching.
3. Two patterns of collaboration developed: expert/novice, novice/novice. Students used their strengths to help others or worked through composing problems together, alternating combat and negotiation. Collaboration took students through the writing process, without isolating stages or strategies.

4. The teacher role became that of adult writer with useful experience to be shared on request as part of collaboration. The children's composing rhythms dictated the appropriate moment. In addition a close relationship akin to reading-together with young children developed between adult and child.
5. While the preferred mode was narrative, collaborators used techniques of explanation and persuasion to select appropriate materials and story lines, or to resolve disputes.
6. Drawing was used extensively to find, explore, and revise ideas.
7. Revision meant reworking a familiar topic rather than redrafting the same piece. An essential part of revision was permission to abandon a piece or leave it unfinished without a sense of failure.
8. Within the limits of the workshop, participants gained confidence, explored the writing process and their own recourses, and in at least one case improved mechanical proficiency.

II.3. 4. The Roles of the Teacher

Teachers are regarded as a facilitator of the writing process who may intervene on request at any phase of the writing process with their useful experience. The teacher's nondirective and encouraging attitude enables the class to become a community of writers. Hughey et al (1983:48) as Richards (1990: 111) also mentions, present the following list of roles for teachers:

They keep the writing task clear, simple, and straightforward.

They teach the writing process.

They analyze and diagnose a writing product.

They establish short-term and long-term goals for each student.

They balance classroom activities, providing some for individuals and some for groups.

They develop meaningful assignments.

They provide a real audience: an audience other than the teacher.

They make student papers available to students: they allow students to see their own body of work develop.

They move from the known to the unknown and utilize the student's previous knowledge.

They provide writing activities which reinforce reading, listening, and speaking skills.

They provide heuristics for invention, purpose, and audience.

They outline clearly the goals for each writing assignment.

They teach the conventions of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.

They teach the principles –rules, conventions, and guidelines of writing –as a means to develop thoughts, order ideas, and communicate these ideas in a significant way.

II. 4. Writing and Learning

The value of writing is confirmed by recent researches which show the classical relevance of writing as a recycling tool in the classroom (Pereira, 1991; Raimes, 1983; Byrne, 1988; Valvoord, 1986 and Emig, 1988). While setting out to research for this thesis our expectation was that a systematic writing class, to be conducted with the process approach, would not only help the students improve their writing skills but also develop and retain their cumulative linguistic knowledge. We certainly did not mean the writing's function of consolidating the grammar points being taught in a linear fashion as was the case in audiolinguistic product-oriented view of writing (Byrne 1988). We think that process writing with its numberless prewriting activities takes the language as a whole. Students recursively and constantly speak, read, discuss, write, revise, and rewrite. This skill integration and the efforts to create the most meaningful meanings in written form lead the students to search for the best word, structure, and tone for self-expression. The huge amount of writing resulting from multiple drafts, the intensive mental efforts to create more thoughts and the endless struggle to translate these thoughts into language by using

their pre-existing knowledge, by turning to the teacher and interacting with their fellow classmates help the students to reinforce their cumulative knowledge and commit new bits of linguistic knowledge to their minds.

The benefits that Raimes (1983: 3) thinks writing to have clearly correspond to what we expected the present research to bring about on the part of the students' linguistic knowledge:

The fact that people frequently have to communicate with each other is not the only reason for us to include writing as a part of our second language syllabus. There is an additional and very important reason: writing helps our students learn. How? First, writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary that we have been teaching our students. Second, when our students write, they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risks. Third, when they write they necessarily become very involved with the new language; the effort to express ideas and the constant use of eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning. ... They discover a real need for finding the right word and the right sentence. The close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course.

As can be seen Raimes approaches the subject in terms of the effects of writing on language learning. On the other hand, Walvoord (1986: 4) deals with the correspondence between writing and learning in general. She thinks what people do while writing and effective learning strategies are strikingly parallel:

... Writing is a uniquely effective tool for learning because the two are strikingly parallel: learning is multifaceted, as is writing, which uses eye, mind, and hand, right and left brain. Learning profits from self-provided feedback –the kind available in writing, where the product takes gradual shape before the writer's eyes and is then available for review and reflection. Learning serves an analytical and connective function, as does writing, which organizes individual facts, images, and symbols into sentences, paragraphs, and whole essays ...

Emig (1988: 91) also looks at the writing-learning connection as Walvoord does. He similarly attributes the power of writing as a learning tool to some of its attributes that uniquely correspond to effective learning strategies. The unique cluster of correspondences between certain learning strategies and certain attributes of writing can be seen below:

Selected characteristics of successful learning strategies	Selected attributes of writing, process and product
(1) Profits from multi-representational and integrative re-inforcement	(1) Represents process uniquely multi-representational and integrative
(2) Seeks self-provided feedback:	(2) Represents powerful instance of self-provided feedback:
(a) immediate	(a) provides product uniquely available for immediate feedback (review and re-evaluation)
(b) long-term	(b) provides record of evolution of thought since writing is epigenetic as process-and-product
(3) Is connective	(3) Provides connections:
(a) makes generative conceptual groupings, synthetic and analytic	(a) establishes explicit and systematic conceptual groupings through lexical, syntactic and rhetorical devices
(b) proceeds from propositions, hypotheses, and other elegant summarizers	(b) represents most available means (verbal language) for economic recording of abstract formulations
(4) Is active, engaged, personal --notably, self-rhythmed	(4) Is active, engaged, personal --notably, self-rhythmed

II.5. Writing-Reading Connection

Writing and reading have a reciprocal relationship if included in the same teaching situation. Williams (1989) explains this reciprocal nature of these skills suggesting that improvement in one of them leads to improvement in the other. But it should be stressed that the mutual interaction of these skills necessitates a language learning milieu where they are developed in close collaboration (Byrne 1988). Another researcher emphasizing this requirement is Williams (1989), who states that only when opportunities are given to practice both skills in conjunction do they develop simultaneously. Williams (1989: 71) states that "separating speech and reading and writing into a sequence greatly limits these opportunities."

To clarify how and why there is such a reciprocal connection between writing and reading, some similar and complementary features of these two skills should be analyzed. They both lead to the construction of mental representations of meaning -- in the minds of the writer and reader (Flower, 1990). These meaning constructions can be thought of "as two related but different networks of information, which are not necessarily coded in words and sentences or even language." (Flower 1990: 13). Meaning constructions may be in the form of abstract propositions, code words and pointers to schematas or images. It seems that a reader matches his mental linguistic and extralinguistic schematas with the text that he is reading, sometimes adding new information to his pre-existing mental schematas, sometimes creating brand-new schematas with the new information. He can later use this mentally

encoded new information in a writing activity. In this sense the writer is expected to transfer his mental constructions of meaning to the reader to create a mentally changed prospective writer of a similar field.

About the fact that writing and reading have similar cognitive processes and structures Eisterhold (1990: 89) states:

... reading and writing share structural components such that the structure of whatever is acquired in one modality can then be applied in the other. For example, being able to recognize a rhetorical pattern such as comparison and contrast in a reading passage would presumably allow the reader to eventually reproduce that pattern in writing.

Eisterhold (1990: 90) suggests that "if reading and writing involve analogous cognitive structures and processes, it is possible that instruction in one would lead to increased ability in the other". Students begin to more readily recognize linguistic and rhetorical patterns in reading and they apply them to writing later. Reading is considered as the appropriate or comprehensible input for acquisition of writing skills since reading passages function as primary models from which writing skills can be inferred (Eisterhold 1990).

About casting the directional model in teaching for the order of reading and writing, it can be said that the most common model is reading-to-writing model. (Eisterhold 1990). The claim of the supporters of this model is that "reading influences writing, but writing knowledge is not particularly useful in reading." (Eisterhold 1990: 89). The second directional model is writing-to-reading, which is seen very uncommon. Williams (1989) argues that no thorough studies have so far been done which evaluate the effectiveness of writing-to-reading. On the other hand,

Eisterhold (1990: 90) mentions a few people who conducted researches into the effects of writing improvement on reading skills:

As for a writing-to-reading directional model, Stotsky (1983) found a number of studies that suggest that writing activities can be useful for improving reading comprehension and retention of information (e.g. summarizing, paraphrasing, and outlining). Belanger (1987) further cites studies that show that direct instruction in sentence, paragraph, and discourse structure for writing results in significant improvement in reading.

The other hypothesis on the writing-reading connection is a nondirectional one. This interactive model stresses that both reading and writing derive from a single underlying proficiency and the common link between them is that of the cognitive process of constructing meaning.

Our hypothesis was that the group to be treated with the process approach to writing would significantly outperform the group left with a traditional approach to writing in terms of post-experimental reading comprehension levels. To put more briefly we tried to see the effects of writing conducted with the process approach on the students' reading comprehension skills because in writing classes reading is the most frequently used prewriting activity for providing input. In the process approach also, reading is a chief prewriting activity. Chen (1988) states that engaging in extensive reading activities while focussing on the message will certainly help develop the student's writing ability. It can be concluded that in our case it is the process approach where reading is frequently used that makes a positive effect on reading comprehension skills but not writing itself only. We do not say that writing certainly

develops reading skills, but we do say that the process in the process approach to writing improves the reading ability as well as the writing ability.

II.6. Writing and Grammar

As Leki (1991) states, in guided writing activities the aim was to reinforce the pre-studied grammar points. Thus writing was no more than another form of grammar exercises. While employing the process approach to writing we also expected the subjects to consolidate their grammar knowledge and acquire new knowledge through writing multiple drafts. However, it was not our sole objective but only one of our expectations. What is criticized about guided writing is not their view of writing as a medium of reinforcing grammar: it is the fact that guided writing is not done for the sake of writing. In a language learning situation whatever the method of writing is, writing naturally reinforces grammar because all the things taught, that is, all communicatively produced actual language use, are recycled through writing. Of course we do not look upon writing as a way to consolidate grammar points taught in a linear fashion. Rather, it takes the language as a whole and does so spontaneously.

Writing more frequently naturally leads to practicing and consolidating the target language more. In this sense, multiple drafting in the process approach to writing provides this benefit. Advocating simultaneous teaching of grammar and writing, Özbek (1995: 43) suggests that "students' problems with grammar stem from the way they are taught. They should be given more opportunity to apply the structures they have learned to different situations." Among many of those looking upon writing as a recycling tool in the classroom, Pereira (1991: 50) also states that

writing consolidates grammar, idioms and vocabulary taught in class and argues that students acquire more than previously taught because they "have the opportunity to be adventurous with the language, to take risks, to go beyond what has been taught."

With the teacher- and student-generated feedback, the process approach to writing plays a role which is rather corrective of any grammatical errors. How grammar is viewed in the process approach to writing, our experimental variable, was mentioned in II.3.

II.7. Writing and Vocabulary Teaching

Here we are not concerned with general approaches to teaching vocabulary. We are interested in writing-vocabulary relationship in connection with the process approach to writing. It is inherent in writing that vocabulary items are recycled and new lexical items are acquired in appropriate contexts and retained effectively.

Nunan (1995) argues that only by repeated exposures can a word enter a person's active vocabulary. Process writing, which engages the learner in intensive use of language through multiple drafts and interaction with the other learners, enables the learner to use and retain a lot of words along with other aspects of language. In other words, as Nunan (1995) asserts, learners who have activated any knowledge of a lexical item through use will be more likely to retain it than those who have simply heard or read it somewhere. Nunan (1995) also suggests that regular revision of words which is distributed over a period of time is more effective than massed practice. The process approach where reaching the product stage from the prewriting stage takes several weeks provides a recursive and cyclic process to learn words.

Skill integration is regarded as very effective in vocabulary teaching (Schleifer 1985). For a communicative language learning reading, writing, oral discussion should all take place together. Especially reading, writing and speaking about a certain topic will involve the use of recurrent lexical items, thus reinforcing topic-specific words more effectively as well as helping students learn more other words. Schleifer (1985: 14) mentions the following as a working technique for vocabulary teaching, which absolutely resembles the prewriting stage of the process approach to writing:

The teacher or the students, or both, select a topic to be studied for a period of a week, more or less. This involves reading passages on the topic, oral discussion of the passages and of the topic in general, and the writing of a composition related in a general way to the topic.

Having feedback on vocabulary use which is the case in the process approach has a favourable effect on learning vocabulary because students get into closer contact with their dictionaries as well as with their classmates and the teacher. As suggested by Christianson (1996), we can raise conscious awareness of the relation between writing ability and dictionary use habits by instructing the students to bring their dictionaries to all writing classes. Both at home and in class it is advisable for them to use their dictionaries extensively both for selecting the right words and for self correction of their lexical errors in their papers marked by their teacher.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

III.1 Introduction

The present study was intended to see any effects of a process approach to writing instruction on the subjects' writing skills and overall language proficiency levels, that is, grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension levels. With its provision of profuse prewriting activities engaging students in using the target language meaningfully, a respectively extended period of time for revision, and with its supply of adequate feedback to highlight erroneous parts in student papers, the process approach to teaching writing was chosen as the experimental treatment to make up for the deprivations, in a typical Turkish prep class, of opportunities to use the language as a whole in meaningful contexts. Our pre-assumption was that such a fruitful writing milieu could do more than simply improve the subjects' writing skills. We expected that the treatment should also allow them to reinforce all the grammar points that had been taught to that time, to learn and use new words in suitable contexts and to develop their reading comprehension skills because both writing and reading are text production. The treatment was expected to force the subjects to contextually use all the learned grammar points and words passively lying uncultivated in their notebooks or some undisclosed parts of their brains.

The research was conducted in the two prep classes of Mersin Anadolu Dış Ticaret Meslek Lisesi, attended after secondary school. Having completed the first term of their intensive language learning program, the subjects had pre-intermediate

English proficiency levels. In our research, one of the classes, the experimental group, was treated with a process approach in their writing lessons while the other, the control group, was taught writing with traditional approaches.

III.2 Research Design

Two prep classes from Mersin Anadolu Dış Ticaret Meslek Lisesi, attended after the secondary school, were selected as the plot at which to carry out the experimental research. One of the classes was to be the experimental group to be treated with the process approach to writing instruction and the other to be the control group to be left with a traditional approach. In terms of the assessment of the effects of the process approach on the subjects' writing skills the research has a pretest-posttest control group design. On the other hand only a posttest was given to the subjects to assess their general language proficiency levels, namely grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension, at the end of the treatment.

The reason for administering only a posttest to test overall language proficiency of the subjects was especially the fact that the test items would be selected from the questions in the last ten years' University Entrance Exams. Because the treatment began at the beginning of the second term when the prep classes had four further months of intensive language learning period in which they had 28 English classes a week, their pre-treatment language proficiency levels were not high enough for them to respond correctly to the great majority of the test items. When the treatment began, they still did not know the backbone of the English language such as

all the tenses, relative clauses, passive, conditional clauses, non-finite participle and infinitival structures. The experimental design is given in Table 1.

Table 1. The true control group design.

GROUPS	PRETEST	TREATMENT	POSTTEST	
EXPER.GR	WRITING PRETEST	PROC. APP	WRITING POSTTEST	O.L.P
CONT.GR.	WRITING PRETEST	-----	WRITING POSTTEST	O.L.P

O.L.P = Overall language proficiency posttest

PROC. APP = Process approach

III.3. The Subjects

Two preparatory classes of Mersin Anadolu Dış Ticaret Meslek Lisesi were selected, one of them as the experimental group and the other as the control group. A piloting was administered to two other prep classes of Mersin Anadolu İletişim Meslek Lisesi under the same headmastership which used the same language teaching syllabus and course books. On the basis of the statistical analysis of the test to provide group similarity between the control and experimental group, 12 students were assigned to each group. The experimental group was taught by the researcher himself, and the control group to be left with a traditional approach to writing had a female teacher with the same age and teaching experience as the researcher.

Table 2. The t-test results showing the group similarity.

GROUPS	n	x	sd	t	p
EXPER.GR.	12	23.33	3.39		
				0.167	>0.05
CONTR. GR.	12	23.25	4.24		

III.4 Research Instruments

III.4. 1. Testing Materials

III.4.1.1 Testing Materials for Group Similarity

A language proficiency test of the nature of multiple choice items consisting of 33 questions with a p value of 0.87 was administered to establish group similarity. According to the t-test results with the SPSS, 12 students were assigned to each group.

III.4.1.2. Testing Materials for Overall Language Proficiency Test

In order to assess the postexperimental proficiency levels of the subjects in accordance with the hypotheses (1.1, 1.2, 1.3), a multiple-choice posttest of 55 items selected from the University Entrance Exams of the last ten years was administered to the subjects at the end of the treatment (Appendix 7). The test with the p value of 0.86 consisted of 33 grammar, 15 reading comprehension and 7 vocabulary questions.

III.4.1.3. Testing Materials for Writing

To assess the preexperimental and postexperimental writing proficiency levels of the subjects, two topics were given to the subjects. The topic given as the writing pretest was as follows:

What do you think about television? Is it useless or useful to watch TV? Or must we choose television programs carefully? Without television, is life worse or better? The best composition is going to be included in the school magazine.

The topic given as the posttest was as follows:

Some students think schools have too many unnecessary rules. Suppose that your headmaster asked your opinions about this, which rules would you like to abolish, what new rules would you impose? Why? The best composition will be awarded.

We did not set any limit for time and quantity of writing.

III.4.2. Instructional Materials

Four writing projects (see Appendices 2,3,4, and 5) were developed to work on during the experimental period which lasted 12 weeks. The first project was to engage the subjects in writing a narrative and descriptive composition about how Tarzan emerged as a story hero. A pictorial material that shows how Tarzan was raised by apes in a jungle, two reading materials about animal children whose life stories resembled Tarzan's, an informative reading passage from the Longman dictionary about this humanoid creature and a sample composition which had been written by a prep class student in the previous year were used for generating linguistic and extralinguistic content for the first writing project.

For the second project, a picture showing the deeds of another hero of children's stories, Robin Hood, an informative text from the Longman dictionary about this legendary figure, a reading passage about Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves whose life stories partly resembled that of Robin in terms of robbery, theft and terror. In this project the subjects both wrote a narrative about Robin Hood using some content and language from the first project about Tarzan and a comparison between Robin Hood and the Forty Thieves. They devoted one of their paragraphs to writing an argumentative piece about whether Robin Hood was a real thief or a charitable hero robbing the rich to help the poor.

For the third writing project the students were taught how to write a comparison and contrast essay about urban life and rural life. For idea generation a sample composition written by a student from an upper class and questions prepared by the researcher were used. Only for this project was there a separate lesson allocated to the explicit teaching of the conjunctions and transitional words expressing comparison and contrast. As can be remembered, the content of the second project is partly related to the first one in terms of the same natural setting and lifestyle of Tarzan and Robin Hood. This third project is also inclusive of the content used in the previous one, because both contain comparison and contrast. This interconnectedness of the topics in terms of linguistic and extralinguistic content is a good asset of the process approach because the language used in the student papers is not disconnected from each other, but rather partly inclusive of one another. This should be the cyclic nature of the process approach.

For the last writing project the type of writing involved describing process. A text about how paper is produced and another text about the process in which silk is manufactured were given as models and for idea generation activity. A schematic illustration of the steps for producing tea was given as an outline for the subjects to write a composition about the process in which tea is manufactured.

III.5. Experimental Procedure

The experimental period was a long one because as the name suggests, the process approach to writing instruction requires an extended amount of time if we are to achieve fruitful results (Raimes, 1987). The subjects read, talked, wrote, revised and rewrote, rewrote and rewrote. Apparently, as Leki (1990) states, multiple drafting with comments on intermediate drafts is more effective than commenting on single finished products. That the process approach requires students to write so many drafts on the same or similar / complementary topics also necessitates much longer periods of time for the completion of each writing topic.

After we made sure we had two similar groups in terms of language proficiency levels, the experimental treatment was initiated in the first week of March 1997.

WEEK 1

The first writing topic involved writing a narrative piece about the life of Tarzan (see Appendix 2). In the first lesson of the week the prewriting activities included a brainstorming activity about plane crashes because the pictorial stimulus given to the subjects displays a plane crashing into a jungle. Another brainstorming

activity was conducted about jungles due to the fact that Tarzan as a baby was left helpless against the hardships of the jungle later on to be raised by a mother ape along with its two other offspring. A number of questions prepared for the students to answer by looking at the pictures were assigned as homework for the next class.

In the second lesson of the week two reading passages were presented, one of which was about animal children raised by animals and the other about Tarzan. The subjects benefited from the passages in two ways. First, the passages reactivated their mental content schematas about Tarzan. A second contribution that the passages had was at the lexical level. Then a mind transportation activity where the subjects closed their eyes imagining themselves as the infant stranded in the jungle and thought about what they could do to survive in the same situation. For the next week the subjects were instructed to write a story about Tarzan by using all the information generated to that time thanks to the covered prewriting activities.

WEEK 2

The experimental subjects came to the first lesson of the second week with their first drafts. Each student was given a checklist that consisted of questions both about the structure and organization of their papers so that they could examine their fellow classmates' writings. To teach how to scrutinize a composition, the students were divided into groups of four and copies of a sample narrative about Tarzan written by a student the previous year were distributed. A class hour was allocated to the evaluation of that sample paper in accordance with the questions in the checklist mentioned above. Thus the students were trained to evaluate and give feedback to their friends' papers.

In the second writing class of the week both the teacher and the students were engaged in an interaction process to carry out polishing studies on the first drafts generated. By reading each other's papers the subjects interacted with one another at the lexical, syntactic and organizational levels, turning to the teacher when they were in trouble. Thus emerged revised papers of their first drafts. At the end of the lesson the teacher collected all the compositions for initial evaluation.

The teacher scrutinized the student papers at home in terms of grammar, vocabulary use, and organization. The problematic or incorrect areas in the papers were underlined by using the following list of abbreviations later to be given to the students:

WW wrong word
 WP wrong preposition
 WS wrong spelling
 WO wrong order
 WA wrong article
 WC word class error
 MW missing word
 MP missing preposition
 MA missing article
 PR use pronoun instead of this noun
 SS sentence structure
 T tense error
 C capitalize
 P/S plural/singular mistake
 ? I don't understand what you mean. Clarify it.

As well as these abbreviations usually written under words or phrases, sentences about more general shortcomings in student papers were also written under the student-generated texts or side comments were put at local points of the papers. No grade was written on the papers because it has no constructive role for the

students' compositions. When there is a grade on the paper, the student reads the grade and discards the whole paper (Burkland and Grimm 1986), which minimizes the effect of the comments on the paper. Therefore we did not assign any numerical grade for the students' papers.

WEEK 3

The papers examined by the teacher were handed out to the students in the first lesson of the third week. Divided into groups of four in each, the students began to study on the marked papers by using abbreviations and side-margin and bottom-margin feedbacks. The subjects tried to polish their narrative compositions in interaction with one another most of the time. Only when they were at odds as to what to do did they ask the teacher for help.

In the second writing class of the week the subjects continued to perfect their papers by using peer correction strategies. In the second half of the lesson the teacher began to help the subjects with the organization of their compositions, emphasizing the need for coherence and cohesion to write efficiently. The teacher walked around the classroom from desk to desk for any last minute tiny help before his students could write their final drafts. The teacher's close interaction with each group and student was really encouraging. Graves (1983) suggests that the teacher as a facilitator should sit or stand next to, not opposite the student whose writing he is conferencing about so as to avoid an adversarial posture.

WEEK 4

From the fourth week on the second project of our experimental treatment was initiated (see Appendix 3). This writing project involved the students in

writing about the deeds of a hero called Robin Hood.

In the first lesson of the week a pictorial stimulus and a number of questions that we expected would provoke a discussion were given to the subjects for idea generation. A semantic map about robbery and theft was created on the board to familiarize the subjects with linguistic and extralinguistic content used in talking and writing about robbery.

During the second lesson a brief encyclopedic information was presented to the subjects about Robin Hood and his companions. Later on the cubing technique was employed as a prewriting activity where the subjects described robbery and Robin Hood, read a passage about Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves to make a comparison between Robin Hood and the Forty Thieves, and discussed whether Robin was a true robber or a hero robbing the rich to help the poor.

By the end of the second lesson of the week the subjects had been provided with enough content to write at least three paragraphs, one being a descriptive narrative about Robin and his friends' lives, another comparing Robin with other thieves and a final one consisting of an argumentative statements about whether Robin was a hero or a true robber. Thus the subjects left the classroom with the assignment to write the first draft.

WEEK 5

In the first lesson of the fifth week the subjects studied on their initial drafts. To increase their topic-specific lexical capacity to complete the compositions, an original passage about Robin Hood written by a British teacher with enough attention to simplicity and clarity was photocopied and handed out.

The subjects polished their drafts with lexical and organizational aid from this passage, and handed in the first drafts to the teacher for getting feedback. As mentioned earlier the teacher examined the papers by using a list of abbreviations to indicate what sort of local mistakes there were on each paper. No correction was done by the teacher himself. Problematic areas with regard to coherence, cohesion and organization of paragraphs and sentences were indicated, and feedback of corrective and developmental nature was supplied.

In the second lesson of the fifth week the papers examined were given back to the students for further work. An interactive process began between the students in groups of four. Only when they were in a deadlock did the teacher interfere. Peer correction strategies were employed for betterment of the papers.

WEEK 6

Both writing classes of that week were allocated to the subjects' polishing their compositions through interactions on the basis of the feedback they were given about the structural, lexical and organizational mistakes in their drafts. The most impressive paper written by a fellow classmate was read aloud to the class so as to give the students fresher insights that could enable them to look at their own papers with new perspectives. A few commonly committed grammatical mistakes in using temporal conjunctions and transitional devices were retouched on on the board.

To improve the cohesion and coherence of the papers the teacher conferenced about how irrelevance occurs in paragraphs of student papers. Later on the subjects were instructed to make their last revisions of their papers before giving them to the teacher for the final evaluation.

WEEK 7

The third writing project started in the first lesson of the seventh week with a number of questions about rural and urban life (see Appendix 4). A variety of answers were provided for each question to extend each individual's extralinguistic content about the realities of city and village life. All the students took notes of the various answers being given for later use. While the questions were being answered, the teacher drew a vertical line across the blackboard, on the left of which he formed an information pool about rural life and on the right about urban life. Each category was re-outlined under two subheadings, namely the advantages and disadvantages of rural or urban life. The outlining on the board and the vocabulary needs of the students to answer the questions proved to be so fruitful that they managed to form expressive sentences which they could never have without this process of prewriting activity.

In the second lesson a sample composition which compares city and rural life, which had been written by an upper grader the year before was presented to the subjects with the hope that it could provide them with new words, structures and world knowledge about villages and cities. They were warned that the model composition was not necessarily the best one ever to be written by a student of a high school. They were encouraged to write better compositions.

WEEK 8

Since the subjects were going to write a comparison and contrast essay about city and village life, we thought it would be better to preteach the conjunctions and transitions used in such compositions. In the first lesson worksheets were handed

out which covered the conjunctions, transitions and other expressions used in writing a comparison and contrast essay. As we said earlier, only for this writing project of ours did we conduct an explicit, organized grammar lesson. We believe that students acquire language better if they learn as they need to, whether it be a word, or a conjunction or a more complicated structure. In teaching explicit grammar here we were encouraged by Raimes (1983: 270), saying “Now if any grammar is to be taught in a composition class, it should surely be the grammar of cohesion.” At the end of the lesson the subjects, fully equipped with linguistic and extralinguistic content, were assigned to write their first drafts at home and bring them back to the next lesson.

To the second writing class of the week the subjects came along with their first drafts. They were given checklists to use while checking and judging each other's drafts to provide peer feedback. The subjects were divided into groups of four and interacted with each other about one another's papers. The teacher walked around the desks on alert for any call for help. At the end of the lesson all the drafts were given to the teacher for an initial evaluation for feedback.

WEEK 9

In the first lesson the subjects were given back the papers read by the teacher to provide feedback. By using the list of abbreviations to work out their errors and reading the comments and directions on reverse side of their papers, the subjects got engaged in information-sharing activities. They began to polish their papers and helped each other.

In the second lesson of the week the teacher walked around the desks of the groups to help with linguistic areas for which the students themselves could not find a way out. After the editing procedure the papers were given back to the teacher for assessment. Later on the best compositions were stuck on the classroom billboard.

WEEK 10

The last writing project we prepared for the experimental treatment covers process writing (see Appendix 5). That is, describing a process in which something is produced or done was intended to teach the subjects. First the experimental subjects were given full texts describing how silk and paper are manufactured. After they read the text about silk production, the subjects were given a text about paper manufacture and asked to underline the linguistic features in the texts used in such process descriptions.

For the second lesson of the week the subjects were assigned to look for information about the tea plant from the school library. To the next class they came with long passages about the plant. Several students read aloud the Turkish information they had gathered. They wrote down relevant information. The teacher and dictionaries were uniquely valuable aids to translate any important points emerging from the texts being read out. They were asked to write a paragraph about the characteristics of the tea plant.

WEEK 11

The subjects were given copies of a graphic display of how tea leaves are processed to make the tea we drink after the leaves are harvested and brought to the factory. By using this information the subjects put pen to the paper to describe how tea is

manufactured. In the second lesson they used a checklist to judge and provide help for each other's drafts. At the end of the second lesson all the written drafts were handed in to the teacher.

WEEK 12

The first lesson of the week was initiated immediately after the subjects were given back their papers with the teacher's feedback on them. They were formed into groups to help with the improvement work on the papers. During the lesson the teacher was available for any clarification of points of feedback misinterpreted by the students. They were assigned to do further corrective work at home. In the second lesson peer correction strategies were employed and some of the subjects read aloud their papers. The papers took their final forms, at least for the teacher's assessment.

III. 6. Analysis of the Data

Three tests were constructed to evaluate the effects of the treatment. One of them was developed to assess the effects of the process approach to writing instruction on the overall language proficiency levels, namely grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension. This test was only a posttest because of the reasons mentioned in III. 2. The other two tests were the writing pretest and posttest, which were prepared to see the effects of the treatment on the writing skills and contextual language use.

Statview Statistical Package was used to analyze all the data obtained from the above mentioned tests. For the overall language proficiency posttest we counted the items correctly answered by each subject in each group. The numbers of

correct answers for grammar, vocabulary and reading items for each subject were computerized so as to be analyzed separately. T-test paired analysis was done to compare the groups' postexperimental overall language proficiency levels.

To analyze the data that we obtained from the writing pre- and post- test, we dissected the compositions generated by the subjects in these tests on the basis of the writing assessment criteria (Appendix 1). Then we computerized the numerical conversions of our findings in the students' texts. Here we feel obliged to mention every step of our conversion of writing criteria into analyzable numerical data for each composition. For coherence, cohesion and language development in the students' writings during the treatment we evaluated numberless sub-criteria.

We looked at the titles and assigned 2 points for titles sufficiently relevant to the given topic; 1 point for titles more or less relevant to the topic and 0 point for titles irrelevant to the topic. We used the same points scale for the macrostructure-title relevance.

For macrostructure, we read each composition to see how relevant the macrostructure was to the topic by using a points scale of 2 1 0 depending on the level of the concerned relevance. In terms of the undesired types of propositions to be deleted from a coherent text, we counted the numbers of irrelevant, trivial and redundant propositions in each paper belonging to the groups. The numbers for each person were listed for each group to be computerized for analysis.

For the schematic structure, first we looked for any introduction in the papers to see the thesis statement. We assigned 2 points for the thesis statement sufficiently relevant to the macrostructure; 1 point for the partly relevant and 0 point

for the irrelevant or nonexistent one. Secondly, we looked for the topic sentences of the paragraphs in the development parts. We used the same points scale for each topic sentence we found and added them up for a single numerical value for each subject.

For the propositional sequences that affect coherence in a text we used the criteria developed by Aksan and Çakır (1997) on the basis of Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978) theory concerned with summarizing skills. The cases were counted where each student used 1) unsupported generalizations, 2) only a sequence of items, 3) only a sequence of events, actions or causes, 4) Generalization + a sequence of items and 5) Generalization + a sequence of events, actions or causes. The numbers for each case for the subjects were listed for groups and computerized for t-test paired and unpaired groups.

As the last sub-criteria for coherence we considered the conclusions of the students' texts to see how relevant the ending was to the macrostructure according to the points scale we mentioned above: 2 1 0. The points were computerized for each subject to compare the groups by t-test paired and unpaired analyses.

As can be seen, nearly all the criteria for coherence were suitable for conversion into numerical data to carry out analyses of t-test for paired and unpaired groups. Our second main criteria was cohesion. For each subject we counted the numbers of correctly used conjunctions, transitional words, and pronominal references. These numbers were computerized to make comparisons between and within the groups by using t-test analyses.

We also looked at the compositions of the subjects to see how their actual language use in context changed due to the experimental treatment. We counted the

numbers of correctly used tenses, subject-verb agreements, prepositions, articles, correct word choice and word-class errors. T-test analyses for paired and unpaired groups were carried out.



CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

IV.1 Findings and Discussions Related to the Overall Language Proficiency Posttest

This section deals with the findings and discussion related to our first research question whether there is a significant difference between the overall language proficiency levels of the experimental group treated with the process approach and the control group left with a traditional approach. What we mean by the overall language proficiency is grammar, vocabulary and reading proficiency levels of the students. To assess the subjects' development in these skills due to the treatment, a multiple-choice test (see Appendix 7) was administered postexperimentally. Grammar, vocabulary and reading test items were all included in the same test consisting of 55 items. Tables from 3 to 6 show our tabulated findings related to these variables.

Table 3 and the following discussion on the findings are concerned with how the experimental group and the control group performed after the treatment in the grammar part of the overall language proficiency test.

TABLE 3. The results of the grammar part of the proficiency post-test.

	N	X	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GR	12	24.333	3.447	0.577	0.5700
CONTROL GR	12	23.500	3.631		

Table 3 shows that although the mean of the experimental group is higher than that of the control group, there is no significant difference between the groups in terms of their proficiency in grammar. This is probably due to the vast difference between the numbers of grammar and writing classes a week. The prep classes where we carried out our experiment have 18 grammar classes a week versus only 2 writing classes a week. Therefore the process approach to writing employed in the experimental group which was expected to have a significant effect on the subjects' overall grammar proficiency levels, seems not to have sufficed to produce a statistically significant effect. One fact to bear in mind is that the language proficiency exam consisted of multiple-choice items selected from the university entrance exams of the last ten years and measured the subjects' receptive skills. As we will see in the analysis of the writing pretests and posttests, the personal, contextual language use of the subjects of the experimental group in their compositions is relatively better in many areas of the English grammar. In the compositions of the subjects where they displayed their own productive skills, the extent to which the experimental group developed their contextual grammar use can be seen (tables 33, 34, 35, 36, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45 and 46).

TABLE 4. The results of the vocabulary part of the language proficiency post-test.

	N	X	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GR	12	5.000	0.953	2.461	0.0222
CONTROL GR	12	3.833	1.337		

As can be concluded from table 4, there is a significant difference between the experimental and the control groups in terms of vocabulary levels. This shows that the process approach to writing enables students to learn and retain more words than those left with a traditional approach. The same result can clearly be seen when the student-generated texts in student compositions have been thoroughly dissected (see tables 47, 48, 49, and 50). Both their writings and the results they scored on the multiple-choice test showed that the experimental group performed significantly better in areas of vocabulary use.

This achievement is based on the subjects' increased exposure to and frequent practice with vocabulary items in their writing activities. Nunan (1995) suggests that learners activating any knowledge of a lexical item through use and repeated exposures are more likely to retain it than those who have simply heard or read it. He also reminds us of a good aspect of the process approach stating the importance of regular revision distributed over a period of time through multiple drafts, student-student and student-teacher interactions rather than occasional massed practice of words. Schleifer (1985) suggests that skill integration in the form of combining the teaching of reading, writing and speaking is the most effective way in vocabulary teaching and resulting permanent language acquisition. The process approach to writing instruction fulfilled this valuable function of developing the vocabulary levels of the experimental group in our case.

Table 5 shows our findings about the subjects' reading comprehension levels as assessed with our multiple-choice language proficiency test (Appendix 7).

TABLE 5. The results of the reading part of the language proficiency post-test

	N	X	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GR	12	7.417	2.575	0.303	0.7648
CONTROL GR	12	7.083	2.811		

Table 5 indicates that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of reading comprehension skills at the end of the experimental treatment. The process approach to writing, thus, seems to have brought about no significant effect on the subjects' reading proficiency levels. This may also be due to the fact that the writing classes take up only a tiny part of the whole language teaching program of the prep classes which consists of 28 hours a week in which not only in writing classes but also in grammar, speaking and seminar classes the students already have reading experience sufficiently. Therefore the extra readings studied during the treatment and the students' reading of each other's multiple drafts in the writing classes did not suffice to produce a significant effect on their overall reading proficiency.

Although it is claimed in the literature that writing and reading have a reciprocal relationship, that is, proficiency in one of them will influence the other (Fillion 1979), the mode of relationship usually seems to be from reading to writing. Krashen (1981, cited in Eisterhold 1990) and still many others state that reading has an effect on writing skills rather than our failing hypothesis that development in writing skills would have a significant effect on reading comprehension levels. We had thought that both writing and reading were meaning construction, the former

encoding and the latter decoding textual meanings. Moreover, reading activities frequently used as a prewriting technique in the process approach were also expected to have a significant effect on the subjects' reading proficiency levels.

TABLE 6. The results of the overall language proficiency posttest in terms of the total scores.

	N	X	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GR	12	36.750	4.770	1.081	0.2915
CONTROL GR	12	34.417	5.760		

Table 6 shows that there is no significant difference between the groups in terms of their overall language proficiency.

To sum up, the results of the overall language proficiency test which was intended to measure the subjects' grammar, reading and vocabulary proficiency levels at the end of the treatment show that only in vocabulary level did the subjects of the experimental group perform significantly better than those in the control group. As we will see in 4.2. where the results of the writing pretest and posttest are discussed, many areas of grammar were reconsidered, but this time on the basis of the students' productive use of language during the writing procedure. The language that the subjects used in their compositions in the posttest bears interesting divergences from the results that they had from the grammar items of the overall language proficiency test (tables 33, 34, 35, 36, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45 and 46).

4.2. Findings and Discussions Related to Writing Pretest and Posttest

Our second research question was whether there is a significant difference between the writing skills of the experimental group treated with the process approach and the control group left with a traditional approach. To evaluate the writing skills of the subjects pre- and post-experimentally, we focussed on coherence and cohesion, and the subjects' improvement in contextual language use in their writings. Coherence and cohesion criteria can be found in Appendix 1 and below in 4.2.1. and 4.2.2. Before the end of this chapter, in 4.2.3., the findings and discussions about the subjects' linguistic development during the treatment can be found. In this chapter, literally unchanged quotations will be made from the compositions of the subjects to clarify our points.

4.2.1. Coherence

Coherence is not a well defined notion. It is a vague concept with different definitions. This vagueness results from its broad content which encompasses both the internal semantic structure of a text and reader-based interpretive features. A general definition of coherence would be that coherence is a concept which "is used to refer to the overall semantic structure and unity of a text" (Richards 1990: 105).

Pilus (1996) states that coherence may be viewed in two aspects: text-based and reader-based coherence. To state briefly, text-based coherence consists of: 1) unity of ideas, that is, the relevance of all the propositions in a paragraph to each other and to its topic sentence, and the relevance of that topic sentence and all the other topic sentences to the thesis statement in the introduction. 2) Organization of

points, that is, the points made in the text should progress in a logical sequence. 3) cohesion as surface marking of coherence. About reader-based coherence Pilus (1996: 47) suggests that "the context of a text must also be consistent with the reader's pragmatic knowledge or his expectations based on his world knowledge."

Pilus (1996) mainly writes of a schematic realization of coherence in her article, whereas Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) look upon textual coherence as a batch of interconnected senses conveyed by expressions occurring in a text.

A text "makes sense" because there is a CONTINUITY OF SENSES among the knowledge activated by the expressions of the text. A "senseless" or "nonsensical" text is one in which text receivers can discover no such continuity, usually because there is a serious mismatch between the configuration of concepts and relations expressed and the receivers' prior knowledge of the world. We would define this continuity of senses as the foundation of COHERENCE, being the mutual access and relevance within a configuration of CONCEPTS and RELATIONS. The configuration underlying a text is the TEXTUAL WORLD, which may or may not agree with the established version of the "real world" Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 84).

What we considered to evaluate the compositions in the pre- and post-test for coherence can be seen in Appendix 1. We considered: 1) title, 2) macrostructure (Tables 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18) in terms of its relevance to the given topic and the propositions to be deleted in the framework of the deletion rule described in van Dijk and Kintsch's (1978) macrorules and in the light of the study of Aksan and Çakır (1997) about primary school children's writings, 3) introduction, in terms of the thesis statement, 4) development, in terms of the relevance of topic sentences and propositional semantic relevance (see the paragraph prior to table 23).

TABLE 7. Independent samples t-test results for the relevance of the title to the topic.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.667	0.778	1.173	0.2535
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.000	0.603		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	1.500	0.522	1.701	0.1030
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.083	0.669		

As can be seen from table 7, the comparison of the pretests of the groups reveals that at the outset of the treatment there was no significant difference between the groups even though the control group wrote titles more relevant to the topic of the composition. The reason for this was the fact that five out of 12 students in the experimental group did not use a title, whereas only one subject in the control group did so. However, the comparison of the posttests indicated the opposite. Though there was not a significant difference, the mean of the experimental group was considerably higher than that of the control group in terms of title-topic relevance. In the posttest all the subjects in the experimental group used a title for their compositions.

TABLE 8. Dependent samples t-test results for the relevance of the title to the topic.

		N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	PRETEST	12	0.667	0.778	3.079	0.0055	
	POSTTEST		1.500	0.522			
CONTROL GROUP	PRETEST	12	1.000	0.603	0.321	0.7515	
	POSTTEST		1.083	0.669			

Table 8 shows the effects of the treatment more clearly because a comparison for each group between pre- and post-test is displayed. In the class treated with the process approach to writing, the subjects gained the ability to use titles relevant to the given topic during the treatment. There is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest results. Unlike the experimental group, the control group did not have any achievement. Their scores remained almost unchanged. Although there is no significant difference between the groups in the pretest, the process approach used as the experimental treatment led to a significant difference between the pretest and posttest of the experimental group.

TABLE 9. Independent samples t-test results for the relevance of the title to the macrostructure.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.667	0.778	1.636	0.1161
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.167	0.718		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	1.667	0.492	1.449	0.1615
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.250	0.866		

Table 9 shows that the pretest scores of the groups did not have a statistically significant difference although the means of the groups revealed that the control group performed better than the experimental group. But according to the posttest results, with the effect of the treatment, the experimental group surpassed the control group in using titles relevant to the macrostructure. However, there is no

significant difference between the groups in terms of the posttest results. Here again the great difference between the pretest results stems from the fact that almost half of the subjects in the the experimental group did not use any titles. Hence no analysis for the title-macrostructure relevance for these subjects.

TABLE 10. Dependent samples t-test results for the relevance of the title to the macrostructure.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.667	0.778	3.761	0.0011
		POSTTEST	1.667	0.492		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	1.167	0.718	0.257	0.7998
		POSTTEST	1.250	0.866		

According to the table the treatment had a significant effect on the experimental group in terms of title-macrostructure relevance. On the other hand, we see almost no change between the pretest and posttest results of the control group. The significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of the experimental group results not only from the fact that all the subjects used titles in the posttest but also from their increased ability to write more appropriate titles. A comparison of the titles used for the compositions shows that lexical and semantic nature of the titles considerably changed from pre- to post-test. Single-word titles like *the box* or *television* were replaced in the posttest with something like *From a Student's Tongue* or *It is Our Turn to Talk* about the topic of school rules.

Table 11 below deals with the relevance of the macrostructures in the compositions to the given topic. Macrostructure of the text produced by any subject should be relevant to the writing topic. The extent to which the writer deviates from the topic on his textual journey determines the coherence level of the text in terms of macrostructure-topic relevance. The propositions irrelevant to a paragraph weaken its coherence greatly while doing a relatively smaller harm to the whole text. On the other hand, whole paragraphs irrelevant to each other in a text spoil both the global coherence and the macrostructure-topic relevance.

We assigned 2 points for compositions whose macrostructures were satisfactorily relevant to the assigned topic. We assigned 1 point for compositions which have a number of irrelevant propositions. If the macrostructure was totally irrelevant to the topic, we assigned 0 point. Tables 11 and 12 show our findings about the fluctuations in macrostructure-topic relevance during the experiment.

TABLE 11. Independent samples t-test results for the relevance of the macrostructure to the topic.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	1.667	0.492	0.405	0.6893
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.583	0.515		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	1.750	0.452	1.685	0.1062
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.417	0.515		

It is seen that there is no significant difference between the groups in the pretest and posttest. Whereas the experimental group performed only a little better

than the control group in the pretest, they performed much better in the posttest.

Nevertheless, the differences are not statistically significant.

TABLE 12. Dependent samples t-test results for the relevance of the macrostructure to the topic.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	1.667	0.492	0.432	0.6701
		POSTTEST	1.750	0.452		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	1.583	0.515	0.793	0.4363
		POSTTEST	1.417	0.515		

Table 12 indicates that there is no significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of the experimental group, nor is there any between those of the control group. This means that the experimental treatment had no statistically significant effect on the relevance of the macrostructure of the subjects' compositions to the given topic. Yet it can be seen that the mean scores of the experimental group increased due to the treatment, while those of the control group decreased to some extent. Since all the means for both groups and for both tests are very similar, it is not possible to say whether the process approach to writing has a positive or negative effect on constructing macrostructures relevant to the given topic.

Tables 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18 refer to the propositions in a text to be deleted because they are either irrelevant to the macrostructure, or trivial, or redundant. Because the macrostructure represents the global meaning of a text, such propositions spoiling this global meaning as those mentioned above are to be deleted

according to the deletion rule described in Van Dijk and Kintsch's (1978) macrorules. Although these rules were originally meant to develop summarizing skills to get the most succinct and coherent subtext from a text, we used the deletion rule to see which propositions could be deleted from the compositions because they were irrelevant, trivial or redundant. The bigger their number in a composition, the weaker the coherence.

To collect data about irrelevant propositions we read the pre- and post-test writings of the students underlining and later counting such propositions. While doing this, what we paid particular attention to was the propositions irrelevant to the macrostructure of the text rather than those irrelevant to the given topic. However, this does not mean that many students had macrostructures irrelevant to the assigned topic. This can clearly be seen in tables 11 and 12 above.

TABLE 13. Independent samples t-test results for the number of irrelevant propositions in terms of the macrostructures of the students' compositions.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.583	0.669	0.928	0.3636
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.333	0.651		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.583	0.900	0.724	0.4766
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.333	3.473		

Table 13 shows that while in the pretest the experimental group used more irrelevant propositions, it was the control group that used more in the posttest. As can be seen from the table, the experimental group remained the same in terms of

the number of irrelevant propositions, whereas the control group used twice as many as the the experimental group.

TABLE 14. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of irrelevant propositions in terms of the macrostructures of the students' compositions.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.583	0.669	0	-
		POSTTEST	0.583	0.900		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.333	0.651	0.980	0.3376
		POSTTEST	1.333	3.473		

It can be seen from table 14 that the number of irrelevant propositions in the compositions remained the same for the experimental group. As for the control group, they used a bigger number of irrelevant propositions in the posttest even though this considerable increase is not statistically significant. The fact that the experimental group neither decreased nor increased their number of propositions irrelevant to the macrostructure does not mean that the process approach to teaching writing, used as the treatment, had no effect on the subjects. This can be explained by the findings in table 49 and 50 where we see the biggest effect of the process approach. These tables show that the experimental group increased their quantity of writing almost twofold due to the effect of the treatment, whereas the control group's fluency of writing remained almost the same. From this we can conclude that the experimental group's using the same number of irrelevant propositions in the posttest although the compositions were twice larger in quantity can be put down to the

positive effect of the process approach used in the writing classes of the experimental group.

TABLE 15. Independent samples t-test results for the number of trivial propositions in student compositions.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.750	1.357	1.665	0.1101
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.083	0.289		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	1.000	1.128	2.138	0.0439
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.250	0.452		

Table 15 indicates that there is a significant difference between the posttest results of the groups. Speaking only on the basis of the posttest results the control group seems to have used significantly fewer propositions containing trivial information than the experimental group. But there are two points to consider: it would be unfair to associate the significantly more trivia of the experimental group with the experimental treatment. The number of trivial propositions was already great in the pretest. Secondly the process approach, as we will see later, caused a sharp increase in the quantity of the compositions. The bigger the quantity, the bigger the number of trivial propositions.

TABLE 16. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of trivial propositions in student compositions.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.750	1.357	0.491	0.6284
		POSTTEST	1.000	1.128		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.083	0.289	1.076	0.2936
		POSTTEST	0.250	0.452		

There is no significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of each group. This shows that the amount of trivial information used in the compositions did not decrease significantly during the treatment. However, the means of the groups show clearly that the class treated with the process approach used a few more trivial propositions than they did in the pretest, while the control group tripled this number from pretest to posttest.

TABLE 17. Independent samples t-test results for the number of redundant propositions in the compositions.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.167	0.577	1.000	0.3282
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0	0		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.167	0.389	0.596	0.5575
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.083	0.289		

What we mean by redundant propositions are those repeated unnecessarily in the same composition. Their repetition in inadequate textual locations

decreases coherence level, so they were to be deleted. The number of propositions to be deleted simply because they were redundant was expected to be lower in the posttest due to the experimental treatment. But as can be seen in table 17, neither in the pretest nor in the posttest was there any significant difference between the groups. How the groups changed within themselves during the treatment can be seen in table 18 below.

TABLE 18. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of redundant propositions in the compositions.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.167	0.577	0	-
		POSTTEST	0.167	0.389		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0	0	1.000	0.3282
		POSTTEST	0.083	0.289		

Table 18 shows that the experimental treatment had no effect on the experimental group in terms of the number of redundant propositions used in the compositions, which turned out to be the same at the end of the experiment. On the other hand, the comparison of the pretest and posttest results of the control group showed that their use of redundant propositions increased although the increase is not significant.

In conclusion, from the standpoint of the deletion rule referring to deleting irrelevant, trivial and redundant propositions from texts, it seems that the class treated with the process approach could not produce significantly better

macrostructures in the posttest than in the pretest. But it should be kept in mind that the number of such unwanted propositions was not big enough to say that they decreased coherence levels of the compositions. Given their highly increased fluency of writing, we can say that the experimental group's position remained unchanged.

Tables from 19 to 32 are about schematic nature of the compositions of the students. As a subcriteria for coherence we also looked at the schematic structures of the compositions. For schema, we dealt with the introduction parts for thesis statements; the development parts for topic sentences and the relationships between the propositions and generalizations; and the conclusion parts for the ending-macrostructure relevance.

TABLE 19. Independent samples t-test results for the thesis statement.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.083	0.289	2.053	0.0522
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.583	0.793		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	1.167	0.835	1.889	0.0721
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.583	0.669		

Tables 19 and 20 are about the subjects' use of a thesis statement in the introductory parts of their compositions. Table 19 reveals that while the control group used significantly better thesis statements in the pretest, we do not see the same achievement in the posttest. In contrast, the means show that it was the experimental group that performed better although the difference was not statistically significant.

The effect of the experimental treatment can be clearly seen when the pretest and posttest results of each group are compared as in the following table.

TABLE 20. Dependent samples t-test results for the thesis statement.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.083	0.289	4.248	0.0003
		POSTTEST	1.167	0.835		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.583	0.793	0	-
		POSTTEST	0.583	0.669		

Table 20 indicates that owing to the treatment the class where writing lessons were conducted with the process approach used significantly better thesis statements than the control group, who did not change their position during the treatment. The results of tables 19 and 20 show that the appropriateness of thesis statements used by the experimental group increased significantly from pre- to post-test due to the treatment. Table 20 shows that the control group's ability to use appropriate thesis statements did not benefit anything from the traditional approach they were left with.

This achievement of the experimental group means that the subjects began to use a primary macroproposition in the introductions of their compositions which controls the other propositions. In terms of using an appropriate thesis statement, the process approach had a significant effect on the subjects.

To evaluate the schematic structures of the writing pretest and posttest, the second component was the development parts in the compositions. To see the

coherence level of the development, we first looked at the topic sentences of the paragraphs in the development parts. 2 points was assigned for topic sentences which reflect the other propositions in a paragraph; 1 point for those with intermediate relevance and 0 for no topic sentence. The points for the topic sentences were added for each paper. The tables 21 and 22 show the findings about topic sentences. The other criteria with which we evaluated the propositional nature of the developments are explained prior to the table 23.

TABLE 21. Independent samples t-test results for the topic sentences used in the development parts of the compositions.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	2.000	1.206	0.150	0.8824
	CONTROL GROUP	12	2.083	1.505		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	2.583	1.730	1.628	0.1179
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.583	1.240		

According to table 21, whereas the groups were almost completely equal in the pretest, the experimental group surpassed the control group in the posttest. However, this difference is not statistically significant.

TABLE 22. Dependent samples t-test results for the topic sentences used in the development parts of the compositions.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	2.000	1.206	0.958	0.3484
		POSTTEST	2.583	1.730		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	2.083	1.505	0.888	0.3841
		POSTTEST	1.583	1.240		

The table reveals that owing to the treatment the experimental group used topic sentences of higher quality in the posttest than they did in the pretest. On the other hand, the control group's mean scores show a decline in the quality of topic sentences they used. Both tables above show that although there is a development in the experimental group in terms of using appropriate topic sentences, this is not significant in statistical terms.

The tables 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, and 30 are concerned with the sequential design of micropropositions in the student-generated texts. Semantic relations between the propositions in a text are to be closely considered to say anything about its coherence. Therefore, each composition in the pre- and post-test was examined in terms of the nature of clusters of propositions and macropropositions summarizing them. To get insights into these propositional relationships, we referred to the report of Aksan and Çakır (1997) about textuality criteria for writings of primary school children, which is based on Kintsch and Van Dijk's (1978) theory concerning summarization skills. We used the same criteria as Aksan and Çakır

(1997) to evaluate the students' compositions in terms of the categories of propositional clusters that may be found in a text: 1) unsupported generalizations, 2) only a sequence of items, 3) only a sequence of events, actions, or causes, 4) generalization + a sequence of items and 5) generalization + sequence of events, actions or causes (see Appendix 1). The experimental subjects were not given any special education about these criteria prior to or during the experimental period. Instead we considered the natural effects of the process approach to writing employed in three months limited to the instructional materials given in Appendices 2,3,4, and 5.

For these particular propositional sequences mentioned above, original examples from the students' compositions will be cited under each relevant table.

TABLE 23. Independent samples t-test results for the instances where the subjects used unsupported generalizations.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.500	0.522	0.277	0.7841
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.417	0.900		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.167	0.389	0	-
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.167	0.577		

Table 23 shows that there is no significant difference between the groups both in the pretest and the posttest. This means the number of unsupported generalizations in the subjects' compositions was not significantly affected by the process approach and the traditional approach to writing instruction. This result was

what we wanted for the coherence level of the compositions. However, the experimental group had no superiority over the control group.

TABLE 24. Dependent samples t-test results for the instances where the subjects used unsupported generalizations.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.500	0.522	1.773	0.0901
		POSTTEST	0.167	0.389		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.417	0.900	0.810	0.4268
		POSTTEST	0.167	0.577		

When table 24 has been examined, it will be seen that the number of unsupported generalizations used by the experimental group decreased to a great extent, though not significantly, from pre- to post-test. Using generalizations alone in compositions without a sequence of supportive micropropositions denoting events, causes or notions was something that we did not want to see in coherent writings. The following paragraph written in the pretest by a subject in the experimental group contains an unsupported generalization which is totally irrelevant to the other propositions as well. The unsupported generalization is underlined:

I think television is useful but sometimes it is useless for the students. In 1945 people weren't watching TV. Because there wasn't a television. The people [were] listening to radio for learning a new. But the people are watching a television now. Because technology is a big.

The decrease of such unsupported generalizations in the experimental group's compositions due to the treatment is something to appreciate though it is not significant in statistical terms. The same decrease is also true for the control group, though a little smaller.

TABLE 25. Independent samples t-test results for the instances where the subjects used only a sequence of events, actions or causes.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.333	0.651	1.216	0.2370
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.083	0.289		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.250	0.452	0.394	0.6977
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.167	0.577		

As can be seen from our writing assessment criteria (Appendix 1), only a sequence of events, actions or causes refers to a textual sequence of micropropositions that could be generalized by using a macroproposition. The following paragraph consists of propositions without any super-concept or generalization, which we will state after the paragraph:

Today we watch the news. Yes, it's useful. We learn many things about our country, but sometimes we watch bad news. It makes we [us] very sad . A person doesn't stand up in front of the TV many times [most of his time]. He sits down in front of T.V. 5 or 6 hours. Sometimes he forgets his work. Sometimes we don't sleep because of film.

The propositions in this paragraph, which are more or less interconnected, lack the generalization or macroproposition that television has bad and good sides depending on the time devoted to it and the kinds of programmes watched. Of course, a prep student would not have been able to produce literally the same sentence in the pretest with his/her limited language knowledge, but he/she could have expressed the same meaning. Such propositional clusters without a generalization are desired to be rare in coherent texts. Table 25 shows that although the difference is not significant, the experimental group used more such instances in the pretest than the control group. But after the treatment the difference became smaller.

TABLE 26. Dependent samples t-test results for the instances where the subjects used a sequence of events, actions or causes.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.333	0.651	0.364	0.7193
		POSTTEST	0.250	0.452		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.083	0.289	0.447	0.6591
		POSTTEST	0.167	0.577		

Table 26 indicates that the experimental group's number of only a sequence of events, actions or causes in their compositions decreased from pre- to post-test. The difference is not significant though. The control group where writing lessons were conducted with a traditional approach used twice as many instances of such propositional sequences in the posttest as they did in the pretest. To sum up,

while the process class began to use fewer such propositional clusters, the traditional class increased this number twofold. However, the differences were insignificant.

TABLE 27. Independent samples t-test results for the instances where the subjects used generalization + a sequence of items.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.250	0.452	1.915	0.0686
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0	0		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.583	0.669	3.023	0.0063
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0	0		

The propositional sequences analyzed here with table 27 correspond to generalization + a sequence of items in the writing assessment criteria (Appendix 1). These instances of propositional sequences refer to a sequence of items in the students' compositions together with a superordinate term to generalize them. Generally a verb phrase generalizes a number of nominal phrases in such textual situations. Two examples taken from the students' compositions, one about the posttest topic the criticism of school rules and another about the pretest topic television, are given below:

Example 1: *...But of course one or two rules are necessary for example [= those concerning] shoes, jewelry , and hair.*

Example 2: *...The people teach good things at the television. These are [They teach] beautiful speech, good realize [good will], love and life.*

As can be seen, the words in bold letters in the first example are exemplars of the generalization that some rules are necessary. Similarly the bold written noun phrases in the second example do also form a list of items for the general proposition given about good things people learn from or teach through TV.

Table 27 shows that both in the pretest and the posttest the experimental group used more examples of generalization + a sequence of items than the control group. In fact we encountered no such instances in the control group's compositions.

TABLE 28. Dependent samples t-test results for the instances where the subjects used generalization + a sequence of items.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.250	0.452	1.431	0.1666
		POSTTEST	0.583	0.669		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0	0	0	-
		POSTTEST	0	0		

The table indicates that the experimental group used considerably more instances of generalization + a sequence of items in the posttest than in the pretest. However, the increase is not statistically significant. Neither in the pretest nor in the posttest did the control group use any such propositional examples. Both groups' using such propositional sequences infrequently is something good for coherence on their parts although the instances of a generalization + a sequence of items does not cause incoherence as long as they are followed by other propositions relevant to them. The tables 27, 28, 29, and 30 show that the class treated with the process approach

became gradually aware during the treatment that they had to use generalizations with any related sequences of micropropositions.

TABLE 29. Independent samples t-test results for the instances where the subjects used generalization + a sequence of events, actions or causes.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	2.333	0.985	1.142	0.2659
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.917	0.793		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	2.667	0.778	3.386	0.0027
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.500	0.905		

Table 29 shows that in terms of the instances of generalization + a sequence of events, actions, or causes used in the subjects' compositions there is a significant difference between the posttest results of the groups while there is none in the pretest. As expected the postexperimental text production skills of the experimental group surpassed that of the control group. Such instances as a number of interconnected micropropositions co-existing with a macroproposition generalizing them are typical of building blocks of a coherent text. The class left with a traditional approach during the experimental period usually did produce single drafts and did not get any written or oral feedback on those particular drafts. Therefore their ability to use subordinate propositions with a super-concept gradually weakened during the treatment. The following sentences written by a student from the experimental group in the posttest is a good example for generalization + a list of events, actions, or

causes: *It is a good rules that the students must come to school in time. If the students didn't come in time, the headmaster would give some punishment. If there were an exam that day, the students wouldn't succuseful. Because the other students start earlier than him/her..."*

TABLE 30. Dependent samples t-test results for the instances where the subjects used generalization + a sequence of events, actions or causes.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	2.333	0.985	0.920	0.3676
		POSTTEST	2.667	0.778		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	1.917	0.793	1.200	0.2429
		POSTTEST	1.500	0.905		

Table 30 refers to the results for the same variable in terms of the development of each group within itself during the experimental treatment. It is observed that the increase of the experimental group's scores from pre- to post-test is not significant. On the other hand the subjects of the control group considerably decreased their use of generalization with a sequence of events, actions or causes.

As the last component of schematic natures of the compositions in terms of coherence, we examined the endings in the compositions to see whether an ending used in a paper reflects the macrostructure of the whole text (tables 31 and 32 below). We assigned a 3-scale measurement for this variable: 2 1 0. We assigned 2 points for endings clearly relevant, 1 point for more or less relevant and 0 point for irrelevant

to the macrostructure. For the papers with no ending, we assigned 0 point for this variable.

TABLE 31. Independent samples t-test results for the relevance of the ending to the macrostructure of the composition.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.667	0.651	0.290	0.7747
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.750	0.754		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	1.167	0.835	0.752	0.4599
	CONTROL GROUP	12	0.917	0.793		

Table 31 shows that there is no significant difference between the groups both in the pretest and the posttest. However, the posttest results show that it is the experimental group that benefited relatively more from the experimental period. They had endings which were more relevant to the macrostructures of their compositions.

TABLE 32. Dependent samples t-test results for the relevance of the ending to the macrostructure of the composition.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.667	0.661	1.636	0.1164
		POSTTEST	1.167	0.835		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.750	0.754	0.528	0.6030
		POSTTEST	0.917	0.793		

According to table 32, the class treated with the process approach developed their ability to use appropriate endings in their compositions considerably

from pretest to posttest. Yet this increase is not statistically significant. On the other hand we see a tiny difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the control group. This means that the traditional product-oriented approach used in the writing lessons of the control group did not have much effect on this variable.

4.2.2. Cohesion

Cook (1994: 29) defines the notion of cohesion as “the formal linguistic realization of semantic and pragmatic relations between clauses and sentences in a text.” We looked at three types of cohesive markers: 1) conjunctions (subordinators and coordinators), 2) transitional signals and 3) pronominal references. When taken individually, all of them refer to cohesion, but if taken separately correct use of conjunctions and transitional words is also concerned with grammatical improvement of the subjects. Therefore, while assessing the linguistic development of the subjects on the basis of their productive language use in their compositions, we looked at how effectively conjunctions and transitional devices were used in addition to the other variables such as tense, preposition, article and subject-verb agreement.

Something to bear in mind is that cohesive markers were not taught according to an organized linear plan during the experiment. The subjects asked about them whenever they needed, so they acquired the devices naturally. Teaching all the cohesive elements would have been impossible because our time was limited and the subjects were prep students not needing all of them for their writing classes. Only the list of conjunctive elements appearing in Halliday (1985) contains over 40 items. Another thing is that the control group was left with a traditional product-oriented

approach to writing, so it would have been unjust to explicitly teach the cohesive markers only to the experimental group. The tables below (33, 34, 35, 36, 37, and 38) are concerned with the level of cohesion in the writing pretest and posttest papers.

TABLE 33. Independent samples t-test results for the number of conjunctions used correctly.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	5.583	3.204	0	-
	CONTROL GROUP	12	5.583	2.539		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	13.750	5.879	2.796	0.0105
	CONTROL GROUP	12	7.167	5.654		

Table 33 shows us that the number of conjunctions used correctly in the pretest was the same for both groups. Hence no significant difference at the outset of the treatment. It is clearly seen that due to the experimental treatment both groups increased their use of conjunctions. But by comparison, the group where the process approach was employed in the writing lessons significantly increased their correct use of conjunctions. There is a significant difference between the posttest results of the group.

TABLE 34. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of conjunctions used correctly.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	5.583	3.204	4.225	0.0003
		POSTTEST	13.750	5.879		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	5.583	2.539	0.885	0.3858
		POSTTEST	7.167	5.654		

Table 34 confirms our finding in table 33 from a different perspective.

This time each group is considered within itself by comparing the pretest and posttest results. There is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of the experimental group, which means that the experimental treatment had a significant effect on the subjects' using conjunctions correctly in their compositions. On the other hand, there is no significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of the control group.

This finding is important not only in terms of cohesive levels of the compositions but also for the simple reason that it means the compositions of the experimental group had a higher level of sentential complexity.

TABLE 35. Independent samples t-test results for the number of transitional signals used correctly.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	0.750	1.215	2.501	0.0203
	CONTROL GROUP	12	2.333	1.826		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	2.000	1.477	1.431	0.1664
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.250	1.055		

According to table 35, although the control group was significantly better than the experimental group at using transitional signals in the pretest, this superiority of theirs diminished until the posttest owing to the benefit that the experimental group had from the treatment. There is no longer any significant difference between the groups if the posttest results are to be compared.

TABLE 36. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of transitional signals used correctly.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	0.750	1.215	2.264	0.0338
		POSTTEST	2.000	1.477		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	2.333	1.826	1.780	0.0890
		POSTTEST	1.250	1.055		

Due to the experimental treatment there occurred a significant difference between the numbers of transitional signals used by the experimental group in the

pretest and posttest. They used significantly more transitional words in the posttest than in the pretest. As for the control group, they used considerably fewer correct transitions in the posttest than they did in the pretest.

We associate any improvement in the experimental group's writings with the feedback supplied by the teacher and the corrective nature of revision in the form of multiple drafting through interactive and collaborative work. The subjects benefited significantly from the process approach to writing in terms of using transitional devices. This finding is inconsistent with that of Toros (1991), who found that a more structured traditional approach was significantly more effective than the process approach. But the 4-week time she spent on her research was, as she admitted, too short to see the true effects of the process approach. Our research lasted 12 weeks.

TABLE 37. Independent samples t-test results for the number of pronominal references used correctly.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	5.500	6.360	1.412	0.1719
	CONTROL GROUP	12	8.667	4.459		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	9.833	5.114	3.232	0.0038
	CONTROL GROUP	12	4.250	3.108		

Table 37 shows that while the scores of the control group were considerably higher in the pretest, the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the posttest. This shows that the number of pronominal references which the process group used in their compositions increased

significantly due to the process approach employed in their writing lessons. The control group left with a traditional approach apparently failed to develop the ability to use pronominal references for cohesion.

What is meant by pronominal references was subjective, objective, possessive and demonstrative pronouns used anaphorically in the compositions. During the experimental period awkward nominal repetitions which could be expressed more economically and cohesively with a pronominal replacement were underlined while the teacher was marking the papers for feedback. Feedback and revision processes seem to have a significant effect on the subjects of the experimental group.

TABLE 38. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of pronominal references used correctly.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	5.500	6.360	1.839	0.0794
		POSTTEST	9.883	5.114		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	8.667	4.459	2.815	0.0101
		POSTTEST	4.250	3.108		

Table 38 shows that the number of pronouns used correctly by the experimental group increased considerably during the treatment, whereas the control group used significantly fewer correct pronominals in the posttest than the pretest. The means of the groups show that the number of correctly used pronouns increased almost twofold in the compositions of the experimental group, while this number

decreased almost twofold in the control group. Therefore tables 37 and 38 lead us to the conclusion that the process approach to writing, employed as the treatment, had a salient effect on the subjects' using pronominal references to generate cohesive texts.

4.2.3. Comparison of the Subjects' Pretest and Posttest Compositions in Terms of Their Linguistic Improvement

Apart from the results of the overall language proficiency posttest, administered in the form of multiple-choice items, we also looked at the compositions of the subjects so as to get insights into their linguistic improvement during the experiment. As we saw in chapter 4.1., the multiple-choice test which we prepared by selecting items from the last ten years' university entrance exams did not produce any results corresponding to a significant difference between the groups in terms of grammar and reading. It showed a significant difference only between the vocabulary levels of the groups. The experimental group was significantly better. Because we felt during the treatment period that the experimental group's productive language use in their compositions began to improve remarkably, we decided to evaluate the compositions in the pretest and posttest to see to what extent grammar and vocabulary use changed. For grammar we considered tenses, prepositions, articles, subject-verb agreements, two cohesion criteria – conjunctions and transitional words. For vocabulary we looked at the number of contextually right words and the number of word class errors. The tables from 39 to 50 refer to our findings about the fluctuations in the groups' productive language use in their compositions.

TABLE 39. Independent samples t-test results for the number of tenses used correctly.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	21.000	10.453	0.195	0.8476
	CONTROL GROUP	12	21.750	8.312		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	33.167	12.029	3.492	0.0021
	CONTROL GROUP	12	18.083	8.898		

Table 39 indicates that the groups were almost equal in the pretest in terms of correct use of the English verb tenses, whereas in the posttest the experimental group's number of correct tenses was significantly bigger than the control group.

TABLE 40. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of tenses used correctly.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	21.000	10.453	2.645	0.0148
		POSTTEST	33.167	12.029		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	21.750	8.313	1.043	0.3082
		POSTTEST	18.083	8.898		

According to table 40, there is a significant difference between the number of tenses used by the experimental group in the pretest and that in the posttest. This shows that the experimental group acquired the ability to use the tenses correctly during the treatment. As for the control group, there occurred a decrease in the

number of correctly used tenses in the posttest as compared to the pretest.

The two tables above show that the process approach to writing instruction had a significant effect on the subjects' using the tenses correctly. The writing pretest was about television and the posttest about school rules, so the tense to be used most extensively was the simple present tense. However, some subjects in the experimental group used other tenses when referring to past experiences to give examples. The experimental group is superior to the control group in using tenses in complex sentences as well. This is confirmed by table 33 and 34 where we saw that they used conjunctions significantly more efficiently than the control group. It is known that the sentences with conjunctions usually have at least two verb forms – a subordinate clause and a main clause. Here lies the true efficiency of the experimental group because they used the tenses correctly not only in simple sentences but also in various types of clauses.

Another point is that when the pretest was administered, the prep classes where we conducted the present research knew only simple present tense, present continuous tense, present and past forms of *to be* and structures expressing possession. But in the second school term covering our experimental period, all the tenses and structures in which tenses are used were taught to the students in all prep classes. These facts show that the groups were equal in the pretest when they knew only three tenses or so. Therefore the experimental group's true success is greater according to the posttest results and the comparison of their own pre-and post-test results. They used tenses significantly more efficiently than the control group at a time when all the tenses were concerned.

TABLE 41. Independent samples t-test results for the number of subject-verb agreement used correctly.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	21.500	10.553	0.370	0.7150
	CONTROL GROUP	12	22.917	8.039		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	31.417	8.826	3.406	0.0025
	CONTROL GROUP	12	19.333	8.553		

Table 41 reveals that the groups were statistically equal in the pretest in terms of subject-verb agreements in the compositions, while they were not so in the posttest. The posttest results show that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group.

TABLE 42. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of subject-verb agreement used correctly.

		N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	PRETEST	12	PRETEST	21.500	10.553	2.497	0.0205
	POSTTEST		POSTTEST	31.417	8.826		
CONTROL GROUP	PRETEST	12	PRETEST	22.917	8.039	1.058	0.3018
	POSTTEST		POSTTEST	19.333	8.553		

This table confirms our finding in the previous one. The improvement that the experimental group had from pre- to post-test was significant. On the other hand there is no significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of the control

group. In fact, there is a small drop in their number of correct use of subject-verb agreements.

TABLE 43. Independent samples t-test results for the number of prepositions used correctly.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	9.167	6.939	0.289	0.7752
	CONTROL GROUP	12	9.917	5.712		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	16.083	8.785	2.069	0.0505
	CONTROL GROUP	12	9.500	6.654		

The table shows that while there was no significant difference between the groups in the pretest in terms of correct use of prepositions, the experimental group performed significantly better in the posttest than the control group.

TABLE 44. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of prepositions used correctly.

		N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	PRETEST	12	PRETEST	9.167	6.939	2.140	0.0437
	POSTTEST		POSTTEST	16.083	8.785		
CONTROL GROUP	PRETEST	12	PRETEST	9.917	5.712	0.165	0.8708
	POSTTEST		POSTTEST	9.500	6.654		

According to table 44, a comparison of the experimental group's pre- and post-test results shows that they improved significantly during the treatment in terms

of correct use of prepositions. On the other hand, there is no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the control group. The mean scores that they made decreased in the posttest a little.

Here again the experimental group's success can be associated with the feedback given, collaborative work to revise drafts for the compositions written during the treatment. Certain prepositions suitable for the proficiency level of prep classes were recycled and recycled during the experimental treatment and consolidated owing to the process approach to writing. In fact, both topic-specific and general prepositions were reinforced during the treatment because each draft written passed by the teacher's eyes and wrong prepositions were indicated with the abbreviation "WP".

TABLE 45. Independent samples t-test results for the number of articles used correctly.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	23.750	9.983	0.344	0.7345
	CONTROL GROUP	12	25.250	11.363		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	34.500	11.406	3.579	0.0017
	CONTROL GROUP	12	19.417	9.110		

Examining the table will show that the groups were statistically equal in the pretest in terms of article use, whereas in the posttest the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group.

TABLE 46. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of articles used correctly.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	23.750	9.983	2.457	0.0224
		POSTTEST	34.500	11.406		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	25.250	11.363	1.387	0.1792
		POSTTEST	19.417	9.110		

Table 46 reveals that there was a significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of the experimental group. The process approach used in the experimental group had a significant effect on the subjects' using articles correctly. In comparison, there was a decrease in the number of articles used correctly by the control group during the period.

The most frequently encountered error of article use was using the indefinite article "a" persistently when a further mention of the same noun occurred, which necessitates the use of "the". Feedback and conferencing with the subjects solved the problem considerably.

Table 47 below refers to our findings concerning the subjects' correct word choice in their compositions. In deciding what kind of words to be counted as contextually right, we followed a predetermined procedure. Articles, wrong prepositions, conjunctions, and transitional words were excluded from word count. Word class errors such as using a noun instead of an adjective though the word is well chosen (i.e. writing a *product* girl for a *productive* girl) were counted correct.

Because errors, articles, prepositions, conjunctions and transitional words were counted separately as distinct criteria, we excluded them from the number of correct word choice numbers. The counting of the words in the texts was important for another reason. In this way we found out whether the process approach or a traditional approach to writing had positive effects on the subjects' writing fluency or textual quantity.

TABLE 47. Independent samples t-test results for the number correct word choice.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	126.417	65.513	0.354	0.7267
	CONTROL GROUP	12	134.917	51.240		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	202.667	84.405	2.842	0.0095
	CONTROL GROUP	12	118.250	58.842		

Table 47 shows that whereas there was no significant difference between the pretest results of the groups, the experimental group wrote more contextually right words than the control group in the posttest. This improvement of the experimental group displays their level of word choice and writing fluency which they reached owing to the process approach used in their writing lessons.

TABLE 48. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of correct word choice.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	126.417	65.513	2.472	0.0216
		POSTTEST	202.667	84.405		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	134.917	51.240	0.740	0.4672
		POSTTEST	118.250	58.842		

The comparison of each group's pretest and posttest scores shows the extent of their improvement in word choice more clearly. The amount of correct word choice increased significantly for the experimental group from pre- to post-test. But the same thing did not occur for the control group, the quantity of whose writings decreased greatly although the decrease was not significant in statistical terms.

These findings show that the process approach develops both the quality and quantity of student writers' vocabulary. The huge improvement in the experimental group's fluency cannot be disregarded and should be put down to the features of the process approach to the teaching of writing. The subjects in the experimental group acquired the ability of idea generation through prewriting activities. They wrote multiple drafts. They collaborated to share each other's linguistic and content schematas and revised while the control group wrote single drafts for each topic given to them. No feedback and probably no revision was made available by their teacher.

The experimental group's increased use of dictionaries while drafting and revising should be another factor contributing to their increasing lexical capacity.

Their struggle for choosing the right word and their lexical need to express themselves put them in closer contact with dictionaries and the teacher. They opened their dictionaries and consulted the teacher whenever they saw the abbreviation "WW" (i.e. wrong word) in their marked drafts.

TABLE 49. Independent samples t-test results for the number of word-class errors.

		N	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
PRETEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	3.083	3.118	1.766	0.0912
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.333	1.030		
POSTTEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	1.167	1.435	0.201	0.8422
	CONTROL GROUP	12	1.083	0.996		

The variable *word class errors* refers to the wrong use of a word in terms of its verb, noun, adjective and adverb forms. Writing a *product* girl instead of a *productive* girl is a good example to show how a word class error is committed.

Table 49 shows that the number of word class errors made by the experimental group was considerably bigger than that of the control group in the pretest. But in the posttest the experimental group was seen to have made fewer such errors. This is a positive effect of the treatment as we can also see below.

TABLE 50. Dependent samples t-test results for the number of word-class errors.

	N	TESTS	\bar{X}	SD	t	P < 0.05
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	12	PRETEST	3.083	3.118	2.022	0.0555
		POSTTEST	1.167	1.030		
CONTROL GROUP	12	PRETEST	1.333	1.435	0.496	0.6251
		POSTTEST	1.083	0.996		


Table 50 reveals that the number of word class errors committed by the experimental group decreased significantly from pretest to posttest, while this figure remained almost unchanged for the control group.

All these findings concerning the subjects' productive language use in their writings lead to conclusions inconsistent with the findings we obtained from the data analysis of the multiple-choice posttest that we administered to evaluate the subjects' overall language proficiency levels. Although both the multiple-choice test and the assessment of the subjects' writing pre- and post-tests for vocabulary improvement show that the class treated with the process approach had better vocabulary levels than the traditional class, the same cannot be said for grammatical development. The findings from the multiple-choice test indicated that the grammar levels of both groups were statistically equal in the pretest and posttest. It seemed that the treatment had no significant effect on the subjects' grammar improvement. But unlike the multiple-choice test, the evaluation of the students' compositions displayed striking differences between the groups. It was seen that the process approach as the

treatment, in fact, had a significant effect on the subjects' grammar improvement in terms of correct use of tenses, prepositions, articles, conjunctions and transitional devices.

The experimental group's significantly more correct use and bigger number of prepositions, conjunctions and transitional devices correspond to the syntactic complexity of their compositions in the posttest. Finn, P. J. (1977: 70) states this clearly in these words:

...there is an intrinsic feature of writing which we may call "syntax complexity." One may reason that persons who produce more complex syntax are apt to use more prepositions and subordinating conjunctions than persons who produce less complex syntax....



CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

V.1. Conclusions Related to the First Research Question.

Our first research question was whether there is a significant difference between grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension levels of the control group left with a traditional approach and the experimental group treated with the process approach. A multiple choice posttest (Appendix 7) was used to measure the changes in the levels of the students in these areas.

V.1.1. Conclusions Related to the Effects of the Process Approach on Grammar.

We looked at the subjects' improvement in grammar proficiency by using a multiple choice posttest and comparing their contextual language production in the pre-and post-test writings. Although the multiple choice proficiency test showed that there was no significant difference between the process approach group and the traditional group in terms of grammar proficiency, the examination and comparison of the compositions in the writing pre- and post-test showed that there were strikingly significant differences between the actual grammar use of the groups. The process approach to writing instruction had a significant effect on the subjects in terms of the number of correctly used conjunctions, transitional signals, tenses, articles, prepositions and subject verb agreements. (see tables 33, 34, 35, 36, and 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 44, 45, and 46). This suprasentential, meaning-focused rather than rule-focused, sentential level grammar proficiency is more desirable (Keh, 1991).

This raises doubts as to the general reliability of multiple-choice tests in measuring the linguistic proficiency of students. Such tests usually reflect receptive skills of students in terms of their reactions only to the items included in the test, whereas the true linguistic improvement or proficiency of students is more reliably measured when they are invited to produce their own linguistic output. In these respects, we look upon the compositions of the groups as more reliable sources in which to see whether the process approach had the intended effect on the grammar levels of the subjects. Yes it did.

V.1.2. Conclusions Related to the Effects of the Process Approach on Vocabulary.

Both the vocabulary part of the multiple-choice proficiency posttest and the examination of the student compositions (tables 4, 47, 48, 49, and 50) showed that the process approach had a significant effect on the subjects' vocabulary improvement. The contextually correctly used lexical items in the compositions of the process approach class were found to be almost 3 times as many as those of the students in the traditional group. The experimental group's more frequent exposure to dictionaries to find the right word and the teacher's feedback on the drafts and direct help seem to have enabled them to use more words more correctly. This is absolutely consistent with Nunan's (1995) idea that frequent activation of a lexical item through use and repeated exposure leads to retention because only in this way does it enter long-term memory.

V.1.3. Conclusions Related to the Effects of the Process Approach on Reading Comprehension.

As for reading achievement, our hypothesis failed that the process approach would develop writing skills significantly and therefore improve reading skills as well because proficiency in one of them should influence the other as Fillion (1979) suggests. Furthermore, there are other researchers like Belanger (1987) who maintains that direct instruction in sentence, paragraph, and discourse structure for writing results in significant improvement in reading. We found no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of postexperimental reading comprehension levels. This failure may be put down to the fact that the small number of writing classes versus the total number of 28 English classes in prep classes did not suffice to bring about significantly additional improvement for the group treated with the process approach although they frequently read passages as prewriting activities and examined each other's compositions.

V.2. Conclusions Related to the Effects of the Process Approach on the Subjects' Writing Skills.

Since the pretest and posttest compositions of the subjects were evaluated with regard to coherence, cohesion and linguistic improvement in their texts, the conclusions concerning these main headings will be discussed in the same order. This is the order we see in the writing scoring guide (Appendix 1).

V.2.1. Coherence

Coherence was the broadest category among our writing assessment criteria for the pre- and post-test (Appendix 1). According to the results we obtained, it would be unfair to claim that the process approach enabled the students' writings to become totally coherent. In some respects, the class treated with the process approach, however, wrote significantly more coherent papers than the traditional group.

V.2.1.1. Title

In terms of using a title relevant to the given topic and macrostructure of the generated composition, the process approach had a significant effect on the subjects (see tables 7, 8, 9, and 10).

V.2.1.2. Macrostructure

With regard to the relevance of the macrostructure to the writing topic, neither the process nor the traditional approach had a significant effect on the subjects (see tables 11 and 12).

In terms of irrelevant, trivial and redundant propositions that should be deleted from a coherent composition according to the deletion rule introduced by Van Dijk and Kintsch (1978), the process approach did not have a significant effect on the subjects. However, it should be stated that the class left with a traditional approach increased their use of such propositions to be deleted, whereas the process approach class used much fewer such propositions due to the experimental treatment. Both the process approach and the traditional approach did not have a statistically significant

effect on the subjects' using fewer such propositions. But it is a fact that the number of these kinds of propositions is too small to spoil the coherence levels of the subjects. (see tables 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18)

V.2.1.3. Schema

V.2.1.3.1. Introduction

For the introductions of the subjects' compositions, the appropriateness of the thesis statements was assessed. It was found that the process approach to writing had a significant effect on using a thesis statement relevant to the macrostructure of the text (see tables 19 and 20).

V.2.1.3.2. Development

For the development parts of the student-generated texts in the pre- and post-test, we considered the quality of the topic sentences and examined the propositional structures of the paragraphs of the development in terms of semantic relevance between them. The process approach to writing instruction did not have a significant effect on the appropriateness of the topic sentences used by the subjects even though we could say that the class treated with the process approach used more appropriate topic sentences than the traditional class. The scores of the experimental group increased, while the scores of the control group related to topic sentences decreased during the experiment (see tables 21 and 22).

V.2.1.3.2.1. Certain Propositional Sequences Affecting Textual Coherence

We dealt with semantic relations between the propositions in the subjects' compositions to see to what extent these textual features contributed to coherence of a

paper. We searched the pre- and post-test compositions for five kinds of propositional clusters based on the report of Aksan and Çakır (1997) which they developed on the strength of Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978). (See page 78, 79)

According to the analyses, unsupported generalizations in the compositions of both groups became fewer in number during the treatment. Therefore it is not possible to speak of any significant effect that could be put down to the experimental treatment. We had expected the class treated with the process approach to use significantly fewer unsupported generalizations in their compositions in the posttest or to decrease this number from pre- to post-test significantly, but it did not occur. Because the number did not increase at least, we cannot say that the experimental treatment in the form of the process approach to writing has a negative effect (see tables 23 and 24).

No instances of propositional clusters that we termed as only a sequence of items were found in the pre- and post-test papers of both groups. Instances where the subjects used only a sequence of events, actions, or causes without a macroproposition to generalize them considerably decreased from pre- to post-test in the papers of the class treated with the process approach. This is something good for coherence level although the difference is insignificant. The number of such idea clusters increased twofold in the papers of the control group. One fact to be mentioned here is that the number of such undesirable idea sequences was very small both in the pretest and posttest; therefore, it is hard to say that the propositional sequences we encountered caused any discernible harm to the coherence levels of the groups (see tables 25 and 26).

Unsupported generalizations, only a sequence of items, and only a sequence of events, actions, or causes were examples of propositional sequences that should not occur frequently in a coherent text. The two types of propositional sequences which we expected to see in the coherent papers were 1) generalization + a sequence of items and 2) generalization + a sequence of events, actions or causes. The former type is acceptable if it occurs at a textual location where it is a subordinate term of a more general macroproposition. Only if it is at an irrelevant textual location does it weaken the coherence. The use of such propositional sequences increased significantly in the class treated with the process approach to the teaching of writing (tables 27 and 28).

The second type of propositional sequences mentioned in the above paragraph was the last type of such idea clusters we examined the compositions for coherence. These sequences correspond to the groups of propositions where a sequence of micropropositions denoting events, actions or causes co-exists with a macroproposition to generalize them. Such sequences usually form a coherent paragraph or at least a considerable part of a paragraph; therefore, the macrostructure of an ideal text should consist of such propositional clusters. Although the groups were equal in the pretest, the experimental group used significantly more sequences of generalization + a sequence of events, actions or causes than the control group in the posttest. The comparison of pretest and posttest results for each group showed that the traditional group decreased their number of such sequences, while the process

approach group increased that number. Of course this enhances their coherence level (see tables 29 and 30).

V.2.1.3.3. Ending

We evaluated the endings of the compositions to see whether the ending reflected the macrostructure. In terms of this criterion, neither the experimental group nor the control group displayed any significant development. However, the posttest results showed that the experimental group benefited more from the experimental period (see tables 31 and 32).

To sum up for the criteria of coherence we can say that the process approach, employed in the writing lessons of the experimental group, had significant effects on the subjects' writing coherent compositions in terms of using relevant titles, forming relevant thesis statements, creating prepositional sequences of generalization + a sequence of items and generalization + a sequence of events, actions or causes. The main point to make about the subjects' performance in terms of coherence is that the experimental group performed considerably better than the control group in terms of all components of our criterion of coherence. Unfortunately, these are not significant in statistical terms.

V.2.2. Cohesion

As for cohesion, we looked at conjunctions, transitions and pronominal references in the compositions. A comparison of the writing posttests showed that the group treated with the process approach used twice as many correct conjunctions, and three times as many correct transitions as did the control group, treated traditionally in

the writing lessons. This is an amazing success because there is no topical similarity between the content of the treatment and those presented in the writing pretest and posttest. This is the true success of the process approach. The subjects had learned many things during the experimental treatment. The same significance of achievement is also true for correct use of pronominal references. The process approach to writing had a significant effect on the subjects' writing cohesive pieces, a finding inconsistent with that of Toros (1991), who herself admitted that her research lasted only 4 weeks and a longer period was necessary for a research with the process approach to succeed. Ours took 12 weeks, so the results were more firmly grounded (see tables 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, and 38).

V.2.3. Language Development of the Subjects from Pre- to Post-test.

We also evaluated the writings of the students to measure their linguistic improvement during the treatment. We said earlier that the results we got from the analysis of the writing tests were not consistent with the multiple-choice proficiency posttest in that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in terms of grammar though the multiple-choice test revealed no significant difference. When we dissected the compositions in the writing pre- and post-test, we saw that the process approach to writing instruction had a significant effect on using the English tenses correctly (see tables 39 and 40), correct use of subject-verb agreement (see tables 41 and 42), correct use of prepositions (tables 43 and 44) and correct choice of articles (tables 45 and 46). To this significant grammar improvement

of the experimental group due to the process approach used as the treatment, we can add their significantly better performance in using conjunctions and transitional signals, which we considered part of the criterion cohesion (tables 33, 34, 35, and 36).

Lexical natures of the student-generated texts were also considered to see the linguistic development during the experimental period. Our analyses showed that the class where writing classes were conducted with the process approach during the treatment significantly outperformed the control group left with a traditional approach. The process group increased their use of correct words two fold due to the treatment (tables 47 and 48), while the traditional group used even fewer words in the posttest than in the pretest. The word class errors committed by the experimental group also decreased significantly during the treatment (tables 49 and 50), whereas their number remained almost unchanged for the control group.

V.3. Pedagogical Implications


The results that we obtained suggest that in writing lessons the process is more important than the product. The subjects in our study seem to have benefited more from a process approach than a traditional approach to writing. Therefore the course books with only visual stimulus and small dialogues, each unit of which requires students to write a single draft irrelevant to any previous one, should be done away with. Furthermore, writing lessons should be conducted with a process approach for students to be creative of meaningful language.

In order for prep class students to contextually use the language they learn and to retain their cumulative linguistic knowledge, the number of writing classes a week should be increased. A systematic writing class should be incorporated into the

general English syllabus of upper classes where students lack opportunity to retain what they learned in prep classes. We saw that proficiency in writing if conducted with a process approach not only develops writing fluency and quality but also leads to improvements in grammar and vocabulary achievements. So we do not agree with Hall (1990) that the process approach's effects are highly limited in an EFL situation.

V.4. Future Research

Instead of prep classes, a similar research could be conducted in upper classes where the numbers of grammar, speaking and writing classes are similar. The effects of the process approach to writing instruction on speaking fluency and reading comprehension may be investigated.



ABSTRACT

The Effects of the Process Approach To Writing Instruction on Turkish Students' Writing Skills and Overall Language Proficiency

The thesis has five chapters. In Chapter I, purpose, hypotheses, limitations and importance of the research were covered. In Chapter II, review of literature, approaches to writing, especially Process Approach were considered. We also mentioned the connection between writing and other skills. In Chapter III, research design, subjects, materials, procedure and data analysis were introduced. We interpreted the findings in Chapter IV and summarized conclusions in V.

The thesis aimed at investigating the effects of Process Approach on writing skills and overall language proficiency. Two 12-subject groups were randomly selected from two prep-classes of Mersin Anadolu Dış Ticaret Lisesi. In 12-week experiment, the experimental group were treated with Process Approach to writing. The control group were left with traditional approaches.

To collect data three tests were conducted. To determine the effects of treatment on the subjects' writing skills we conducted pre- and post-tests; to see its effects on their overall language proficiencies, a multiple-choice posttest was used. In analyses Statview Statistical Package was used. For writing tests t-test paired and unpaired, for multiple-choice test only t-test paired analyses were used.

Multiple-choice test showed the groups were equal in grammar, but examination of pre-and post-test compositions indicated a significant difference in favour of the experimental group. The treatment proved to have a significant effect on vocabulary levels. Groups were postexperimentally equal in reading comprehension.

With respect to the effects of the treatment on writing skills the experimental group were found to have written significantly more cohesive texts and had a significant linguistic improvement.



ÖZET

İngilizce Yazma Öğretimine Süreç Yaklaşımının Türk Öğrencilerin Genel Dil Yeterlikleri ve Yazma Becerilerine Etkileri.

Tez beş bölümden oluşmuştur. 1. Bölümde araştırmanın amacı, sınırlılıkları, denenceleri ve önemi anlatılmıştır. İlgili literatürün bulunduğu 2. Bölümde, önce yazma öğretimine diğer yaklaşımlar ele alınmış ve bu bağlamda deneysel değişkenimiz olan Süreç Yaklaşımı daha ayrıntılı değerlendirilmiştir. Ayrıca denencelerimizle ilgili yazma-okuma, yazma-dilbilgisi, yazma-sözvarlığı ve yazma-öğrenme arasındaki ilişkiler ele alınmıştır. 3. Bölümde araştırma deseni, deneklerin özellikleri, öğretim ve test malzemeleri, deney süreci ve veri analizi işleminden söz edilmiştir. 4. Bölümde bulgular yorumlanmış, 5. Bölümde ise araştırmanın sonuçları anılmıştır.

Tezin amacı İngilizce yazma derslerinde Süreç Yaklaşımının uygulanmasının Türk öğrencilerin İngilizce dilbilgisi, sözcük bilgisi ve okuduğunu anlama gibi genel dil yeterliklerine ve yazma becerilerine etkilerini görmektir. Mersin Anadolu Dış Ticaret Meslek Lisesi hazırlık öğrencilerinden random yol ile on ikişer denekli iki denk grup oluşturuldu. 12 haftalık deney süresince deney grubunun yazma derslerinde Süreç Yaklaşımı, kontrol grubunda ise geleneksel yaklaşımlar kullanılmıştır.

Veri toplamak için üç test yapılmıştır. Deneysel değişkenin yazma becerisine etkisinin saptanmasında yazma ön ve son testi, genel dil yeterliklerine etkilerini ölçmek için çoktan seçmeli test verilmiştir. Yazma testleri sonuçlarının çözümlenmesinde Statview Stastical Package, t-test paired ve unpaired kullanılmıştır.

Çoktan seçmeli genel dilbilgisi testi için sadece t-test paired analizi yapılmıştır.

Bu test sonucuna göre dilbilgisi açısından deney grubu kontrol grubuna denk çıkmış, fakat yazma testleri incelendiğinde deney grubunun anlamlı ölçüde yetkin çıktığı görülmüştür. Sözcük bilgisi açısından deney grubu hem çoktan seçmeli hem de yazma testlerinde kullandıkları dil bakımından kontrol grubundan anlamlı ölçüde daha yetkin çıkmıştır. Okuduğunu anlama açısından gruplararası anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Yazma becerisi açısından deney grubu kontrol grubundan anlamlı ölçüde daha bağıntılı metinler üretmiştir.



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APPENDIX 1

CRITERIA USED TO ANALYZE THE WRITING PRE- AND POST-TEST

COHERENCE

1. Title

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.1. Title is relevant to the given topic | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 1.2. Title reflects the macrostructure | 2 | 1 | 0 |

2. Macrostructure

- | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| 2.1. Macrostructure of the composition is relevant to the given topic | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 2.2. Number of propositions which are not relevant to the macrostructure of the text | | | |
| 2.3. Number of trivial propositions | | | |
| 2.4. Number of redundant propositions | | | |

3. Schema

3.1. Introduction :

- | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| The introduction contains a thesis statement | 2 | 1 | 0 |
|--|---|---|---|

3.2. Development

- | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| 3.2.1. Each paragraph has a topic sentence relevant to the macrostructure of the text.
2 1 0 for each paragraph | | | |
| 3.2.2. Unsupported Generalization : The number of cases where a generalization is made without any sequence of supporting micropropositions denoting events, causes, or notions. | | | |
| 3.2.3. Only a sequence of items : The number of cases where a list of hyponyms is written without a superordinate term. | | | |
| 3.2.4. Only a sequence of events, actions or causes : The number of cases where a sequence of micropropositions referring to events, actions or causes is written without a generalizing macroproposition. | | | |
| 3.2.5. Generalization + a sequence of items : The cases where both a sequence of items and a superordinate term to generalize are present | | | |
| 3.2.6. Generalization + a sequence of events, actions, causes : The cases where both a sequence of events, actions or causes and a macroproposition to generalize them coexist. | | | |

3.3. Conclusion

- | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| The ending reflects the macrostructure of the text | 2 | 1 | 0 |
|--|---|---|---|

COHESION

- 1. The number of correct use of conjunctions:**
- 2. The number of correct use of transitional words :**
- 3. The number of correct use of pronominal references :**

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUBJECTS FROM PRE- TO POSTTEST

- 1. The number of tenses correctly used :**
- 2. The number of subject-verb agreement correctly used :**
- 3. The number of prepositions correctly used :**
- 4. The number of articles correctly used :**
- 5. The number of correct word choice :**
- 6. The number of word class error :**



APPENDIX 2

THE FIRST WRITING PROJECT : THE MATERIALS AND THE PLAN USED

STUDENT LEVEL : Prep class (intermediate)

SUBJECT MATTER: Writing a descriptive narrative about a child (Tarzan) getting lost in a forest after a plane crash.

TIME ALLOCATED FOR THE WHOLE PROJECT: 6 class hours.

AUDIENCE FOR WHOM TO WRITE: School magazine

PRESENTATION

1. PREWRITING / IDEA GENERATION

Have the students look at the pictures that you have handed out. As can be seen in the first picture there is a plane that seems to have crashed into the jungle and there is only a child survivor waiting helpless. Start dealing with the pictures sometimes leaving them aside to carry out different activities.

1.2 BRAINSTORMING ABOUT PLANE CRASHES

Ask questions related to how a plane crash happens, why it happens and what typically happens after it. While or after the following questions are answered, a semantic map will be drawn on the board.

- * What happens after plane crashes?
- * When a plane crashes, why is the result more awful than any other accidents?
- * Compare a plane crash with a road accident. Which is more dangerous?
- * Does the driver or the pilot have a bigger chance of surviving after such disasters?
- * What about first aid teams? Do they arrive where a plane crash happens more rapidly than where a road accident happens?

Some other questions may be asked while drawing the semantic map on the board.

1.3 BRAINSTORMING ABOUT JUNGLES

Direct the students' attention to the picture(s) again. Ask questions about jungles to create content for writing about a typical jungle. Ask questions of the following nature prior to or while drawing a semantic map about jungles.

- * What kind of trees are there?
- * What kind of animals and plants are there?
- * What may happen to someone lost in a jungle?
- * How can he survive?

- * How does a jungle survivor spend his days?
- * Where can he/she take shelter?
- * Which shelter is safer?
- * Which animals are more dangerous?
-etc

1.4 ASKING QUESTIONS ABOUT THE GIVEN PICTURES

Have the students respond to these questions quickly either in English or Turkish.
Write your answers on a scrap paper.

- * When did the plane crash happen?
- * Where did it happen?
- * How many passengers was it carrying?
- * Where was it going?
- * Where had it taken off?
- * What caused it to fall down?
- * What did the pilot do?
- * What happened as a result of the crash?
- * Which people did it affect?
- * How many got injured, how many died?
- * If he had crashed into the sea, what would have been different?

Have the students look at each picture given while answering the following questions:

- * What happened to the baby child (Tarzan) after the crash?
- * What differences are there between an ape and a mother looking after a baby?
- * What was the forest like?
- * Why do you think the ape didn't harm Tarzan?
- * How did Tarzan grow, how did he spend his time?
- * How did he make friends with Jane?
- * What was Jane doing in the jungle?
- * Who was he?
- ...etc

1.5 MIND TRANSPORTATION:

Close your eyes and imagine that you are lost in this forest after the plane crash. You are a young boy. What would you do? How would you feel? What would you need to survive? Write down your answers on a scrap paper.

1.6 GROUP WORK

Discuss your ideas with the rest of the class or students in your group.

1.7 READING

1.7.1. Present the following passage to give general information about Tarzan.

A READING ABOUT TARZAN

Tarzan is a person who apes cared for and raised. He is very friendly with animals and is very strong. He swings from tree to tree by using big ivies and branches. He wears a loincloth. When he grows up, he meets Jane in the forest. She came there to explore the forest with her friends. Tarzan falls in love with Jane as their friendship grows. At the end of the story Tarzan and Jane leave the jungle to go to the modern treeless world. The animals wave good-bye to them crying.

1.7.2. Present the following passage about animal children like Tarzan to provide content similarity.

There are many stories about a man called Tarzan. He lived in the jungle and was very friendly with many of the animals. He could talk to some of them and they could talk to him. Sometimes they helped him. You may see some of these stories on TV. They are good stories but they are not true. But some children really lived with animals for many years. In India a mother once worked in a rice field. She left her little baby near the field. A leopardess (a mother leopard) came out from the trees and picked the baby up by its clothes. She did not hurt it because she once had a baby leopard like him but someone had killed it and now she wanted another baby. She took it with her and looked after it. She gave it food to eat and did not let any other animals hurt it.

Four years later someone found the baby. The boy was five years old then but could not speak and he could not walk on his legs. He used his arms and legs together for walking. He ate uncooked meat like animals. He was a leopard boy!

2. DRAFTING

Have the students begin to write their descriptive narrative with the content generated so far. If the allotted time does not permit, they will draft their drafts at home. During the drafting process, help the students with language and vocabulary to write with.

3. REVISING

First a model lesson will be carried out with a passage written by a student about Tarzan one year ago. The teacher and students will be evaluating the sample passage using the checklist given. Then the same procedure will be done for the students' own papers. The students will be reading each other's drafts with a checklist. reading each other's drafts will provide data for the reader to use in his own writing. In addition it will get the students evaluate one another's work. During the revising phase, the

students may either write a completely new draft or make deletions or additions in their existing drafts.

The following sample composition, which was a first draft, will be used to teach the students how to revise with a checklist:

TARZAN

One day a plane fell into a jungle in Africa. Everywhere was full of trees and wild animals. All of the passengers and crews of the plane died but only baby was saved. this accident. After one time, Gorillas saw the baby and they were surprized. The baby started to live with them. Everyday the baby was growing and it didn't afraid wild animals. It looked at gorillas and learnt new things from them. Although it was small, it knew very things and lived in the jungle with wild animals. Animals loved it.

Mean While the baby grew. It was a young boy and handsome. He loved animals. The animal he liked most was his little monkey. He called it Checta). He learnt to live with dangerous animals.

One day. peoples came to jungle. They were researcher. One woman looked at the jungle. Mean While he saw her. While the woman hiked the jungle, tiger saw her and it attacked her. She was very afraid. Mean While A baby saved her with twinging a common ivy. A beautiful woman was happy. She called him "Tarzan." After day a beautiful woman took away Tarzan with boat. She loved him, he loved her, too. (Ersin Sevindik)

The following checklist will be used by the students for peer evaluation:
Look at your friend's paper on the basis of the following questions

I. STRUCTURE

- are the descriptions clear?
- which two sentences can you combine?
- which sentences can you simplify?
- are there any misused words?
- which sentences don't you understand?
- which prepositions are misused?
- are there any missing or misused conjunctions?
- are there any tense errors?
- are there any punctuation mistakes?
- are there any misused articles?

II. ORGANIZATION

- are the title and beginning of your passage interesting?
- do ideas, descriptions or events follow each other smoothly?
- are the connections between the ideas good?

- is the order of the sentences good? Should the writer change the order of any sentences?
- are there any unnecessary points?
- does the last paragraph show the writer's arguments clearly?

3.1 SECOND DRAFT

After the revision phase the students should have written a new draft according to their friends' judgements of their first drafts.

3.2 TEACHER EVALUATION OF THE SECOND DRAFT

Get the second drafts of the students. For evaluation, consider both the content and language. The mistakes will not be corrected explicitly on the paper. The following list of abbreviations will be used to point to the mistakes:

- WW wrong word
- WP wrong preposition
- WS wrong spelling
- WO wrong order
- WA wrong article
- MW missing word
- MS missing prepositions
- MA missing article
- PR use pronoun instead of this noun
- SS sentence structure
- E elaborate; give examples, clarify what you mean.
- T tense error
- C capitalize
- P/S plural/singular mistake
- ? I don't understand what you mean

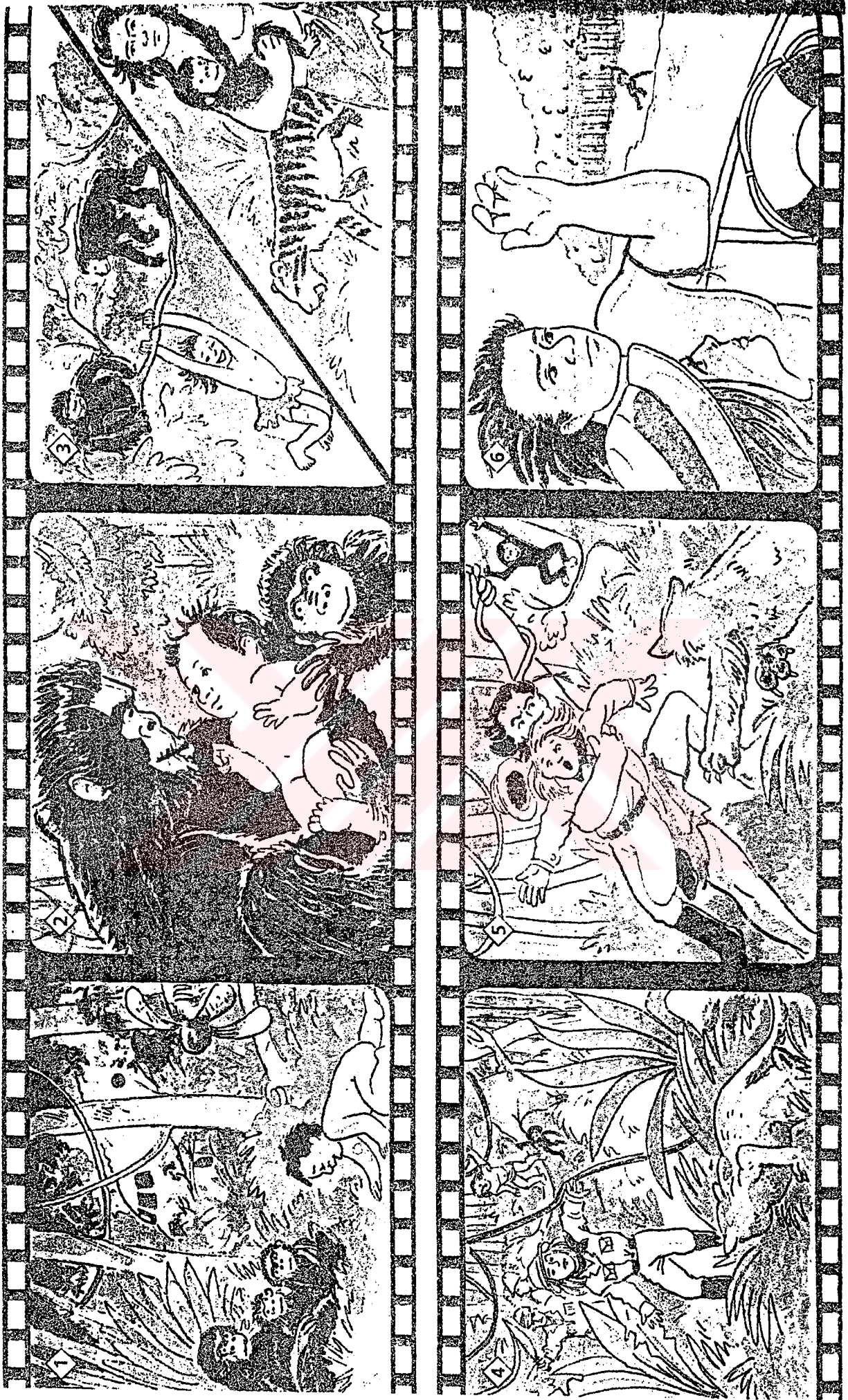
3.3 PEER CORRECTION

The students will turn to each other to see what all these abbreviations mean and how they can be corrected. Unless any mistake is incorrigible by the students themselves the teacher will not interfere.

4. FINAL DRAFT

The students will write their final draft correcting the mistakes and paying attention the latest comments that have been put on their papers by the teacher.

Visual Stimulus For the First Writing Project (Tarzan)



APPENDIX 3

THE SECOND WRITING PROJECT : THE MATERIALS AND THE PLAN USED

STUDENT LEVEL : Prep class (intermediate)

SUBJECT MATTER: Writing a narrative about Robin Hood living in a forest robbing the rich to help the poor. Their compositions will partly include an argumentative paragraph about whether Robin Hood is a true robber and another paragraph comparing Robin Hood and the Forty Thieves.

TIME ALLOCATED FOR THE WHOLE PROJECT: 6 class hours.

AUDIENCE FOR WHOM TO WRITE: school magazine

PRESENTATION

1. PREWRITING / IDEA GENERATION

1.1 Have the students look at the pictures about Robin Hood. Ask some general questions about the pictures to generate content from the pictures as the visual stimulus.

LOOK AT PICTURE 1

- * What do you see in the picture?
- * Where are the men?
Showing the most outstanding figure ask:
- * Who do you think this man is?
- * Can you see any animals?
- * What are the men doing?
- * What kind of clothes are they wearing?
- * What do they do in a typical morning?

LOOK AT PICTURE 2

- * How are they dressed?
- * Do they always dress in the same way?
- * When do they dress like this?
- * Can you see a horse cart?
- * What kind of people do you think there are in the cart?
- * What are Robin Hood and his men going to do?

LOOK AT PICTURE 3

- * Are the travellers wealthy or poor?
- * How do you know?
- * What kind of things are Robin and his men taking from them?

LOOK AT PICTURE 4

- * Do Robin and his friends rob people for themselves?
- * Who are they giving the stolen things?
- * Do you think these people like him?
- * What do they do in the evenings?
- * Do you think Robin Hood is a dangerous robber?

1.2. BRAINSTORMING

Draw a semantic map on the board with the students about robbery by asking questions to prompt ideas.

- * What does a thief do?
- * What does robber do?
- * Is Robin Hood a thief or a robber?
- * What kind of things do robbers rob?
- * What kind of people do they usually rob?
- * How do people feel about them?
- * Do robbers sometimes commit murder?
- * Do they like humanity?
- * Where and how do they live?
- * What tools and weapons do they use to rob people of their belongings?
- * How do robbers spend their stolen money? ...etc

1.3. READING

Give the following encyclopedic information to get the students to get to know generally what kind of men Robin Hood and his men were.

ROBIN HOOD

According to old stories, a man called Robin Hood lived in Sherwood Forest near Nottingham. He was an outlaw living with a group of companions called the "Merry Men." Among these men were Little John, Friar Tuck and Robin's lover Maid Marion. Robin Hood is famous for stealing money from rich people and giving it to poor people. His main enemy was the sheriff of Nottingham. He was always trying to catch and punish him because he robbed people of their valuable possessions. Robin Hood is usually dressed in green clothes and holds a bow.

To check for comprehension ask a few questions and teach the unfamiliar words in the passage.

- * Where did they live?
- * What kind of man was Robin?
- * What were his men called?
- * Did they keep all the stolen things for themselves?
- * Who was Robin's chief enemy?
- * How was Robin usually dressed?

1.4. CUBING

14.1. Describe Robin Hood and his friends by using *chunks of language* from the above passage about who they were, and how and where they lived.

1.4.2 Compare and Associate

- * Who can you compare Robin and his men to?
- * Do you know Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves?
- * How different were they?
- * How similar were they?
- * Did they rob only the rich?
- * Did they hand out the stolen things to poor people?

To familiarize the students with Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves, present the following passage as stimulus.

ALI BABA AND THE FORTY THIEVES

The Forty Thieves were very dangerous horse-riders. They usually attacked travellers and villages and robbed them of everything. One day A man called Ali Baba saw 40 robbers entering a hidden cave by saying the words "open sesame!." After they left the cave, he got into the cave and took some of the gold there. When the robbers discovered that Ali Baba knew their secret, they decided to kill him. They were all carrying swords and rifles. They lived away from other people and sometimes killed people.

Write a few sentences about the similarities and differences between Robin and his friends and the Forty Thieves.

1.4.3 Analyze and Apply the topic

Write what you think about robbery and its harms to society.

1.4.4 Argue for or against

- * Was Robin Hood right or wrong in his deeds?
- * Did he help humanity or harm moral values?
- * Would you like to be like Robin Hood? Why? Why not?

1.5. AN AUTHENTIC COMPOSITION WRITTEN BY A NATIVE SPEAKER

Before the students begin to write their first draft with the content generated so far, they will first read the following passage to get some more linguistic and extralinguistic content.

THE KING OF THIEVES

Robin Hood's day begins early. He wakes up at dawn and roams the forest alone. One day long ago when he was not very well known he was sitting alone and thinking about how he could help the poor people in the Kingdom. He heard some people coming towards him. He turned and saw about fifteen men. They were going to attack him but as they approached him, he realized they weren't enemies.

- Robin Hood, please help us, we were wealthy before but now we live in poverty, one man said.
- Yes, the King has stolen all of our worldly possessions, another man said.
- You must help us, they all said.

Robin Hood decided he should help them. Therefore that afternoon Robin and all of the men went to the back road of the forest. They waited and waited for the King's wagon. Their plan was to stop his wagon and frighten him. They heard the sound of the wagon's heavy wheels. Then it came into sight. Robin Hood jumped in front of the wagon. The villagers stood with him. They held the King at gun point and threatened to kill him unless he did what they wanted. They opened the wagon and took out the chest. The chest was filled with jewels and precious stones.

Robin Hood took all of the jewels and took them to the poor villagers. He distributed all of the chest's contents. The villagers were very happy. From that day on Robin became a hero who helped the poor when they were in poverty and other kinds of troubles. After he robbed the King proclaimed him outlaw, so he began to live in Sherwood Forest to protect himself from the King's men.

2. DRAFTING

Either in class or at home the students will write their first drafts by using the content generated so far. Help with vocabulary and encourage interpersonal sharing of information in the classroom.

3. REVISING

After their completion of their first drafts the students will read one another's drafts. They will be criticizing each other's writings. The following checklist may be given for evaluation of the drafts.

STRUCTURE

- are the descriptions clear?
- which two sentences can you combine?
- which sentences can you simplify?

- are there any misused words?
- which sentences don't you understand?
- which prepositions are misused?
- are there any missing or misused conjunctions?
- are there any tense errors?
- are there any punctuation mistakes?

ORGANIZATION

- are the beginning and title of your passage interesting?
- do ideas, descriptions or events follow each other smoothly?
- are the connections between the ideas good?
- is the order of the sentences good? Should the writer change the order of any sentences?
- are there any unnecessary points?
- does the last paragraph show the writer's arguments clearly?

3.2 TEACHER EVALUATION OF THE SECOND DRAFT

Get the second drafts of the students. For evaluation, consider both the content and language. The mistakes will not be corrected explicitly on the paper. The following list of abbreviations will be used to point to the mistakes:

- WW wrong word
- WP wrong preposition
- WS wrong spelling
- WO wrong order
- WA wrong article
- MW missing word
- MS missing prepositions
- MA missing article
- PR use pronoun instead of this noun
- SS sentence structure
- E elaborate; give examples, clarify what you mean.
- T tense error
- C capitalize
- P/S plural/singular mistake
- ? I don't understand what you mean

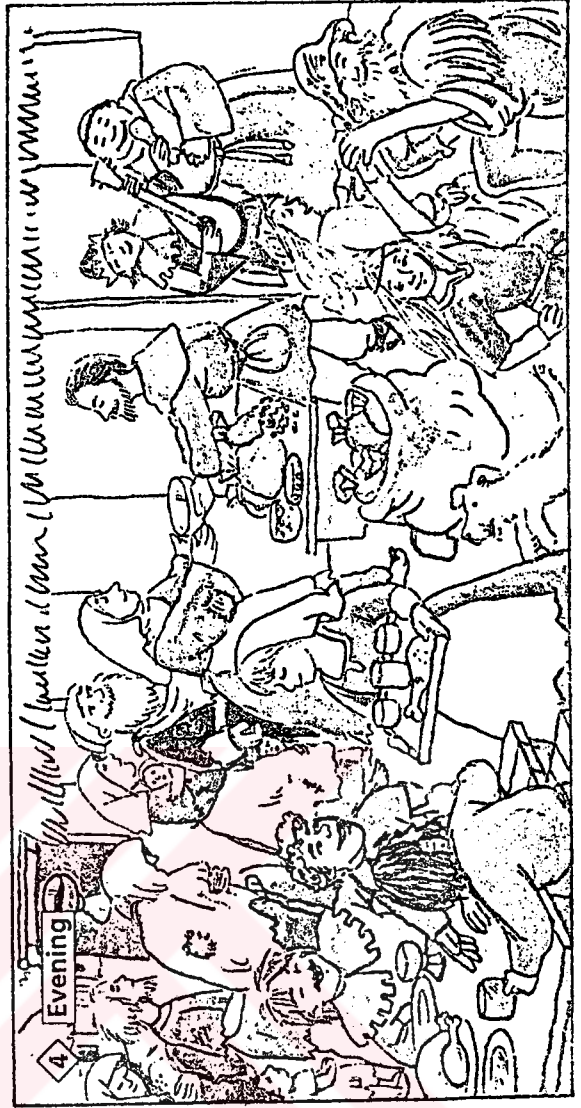
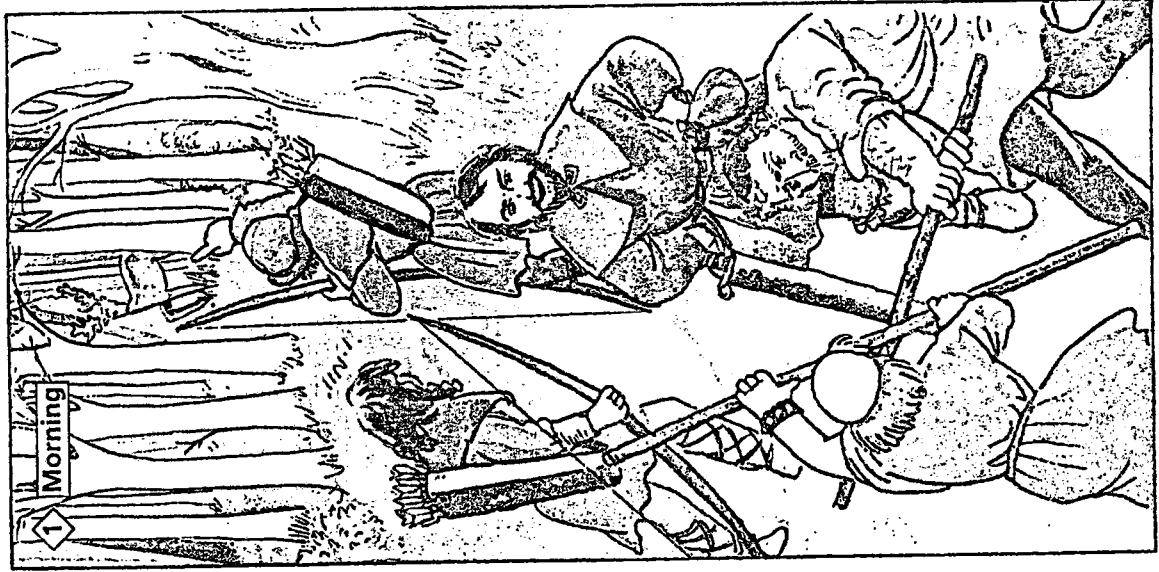
3.3 PEER CORRECTION

The students will turn to each other to see what all these abbreviations mean and how they can be corrected. Unless any mistake is incorrigible by the students themselves the teacher will not interfere.

4. FINAL DRAFT

The students will write their final draft correcting the mistakes and paying attention to the latest comments that have been put on their papers by the teacher.

Visual Stimulus For the Second Writing Project (Robin Hood)



APPENDIX 4

THE THIRD WRITING PROJECT : THE MATERIALS AND THE PLAN USED

STUDENT LEVEL : Prep class (intermediate)

SUBJECT MATTER: A comparison between rural life and urban life. Language structures to be possibly used during the writing process such as however, although, but, whereas, will be or will have been learned before or while they write.

TIME ALLOCATED FOR THE WHOLE PROJECT: 6 class hours.

AUDIENCE FOR WHOM TO WRITE: School magazine

PRESENTATION

1. PREWRITING PHASE / IDEA GENERATION

- 1.1 Group the students into village-borns and city-borns.
- 1.2 Instruct each group to quickly write whatever comes to their minds in connection with the word "village" or "city."
- 1.3 After a considerable period of time, choose a number of students from each group to read what they have written. To unblock their thinking you should advise them in advance to write in Turkish when what they want to say doesn't occur to them in English.
- 1.4 While new and different ideas and pieces of information are being provided by these chosen students, form an information pool on the board for later use by the students during the writing phase.
- 1.5 Asking Questions: Have the students answer the following set of questions. For convenience, they may be presented printed on handouts. Leave enough margins on the handout and allow enough time for the students to consider and give each question enough thought.
 - 1- How can you describe a village?
 - 2- How can you describe a city?
 - 3- What kind of people live in villages?
 - 4- What kind of people live in cities?
 - 5- How does a villager or a city dweller spend a typical day?
 - 6- Where do villagers go to for entertainment?
 - 7- Where do city dwellers go to for entertainment?
 - 8- Does everybody know each other in a village?

- 9- Does everybody know each other in a city?
- 10 Who are more hospitable and charitable?
- 11 What are the advantages of living in a village?
- 12 What are the advantages of living in a city?
- 13 What are the disadvantages of living in a village?
- 14 What are the disadvantages of living in a city?
- 15 Do villagers or city dwellers get better education? Why?
- 16 Who are the most important people of a village?
- 17 Who are the most important people of a city?
- 18 How do people go to work in villages?
- 19 How do people go to work in cities?
- 20 What good or bad things does a city dweller encounter if he happens to settle in a village?
- 21 What good or bad things does a villager encounter if he happens to settle in a city?
- 22 Do you agree with the idea that as the number of people increases in a place the individual becomes lonelier?
- 23 Where do you think the individual feel more alone?
- 24 Where would you like to live if you had a chance? Support your arguments.

1.6. Have the students share what they have written as responses to the above questions.

1.7 READING

Give a composition as a model which was written by an upper class student about the same topic. Teach any unfamiliar words.

VILLAGE OR CITY

When I hear the word "village", I just think of silence, mountains, trees, small houses with roofs, valleys, animals and of course fresh air. For the word "city", what comes to my mind is crowds, huge buildings, dazzling lights, noise, and shop windows. In a village the houses look like a speck through the dense trees and on the mountain. But in cities you can see trees only in the parks from the balcony of your flat. You can see the opposite buildings, the streets, the pavements, and the people walking, talking, or waiting. There is paleness and tiredness on people's faces. On the other hand in villages people are lively and cheerful, which results from the fresh air.

In a village you get up with a cock's crowing. Then you go to your garden or field on foot to work. In the afternoon you can have a silent walk under the trees. You may sleep under shadowy trees with the voice of frogs and birds. In cities, in the mornings you are woken up by an alarm clock which disturbs your ears so much. You go to work on crowded noisy buses. In the evenings you may go to entertainment centers with your friends to have a chat, listen to music and dance. When you return home your cotton bed is awaiting to swallow your tired body.

Anyone who comes to a city from a village are surprised at the yellowish colour of everywhere in the city because his eyes are accustomed to seeing green everywhere in his village. Within a few days after his arrival, he cannot sleep at nights because of the noise of cars. Eyes of a person who comes from a city to a village are dazzled with the brightness and vividness of green all over. Such a person feels alone because his lifestyle is different and he knows no one there.

In villages everybody is like a friend to each other. It is almost a custom to greet one another when they meet. They share everything in life and help one another. On the other hand, cities are so crowded that it is impossible for everybody to know each other.

Although villages seem nicer than cities, they have got a lot of problems. Facilities and modern utilities are not enough. For example, in winters the roads remain closed for weeks because of the snow. Sometimes communication with the world is cut off and electricity frequently goes out. In many cities there still are not any hospitals for patients, so they may die on the way to hospitals in cities. Another problem is lack of adequate education, and this leads to illiteracy or ignorance of the world. There is usually one teacher in a rural school, whereas there are a lot in cities. All of the students listen to the same teacher in the same classroom in village schools. This decreases the quality of education being given.

In a city there are all the essentials of modern life, but people are more alone than those in villages. Since there are more people there are more problems like traffic, thefts, crimes, air pollution and the problem of transport. It is more difficult to govern a city than to govern a village, so the authorities are in a difficult situation.

2. DRAFTING

2.1 Before the students start writing, teach the structures used to make comparisons.

2.1.1 Whereas: Rewrite the following with *whereas*.

Villagers go to work on a horse or by tractor, but city dwellers use buses, private cars, taxis and trains.

= Villagers go to work on a horse or by tractor, whereas city dwellers use buses, private cars, taxis and trains.

1. The population of a village is too small, but that of a city is big.
2. The air is very dirty in villages, but it is very dirty in cities
3. Villagers like helping each other, but city inhabitants are indifferent about the problems of each other.

2.1.2 Although: Rewrite the following with *although*

All the people know each other in a village, but it is not possible in a city.

= Although the people know each other in a village, it is not possible in a city.

1. Wedding are traditional in a village, whereas the boy and girl decide themselves who to marry in a city.
2. Fresh air is healthy in a village, but many people die of air pollution in cities.
3. Tom has got a lot of animals, but his brother doesn't like them.

2.1.3 Slot filling. Use *however, nevertheless, so, therefore, on the other hand, in contrast, in spite of*.

1. Tom doesn't like milking cows.he milked ours yesterday.
2. Some people say living in a village is very boring., it is very enjoying when two families come together to watch TV.
3. People don't help each other in cities., I wouldn't like to live in them.
4. He likes living in a village., he owns a house in the city center.
5.having a good job in the city, he wants to move to a village.

2.1.4. Comparative form. Open the brackets.

1. The air of villages is (fresh)that in cities.
2. I think a village is (good)place to live in the world.
3. Villagers are (friendly)and (hospitable)..... city inhabitants.
4. Playing with real animals is (enjoyable)playing with plastic animal toys.
5. A city is (bad)place to live, I think.
6. There are (many)people in cities than in villages.
7. There are (few)means of transport in villages than there are in cities.

2.2 Writing the first draft

Either in class or at home the students will write their first drafts by using the content generated so far. Help with vocabulary and encourage interpersonal sharing of information in the classroom.

3. REVISING

After their completion of their first drafts the students will read one another's drafts. They will be criticizing each other's writings. The following checklist may be given for evaluation of the drafts.

- are there any words you don't know?
- are there any sentences that can be combined?
- are the structures for making a comparison used effectively?

- are the opening and the title interesting enough?
- are there any unclear sentences?
- are there redundant words or sentences?
- what about punctuation errors?
- which sentences do you like best?
- are there any conjunctions or transitions used wrongly?
- are the comparisons adequate?
- do the comparisons follow a good sequence?

3.1 SECOND DRAFT

The students will make additions and/or deletions along with their fellow classmates' judgements during revision.

3.2 TEACHER EVALUATION OF THE SECOND DRAFT

Consider both the content and language. Don't correct the mistakes explicitly. Rather, use the following list of abbreviations to highlight the mistakes and your comments about the content.

- WW wrong word
- WP wrong preposition
- WS wrong spelling
- WO wrong order
- WA wrong article
- MW missing word
- MS missing prepositions
- MA missing article
- PR use pronoun instead of this noun
- SS sentence structure
- E elaborate; give examples, clarify what you mean.
- T tense error
- C capitalize
- P/S plural/singular mistake
- ? I don't understand what you mean

3.3 PEER CORRECTION

The students will turn to each other to see what all these abbreviations mean and how they can be corrected. Unless any mistake is incorrigible by the students themselves the teacher will not interfere.

4. FINAL DRAFT

The students will write their final draft correcting the mistakes and paying attention the latest comments that have been put on their papers by the teacher.

APPENDIX 5
THE FOURTH WRITING PROJECT: THE MATERIALS AND THE PLAN USED

STUDENT LEVEL : Prep class (intermediate)

SUBJECT MATTER: Describing the process in which tea, in its form we use in our homes, is manufactured. The students are expected to develop the ability to arrange steps in doing something into a proper sequence. Words such as *first, then, at this stage, next, at the same time, finally* and *passive form of simple present* are expected to be used in describing the process in which something is made or done.

TIME ALLOCATED FOR THE WHOLE PROJECT: 6 class hours.

AUDIENCE FOR WHOM TO WRITE: Primary school children wanting to know how tea is manufactured.

PRESENTATION

1. PREWRITING PHASE / IDEA GENERATION

1.1. Reading I. Modeling: How silk is manufactured.

Give the following simple passage, making bold on computer the words such as *first, then, passive form of simple present* and *conjunctions*

HOW SILK IS MANUFACTURED

First the eggs of silkworms **are collected** and **stored**. They **are put** into an incubator, and there the silkworms come out of eggs. *After that*, silkworms **are placed** on special trays and *at this stage* some leaves **are given** to feed them. Here they begin to grow to the right size. *Next*, enough straw **is put** on the trays for the silkworms to spin cocoons. These cocoons **are then put** into a boiler where the worms **are killed** and fibers become visible. These fibers are sticky like gum, so they **are put** in special tanks and chemicals **are added** to get rid of the gum. *Finally* some kinds of oils **are added** to the silk to make it heavier because some manufacturers prefer heavy silk fibers.

1.2. Help with the vocabulary items unfamiliar with the students.

1.3. Check for comprehension.

- * Where are the eggs put after they are collected?
- * What do they do in the incubator?
- * Where do the silkworms grow?
- * Why is some straw put among them?
- * Why are the fibers put into special tanks?
- * What is finally done?

1.4. Reading II. Modeling: How paper is made.

Read the following passage and underline the passive forms and the words we use in describing process.

PAPER

Modern paper is manufactured from a mixture of many fibers, including wood, grass and cotton. When the logs arrive at the factory, their barks are removed. Then, the wood is fed into a mill to grind it to make a pulp. At this stage a lot of water and vegetable fibers are added. The pulp is beached and then beaten to break it down into tiny pieces. Glue and resin are mixed with this pulp to obtain a better consistency. Next it is poured onto wire screens and rolled to remove the water. It is subsequently dried and glazed so as to obtain a smooth finish. Finally, it is reeled onto long rollers and cut to size.

1.4. Reading III. Modeling: How rice is grown.

RICE

In some regions two or three rice crops a year are grown. The growing season lasts from four to six months. The ground is prepared. The rice seeds are sown on the rice bed. The seedlings are transplanted into the rice fields. The fields must be irrigated. The rice is weeded. After fifty days the rice is harvested and then it is dried. Next it is milled. After that it is cooked and served with fish, meat and vegetables. Rice is used as the basis of many Indonesian dishes.

1.5. Group the students to do following exercise so that they learn how to put actions in a sequence.

EXERCISE: Assume that you are going on a trip outside of the country. Arrange the following list of activities into a proper sequence. Use first, then, ... etc.

- a. get to the airport at least an hour in advance of the flight
- b. study the various places you want to visit
- c. change some money into foreign currency.
- d. make an airline reservation
- e. pack your suitcases with clothes and personal effects you will need
- f. figure out how much spending money you will need
- g. apply for your passport
- h. make reservations for hotel rooms
- i. buy your airline ticket
- j. write down a timetable for your friends or family to know where you are at any one time.

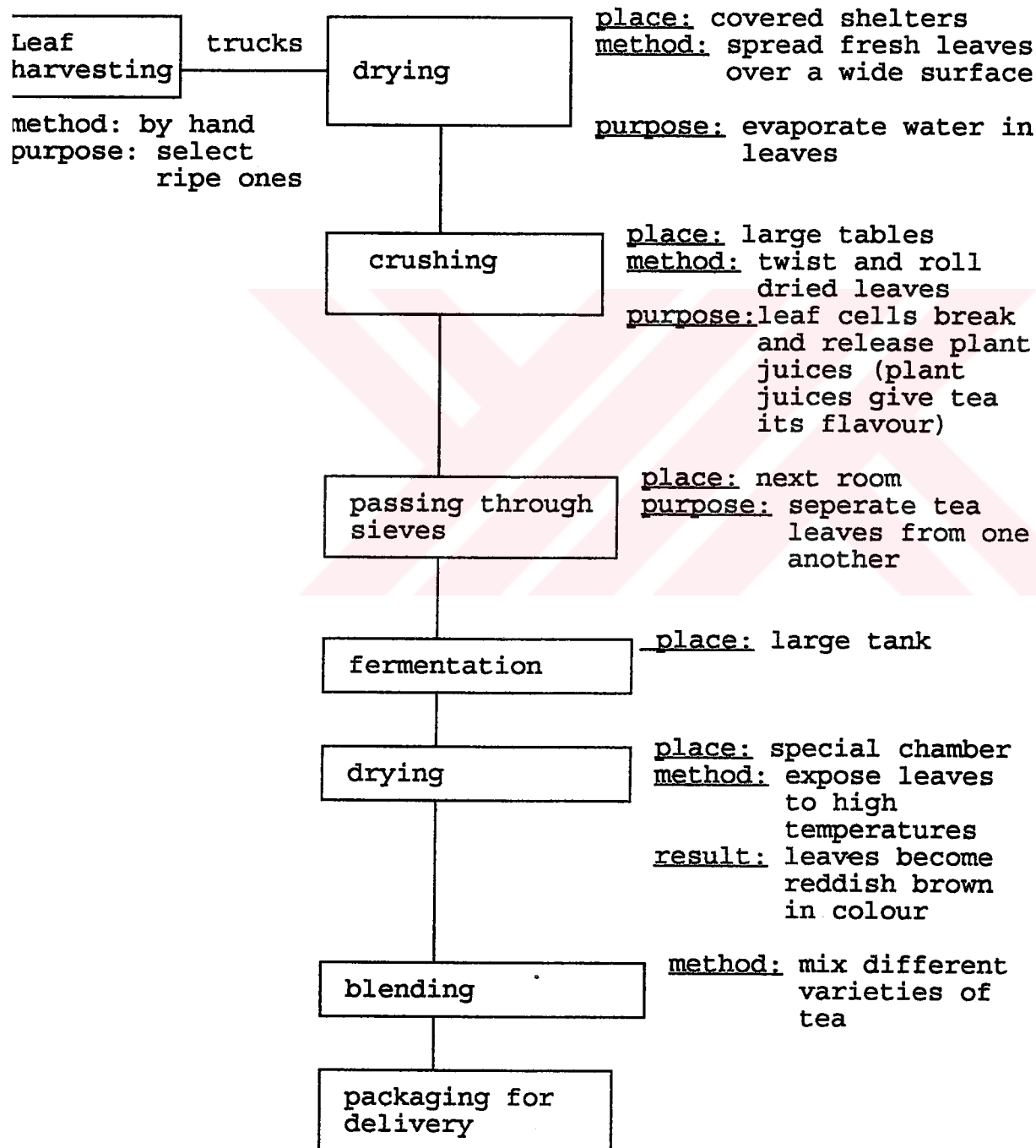
1.6. Start the oral composition of the above by telling the students to use should only (i.e. First one should study and decide where he wants to go. Then he should ...).

1.7. Call on students to present their oral compositions.

1.8. THE STUDENT WRITING TASK : HOW TEA IS MANUFACTURED

After the reading passages above have been studied, the formal schematas of the students must have been full. As to the content schemata or extralinguistic information about how tea is manufactured, study with the students the following procedure which shows the steps for processing tea leaves. Meanwhile teach the words essential for the writing of the composition.

FIELD



1.9. Discuss with the students the contents of the chart above.

- * What is first done?
- * How are tea leaves harvested?
- * How are they transported to the factory?
- * What is done by spreading the leaves on wide surfaces?
- * Why is this done?
- * What is the second step? What is done next? ...etc.

2. DRAFTING

2.1 Writing the first draft

Either in class or at home the students will write their first drafts by using the content generated so far. Help with vocabulary and encourage interpersonal sharing in the classroom.

3. REVISING

After their completion of their first drafts the students will read one another's drafts. They will be criticizing each other's writings. The following checklist may be given for evaluation of the drafts.

- are there any words you don't know?
- are there any sentences that can be combined?
- are the structures for describing a process used effectively?
- are the opening and the title interesting enough?
- are there any unclear sentences?
- are there redundant words or sentences?
- what about punctuation errors?
- which sentences do you like best?
- are there any conjunctions or transitions used wrongly?
- are the descriptions adequate?
- do the descriptions follow a good sequence?

3.1 SECOND DRAFT

The students will make additions and/or deletions along with their fellow classmates' judgements during revision.

3.2 TEACHER EVALUATION OF THE SECOND DRAFT

Consider both the content and language. Don't correct the mistakes explicitly. Rather, use the following list of abbreviations to highlight the mistakes and your comments about the content.

WW wrong word
WP wrong preposition
WS wrong spelling
WO wrong order
WA wrong article
MW missing word
MS missing prepositions
MA missing article
PR use pronoun instead of this noun
SS sentence structure
E elaborate; give examples, clarify what you mean.
T tense error
C capitalize
P/S plural/singular mistake
? I don't understand what you mean

3.3 PEER EDITION

The students will turn to each other to see what all these abbreviations mean and how they can be corrected. Unless any mistake is incorrigible by the students themselves the teacher will not interfere.

4. FINAL DRAFT

The students will write their final draft correcting the mistakes and paying attention the latest comments that have been put on their papers by the teacher.

APPENDIX 6

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY PRETEST USED TO FORM THE GROUPS

1.-3. soruları parçaya göre cevaplayınız.

Ron Hurst is a builder. Last October he was on the roof of an old house. He finished the job and climbed down the roof to his ladder. The roof was wet and he slipped. His foot hit the ladder and kicked it away from the house. The ladder fell. It fell into the long grass in the garden. The house had a large garden and it was near a busy main road. There was a lot of noise from the traffic.

Ron sat down on the roof. He saw a girl walking along the road. Ron stood up, shouted and waved to the girl. She returned away, walked quickly down the street. Then he saw some children. He waved to him. Then they walked away. Ron waved and shouted for an hour. People smiled and waved back at him. It was raining. Ron was cold and wet. He was tired, too.

Ron had an idea. He stood up and moved to the edge of the roof. "I'm jumping." he shouted. Ten minutes later there was a fire engine, a police car and an ambulance outside the house. A fireman climbed up the ladder on the fire engine "Don't jump mate," he said, "don't jump! Everything is alright."

1. The ladder fell down.....

- a) because one of his feet hit it while he was going down.
- b) because he kicked it away. It was not necessary.
- c) while he was climbing up it to the roof.
- d) because the roof was very wet because of the rain.
- e) because a fire engine needed it.

2. While he was waving at people for help,

- a) a woman turned away and walked quickly.
- b) he was crying and shouting at people.
- c) he sat down on the roof.
- d) he was sitting on the roof.
- e) people didn't hear him because of the noise.

3. He shouted "I am jumping!"

- a) because he wanted a fire brigade to come and save him
- b) to make people keep away from the old house
- c) people didn't give him a hand.
- d) because the house was burning and collapsing
- e) because he wanted to kill himself by jumping down

4.-10. sorularda verilen cümle ile aynı şeyi ifade eden cümleyi bulunuz.

4. My maid cleaned my house. She used two packets of washing powder.

- a) My house needed my maid to use two packets of washing powder.
- b) My maid cleaned my house without using any washing powder.
- c) My maid used two packets of washing powder before she cleaned my house.
- d) My maid used two packets of washing powder to clean my house.
- e) When she cleaned my house my maid used only a little washing powder.

5. She is going to collect some information about the city. Then she is going to write a book about it.

- a) She is going to write a book about the city when she collected some information about it.
- b) Before she collects some information about the city, she is going to write a book about it.
- c) Before she is going to collect some information about the city, she is going to write a book about it.
- d) After she is going to collect some information about the city, she is going to write a book about it.
- e) After she collects some information about the city, she is going to write a book about it.

6. That woman is gazing at us. She is a doctor at the Mersin State Hospital.

- a) The woman is gazing at us a doctor at the Mersin State Hospital.
- b) The woman gazing at us is a doctor at the Mersin State Hospital.
- c) The woman is gazing at us is a doctor at the Mersin State Hospital.
- d) The doctor gazing at us is a woman at the Mersin State Hospital.
- e) The woman is gazing at us at the Mersin State Hospital, so she is a doctor.

7. Jack helps us with the letters. This makes us very happy.

- a) We are very happy because of Jack helps us with the letters
- b) Jack's helping us type the letters make us very happy
- c) Jack helping us type the letters makes us very happy.
- d) Jack's helping us type the letters makes us very happy.
- e) We are very happy because Jack types the letters for us.

8. You have to show your passport to pass the border.

- a) Before you passed the border, you must show your passport.
- b) By showing your passport you cannot pass the border.
- c) You must pass the border without showing your passport.
- d) It is necessary to show your passport after you pass the border.
- e) You cannot pass the border without showing your passport.

9. Mary went shopping this afternoon to buy a present for her mother.

- a) After she went shopping this afternoon, Mary went to buy a present for her mother.
- b) Mary went shopping this afternoon, so she bought a present for her mother.
- c) Mary went shopping this afternoon because she wanted to buy a present for her mother.
- d) Mary bought a present for her mother by going shopping this afternoon.
- e) Before she bought her mother a present, Mary went to the shopping centre this afternoon.

10. There are my pencils on the television. Both of them are pink.

- a) My pink pencils are over there on TV.
- b) Some of my pencils on the television are pink.
- c) The colour of my television with two pencils is pink.
- d) My television has got two pink pencils.
- e) I have got two pink pencils on the television.

11.-17. sorularda, parentez içindeki fiilleri uygun tense ile açınız.

11. Mike (start) doing his work when he (arrive) home yesterday evening.

- a) started / was arrived
- b) starts / did arrive
- c) starts / arrives
- d) started / arrived
- e) started / was arriving

12. (not tell) anyone what I (tell) you now.

- a) Not telling / I am telling
- b) Don't tell / I told
- c) Don't tell / I am going to tell
- d) Not telling / am I telling
- e) Don't tell / am I going to tell

13. Who (teach) you how (read) and write?

- a) taught / to reading
b) taught / reading
c) teaches / read
d) is going to teach / is reading
e) taught / to read

14. Look! It (rain) heavily. We (not go) out!

- a) rains / cannot go
b) was raining / couldn't go
c) is raining / cannot go
d) is raining / doesn't go
e) rained / not go

15. Tom usually (not wake) up late but he (get) up at 10 a.m. yesterday.

- a) doesn't wake / got
b) isn't waking / got
c) didn't wake / got
d) don't wake / get
e) doesn't wake / was getting

16. Who (want) you (do) these exercises?

- a) wants / did
b) wants / doing
c) want / to do
d) wanted / to do
e) wanted / did

17. (receive) letters from friends (make) me very happy.

- a) received / makes
b) receiving / make
c) to receive / are making
d) receive / makes
e) receiving / makes

18.-21. sorularda cümleyi uygun şekilde tamamlayan ifadeyi bulunuz.

18. Parents never let

- a) their children to take alcohol and smoke cigarettes.
b) their children's taking alcohol and smoke cigarettes.
c) to their children's taking alcohol and smoke cigarettes.
d) their children take alcohol and smoke cigarettes.
e) their children take alcohol to smoke cigarettes.

19. After they finished typing the letters,

- a) they will go to the post office
- b) their father wanted them to do so.
- c) they are going to the post office.
- d) they are very happy indeed.
- e) they went to the post office to post them.

20. Students behave verywhen they

- a) happily / get good marks
- b) angrily / get a beautiful present
- c) happy / speak to their teacher
- d) carefully / walk
- e) carefully / spoke with their teacher

21. Yesterday morning Tom went to school without

- a) making breakfast
- b) having breakfast
- c) not having breakfast
- d) he didn't have breakfast
- e) he had breakfast

22.-25. sorularda verilen cevap için sorulmuş olan soruları bulunuz.

22. I grease my bike twice a month.

- a) How often do you grease your bike?
- b) How long do you grease your bike?
- c) When do you grease your bike?
- d) Do you grease your bike every month or week?
- e) How many times a week do you grease your bike?

23. I studied English until 8 p.m. yesterday.

- a) How often did you study yesterday?
- b) When did you study yesterday?
- c) Until when are you studying yesterday?
- d) What time do you study every day?
- e) How long did you study yesterday?

24. I watch TV, read story books, and sometimes go fishing.

- a) Which things did you do after breakfast?
- b) What do you do while having dinner?
- c) What were your hobbies before this school?
- d) What do you do in your free time?
- e) Do you do a lot of things in your spare time?

25. No, I don't work here. I work at a private bank.

- a) Do you work at a private bank or here?
- b) Do you work in this office or at a private bank?
- c) Where do you work, here or at a private bank?
- d) Do you work at a private bank?
- e) Do you work in this office?

26.-30 sorularda boşluklara gelmesi gereken kelimeleri bulunuz.

26. Go to theand wash your hands. They are very

- a) grocery shop / cheap
- b) bathroom / dirty
- c) bathroom / clean
- d) barbershop / dry
- e) school / angry

27. Ken's hair is very It needs a

- a) long / haircut
- b) short / paint
- c) long / shampoo
- d) dirty / towel
- e) clean / mess

28. I am going to the supermarket. I need a of toothpaste and a.....of chocolate for my son.

- a) bottle / piece
- b) tube / bar
- c) tube / jar
- d) glass / jug
- e) lot / few

29. Shesome about this mountain to write a book about it.

- a) collected / information
- b) picked up / flowers
- c) collects / flowers
- d) took / walk
- e) wrote / knowledge

30. I was very because it was afilm.

- a) frightened / afraid
- b) frightened / horror
- c) excited / comedy
- d) laughing / adventure
- e) surprised / another

31.-32. sorularda uygun ilgeçleri (preposition) bulunuz.

31. Last night we wentfor a walk. While we were walkingthe road, two cars crashed.

- a) out / onto
b) in / in
c) out / over
- d) out / along
e) through / up

32. The waiter got angrya customer because he wasn't paying the bill.

- a) with / without
b) to / for
c) to / on
- d) with / for
e) at / up

33. sorularda verilen parağrafi özetleyen cümleyi bulunuz.

33. In the autumn the students can play outside. Football is usually the autumn sport in the high schools. On the other hand, the students play basketball inside in the winter because it is very cold outside. In the spring, they can go out again. They play baseball in the spring.

- a) When the weather is cold, the students don't play football.
b) It is cold in some seasons but it isn't in the other ones.
c) High school students play different sports in different seasons.
d) The students wait to play football until the spring comes.
e) In the autumn they usually play inside.

APPENDIX 7

OVERALL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY POSTTEST

USE THE CORRECT FORM OF THE VERBS IN BRACKETS
1-7. SORULARDA FİLLERİN UYGUN ZAMAN VEYA HALİNİN
KULLANILDIĞI SEÇENEĞİ BULUNUZ

1. Theyus only one letter since theymarried.

- a) have written / got b) wrote / have got c) wrote / got
d) had written / have got e) have written / have got

2. If weholiday better last year, weall the major cities of Germany.

- a) have planned / visited b) planned / visited
c) had planned / could have visited d) plan / are visiting
e) could have planned / had visited

3. The medical authorities warned everyonethe water without firstit.

- a) had drunk / being boiled b) to drink / having boiled
c) drank / having had to boil d) drinking / having to boil
e) not to drink / boiling

4. When I, Bertalmost half of the report.

- a) had arrived / wrote b) arrived / had written
c) have arrived / would write d) was arriving / wrote
e) would arrive / would have written

5. If you've finishedthe dictionary, I'd likeit for a while.

- a) use / to have borrowed b) to use / borrowing
c) using / to borrow d) having used / borrow
e) to have used / having borrowed

6. I have noticed that since Ithe university, my lifemuch more interesting.

- a) entered / has become b) have entered / becomes
c) had entered / became d) enter / is becoming
e) was entering / had become

7. While I.....for my aunt outside the shop, someonemy purse

- a) waited / had been grabbing
- b) was waiting / grabbed
- c) had waited / was grabbing
- d) had to wait / had grabbed
- e) have been waiting / would have grabbed

CHOOSE THE BEST COMPLETION FOR EACH SENTENCE GIVEN
8.-14. SORULARDA CÜMLELERİ DOĞRU ŞEKİLDE TAMAMLAYAN
İFADEİNİN OLDUĞU SEÇENEĞİ BULUP İŞARETLEYİNİZ

8. After getting on the bus, Jack realized that

- a) he would take his raincoat with him.
- b) he will buy a newspaper.
- c) he has promised to telephone his mother.
- d) he had forgotten to turn off the lights.
- e) he leaves the window open.

9., you won't be able to catch the train.

- a) Since you weren't clumsy
- b) If you have been unaware of the time
- c) Unless you rush to the station
- d) While you are looking for a taxi
- e) Whenever you try hard

10 , I would invite you to dinner.

- a) Whether my wife can get back in time
- b) Since it was only six in the evening
- c) Unless the shops are all closed
- d) Even though everyone was free
- e) If I knew to cook

11. Although we hadn't met for 20 years,

- a) she is much prettier than I am
- b) it was a long time again
- c) he has grown much older
- d) I recognized him at once
- e) the other team seemed surprised

12.which I had grown myself.

- a) Here are some of the bananas
- b) I gave her some of the flowers
- c) For the salad I will use the lemons
- d) They don't want those
- e) I am sending her some of the pears

13. The weather was so cold

- a) since I came to live in this town
- b) when the wind blows hard
- c) because it has been snowing heavily
- d) that I decided not to walk to school
- e) until the spring comes

14. If the rules hadn't been ignored,

- a) the problem could become that serious
- b) it will be easier to communicate with them
- c) this error would never have occurred
- d) there have been no disagreements so far
- e) they may not feel a need to strengthen the police force

CIRCLE THE BEST CHOICE THAT AMOUNTS TO THE SAME MEANING AS THE GIVEN SENTENCE

15.-20.SORIULARDAVERİLEN TMCE İLE AYNI ANLAMA GELEN TMCEYİ BULUP İŞARETLEYİNİZ

15. We arrived late, so we missed the first act of the play.

- a) We couldn't see the first act of the play as we got there late
- b) If the play had begun on time, we should have missed the first act.
- c) The first act of the play had just started when we arrived.
- d) We didn't want to get back late, so we only watched the first act of the play.
- e) We were late but the first act of the play didn't begin on time.

16. It's two months since James moved into his new flat.

- a) James will have moved into his new flat in two months' time.
- b) It took James two months to move into his new flat.
- c) James moved into his new flat two months ago.
- d) James could have moved into his new flat 2 months ago.
- e) Although two months have already passed, James hasn't moved into his flat yet.

17. It is usually too cold to go swimming at this time.

- a) For the time of the year it is warm, but not warm enough for swimming.
- b) In this season it is rarely warm enough to go swimming.
- c) If the weather stays warm we shall be able to go swimming.
- d) When the warm season comes we shall be able to swim.
- e) However cold it is, one can swim here all the year round.

18. We had planned to walk round the lake, but the heavy rain made this impossible.

- a) If it hadn't rained so heavily we would have walked round the lake.
- b) In spite of the heavy rain we managed to walk half way round the lake as planned.
- c) The heavy rain nearly prevented us from walking right round the lake.
- d) We would have walked right round the lake even if it had rained heavily.
- e) Really heavy rain would naturally have prevented us from walking to the far end of the lake.

19. I wouldn't have watched the film on TV if I had found some other activity.

- a) The film on TV kept me from getting on with my work.
- b) I found something to do, which stopped me from watching the film on TV.
- c) The film on TV was not interesting enough to keep me from my work.
- d) I couldn't watch the play on TV because I had some work to do.
- e) I just watched the film because I had nothing else to do.

20. He isn't used to doing any job unless he is told to.

- a) If he is ordered to do something, he usually does it.
- b) He would never do anything that he wasn't supposed to.
- c) He generally does things that no one told him to.
- d) He is not in the habit of doing any job without being instructed to.
- e) The only things he used to do were those he had been instructed to.

CHOOSE THE CORRECT WORDS TO COMPLETE THE SLOTS
21.-27. SORULARDA BOŞLUĞA GELMESİ GEREKEN SÖZCÜĞÜ BULUP
İŞARETLEYİNİZ

21. Stop shouting! The neighbors have alreadyabout the noise.

- a) complained
- b) regretted
- c) disturbed
- d) increased
- e) called

22. Peter thought it wasn't warmto go swimming.

- a) for b) too c) enough d) still e) just

23. Although he seems fluent in English, his sentences are full of grammatical

- a) wrongs b) dangers c) duties d) mistakes e) rules

24. I didn't want towith Peter about doing the washing up.

- a) apologize b) conclude c) blame d) contrast e) quarrel

25. Unless you take your medicine, your cough will never go.

- a) decisively b) regularly c) unwillingly d) specially e) carelessly

26. This report seems interesting in parts, but the last section is unrealistic.

- a) completely b) sensibly c) consequently d) nervously e) reliably

27. We were taken here by a manGeorge.

- a) name b) telephoned c) called d) rung up e) told

**FIND THE CORRECT CONJUNCTION OR TRANSITIONAL WORD
28.-34. SORULARDA UYGUN BAĞLAÇ VEYA İFADEYİ BULUNUZ**

28.her meeting finished, she telephoned me.

- a) Unless b) As soon as c) Until d) However e) In case

29. He has been studying chemistryhe was 14 years old.

- a) until b) for c) after d) since e) before

30. The new secretary hasn't used this type of computer before, so they are showing herto use it.

- a) what b) why c) how d) which e) who

31. The play starts half an hour later;we walk quickly, we are going to be late.

- a) unless b) in case c) when d) since e) whether

32.I met John he complains about the neighbors.

- a) Whenever b) Whatever c) Whereas d) Whichever e) While

33.New York is America's largest city, it isn't the capital of America.

- a) Despite b) In spite of c) Because of d) Although e) Since

34. James didn't stop when the lights were red., the traffic policeman stopped and fined him.

- a) Therefore b) Owing to c) In addition d) However e) Although

USE THE CORRECT PREPOSITIONS TO COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING
35.-40. SORULARDA BOŞLUKLARDA KULLANILMASI GEREKEN
İLGEÇLERİ BULUP İŞARETLEYİNİZ

35. George apologizedustaking our bike without permission.

- a) from / in b) to / for c) at / by d) to / off e) in / up

36. Because I arrivedthe airport very late, my father got angryme.

- a) at / to b) in / to c) at / with d) to / to e) off / at

37. Clara looked uphimwonder in her eyes.

- a) to / by b) upon / in c) for / on d) to / in e) at / with

38. I am afraid there is something wrongmy ear. I can't hear what you are talking

- a) on / at b) in / on c) with / after d) with / about e) over / at

39. Television is usedreceiving picturesdistant places.

- a) for / to b) in / above c) at / over d) to / from e) for / from

40. The differencesrural and city life are great in number, but cities are not any similarvillages.

- a) among / to b) between / on c) between / to d) with / at e) within / from

41.- 43. SORULARI AŞAĞIDAKİ METİNE GÖRE CEVAPLAYINIZ

Mrs Smith made a mistake when he gave his son Tom a camera, because soon Tom became so interested in photography that he began to neglect his school work. Soon a large part of his conversation was about photographs. When the newspapers came, he examined the photographs first and said what was wrong with them before starting to read the news.

41. Mr Smith gave his son a camera.....

- a) before he was particularly interested in photography.
b) because he has started to work for a newspaper.
c) as a reward for working well at school.
d) so that he would work harder at school.
e) lest he neglected his lessons.

42. After he was given the camera, Tom.....

- a) stopped reading the newspapers.
b) only read about the pictures in the newspapers.
c) spent a lot of time on his homework.
d) began to give much more time to photography than to his lessons.
e) became one of the best students in his class.

43. Tom.....

- a) read the news first and then examined the photographs.
b) always talked about his camera.
c) usually took beautiful pictures.
d) had his pictures published in the newspapers.
e) talked about photography more than anything else.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS THAT FOLLOW THE GIVEN TEXT
44.- 46. SORULARI AŞAĞIDAKİ METİNE GÖRE CEVAPLAYINIZ

When the Deakings decided to move from the outskirts of London to central London they both thought they were doing the right thing. Mr Deaking looked forward to less travelling, and Mrs Deaking to a much more interesting life and more friends. Before they had been there a month, however, they both started to miss their old house with its garden, and to wish they had never left it.

44. Soon after they had moved to central London.....

- a) they began to enjoy a more interesting life.
- b) the Deakings realized that they had made a mistake.
- c) Mrs Deaking made a lot of friends.
- d) Mr Deaking gave up his job in the outskirts of the town.
- e) they knew they had been right to make the move.

45. Before they moved to Central London, Mr Deaking

- a) had wasted a lot of time travelling.
- b) was perfectly pleased with his life.
- c) was afraid he would find the city dirty and noisy.
- d) began to travel less and less.
- e) thought he would miss his old house.

46. Mrs Deaking

- a) soon regretted the move but her husband didn't.
- b) has always lived in central London.
- c) has had a more interesting life than her husband.
- d) has never lived in a house with a garden.
- e) fully expected to enjoy living in central London.

47.- 49. SORULARI AŞAĞIDAKİ METNE GÖRE CEVAPLAYINIZ

Many people who have to start the day early find it difficult to wake up properly. For some of them the solution is very straightforward: they drink two cups of coffee and the feelings of the tiredness disappear. This is the effect of coffee, but also in drinks like tea, cola, and cocoa taken in reasonable amounts, the stimulating chemical may help some people to work more efficiently. However, excessive amounts of caffeine can cause several irritating, unhealthy side effects. Studies show, in fact, that more than two cups of coffee a day can cause unpleasant symptoms such as nervousness, anger, stomach pain and sleeplessness.

47. The passage suggests that it is not advisable for one to.....

- a) drink any tea, coffee or cocoa at all.
- b) start the day without a stimulant of some sort.
- c) use any other stimulant but caffeine.
- d) drink more than two cups of coffee a day.
- e) drink coffee late in the day.

48. Caffeine and other similar stimulants

- a) are completely harmless.
- b) can produce certain unpleasant side effects if large doses are taken.
- c) always have a negative effect upon people.
- d) actually never lead to improved performance.
- e) are only to be found in tea, coffee and cola

49. The passage points out that many people begin the day with two cups of coffee

- a) because by doing so they soon feel wide awake.
- b) even when they don't feel sleepy.
- c) because there is less caffeine in coffee than in tea.
- d) if they know the day ahead is likely to be an irritating one.
- e) as this is the best way to cure certain stomach pains and sleeplessness.

**50.-52. SORULARDA VERİLEN PARAĞRAFI EN UYGUN ŞEKİLDE
ÖZETLİYEN TİMCEYİ BULUNUZ**

50. I don't know any French myself, and so I don't know whether Jane's French is good or bad. But I do know that she has spent the last two years in France. She was in Paris for 18 months and the remaining 6 months she spent at various places along the south coast. So she should know French well.

- a) Jane has spent two whole years in France, partly in Paris, partly on the south coast.
- b) If I had spent two years in France like Jane I would have learned French well.
- c) Jane's French is now very good indeed.
- d) Jane thoroughly enjoyed the two years she spent in France, but I don't think her French is better than mine.
- e) Jane's French should be good as she has recently spent two years in France.

51. Ender is pleased that his company is sending him to the new factory near Zonguldak. The pay will be better and the work more interesting. Also, several of his friends live there and he likes the climate.

- a) Ender's company has many reasons for opening a new factory in Zonguldak.
- b) Ender is happy to be going to Zonguldak for various reasons.
- c) Ender is looking forward to making new friends in Zonguldak.
- d) It is not easy to find interesting, well-paid work in Zonguldak.
- e) Ender has never had such a good job as his present one in Zonguldak.

52. Whenever I need something, the first place that I go to is Dawson's store. There they sell just about everything. You can buy clothes there, things for the house and for the garden, and also sports equipment: they stock a wide variety of goods. Everything is of good quality, and prices are reasonable.

- a) In my opinion, Dawson's is an excellent store and not too expensive.
- b) Most people can't afford to go to Dawson's.
- c) You can't find everything you need in Dawson's.
- d) Dawson's is famous for its goods but prices are high.
- e) The rich and the famous all shop at Dawson's.

53.-55. SORULARDA PARAĞRAFI EN UYGUN ŞEKİLDE TAMAMLAYAN
TÜMCEYİ BULUNUZ

53. İstanbul is one of the most beautiful cities in the world. Besides, the Bosphorus, which is famous for its natural beauty, historical houses and modern bridge, the city has magnificent mosques, marvellous museums and interesting shops.
Most of them become so fond of it that they come again and again to see it.

- a) A boat trip on the Bosphorus is really very enjoyable.
- b) Some of the hotels are quite expensive.
- c) The Bosphorus Bridge is a wonderful work of modern engineering.
- d) All the year around it is visited by a lot of foreign tourists.
- e) As is any other big city, the streets are always very crowded.

54. I don't know how long I had been asleep, but when I woke up, the telephone was ringing. I got out of bed and felt my way through the darkness to the telephone. After I had finished talking on the phone, I was completely awake and didn't want to sleep anymore.

- a) As I had a headache, I couldn't sleep well.
- b) I had just got home from one evening out.
- c) It seemed to have been ringing for a long time.
- d) The people upstairs had invited me to their home.
- e) It has never been my habit to stay up late.

55. When we were half way through the valley, I looked at the others;..... I was very worried, for we still had a long way to walk; and there wasn't more than an hour's day light left.

- a) they were all sitting in the bus.
- b) it was still early in the morning.
- c) some of us are still eating.
- d) next we organized a game of cards.
- e) they all looked as tired as I felt.