



T. C. ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

**TEACHING WRITING IN EFL CLASSES :
A SUGGESTION TOWARDS INCORPORATING
WRITING SKILL WITH SPEAKING AND READING SKILLS**

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

Güler ÜNAL

Eskişehir, 1989

**Anadolu Üniversitesi
Merkez Kütüphanesi**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to Assoc.Prof.Dr. Gül Durmuşođlu for her patient and intellectual guidance all through this study.

I will always remain indebted to Assoc.Prof.Dr. Ahmet Konrot for his support and help in making this all a reality.

My grateful thanks are also due to Assoc.Prof.Dr. Zülâl Balpınar who has helped me with kind advice and interest to bring this thesis to completion.

I am also indebted to Alastair McCapra and Ayşe Mustafa, my colleagues, who very kindly evaluated my students' papers; to Susan A. Carlson, my colleague, who very kindly evaluated my students' papers and proofread my thesis.

I am especially grateful to Nesrin Yıldız who very kindly helped me with the statistical interpretation.

My special thanks go to Assoc.Prof.Dr. Osman Zıllıođlu who was a continuous support to me.

I would like to thank to Ramazan Uludađ for his encouragement and never-ending support in donating me with the books I needed throughout my thesis.

ABSTRACT

This study, which consists of five chapters, investigates whether writing improves if it is taught through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and in which areas this improvement takes place.

In Chapter I, the background to the problem is discussed. In this part, the problem, the purpose of the study, its assumptions and limitations, and definitions of the basic terms used in this study are also introduced.

Chapter II reviews literature relevant to the study.

The third Chapter is concerned with research design, selection of subjects, data collection and data analysis.

The data obtained from the tests administered to the groups are statistically calculated and interpreted in Chapter IV.

Chapter V discusses the statistical interpretations and makes suggestions for further studies.

The statistical results indicate that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable: teaching writing through speaking and reading

with the help of a pictorial magazine ad produced a significant increase in the ESL Composition Total scores and in the ESL Composition Profile Components; in Content, Organization, Vocabulary, and Language Use.

ÖZET

Yazılı anlatım çalışmaları öncesindeki etkinliklerin yazılı anlatım becerisini etkileyip etkilemediğini ve bu etkinliklerin yazılı anlatım becerisi içinde yer alan beş alt beceriyi -içeriğin sunulma biçimi (Content), kompozisyon plânı (Organization), sözcük dağarcığı (Vocabulary), dilin kullanımı (Language Use) ve yazım kurallarınının doğru, noktalama işaretlerinin yerinde kullanılıp kullanılmadığı (Mechanics)- hangi düzeyde etkilediğini belirleyebilmek için, Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Ana bilim dalı 2-A ve 2-B sınıflarından her iki sınıfta 20 şer öğrenci olmak üzere 40 öğrenci seçilmiştir. Çalışmada iki kompozisyon konusu kullanılmıştır. Birinci kompozisyon konusunun verilmesinden önce, B grubunda konu hakkındaki okuma parçaları ve resimler üzerinde tartışılmış ve A grubunda ise yalnızca kompozisyon konusu verilerek yazmaları istenmiştir. İkinci kompozisyon konusunun yazılması öncesinde ise A grubunda konu hakkındaki okuma parçaları ve resimler üzerinde tartışılmış ve B grubunda yalnızca kompozisyon konusu verilerek yazmaları istenmiştir.

"The ESL Composition Profile" (Hughey, 1983: 140) kullanılarak elde edilen veriler, iki grup arasında ve grupların kendi içinde uygulanan iki ayrı yöntemde farklılık olup olmadığını belirleyebilmek amacıyla t-testi kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmada elde edilen bulgular şöyledir:

Öğrencilerin toplam puanlarında gruplar arasında ve grup içinde belirgin bir farklılık vardır. Toplam puanı oluşturan alt becerilerin puanlarına bakıldığında iki sınıf arasında ve grupların kendi içlerinde içeriğin sunulmasında yazılı anlatım çalışmaları öncesindeki etkinliklerin puanları belirgin bir şekilde arttırdığı gözlenmiştir. Her iki grup kendi içinde incelendiğinde yazım kurallarının doğru, noktalama işaretlerinin yerinde kullanabilme becerisinin dışında diğer tüm yazılı anlatım alt becerilerinde -içeriğin sunulma biçimi (Content), kompozisyon planı (Organization), sözcük dağarcığı (Vocabulary), dilin kullanımı (language Use)- yazılı anlatım öncesi etkinliklerin öğrencilerin puanlarını belirgin bir şekilde artırdığını bu araştırma sonuçları açık bir şekilde göstermektedir.

Sonuç olarak, yazılı anlatım çalışmaları öncesindeki etkinliklerin yazılı anlatım becerisini olumlu yönde etkilediği ve yazılı anlatım derslerinde böyle bir yöntem kullanıldığında öğrencilerin daha başarılı olacağı söylenebilir.

SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

C	: Content
O	: Organization
V	: Vocabulary
L	: Language Use
M	: Mechanics
N	: The Total Number of Scores
\bar{x}	: The Mean Scores
Σ	: 'The Sum of'
$\sqrt{\quad}$: 'Take the Square Root of'
Σx	: Add all the Scores Together
Σx^2	: Add All the Squares Together
SD	: Standard Deviation
d.f.	: Degrees of Freedom
t	: t-Test Value
P	: Probability
ESL	: English as a Second Language
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
<	: Smaller than
>	: Bigger than
cf.	: Compare
et al.	: and others

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Problem

Bacon emphasizes the importance of writing in the following statement:

"Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man."

(Quoted by Wilkinson, 1986: 8)

Writing is defined by Dvorak(1986: 145) as "all of the various activities that involve transferring thought to paper." The ability to write is recognized as an important objective of language study.

Skill in writing is a basic necessity for most Language learners. The person who is in the academic environment needs writing to write reports and term papers. The one who is not in the academic environment needs to write letters, messages, memos, invitations, and the like.

Widdowson (1978: 62) defines writing as "the production of sentences as instances of usage." He says that sentences are used to create a discourse and each sentence has a particular value as part of this discourse.

Writing effectively does not mean putting sentences together as a sequence like wagons in a train. As a result, it is a difficult task for most students. Many techniques have been developed by writers who produced materials for teaching writing. Sentence combining, forming a paragraph by answering questions, listening or reading a paragraph, rewriting it, and free compositions are only some of the techniques in writing. This is the case in Turkey, regarding the higher and secondary school application.

The result of the research conducted by Hillocks (1984) indicates that none of these techniques are as effective as other features of the process model of teaching writing. As a natural consequence of these techniques, students do not show much interest in writing courses and do not like writing.

The purpose of writing should be to communicate, not to practise grammar. Most language teachers see writing courses either as practising grammar or leaving learners alone with a given topic. The purpose of the teacher should be to develop students' communicative competence in the target language that will enable

the students to produce a text which is grammatically, lexically and rhetorically correct.

Most students have the greatest difficulty in 'what to say'. A good language teaching theory would meet conditions and needs of learners in the best possible ways.

Speaking and reading before writing may help students to shape their ideas. Bruton (1986: 174) believes that "most writing exercises should be preceded by some sort of oral buildup that focuses the learner's attention on the task and makes them oralize-put into spoken words-what they are going to write". Oral discussions allow the teacher to check the students' previous knowledge and help them to grasp new language items.

One of the three aims proposed for the teaching of composition by Hartog (1907) was "to stimulate language learners to explore and elaborate their own thoughts and to develop their own power of thinking" (Quoted by Wilkinson, 1986: 37).

Gaudiani (1981: 104) finds showing a picture or short film to the class quite effective in writing a composition. Pictorial ads are valuable materials for language teachers. They are available in every magazine and newspaper.

Teachers can facilitate successful oral-buildup through the use of pictorial ads. Students can grasp

new vocabulary, phrases and structure from the pictorial advertisement brought into the class by the teacher. Reading authentic printed materials will connect them in activities which recreate real life situations in the classroom. Pictorial ads are excellent means of exercising and reinforcing interpreting ability. They help students to buildup self-confidence. Since they know that they have some ideas in their minds, they join the class activities. Participating actively in the class may help to reduce the frustration in the composition lesson.

Of all the resources and techniques available to language teachers, visual aids are the most important for discussion session. When they are properly planned and constructed, they enhance the classroom atmosphere and ensure participation of the students. Wright (1981: 38) gives examples of using visual materials for mechanical writing. He states that even mechanical work can be given a 'special flavour' with the aid of visual material. Byrne (1978) suggests using visual aids in composition. The role of visual aid is to motivate and guide the student.

For most students, it is a very difficult task to learn to be productive in writing. For them the writing lessons are dull and boring. When they are left alone with the topic, they do not show much interest in writing. It is quite difficult to find a topic which is in the field of all the students' interest

in the class. When they have no idea about the topic, they seem reluctant to carry out writing assignments. Students need facts and ideas to write their compositions.

Since writing is an important part of language proficiency, it should be given enough importance in ELT. Writing skill should not be separated from speaking and reading skills.

It has become common pedagogical practice to devote separate teaching sessions to developing particular language skills. But, George S. Murdoch (1986: 9) say that "the rigid separation of the study of oral, reading, writing and listening skills is in many instances, not helping our students to achieve a well rounded linguistic competence." Separating teaching sessions to developing particular language skills is against the nature of language learning.

1.2. Problem

In spite of a large amount of curriculum time devoted to written English, many language teachers complain that the standard of written English among the students is still low.

The state of the art of teaching written English has been well reviewed by a number of scholars in ELT. This study examines areas of the problem that have been neglected and propose some directions for the teaching of written English.

It should always be remembered how hard it is to write even in someone's native language. Although native speakers have a command of most of the vocabulary and grammatical structures, they have difficulties in writing.

Learners often face writing courses with anxiety. They may have no idea about "what to say" and "how to begin". It has been known that with lack of content and self-confidence no one can write a good composition. It is the responsibility of the teacher to lower anxiety in the EFL class (Krashen, 1982; Byrne, 1981).

Writing has become a problem because it is taught as a separate skill away from such lively activities as oral-buildup, work connected with tapes, pictures, reading, etc. If writing were to be integrated into the work related to these activities, the psychological barrier that has grown up around it would soon crumble (cf. Murdach 1986; Finocchiaro, 1973; Gaudiani, 1981, McKay, 1981).

This thesis addresses the question of the effect of pre-writing activities upon students' written performance. In other words, will there be any difference between the two groups of students when they are exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and when they are not exposed to pre-writing activities?

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to find out an effective way in teaching writing and to make students enjoy writing courses in the EFL context.

After the oral-buildup and reading the text, students are expected to have the knowledge of 'what to say' about the topic. As Arapoff (1965: 201) puts forward, the problem caused by the students' limited knowledge of grammar and of the idioms of English can be avoided by requiring that instead of using the facts of first-hand experience, they can use second-hand facts gained through the experience of reading.

Writing is an active process. The effectiveness of writing depends on selecting and organizing experience to a certain purpose. It is assumed in this study that speaking and reading before writing would help students organize their ideas to be productive.

Pictorial ads are known as valuable materials for motivating students. If language teachers want their students to be productive in writing courses in the ELT context, they shouldn't forget the importance of motivation in the class.

A teacher with teaching materials, such as pictorial ads, would have something to discuss with his/her students. Pictorial ads encourage students

to speak and read in the class. Their collective contribution may help to reduce anxiety.

By paraphrasing sentences from the text or using vocabulary discussed in the class, the students are expected to reduce their grammatical errors and write effective compositions.

The purpose of this study is to answer whether writing improves if it is taught incorporating with the other language skills and to investigate in which areas this improvement takes place.

To achieve the purpose of this study, the following questions will be answered:

The first two questions are to see whether Group A and Group B are at the same language level.

1. Is there a significant difference between the ESL Composition Profile total scores of Group A and Group B when they were not exposed to pre-writing activities?

2. Is there a significant difference between the ESL Composition Profile total scores of Group A and Group B when they were exposed to pre-writing activities?

To see whether there will be any significant difference in the ESL Composition Profile Total scores between Group A and Group B the following two questions will be asked:

3. Is there a significant difference between the ESL Composition Profile total scores of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad in Composition 1.

4. Is there a significant difference between Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Composition 2.

To see whether there will be any difference within the groups themselves, the study will ask the following two questions:

5. Is there a significant difference between the total scores of the students within Group A in Composition 1 (when the group was not exposed to pre-writing activities) and in Composition 2 (when the group was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad.)

6. Is there a significant difference between the total scores of the students within Group B in Composition 1 (when the group was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad) and in Composition 2 (when the group was not exposed to pre-writing activities.)

To see whether there will be any significant difference between Group A and Group B in the ESL Composition Profile Components, the following questions will be asked:

7. Is there a significant difference between the scores of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading in Content in Composition 1? (cf. Appendix A-1)

8. Is there a significant difference between the Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities in Organization in Composition 1?

9. Is there a significant difference between the scores of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities in Vocabulary in Composition 1?

10. Is there a significant difference between the scores of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities in Language Use in Composition 1?

11. Is there a significant difference between the scores of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities in Mechanics in Composition 1?

12. Is there a significant difference between the scores of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Content in Composition 2 (cf. Appendix A-2).

13. Is there a significant difference between the scores of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Organization in Composition 2?

14. Is there a significant difference between the scores of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in vocabulary in Composition 2?

15. Is there a significant difference between the scores of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Language Use in Composition 2?

16. Is there a significant difference between the scores of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Mechanics in Composition 2?

To see whether there will be a significant difference within the groups themselves in the ESL Composition Profile Components the following questions will be asked.

17. Is there a significant difference between the Content scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 (cf. Appendix A-1 and A-2) within Group A?

18. Is there a significant difference between the Organization scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A?

19. Is there a significant difference between the Vocabulary scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A?

20. Is there a significant difference between the Language Use scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A?

21. Is there a significant difference between the Mechanics scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A?

22. Is there a significant difference between the Content scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B?

23. Is there a significant difference between the Organization scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B?

24. Is there a significant difference between the Vocabulary scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B?

25. Is there a significant difference between the Language Use scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B?

26. Is there a significant difference between the Mechanics scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 (cf. Appendix A-1 and A-2) within Group B.

1.4. Limitations

1. This research is limited to the second year students of the Education Faculty of Anadolu University.

2. Text-type variations are not dealt with, only Content is used to guide the students and they are left to create their own types.

3. It is limited to the use of only pictorial ads as visual cues, other types of advertisements and audio-visual materials are not taken into consideration.

4. This study is limited to the level from upper intermediate to lower advanced.

1.5. Assumptions

When a student is asked to write a composition in the class, he is assumed to have mastered:

1. a writing competence in his native language.

2. mechanics of punctuation in both his native language and foreign language.

1.6. Definitions

Definitions of key terms and concepts used throughout this research are as follows:

Content: Understanding of the subject; Using facts or other pertinent information; discussing several main points with sufficient detail; using all information clearly pertinent to the topic in a written task (Hughey, 1983: 142).

Organization: Building ideas on one another; Using introductory and concluding paragraphs; controlling idea clearly; Using topic sentences in each paragraph supporting, limiting, and directing the thesis (Hughey, 1983: 142).

Vocabulary: Conveying intended information, attitudes, and feelings by using accurate, idiomatic, effective, and concise words in the context in which it is used (Hughey, 1983: 143).

Language Use: Using well-formed and complete sentences, with appropriate complements; distinguishing main and subordinate ideas carefully; being aware of paralellism; using techniques of substitution, repetition, and deletion effectively (Hughey, 1983: 144).

Mechanics: Spelling words correctly; dividing words correctly at the end of lines; using capital letters where necessary and appropriate.

Composing: Composing can be defined as what occurs between the writing of the first word on paper and the final stopping of writing (Pianko, 1987: 46).

Rough Draft: Writer's first try at putting his information together.

Paradigm: When a scientific field is going through a stable period, most of the practitioner in the discipline hold a common body of beliefs and assumptions; they agree on the problems that need to be solved, the rules that govern research, and on the standards by which performance is to be measured. They share a conceptual model that Kuhn calls a "paradigm" (1970: X)

Paradigm Shift: The replacement of one conceptual model by another one is called "paradigm shift" (Kuhn, 1970: X).

Integration: Integrated skills are when the main language skills are practiced in conjunction with each other; e.g. when oral practice leads into reading and then into written work on the same theme (Willis, 1981: 186).

Literacy Skills: The skills which cannot be acquired as part natural process of first language acquisition are called literacy skills. Reading and writing are called literacy Skills.

Receptive Skills: Listening and reading skills are called receptive skills. In a teaching situation, students should listen before they speak (Willis, 1981: 188).

Productive Skills: Speaking and writing skills are called as productive skills. Either the speaker or the writer produces something in speaking or in writing.

Authentic Material: Willis (1981: 146) defines authentic texts as real texts designed not for language students but for native speakers. Any English newspaper or magazine is composed of what we would call authentic English. An English advertisement is an example of authentic English.

Process: It can be defined as how something is made or done.

Expository Writing: Exposition was defined by Wishon et al (1968: 372) as "the form of discourse used in giving information, making explanations, and interpreting meaning".

Description: Wishon et al (1968: 367) define description as "the form of discourse used in creating sensory impressions and eliciting emotional reactions."

Narration: "Narration" say Wishon et al (1968: 364) "is the form of writing used to relate the story of acts or events, singly or in series."

Argumentation: Wishon et al define argumentation as " the form of discourse used in persuading and convincing." (1968: 375).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the following points which are essential for the development of this research will be discussed: Modes of Instruction in Writing; Approaches to Teaching Writing; Comparison of Treatment of Writing in Different Methods in ELT; The Differences between Speaking and Writing; The Role of the Affective Filter in Developing Writing; Visuals in Writing; The Importance of Pictorial Ads in Writing; and Integrating Skills.

2.1. Modes of Instruction in Writing

Hillocks (1984: 141) defines mode of instruction as "the configuration of variables characteristics of certain teacher/classroom relationships and activities,

particularly the role played by the teacher and the kinds of activities in which students engage."

Hillocks identified four modes of instruction as follows: Presentational, natural process, environmental, and individualized.

2.1.1. Presentational Mode

In this mode, the teacher dominates the writing activity. Students are passive recipients of rules, advice, and examples of good writing. Applebee (1981: 246) reports that this is the most commonly used composition instruction in the schools.

2.1.2. Natural Process Mode

The teacher encourages students to write for other students, receive comments from them, and to revise in light of comments from teacher and students. The teacher plays a role in this mode as a "facilitator". Fluency is more important than accuracy. Students are free in choosing their subjects in a journal. This mode avoids "the study of model pieces of writing, the presentation of criteria, structuring the treatment around sets of skills and concepts, and using the teacher as the primary source of feedback." (Hillocks, 1984: 143).

2.1.3. Environmental Mode

In contrast to the natural process mode, the concrete tasks of the environmental mode make objectives operationally clear by engaging students in their pursuit through structured tasks. Teacher plans and uses activities with a high level of student interaction concerning problems parallel to those encountered in specific kinds of writing. It emphasizes on structured problem-solving with clear objectives. Hillocks (1984: 144-146) finds the environmental mode more effective than presentational and natural process.

2.1.4. Individualized Mode

This mode of instruction seeks to help students on an individualized basis. Students receive instruction through tutorials, programmed materials, or a combination.

Hillocks summarizes the modes as follows:

"This instructional mode is about 25 percent less effective than the average experimental treatment, but about 50 percent more effective than the presentational mode. Intreatments that examine the effects of individualized work with students, the results are essentially the same." (1984: 160)

2.2. A Rank Ordering of Effective Strategies in Teaching Composition

As part of a comprehensive review of research related to the teaching of composition, George Hillocks (1984) has conducted an integrative review of experimental studies completed from 1963 through 1982. The findings indicate that the dimension of effective writing are quite different from what is commonly practice in schools.

The research studied by Hillocks shows that sentence combining is more than twice as effective as free writing as a means of enhancing the quality of student writing.

The result of the research conducted by Hillocks (1984) indicates the following rank ordering of effective strategies in teaching composition.

2.2.1. Inquiry

Students are involved in generating information, analyzing it, creating relationships, and deciding what to use in their writing, and how to use it.

A study by Hillocks (1984) shows that these treatment are nearly four times more effective than free writing and over two-and-a half times more powerful than the traditional study of model pieces of writing.

2.2. Scales

Students use scales which identify the elements of good writing and actively apply them to their own writing and the writing of other students. "Through using the criterion systematically, students appear to internalize them and bring them to bear in generating new material even when they do not have the criteria in front of them." (Hillocks, 1984: 161)

2.2.3. Sentence Combining

Students build more complex sentences from simpler ones to increase syntactic complexity and maturity in their writing. A research by Hillocks (1984) shows that sentence combining is more than twice as effective as free writing (cf. 2.3.3.) as a means of enhancing the quality of student writing.

2.2.4. Free Writing

Students are left alone with the topic to write freely about whatever interests or concerns them it is primarily useful for generating ideas. It is more effective than teaching grammar in raising the quality of student writing. "When examined in conjunction with other features of the 'process' model of teaching writing (writing for peers, feedback from peers, revision

and so forth), these treatments are only about two-thirds as effective as the average experimental treatments and less than half as effective as environmental treatments." (Hillocks, 1984: 161)

2.2.5. Models

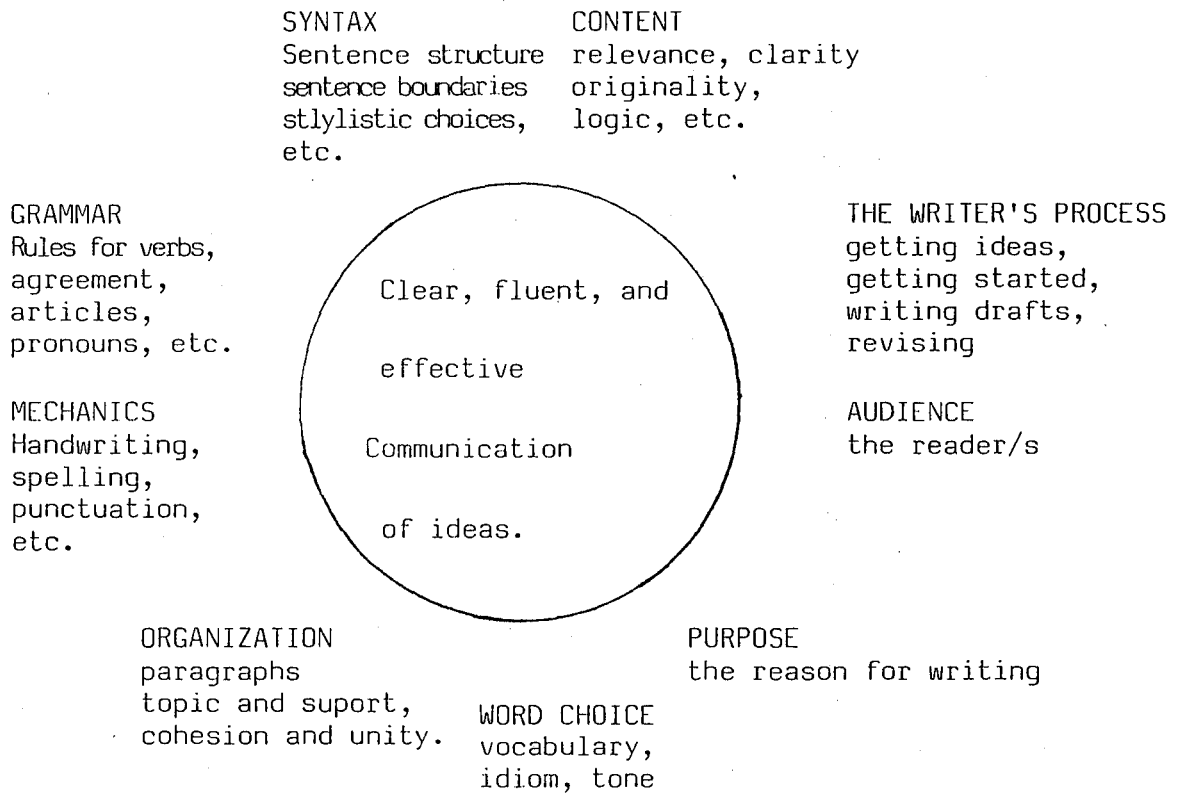
Students read and analyze examples of exemplary pieces of writing. Eventually students are asked to generate similar pieces although the majority of time is spent on reading and analysis. A study by Hillocks (1984) indicates that emphasis on the presentation of good pieces of writing as models is significantly more useful than the study of grammar in writing classes.

2.2.6 Traditional Grammar

Students define parts of speech and identify words in sentences. In some studies "a heavy emphasis on mechanics and usage results in significant losses in overall quality." (Hillocks, 1984: 160)

2.3. Approaches to Teaching Writing

The following diagram shows what writers have to deal with as they produce a piece of writing:



(Raimes, 1983: 6)

2.3.1. The Controlled Approach

This approach emphasizes accuracy rather than fluency or originality. Grammar, syntax, and mechanics are the three important features which are taken into consideration by this approach.

Controlled writing can be summarized as follows:

1. copying,
2. gap filling,
3. controlled composition frame,
4. writing down a short story slowly read aloud by the teacher or played from a prerecorded cassette.

5. picture reading
6. sentence combining

2.3.2. Guided Writing

By Guided Writing, students follow model paragraphs when writing their own compositions. It involves discussion of the topic. Outline points can be written on the blackboard before the students are asked to read. The discussion provides the students with relevant vocabulary and syntax. The reading text will also give opportunity to the students to learn the appropriate words and expressions. As a result, they will have 'what to say' and they will learn 'how to organize' their ideas.

Broughton et al. (1978: 119) say that "a great deal of real life writing is of the guided type." When a student writes an essay in an academic subject at a university he produces a guided composition. A journalist produces a guided composition wherever he reports a speech.

A guided composition can be defined as the one in which "the teacher provides the situation and helps the clam to prepre the written work, either through writter or oral assistance." (Broughten et al, 1978: 119)

Guided Writing Activities can be summarized as follows:

1. Copying model sentences, dialogues, or anything that has been spoken or read.
2. Writing out in full the pattern which was previously practiced orally.
3. Adding to a known text using newly learned structures and vocabulary when these are appropriate.
4. Answering a series of specific questions on any activity or on a reading passage.
5. Writing a summary of material which has been read.
6. Writing an outline of material which has been read.
7. Writing a short paragraph for the picture on which the students had previously discussed.
8. Writing an original ending to a story which they have read.
9. Writing a simple dialogue using known structures.
10. Completing or dialogue when the first lines have been given.
11. Taking notes on a reading passage.
12. Paraphrasing a model paragraph.
13. Rewriting a paragraph using a different register or style. (more formal or colloquial, etc.)
14. Supplying the missing key words in a model text which has been studied. (cf. Finocchiaro et al, 1973)

2.3.3. Free Writing

The students on the intermediate and advanced levels need much practice in writing free compositions.

Teachers usually provide no stimuli, no pre-writing activities, and relevant language development before launching the students into such a free-writing exercise (cf. Aboderin, 1984: 37)

The problem with free composition is the vocabulary and the mode of expressions of the topics.

If language teachers provide their students with relevant experience through discussion and reading texts, they may diminish the problem.

The effectiveness of a piece of writing can be seen in terms of the quality of its component sentences.

Linguistically speaking, we can analyze a sentence from the point of morphology, syntax and semantics.

A student should be able to find the right form of the word in terms of its parts of speech. During the discussion in the class, other students and the language teacher may fill this gap.

Broughton et al (1978: 119) summarizes the three stages at teaching writing as follows:

"The controlled stage concerns itself with the production of accurate language in context, the

guided stage with the organization of material which is given, and the free stage with the production by the student of both content and language."

2.3.4. The Paragraph-Pattern Approach

As opposed to the controlled approach which deals with the mastery of grammatical and syntactic forms and free writing which emphasizes fluency, the paragraph-pattern approach stresses another feature of producing a piece of writing, organization.

Students are given model paragraphs and they are asked to analyze the form of them. Putting scrambled sentences into paragraph order choosing or inverting an appropriate topic sentence, inserting or deleting sentences help students to learn how to organize their writing.

This approach is based on the principle that the way of organizing communication differs from culture to culture. As a result, students should be made aware of the features of a piece of writing in English. It is the responsibility of the language teacher to show her/his students the differences in organization in the native language and in the target language. (Raimes, 1983: 8)

2.3.5. The Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach

This approach is based on the notion that "writing cannot be seen as composed of separate skills which are learned one by one." (Raimes, 1983: 8)

Students are trained to pay attention not only to organization but also to the grammar and syntax. By involving grammar and syntax, it adds a further dimension to the paragraph pattern approach. This approach aims at linking the purpose of a piece of writing to the forms of the language.

2.3.6. The Communicative Approach

The communicative approach emphasizes the purpose of a piece of writing and the audience for it.

This approach brings the real-life situations into the classroom. It is believed that students should write for a real reader. The audience does not only read the text but also he/she does something with it; such as respond, rewrite in another form, summarize or make comments. The audience can be the other students in the class. (Raimes, 1983: 8,9)

2.3.7. The Process Approach

This approach adds to a further dimension to the communicative approach. It emphasizes the importance of not only purpose and audience in writing but also

how the student will get started with their compositions. This approach answers the questions of 'how to begin' and 'how to organize' the task.

Students are not expected to write perfectly right away. They are given the 'time' for the process to work. The first piece of writing is not corrected by the reader. The reader can only respond to the ideas exposed by the writers.

In this approach, students have the opportunity to discuss and read in the writing course. 'Time' and 'feedback' is what the students need for the discovery of new ideas and new language forms to express those ideas. The Process Approach provides the students with all these necessities. (Raimes, 1983: 10-11)

2.4. Comparison of Treatment of Writing in Different Methods in ELT

In order to understand the nature of the Current Paradigm, we need to look at the principal features of the paradigm that have been the basis of composition teaching for several decades. In "Paradigm and Patterns" Richard Young describes it this way:

"The overt features... are obvious enough: the emphasis on the composed product rather than the composing process; the analysis of discourse into description, narration, exposition, and argument, the strong concern with usage... and with style." (Quoted by Hairston, 1982: 78)

The traditional paradigm, as Kuhn (1970) points out, keeps the writing teachers from recognizing important problems that cannot be discussed in the terminology of their model. Thus teachers who concentrate their efforts on teaching style, organization and correctness are not likely to recognize that their students need work on "what to say"

Many teachers who cling to the traditional paradigm believe that competent writers know what they are going to say before they begin to write; thus their most important task when they are preparing to write is finding a form into which to organize their content. They also believe that the composing process is linear, that it proceeds systematically from prewriting to writing to rewriting. Finally, they believe that teaching editing is teaching writing (Hairston, 1982: 78).

Traditional methods of composition are teacher-oriented and text-oriented, and are grossly inefficient.

Traditional methods, such as; the grammar-translation method, the audio-lingual method, direct method give no chance to students of being in small group meetings with each other.

In grammar-translation method, the reading and writing skills are of great importance. The listening and speaking skills are neglected. In spite of this often discouraging situation, many teachers who use

this method work very hard at teaching writing. They always complain that their students improve so little despite their time and effort. The reason is that students are expected to learn long and elaborated grammatical explanations in their native language and these explanations are followed by practice in the writing of paradigms and in the applying of the rules he has learned to the construction of sentences in the foreign language. As it is indicated by Hillocks (1984: 160) "A heavy emphasis on mechanics and usage results in significant losses in overall quality." His research shows that teaching writing through grammar is the less effective technique in teaching composition.

The aim of the audio-lingual method is to teach the language skills in the order; Listening, speaking, reading and writing. After the students mastered listening, speaking and reading skills, writing is introduced. To develop their writing skills, students copy the word and sentences of the dialogue from the book. It is an imitative writing. The students may be encouraged to write short compositions on certain topics which were discussed in the class orally first. This is a teacher-oriented and text-oriented approach. Presentational mode in this method makes students passive recipients of rules. (cf. Hillocks 1984; Rivers 1972; Applebee 1981)

With the publication of Noam Chomsky's **Syntactic Structures** in 1957, the traditional prescriptive and product-centered paradigm began to crumble. Chomsky

had criticized behaviorist theories of language. His theory of transformational grammar caused a new focus on the process by which language comes into being. He moved the shift away from product response evaluation of writing. Chomsky emphasized that language is a creative process (cf. Chomsky, 1957). The cognitive code learning theory has provided or base for or new approach to teaching writing. Starting with Chomsky, transformational-generative linguists and cognitive psychologists put forward the importance of teaching the four language skills all together. The cognitive code learning theory aims at urging writers to generate ideas by thinking about subjects from a dynamic perspective (cf. Kuhn 1970; Krashen 1982).

Murray (1976) suggests that if language teachers want to teach their student to write, they have to initiate them into the process that writers go through, not give them a set of rules.

The new paradigm for teaching writing emphasizes communication in writing. Language teachers help students to generate content and discover purpose. Writing had been neglected till speech and reading are mastered before the communicative approach was offered by British applied linguists, such as Christopher Candlin and Henry Widdowson. They observed the study of British functional linguists (e.g. John Firth, M.A.K. Halliday), American sociolinguists (e.g. Dell Hymes, John Gumperz, and William Labou), as well as the study of John Austin

and John Searle, to establish the communicative language teaching theory in which writing can start from the first day.

The main weakness of the approaches which have been discussed in the traditional paradigm is that they do not give enough importance and attention to all four language skills right from the beginning. There is no reason why all four language skills cannot be taught together right from the beginning.

In communicative approach, as it is stated by Richards et al (1986: 67) "reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired."

The aim of this approach is to develop communicative competence, the ability to use the linguistic system effectively. Linguistic competence is not neglected. Through the process of communication the linguistic system of the target language is taught.

Richards et al (1986: 71) put forward the major distinctive features of Communicative Language Teaching as follows:

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.

4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

Finocchiaro (1982: 22) says that "The functional-national, or communicative approach integrates communication theory, attention to grammar, to semantics, to situation, and to humanistic psychology."

The communicative approach which is sometimes called the 'notional' or 'functional' approach is the most recent approach of all. The purpose here is to see what 'notions' a person wants to communicate or what 'functions' he wishes to perform.

A teacher using the Communicative Approach can create a setting for EFL students that will involve them intimately in reading and writing tasks that are motivated. The focus in this approach is not only on meaning but also on important linguistic structures and vocabulary in discourse context where the linguistic forms are used naturally and effectively.

Sampson (1981: 10) classified the nature of tasks in the following way—Tasks have:

1. a product
2. a specific audience
3. a function
4. a linguistic focus.

diary entries
short speeches
new broadcasts
short biographies
jokes and riddles
instruction for operating a machine
credit-card applications
classified advertisements
advertisement
friendly letters
posters
greeting card messages
songs
announcement of
forthcoming events
recipes
superstar trading cards

The discourses mentioned above can be used in writing processes.

What aspects of written language must be controlled by students in the communicative (functional) approach? Sampson (1981) has suggested the following kinds of knowledge. Knowledge of:

1. the English alphabet.
2. the phoneme-grapheme correspondance in English
3. possible sentence structures in English.

4. the structure of more formal short discourse types, such as newspaper editorials, business letters, etc.

5. the structure of short discourses, such as friendly letters, advertisements, newspaper articles, etc.

6. the structure of paragraph types in English, such as narrative paragraphs, descriptive paragraphs, paragraph expressing an argument, etc.

7. the form of a formal essay, such as that written in a senior-secondary English-literature class.

8. formal writing genres, such as short story, various types of poetry, etc.

In written discourse, there are two interlocutors—the writer and the reader. Teachers of a language should teach their student to write coherently. The Communicative Approach gives a chance to students to recognize rhetorical markers which make the relationship between sentences.

A Functional-communicative approach is concerned with the use of language for a purpose: to instruct, report, question, describe, comment upon, predict, and so on.

A teacher using the functional approach can create a setting in the classroom for the students which will involve them in speaking and reading before

the writing task. Speaking and reading tasks motivate students and focus their attention on important vocabulary in discourse contexts where the linguistic forms are used naturally and effectively.

Participation of all the students into the tasks, will create a lovely atmosphere in the classroom. During the oral activity, they can make statements about the topic on which they are asked to write a composition.

Summing up, no single approach can solve all the problems language teachers face in writing. All approaches have some weaknesses and some strength. When method and program objectives do not meet the eclectic way can be used. "The Eclectic Way" says Girard (1986: 12) "is not a method; rather it defines an attitude on the part of the language teacher." If the aim of language teaching is to develop all four language skills from the first day and to develop not only linguistic competence but also communicative competence in writing, the teacher can get the advantage of using the combination of elements from various approaches that would best fit a particular learning-teaching situation. (cf. Girard 1986; Krashen 1978; Harmer 1984; Nasr 1980; Palmer 1922; Strevens 1977)

2.5. The Differences between Speaking and Writing

Although there are some similarities between

speaking and writing, writing differs from speech in many ways:

Wilkinson (1986: 1) explains the difference between speech and writing in the following quotation as:

"To speak is to write on water. Our words make no mark on the colorless surface, and are swept away immediately. If we wish to consider the words we have spoken we must make black marks on a white page... Writing can help us more to consider our thoughts, to analyze our feelings, because it gives us time to do so."

Since it gives us time to think, writing concerns the need for accuracy. Not only foreign language learners but also native speakers constantly make 'mistakes' when they are speaking. They hesitate and say the same thing in different ways and they often change the subject of what they're saying in mid-sentence.

A piece of writing, however, with mistakes and half-finished sentences would be judged by native speakers as illiterate since it is expected that writing should be correct. From the point of view of language teaching, therefore, there is often for greater pressure for written accuracy than there is for accuracy in speaking. (cf. Harmer, 1984)

Spoken communication can often be sketchy and leave things to be clarified later in reply to questions.

As Hughey et al (1983: 4) put forward, written statements must be constructed more carefully, concisely

and coherently to make sure that our meaning is clear. Because there is no immediate feedback. It is necessary for the writers to organize their ideas into a coherent piece of discourse.

Speech has a higher tolerance for repetition of a phrase or sentence than writing.

In speech, both the speaker and hearer have some immediate control over the communication.

Hirsch (1977: 21) states that speech has a "situational context"

Hughey et al. (1983: 4) defines writing as "communication formed in isolation". There is no hearer in writing. So there is no feedback to assist in shaping the discourse. Writing differs from speech in lacking the clear situational context usually present in oral discourse.

While someone is speaking, his verbal repertoire is accompanied with facial expression, body movement, gesture, stress and intonation. In writing, the writer should concern the use of grammatical and stylistic techniques for focusing attention on main points.

Teaching writing is not easy for language teachers. It concerns the organising of sentences into paragraphs, how paragraphs are joined together, and the general organization of ideas into a coherent piece of discourse.

It is frequently said that writing is a thinking process and it is based on thought. No one can deny

the relationship of thinking to writing. Wilkinson (1986: 8) states that "writing enables us to try our concepts and consider their relations in a way which is impossible in speech."

Wilkinson (1986: 37) quoted from Bruner as follows:

... the constant use of language over and above the mere possession of it makes human beings, 'profoundly different' in mental powers; and more particularly does it matter that one **writes** and **reads** rather than **talks** and **listens**' (Bruner, 1975, p.63) because this moves language towards 'context free elaboration'.

Emig (1977: 122-123) summarizes the very real differences as follows:

1. Writing is learned behavior; talking is natural even irresponsible, behavior.
2. Writing then is an artificial process; talking is not.
3. Writing is a technological device-not the level, but early enough to qualify as primary technology; talking is organic.
4. Most writing is slower than most talking.
5. Writing is stark, barren, even naked as a medium; talking is rich, luxuriant, inherently redundant.
6. Talk leans on the environment; writing must provide its own context.

7. With writing, the audience is usually absent; with talking, the listener is usually present.

8. Writing usually results in a visible graphic product; talking usually does not.

9. Perhaps because there is a product involved, writing tends to be a more responsible and committed act than talking.

10. It can even be said that throughout history, an aura, an ambience, a mystique has usually encircled the written word; the spoken word has the most part proved ephemeral.

11. Because writing is often our representation of the world made visible, embodying both process and product, writing is more readily a form and source of learning than talking.

2.6. The Role of the Affective Filter in Developing Writing

It is known that successful language learning depends much on the learner's attitude, motivation, and interest, and that much of a foreign language is achieved only through active practice.

Research over the last decade has confirmed that there is a strong relationship between affective variables and the process of second language acquisition.

Affective variables can be placed by Krashen (1982: 31) into three categories as:

1. Motivation
2. Self-confidence
3. Anxiety

Performers with high motivation, self-confidence and low anxiety would be more successful in second language acquisition.

'Motivation' says Jeremy Harmer (1984: 3) 'is some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action. If we perceive a goal and that goal is sufficiently attractive, we'll be strongly motivated to do whatever is necessary.'

The teacher must provide the proper conditions for learning and must stimulate the students' interest in writing compositions.

By creating cognitive needs and helping learners find ways of working together to satisfy their needs, it would be possible to lower the affective filter.

Attracting our students' attention on the topic is possible with the activities in the classroom.

Lucas et al (1950: 18) defines attention as 'a phase of all bodily and thinking activities'. Certain stimuli may turn students attention into the point. The fact that 'body behaviour' as well as 'mental function' are involved in attention should make it

clear that attention is not a separate psychological process. When a person pays his attention to a picture, he turns his eyes and face towards it.

Using a picture will be helpful for creating an activity in the classroom.

Unmotivated writing classes may cause boredom. We cannot expect all of our students to be creative learners. In every class, there are less creative learners. If we should support them with visual materials, accompanied by controlled oral buildup and a reading text it will allow room for being creative and thus, it gives them a sense of accomplishment.

Motivating students can only be possible by bringing enjoyable and interesting materials into the classroom.

All students participate during the oral buildup sessions. It banishes or at least reduces boredom. 'Besides banishing boredom' says Gaudiani (1981: 9), active participation by all class members reinforces the basic philosophy of the course'.

Learning is a complex process and visual aids are of a great help in stimulating the learning of a foreign language. Good visual materials will help maintain the pace of the lesson and the students' motivation.

2.7. Visuals in Writing

"Visual materials" says Wright (1981: 117)" means anything seen, not just pictures".

Visual aids are now widely used in language classes. They stimulate the learner's imagination, enliven his interest and participation in the lesson and help the pupil learn new words and structures.

Authentic visual materials have now become an important feature of English language teaching. This type of culturally laden material gives a sense of reality and meaning to students of English in a foreign country.

The contribution of visual materials to language learning is growing day by day.

Visual materials can provide a general background and context, and increase motivation.

In recent years, there have been many ideas developed for the use of magazine pictures for controlled practice.

Heinich et al (1986) classified visuals into five categories as:

1. Non-projected Visuals:

Still pictures, realia and models.

2. Projected Visuals:

Overhead projection, slides, filmstrips, and opaque projection.

3. Video
4. Television
5. Film

A limited number of writers have dealt with visual aids in teaching writing. And those writers (e.g. Willis 1981; Aboderin 1986; Hughey 1983) agree that visual aids which motivate students have a role of carrying out the activity efficiently. All of the visual aids are important, and each has a specific function to perform in writing. This research is limited to pictorial magazine advertisements.

2.7.1. The Importance of Pictorial Ads in Writing

A picture is not only worth a thousand words but it can also be used in a wide variety of teaching activities.

The physiological mechanism are automatic in the human nervous system. We seek visual reinforcement of our knowledge for many reasons, but primary among them is the directness of the information, the closeness to the real experience.

Dondis (1974: 2) states that "seeing is a direct experience and the use of visual data to report information is the closest we can get to the true nature of reality."

Seeing an object, sometimes provides enough knowledge and experience to evaluate and understand the topic.

Pictorial ads serves not only as an enabling device for learning but also our closest link to reality of our surroundings. They are valuable materials for filling the gap between classroom and the real-life English.

In his book, **Visual Thinking**, Arnheim (1969: 295) defines visual form "as the principal medium of productive thinking". Arnheim Berkeley has moved from a study of the visual arts to a general theory of cognition. He argues that all thinking is basically and primarily imagistic and based upon visual perception.

Pictorial ads are of great help in ELT. Pictures have more impact than words. They generally offer greater opportunity for communication of excitement, mood and imagination. A picture is used to lead the eye to the written copy in magazine ads. In the class, it can be used to lead students' eye to the written material. They are means of motivation and interest.

Advertising was defined by Dyer (1982: 3) as 'drawing attention to something'. In ELT, one of the most important factor is to draw students' attention to something. The question of whether advertisements influence people is not only of concern to sociologists or psychologists but to teachers.

Using pictures before writing helps to improve the students' power of imagination. As Aboderin (1984: 38) has pointed out, 'to be able to interpret the

scene in a coherent manner, students will have to fall back on their visual perception'. In other words, they will refer to their experience which have some similarities with the scene presented.

Pictorial magazine ads activate personal experience. Since they activate personal experience, they can be of benefit in getting a learner started. They provide the learner with a concrete context in which to explore their own feelings and experiences.

It is generally recognized that successful language learning depends much on the learner's attitude, motivation, self-confidence, and interest. Active practice is very important for the mastery of a foreign language.

The students in the classroom are away from the natural stimuli in the class. The teacher must supply the necessary motivation and make up for this lack of the stimuli to the natural use of the language, that abound for the person who learns a language while living among its native speakers. Usually, language teachers call on the students' imagination. Visual aids are of great help to take the student beyond the classroom.

Pictorial advertisements are cheap and useful materials for exposing the student to real-life situations. They contain the following major types of categories: people, occupations, everyday activities, home, food,

drink, sport and leisure, transport, animals, buildings and landscapes, objects, and miscellaneous.

A good pictorial advertisement should give our students the opportunity to make use of what is not visible in the picture at all, but can easily be inferred from it. It may be used to elicit suggestions, to drive speculations, comments and deductions.

The same ad can be used for developing the four language skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It can be used to illustrate a new grammar structure.

A teacher can introduce a new lexical item by means of an advertisement. It is also good material for role-play.

Human psychology and teaching a foreign language are interrelated. The researches on advertising are to find out what kind of things interests and motivates people. Pictorial ads provide an insight into cultural differences. And they are cheap and colorful masterpieces. Because they contain stimulating visual material, they are interesting for students to work with.

Since the mid 1960's, there has been a growing acceptance of 'authentic materials'. Language teaching has reached beyond its traditional linguistic limits, since it has become more and more clear that a foreign language can be successfully learned only when it is studied in its cultural context. When we bring an

authentic material into the class, it helps us to study a foreign language in its cultural context. Pictorial ads are authentic materials. So, it is worthwhile to bring them into the classroom. Culture and language overlap each other. They are valuable material to bridge the gap between classroom English and real life English.

'One of the teacher's major objectives in the teaching of culture' say Finocchiaro (1988: 5) 'is to make students sensitive to their own values and to the values and customs of any cultural group with whom they will come into contact.'

Pictorial Ads meet most requirements discussed so far in ELT. Because a good advertisement does five things:

1. attracts attention
2. arouses interest
3. creates desire
4. assures belief
5. impels action.

"Pictures and well designed advertisements" says Rivers (1968: 236) "will lead him on to read more foreign language material than he realizes or had intended".

If a learner has been trained to read authentic materials, one of which is pictorial ads, he should feel confident enough to pick up a magazine or newspaper after he has completed his training in ELT.

Discussing a given topic through the use of pictorial ads will help learners get experience on the subject.

It is quite difficult to bring a topic which all learners have experience with. Pictorial ads which have been discussed so far would help the students who have no experience with the given topic in a writing task.

East (1952: 65) has pointed out that "several studies of advertisements that compare colored advertisements with black and white ones do not indicate that color has much superiority for impressing ideas on the memory, even though colored advertisements do attract attention somewhat more quickly."

ELT teachers should not be afraid of bringing black and white advertisements into the classroom. Under the light of the assumption above, we can say that black and white pictures will help learners develop their intellectual abilities.

When a pictorial ad was taken into the classroom, the students will be motivated by the picture and they will volunteer to speak about the picture. The reading passage will help them organize their thoughts which is quite important in writing a good composition.

The lexicon that he possessed through the discussion and his organized thought will become the material for his writing.

We may conclude that pictorial ads:

1. concentrate interest and attention;
2. show the basic structure of an idea;
3. explain abstract ideas by relating them to concrete things;
4. bring scattered ideas together to form new concepts;
5. turn ideas into words;
6. encourage expression;
7. create desire
8. carry cultural information;
9. Lower anxiety;
10. motivate learners;
11. are authentic texts. In other words; they are real texts designed ~~not for~~ language students.

2.7.1.1. The Language of Advertising

Advertising language can be studied under the heading of 'loaded language.' It is different from the other language we use in our everyday life. Its primary aim is to attract our attention towards the product on offer. The soul of an advertisement is promise. Advertisers use language quite distinctively. The use of imperatives are common in advertising. By manipulating or distorting their everyday meaning, copy-writers play with words.

Words do not only describe things but communicate feelings, associations and attitudes. Brand names communicate both denotatively and connotatively. Adjectives and adverbs are the key parts of speech for advertisers. In pictorial ads, they can stimulate envy, dreams, and desires by evoking looks and touch. The most common adjectives used in pictorial ads are good/better/best, fresh, delicious, easy, extra, bright, rich and golden, real, full, sure, clean, wonderful, fine, big, great, special, real.

We often meet figurative language in advertisements. There are some ways in which language can be made to work affectively. The ways can be studied under the heading of metaphor, personification, synecdoche, metonymy, and homonymy.

Advertising language carries its own special rules of grammar. Some texts contain violations in grammar. Bringing advertisements into the classroom may help the students in the EFL context in recognition of style differences in a writing task.

2.8. Integrating Skills

Willis (1981: 164) states that "students should speak, read and then write".

He illustrates it in the following way:



(Willis, 1981: 164)

When students are poor at writing compositions, they should be motivated by speaking and reading before they start writing.

Nancy Arapoff (1965: 199) supports Willis' ideas by saying that "grammar, aural comprehension, reading and even oral production are to varying degrees involved in writing".

As they stated, we cannot teach a writing course without touching on those areas.

In real life there is no strict compartmentalization of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Dubin and olshtain (1977: 179) states that "these skills tend to overlap and spread into each other in numerous instances". Language learning classes should be as close as possible to real-life communicative situations.

Psychological and practical reasons to why writing should be fully integrated can be outlined by Abbott et al (1981: 143-44) as follows:

1. We find a large overlap among the four language skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing.

2. In real-life communication, there is frequently alternation between receptive and productive activity.

3. People do differ, of course, in their ability to learn through the ear, the eye and muscular movement.

4. Without oral preparation, students' writing will be less fluent and more prone to MT interference errors.

5. What is taken in through more than one channel is more likely to be learned well. That is, **the channels can reinforce one another.** (My emphasis)

6. Writing is especially suited to a reinforcing role, as it is done relatively slowly, should involve close concentration, and leaves a record which can be used later.

The teaching of language as communication calls for an approach which brings linguistic skills and communicative abilities into close association with each other.

Widdowson (1978: 144) puts forward that "if the aim of language learning is to develop underlying interpreting ability, then it would seem reasonable to adopt an integrated approach to achieve it."

As opposed to Widdowson's statement above language teaching courses commonly consists of lessons in which 'listening comprehension', 'reading comprehension', 'speaking', 'grammar', and 'writing' appear as separate sections.

It is advisable by many scholars that all the skills should be interrelated.

It is the responsibility of the teacher to link between one language ability and another. The use of any skill may lead on quite naturally to the use of another. Teachers are not supposed to follow the "four skills" in the order.

In writing courses, if the students speak, read and then write, it can be expected that not only their motivation for carrying out the various tasks and activities will be improved but also their understanding of the communicative functions relating to each activity increased.

"Whatever the writing assignment is based on -a reading, picture, map, textbook topic, personal experience- it can be preceded by student talk, specifically by a brainstorming activity, with students producing relevant vocabulary, making comments, asking questions, and making associations as freely as they can in a short time." (Raimes, 1976: 69)

Harmer (1984: 47) finds separating skills ridiculous for two reasons:

"Firstly it is very often true that one skill cannot be performed without another... and people seldom write without reading... Secondly, people use different skills when dealing with the same subject for all sorts of reasons."

He proposes that we can use reading as the basis for practising other skills.

The teaching skills are all interrelated. Separating one from the others can only produce harmful effects that will inhibit the development of a rich language competence.

Dubin et al. (1977: 58) define reading and writing skills as "the literacy skills". Reading and writing skills are not acquired as part of the natural process of first language acquisition. These skills are learned after the speech skills in the native language.

Language teachers expect their students to become literate in their native tongue if the course centers around literacy skills.

If an English teacher wants to be successful in teaching English in a class, it is his/her responsibility that all the skills are practised. We can divide the skills into two as:

1. productive skills
2. receptive skills.

According to this division, it seems that the skills are completely separate and should be thought separately.

As Harmer (1983: 47) pointed out, concentrating only on reading on one day and speaking on the other day is ridiculous. He put forward two reasons for that:

1. One skill cannot be performed without another.

2. People use different skills when dealing with the same subject for all sorts of reasons. Someone who listens to a lecture may take notes and then write a report of the lecture. The same person might also describe the lecture to his friends.

It is so clear that all the skills are interrelated.

Students need to be given the opportunity of being productive in using the language they are learning and experimenting with it. Thus, in courses where writing is a priority, it is advisable to integrate with other skills. This kind of procedure is pedagogically useful apart from anything else, in making for variety in the lesson, encouraging students and bringing the outside world into the classroom.

Gaudini (1981: 4) has suggested that "the success of the course experience will depend in large measure on the spirit of collaboration of the students during class time".

When language teachers base writing task on the integration of speaking, reading and writing, it may be more challenging and reassuring.

The students who receive support from written sources, from the class, and from the teacher will have chance to pursue effective communication in both speech and writing.

Dubin et al (1977: 64) say that "the integration of language skills starts as soon as the learners have mastered the mechanic of reading".

Writing, like the other language skills needs to be considered from both its mechanical point of view and from its productive point of view. When considering writing from its mechanical point of view, there are two aspects: shaping the letters properly and spelling correctly. On the other hand, considering writing from its productive point of view, depends on one's total knowledge of the language.

One of the aims of the reading program is to increase the learner's vocabulary stock. Thus, reading a text will help the learner to choose the right vocabulary in compositions.

Many scholars have commented on the positive relationship between reading and writing.

Yemi Aboderin (1986: 39) says that "relevant feature articles in newspapers and magazines within

the linguistic levels of pupils can be brought to class for discussion before similar essay topic, are assigned."

Reading and writing are often called the literacy skills. The term literacy indicates that these skills are not acquired as part of the natural process of learning one's first language, but at a later stage.

Hughey et al (1983: 6) find writing as "an efficient tool to facilitate and reinforce other language skills. Reading, vocabulary and grammar skills are employed in the act of writing."

While the learners are reading, they acquire new vocabulary. Reading reinforces vocabulary skills as language learners endeavor to make suitable word choices for their writing. While learners are reading a text, they master a wealth of morphological information. Recognition of these morphological structures enables learners to build their vocabularies more quickly. It therefore seems logical that increased reading experiences will enhance students' control over composition topics integrated into the reading programs. Reading a text will give a confidence in students' independent writing tasks.

Many scholars have commented on the positive relationship between reading and writing. Paul O'dea (1965) reports that those who read widely are rewarded in several ways, one of which is increased proficiency

in writing, "most clearly seen... in the areas of diction and sentence structure."

Nathan Blount (1973) summarizes several studies that indicate a positive relationship between good writers and good readers.

As it has been mentioned so far, many scholars agreed on that increased reading results in improved writing. It therefore seems advisable for teachers to integrate the two skills more fully. In short, it can be said that reading texts should be placed into the learner's writing programs.

Students read to gather information and to collect data. They need to use language cues presented in textual material to help them formulate ideas.

Composition writing is, as Billows (1961: 186) stated, "a social and co-operative affair."

Writing skill can be developed better in a workshop atmosphere. In the workshop, ideas which are not formed completely must be brought out and developed to their conclusions under the pressure of discussion. Other learners' ideas would help the learner to write clearly and coherently.

If the teacher asks the students to write a composition on a particular subject, it is necessary for him to prepare his students in two ways:

1. he must make sure himself that all the students in the class have enough ideas on the subject to form the basis of a successful writing.

2. he must also be sure that they have the linguistic equipment to deal with the material. (cf. Billows, 1961: 186).

Speaking and reading in a workshop atmosphere before writing are advised by many scholars. Since speaking and reading provide the student with enough ideas, rich vocabulary and phrases, these skill should be taken into account before writing. ✓

Writing teachers are aware that a number of factors such as age, ability, method of instruction, attitude, motivation, and personal flexibility influence individuals as they go about learning a second language.

Attitude, motivation and personal flexibility seen to be more crucial to successful second language learning and as a result are crucial to the ability to write in a second language.

"The writing teacher" says Hughey et al (1983: 48)" is a skills teacher." The writing teacher should consider what methods and techniques will best develop the potential of each student. A writing program should be built on the belief that the student is an active participant.

The success of the course experience depends on the spirit of collaboration of the students during class time.

Language learners should be made aware of what they are doing when they undertake language tasks. Teaching principle naturally leads us to associate the language to be learned with what the learner already knows and to use the language for the exploration and extension of this knowledge.

Broughton et al (1978: 120) state that "a great deal of the sensitivity which the students need in the use of the language will develop unconsciously from spin-off from their reading and talking in the rest of the English course. So, writing cannot be seen as something completely separated from the other activities."

Alexander (1967: viii) emphasizes the importance of the integration of four basic language skills as follows:

Nothing should be spoken before it has been heard.

Nothing should be read before it has been spoken.

Nothing should be written before it has been read.

Language teachers should provide for individual differences if they want their students to be successful. As it is known, individuals learn in different ways and at different rates. Their experiences, interests and needs are different. The activities in the class should reflect an awareness of these differences. Individual differences among language learners demand a variety of the skills. These activities can focus

on lexicon or structure. During these activities, the role of a language teacher is to keep the students' interest high and to give the students a feeling of achievement.

A good language teacher is expected to recognize "the importance of integrating discrete language skills into communication situations which stimulate the real situations in which students will need to use the foreign language." (Finocchioro, 1973: 25)

Hughey et al (1983: 6) say that writing "involves our intense participation, engagement, even immersion in the process". He explains this immersion as both:

1. solitary and collaborative
2. conscious and subconscious
3. physical and mental

He believes that active participation of the students in class projects, debates and discussion would help them develop their writing skill.

As can be seen from the discussion above it is quite logical incorporating writing skill with speaking and reading skills.

This chapter can be concluded with the following quotation:

"The principle aim of any lesson may be the development of one skill only but there will be necessary overlapping with other skills.

For example, we usually speak after listening or reading. We may write as a result of listening or reading."

(Finocchiaro, 1964: 82)

CHAPTER III

METHOD

3.1. Research Design

This research is a comparative study. In this study, two groups of students wrote two compositions. In each composition, one of the groups was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad (cf. Appendix A) and the other group was not exposed to pre-writing activities; in other words, they were left alone with the given topic.

The main purpose of this study is to find out whether there is a significant difference between the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and the group who was not exposed to any of these

pre-writing activities in their scores. The students' papers, in Composition 1 and Composition 2 (cf. 3.3), were analysed and evaluated according to the component scales suggested in the "ESL Composition Profile". (Hughey et al., 1983: 140) (cf. Appendix B)

3.2. Selection of Subjects

For this study, two groups of second year students at the Faculty of Education of Anadolu University were chosen for the principal focus of the research. It was carried out with 40 students. 20 students were randomly selected from each class; 2-A and 2-B. The forty students selected for this research were considered by teachers and administrators at the Education Faculty as representative of the level of upper intermediate and lower advanced. Both of the groups had the same English courses the previous year, namely, speaking, grammar, reading, writing, and phonetics.

Since both classes, 2-A and 2-B, are thought to be at the same proficiency level in theory, the groups for two conditions were chosen randomly. In Composition 1, the students in class 2-A were not exposed to pre-writing activities; in other words, they were left alone with the given topic and the students in class 2-B were exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading (cf.3.3) with the help of a pictorial ad. (cf. Appendix A-1)

The students in class 2-A who were not exposed to pre-writing activities in Composition 1 were exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading (cf.3.3) with the help of a pictorial and (cf. Appendix A-2) in Composition 2. The students in class 2-B who were exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial (cf. Appendix A-1) were not exposed to pre-writing activities in composition 2 (cf.3.3); in other words, they were left alone with a given topic.

3.3. Data Collection Procedures

To obtain data regarding the students' writing task efficiency with and without pre-writing activities, the students wrote two compositions changing their roles in each composition: If the group is exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad in one of the compositions, conversely, they are not exposed to pre-writing activities in the other composition.

One day you'll wake up knowing that, instead of you controlling heroin, it now controls you was a given topic in Composition I in both groups. The students in class 2-A were not exposed to pre-writing activities; they were left alone with the topic above. The students in class 2-B were exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help

of a pictorial ad (cf. Appendix A-1) Both groups were asked to write the two compositions in one and half hours of about 250 words in length.

Byrne (1978: 8) says:

"Whatever the form of the visual, it serves as a stimulus, as a launching pad for a talk. The learner do not simply describe what they see: they comment, argue, discuss, implications, interpret, agree, disagree and so on. Discussion generated in this way goes beyond the picture."

The students were asked to look at the pictorial ad given to them for about two minutes and then the following questions were discussed in the class:

- Do you know what "heroin" is?
- Do you know what the effects of heroin are?
- What message do you think this photograph is trying to bring across?
- Do you think it is successful?
- Why do you think it is successful?
- Would you like to have a sister or a wife as the girl in the last picture? Why not?
- Have you read any articles in magazines or newspapers about heroin recently?
- Would you like to get married to a person who uses 'heroin'?

After the questions had been discussed, the students were asked to read the text. (cf. Appendix A-1) As it was observed, they had no problem in reading

the text. After the reading session, the topic was written on the board and students were asked to write a composition in two class hours, 90 minutes, about 250 words in length.

We have not inherited the earth from our ancestors, it is on loan to us from our children was a given topic to the students in Composition 2. The students in class 2-A were exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad (cf. Appendlx A-2) in Composition 2. Conversely, the students in class 2-B were not exposed any of the pre-writing activities.

In class 2-A, relating to the pictorial ad, the following questions were dissussed before they start writing Composition 2:

- Where do you think is this photograph taken?
- What do you think the picture is trying to represent?
- What can you see in the picture?
- Describe the child.
- Why do you think he looks so miserable?
- What does the child represent?
- Would you like to live in that kind of place?
- Would you like to live on a green earth or a dry desert?
- How can you stop people destroying the world's natural resources?

3.4. Data Analysis

The papers of the students who participated in this research were analysed and evaluated according to the ESL Composition Profile suggested by Hughey et al. (1983: 140)

The ESL Composition Profile is made up of five component scales. Each scale focuses on an important aspect of writing. The five component scales in the profile form are named as Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics. "The main purpose of the ESL Composition Profile" says Hughey (1983: 139) is "to provide a side view, an outline, of an ESL writer's success at composing or synthesizing the main elements of writing into a connected, coherent, effective piece of written discourse."

There are two ways of scoring in the Profile form: Each component is scored individually and the other one is the sum of scores from all five. Each component score provides information about a writer's mastery of the particular criteria which define that component. When the separate component scores are analyzed, diagnostic information about areas of strength and weakness can be provided.

It is essential to understand the concepts represented by the Profile criteria descriptors. As stated before, the profile form provides five component

scales. Each scale has the mastery levels "Excellent to Very Good and Good to Average" and the two lower levels "Fair to Poor and Very Poor". The mastery levels in each component indicate that successful communication has occurred, whereas the two lower levels suggest that there is a communication breakdown.

A detailed description of the concepts represented by the profile criteria descriptors at the "Excellent to Very Good" mastery level will be presented in this chapter. The other three levels of competence should be thought of as varying degrees of these extended criteria for excellent writing.

The total score in the profile is 100. This score is not divided equally among five component scales. Each component scale has different scores. The scores for each component scale are as follows: Content 30, Organization 20, Vocabulary 20, Language Use 25, Mechanics 5. The levels in each scale has different scores, too.

As stated above, the concepts in each component scale will be presented at the "Excellent to Very good" mastery level.

1. Content:

30-27 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable * substantive
 * through development of thesis * relevant
 to assigned topic

26-22 GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject
 * adequate range * limited development of thesis
 * mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail

21-17 FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject
 * little substance * inadequate development
 of topic

16-13 VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject
 * non-substantive * not pertinent * OR not
 enough to evaluate

The criteria to be considered about the the content of the written work are "knowledgeable", "substantive", "through development of thesis" and "relevant to assigned topic".

If someone considers testing the paper from the point of whether it is "knowledgeable" or not, he should take the following points into consideration:

- whether the writer understood the subject,
- whether facts or other pertinent of information were used
- whether there is recognition of several aspects of the subject.
- whether the interrelationships of these aspects were shown.

Testing the paper from the point of whether it is "substantive" requires the following points:

- whether several points are discussed,

- whether there is sufficient detail,
- whether there is originality with concrete details to illustrate, define, compare, or contrast factual information supporting the thesis.

The following points are for testing the paper from the concept of "through development of thesis":

- whether the thesis is expended enough to convey a sense of completeness,
- whether there is a specific method of development (such as comparison/contrast, illustration, definition, example, description, fact or personal experience,
- whether there is an awareness of different points of view.

Testing the paper from the point of if it is "relevant to assigned topic" requires:

- whether all information is clearly pertinent to the topic,
- whether extraneous material is included

2. Organization:

- 20-18 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression * ideas clearly stated/supported * succinct * well-organized * logical sequencing * cohesive.
- 17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy * loosely organized but main ideas stand out * limited support * logical but incomplete sequencing

13-10 FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent * ideas confused or disconnected * lacks logical sequencing and development

9-7 VERY POOR: does not communicate * no organization
* OR not enough to evaluate

The second component in the profile form is "organization". It is examined according to the following concepts: "fluent expression", "ideas clearly stated/supported", "succint", "well-organized", "logical sequencing", and "cohesive".

Testing the paper from the point of "fluent expression" means:

- whether the ideas flow, building on one another,
- whether there is introductory and concluding paragraphs.
- whether there is effective transition elements- words, phrases, or sentences- which link and move ideas both within and between paragraphs.

To decide if the "ideas clearly stated/supported" the person who evaluates a written work should consider:

- whether there is a clearly stated controlling idea or central focus to the paper.
- whether topic sentences in each paragraph support, limit and direct the thesis.

The paper is "succinct" means all the ideas directed concisely to the central focus of the paper.

To decide if the paper is "well-organized", a teacher should check:

- whether the overall relationship of ideas within and between paragraphs is clearly indicated.
- whether there is a beginning, a middle and an end to the paper.

"Logical sequencing" means whether the points logically developed, using a particular sequence such as time order, space order or importance.

The last concept in organization for analyzing and evaluating is if the paper is "cohesive" or not. To decide if the paper is "cohesive", a teacher should check:

- whether each paragraph reflects a single purpose,
- whether the paragraphs form a unified paper.

2. Vocabulary:

20-18 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range
 * effective word/idiom choice and usage * word
 form mastery * appropriate register

17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range * occasional
 errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but
 meaning not obscured

13-10 FAIR TO POOR: limited range * frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage * meaning confused or obscured

9-7 VERY POOR: essentially translation * little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form * OR not enough to evaluate ✓

The third component in the profile form is "vocabulary". The criteria to be considered about the vocabulary of the written work are "sophisticated range", "effective word/idiom choice and usage", "word from mastery", and "appropriate register".

A teacher who evaluates a written work should check if it has "sophisticated range". For this evaluation, he should take the following parts into consideration:

- whether there is facility with words and idioms to convey intended information, attitudes, and feelings, to distinguish among ideas and intention; to convey differences of meaning.
- whether there is arrangement and interrelationship of word sufficiently varied.

The second concept in the evaluation of vocabulary is "effective word/idiom choice and usage". To decide if there is an "effective word/idiom choice and usage" the following points should be considered:

- whether the choice of vocabulary accurate, idiomatic, effective, and concise in the context in which it is used.
- whether strong, active verbs and verbals are used where possible.
- whether phrasal and prepositional idioms are correct and whether they convey the intended meaning.
- whether denotative and connotative meanings are distinguished.
- whether there is effective repetition of key words and phrases.
- whether transition elements mark shifts in thought.

"Word form mastery" in the evaluation of the vocabulary of the written task means:

- whether prefixes, suffixes, roots, and compounds are used accurately and effectively.

To decide if the written work has an "Appropriate register", a language teacher should check:

- whether the vocabulary appropriate to the topic; to the audience; to the method of development.
- whether the vocabulary familiar to the audience.
- whether the vocabulary makes the intended impression.

4. Language Use:

- 25-22 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions * few errors of agreement, tense, number, order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions.
- 21-18 GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions * minor problems in complex constructions * several errors of agreement, tense number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions but meaning seldom obscured. ✓
- 17-11 FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions * frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions * meaning confused or obscured
- 10-5 VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules * dominated by errors * does not communicate * OR not enough to evaluate. ✓

Language use is the fourth component in the profile. It is examined according to the following criteria: "Effective complex constructions" and "few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions". To decide if a written work has "effective complex constructions", a language teacher should consider:

- whether sentences are well-formed and complete.

- whether single word modifiers are appropriate to function and whether they are properly formed, placed, and sequenced.
- whether introductory It and there used correctly to begin sentences and clauses.
- whether main and subordinate ideas are carefully distinguished.
- whether coordinate and subordinate elements are linked to other elements with appropriate conjunctions, adverbials, relative pronoun or punctuation.
- whether sentence types and length are varied.
- whether elements are parallel.
- whether techniques of substitution, repetition, and deletion are used effectively.

If a language teacher wants to evaluate a written task from the point of "few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order, articles, pronouns, and prepositions", he should check:

- whether there is basic agreement between sentence elements; auxiliary and verb, subject and verb, pronoun and antecedent, adjective and noun, nouns and quantifiers.
- whether verb tenses are correct.
- Whether models convey intended meaning and time.

- whether normal word order is followed except for special emphasis.
- whether each word, phrase, and clause is suited to its intended function.
- whether the articles, a, an, the, are used correctly.
- whether pronouns reflect appropriate person, gender, number, function, and referent.
- whether the intended meaning is conveyed.

5. Mechanics:

- 5 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions * few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
- 4 GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured
- 3 FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing * poor handwriting * meaning confused or obscured
- 2 VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions * dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing * handwriting illegible * OR not enough to evaluate

"Mechanics" is the last component in the profile form. "Spelling", "Punctuation", "Capitalization", "Paragraphing", and "Handwriting" in a written work determines writer's ability in manipulating the mechanics of a written

work. If a teacher wants to evaluate a written work from the point of "Mechanic", he should take the followings into consideration:

- whether words are spelled correctly,
- whether periods, commas, semicolon, dashes, and question marks are used correctly.
- whether words are divided correctly at the end of lines.
- whether capital letters are used where necessary and appropriate.
- whether paragraphs are intended to indicate when one sequence of thought ends and another begins.
- whether handwriting is easy to read, without impeding communication.

(Hughey et al., 1983: 139-149)

The "ESL Composition Profile" which has been explained in detail so far was used to analyse and evaluate the students' papers who participated this study. Each paper in Composition 1 and 2 was analysed and evaluated according to the component scales given in the profile. Two native speakers of English who have been teaching writing in the EFL classes for a long time analyzed and evaluated each paper according to the ESL Composition Profile form. Each paper had two different component and total scores, given by two different teachers (cf. Appendix C)

In the ESL Composition Profile, each component has a different weight. Each component was scored by each teacher as follows: Content out of 30; Organization out of 20; Vocabulary out of 20, Language Use out of 25 and Mechanics out of 5. And each teacher gave total score of 100 in each paper.

An average score for each paper in Composition 1 and Composition 2 for each component and total scores were shown in Appendix C.

In order to achieve the goal of this study statistical techniques were applied. The questions in section 1.3. were answered by formulating several null hypotheses. The difference between the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and the group who was not exposed to pre-writing activities was determined by using a two-tailed Students' t-test for independent samples. To determine the difference within the groups, a two-tailed t-test for correlated samples was applied and the results were compared at the 0.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1. Analysis of Results

The general purpose of this study is to find out whether there will be a significant difference between the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and the group who was not exposed to pre-writing activities.

To achieve this goal, the groups were asked to write on two different topics. (cf.3.4)

The difference between the scores of the groups in Composition 1 and Composition 2 were tested by using the t-test for independent samples. (cf. Appendix E-1)

The difference between the scores within the groups in Composition 1 and Composition 2 were tested by using the t-test for correlated samples. (cf. Appendix E-2)

The questions in section 1.3 were investigated by testing 26 null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 1:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the ESL Composition Profile total scores of Group A and Group B who were not exposed to pre-writing activities.

The distribution of the differences between the ESL Composition Profile total scores of Group A and Group B who were not exposed to pre-writing activities is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples
Showing the Differences between the ESL Composition
Profile Total Scores of Group A and Group B
Who Were Not Exposed to Pre-Writing Activities

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t
Group A	20	52.45	13.82	4.36	38	0.53 < 2.021
Group B	20	50.60				

With 38 degrees of freedom, t is 2.021 (cf. Appendix D) at the 0.05 level of significance. The results in Table 1 indicate that group A had the mean value of $\bar{x}=52.45$ and group B had the mean value of $\bar{x}=50.60$. As the observed value of t is numerically

smaller than 2.021, we, therefore, conclude that there is no significant difference between the two groups who were not exposed to pre-writing activities. These results show that there is no significant difference between the two groups who were not exposed to pre-writing activities at the language level. Thus, we accept the first null hypothesis. ✓

Null Hypothesis 2:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the ESL Composition Profile total scores of Group A and Group B who were supported with oral-buildup and a reading text before a written task was given.

The distribution of the differences between Group A and Group B who were exposed to pre-writing activities in total scores is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Differences between the ESL Composition Profile Total Scores of Group A and Group B Who were Exposed to Pre-Writing Activities

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	60.45	12.26	3.88	38	1.78	2.021	0.05
Group B	20	67.38						

The results show that group A had the mean value of $\bar{x}=60.45$ and group B had the mean value of $\bar{x}=67.38$. The standard deviation was calculated as $SD=12.26$ and the standard error was 3.88 . As the observed value of $t=1.78$ is numerically smaller than the value of $t=2.021$ at the 0.05 level of significance (i.e. $p=5$ percent) with 38 degrees of freedom, we conclude that there is no significant difference in the ESL Composition Profile Scores between the two groups who were supported with oral-buildup and a reading text before a written task was given. As a result, we can say that there is no significant difference between the two groups at the language level. Thus, we accept the second null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 3:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the ESL Composition Profile total scores of Group A who was not exposed the pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad in Composition 1.

The distribution of the differences between Group A and Group B in the ESL Composition Profile total scores is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples
 Showing the Differences between the ESL Composition
 Profile Total Scores of Group A and Group B
 in Composition 1

	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	52.45						
Group B	67.35	12.30	3.88	38	3.84	> 2.021	0.05

As Table 3 shows, the mean value of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities was $\bar{x}=52.45$ and the mean value of Group B was $\bar{x}=67.35$. Standard deviation was $SD=12.30$ and standard error was calculated as $SE=3.88$. As the observed t-value which is $t=3.84$ is numerically greater than the t value which is $t=2.021$ (cf. Appendix D) at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom, we can conclude that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable: teaching writing incorporated with speaking and reading produced a significant increase in mean score on this test. As a result, we reject the third null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 4:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading

with the help of a pictorial ad and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Composition 2.

The distribution of the differences between Group A and Group B, described above in the fourth null hypothesis, in the ESL Composition Profile total scores is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Difference between the Total Scores of Group A who was Exposed to Pre-Writing Activities and Group B who was not Exposed to Pre-Writing Activities in Composition 2

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	60.45						
Group B	20	50.6	13.78	4.35	38	2.26	> 2.021	0.05

As can be observed from the results in Table 4, Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=60.45$ and the mean value of Group B who was left alone with the given topic was 50.6. The standard deviation was calculated as $SD=13.78$ and the standard error was $SE=4.35$. As a conclusion, it can be said that the independent variable had an effect

on dependent variable, as the observed value of t which is $t=2.26$ is numerically greater than the t value which is $t=2.021$ (cf. Appendix D) at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom. Thus, we reject the fourth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 5:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the ESL Composition Profile total scores of the students within Group A in Composition 1 (when the group was not exposed to pre-writing activities) and in Composition 2 (when the group was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad.)

The distribution of the differences between the total scores of the students within Group A in Composition 1 and Composition 2 is summarized in Table 5.

Table 5

The Results of the t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between the ESL Composition Profile Total Scores of the students within Group A in Composition 1 and in Composition 2

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	52.45						
Composition 2	20	60.45	8	1.34	19	5.97	> 2.093	0.05

As shown in the table above, Group A had the mean value of 52.45 in Composition 1. In Composition 2 they are exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad, the mean value of the students within the same group was calculated as $\bar{x}=60.45$. $\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{n}$ was calculated adding all the differences together and dividing the result by the number of pairs of scores (cf. Appendix E-1) The observed \bar{d} value was 8. The standard deviation was $SD=1.34$. As the observed t value is numerically greater than 2.093 at the 0.05 level of significance with 19 degrees of freedom, we can conclude that the independent variable had an effect on dependent variable: teaching writing incorporation with speaking and reading produced a significant increase in mean scores within Group A. We therefore reject the fifth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 6:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the ESL Composition Profile total scores of the students within Group B in Composition 1 (when the group was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad) and in Composition 2 (when the group was not exposed to pre-writing activities).

Table 6 summarizes the difference between the total scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 (cf.3.3)

within Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities in Composition 1 but who was left alone with a given topic in Composition 2.

Table 6

The Results of the t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between the ESL Composition Profile Total Scores of the Students within Group B in Composition 1 and Composition 2

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	67.35						
Composition 2	20	50.6	16.75	3.67	19	4.56	> 2.093	0.05

As can be seen in Table 6 the group had the mean value of $\bar{x}=67.35$ in Composition 1. The same group had the mean value of $\bar{x}=50.6$ when they are not exposed to pre-writing task activities through speaking and reading. The standard deviation is $SD=3.67$ and the mean score of the differences (cf. Appendix E-1) was observed as $\bar{d}=16.75$. As a conclusion, we can say that teaching writing incorporation with speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad produced a significant increase in mean scores within Group B, as the observed value of t is greater than 2.093 at the 0.05 level of significance with 19 degrees of freedom. We therefore reject the sixth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 7:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad in Content in Composition 1.

The distribution of the differences between the scores of the two groups mentioned above in the seventh null hypothesis in the Content in Composition 1 is summarized in Table 7.

Table 7

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Difference between the Scores of Group A who was not exposed to Pre-Writing activities and Group B who was Exposed to Pre-Writing Activities in Content in Composition 1

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	12	4.10	1.29	38	3.87	> 2.021	0.05
Group B	20	17						

Summing up, it can be said that the independent variable had an effect on dependent variable, as the observed value of t is numerically greater than 2.021

at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom. Teaching writing incorporation with speaking and reading produced a significant increase in mean scores between the two groups: Group A had the mean score of $\bar{x}=12$, whereas Group B had the mean score of $\bar{x}=17$. Thus, we reject the seventh null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 8:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A, who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities in Organization in Composition 1.

The distribution of the differences between the scores of the two groups mentioned above is summarized in Table 8.

Table 8

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Difference between the Scores between the Scores of Group A and Group B in Organization in Composition 1

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Sevel of Significance
Group A	20	12.9	2.5	0.81	38	1.60	< 2.021	0.05
Group B	20	14.5						

The result of Table 8 justifies that the mean value Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing,

reached was $\bar{x}=12.9$ and the mean value Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading, reached was $\bar{x}=14.5$. As the observed value of $t=1.60$ is smaller than 2.021 at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom, we conclude that there is no significant difference between the group. As a result, we accept the null hypothesis above.

Null Hypothesis 9:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities in Vocabulary in Composition 1.

The distribution of the differences between the two groups mentioned above in Vocabulary is summarized in Table 9.

Table 9

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Difference between the Scores of Group A and Group B in Vocabulary in Composition 1

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	12.6	4.86	1.53	38	1.20	< 2.021	0.05
Group B	20	14.45						

From the t-distribution table (cf. Appendix D) the value of t is 2.021 at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom. As the observed value of $t=1.20$ in the table is smaller than 2.021, we conclude that there is no significant difference between the two groups which meet with the ninth null hypothesis above. Although the difference is not meaningful from the point of the t-test, there is still an increase in the mean score of the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad in Vocabulary.

Null Hypothesis 10:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities in Language Use in Composition 1.

The distribution of the differences between the scores of the two groups mentioned above in Language Use is summarized in Table 10.

Table 10

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing Difference between the Scores of Group A and Group B in Language Use in Composition 1

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	11.9	3.97	1.25	38	4.16	> 2.021	0.05
Group B	20	17.1						

Table 10 indicates the Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities had the mean score of $\bar{x}=11.9$ and group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=17.1$. The standard deviation, which can be found by setting the formula (cf. Appendix E-1), is $SD=3.97$ in the table. As the observed value of $t=4.16$ is greater than $t=2.021$ in the t-distribution table (cf. Appendix D) at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom, we therefore conclude that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable. Thus, we reject the tenth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 11:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities in Mechanics in Composition 1.

The Distribution between the scores of the two groups mentioned above in Mechanics in Composition 1 is summarized in Table 11.

There is a difference in the mean scores of the two groups as $\bar{x}=4.25$ and $\bar{x}=4.05$ but this difference is not meaningful, as the observed $t=0.20$ value is smaller than 2.021 which is the t value at the 0.05

Table 11

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Difference between Group A and Group B above in Mechanics in Composition 1

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	4.25						
			0.58	0.18	38	0.20	< 2.021	0.05
Group B	20	4.05						

level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom. Thus, we accept the eleventh null hypothesis:

Null Hypothesis 12:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Content in Composition 2 (cf.3.3)

The distribution between the scores of the two groups mentioned above in Content in Composition 2 is summarized in Table 12.

Table 12 indicates that Group A reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=15.8$ and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=11.9$. The standard deviation was calculated as $SD=4.18$ and the standard error between the two groups was

Table 12

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Difference between the scores of Group A and Group B in Content in Composition 1

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	15.8	4.18	1.32	38	2.95 >	2.021	0.05
Group B	20	11.9						

SE= 1.32. We therefore conclude that independent variable had an effect on dependent variable, as the observed value of $t=2.98$ is greater than the $t=2.021$ value at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom.

Null Hypothesis 13:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Organization in Composition 2.

The distribution between the scores of the two groups mentioned above in Organization in Composition 2 is summarized in Table 13.

The findings in Table 13 indicate that there is no significant difference between the two groups

Table 13

The Results of t-test Showing the Difference between
the Scores of Group A and Group B
ini Organization in Composition 2

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	12.95	3.90	1.23	38	1.38	< 2.021	0.05
Group B	20	11.25						

as the observed value of $t=1.38$ is smaller than the $t=2.021$ at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom. When this table was discussed from the point of the mean scores between the groups it can clearly be seen that the mean score of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad is $\bar{x}=12.95$ greater than the mean score $\bar{x}=11.25$ of Group B. Since the difference is not significant, we accept the thirteenth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis: 14

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing task activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing task activities in Vocabulary in Composition 2.

The distribution of the differences between the two groups mentioned above in Vocabulary in Composition 2 is summarized in Table 14.

Table 14

The Results of t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Difference between Group A and Group B in Vocabulary in Composition 2

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t'	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	14.80	3.59	1.29	38	2.28	> 2.021	0.05
Group B	20	11.85						

The results in Table 14 suggest that Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=14.80$ and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=11.85$. The standard deviation was calculated as $SD=3.59$ and the standard error was $SE=1.29$. As the observed value of $t=2.28$ is numerically greater than 2.021 which is the t value at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom. Thus, we reject the fourteenth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis : 15

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A who

was exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Language Use in Composition 2.

The distribution of the differences between the scores of the two groups mentioned above in Language Use in Composition 2 is summarized in Table 15.

Table 15

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Difference between the Scores of Group A and Group B in Language Use in Composition 2

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	13.25	3.80	1.20	38	0.79	< 2.021	0.05
Group B	20	12.35						

Inspection of the results indicate that the difference between the scores of the groups is not significant, as the observed value of $t=0.79$ is smaller than the $t=2.021$ value at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom. Thus, we accept the fifteenth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis: 16

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the scores of Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities and Group B

who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Mechanics in Composition 2.

The distribution of the differences between the two groups mentioned above in Mechanics in Composition 2 is summarized in Table 16.

Table 16

The Results of the t-Test for Independent Samples Showing the Difference between the Scores of Group A and Group B in Mechanics in Composition 2

	N	\bar{x}	SD	SE	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Group A	20	4.1	0.33	0.10	38	0.50	< 2.021	0.05
Group B	20	4.05						

The results shown in Table 16 suggest that Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad had the mean score of $\bar{x}=4.1$ and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities had the mean score of $\bar{x}=4.05$. The standard deviation is $SD=0.38$. As the observed value of $t=0.50$ is numerically smaller than the $t=2.021$ value at the 0.05 level of significance with 38 degrees of freedom. Thus, we accept the sixteenth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis: 17

H_0 : There will be no significant difference

between Content scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A.

The distribution of the differences between the Content scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A is summarized in Table 17.

Table 17

The Results of the t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between the Content Scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	12						
Composition 2	20	15.8	3.75	0.85	19	4.37	> 2.093	0.05

The results given above indicate that in composition 1 the group who was not exposed to pre-writing activities reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=12$ and in composition 2 the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=15.8$. The mean value of all the differences was calculated as $\bar{d}=3.75$. The standard deviation was $SD=0.85$. As the observed value of $t=4.37$ is numerically greater than the $t=2.093$ value at the 0.05 level of significance with 19 degrees of freedom, we therefore conclude that the independent variable had an effect on dependent variable. Thus, we reject the seventeenth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis: 18

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the Organization scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A.

The distribution of the differences between the Organization scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A is summarized in Table 18.

Table 18

The Results of the t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between the Organization Scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	12.9						
Composition 2	20	12.95	0.65	0.74	19	0.87	< 2.093	0.05

The results in Table 18 show that in composition 1 the group who was left alone with a given topic reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=12.9$ and in composition 2 the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=12.95$. The mean score of all the differences between the scores of the students who obtained in Composition 1 and 2 was calculated as $\bar{d}=0.65$. The standard deviation was 0.74. We therefore conclude that the independent variable had no effect on the dependent variable,

as the observed $t=0.87$ value is numerically smaller than the $t=2.093$ value at the 0.05 level of significance with 19 degrees of freedom. Thus, we accept the Null Hypothesis above.

Null Hypothesis: 19

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the Vocabulary scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A.

The distribution of the differences between the Vocabulary scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A is summarized in Table 19.

Table 19

The Results of the t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between the Vocabulary Scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	12.6						
Composition 2	20	14.8	2.20	0.36	19	6.28	>2.093	0.05

The results given above indicate that in Composition 1 the group who were not exposed to pre-writing task activities had the mean score of $\bar{x}=12.6$ and in Composition 2 the group who was motivated through speaking and reading had the mean score of $\bar{x}=14.8$. The mean score of all the differences was calculated as $\bar{d}=2.20$. The

standard deviation was $SD=0.36$. As the observed $t=6.28$ value is numerically greater than the $t=2.093$ value at the t-distribution table (cf. Appendix D), we can get to the conclusion that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable. Thus, we reject the nineteenth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis: 20

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the Language Use scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A.

The distribution of the differences between the Language Use scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A is summarized in Table 20.

Table 20

The Results of the t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between the Language Use Scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	0.42	19	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	11.9						
Composition 2	20	13.25	1.35	0.42	19	3.20	>2.093	0.05

As shown in the table above, in Composition 1 the group who was left alone with the given topic reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=11.9$ and in Composition 2 the group who was motivated through speaking and

reading reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=13.25$. The mean score of all the differences of the scores of the students in the first and the second Composition was calculated as $\bar{d}=1.35$. The standard deviation was $SD=0.42$. The observed $t=3.20$ value is greater than the $t=2.093$ value at the 0.05 level of significance with 19 degrees of freedom. We therefore conclude that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable. Thus, we rejected the null hypothesis above.

Null Hypothesis: 21

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the Mechanics scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A.

The distribution of the differences between the Mechanics scores of the group (A) in Composition 1 and Composition 2 is summarized in Table 21.

Table 21

The Results of the t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between Mechanics in Composition 1 and Mechanics in Composition 2 within Group A

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	4.05						
Composition 2	20	4.1	0.25	0.13	19	1.92	<2.093	0.05

As can be seen in the table above, in Composition 1 the group who was not exposed to pre-writing task activities reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=4.05$ and in Composition 2 the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=4.1$. The mean score of the differences between the scores of the students in Composition 1 and 2 was calculated as $\bar{d}=0.25$. As the observed value of $t=1.92$ is numerically smaller than 2.093 which is the t value at the 0.05 level of significance with 19 degrees of freedom. Thus, we accepted the twenty-first null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis: 22

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the Content scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B.

The distribution of the differences between the Content scores of the students within Group B in Composition 1 and in Composition 2 is summarized in Table 22.

Table 22

The Results of the t -Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between Content in Composition 1 and Content in Composition 2 within Group B

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	17	5.1	1.28	19	3.98	> 2.093	0.05
Composition 2	20	11.9						

Table 22 shows that in Composition 1 the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=17$ and in Composition 2 the group who was left alone with the given topic reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=11.9$. The mean score of the differences was calculated as 5.1. The standard deviation was $SD=1.28$. As the observed value of $t=3.98$ is numerically greater than the $t=2.093$ value at the 0.05 level of significance with 19 degrees of freedom, we conclude that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable. Thus, we rejected the null Hypothesis above.

Null Hypothesis: 23

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the Organization scores in Composition 1 and in Composition 2 within Group B.

Table 23 summarizes the distribution of the differences between the organization scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B.

The results in Table 23 indicate that in Composition 1 the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=14.5$ and in Composition 2 the group who had no motivation before the writing task reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=11.25$. The mean value of the differences of the scores of the students in

Table 23

The Results of t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing
the Difference between Organization Scores
in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	14.5						
			3.1	1.09	19	2.84	>2.093	0.05
Composition 2	20	11.25						

Group B in Composition 1 and 2 was calculated as $\bar{d}=3.1$. The standard deviation was $SD=1.09$. As the observed value of $t=2.84$ is numerically greater than the $t=2.093$ value at the 0.05 level of significance with 18 degrees of freedom. Thus, we rejected the null hypothesis above.

Null Hypothesis: 24

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the Vocabulary scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B.

Table 24 summarizes the distribution of the difference between the Vocabulary scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B.

As can be seen from Table 24, in composition 1 the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=14.45$ and in Composition 2 the group who was

Table 24

The Results of t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between Vocabulary Scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	14.45						
Composition 2	20	11.85	3.45	0.97	19	3.55	> 2.093	0.05

left alone with the given topic reached the mean score of $\bar{x}=11.85$. The mean score of all the differences was $\bar{d}=3.45$. The standard deviation was calculated as $SD=0.97$. As the observed value of $t=3.55$ is numerically greater than 2.093 which is the t value at the t-distribution table (cf. Appendix D), we can conclude that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable. Thus, the twentyfourth null hypothesis was rejected.

Null Hypothesis: 25

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the Language Use scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B.

The distribution of the differences between the Language Use scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B is summarized in Table 25.

Table 25

The Result of the t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing
the Difference between Language Use Scores
in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	17.1						
Composition 2	20	12.3	4.8	1.01	19	4.75	2.093	0.05

The results given above indicate that in Composition 1 the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=17.1$ and in Composition 2 the group who was left alone with the given topic; not exposed to pre-writing activities reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=12.3$. The mean value of all the differences between the scores of the students in each composition was calculated as $\bar{d}=4.8$. The standard deviation was $SD=1.01$. As the observed value of $t=4.75$ is numeracally greater than 2.093 which is the t-value at the 0.05 level of significance with 19 degrees of freedom. Thus, we reject the twenty-fifth null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis: 26

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the ESL Composition Profile Mechanics scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B.

The distribution of the differences between the Mechanics scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B is summarized in Table 26.

Table 26

The Results of the t-Test for Correlated Samples Showing the Difference between the Mechanics Scores in Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group B

	N	\bar{x}	\bar{d}	SD	d.f.	t	p	Level of Significance
Composition 1	20	4.25						
Composition 2	20	4.05	0.25	0.13	19	0.76	<2.093	0.05

The results given above indicate that in Composition 1 the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=4.25$. In Composition 2 the group who was left alone with the given topic reached the mean value of $\bar{x}=4.05$. The mean value of all the differences obtained from the scores of the students in each composition was calculated as $\bar{d}=0.25$. The standard deviation was 0.13. As the observed $t=0.76$ value is numerically smaller than 2.093 which is the t-value (cf. Appendix D) at the 0.05 level of significance, we can get to the conclusion that the independent variable had no significant effect on the dependent variable. Thus, we accepted the null hypothesis above.

4.2. Summary of the Statistical Results

The results found in this chapter were summarized in the following tables (Table 27, Table 28, Table 29 and Table 30) and discussed as follows:

Table 27 indicates the differences between Group A who was not exposed to pre-writing activities; in other words who was left alone with the given topic and Group B who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad in the ESL Composition Profile Total, Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language Use and Mechanics scores in Composition 1.

Table 27

The Results of the ESL Composition Profile Total Scores and Component Scores between Group A and Group B in Composition 1

	GROUP A \bar{x}	t-value	GROUP B \bar{x}
Total	52.45	3.84*	67.35
Content	12.0	3.87*	17
Organization	12.9	1.6 n.s.	14.5
Vocabulary	12.6	1.20 n.s.	14.45
Language Use	11.9	4.16*	17.1
Mechanics	4.25	0.2 n.s.	4.05

* $p > 0.05$

n.s. $p > 0.05$

As can be seen from the results in Table 27, the comparison of the two groups in Composition 1 showed that there is a significant difference in the ESL Composition Profile Total scores. It is clear from the findings that the significant difference between the two groups in the components is not consistent. In content and Language Use, there is a significant difference between the scores of the two groups. Quite the contrary, there is no significant difference in Organization, Vocabulary and Mechanics scores of the two groups. It is observed that the mean score in each component is numerically greater in the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad than the mean scores of the group who was left alone with the given topic.

Table 28 shows the differences between Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities in the ESL Composition Profile Total- Content, organization, Vocabulary, Language Use and Mechanics Scores in Composition 2. ✓

As for the comparison of the two groups in Composition 2, both groups showed a significant difference in total scores. When the components were examined statistically, it was observed that there was a significant

Table 28

The Results of the ESL Composition Profile Total Scores
and Component Scores between Group A and Group B
in Composition 2

	GROUP A \bar{x}	t-value	GROUP B \bar{x}
Total	60.45	2.26*	50.6
Content	15.8	2.95*	11.9
Organization	12.95	1.38 n.s.	11.25
Vocabulary	14.8	2.28*	11.85
Language Use	13.25	0.79 n.s.	12.35
Mechanics	4.1	0.5 n.s.	4.05

* $p > 0.05$

n.s. $p < 0.05$

difference between the scores of the two groups in Content and in Vocabulary. But the groups were not significantly different from each other in Organization, Language Use and Mechanics. As can be seen from table 28, the mean value in total score and in each component is numerically greater in Group A who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad than the mean scores of Group B who was not exposed to pre-writing activities; who were left alone with a given topic.

Table 29 indicates the differences between the scores of the group in two different compositions

within Group A. In Composition 1 the group was not exposed to pre-writing activities: they are given a topic and asked to write about it. In Composition 2 the group was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad.

Table 29

The Results of the ESL Composition Profile Total Scores and Component Scores between Composition 1 and Composition 2 within Group A.

	COMPOSITION 1		COMPOSITION 2
	\bar{x}	t-value	\bar{x}
Total Scores	52.45	5.97*	60.45
Content	12	4.37*	15.8
Organization	12.9	0.87 n.s.	12.95
Vocabulary	12.6	6.28*	14.8
Language Use	11.9	3.20*	13.25
Mechanics	4.05	1.92 n.s.	4.1

* $p > 0.05$

n.s. $p \leq 0.05$

The findings above indicate that there is a significant difference between Composition 1 and Composition 2 in total scores within Group A, as the observed value of $t=5.97$ is numerically greater than 2.093 which is the t-value at the 0.05 level of significance. The mean value

in the ESL Composition total score in Composition 2 is higher than the mean value in Composition 1. When the components were examined statistically, the scores of the group in Composition 1 and in Composition 2 are significantly different in Content, Vocabulary, and Language Use. But they showed no significant difference in Organization and Mechanics. Table 29 shows that the mean value in each component is numerically greater in Composition 2 than the mean value in Composition 1: The group were exposed to pre-writing writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad in Composition 2. ✓

Table 30 indicates that the differences between the scores of the group in the two compositions within Group B: In Composition 1 the group was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and in Composition 2 the group was not exposed to pre-writing activities; in other words, they are left alone with the given topic.

As the observed t-value in the total scores and in each component is greater than 2.093 which is the t-value (cf. Appendix D) at the 0.05 level of significance with 19 degrees of freedom, we can conclude that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable: The scores of the group who was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking

Table 30

The Results of the ESL Composition Profile Total Scores
and Component Scores between Composition 1
and Composition 2 within Group B

	COMPOSITION 1		COMPOSITION 2
	\bar{x}	t-value	\bar{x}
Total Scores	67.35	4.56*	50.6
Content	17	3.98*	11.9
Organization	14.5	2.84*	11.25
Vocabulary	14.45	3.55*	11.85
Language Use	17.1	4.75*	12.3
Mechanics	4.25	0.76 n.s.	4.05

* $p > 0.05$

n.s. $p < 0.05$

and reading with the help of a pictorial ad increased. As can be seen in Table 30, there is a significant difference in total scores and in all the ESL Composition Profile Components but Mechanics.

Shortly, the findings above indicated that in the comparison of the groups within themselves, both groups showed significant differences between Composition 1 and Composition 2 in Total scores, in Content, in Vocabulary, and in Language Use.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTION

5.1. Discussion

The analysis of statistical results of the t-test for independent samples indicated that there is a significant difference in the ESL Composition Profile Total scores between the two groups one of which was exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad (cf. Appendix A-1 and A-2) and the other group was not exposed to pre-writing activities in Composition 1 and in Composition 2. (cf. 3.3) The results were given in Table 3 and Table 4. Thus, the third and fourth null hypothesis were rejected.

It was observed that there is also a significant difference in the ESL Composition Profile Total scores within the groups themselves (cf. Table 29 and Table 30).

As for the analysis of the components in the ESL Composition Profile, the statistical results of the t-test for independent samples showed that the significant difference between the two groups mentioned above is not consistent in the components. (cf. Table 27³ and Table 28)

⁴
In Composition 1, there is a significant difference in Content and Language Use but there is no significant difference in Organization, Vocabulary and Mechanics. (cf. Table 27).

³
In Composition 2, there is a significant difference in Content and Vocabulary but there is no significant difference in Organization, language Use and Mechanics. (cf. Table 28)

¹
As can be seen from the findings, the significant difference in components between Group A and Group B in Composition 1 and Composition 2 (cf. 3.3) is not consistent. The pictorial ad used in each composition was different. Differences in the texts may be one of the reasons which effect upon the students' written performance. (cf.5.2)

The analysis of statistical results of the t-test for correlated samples showed a significant difference within Group A and within Group B in Content in two conditions: 1. when they are exposed to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad and 2. when they are not exposed to pre-writing activities.

In the traditional paradigm, as stated in section 2.4., teachers are quite busy with teaching style, organization and correctness. As a result, they cannot recognize that their students need work on "what to say". Quite the contrary exposing students to pre-writing activities through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad would help them to understand the subject; to recognize several aspects of the subject; to see the interrelationship of these aspects; to discuss the subject from different points of view; to be original in illustrating, defining, comparing, or contrasting factual information supporting the thesis; to be relevant to assigned topic; and to convey intended information. Thus, we can say that incorporating writing skill with speaking and reading skills would help the students who have the greatest difficulty in 'what to say'.

The statistical results indicated that there is a significant difference not only in Content but also in Vocabulary and Language Use within the groups themselves. (Table 29 and Table 30) This means that incorporating writing skill with speaking and reading skills with the help of a pictorial ad would help students to develop a capacity of using effective words and idioms; to use appropriate register; to distinguish denotative and connotative meaning; to use appropriate vocabulary to the topic; to use well-formed and complete sentences; to distinguish main

and subordinate ideas carefully; to use appropriate conjunctions, adverbials and relative pronouns; to be aware of paralellism; to use substitution, repetition and deletion effectively.

Both Group A and Group B showed no significant difference in Mechanics in Composition 1 and Composition 2. But in Organization within Group B (cf. Table 30) exposing students to pre-writing activities with the help of a pictorial ad (cf. Appendix A-1) help them to build the ideas on one another; to use topic sentences in each paragraph for supporting, limiting, and directing the thesis; to write a cohesive composition.

Although a significant difference was observed in organization within Group B, there is not a significant difference in Organization within Group A. Appendix A-1 and Appendix A-2 show that the pictorial ads used in Group A and in Group B are different. This point will be dealt with again in the suggestion section (cf. 5.2 paragraph 2).

As a conclusion, this study indicate that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable: Teaching writing through speaking and reading with the help of a pictorial ad produced a significant difference between Group A and Group B and within the groups themselves in the ESL Composition Profile total scores. The significant difference in the Components between Group A and Group B in Composition 1 and

Composition 2 is not consistent. As can be seen from the findings, there is a significant difference in components within the groups themselves in Content, Organization, Vocabulary, language use but Mechanics.

5.2. Suggestions for Further Studies

Since it is clear from the findings in this thesis that incorporating the writing skill with the speaking and the reading skills would help the student in the EFL context in writing courses, a writing syllabus in the EFL classes can be designed in the light of integrating skills.

With more pictorial ads, a similar study can be conducted to see if a difference in the text effects upon the students' written performance.

Text teype variance can be tested to find out if a difference in the text type effects upon the students' written performance. ✓

A similar study can be conducted in corporating the writing skill with the speaking and the reading skills without any pictorial cues to see the effect of pictorial stimuli on the student performance.

Teacher variance can also be tested to find out if a difference in the teacher effects the student performance.

The same techniques and methods can be applied to different groups of students to find out if a variation in the students language level effects the results of this research, as this study is limited to the students at the level from upper intermediate to lower advanced.

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APPENDIX A-1

The Pictorial Magazine Ad Used in Composition 1 in Class 2-B



*It'll Cost You
Your Friends*

Your Looks

Your Possessions

And Your Health

Even if a friend offers you heroin for nothing, there's still a price to pay. Because, once you start, you could soon find yourself unable to stop.

Then your old friends will get fed up with the way it has taken over your life.

You'll sell everything in sight (or steal it) to get more and more money for your habit. You'll look ill, you'll lose weight and you'll probably feel like death.

And one day you'll wake up knowing that, instead of you controlling heroin, it now controls you.

So if a friend does offer you heroin, tell them you can't afford it. Even if it's free.

HEROIN SCREWS YOU UP.

APPENDIX A-2

The Pictorial Magazine Ad Used in Composition 2 in Class 2-A



Photograph donated by R. Ian Lloyd, Apa Photo Agency, Singapore.

A green earth or a dry desert?

There may still be time to choose.

FOR MILLIONS OF YEARS, the tropical rain forests of South East Asia, South America, and Africa have been the earth's natural chemical laboratories, botanic gardens and zoos.

Today we are destroying them at such a rate that within 25 years only fragments will remain of the vast forests of Malaysia and Indonesia.

Because they grow mostly in poor tropical soil, relying upon a natural cycle between trees and animals for nourishment and replenishment, the forests cannot be replaced.

When the trees are felled, soil erosion begins and within a few years, the whole area that was once forest becomes wasteland.

We shall have lost for ever the earth's greatest treasure house of plants and animals; perhaps our most valuable natural resource for the future. And it is happening in areas where poverty already verges upon starvation. It is perhaps the world's most urgent conservation problem. The destruction is happening through ignorance, short-sightedness and ever increasing

consumer demand. But it can be stopped if enough of us show enough concern.


How you can help.

In 1980 WWF and other international conservation bodies published the World Conservation Strategy. It is a programme for developing the world's natural resources without destroying them.

You can become part of a world movement which will see this plan become reality.

Join the World Wildlife Fund now. We need your voice and your financial support. Get in touch with your local WWF office for membership details or send your contribution direct to World Wildlife Fund at the address below. It may be the most important letter you'll ever write.

WWF INTERNATIONAL,
MEMBERSHIP SECRETARY,
WORLD CONSERVATION CENTRE,
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APPENDIX B

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE

STUDENT

DATE

TOPIC

SCORE LEVEL CRITERIA COMMENTS

	SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS
CONTENT	30-27		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable • substantive • thorough development of thesis • relevant to assigned topic	
	26-22		GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject • adequate range • limited development of thesis • mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail	
	21-17		FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject • little substance • inadequate development of topic	
	16-13		VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject • non-substantive • not pertinent • OR not enough to evaluate	
ORGANIZATION	20-18		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/ supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive	
	17-14		GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing	
	13-10		FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development	
	9-7		VERY POOR: does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate	
VOCABULARY	20-18		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range • effective word/idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register	
	17-14		GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range • occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage <i>but meaning not obscured</i>	
	13-10		FAIR TO POOR: limited range • frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage • <i>meaning confused or obscured</i>	
	9-7		VERY POOR: essentially translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate	
LANGUAGE USE	25-22		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions	
	21-18		GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions <i>but meaning seldom obscured</i>	
	17-11		FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions • frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions • <i>meaning confused or obscured</i>	
	10-5		VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate	
MECHANICS	5		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing	
	4		GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing <i>but meaning not obscured</i>	
	3		FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • <i>meaning confused or obscured</i>	
	2		VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate	

TOTAL SCORE READER COMMENTS

APPENDIX C

TABLE 1

Test-1 Scores Given by Native
Speaker Teacher of English I in
Group A

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	9	15	10	9	5	48
2	15	15	17	20	5	72
3	5	4	5	10	4	28
4	5	10	10	10	5	40
5	12	14	12	8	4	50
6	5	4	6	5	4	23
7	7	11	16	18	4	56
8	13	14	14	13	4	58
9	14	15	15	18	4	70
10	8	15	15	12	4	54
11	14	8	12	8	4	46
12	11	6	11	10	3	41
13	15	5	10	9	5	43
14	19	17	19	10	4	69
15	12	13	12	6	4	46
16	10	11	7	10	4	42
17	14	15	15	12	4	60
18	8	15	11	10	3	47
19	16	10	10	11	3	50
20	10	12	12	10	4	42

TABLE 2

Test-1 Scores Given by Native
Speaker Teacher of English II in
Group A

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	12	16	11	12	5	56
2	16	15	19	21	5	76
3	7	5	6	12	3	36
4	9	15	10	15	5	54
5	13	16	11	10	4	54
6	8	6	9	9	3	36
7	10	13	15	19	4	60
8	18	16	13	10	4	60
9	15	20	17	21	4	77
10	12	19	15	13	3	62
11	13	10	12	7	4	45
12	10	7	10	10	2	39
13	15	9	12	9	4	48
14	20	19	20	14	4	77
15	16	17	14	7	4	58
16	15	16	10	15	4	60
17	9	16	14	10	5	54
18	10	18	13	8	3	52
19	14	13	10	11	3	51
20	11	10	14	14	4	53

TABLE 3

Test-1 Scores Given by Native
Speaker Teacher of English I in
in Group B

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	18	11	17	16	4	66
2	20	17	17	20	5	79
3	23	17	16	20	4	80
4	11	10	11	16	4	52
5	7	12	12	16	4	51
6	24	14	17	20	4	79
7	18	16	20	20	4	78
8	17	11	13	16	4	61
9	11	11	11	9	3	45
10	24	16	14	19	5	78
11	17	12	16	21	4	70
12	17	18	17	17	4	73
13	10	11	12	19	4	56
14	16	11	12	17	4	60
15	11	16	12	18	4	61
16	11	14	12	18	4	59
17	18	17	17	17	4	73
18	16	18	18	17	4	73
19	18	17	17	17	4	73
20	10	8	9	9	3	39

TABLE 4

Test-1 Scores Given by Native
Speaker Teacher of English II
in Group B

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	17	13	17	14	5	65
2	25	18	18	20	5	86
3	24	17	18	20	5	84
4	8	10	5	14	5	41
5	14	20	15	20	4	73
6	26	15	20	20	4	85
7	24	18	17	16	4	79
8	17	12	15	20	4	68
9	16	17	14	12	4	63
10	22	19	15	19	4	79
11	18	11	17	20	4	70
12	18	20	19	20	4	81
13	12	9	14	17	4	56
14	17	10	15	15	5	64
15	13	18	18	20	4	73
16	14	17	15	19	4	69
17	20	18	16	17	4	75
18	16	12	16	10	4	58
19	19	17	18	15	4	73
20	11	7	8	9	3	38

TABLE 5

Test-2 Scores Given by Native
Speaker Teacher of English I
in Group A

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	21	15	14	10	5	65
2	20	17	20	20	5	82
3	15	7	10	10	4	46
4	10	15	15	10	4	54
5	20	18	17	8	3	66
6	10	7	7	8	3	35
7	15	12	20	20	4	73
8	20	17	18	16	4	75
9	16	12	20	19	4	71
10	17	18	20	11	4	70
11	17	7	12	10	4	50
12	15	8	12	8	2	45
13	20	7	12	8	4	51
14	27	18	20	11	4	80
15	18	17	17	9	4	65
16	13	12	10	10	4	49
17	18	18	20	18	4	78
18	13	15	10	10	4	52
19	20	14	17	10	3	64
20	17	11	16	10	5	59

TABLE 6

Test-2 Scores Given by Native
Speaker Teacher of English II
in Group A

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	15	16	13	13	3	60
2	18	17	16	18	5	74
3	10	8	8	13	2	42
4	8	11	11	16	4	50
5	18	10	10	10	4	52
6	10	7	8	10	3	38
7	13	11	19	20	4	67
8	15	12	17	15	4	63
9	15	11	17	20	5	68
10	18	15	17	14	4	68
11	17	8	14	10	4	53
12	16	12	13	12	3	56
13	17	8	15	9	4	53
14	24	18	17	22	5	86
15	15	12	11	16	4	58
16	12	14	12	15	4	57
17	20	19	20	20	5	84
18	11	11	10	10	4	46
19	18	14	15	12	4	63
20	10	8	11	9	4	42

TABLE 7

Test-2 Scores Given by Native
Speaker Teacher of English I
in Group B

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	10	9	9	9	3	40
2	20	17	18	15	5	75
3	12	10	8	10	4	44
4	11	12	6	7	4	40
5	13	6	7	10	3	39
6	9	13	7	8	3	40
7	18	11	7	10	4	50
8	9	6	9	8	4	36
9	9	8	7	9	3	35
10	10	12	15	9	4	50
11	10	8	9	9	4	40
12	7	14	14	16	4	55
13	18	18	19	21	4	80
14	8	7	12	10	4	41
15	8	7	10	11	4	40
16	10	11	10	10	4	45
17	19	20	19	18	5	81
18	11	9	10	8	3	41
19	17	15	18	19	5	74
20	9	12	17	8	4	50

TABLE 8

Test-2 Scores Given by -Native
Speaker Teacher of English II
in Group B

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	17	16	10	8	4	55
2	20	15	12	16	4	67
3	12	9	9	11	4	45
4	10	11	10	13	4	48
5	10	6	11	9	3	40
6	8	12	7	11	3	41
7	23	16	16	19	4	78
8	9	8	9	7	3	36
9	5	5	11	15	4	40
10	12	10	12	13	4	51
11	10	9	14	13	3	49
12	6	10	11	12	3	42
13	19	18	15	19	4	75
14	3	5	10	10	4	32
15	5	5	9	9	3	31
16	8	7	11	9	3	38
17	21	19	20	20	4	84
18	8	11	7	14	4	44
19	15	20	15	21	5	76
20	7	9	12	10	4	42

TABLE 9

Test-1 Average Scores in Group A

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	11	16	11	11	5	52
2	16	15	18	21	5	74
3	6	5	6	11	4	31
4	8	13	10	13	5	47
5	13	15	12	9	4	52
6	7	5	8	7	4	30
7	9	12	16	19	4	58
8	11	15	14	12	4	59
9	15	18	16	20	4	74
10	10	17	15	13	4	58
11	14	9	12	8	4	46
12	11	7	11	10	3	40
13	15	7	11	9	4	46
14	20	18	20	12	4	73
15	14	15	13	7	4	52
16	13	14	9	13	4	51
17	12	16	15	11	5	57
18	9	17	12	9	3	50
19	15	12	10	11	3	51
20	11	11	13	12	4	48

TABLE 10

Test-1 Average Scores in Group B

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	18	12	17	15	5	66
2	23	18	18	20	5	83
3	24	17	17	20	5	82
4	10	10	8	15	5	47
5	11	16	14	18	4	62
6	25	15	19	20	4	82
7	21	17	19	18	4	79
8	17	12	14	18	4	65
9	14	13	13	11	4	54
10	23	17	15	19	5	79
11	18	12	17	21	4	70
12	18	19	18	19	4	77
13	11	10	13	18	4	56
14	17	11	14	16	5	62
15	12	17	15	19	4	67
16	13	16	14	19	4	64
17	19	18	17	17	4	74
18	16	15	17	14	4	66
19	19	17	18	16	4	73
20	11	8	9	9	3	39

TABLE 11

Test-2 Average Scores in Group A

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	18	16	14	12	4	63
2	19	17	18	19	5	78
3	13	8	9	12	3	44
4	9	13	13	13	4	52
5	19	14	14	9	4	59
6	10	7	8	9	3	37
7	14	12	20	20	4	70
8	18	15	18	16	4	69
9	16	12	19	20	5	70
10	18	17	19	13	4	69
11	17	8	13	10	4	52
12	16	10	13	10	3	51
13	19	8	14	9	4	52
14	26	18	19	17	5	83
15	17	15	14	13	4	62
16	13	13	11	13	4	53
17	19	19	20	19	5	81
18	12	13	10	10	4	49
19	19	14	16	11	4	64
20	4	10	14	10	5	51

TABLE 12

Test-2 Average Scores in Group B

<u>Subj.</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	14	13	10	9	4	48
2	20	16	15	16	5	71
3	12	10	9	11	4	45
4	11	12	8	10	4	44
5	12	6	9	10	3	40
6	9	13	7	10	3	41
7	21	14	12	15	4	64
8	9	7	9	8	4	36
9	7	7	9	12	4	38
10	11	11	14	11	4	51
11	10	9	12	11	4	45
12	7	12	13	14	4	49
13	19	18	17	20	4	78
14	6	6	11	10	4	37
15	7	6	10	10	4	36
16	9	9	11	10	4	42
17	20	20	20	19	5	83
18	10	10	9	11	4	43
19	16	18	17	20	5	75
20	8	11	15	9	4	46

APPENDIX D
The t -Distribution

Table E The t -distribution
(5 per cent significance level for two-tailed test)

DF	t
1	12.706
2	4.303
3	3.182
4	2.776
5	2.571
6	2.447
7	2.365
8	2.306
9	2.262
10	2.228
11	2.201
12	2.179
13	2.160
14	2.145
15	2.131
16	2.120
17	2.110
18	2.101
19	2.093
20	2.086
21	2.080
22	2.074
23	2.069
24	2.064
25	2.060
26	2.056
27	2.052
28	2.048
29	2.045
30	2.042
40	2.021
60	2.000
120	1.980
∞	1.960

Abridged from Table 12 of E. S. Pearson and H. O. Hartley,
Biometrika Tables for Statisticians,
vol. 1, Cambridge University Press, 1954.

APPENDIX E-1

The Formula Used for the t-Test for Independent Samples

Step-by-step procedure

t-Test – independent samples

Use with independent-subject design
(NB steps A1-5 and B1-5 are identical to steps 1-5 of method 2 in the standard deviation procedure, p. 50.)

Step A1	Add all A observations together	$\sum X_A$
Step A2	Divide A1 (i.e. the result of step A1) by the number of A observations N_A	$\frac{\sum X_A}{N_A} = \bar{X}_A$
Step A3	(a) Square each of the A observations (b) Add all the squares together	X_A^2 $\sum X_A^2$
Step A4	(a) Square A1 (b) Divide A4a by N_A	$(\sum X_A)^2$ $\frac{(\sum X_A)^2}{N_A}$
Step A5	Subtract A4b from A3b	$\sum X_A^2 - \frac{(\sum X_A)^2}{N_A}$
Steps B1-5	Repeat the above 5 steps for the B observations	
Step 6	Add A5 and B5	$\left[\sum X_A^2 - \frac{(\sum X_A)^2}{N_A} \right] + \left[\sum X_B^2 - \frac{(\sum X_B)^2}{N_B} \right]$
Step 7	Divide 6 by N_A minus 1 added to N_B minus 1	$\frac{\left[\sum X_A^2 - \frac{(\sum X_A)^2}{N_A} \right] + \left[\sum X_B^2 - \frac{(\sum X_B)^2}{N_B} \right]}{(N_A - 1) + (N_B - 1)}$
Step 8	Find the reciprocal of N_A and the reciprocal of N_B and add them together	$\frac{1}{N_A} + \frac{1}{N_B}$
Step 9	Multiply 7 by 8	$\frac{\left[\sum X_A^2 - \frac{(\sum X_A)^2}{N_A} \right] + \left[\sum X_B^2 - \frac{(\sum X_B)^2}{N_B} \right]}{(N_A - 1) + (N_B - 1)} \times \left(\frac{1}{N_A} + \frac{1}{N_B} \right)$
Step 10	Take the square root of 9	
Step 11	Take the difference between A2 and B2	$\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_B$
Step 12	Divide 11 by 10: the result is <i>t</i> !!	$t = \frac{(\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_B)}{\sqrt{\left[\frac{\left[\sum X_A^2 - \frac{(\sum X_A)^2}{N_A} \right] + \left[\sum X_B^2 - \frac{(\sum X_B)^2}{N_B} \right]}{(N_A - 1) + (N_B - 1)} \right] \times \left(\frac{1}{N_A} + \frac{1}{N_B} \right)}}$
	with $(N_A - 1) + (N_B - 1)$ degrees of freedom	
Step 13	Translate the result back in terms of the experiment	

APPENDIX E-2

The Formula Used for the *t*-Test for Correlated SamplesStep-by-step procedure*t*-Test – correlated samples

Use with matched-subject or repeated-measures design

- | | | |
|---------|--|--|
| Step 1 | Obtain the difference (<i>d</i>) between each pair of scores | $d = (X_A - X_B)$ |
| Step 2 | Add all the differences together | $\sum d$ |
| Step 3 | Divide 2 (i.e. the result of step 2) by the number of pairs of scores (<i>n</i>) | $\frac{\sum d}{n} = \bar{d}$ |
| Step 4 | (a) Square each of the differences
(b) Add all the squares together | d^2
$\sum d^2$ |
| Step 5 | (a) Square 2
(b) Divide 5a by <i>n</i> | $(\sum d)^2$
$\frac{(\sum d)^2}{n}$ |
| Step 6 | Subtract 5b from 4b | $\sum d^2 - \frac{(\sum d)^2}{n}$ |
| Step 7 | Divide 6 by $n(n - 1)$ | $\frac{\sum d^2 - (\sum d)^2/n}{n(n - 1)}$ |
| Step 8 | Take the square root of 7 | |
| Step 9 | Divide 3 by 8: the result is <i>t</i>
$t = \bar{d} \div \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2 - (\sum d)^2/n}{n(n - 1)}}$
with (<i>n</i> - 1) degrees of freedom | |
| Step 10 | Translate the result of the test back in terms of the experiment | |