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A Form Based
Strategy of Teaching Writing
for Field Independent EFL Students

Writing

WITH COMPREHENSIVE MODELING

DR. KRT. H. SUJITO SAP, M.Pd

KNOWLEDGEMENT

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First of all, the writers gratefully thank to ALLAH SWT the Almighty GOD, who has blessed them in finishing this book. The writer and the team are very thankful to the Dean of English Language and Literature of Kanjuruhan Malang and the Dean of Faculty of Language and Teaching of IAIN Surakarta for giving the opportunities to write the book.

Besides, the writers also want to address their thanks to all the lecturers and all members of the Faculty and also for all the people who give us supports and suggestions and shared their experiences. The writers dedicate the book for the family who always motivates them to study hard and do the best.

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The Writer

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Need of Improving Field Independent Students' Writing Achievement Using Comprehensive Modeling

The first chapter describes background, ⁶⁴ statement of the problem and significance of the study that consists of two parts; theoretical and practical significances.

A. Problems of Writing and How to Improve It

²⁰ Writing as one of the four skills in English learning is given great attention from many linguistic scholars as its challenging and complicated characteristic. Writing, among other four English skills has its own different characteristic. A psycholinguist, Leneberg (1997), compares writing with swimming since the two have similar characteristic of "species specific-human behavior". Usual skills like walk and talk are universally learned by human beings, but writing like swimming are different. In very specific term, some linguist call writing as culturally specific learned behaviour (Hormazábal (2007); Imtiaz (2003); Brown, Cohen, O'Day (1991)). The analogy for the two is the specific skill like swimming is learned when there is a body of water available and it happens usually only if someone teaches us. Likewise, writing is learned when human are members of a literate society, and it happen only if someone teaches them.

In the area of learning ⁸ English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL) where four common basic ¹ skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing are required for the students to master, writing is considered the most

difficult even most complicated skill. ⁸¹ Writing skill is a complex and sometimes difficult to teach, requiring mastery of grammatical and rhetorical devices also conceptual and judgmental elements (Heaton (1989); Latief (1990); Sun (2009.)). The students and the teachers of EFL/ESL have long acknowledged that ¹⁵⁵ learning to write in English is a complex process. The complexity of writing is not only made up from the linguistic aspects, but also from organization and rhetorical aspects. In writing, the students are required to master, then apply, the English language rules in sentence level or grammatical elements. Besides, they have even to go beyond sentence level to reach ¹⁷³ rhetorical devices also conceptual and judgmental elements.

The ESL/EFL classroom programs in writing basically provide the students with two kinds of skills; skill in using the linguistic aspects and rhetorical aspects of writing. Linguistic features refer to the use of sentence construction, grammar, and mechanical aspects of writing. Linguistic features are identified through the use of sentence complexity, that is, simple sentences, complex sentences, and compound sentences; the use of grammar and mechanics (Richards, 1992:103). The linguistic features rely on theories of English academic writing. The theory mainly focuses on the syntactic and mechanic quality of writing. Therefore, the essay is evaluated on the basis of the use of sentence complexity, grammar, and mechanic quality (Raimers, 1987). The syntactic quality refers to the types of sentence construction: simple, compound, complex, compound-complex sentences. Whereas, the grammar and mechanic quality refer to the characteristics of grammatical and mechanical errors found in each sentence. The grammatical errors include awkward constructions and agreement errors. The mechanical errors comprise of punctuation errors, spelling errors, and capitalization errors (Andrew, BI and Gardner R, 1979; Latief, 1990; Oshima and Hogue, 1991).

Concerning the linguistic features in writing, most students suffer from two points: (1) the ability to write long sentences that requires various coordinating, subordinating tools, vocabulary, and grammar; and (2) knowledge of the meaning and proper use of linking devices, especially those needed to establish inter-sentential relationship (Andrew, BI and Gardner R, 1979; Latief, 1990; Oshima and Hogue, 1991).

Smith (1995) suggests that to make a good writing, a writer must pay attention to rhetoric, a verbal means of seeking agreement with readers. Therefore, the writing should be carefully planned, thoughtfully finished, revised, and edited. To achieve this goal, a composition should have good rhetorical features beside linguistics features. In writing, rhetoric is implemented in terms of ⁷⁴ analysis, description, classification, exemplification, definition, comparison, contrast, analogy, narration, process, cause and effect, induction and deduction.

Writing for an academic purpose particularly will concern with three formal characteristics: audience, tone, and purpose. The writer of an academic writing should consider the audience, that is, the people who will read the article. Knowing the audience will help the writer reach his ¹ goal of communicating clearly and effectively. Tone of writing reveals the writer's attitude toward the subject by the choice of words, the choice of grammatical structure, and the length of the sentences. In addition, the purpose of a piece of writing will determine the rhetorical form, the organizational form and style,

chosen for it. No matter what kind of writing is, specific and clear purpose should appear (Oshima and Hogue, 1991).

For academic purpose, learning writing skills is an obligation that students must meet in college. Essentially, students should assimilate a specific body of knowledge and demonstrate the familiarity with the knowledge in a written form. In this regard, performing a scholarly writing, e.g. abbreviated essay, term paper, report on research is repeatedly required by the college students (Hogins and Lillard, 1972:5). As writing skill is an imperative obligation for college students, scholarly writing is a primary means to demonstrate the knowledge they have achieved.

To equip college students with writing skills, writing is designed as a compulsory subject in the English Department at the college level in Indonesia. It is one of the major courses required for students of EFL. The objective of the classroom writing programs is the achievement of two kinds of skills: skill in using the linguistic aspects of writing and skill in using various rhetorical aspects. The writing course in EFL is designed to teach the two kinds of the aspects to the students. Building students' writing skill in using linguistic aspects is taught with great emphasis through out all levels in writing class program. Whereas, building students' writing skill in using rhetorical aspect is taught step by step trough the consecutive level of the writing course (Latief, 1990).

Generally, at the English Department of higher education (universities) writing is taught in four consecutive courses; namely Writing I, Writing II, writing III and Writing IV. Writing I is the prerequisite of Writing II, Writing II is the prerequisite of Writing III and Writing III is the prerequisite of Writing IV. The objectives of every course level is as follows:

1. Writing I provides the students with the skills of writing one paragraph composition. In this level the guided writing tends to be applied since it is the lowest level in which the students requires a clear cut task. The modes of the writing introduced in this level are limited on narration and description.
2. Writing II trains the students to write one paragraph still with more type of writing; narration, description and exposition. In this level, the intensity of guided writing is loosened.
3. Writing III provides training to the students to write composition more than one paragraph. The mode of the writing taught in this level is not limited on the narration and description, exposition is also taught.
4. Writing IV class is emphasized on argumentative writing. Besides, this course is also programmed to **develop the students ability in writing a complete essay.**

The fact that the EFL students in Indonesian university still get the difficulty in getting a high achievement in academic writing is revealed by many empirical data. Various evidences showed that the EFL students still face problems in making composition in academic setting, whether it is about linguistic aspect or rhetoric aspects. Findings of various studies indicate that the subject of writing has not been appropriately treated. In Indonesia, writing is not a favorite subject to teach, because teaching writing takes more time than teaching any other subject. As a result, very few teachers are interested in teaching writing, and even fewer of them are interested in doing research on this subject (Latief, 1990).

Studies of Indonesian writing learners focusing on students' linguistc and rhetoric aspects of the English essays show unsatisfied results, indicating the negative

transfer of Indonesian rules into the English essays. Students perform English sentences using Indonesian structure and use Indonesian rhetoric for the organization of ideas. It seems that in general the EFL students in Indonesia get a difficulty in making composition. Therefore, a study attempting find the way to increase to EFL students' achievement is required.

A substantial fact in the writing instruction problem is that writing in the Second Language (L2) are influenced by the First Language (L1) have been proved by Krashen (1994) and Connor (1996). Krashen (1994) discovered that L2 learners transfer their L1 rules in writing an English essay. The transfer of L1 into L2 characterizes the grammar errors in the essay. In addition to Krashen, Connor (1996) posites that L2 learners use their knowledge of L1 to express ideas in an English essay. Most learners translate their ideas in L1 before they develop them in an English essay. As a result, the style of English language in the essay the learners write is colored with the grammar of L1. According to Connor writing was concerned with the transfer of L1 cultural conventions to L2 performance. The transfer deals with the rhetorical organization of ideas in writing that was assumed to be culturally determined. Various studies on writing indicate that as beginners, when students of ¹¹⁶ English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) write in English, they ¹ translate or attempt to translate the L1 words, phrases, and organization ⁸⁶ into English. The students use patterns of language and stylistic conventions that they have learned in their native language and cultures (Connor, 1996:3-4). When they are matured to achieve successful accomplishments at the advanced level of mastery in writing, of course, they will not translate L1 words and patterns of L1 conventions into English anymore.

Hariyani (1990) studying coherence in a paragraph shows that the students ability to have coherence in a paragraph is very poor. More specific, Sabilah (1999) focusing on the linguistic aspects of writing (i.e. coherence, syntax, grammar, and mechanics), identifies that erroneous linguistic aspects in writing are frequently performed by the students, implying that insufficient exercises on the scientific writing are lacking. The study suggests that the writing process is not learned well by students. Some high group students (Grade Point Average is 3.0 and up), all of middle group students (GPA is 2.5 to 2.9), and all of the low group students (GPA is less than 2.0) write draft of their English essay in Indonesian before they write the final copy in English. Most students also lacked the coherence of an essay; for instance, a thesis statement is not clearly stated or additional sentences irrelevant to the thesis statement are added. The studies indicate two main concerns of essay writing. First, students have problems preparing topics, developing ideas, and elaborating the contents, resulting in a lack of focus in the essays. Second, errors on essay elements (i.e. introductory paragraph, body of paragraph, and closing paragraph), paragraph elements (i.e. topic sentences, supporting details, and relevant conclusion), and sentence problems (e.g. fragment, choppy, run-on, stringy sentences) are dominant.

Related to the the ability of using rhetoric aspects, a study by Rofiq (1996) observing undergraduate students at public university as his research subjects revealed a shocking finding. He investigated problems faced by the undegraduate students in writing argumentative essay and obtained that the learner found difficulty to use a good language and reasoning. The students were poor in using clear language to express arguments. They could not make analogy, generalization and drawing conclusion. Even, they could not define important items. This research was conducted to the students of public university that the general achievement are relatively good.

The interesting question arises from this fact is; is there anything wrong with the writing instruction approach? If in the public university having a relatively good achievement students still faces that problem, what happen to the private university which nowadays admits lower qualified student as its input?

Still concerning with the students' rhetoric, Wahab (1995) has conducted a study on the rhetoric of academic writing by Indonesian writers, examining expository and argumentative papers. The study reveals that the model of thought patterns of Indonesian rhetoric is in the process of change, shifting from circular patterns into linear patterns. As indicated in the paragraphs, some types of paragraphs exhibit the straight linear approach, some exemplify the spiral/circular structure, and some others are neither linear nor circular. Emphasis of change is indicated by the use of linear structure as a result of technology that requires a tendency to use direct thought patterns rather than indirect thought patterns.

Another study by Sujoko (1999) examining rhetorical patterns used in thesis proposal by undergraduate students indicates that non-linear thesis is used by 83.3% sample. The development of paragraphs used in the proposal is colored with circular thought patterns, stating from very general information, going down to more specific statement, and ending in a thesis statement. Some papers even do not have a thesis statement in the paragraph.

Harjanto (1999) who investigates the features of ⁶⁷English academic writing by Indonesian learners suggests that features of English academic writing by Indonesian learners are not the same as those by English-speaking writers. The lay out structure of the essays expresses the convention of the English academic essay but not always the substantial elements. In addition, the rhetorical developments of ideas in the

essays do not entirely follow the staging of the information as expected by the English-speaking readers, which is mainly linear.

An independent study taking the first until the third year students as the sample conducted by Wilujeng et al. (2005) shows that many students of English Department Kanjuruhan University still got difficulty in their writing skills. Many of them got syntactical difficulty. In fact, there were many students still confused with how to arrange some words to a sentence. Their problem was on complexity, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanic. In complexity problem, they were still confused about simple sentences, compound, complex, and compound- complex sentences. In grammar problem, they had losing subject, predicate, or sometime-uncompleted sentences. In addition, they were having lack of tenses. They were still confused what the time signal would be used. In vocabulary problem, the students had still limited of vocabulary. So, they could not make sentences completely. The variation of vocabulary problems were identified the use of the similar word for several different expressions. And the last was on the mechanical problem. Generally, a lot of students had problem on mechanical problem in term of the wrong punctuation, e.g. full stop, comma, question mark, and colon. This finding is also supported by another independent study (Suyoto, et al 2006) showing the fact in the essay of writing was many students of English Department Kanjuruhan University had problem how to write a good essay. The problem usually occurred in their essay writing pointing idea. And the other problem was that they did not know about part of essay such as: introduction, body, and conclusion.

As a writing teacher at the English Department of some private and non-favorite public universities, the researcher has conducted an informal survey to the students

taking Writing IV. The result is shocking. More than 45% of the students being surveyed are below the satisfactory level. It was reported that one of the causes is the teacher does not give the suitable strategy in writing. This fact is made worse by the report of by the survey conducted by the Faculty of Language and Letters of Kanjuruhan University of Malang that for the last five years, the English Department takes less qualified inputs. The more qualified inputs are strongly absorbed by the public and favorite university using many new student selection programs. As the consequence, the private universities and some others including Kanjuruhan University, admit their new students with the relatively moderate selection. It results in the worse consequence that the inputs admitted by the private and non-favorite public universities are dominated by the low level inputs.

The wisdom taken from the above obvious fact is the relatively low input should be managed in great care. In more specific consideration, having a class dominated by the low achievement students requires the teacher to apply a precise and effective strategy that has been adjusted to the students' condition. The general goal of this research is to seek the solution of that problem by taking account the students' condition.

One of the suspicions that likely to come in mind, after reviewing the rationale above related with the problem about the low achievement of the students in writing is about the suitability between the teaching methodology or approach and the condition of the students.

Referring to teaching writing approach, teaching writing issues and practices have been familiar with product and process approach. Product and process approaches refer to different notion. A product approach is an instructional program

emphasizing on the quality of the students' writing outcomes. In the product approach, the writing teachers usually treat students' composition as finished product, therefore they respond and evaluate that products. Product-oriented approach focuses on grammatical and discourse levels, looking at error, fluency (length), writing quality, and structure. It is looking at whole texts in terms of their coherence, stylistics, and culture (Furneau, 1999).

Whereas, a process approach is a method of teaching writing focusing on the variety of the learning process. A cognitive perspective, trying to identify the hidden underlying processes involved in writing, produces what are known as process approaches to the teaching of writing (Furneau, 1999). These are heavily influenced by the model of L1 composing processes of Flower and Hayes (1981) which suggests that writing is a highly recursive, complex activity. ELT practitioners such as Raimes (1985) and Zamel (1985) in the USA, and Hedge (1988) White and Arndt (1991) in the UK, had tried the applications of it to ELT. In this approach activities for generating and organizing ideas, drafting and re-drafting text are introduced, involving new methods of feedback (peer feedback, reformulation, and conferencing, for example), all with the aim of making the writer more aware of his/her writing processes, and of what skilled writers do. Texts are seen as evolving, with the focus on content in early drafts and on language editing towards the end of the process, thus mirroring L1 writing. In process approach, the teacher intervenes the process of producing a composition to help the learners develop the writing skills. In the process of teaching writing, the teacher usually takes one of the two to be applied in the classroom.

As suggested by Harmer (2001), in the teaching of writing, the teacher can focus on the product of that writing or on the writing process itself. Applying either

product or process will result in its different advantages and disadvantages since when concentrating on the product the teacher are only interested in the aim of a task and in the end product, whereas those who apply on a process approach, focus attention to the various stages that any pieces of writing goes through. The ² weaknesses of product approaches are that process skills, such as planning a text, are given a relatively small role, and that the knowledge and skills that learners bring to the classroom are undervalued. Their strengths are that they recognize the need for learners to be given linguistic knowledge about texts, and they understand that imitation is one way in which people learn.

The belief of the strength of product approach is supported by a study by Tsao (2004). His study as one of modern researches in teaching writing approach reveals that product oriented approach is more effective than process oriented in improving the students' grammar and diction. Besides, product oriented approach is effective in enhancing the grammar skills of less proficient writer, while the process approach cannot really improve either the grammar or diction skills of students at all level of proficiency. It means that for some aspect of writing achievement, the use of product oriented approach is beneficial.

Meanwhile, Badger & White (2000) states that the ² disadvantages of process approaches are that they often regard all writing as being produced by the same set of processes; that they give insufficient importance to the kind of texts writers produce and why such texts are produced; and that they offer learners insufficient input, particularly in terms of linguistic knowledge, to write successfully. The main advantages are that they understand the importance of the skills involved in writing,

and recognize that what learners bring to the writing classroom contributes to the development of writing ability.

The existence of merits and demerits labelled to the process and product oriented approach leads some scholars to give suggestion about making combination between the first and second approach. Brown (2002); Hillock, Horowitz and Dyer (2002) suggest that the a teacher should not focus only on the product by leaving process and vice versa, otherwise they will get down on the single side disadvantages. It is supported by Kamimura (2000) with his research finding suggesting that L2 writing instruction should maintain a balance between product and process orientations to meet the needs of various L2 writers who come from non-English discourse community. Further, Badger, R. & White, G. (2000) proposes the use of process-genre approach to obtain both advantages of process oriented approach and product (genre) oriented approach. The researcher in this study, by some considerations (explained in next chapter of this study), names the combination between product (genre) oriented approach and process oriented approach as multidimensional approach.

Until now, the debate still goes on which one is better. Therefore, it is not illogical that in real teaching learning practices some scholars and teachers who believe that product oriented approach is better than process oriented approach tend to apply it at their writing class with a great attention. It happens also on the other way around. The worse is on the teachers who never know either first or second approach, hence they have no focus on their teaching. It seems that this very typical teachers are not difficult to find in some writing classes. As has been pointed out by Mukminatun (1997) that the writing classroom activities usually depend the teachers'

style. Consequently, there are as many techniques as there are teachers of writing since no suggestion is available on the technique of teaching. The classroom activities are usually dominated by a lot of assignments given to the students and by discussions dealing with the students' problems related to the assigned topic, even very often without knowing whether the techniques works not.

In the effort of increasing students' achievement by applying chosen and determined approach or method is really important. However, more important is making sure that the very method or approach is really required by the students. It is not infrequent for the teacher not taking account the unique of the students he teaches. A method supposed to be the most effective method for the learner in a certain condition does not frequently fit with the learner with other condition. Applying a prospective method without scrutinizing its suitability with the learner's unique characteristic will not yield the optimum learning outcome. Therefore, besides seeking the best approach in teaching writing, this study is also interested in involving the effort of finding the suitability of the approach to students' characteristic in learning. Student's characteristic is one of the variables in instruction technology. This variable is defined as the personal aspects or qualities of the learner. Those aspects can be cognitive style, learning style, motivation, prerequisite skills, IQ, social norms, religion, and culture. The learner characteristic should be given attention to get the optimum gain in the process of teaching learning. Besides, there are many happening studies about it. According to Weimer and Cassidy (2004) research on learner characteristic now spans four decades. The amount of work focusing on the issue flows recently. Interestingly, work on students' characteristic in learning continues to occur across a wide spectrum of disciplines.

Among other aspects made up the student's characteristic in learning, this study is interested in researching ¹⁷² cognitive style. In the area of teaching, cognitive style is important because it is the education relevant expressions of the uniqueness of the individual. Besides, writing, the language skill as the focus of this study is decidedly a cognitive process (Hormazábal, 2007). Therefore, determining to study cognitive style together with studying teaching writing approach is really appropriate. Cognitive skill is one of paedagogy theories, but it has been initially examined in applied linguistic area. A linguist, Johnson (2001) has asserts that the teacher should give attention to students' cognitive learning in language teaching. His assertion is proved by some ¹⁰³ research findings.

In the area of second/foreign language acquisition, cognitive style has received great attention. It was started by Naiman et al.'s research (in Freeman and Long, 1991) through his study about the correlation between SL (second language) achievement and cognitive style. Then this study is followed by Tucker, Hamayan and Genesse; Bialystock and Frochlich; Hansen and Stanfield; Chapelle and Robert's (in Freeman and Long, 1991) finding the link between field independence (one kind of cognitive styles) and communicative competence.

In more recent time, some attempts to study cognitive style in the area of EFL/ESL have been also conducted. Bachman (1990) in studying the ability of the learner with certain kind of cognitive style in doing integrative tests such as the cloze and the oral interview. In another study, Chapelle and Roberts (1992)

reports significant correlation between field-independence (one type of cognitive styles) and cloze test in adult ESL students. To summarize there many scientific reason based on research stating that cognitive style is proved to be one of the important variables determining the success of mastering language skill. Not wanting to be left behind, this study in some extent attempts also to investigate the cognitive style in conjunction with teaching writing orientation in the effort of boosting the EFL students in performing better in writing skill.

By the above rationale, this study is carried out on the basis of two main reasons; the first, there are still many EFL learners, at writing IV class, who still get difficulty in making argumentative essay especially in terms of linguistic features and rhetoric features, hence finding the best teaching approach in writing among other existing approaches that can foster students' writing achievement is really is really in need. This study for some extent is aimed at this goal. Besides, there has not been a research conducted to examine the suitability between teaching approach in writing and the students' characteristics which, in this study, is specified into cognitive style to boost their achievement. Therefore, based on that need, conducting the study aimed at finding the proof about whether there is any effect of applying process, product and multidimensional oriented teaching in writing instruction on the third year EFL learners with different cognitive style on students' argumentative composition and whether there is interaction between the three is really in great necessity.

B. Statement of the Problem

Based on the above rationale, the problems of the study are stated as follows:

- a. Is there any significant effect of applying *comprehensive modeling writing, multidimensional oriented writing* on the EFL students' achievement in making composition?
- b. Is there any significant effect of the students' ¹⁸⁶ *cognitive style (field independent cognitive style)* on the third year EFL undergraduate students' achievement in making composition?
- c. Is there any significant interaction between applying instruction orientations in writing (*comprehensive modeling writing*) and students' cognitive style (*field independent cognitive style*) upon the third year EFL undergraduate students' achievement in making argumentative composition?

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C. Significance of the Study

This section explains *the significance of the study*. There are two significances expected to reach from this research finding; first, theoretical significance, about how far the research finding can give contribution to the theory of teaching writing area and second, practical significance, about how far the research finding can give contribution to real application of the theory to teaching writing practice.

1. Theoretical Significances

The finding of this research is expected to be used as one of the references in developing theoretical concept concerning with teaching writing subject for EFL undergraduate students. Further, the finding of this study which attempts to reveal the effect of applying three different orientations in teaching writing by taking account the students' cognitive styles is expected to enrich the theory of teaching writing in conjunction with the students' condition which may sometimes be neglected in teaching writing at higher education level.

Not only expected of giving theoretical reference concerning with which one among the three orientations in teaching writing researched in this study, that are still debatable by almost all ESL/EFL scholars and practitioners, is the most effective approach in boosting the EFL undergraduate students' argumentative ¹⁷¹ writing performance, the result of this study is also expected to reveal in greater understanding the role of cognitive style on EFL students' argumentative writing performance. In the area of teaching, the cognitive style is important because it is the education relevant expressions of the uniqueness of the individual. Cognitive skill is one of paedagogy theories that have been initially examined in applied linguistic area. The writing teacher should give attention to students' cognitive learning in language teaching. Enriching the theory on how far cognitive style awareness helps affecting the attempt to foster students' composition performance is also expected to gain by this research finding.

Finally, the result of this study is also expected to give enrichment to the theory of ESL/EFL teaching about the importance of matching the application of certain approach in teaching with the students' condition and characteristics.

2. Practical Significances

This finding of this research is practically also expected to give informative contribution for lecturers of writing subjects in university level and writing subject designer in higher education. For the lecturer, if it is found that comprehensive modeling approach, tends to be more suitable to be applied to EFL students with a certain cognitive style to foster their composition achievement, the suggestion to be geared to that application in teaching writing. This research finding can be used as a feedback of the effectiveness of the application of certain teaching writing approach by the EFL teachers. It may encourage the lecturers to make evaluation to the curriculum they have designed. Moreover, the finding of this research is also expected to give additional information for the EFL policy makers to examine deeper the teaching methodology of the writing instructional program suggested to apply in ELT area. By taking account any variables, e.g students' characteristic/unique involving cognitive style, that either directly or indirectly help affecting the students performance in language learning, the optimum teaching writing outcome can be gained. At last, this study is expected to be useful to give additional scientific reference for further researchers in writing subject to study more detailed aspects that have not been covered by this study.

PART II

THEORITICAL REVIEW

Chapter 2

Approaches in Teaching Writing

This section is devoted to the discussion theoretical sources related to some issues of teaching ³⁰ English as second and foreign language /ESL-EFL especially in teaching writing and some pedagogical issues closely related with it. It consists of three major sections; issues on writing instruction, cognitive style and argumentative composition in ESF/EFL academic setting. The discussion is begun with reviewing the general issues in teaching writing by giving emphasis and highlight on the approaches in teaching writing.

Cognitive style is reviewed by emphasizing the kinds of it and its characteristics entailing the role of it on language learning success especially in writing performance.

Argumentative composition achievement representing the outcome of the teaching writing is also examined by including the assessment of argumentative composition achievement. The review posed in this chapter is expected to give strong rationale for the hypothesis statements which are also given in this chapter.

1. Writing Instruction and Its Approaches

Issues on teaching writing in ELT are always interesting to examine. Writing as one of the four skills in language learning is specific and teaching it is challenging as well. Many efforts have been attempted painstakingly by the linguists and ELT practitioners to reach the ultimate outcome of teaching writing. That writing is the most skill to master for L2 learners is obvious since the skills involved in writing is highly complex. Teaching a course in writing is a hard even challenging task. The theories that should be aware and the factors that should be considered are as many as problems must be faced. Richard and Renandya (2002) states that planning and teaching a course in writing can be a daunting task since many think should be considered by the teacher;

- a. Which theoretical stands are they going to adapt?
- b. Are they going to use certain approach among other existing approaches?
- c. What will be the focus of the course?
- d. What activities are likely to help students develop their writing skills?
- e. How do they treat learner errors?
- f. Etc.

From the above considerations, the second one is the most interesting to examine; approach of teaching writing. This study is also interested in that topic. In the area of writing instruction, it has been known some approaches/orientations in teaching writing; product oriented approach, process oriented approach and genre based approach.

a. Comprehensive Modeling Writing Instruction

Hedge (2003) states that comprehensive modeling writing instruction or text based approach on writing is a kind of orientation in teaching writing focusing on the students' attention on the features of texts and are largely concerned with developing the students's ability to produce those features accurately. Comprehensive modeling writing instruction concerns with what product of writing should "look" like. In comprehensive modeling writing instruction, a great deal of attention is placed on a "model" of composition that the students would emulate and how well a students' final product measured up against a list of criteria that included content, organization, vocabulary use, grammatical use and mechanical consideration such as spelling and punctuation (Segal and Pavlik, 1985; Reid 1988; Brown, 2001).

The comprehensive modeling writing emphasizes mechanical aspects of writing such as focusing on grammatical and syntactical structures and imitating models. This approach is primary concerned with "correctness" and form of the final product. The disadvantage of this approach as some experts assert that this approach fails to recognize that people write for an audience and for a purpose and that ideas are created and formulated during the process of writing. Further it is explained that product oriented approach in writing instruction largely concerns the forms of written product that students compose. The writing exercise in this approach typically deal with sentence level writing and paragraph level organization. Students are often given a framework which illustrates a pattern of rhetorical organization; then they are asked to fit their ideas into this frame work. Both the content and the form which the students deal with are largely controlled by the teacher. Since the main focus of this

approach is on written form, grammar is emphasized and a particular effort is made to avoid error.

² One of the most explicit descriptions of product approaches is provided by Pincas (1982). She sees writing as being primarily about linguistic knowledge, with attention focused on the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices. (Pincas 1982) In this approach, learning to write has four stages: familiarization; controlled writing; guided writing; and free writing. The familiarization stage aims to make learners aware of certain features of a particular text. In the controlled and guided writing sections, the learners practice the skills with increasing freedom until they are ready for the free writing section, when they 'use the writing skill as part of a genuine activity such as a letter, story or essay'. A typical product class might involve the learners familiarizing themselves with a set of descriptions of houses, possibly written especially for teaching purposes, by identifying, say, the prepositions and the names of rooms used in a description of a house. At the controlled stage, they might produce some simple sentences about houses from a substitution table. The learners might then produce a piece of guided writing based on a picture of a house and, finally, at the stage of free writing, a description of their own home. Pincas (1982) ² sees learning as 'assisted imitation', and adopts many techniques ⁹ where learners respond to a stimulus provided by the teacher. However, her comment that, at the stage of free writing, 'students should feel as if they are creating something of their own suggests a view of learners as being ready to show rather more initiative. In short, product-based approaches see writing as mainly concerned with knowledge about the structure of language, and writing development as mainly the result of the imitation of input, in the form of texts provided by the teacher.

In comprehensive modeling writing instruction the student's compositions are supposed to:

- a. meet certain standards of prescribed English rhetorical style,
- b. reflect accurate grammar
- c. be organized in conformity with what the audience would consider to be conventional.

According to Hedge (2003) there are some implications of giving comprehensive modeling writing instruction to students' writing. The implications are:

- a. Helping students to identify their writing needs
- b. Building awareness of discourse organization
- c. Helping students to develop crafting skills
- d. Enabling students to appreciate the criteria for an effective text.

As proposed by him this approach which would be valuable to certain kind of students, for example; the professional person already competent in writing in his first language but needing to produce specific type of text e.g scientific report in English; the university students needing to produce a range of expository essay in English for example comparing and contrasting systems, discussing problems and alternatives solutions, or critically reviewing an argument.

The methodology of product oriented teaching in writing involves analysis of model texts in order to raise awareness of how they are structured. It also involved formal practices of such features as the use of passive in description of processes, the

use of relative clause in description of people, place, system and the use of time adverbials in historical accounts of the development of defining paragraph. This practice is of a controlled nature and often there is a little opportunity for composing. The ¹ teacher's role are to "prime" writing through preparatory activity and to evaluate it after it has been produced in order to diagnose strength and weaknesses.

As what have been explained above, the activity of instruction in comprehensive modeling writing can be varied. One of them is teaching cohesion and coherence. About how a teacher teaches cohesion and coherence in this comprehensive modeling writing, Johnson (2001) proposes some activities. He proposes cloze activities. According to him cloze activities can be extremely useful in drawing the learner's attention to passage organization, particularly if the teacher carefully select what words to omit from the text, so as to focus on organization.

Another technique proposed by Johnson (2001) in comprehensive modeling writing is giving sentences in isolation and asking her to join them together. This technique is known as sentence combining (SC). Sentence combining (SC) involves the process of what might be called as "passage assembly" and this process is highly productive oriented.

Hedge (1988) as followed by Johnson (2001) gives also the another technique of teaching in comprehensive modeling writing that is asking the learner to analyse a given text. In this technique the teacher provides a number of statements describing what is done in the text, like supporting an argument with a example and making general statement. Learners write a number beside each statement to show how the text is organized (Hedge, 1988; Johnson, 2001).

Another technique is providing the students with a new opening sentence for the text, and asks how the order would change if the passage started in that way. This is actually quite a natural task as it can be discovered from general experience at academic writing. It can be found in rewriting paragraph, perhaps to begin in a different way. Different beginnings often require total reorganization of paragraph.

b. Process Oriented Writing Instruction

The ²⁹ process approach developed by way of a reaction to the confines presented by the product approach. Consequently, ¹ students changing classes from product to process, from an approach ¹ devoted to correct form and accuracy would potentially find themselves liberated with an approach concerned with individual levels of fluency and expression. In replacement of an approach which considered written language secondary and merely as a mechanism for reinforcing spoken language, the ¹⁵ process approach empowered its students, thereby enabling them to make clearer decisions about the direction of their writing 'by means of discussion, tasks, drafting, feedback and informed choices [thereby] encouraging students to be responsible for making improvements themselves' (Jordan and Clenton, 1997). Furthermore, with the outcome a secondary concern, the role of the EAP teacher also changes. That is, no longer required to offer a shining example of the model, the ²⁹ teacher becomes a facilitator in providing formative feedback during the process of each student's composition. Correspondingly, it is this process which takes on increased significance with the approach in encouraging students to assume greater responsibility for making their own improvements, as opposed to the mimicking of a pre-determined model. The advantage in ²⁶ adopting the process approach is in developing the

significance of the cyclical and recursive nature of writing, supposedly, employed by native writers, where 'ordinarily pre-writing, writing and re-writing frequently seem to be going on simultaneously' (Smith and Clenton, 1982).

Process oriented writing instruction is based on the belief that writing is a process through which the writer discovers, organizes, and writes her or his thoughts to communicate with a reader. Therefore, the writing process gives the writer a chance to compose, draft, rethink, and redraft to control the outcome of her or his writing (Wingersky, Boerner, and Holguin-Balogh, 1992). Seow (in Richard and Renandya, 2002) describes the process approach to teaching writing which compromises four basic stages,

- a. Planning
- b. Drafting
- c. Revising and
- d. Editing.

The general steps in the writing process include prewriting, organizing ideas, drafting, revising, and making a final draft. Each step has different activities that will help a writer get the ideas from his mind to the paper in an organized fashion. Prewriting is a way of generating ideas, narrowing a topic, or finding a direction. Organizing involves sorting ideas in logical manner to prepare to write a draft. Drafting is the part of writing process in which the writer composes sentences in paragraph form to produce the first copy of an essay. Revising involves smoothing out the writing, adding more detail, and making other changes that helps achieve best way to write. Editing is checking

mechanical problems and correcting the problems. Making a final draft and deciding it ready for the intended audience involves a sincere look at the paper and decide if the essay is in its best form (Wingersky, Boerner, and Holguin-Balogh, 1992). The following is the more specific explanation steps in writing process.

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1) Prewriting

Prewriting is the first major step in the writing process. Prewriting can be accomplished in several ways as Figure 2.6 shows. One simple way to relieve and start the writing process is to talk about the subject with fellow instructors, family members, and knowledgeable people who can provide the inspiration to write. Like other prewriting strategies, free writing is writing anything that comes to mind about a topic of writing. It is writing without stopping to correct spelling or other mechanical errors. If a writer can't think of anything to write, just start with anything on her or his mind at that moment, even if it is just repeating the assignment.

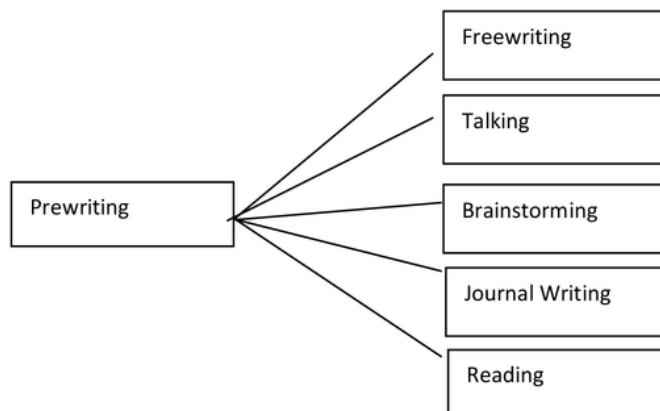


Figure 2.1. Schema of a Prewriting Process (Wingersky, Boerner, and Holguin-Balogh, 1992)

Brainstorming is writing words or phrases that occur spontaneously.

Brainstorming is particularly valuable to the writer because it offers a technique for getting suggestions and leads for a subject (Tibet and Tibet, 1991). Journal writing is recording information in a notebook of the writer's daily inner thoughts, inspirations, and emotions that are usually recorded consistently. Journal writing can provide the writer opportunity to connect with important inside thoughts, analyze the life environment, relieve writing anxiety, and practice spontaneous writing. Reading in magazines or newspaper can also help the writer get started. A summary of ways to get started writing is given in Figure 2.2.

Summary of Ways to Get Started Writing

Talking : informal conversation about a subject or topic

Freewriting : writing (in sentences) anything that comes to mind
without stopping

Brainstorming : listing words or phrases as they come to mind

Journal writing: recording the writer's own thoughts in a notebook

Figure 2.2 Summary of Ways to Get Started Writing

2) Organizing

Organizing is the second major step in the writing process. After the writer has completed one or more of the prewriting activities, she or he goes to organizing her or his ideas into a rough outline that includes a main idea and supporting ideas. The writer focuses on details to support the main idea and in what order these ideas need to be presented (Wingersky, Boerner, and Holguin-Balogh, 1992). To do this, the writer goes with grouping and outlining. Grouping involves putting similar ideas into groups; and outlining involves identifying a word or phrase that represents a group of related ideas and then arranging the words or phrases in order of discussion.

3) Outlining

Outlining involves identifying a word or phrase that represents a group of related ideas and then arranging these words or phrases in order of discussion. Oshima and Hogue (1991:33) assert that an outline is like an architect's plan for a house.

An outlining improves the writing for three reasons. First, an outlining helps organize the writer's ideas, specifically she or he will ensure not to

include any irrelevant ideas, not leave out ¹ any important points and that the supporting sentences will be in logical order. Second, an outlining helps write more quickly. Preparing an outline is 75 per cent of the work. The actual writing becomes easier because the writer does not have to worry about what she or he is going to say; she or he already has a well-organized plan to follow. Finally, the writer can concentrate on the plan so that her or his grammar improves.

4) Drafting

After organizing ideas in the form of an outline, the writer is preparing to write a first draft. Drafting involves taking the information the writer has generated and organized in an essay. The writer consciously starts with the main ideas and adds supporting ideas that flow smoothly (Wingersky, Boerner, and Holguin-Balogh, 1992). As ¹⁹ writing is a continuous process of discovery, ¹⁹ new ideas that may not present on the brainstorming list or outline will appear. The writer can add new ideas or delete original ones at any time in the writing process (Oshima and Hogue, 1991:12).

5) Revising

Revising means making changes to clarify wording and organization. The revision should be done several times, until the writer is satisfied that it is the best she or he can do. To achieve a satisfied final copy of an essay, revision may be done more than once. In addition, Oshima and Hogue (1991) assert that when revising, the writer changes what he or she has ¹⁹ written in order to

improve it. She or he checks it over for content and organization, including unity, coherence, and logic. She or he can change, rearrange, add, or delete, all for the goal of communicating her or his thoughts more clearly, more effectively, and more interestingly. During the first revision, the writer should not try to correct grammar, sentence structure, spelling, or punctuation; she or he mainly concerns with content and organization. The proofreading that is aimed at checking for the grammar, sentence structure, spelling, and punctuation is done in the second revision.

6) Editing

Before considering the paper finished, the writer should check for any problems in mechanics. Commonly, editing focuses on spelling, punctuation, capitalization, grammar usage, errors in sentence structure, consistency in verb tense, consistent point of view, and abbreviations and numbers. It is a step where a writer is ready to write the final copy of a paper. The steps of the writing process appear in Figure 2.3 below.

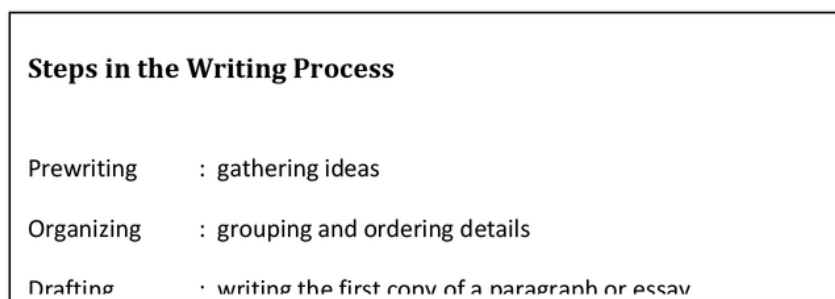


Figure 2.3 Steps in the Writing Process

Based on the description on the general concept of the process in writing above, it can be relied that the process oriented writing instruction is teaching writing that encourages the students to follow the process of writing, ¹⁷⁰ they are;

- a. Prewriting
- b. Organizing
- c. Outlining
- d. Drafting
- e. Editing
- f. Revising

It is in line with what Murray (1972) and Montague (1995) state that the process oriented writing instruction ¹ refers to a teaching approach that focuses on the process a writer engages in when constructing meaning. This teaching approach concludes with editing as a final stage in text creation, rather than an initial one as in a product oriented approach. The process oriented approach may include identified stages of the writing process such as: pre-writing, writing and re-writing. Once the rough draft has been created, it is polished into subsequent drafts with the assistance of peer and teacher conferencing. Final editing and publication can follow if the author chooses to publish their writing. Process oriented writing instruction should do most of the following;

- ¹² a. focus on the process of writing that leads to the final written product,
- b. help student writers to understand their own composing process,

- c. help the student to build repertoires of strategies for, prewriting, drafting and rewriting,
- d. give the students time to write and rewrite,
- e. place central importance on the process of revision,
- f. let the students discover what they want to say as they write,
- g. give the students feedback throughout the composing process (not just on the final product) as they attempt to bring their expression closer and closer to intention,
- h. encourage feedback from both the instructor and peers,
- i. include individual conferences between teacher and students during the process of composition (Shih, 1986; Brown, 2001).

Whereas, ¹⁸ Tribble (1996) defines the 'process approach' as 'an approach to the teaching of writing which stresses the creativity of the individual writer, and which pays attention to the development of good writing practices rather than the imitation of models'. Thus, the focus shifts from the final product itself to the different stages the writer goes through in order to create this product. by breaking down the task as a whole into its constituent parts. writing can seem greatly less daunting and more manageable to the EFL ¹ student.

Various headings have been given to the different stages in the writing process, possibly the most exhaustive being White and Arndt's ¹ 'generating ideas, focusing, structuring, drafting, evaluating and re-viewing' (White and

Arndt (1991) Hedge (1988) and Tribble (1996)).¹ These stages generally involve different forms of brainstorming, selecting and ordering ideas, planning, drafting, redrafting and revising and editing. Furthermore, as Raimes comments, the process is 'not linear at all' but 'recursive' (Raimes, (1985) quoted in Tribble (1996) as, in Tribble's words, 'at any point in the preparation of a text, writers can loop backwards or forwards to whichever of the activities involved in text composition they may find useful' (Tribble, 1996). This not only provides the student writer and the teacher with a practical and manageable framework within which to work through the writing process, but also allows for great flexibility, depending on each individual task and the personality and preferences of each individual writer. The more a writing activity can engage the learner as a person, the more it will capture his/her imagination and spark his/her motivation. This involves a consideration of what the students might need to write outside the classroom and of what they are interested in, as highlighted by White and Arndt (1991).

Simple principles of genre and discourse analysis can easily be incorporated into several stages in the writing process. The covert interaction between reader and writer can be overtly reconstructed to assist writers in the ideas-generation and focusing stages, as demonstrated in an exercise by Brown and Hood, where students are assisted in the preparation of a newspaper article by the use of a headline and the kind of focusing questions often inherent in journalistic texts (Brown and Hood, 1989; Tribble 1996). Similarly, McCarthy (1991) recommends the provision of a pre-written topic sentence and

focusing segment-starters to assist lower-level students in the production of texts which conform to a 'problem-solution' structure. McCarthy (1991), White and Arndt (1991) suggest questions used to assist students in ideas generation, selection and organization by focusing on the concept of 'shared knowledge' between reader and writer, and also provide a range of activities which incorporate analysis of the styles of different text-types and reader expectations into the focusing, drafting, evaluating and re-viewing stages of the process (White and Arndt, 1991).

Finally, especially if we accept Keh's definition of feedback as 'the comments, questions and suggestions a reader gives a writer' in order to produce 'reader-based' prose. Both teacher and peer-evaluation stages in process writing can also assist students in the all-important task of discourse recreation. In fact, perhaps one of the most valuable contributions that the process writing approach has made to the teaching of English as a whole is to force teachers to re-examine the nature of feedback given on student writing, resulting in a development of a wealth of new techniques, including peer feedback, conferencing, minimal marking, taped commentary and self-monitoring (Keh, 1990; Hyland, 1990; and Charles, 1990) and a shift in the teacher's role and in teacher-student and student-student relationships.

As Tribble (1991) comments, evaluation and feedback can also occur much earlier in the writing process. not merely at the end. This allows the teacher to respond as a genuine and interested reader, rather than as a judge and evaluator (Diffley and Lapp, 1988; White and Arndt, 1991) and to prioritise

the all-important issues of content, communication and successful organization of ideas at the earlier drafting stages. This can render the feedback process a more humane, less threatening and overall more positive experience to the student, and, possibly also, more valuable and effective (White and Arndt, 1991). Nevertheless, in spite of all the arguments in favour of the use of a ⁶⁰ process approach to the teaching of writing, the problem still remains in many circumstances that writing is not sufficiently prioritised, by teachers, students and curriculum designers, as occupying an important place in a communicative teaching syllabus. However, White and Arndt remark that many of the activities included in their book:

...include pair and group work, not to mention discussion and collaboration, so that the writing class becomes, in a very genuine sense, a communicative experience in which much more than skill in writing is practised and developed. (White and Arndt, 1991).

Thus, the process writing class can be 'sold' to teachers, students and institutions alike as a typically communicative lesson, which can successfully incorporate all four skills, along with activities to build vocabulary and raise awareness of discourse and structure.

Hedge (2003) proposes some implication of process oriented writing instruction to students' writing. The implications are;

- a. Helping students students to generate ideas.
- b. Providing practices in planning.
- c. Contextualizing tasks to develop a sense of audience.

d. Encouraging students in revision strategies.

In conclusion, the incorporation of process-oriented approaches and activities into EFL writing lessons, especially when used in conjunction with genre and discourse analysis, can go a long way towards tackling some of the problems traditionally experienced by teachers and students in this difficult area. What is more, they can turn the writing class into a stimulating, pleasurable and communicative learning experience, making a firm and valuable contribution to the 'language-learning experience as a whole.

c. Multi-Dimensional Oriented Writing Instruction

1) The Need for Combining Product and Process.

The balance or combination between process and product for the teacher in writing instruction is important. It is because writing ¹ is a composing process and usually requires multiple drafts before an effective product created. The teacher should make himself sure that the students are carefully led through appropriate stages in the process of composing. This includes careful attention to the teacher role as a guide and as a responder. At the same time the teacher should avoid to get so caught up in the stages leading up to the final product that make the teacher lose sight of the ultimate attainment, in this case is the product itself: a clear, well-articulated, well-organized, effective piece of writing. The teacher should make sure that the students see that everything leading up to the final creation is worth the effort (Reid, 1994); Brown, 2001 and Kroll, 1990).

The writing teacher that the current emphasis is on process writing as the relatively newer teaching writing orientation than product writing must see the perspective of making the balance of product and process. As in most language teaching approaches, it is quite possible for the teacher to go to an extreme in emphasizing process to the extent that the final product diminishes in importance. However, Reid (1994) and Brown (2001) remind this by stating “try not to let this happen!” with the reason that the product is, after all, the ultimate goal; it is the reason that we go ¹ through the process of prewriting, drafting, revising and editing. Without that final product firmly in view, we could quite simply drown ourselves in a sea of revisions. Process is not the end; it is the means to end.

Having combination between process and product is really important. ¹ Teaching writing must involve both process and product. Teacher should first focus on the organization of the writing. As the next step, they should deal with grammatical problems seen in writing. When students are not good at organizing their ideas, the teacher should deal with this before moving on to grammatical mistakes. There are several reasons for this; among them better organization often leads to the reduction of other errors and of course the clear expression of ideas is the major point of writing.

A strong recommendation is given by Hillocks in Dyer (2002) who publishes ¹⁶ his comprehensive survey and analysis of experimental studies in L1 composition instruction, which made a persuasive criticism of pure process writing instruction. Hillocks concluded that a task-based, process/product combination (the ‘environmental mode’) was the most effective mode of L1

composition instruction. This conclusion has been mirrored in the research of Horowitz, Long and Dyer (2002) and others involved in second language task-based instruction. This paper summarizes Hillocks' findings and compares them to research into L2 composition instruction. Implications for **teaching writing** to EFL/ESL students are considered, and a process/product, task-based approach to **writing** instruction is recommended.

This belief is also supported by Mukminatin (1997) by suggesting that a combination of process and product approach is not uncommon to be implemented in the teaching of writing. In the product approach, usually teachers treat students' compositions as finished product, and therefore they respond and evaluate that product. If process is considered as important as products, the method of responding to students' writing should be changed. Following Reid (1994), she suggests that teacher intervene and respond at several points during the writing process. It can be done by the teacher using his comments to the students' works in progress to reach a better achievement.

Beside product and process approach in teaching writing, there is another term of approach similar with product oriented approach called genre based approach. ² Genre approaches are relative newcomers to ELT. It appears by the spirit of combining the product-process approach. ²³ However, there are strong similarities with product approaches and, in some ways, genre approaches can be regarded as an extension of product approaches. Like product approaches, genre approaches regard writing as predominantly linguistic but, unlike product approaches, they emphasize that writing varies with the social context in which it is produced. So, we have a range of kinds of

writing—such as sales letters, research articles, and reports—linked with different situations (Flowerdew in Badger and White, 2000).² As not all learners need to operate in all social contexts, this view of texts has implications for the writing syllabus. For genre analysts, the central aspect of the situation is purpose. Different kinds of writing, or genres, such as letters of apology, recipes, or law reports, are used to carry out different purposes. Indeed, Swales defines a genre,

. . . as a class of communicative events, the members of which sharesome set of communicative purposes. (1990: 58).

There¹⁸¹ are of course some differences between the process approach and the genre approach.¹ In the process approach, the steps or stages are illustrated and practiced from the generation of ideas and compilation of information through a series of activities for planning, gathering information, drafting, revising, and editing. This sequence of activities typically occurs in four stages: “prewriting, composing/drafting, revising, and editing” (Badger & White, 2000). Prewriting is the phase of idea gathering. Drafting is the process of writing a rough outline of what will be addressed. Once students produce a rough draft, they read it again and share it with peers or a teacher to receive comments.¹ Then they make modifications to their writings based on the feedback from their peers or a teacher; revising, or elaborating on the first draft, takes place at this point.¹ Editing, correcting mechanical errors like spelling or punctuation, is the last stage.¹ Proponents of the process approach argue that the procedures of process writing help learners to develop more effective ways of conveying meaning and to better comprehend the content that they want to express. They

strongly believe that students can discover what they want to say and write more successfully through the process model than the genre approach, as the process approach is viewed as writer centered. However, none of the process writing procedures of the past sufficiently dealt with linguistic knowledge, such as grammar and the organization of content [maybe just 'grammar and organization'], as much as necessary. Even though the final stage of editing addressed some mechanical features of language, they were mainly concerned with the skills of processing ideas like planning and drafting. Furthermore, the process approach has a very restricted view of writing, in that the approach presumes that writing proficiency takes place only with the support of the repeated exercise of the same writing procedures. Although it is obvious that the amounts of pre-writing necessary for writing a personal letter and for creating an academic research paper are different, in the process model, the practice of writing is identical regardless of what the topic is and who the writer or the reader is (Badger & White, 2000).

In the genre approach, on the other hand, the knowledge of language is intimately attached to a social purpose, and more focus is on the viewpoint of the reader than on that of the writer. Writing is mostly viewed as the students' reproduction of text based on the genre offered by the teacher. It is also believed that learning takes place through imitation and exploration of different kinds of models. Accordingly, learners should be exposed to many examples of the same genre to develop their ability to write a particular genre. Through exposure to similar texts, students can detect the specialized configurations of that genre, and they also can activate their memories of prior reading or writing experiences whenever they encounter the task of creating a new piece in a familiar genre (Badger & White, 2000).

Proponents have argued that the genre ¹ approach is more effective for learners to advance their writing skills in a second language than the process approach since the model helps free students ¹ from their severe worries over writing. ² Genres are also influenced by other features of the situation, such as the subject matter, the relationships between the writer and the audience, and the pattern of organization. This parallels Hedge's (1988) approach, described above. Martin (in Badger and White, ² 2000) offers a diagrammatic explanation of genre. In terms of writing development, genre approaches have many similarities with product approaches.

This approach has three phases:

- a. modeling the ² target genre, where learners are exposed to examples of the genre they have to produce;
- b. construction of a text by learners and teacher;
- c. independent construction of texts by learners.

Modeling is ³⁶ the time when the target genre that students should construct is introduced to them [the students]. At this stage, discussion focuses on the educational and social function of the genre, and ³⁶ analysis focuses on the text structure and language. Joint negotiation of text refers to the stage when ³⁶ learners carry out exercises which manipulate relevant language forms. It fosters a negotiating process between the teacher and the students. It involves reading, research, and disseminating information, and the text of the genre is dependent on those activities. The independent construction of texts is the final phase, in which learners produce actual texts through activities such as choosing a topic, researching, and writing.

² In theory, the cycle can be repeated as and when necessary, but it would seem that often each phase appears only once. In the ELT field, Dudley-Evans (in Badger

and White, 2000)² also identifies three stages in genre approaches to writing. First, a model of a particular genre is introduced and analyzed. Learners then carry out exercises which manipulate relevant language forms and, finally, produce a short text. This parallels product approaches very closely. In a genre class, learners might examine authentic descriptions of houses produced by estate agents or realtors in order to sell the property. As with product approaches, the learners would carry out an analysis of the text, perhaps looking at some elements of the grammar or patterns of vocabulary using a concordancer. They would also consider the social context, including the fact that the text is, hopefully, based on a visit to the house, that its purpose is selling a house, that the audience is made up of potential buyers, and that the words are supported by pictures and diagrams. With varying degrees of help, learners would then produce partial texts. Finally, working on their own, they would produce complete texts reflecting the social context and the language of the original description of a house. Proponents of genre approaches are not often explicit about their theory of learning. However, the use of model texts and the idea of analysis suggest that learning is partly a question of imitation and partly a matter of understanding and consciously applying rules.

In short, genre-based approaches see writing as essentially concerned with knowledge of language, and as being tied closely to a social purpose, while the development of writing is largely viewed as the analysis and imitation of input in the form of texts provided by the teacher.

Several advantages and disadvantages of the three applications of the genre approach have been discussed. First, on the positive side,¹ students generally appreciate the models or examples showing specifically what they have to do

linguistically. Studying a given genre also provides them with an understanding of why a communication style is the way it is through a reflection of its social context and its purpose. In this context, the genre approach is very beneficial because it brings together formal and functional properties of a language in writing instruction, and it acknowledges that there are strong associations between them.

As recommended by some scholars, it is meaningful for writing instructors to tie the formal and functional properties of a language together in order to facilitate students' recognition of how and why linguistic conventions are employed for particular rhetorical effects. If the rhetorical structure of content is analyzed by students in the genre approach, some common patterns can be identified in each genre. Naturally, these patterns will form a kind of background knowledge students can activate in the next learning situation. Eventually, the prior knowledge will make it easier for students to produce acceptable structures in their writing tasks. Therefore, an assigned genre seems to serve as an influential tool for both the learning and teaching of writing [for both students and teachers. Furthermore, the genre approach encourages students to participate in the world around them, to comprehend writing as a tool that they can utilize, and to realize how writers manage content to promote logical organization. It also allows students to become more flexible in their thinking and eventually to realize how authors organize their writings (Kim & Kim (2005).

However, some proponents have indicated that the genre approach is more suitable for learners at beginning or intermediate levels of proficiency in a second language rather than those at advanced levels, in that it releases students from deep anxieties about their writing tasks. When people learn something new, they commonly

want to find some cases that they can refer to or consider as samples. There is no doubt that writing tasks can be more demanding than other language skills, so students at low level of proficiency absolutely need something that they can rely on since they have little exposure to English writing.

¹ Despite genres' beneficial roles in helping learners to produce written work with confidence, there are two concerns about the genre approach. One ¹ is that it underestimates the skills required to produce content, and the other concern is that it neglects learners' self-sufficiency (Byram, 2004). The genre approach not only places too much emphasis on conventions and genre features but also is less helpful for students in discovering the texts' true messages due to the targeted aspects of the specified genre. Likewise, if teachers spend class time explaining how language is used for a range of purposes and with a variety of readers, learners are likely to be largely passive. Thus, the genre approach is blamed for limiting learners' creative thoughts about content and is criticized in that it overlooks natural processes of learning and learners' creativity (Badger & White, 2000).

Due to the ¹ weaknesses of the genre approach noted above, Badger and White (2000) experimented with using the genre and process approaches together as an alternative in a model called the process genre approach. ¹ They affirmed that this dual approach works well if the writing cycle begins with;

- a. giving models.
- b. giving description of the key linguistic features.
- c. discussion of the social situation in which it happens.
- d. analysis of the recommended rhetorical patterns of each genre.

e. student of writing is then subjected to the sequence of the process oriented teaching steps; prewriting, organizing, outlining, drafting, editing.

1 For instance, when a university student creates an advertisement describing his or her used laptop in order to sell it, the following should be considered: this writing is intended to sell the laptop; it should be attractive to some people who are interested in buying it; it must consist of certain information; and it should follow traditions in which laptop descriptions are offered. Then, the person should follow several procedures such as drafting, revising and editing as well as using rhetorical language skills best suited to this genre (Badger & White, 2000).

This demonstration shows how the process-genre approach embraces teaching the appropriate language along with using a set of revision processes by which a final draft can be produced. As illustrated in the laptop example above, this combined approach ensures that the writing task is reviewed from both the viewpoint of the writer and of readers at the same time.

The researcher appreciates what Badger and White suggest and adopts it in this research. However, unlike Badger and White who call this the process genre approach, the researcher proposes the name multi dimensional-oriented writing instruction.

2) Why Named Multidimensional?

In this study, the researcher introduces the term “multi dimensional-oriented writing instruction”. This term has never been used before in the context of writing instruction. The researcher uses the term by bringing some several common reasons. Why should be named multidimensional? Here is the reason.

The term multidimensional has been used in some the area of language teaching. One of them is in the context of syllabus design. There are some kinds of syllabus; some of them are structural and notional/functional syllabus. In the progress of the syllabus use development, there is an interesting question “are there any teaching situation in which structural, notional/functional are particularly more useful?” (Johnson; 2001). This question led to some challenging debates and changes, through some research, about the use of structural and notional/functional syllabus. In the 1970s and 1980s, there was an avoidably domination of notional/functional syllabus. Ministry of Education world wide jostled to change their syllabuses from structural to notional/functional. The change was of course as the result of careful examination to the advantages and disadvantages of the two kinds of syllabuses. As usually, the discussion comes and goes with the claim that one of them is more superior than another. The strong controversy continued until, recently, the syllabus designer and book writer raise their own syllabus inventories. The resulting syllabuses are rarely exclusive to structural nor functional/notional. They are more often hybrids or mixtures. The resulting syllabus is called as multidimensional syllabus. The basis of multidimensional syllabus is that it has more than one unit of organization. The designer shift the focus at different points in course, to have some units which is structural followed the occasional unit dealing with situation/; later there is also possibility to have a change the focus yet again with some functional unit (Johnson, 2001).

The above interesting “history and story” of syllabus development from one era to another, is exactly the same with what happen with the shift attention to writing instruction with its product, process and product and process orientation. Therefore,

the researcher adopts the term “multidimensional” in syllabus context above as the term “multidimensional oriented writing instruction”.

In conclusion, it is not non-sense, even important to some extent, to have combination between product and process in writing instruction. In this study, the combination between the two is technically introduced as multidimensional oriented writing instruction.

Chapter III

Field Independent Students' Cognitive Style and Language Learning

A. Cognitive Style

Piaget (1967) believes that human beings develop increasingly more complex level of thinking in definite stages. Each stage is characteristic by the possession of certain concepts or intellectual structures, which he refers as schema. Schema organizes the world in some way (the early schemas, for example, are very egocentric and place the students at the center of the universe); schemas are programs or strategies that the individual uses as he or she interacts with the environment. In the course of life, students acquire experience. They assimilate this experience into their present patterns of behaviour. After a while, however, their present patterns become inadequate to explain their new experiences, and then they develop new schemas by accommodating to the new information.

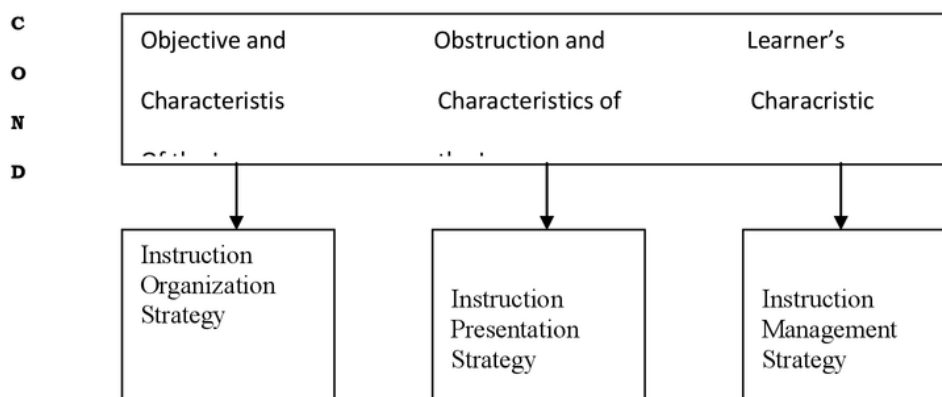
Studying cognitive style should be preceded with studying cognitive psychology. Gagne (1985) proposes that cognitive psychology is the scientific study of mental events. The cognitive psychology of school learning is that which studies mental events in learners and teachers during schooling. It is a science that sheds light on such questions as why two similar students react differently to the same lesson, what is behind the blank stare of one student or another's flash. Joyce (1992) following Piaget's (1967) belief writes that students will initiate learning experiences that optimally match their cognitive structure,

provided the opportunity exists in the environment, because students intuitively know what activities they need. Piaget (1967) believes that if we teach too far above the students, learning is not possible. Each person must construct his or her own knowledge.

In the area of teaching, cognitive style is important because it is the education relevant expressions of the uniqueness of the individual. Individual differences are to be prized because they are the expression of uniqueness of personalities. The teacher should provide the students with a common education that enhances their individuality.

1. Cognitive Style as part of Learner's Characteristics

Discussing students' cognitive style should also be preceded with reviewing general theory of learner characteristics. Before reviewing further the learner 's characteristics, the description about the following Instruction Variable Taxonomy needs to recalled.



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Figure 2.4 Instruction Variable Taxonomy
(Adopted from Reigeluth and Stein, 1988; Degeng 1988)

On the instruction taxonomy, learner's/student's characteristic is included in condition variable. Instructional condition is defined as factors that

affect method to foster instruction outcome. It interacts with instruction method and basically cannot be manipulated.

Learner's characteristic is the last variable in instruction technology. This variable is defined as the personal aspects or qualities of the learner. Those aspects can be aptitude, learning motivation or the initial achievement/proficiency that has been owned. Learner's characteristic is individual. The learner characteristic should be given attention to get the optimum gain in the process of teaching learning.

Information about the general characteristic of the group of learner will be helpful in designing lesson plan matched with the need of the learner (Dick and Carey, 1985; Degeng, 1989), because the success of the instruction is affected by the quality of the method and the instructional condition (Reigeluth, 1983). There many research findings show the close relationship between the learner characteristic and the process of the instruction. One of them is Jonassen's (1982) showing that there is a significant role of learners' characteristic on their learning achievement.

2. Cognitive Style Definition, Classification and Measurement and Characteristics

a) Cognitive Style Definition

Learner's characteristic is one of learning condition variable that must be used as the base to determine the teaching/learning method to get the optimum learning achievement. In this context, all learner's characteristic are treated as the variable which is relatively stable and constant (*traits*) not always changing (*state*). All aspects of learner's characteristic (cognitive style, learning

style, motivation, prerequisite skills, IQ, social norms, religion, and culture) are treated as *traits*, although on the other side can be seen as *state*.

Cognitive style as one of personal characteristics or the learner characteristics is not the same with learning characteristics. NASSP (National Association of Secondary School Principals) defines learning characteristic as the characteristic of cognitive behaviour, affective, and physiology that show the relatively stable indication about how the learners feel, interact, and respond their learning environment. Therefore, learning style concept has a broader sense than cognitive style. Cognitive style is the habit to act that relatively constant inside of a person to receive, think, solve and recall/memorize information (Messick, in Keefe, 1987). Every person/learner has a unique/different cognitive style.

Keefe (1987), states that cognitive style is personal characteristic about how a person receives, organizes and stores the information. That way relatively shows the stable and consistent condition about ¹⁰¹ how a learner receives, ¹⁰¹ interacts and responds his ¹⁰¹ learning environment. Although learning style (which the cognitive style is part of it) is closely related with the intellectual ability, but the two are different. Learning style reflects cognitive process referring ²⁰ to how information is processed, whereas ²⁰ intellectual ability ²⁰ refers to the content of the cognition.

To complete the above definition, Witkin, et al. (1971) state that cognitive style is personal characteristic concerning with the constant way to receive

information and to do the intellectual activity. It is strengthened by Diptoadi (1990) who proposes that cognitive style is the habit to act relatively constant inside of the learner, to think, to recall, to receive and to process the information.

³ Messick (1984: 5) described cognitive style as “consistent individual differences in preferred ways of organising and processing information and experience”. Sternberg and Grigorenko described them as representing “a bridge between what might seem to be two fairly distinct areas of psychological investigation: cognition and personality” (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 1997: 701). Riding and Cheema (1991) suggested that learners differ in terms of two fundamental and independent dimensions of cognitive style: the wholist-analytical (WA) dimension and the verbaliser-imager (VI) dimension (Riding, 1991) – see Figure 1. These two dimensions of cognitive style may be assessed using the computer-presented *Cognitive Styles Analysis* (Riding, 1991). *Wholist-analytical dimension of cognitive style*: the wholist-analytical dimension of cognitive style describes the habitual way in which an individual processes and organizes information: some individuals will process and organize information into its component parts (described as analytics); others will retain a global or overall view of information (described as wholists) (see Riding, 1991). For wholists, there is the danger that the distinction between the parts of a topic may become blurred. For analytics, the separation of the whole into its parts may mean that one aspect of the whole may be focused on at

the expense of the others and hence its overall importance exaggerated. Very low correlations ($r = 0.05$) have been reported between the wholist-analytical dimension of cognitive style and intelligence as measured by the *British Abilities Scale* (see Riding &

Pearson, 1994: 419). The wholist-analytical dimension is derived from the work of Witkin (Witkin, Moore, Goodenough & Cox, 1977).

b) Cognitive Style Classification and Measurement

There are four characteristics of cognitive style. First, cognitive style tends to give ²⁰ attention to the form rather than content of the cognitive activity. It refers to personal and individual differences in how to feel, have, solve the problem, learn and interact with other individuals. Second, cognitive style is a penetrating dimension. Cognitive style is across the traditional boundaries classifying the human soul and used to help placing the soul to its appropriate status as a unity. Third, cognitive style is relatively constant. Forth, cognitive style is bipolar (Witkin et al, 1977).

Cognitive style has two dimensions; (1) perceiving style (such as: *sensory modality preference*, ¹³⁴ *field dependence vs. field independence*, *scanning, constricted vs. flexible control, tolerance for incongruous or unrealistic experience, strong vs. weak automatization, and conceptual vs. perceptual*, and (2) concept forming and retention style (such as: *conceptual tempo, conceptualizing style, breadth of categorizing, cognitive complexity vs. simplicity, dan laveling vs. sharpening*) (Sugiarso, 2000).

Diptoadi (1990) explains that the cognitive style can be classified on the base of the concept acceptance, structuring and retention. Therefore, there are

two categories of cognitive style. The first is concept receiving style which concerns with how the data are observed and analyzed. The second is concept forming/organizing and retention style which concerns with hypothesis raising, problem solving and memorization process. Whereas, Schmeck (1987), states that cognitive style of a person is positioned on the two opposite sides such as ²⁰ *field dependent vs field independent, holist vs serialist, and global vs analytic*. In this case, although a person is on the one of the positions, but the level is different.

Based on the dimension of the cognitive style being examined, some measurement had been developed with the aim at measuring the level or the dimension of the certain cognitive style. Kogan (1972), developed cognitive style measurement using a kind of instrument called Matching Familiar Figures. Witkin, et al (1971) developed also an instrument called ¹²⁷ *Group Embedded Figure Test* (GEFT), and Keefe, et al. (1987) under the license of ¹²⁷ *National Association of Secondary School Principals* (NASSP), developed instrument to measure the cognitive style called *Learning Style Profile* (LSP). LSP instrument was aimed at measuring the learning style on the three domain; cognitive, affective, and psychomotor.

As has been reviewed above that there has been many instruments discussed, investigated and developed by scholars concerning with the effect of using instruction method on learning achievement. From many cognitive styles that have been examined by the education scholars, ¹¹ *Field Dependent and Field Independent Cognitive Style* are the cognitive style classification

given more serious attention by them (Diptoadi, 1990). Classifying ¹¹ cognitive style into Field Dependent and Field Independent is meant categorizing by measurement of cognitive dimension in observing and analyzing. In other words, examining ¹⁶⁸ cognitive style through Field Independent and Field Dependent are related with a type of a person in observing, receiving and processing information. This research concerns with this very cognitive style type.

⁵⁹ c) Characteristic of Field Dependent-Field Independent Cognitive Style

Field Dependent Cognitive Style and *Field Independent Cognitive Style* as the kinds of perceiving concept cognitive dimension were first introduced by Witkin et al. in around 1954s. Those two kinds of cognitive styles got a more serious attention than other cognitive styles. It is because of; (1) it involves the broad and real dimension in real life, (2) the available valid and reliable measurement/instrument and (3) the availability of adequate theoretical framework integrated from some psychological theories (Diptoadi, 1990). Initially, classifying cognitive style into ¹⁸⁰ *Field Dependent Cognitive Style* and *Field Independent Cognitive Style* were tested by Witkin et, al (1971) by using ¹⁴⁵ *Rod of Frame Test (RFT)*, *Body Adjusted Test (BAT)*, *Embedded Figure Test (EFT)* and finally using ¹⁴⁴ *Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT)*.

According to Witkin, et al. (1971) FI cognitive style is a cognitive style owned by a person with the indication of the ability to view, arrange and assimilate information independently or free from the surrounding context. That style is also named “*analytical approach*”. On the contrary, FD cognitive style is a kind of style owned by a person with the indication of the great influence of the surrounding context on him. A person having FD cognitive style usually gets the difficulty to separate a concept or a perception from the surrounding context. It will result in the unclear and unassimilated information receiving. FD learner tends to view a concept or a problem as a whole (*global approach*). Diptoadi (1990) verifies that FD learner will face a problem as a confusing whole, without seeing the component inside that can be used to help solving the problem more quickly.

The learner having *Field Independent Cognitive Style* (FI) treats information and perception as an independent part of his environment/surrounding, whereas the learner having *Field Dependent Cognitive Style* (FD) treats information and perception as a whole and not separated from his environment/the surrounding.

The concept of ³⁵ *Field Independent Cognitive Style* (FI) and *Field Dependent Cognitive Style* (FD) contains gestalt/global-analytic element. *Field Dependent Learner* (FD) thinks/views/sees a problem/a topic/an object as something as a whole, whereas *Field Independent Learner* (FI) thinks/views/sees a problem/a topic/an object as something free and separated from its environment or surrounding and this object/problem/topic is treated as a part of the whole. (Witkin et al, 1977; Diptoadi,

1990). As analytic learners FI students are rule-formers. They are more accurate than fluent. Analytic learners tend to analyze words and phrases before stringing them together into meaningful utterances. On the other hand, Gestalt or FD learners are data-gatherers. They are more fluent than accurate. Gestalt learners tend to take a holistic approach, take risks (Salvisberg, 2005).

The different characteristics of the FD and FI can also be examined from some other aspects. Based on gender, ³³ males tend to have Field Independent Cognitive Style, whereas females tend to have Field Dependent Cognitive Style. On the job side, FI person likes activity involving cognitive skill, articulation competency, analytical and structural activity. Whereas, FD person likes activity concerning with human relationship in a real life (Witkin, Cross, 1976; Slavin, 1994; Stone, 1976).

Field Independent learner has a tendency to restructure the environment/context given with the dominant organization and the field dependent learner has a tendency to follow the environment or the context given. FI learner lacks of social orientation and social modality compared with FD learner. FI learner prefers physical subjects. In contrast FD prefers social and linguistic. FI learner is likely to be individualistic, not cooperative, but FD learner is likely to be cooperative and easy to learn in group with other learners.

¹⁷⁹
c. The Role of Cognitive Style in Language Learning (Theories and Some Research Findings)
¹⁰³

In the area of second/foreign language acquisition , cognitive style has received great attention. It was started by Naiman et al.'s research (in Freeman and Long, 1991) through his study about the correlation between SL (second language) achievement and cognitive style. They administered the Hidden Figure Test in which subjects are instructed to find simple geometric figures within complex designs. The perceptual challenge the subjects faces is to be able to break up the visual field and keep part of it separate. This challenge is hypothesized to be analogous to a person learning an SL who has to isolate an element from the context in which it is presented. People are termed field dependent if they are unable to abstract an element from its context, or background field. In support of their hypothesis, Naiman et al. Found that field independent twelfth- grade students scored higher on imitation and listening comprehension tasks than did subjects who were field dependent.

Tucker, Hamayan and Genesse (in Freeman and Long, 1991) also reported that a trait factor which included field independence significantly predicted the French scores of Anglophone seven grade students on standardized achievement test. By contrast Bialystock and Frochlich (in Freeman and Lon, 1991) attributed a very minor role to field independence. However, this test involves only reading comprehension which might account for discrepancy.

Hansen and Stanfield (in Freeman and Long, 1991) administered a different measure of field independence/field dependence, the Group Embedded Figures Test, to 293 college students enrolled in a first-semester

Spanish course. They then correlated scores on this test with scores on linguistic, integrative (i.e. a cloze test) and communicative measure. All of the correlations were positive and significant.

Chapelle and Robert's (in Freeman and Long, 1991) study investigates field independence by having their 61 subjects taking the GEFT (Group Embedded Figure Test). The language proficiency ratings collected at the beginning and the end of the semester both correlated significantly with field independent, the latter rating being particularly strong.

Thus, most of the available evidence offers support ³⁹ for a relationship between field independence and second language learnign success. One disturbing consequence of the relationship is that both emphaty and field independence have been linked with second language success, but the former is usually thought to be something a field dependent person is more likely to exhibit. H.D Brown (in Freeman ad Long, 1991) offers an explanation that we have evoked before to explain other such conflicts. Brown suggests that field independence may be important to classroom learning and to performance on paper – and – pencil tests; however, when it comes to untutored SLA, field dependence may be more beneficial because successful SLA will be determined by how well the learner can communicate with speakers of the TL (target language), and emphaty will help in this regard. It is interesting to note that of their three measures of language proficiency, Hansen and Stanfield (in Freeman and Long, 1991) found the weakest link between field independence and communicative competence.

Saracho's (in Freeman and Long, 1991) inventory of relevant characteristics for field independent and dependent learner would seem to add farther support for Brown's claim. Saracho identifies field dependent individual as being ⁸⁵ strongly interested in people; they get closer to the person with whom they are interacting and have a sensitivity to others. ¹⁸⁵ Field independent individuals ¹⁴³ on the other hand, are oriented toward active striving, appear to be colder and more distant, and have strong analytic skills.

³ The two orthogonal dimensions of cognitive style have been shown to affect learning performance in two ways. The verbal-imagery dimension of cognitive style interacts with mode of presentation of information (for example textual/verbal or diagrammatic/pictorial modes), see Riding, Buckle, Thompson and Haggard (1989) and Riding and Douglas, (1993). It could therefore be anticipated that verbalisers may prefer textual modes of presentation whilst imagers may prefer non-textual modes (for example pictorial and diagrammatic information).

Previous work has suggested that the verbal – imagery dimension of cognitive style is related to extroversion-introversion (Riding & Dyer, 1980). Riding (1994) has suggested that cognitive styles influence the focus and type of an individual's activity. For verbalisers the focus will tend to be outward towards others; they will prefer a stimulating environment and the social group in which they find themselves will be an extension of themselves (Riding, 1994: 49). For imagers it is suggested that the reverse will be the case: the focus will be more inward and they will be more passive and content with a static environment. Social groups will be seen as distant to themselves and they may be less socially aware (Riding, 1994: 49).

The wholist-analytic dimension of cognitive style interacts with the structure and organization of the contents of instruction, for example when information is presented in wholes or in parts, or with or without a content map (Riding & Sadler-Smith, 1992). Riding (1994: 10) suggests that analytics will take a structured approach to learning and will prefer information that is set out in a clearly organised way. They may impose order on information, events and experiences which are not inherently structured, or may attempt to do so in situations where structuring is inappropriate (for example in a 'brainstorming' exercise). Wholists on the other hand will not habitually take a structured approach and may therefore need help in imposing a structure on some unstructured situations or experiences. These aspects of the wholist-analytical dimension of cognitive style may affect preferences for different types of instructional methods (for example role play versus distance learning) and instructional media (for example text versus video) and learning performance. Riding (1991) has suggested that the wholist-analytical dimensions of style will affect social behavior; wholists will tend to be dependent and gregarious whilst analytics will tend to be isolated and self-reliant. Hence, it may be expected that different instructional methods with their varying degrees of social interaction and autonomy would be viewed more or less favorably by different cognitive style groups.

Chapter 4

Argumentative Composition Writing

A. Argumentative Composition in Academic Setting

In the academic purpose, writing skill is an obligation that students must meet in college. Through writing students should assimilate a specific body of knowledge and demonstrate the familiarity with the knowledge in a written form. Performing a scholarly writing, e.g. abbreviated essay, term paper, report on research is repeatedly required by the college students (Hoggins and Lillard, 1972:5). The purpose of academic writing is usually to explain or to persuade.

The purpose of a piece of writing will determine its rhetorical form (Oshima and Hogue, 1991:15).

Smith (1995) argues that to make writing good reading, a writer must pay attention to rhetoric, a verbal means of seeking agreement with readers. Therefore, the writing should be carefully planned, thoughtfully finished, revised, and edited. To achieve this goal, a writing should have good rhetorical features and linguistics features. In writing, rhetoric is implemented in terms of ⁷⁴ analysis, description, classification, exemplification, definition, comparison, contrast, analogy, narration, process, cause and effect, induction and deduction. The linguistic features concern with the word choice, thematization, hedging, and sentence complexity (Harjanto, 1999).

Writing for an academic purpose particularly will concern with three formal characteristics: audience, tone, and purpose. The writer of an academic writing should consider the audience, that is, the people who will read the article. Knowing the audience will help the writer reach his ¹ goal of communicating clearly and effectively. Tone of writing reveals the writer's attitude toward the subject by the choice of words, the choice of grammatical structure, and the length of the sentences. In addition, the purpose of a piece of writing will determine the rhetorical form ---the organizational form and style chosen for it. No matter what kind of writing is, specific and clear purpose should appear (Oshima and Hogue, 1991:2-3).

The matters of writing to be taught have turned to be the focus of interest. The current ¹⁶⁷ approach to the teaching of writing focuses on what goes

on when a learner writes and what the teacher could do to help a learner get into the natural process of writing. Oshima and Hogue (1991) argue that process of writing consists of a series of drafts. The writing process consists of four main strategies: ⁶¹ prewriting, planning, writing and revising drafts, and writing for a final copy.

When writing a writer does not begin working by thinking of all ideas they want to put down, organize them, then write them out, then reread, and finally edit the text. Planning, drafting, and revising usually all take place throughout the process of writing (Caudery, 1995). Skilled writers pose themselves questions about audience and purpose, while unskilled writers tend to simply respond to the topic. Moreover, experienced writers tend to use draft, make substantial changes, and much more concerned to take account of the responses of a hypothetical reader. Conversely, inexperienced writers are much more concerned with detail, e.g. to change the word choice or to correct only surface errors of grammar and punctuation (Flower and Hayes, 1986; Sommers, 1980).

This section deals with parts of good argumentative composition in academic setting as used in the standard college writing. Two kinds of discussion are presented supporting the theories. The first part concerns with characteristics of a good paragraph, illustrating a standard theory of writing. Based upon the theory of paragraph, discussion on an essay development and its characteristics is employed. The second part deals with college academic

writing. It goes with strategies to developing preliminary draft to the final copy of an essay.

1. Characteristic of A Good Paragraph in Academic Argumentative Writing

Paragraph theories used in this study refers to definitions of paragraph proposed by Smalley and Reutten (1982), Oshima and Hogue (1991), Wingersky, Boerner, and Holguin-Balogh (1992). Parts of paragraph elements that indicate characteristics of a good paragraph are based upon the theories.

⁶ A paragraph is defined as a group of sentences that develops one main idea (Oshima and Hogue, 1991). A paragraph develops a topic, that is, the basic subject of the paragraph. In written form, a paragraph distinguishes one main idea from other main ideas. A good paragraph contains several related sentences that support one main idea, which is limited to and focused in one sentence. This sentence helps guide readers through the related ⁵² sentences in the paragraph. The vital sentence serves as a commitment for the writer to provide an explanation or illustration of this main idea (Smalley and Reutten, 1982; Wingersky, Boerner, and Holguin-Balogh, 1992).

A paragraph may vary in length. ¹ Most paragraphs have more than three sentences and usually have between 100 and 200 words. The first sentence of a paragraph is always indented so that the reader will know that a new subject is being dealt with (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1981:2).

In addition to parts of a paragraph, Oshima and Hogue (1991) state that a paragraph ¹ has three major structural parts: a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence. ¹⁶⁶ A topic sentence states the main idea of

65 the paragraph. It briefly indicates what the paragraph is going to discuss. The topic sentence states a 1 topic of the paragraph and limits the topic to one or two areas that can be discussed completely in the space of a single paragraph. The specific area is called the controlling idea. To say in other words, the topic sentence functions to introduce the 76 topic and the controlling idea of the paragraph. Generally, because the topic sentence introduces, it is a good idea to place it at or near the beginning of the paragraph. However, depending on the kind of paragraph it is in, the 133 topic sentence may be placed near the middle or even at the end of the paragraph (Smalley and Reutten, 1982).

Supporting sentences develop the topic sentence. They explain the topic sentence by giving reasons, examples, facts, statistics, details, and quotations. The supporting sentences are arranged in a logical and cohesive manner. The concluding sentence signals the end of the paragraph and leaves the reader with important points to remember (Arnaudet and Barret, 1982; Oshima and Hogue, 1991).

In addition to the three structural parts of a paragraph, a good paragraph also has the elements of unity and coherence (Smalley and Ruetten, 1982; Oshima and Hogue, 1991). 8 Unity means that a paragraph discusses only one idea. The main idea is stated in the topic sentence, and then each and every supporting sentence develops that idea. 1 Each sentence in a paragraph should relate to the topic and develop the controlling idea (Oshima and Hogue, 1991). 1 If a sentence does not relate to or develop that idea, it is irrelevant and should be omitted. 1 A paragraph that has sentences that do not

relate to or discuss the controlling idea lacks unity (Smalley and Reutten, 1982).

Another element that a paragraph needs is coherence (Smalley and Reutten, 1982 ; Oshima and Hogue, 1991). A coherent paragraph contains sentences that are logically arranged and flow smoothly. Logical arrangement refers to the order of sentences and ideas. Smooth flow refers to how well one idea or sentence leads into another. Smooth flow can be achieved through sentence combining and through the use of certain expressions, called transitions, that provide the links between ideas. In other words, a coherence paragraph is easy to read and understand because the supporting sentences in the paragraph are in some kind of logical order and the ideas are connected by the use of appropriate transition signals.

In order to have coherence in writing, the movement from one sentence to the next must be logical and smooth. There are four ways to achieve coherence. The first two ways involve repeating key nouns and using pronouns, which refer back to key nouns. The third way is to use transition signals to show how one idea is related to the next. The fourth way is to arrange sentences in logical order (Oshima and Hogue, 1991:39).

2. Standard of Argumentative Composition in Academic Setting

In any given age, there is always an implied standard writing that exerts more influence on how to write. As for general reference, Hairston (1981:201-202) suggests that topics and theses of college writing vary on the basis of length of paper from 3 to 30 pages, typed in a double-space quarto paper. A very short paper has 3 to 5 pages. If read aloud, it would take no more than 10 minutes. A fairly short paper has 8 to 10 pages or contains around 2,000 to 2,500 words or about as long as a 20 to 25 minute talk. A moderate length paper comprising 18 to 20 pages allows the writer to treat a limited topic in some depth and complexity. Few papers consist of 30 plus pages to discuss research topic.

No matter the writing is produced, it should fill the characteristics of a good standard writing (Winkler and McCuen, 1974). In college writing the standard short essay is between 350 and 500 words long. This usually means that the essay will have one paragraph of introduction, a three-paragraph body, and one paragraph of conclusion (Kirszner and Mandell, 1978:3).

²⁸ The essay is a more formal composition. The paragraphs in an essay each have a designated function as introduction, the developmental paragraphs, and the conclusion. How many paragraphs an essay contains depends entirely on the complexity of the topic; some essays have only two to three paragraphs, while others have twenty or thirty. For most purposes, the essays written in class for most college ²⁸ English courses contain from four to six ²⁸ paragraphs, with the most common number being five: one introductory

paragraph, three developmental paragraphs, and one concluding paragraph (Smalley and Ruetten, 1982:139).

The introduction is the first section of an essay. The introduction is usually one paragraph that introduces the topic to be discussed and the central idea (the thesis statement) of the essay (Smalley and Rutten, 1982). The purpose of the introduction is to arouse interest and introduce the controlling idea of an essay. Besides stimulating the reader's interest, the introduction has a structural purpose: it should state the essay's main idea and thesis statement. This thesis statement is called the controlling idea that brings an essay into focus, giving it direction and drawing its ideas together (Kirszner and Mandell, 1978:5).

The body paragraphs are the longest single section of an essay. In a short essay, there are usually three body paragraphs, each one considering in detail one aspect of the essay's controlling idea. This is called a three-point essay. Once a topic sentence presents the point to be discussed in the body paragraph, the writer needs details and facts to support it (Kirszner and Mandell, 1978:6). These paragraphs develop various aspects of the topic and the central idea. They may discuss causes, effects, reasons, examples, process, classification, or points of comparison and contrast. They may also describe or narrate (Smalley and Ruetten, 1982:139).

B. Argumentative Composition as One of Modes of Writing

Learning to write is not just a “natural” extension of learning to speak a language. We learned to speak our first language at home without systematic instruction, whereas most of us had to be taught in school how to write that same language. Many adult native speakers of a language find writing difficult. The two processes, speaking and writing, are not identical.

Raimes (1983:4-5) states that ¹ some of the differences between writing and speaking are as follows: Speech is universal; everyone acquires a native language in the first few years of life. Not everyone learns to read and write. The spoken language has dialect variations. The written language generally demands standard forms of grammar, syntax, and vocabulary. Speakers use their voices (pitch, stress, and rhythm) and bodies (gestures and facial expressions) to help convey their ideas. Writers have to rely on the words on the page to express their meaning.

Raimes (1983) identifies the different focus between writing and speaking as follows. First, ¹ speakers use pauses and intonation. Writers use punctuation. Second, speakers pronounce. Writers spell. Third, speaking is ¹ usually spontaneous and unplanned. Most writing takes times. It is planned. We can go back and change what we have written. Fourth, a speaker speaks to a listener who is right there, nodding or frowning, interrupting or questioning. For the writer, the reader’s response is either delayed or nonexistent. The writer has only that one chance to convey information and be interesting and accurate enough to hold the reader’s attention. Fifth, speech is usually informal and repetitive.

Writing is perhaps one of the most demanding skills. It has to be deliberately cultivated. Unlike listening and speaking, it is not something which is natural to humans –it is a skill which has been developed in civilized society to pass on

knowledge or messages beyond the constraints of here and now (Nagaraj, 1996:134). All writing aims at clear and efficient communication. But what goes into clear and efficient communication? Anne Raimes (1983:6) diagrammatically represented in Figure 2.5.

Generally good writers can use the language well and correctly. Besides that, since they often have business by using the language, they are also good observer to the language. Those are done in order that their writings are appropriate with development of real situation. Thus, have they never make mistakes/errors? Certainly they have. But normally they have only a little mistakes/errors, and usually they can correct themselves at the editing process.

Connor and Lauren (1988) assert that a four-component model of discourse dominated rhetoric: description, narration, argumentation, and exposition. Persuasion is another mode that is popular. Of the five general modes of writing: narration, description, exposition, persuasion, and argumentation, writing curriculum in Indonesian colleges insert persuasion in the argumentation.

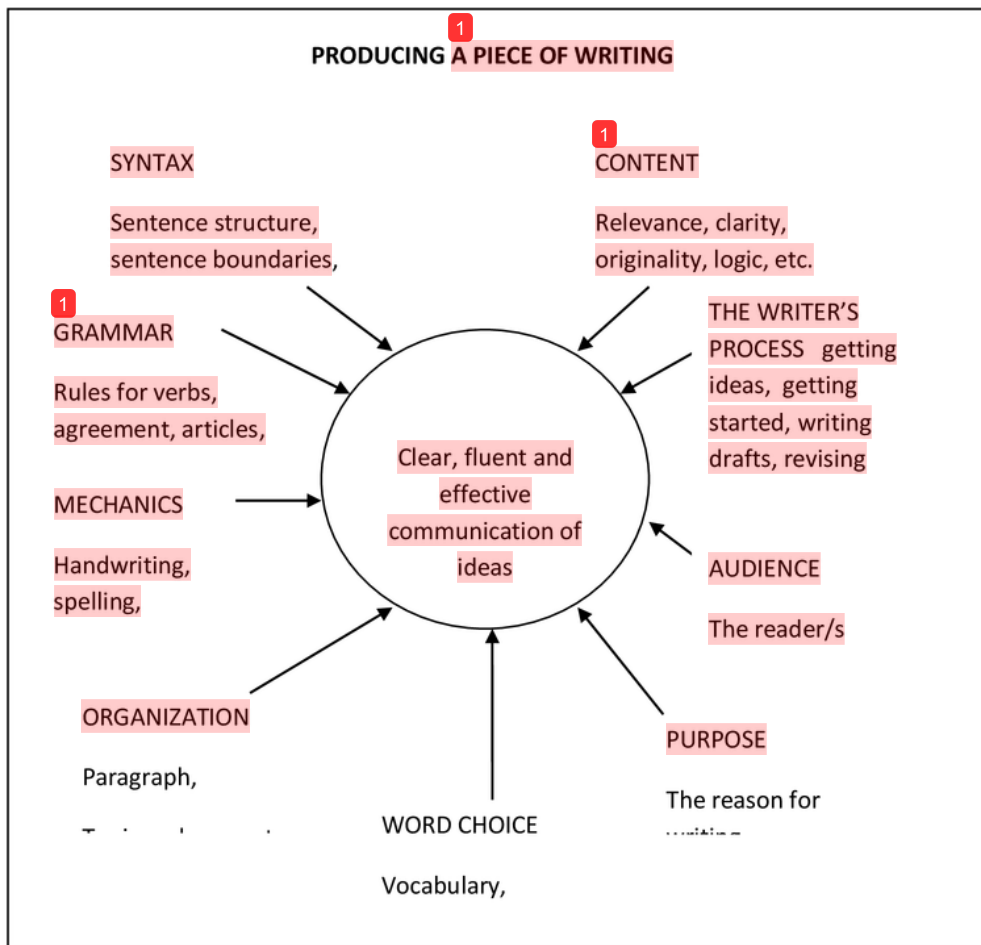


Figure 2. 5 Producing A Piece of Writing (Anne Raimers. 1983:6)

English rhetoric is colored with linear pattern. A good English paragraph begins with a general statement of its content and the statement is developed with a series of specific illustrations. A good English paragraph may use the reverse sequence, stating a whole series of examples and summarizing those examples in a single statement at the end of the paragraph. The flow of ideas occurs in a straight line from the opening sentence to the last sentence.

Furthermore, a well-structured English paragraph is never digressive. Every sentence in the paragraph supports the topic sentence (Oshima and Huges, 1991).

The mode of academic writing is mostly determined by its purpose, subject matter, and readers. Two most specific differences present in their discourse structure and the discourse strategy. The discourse structure indicates the knowledge of how to use language in the essay. The discourse strategy suggests the writing style, the way a writer develops his thoughts in words.

The academic discourse mode is mainly colored with exposition and argumentation. These two modes of discourse are very important in variety of academic writing tasks. Through exposition and argumentation modes, the writer can present a position, belief, or conclusion in a strong, emphatic, and rational way; defends a position against critics; persuades people to take certain actions, or attacks a position or an opposing viewpoint (Latief, 1991:8).

1. Narration

Narration mode is used to tell a story. It is probably the most familiar to the early elementary students. Narration orders the details based on time or chronologic. Inman and Gardner (1979:70) state that the details of narration are the details of actions, and it tells about what happened. Narration presents life in motion. Narration is the telling of a story, either fictional or real, whose subject is an incident or a series of related incidents. In addition, every action or series of actions happen in a specific setting to specific people. Therefore,

narration includes description of places, people, and actions. The emphasis of narration is on the action, on telling the true story of what happened or perceived. Every series of event happens also over a specific time, begins at a specific time, ends at another time, and moves between them.

The purpose of narration is to suggest an attitude or idea. For this purpose, diction in narration should be as specific and image-producing. The diction requires a different set of transitional expression to make clear relationships of actions in time. The simplest way to arrange details in time is chronological order, to list the order in which they occur, from beginning to the end, from action 1 to action 2, 3, 4, and 5. Other way to arrange the events is through most striking scene, that is the events show flash back to earlier happening, and then go on to the end.

2. Description

Description orders details in space. In writing, the descriptive mode is useful to appeal reader's senses: sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch. When we describe an object, a person, or a scene, we should consider the general description, the details, the process from the details to the details. Inman and Gardner (1979:47) suggest three things to consider in describing: the shape of the subject, the position from which we are viewing the subject, and the purpose to viewing the subject.

The simple way of description is using specified point of vision: bottom up to top or top to bottom, horizontal right-to-left or left-to-right, far to near or

near to far, and clockwise or counterclockwise. Another way of description is the moving point of vision. It is useful to describe a very large or complex object. The details of a description can also be arranged for emphasis.

3. Exposition

Exposition tries to clarify facts, opinions, and ideas. The expository article does not rely on the inductive and deductive reasoning but on authority or the credibility of the writer. An expository or analytical essay is an essay that explains or analyzes a topic. In exposition, the writer provides information about a particular subject to use specific details or examples to discuss the topic. The purpose of an expository essay is to clarify facts, opinions, and ideas. A writer of exposition tries to explain the logical relationships between things that exist or can be proved to have existed (Inman and Gardner, 1979:96).

The expository essay relies on the authority, or ethos, the credibility of the writer. The writer assigns authority, the report, and concentrates on exposing the information. He attempts to answer the question of definition "what is it?" (Guinn and Marder, 1987). The methods of development in exposition include (1) giving examples, (2) supplying reasons, (3) explaining a process, (4) comparing or contrasting, (5) defining, and (6) dividing and classifying (Langan, 1986:111).

Expositions are based on the part-whole relationship, on similarity and difference, and on the specific-general or less general-more general relationship

that depends on similarity and difference. Types of exposition are exemplification, analysis (of entities, classes, processes, and sequences), comparison, and definition (Inman and Gardner, 1979:96).

As an argumentation mode, an expository essay has a beginning, body, and closing. The core statement of an expository essay is a topic sentence. The introduction of an expository essay contains information that attracts the readers by appealing to some basic human desire or sense of wonder. The paragraphs of the body contain information, which is developed to fulfill the promise of the topic. The closing emphasizes the significance of the information and the ideas it suggests (Harjanto, 1999:63-64).

4. Argumentation

An argumentation focuses on an issue and establishes the controversial nature of the topic. An argumentative essay is one that attempts to change the reader's mind, to convince the reader to agree with the point of view or opinion of the writer. ¹⁶⁵ The purpose of argumentative essay is to convince the reader that the writer's position is the better one. An argumentative essay attempts to be highly persuasive and logical. The argumentative thesis takes a side of an issue; frequently, it proposes a course of action (Smalley and Ruetten, 1982:320).

In an argument, the central statement answers the questions why. All formal arguments are based on logic. It focuses on an issue and establishes the controversial nature of the topic. More specifically, argumentation focuses

on the rational, logical appeal and emphasizes instruction in deductive and inductive reasoning (Connor, 1996:31).

In analyzing an argumentative essay, Hogins and Lillard (1972:186-187) assert that an argumentative essay may be organized into three sections: an introductory section, a middle section, and a final section. An introductory section outlines the general controversy. It shows that the topic can be rationally argued, states the primary issues, judges their relative importance, and explains how the writer has organized the rest of the essay. A middle section presents the primary issues one by one in the most efficient order, summarizes the best argument on each side impartially, and offers descriptive commentary when needed but marking no judgments or evaluation. A final section states and defends a conclusion on the issues and the writer's position on the larger controversy.

In addition, Smalley and Ruetten (1982:323-324) illustrate five characteristics of an argumentative essay. The argumentative essay should introduce and explain the issue or case. The essay should offer reasons and support for those reasons. The essay should refute opposing arguments. The conclusion should follow the argument.

There is no one particular pattern of organization for an argumentative essay. However, there is a basic workable approach that is commonly used. In the basic approach proposed by Smalley and Ruetten (1982:335), four steps of organization of argumentative essay are mentioned: introduction, reasons, refutation, and conclusion.

C. Argumentative Composition Features

The discussion of argumentative composition features in this part includes linguistic features: syntax, grammar, vocabulary, mechanic and rhetoric features.

1. Linguistic Features of Argumentative Composition

Argumentative writing in academic setting requires a special kind of writing based on objectivity, neutrality, and observation. Objectivity means that anyone using the same methodology and the same data should have a reasonable expectation of coming to the same conclusions. Inferences drawn from the data must be clearly shown along with the data. Neutrality requires a writer to consider all relevant data and to be willing to modify or reject her or his thesis if it proves insupportable. Data of argumentative writing in academic setting are gathered through observation and used to construct a thesis. Consequently, the academic writing is primarily denotative and factual (Winkler and McCuen, 1974:295).

In terms of language, the writer should have her or his own style, a set of characteristics generally found in an author's writing. The style is manifested in the use of three most important elements of formal writing: tone, sentence structure, and diction (Hogins and Lillard, 1972:16).

Tone reveals the writer's attitude towards her or his subject by the choice of words, choice of grammatical structures, and even by the length of sentences. An academic paper would contain more passive verb forms and technical vocabulary. It should have a highly formal, impersonal tone (Oshima and Hogue, 1991:2).

Sentence structures indicate the preference of the writer in using certain types of sentence. In the academic writing, its sentence structure is generally long and complex; it does not restrict itself to a simple vocabulary. It avoids slang and contractions and the use of grammar that are generally ignored (Hogins and Lillard, 1972:16).

Sentence length and sentence type are also factors that determine the level and the appeal of argumentative writing. Sentence length refers to the number of words per sentence; sentence type refers to the structure of the sentence, i.e. simple, compound, complex. Generally, short, simple sentences are easier to understand than longer ones. However, long and complex words are sometimes associated with important and sophisticated material. Sometimes such words are necessary to convey a precise meaning to a specific audience (Carosso and Standford, 1983:92-93). In addition, formal writing generally inserts the relative pronouns (that, which, whom) that are almost always omitted in speech (Hogins and Lillard, 1972:16).

Another important element of argumentative writing is the diction, kind of words used. In the way that certain styles are inappropriate in certain situations, individual words have their appropriate use (Hogins and Lillard,

1972:16). In all writing, direct and unambiguous vocabulary is most effective. For general audiences, straightforward and clear words are best (Carosso and Standford, 1983:92).

In sum, good argumentative writing requires good grammar and good organization. The language use of academic writing is formal. Information and ideas in the academic writing are expressed in a formal language with a certain type or rhetoric. The grammatical features of academic writing must fulfill a rhetorical function such as verbal complementation, nominalization, use of definite and indefinite articles, relative clauses, tenses, subject-verb number agreement, and ¹¹⁴ cohesive devices such as lexical repetition, referential pronouns, conjunctions, synonyms and substituted phrases (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). The use of proper sentence structure, precise vocabulary, and proper rhetoric helps the reader identify proposition in the text more readily (Richards, 1992:103).

The language of argumentative writing in academic setting uses specialized symbols that illustrate features of vocabulary, grammar, and rhetoric. The statement is described accurately. The use of proper sentence structure, precise vocabulary, and proper rhetoric helps the reader identify proposition in the text more readily (Richards, 1992:103).

The proficiency of the linguistic features in argumentative writing for a learner is obvious and it indicates how well the writer is able to develop good ideas and good grammar. Conversely, immature demonstration of linguistics in the writing will

produce awkward sentences and poor writing. The linguistics features in writing include four types: syntax, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics.

a) Syntax

Syntax is defined as the ways in which words are put together to form phrases, clauses, and sentences. The syntactical features in writing refer to types of sentence construction: simple, compound, complex, or compound complex sentences. The description of the syntactical features follows Latief's (1990:9) arguments.

A simple sentence does not have any embedding or conjoining. Example is: "Our father is coming to our home tonight." A compound sentence is a sentence connected to another sentence by using coordinate conjunction, such as: and, or, but. Example is: "We have to do our work, and then we have to go." A complex sentence is a sentence with sub-clause embedded to the main-clause. Example is: "She told us that we have to go now." A compound-complex sentence has both conjoining and embedding. Example is: "If you want to ask me for my advice about your plan, you can either talk to me on the phone or you can send me a letter."

b) Grammar

Grammar in writing is defined as the ways in which the writer handles basic rules of writing, such as parallelism, pronoun reference, double negatives. The grammatical features in writing refer to the use of grammatical errors in a sentence

that include awkward construction and agreement errors (Latief, 1990:9). Specifically, grammatical errors cover: agreement, tenses, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions, and other parts of speech (Latief, 1990:15).

c) Vocabulary

Vocabulary in writing refers to the word choice used to express ideas appropriately. The vocabulary includes: sufficient arrangement and variation, effective word or idiom choice and usage, correct form of word form mastery, e.g. accurate prefixes, compound words, word classes, and appropriate register.

d) Mechanics

Mechanics in writing refers to ways the writer handles basic convention of writing, such as punctuation, spelling, and capitalization. The mechanical errors include punctuation errors, spelling errors, capitalization errors, paragraphing, and handwriting.

2. Rhetoric Features Argumentative Composition

In the area of writing, rhetoric is the basic principle of rhetorical mode of a discourse in writing. The selection of the rhetorical mode typically focuses on how to express oneself correctly and effectively in relation to the topic of writing

or speech, the audience, and the purpose of communication (Richards, Plat, and Plat, 1992:316).

Rhetoric as the art of good writing is the standard of a straightforward and clear style of writing. To achieve a good rhetoric, a writer needs to know the proper subject, interest in his or her writing, and acceptable modes of packaging what he or she wants to say. The packaging is the rhetoric. The right wrapping can usually compensate for poor content, but even solid content can be weakened by a dated or inappropriate style (Connor, 1996).

Oshima and Hogue (1991:30) assert that the basic term of rhetoric is logic. The logic comes from culture and ¹¹³ it is not universal. Therefore, rhetoric is not universal, but varies from culture to culture. The rhetorical system of one language is neither better nor worse than the rhetorical system of another language, but it is different.

Mode of writing refers to Kaplan's (1966) model of contrastive rhetoric used to analyze the organization of paragraph in ESL student essays. He identified five types of paragraph development for five groups: linear, parallel, indirect, digressive, and zigzag.

In addition, the knowledge of coherence and unity is also worth for the writer to develop straightforward sentences. Linearity of ideas that support topic sentence will be kept smoothly. As a result, if the writer is willing to develop an essay, the knowledge of the mode is helpful to create.

Conversely, imperfect mastery on rhetorical mode of a discourse will affect awkward essay. Typically, the writer will produce ideas that are not

linear that do not reflect standardized English academic writing. The development of ideas in the supporting sentences in each paragraph or the developing paragraphs is not well-organized.

Writing, however, is not a matter of mastery of mode or grammar. In some aspects, writing is teachable; one that can be taught in the classroom and learned gradually. In other aspect, writing needs practices. The more practices a writer is doing, the better the writer will achieve the writing ability.

Brown (2002) proposes that rhetoric features of a writing includes three aspects, they are content, organization and discourse. The first aspect, that is content, includes

- a. ²¹ thesis statement
- b. related ideas
- c. development of ideas through personal experience, illustration, facts, opinion
- d. use of description, cause-effect, comparison/contrast
- e. consistent focus

Whereas the second, organization includes;

- a. ²¹ effectiveness of introduction
- b. logical sequence of ideas
- c. conclusion
- d. appropriate length

and the last, discourse includes;

- a. topic sentence

- b. paragraph unity
- c. transitions
- d. discourse markers
- e. cohesion
- f. rhetorical convention
- g. reference
- h. fluency
- i. economy
- j. variation

Meanwhile, Budiharso (2001) asserts that rhetoric features of a writing will also include coherence and the development of the ideas. Coherence in writing refers to the sense of wholeness or interconnectedness among sentences and ideas within a paragraph or among the paragraphs within any piece of connected discourse (Latief, 1990:66). The sense of wholeness requires that an essay develops a unified idea, a major topic idea supported by all the rest of minor topic ideas in the essay. An essay which develops two or more separate ideas, or has ideas irrelevant to the major topic idea, does not have sense of wholeness.

In addition, the sense of interconnectedness requires that all sentences and paragraphs are interconnected well. For example, the ideas flow smoothly from one sentence to the next sentence and from one paragraph to the next paragraph (Latief, 1990:67).

Coherence means holding together; the movement from one sentence to the next or from one paragraph to the next must be logical and smooth.

Coherence is evaluated based on the semantic relationships. Therefore, coherence provides sequence of words and sentences in a paragraph and among paragraphs in the whole essay, showing clear relationships and development of ideas within and between units in the essay. Sentences in a paragraph and in the whole essay must be held together by more than sequence on the page.

To achieve a coherent discourse, a writer must formulate his ideas using appropriate words and syntactic structures in good order into sentences and sentences into paragraphs so that they relate reasoned and logical thought within and between units in the essay. Similar to the ways coherence is achieved in a paragraph, in an essay level, coherence is achieved using four techniques: transitional words and phrases, pronoun reference, repeated key terms, and parallelism (Winkler, AC and McCuen JR, 1974; Oshima and Hogue, 1991).

Application of coherence in a discourse asserts two competing theories (Connor, 1996). Considering Connor (1996) and Oshima and Hogue (1991), this study uses two definitions of coherence. The first definition admits that coherence refers to the interaction between the readers with the text. The second definition focuses coherence on the text itself, describing how semantic relationships of sentences between units serve logical sequences.

One promising attempt to describe coherence in a text is topical structure analysis, 91 focusing on semantic relationships that exist between sentence topics and the overall discourse topic. Topical structure analysis

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examines how topics repeat, shift, and return to earlier topics in discourse.

Coherence in texts can be identified using three kinds of progression: parallel progression, sequential progression, and extended parallel progression. In the parallel progression, topics of successive sentences are the same. Topics of successive sentences in the sequential progression are always different, as the comment of one sentence becomes the topic of the next. In addition, in the extended parallel progression, the first and the last topics of a text are the same but are interrupted with some sequential progression (Connor, 1996:85).

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Besides coherence, evaluation on the unity of a text is also based on cohesion. Connor (1996:83) defines cohesion as the use of explicit linguistic devices to signal relations between sentences and parts of texts. Cohesive devices are words or phrases that act as signals to the reader making connections with what had already been stated or soon will be stated. Cohesion is determined by lexical and grammatical relationship. Five general categories applicable for cohesion analysis are referential, ellipsis, substitution, lexical, and conjunctive. Following Connor (1996:84) and Budiharso (2001, 2005) this study presents five categories of cohesion in Figure 2.6.

Most studies on coherence and cohesion note that cohesive texts are not necessarily also coherent texts. Conversely, a coherent text is also cohesive, but it does not mean that coherence is created by cohesion. Connor (1996) reports two studies evaluating the relationship between coherence and cohesion. Wittee and Faigley (1981) discovered that relationship between cohesion and coherence is present in the writing of college students. However,

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Tieney and Mosenthal (1983) found no relationship between cohesion and coherence in American twelfth-grade students' essays. The following example of a text (Witte and Faigley, 1981:201) shows a cohesive text that is not coherent.

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"The quarterback threw the *ball* toward the tight end. *Balls* are used in many sports. Most *balls* are spheres, but a *football* is an ellipsoid. The tight end leaped to catch the *ball*." (Quoted from Connor, 1996:83).

Five General Categories of Cohesion

1. Reference. "John makes good meals. Last night *he* cooked spaghetti."
2. Substitution. "I want an ice cream. Do you want *one*?"
3. Ellipsis. "Which hat *1* will you wear? This (*heat*) is the best."
4. Lexical cohesion. "There's a boy climbing that tree."
 - a. The boy's going to fall if he doesn't take care.
 - b. The child's going to fall
 - c. The idiot's going to fall
5. Conjunction. "For the whole day he climbed up the steep mountainside almost without stopping *And* in all this time he met

Figure 2.6 Five General Categories of Cohesion

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The word "ball" in the above text provides the cohesion of these lines, but this cohesive passage sounds incoherent to the reader. The first sentence uses the word "ball" to indicate the topic of the text. In the next, the word "ball" appears in every sentence, but it does not support to each other. As a result,

the word “ball” is used cohesively, but each word deviates from the topic; they are not coherent.

Whereas, the development of ideas is evaluated in parts of the essay level: introduction, body, and ending. Titles of the essays are discussed preceding the paragraph levels and the controlling ideas of the essays are described sequentially in the discussion.

a) Title

A good title of academic writing is based on criteria of Oshima and Hogue (1991:19). A good title tells the reader what the topic of an essay is. It should indicate the content of the essay. The title should be accurate, informative, and as comprehensive as possible. A good title is usually a word or phrase, not a sentence. It should be brief, but not so brief that ⁶⁵ it does not tell the reader what to expect.

b) Introductory Paragraph

Characteristics of a good introductory paragraph of an academic essay used refer to criteria given by Kirsznner and Mandell (1978:64), Oshima and Hogue (1991:76), and Wingersky, Boerner, Holguin-Balogh (1992:221). The purpose of an introductory paragraph is to get the reader’s attention and to let the reader know what ¹²⁶ will be covered in the essay. An introductory paragraph consists of two parts: a few

general statements about the subject to attract the reader's attention and a thesis to state the specific subdivisions of the topic and the plan of the essay. The introduction introduces the subject matter of the essay and indicates through the controlling idea what will be discussed.

c) Body Paragraph

The major function of the body paragraphs is to support the controlling idea of an essay. The body paragraphs provide reasons, examples, or arguments that clarify, expand, or develop its implications. The controlling idea of an essay usually gives little detailed information. The support paragraphs provide the depth of discussion that a well-developed essay needs (Kirszner and Mandell, 1978:86). Each body paragraph has a topic sentence that states one aspect of the controlling idea. The detailed information in the body paragraphs enables readers to understand more clearly what the essay is trying to say.

d) Concluding Paragraph

The criteria to evaluate a concluding paragraph refer to Kirzsner and Mandell (1978:106) and Oshima and Houge (1991:76). A concluding paragraph is a summary or review of the main points discussed in the body.

The conclusion should focus reader's attention on the main points and hold that attention as effectively as the introduction does. Primarily, the conclusion should sum up, give readers a sense of completeness or finality, and perhaps help convince them. A common way of achieving these ends is to restate in other words the essay's controlling idea. Often this restatement appears in the first sentence of the conclusion.

Rhetoric pattern refers to the linearity and non-linearity patterns of ideas which are evaluated through the directness and indirectness thought patterns of an essay.

According to Kaplan (1966), Anglo-European expository essays follow a linear development. He recommends that ESL students learning to write essays in an Anglo-American style study model compositions constructed with the straight line of development thought typical of that style. A variety of exercises in which students were asked to reorganize sentences in paragraphs were also recommended.

In contrast, paragraph development in Semitic (including Arabic and Persian) languages use a series of parallel coordinate clauses. The thought patterns of Semitic language are colored with a series of parallel construction, with the first idea completed in the second part. The paragraph is written in a parallel sequence, using many coordinators, such as and, but, or, therefore.

Essays written in Oriental languages assert an indirect approach and come to the point only at the end. It is also called as "a beating around the bush structure". Circularity is widely used in this type of rhetoric. The writer

in this matter is using indirect approach that see the topic from a variety of angles. The topic is never analyzed directly; it is approached in an indirect manner.

In Romance languages and Russian, essays are permitted a degree of digressiveness and extraneous material. This development refers to thought pattern which is freedom to digress and introduces extraneous material. This rhetoric is found in Spanish language. In addition, the Slavic (Russian) argument has a clear beginning and end, but in the middle there is much material that is not relevant to the development of the argument. This type of writing can also be found in German rhetoric, where linearity is not generally followed in the paragraph development.

The proper use of mode will affect the proficiency of writing. For example, in the paragraph level, a writer will develop correct pattern and styles if he or she knows well about the typical ⁷⁶ elements of a good paragraph. The knowledge of topic sentence, controlling idea, developing sentences, and concluding sentence will help the writer organize ideas in a proper style.

Characteristics of the body paragraphs of non-linear essays are similar to the linear essays. The body paragraphs of this essay provide reasons using personal analysis to develop and support the details of the paragraphs. Similar to the linear essays –English or Indonesian— the body paragraphs of non-linear essays may have a vague thesis but have no related points to discuss as a whole in one paragraph. Additional comments irrelevant to the topic may also appear in a single paragraph within the body. Different from the body

paragraphs of linear-essays that always have a topic sentence, the body paragraphs of non-linear essays do not have either topic or controlling ideas. In other words, the body paragraphs of non-linear essays are unrelated, as each sentence in the supporting details does not match to each other; one becomes the comment of the other. The body paragraphs fail to clarify or expand the topic, because the details deviate and are unfocused.

Linearity of an essay was characterized mainly by the existence of ¹⁸⁴ an explicit thesis statement in the essay and clear supporting sentences that corresponded to the thesis (Wahab, 1995c). The thesis might appear in the introductory paragraph or in the closing paragraph. Each point of a thesis was described using examples, illustration, facts, statistics, citation, or a combination of each. Progression of topics was parallel and topics of successive sentences were the same.

A non-linear essay was characterized mainly with the absence of a thesis statement in the introductory paragraph. The non-linear essay might take one of the four types. First, ideas of a non-linear essay were not clearly defined and no relationship between one paragraph and other paragraphs appeared. Second, thesis statement appeared, but the thesis was introduced with irrelevant general statements. Third, progression of topics was sequential; ²⁵ topics of successive sentences were always different, as the comment of one sentence became the topic of the next. Fourth, progression of topics was ³² extended parallel; the first and the last topics of a piece of text were the same but were interrupted with some sequential progression (Wahab, 1995c; Sujoko, 1999; Harjanto, 1999).

D. Measuring Students' Argumentative Composition

Achievement

In this part, composition scoring system, holistic scoring system, analytic scoring system, primary trait scoring system and categories for composition achievement evaluation are discussed to explain how measuring students' argumentative composition achievement is done.

1) Composition Scoring System

The quality of a piece of writing could be measured in various ways depending on the purpose of the measurement. It may be rated ¹⁶⁴ on the basis of the overall quality of the writing (using a holistic scoring system), or on the basis of the quality of each of the features that make up the quality of the whole (using an analytic scoring system), or on the basis of rhetorical quality of the writing (using a primary-trait scoring system).

1. Holistic Scoring System

The holistic scoring system sees a piece of writing as a unit, as a complete whole. Therefore, the rate of a piece of a writing based on its overall quality. Each piece of writing scored in this scoring system receives only one score from each rater (White, 1985). This score represents the rater's general impression on how well, or how

effectively, the paper as a whole works. This general impression is based on the quality of general traits which are not treated individually.

Spandel and Stiggins (1990) suggested that in rating a paper using the holistic scoring system, a rater should consider quality and completeness of ideas, development of ¹⁶³ ideas, organization, voice, word choice, sentence structure and fluency and conventions. As these traits are not treated individually, these traits are defined in general terms. The score assignment is done by following scoring criteria guides which contain descriptors for each point on the scale and by comparing each paper against the sample (anchor) papers that have been chosen to represent each point on the scale. This holistic scoring system is very useful for providing information on overall success/quality of each piece of writing in a relatively short time. Therefore, this system, this system is appropriate for a large scale testing program (Carlson et al. 1985). It is not appropriate for assessing the quality of a specific trait of ¹ a piece of writing such as rhetorical quality, organization, sentence structure, etc because this system does not provide the kind of detailed information.

2. Analytic Scoring System

Unlike, the holistic scoring system which comes up with one score for each paper that reflects performance across all of the traits that make up the quality of the whole paper, the analytic scoring system comes up with a separate score for each trait. Some analytic scores sum up these separate scores (after multiplying each score

by numbers representing the relative importance of the features to make the total score of the whole piece of writing (White, 1985). Because each trait is rated individually with one score, the analytic scoring system requires that each trait be defined in specific details for each scoring point rather than in general terms like in the holistic scoring system. The analytic scoring system is useful for providing diagnostic information to teachers. Because it can reveal a profile of each student's achievement in each writing feature being taught in class. This scoring system therefore, is appropriate for writing curriculum evaluation, especially formative evaluation.

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3. Primary Trait Scoring System

The primary trait scoring system isolates the primary (most dominant) trait of a paper and assesses the writing quality only for that particular trait (Sculz and Line, 1986; Lloyd-Jones, 1977). This scoring system is very useful in providing information on the quality of a single specific primary (most dominant) trait in writing such as descriptive, narrative or argumentative quality. The primary trait scoring system has some similarities with and some differences from the holistic scoring system. First, both systems come up with one single score for each paper but the process of arriving at the score is different. A rater in the holistic scoring system must consider several different traits and come up with one score that reflects the quality across all of those traits. A rater in the primary trait scoring system must consider only one trait and come up with one score that reflects the quality of that one trait.

Second the process of arriving at the single score from the two systems is different, the information that each score represents is also different. The single score

from the holistic scoring system represents the overall success of the paper, while the single score from the primary trait scoring system represents the success of one particular (most dominant) trait of the paper.

4. Categories for Composition Achievement Evaluation

Brown (2001) proposes the way to evaluate the students' composition achievement. He breaks down the composition achievement into 6 categories; ²¹ content, organization, discourse, syntax, vocabulary and mechanic. The complete categories are displayed by the following table.

Figure 2.7 Brown's Categories for Evaluating Students' Composition

58	Content	
		thesis statement
		related ideas
		development of ideas through personal experience,
		illustration, facts, opinion
		use of description, cause-effect, comparison/contrast
		consistent focus
	Organization	
		effectiveness of introduction
		logical sequence of ideas
		conclusion
		appropriate length
	Discourse	
		topic sentence
		paragraph unity

- transitions
- discourse markers
- cohesion
- rhetorical convention
- reference
- fluency
- economy
- variation

Syntax
Vocabulary
Mechanic

- **21** Spelling
- punctuation
- citation of reference (if applicable)
- neatness and appearance

Jacob, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel and Hughey (1981) have developed a scoring guide called ESL Composition profile. The profile has wide range of scale. The profile is presented on the following

Table 2.1 Jacob's ESL Composition Profile

	8 SCORE LEVEL	CRITERIA
C O N	30 - 27	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable * substantive * through development of thesis + relevant to assigned topic
		GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject * adequate range +limited development of thesis * mostly relevant to topic. but lacks detail
	26 - 22	FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject * little substance *

T E N T	21 – 17 16 – 13	inadequate development topic 8 VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject * non-substantive *
O R G A N I Z A T I O N	10 20 – 18 17 – 14 13 – 10 9 - 7	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression * ideas clearly stated/ supported * succinct * well-organized/ logical sequencing * cohesive 8 GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy * loosely organized but main ideas stands out * limited support * logical but incomplete sequencing FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent * ideas confused or disconnected * lacks logical sequencing and development 8 VERY POOR: Does not communicate * no organization * OR not enough
V	10 20 – 18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range and effective word/idiom choice and usage * word form mastery * appropriate register

<p>O C A B U L A R Y</p>	<p>1 17 - 14</p> <p>43 13 - 10</p> <p>9 - 7</p>	<p>GOOD TO AVERAGE adequate range * occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but meaning confused or obscured</p> <p>FAIR TO POOR: limited range * frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage * meaning confused or obscured</p> <p>VERY POOR: essentially translation a little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form * OR not enough to evaluate</p>
<p>L 1 A N G U A G E U S E</p>	<p>8 25 - 22</p> <p>10 21 - 18</p> <p>17 - 11</p>	<p>EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex construction * few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, article, pronouns, preposition</p> <p>GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple construction * minor problems in complex construction * several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions but meaning seldom obscured</p> <p>FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex construction * frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number word order function, articles, pronouns, preposition and/or fragment, runs-on, deletions * meaning confused or obscured</p> <p>10 VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules + dominated by errors * does not communicate * OR not enough to evaluate</p>

	10 – 15	
M E C H A N I C S	5	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of convention * few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing.
		GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured
	4	³¹ FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing + poor hand writing * meaning confused and obscured
	3	VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions * dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, hand writing illegible OR not enough to evaluate
	2	

Djiwandono (1996) adopting Jacob's ESL Composition Profile, develops also writing achievement profile. In the profile the English composition achievement is described into 5 main components; ¹⁶² content, organization, vocabulary, language and mechanics.

Table 2.2 Djiwandono's Composition Achievement Profile

Composition Achievement	Score	Grade	Criteria
Content	30-27	excellent	completely understand; very broad and complete; completely described; very suitable with the title
	26-22	good	understand; broad and complete; described; suitable with the title but less specified
	21-17	fair	Understand but limited; less complete; less described; less specified
	16-13	poor	Does not understand content; does not focus; not adequate to be scored
Organization	20-18	excellent	Very tidy and arranged precisely; very clear; enriched with ideas; the sequence is very logical; very high cohesion;
	17-14	good	Tidy and arranged; rich of ideas; the sequence is logical; high cohesion
	13-10	fair	Less tidy and less arranged; lack of ideas; the sequence is less logical; low cohesion
	9-7	poor	Untidy and unarranged; not clear; poor ideas; the sequence is not logical; no cohesion
Vocabulary	20-18	excellent	Very broad, very effective use; absolutely master word formation; very precise in diction;

	17-14	good	broad, effective use; master word formation; precise in diction;
	13-10	fair	limited, less effective use; low mastery of word formation; less precise in diction
	9-7	poor	Like translation, does not master word formation; does not master vocabulary; not adequate to be scored
Language	25-22	excellent	Master grammar absolutely; very limited error in using and arranging sentences and words
	21-18	good	some errors in grammar but do not bother the meaning; simple use and sentence arrangement
	17-11	fair	some errors in grammar and bother the meaning; have difficulty in using and arranging simple sentence
	10-5	poor	Does not know how to use and arrange sentence; not communicative; not adequate to be scored
Mechanics	5	excellent	Absolutely master the rule of word writing and spelling
	4	good	master the rule of word writing and spelling with a little errors
	3	fair	Limited mastery of the rule of word writing and spelling; many errors
	2	poor	Does not master the rule of word writing and spelling with a little errors; handwriting cannot be read; not adequate to be scored

All categories above are a set of abilities ability to write a composition. The complete and clear identification of those aspects are required as the base of making evaluation and scoring to a composition.

PART III

RESEARCH EVIDENCE AND DEEP DISCUSSION

Chapter 5

Research Evidence on How Comprehensive Modeling Writing Improves Students' Writing Achievement

This chapter covers the research evidence describing the data of the research and the data analysis on how comprehensive modeling writing improves students' writing achievement.

A. Research Evidence

In this part, the data obtained from the research are described in detail completed with some tables and histograms. The data that have been analyzed are described and explain in data analysis section. The means of analysis and the result of analysis are also given in this section.

1. Description of Research Data

The data described in this section are classified into two parts. First, the data in the form of before treatment scores of argumentative achievement of the subject. Second, the data in the form of after treatment scores of argumentative writing achievement of the subjects.

a. Before Treatment Scores of Argumentative Achievement of the Field Independence Students Using Comprehensive Modeling Writing

The following is the description of Before Treatment Scores of Argumentative Achievement of the Field Independence-Comprehensive Modeling Writing Group after computed using SPSS 12.0. The table describes that the highest score achieved by the students in the group is 75.0 and the lowest score is 35.0 from the maximum score of 100 and the minimum score of 0.00. Therefore, the range is quite far that is 40.00. The mean score of this group is 55.383, whereas the standard deviation of this group is 13.5594 and the variance is 183.857.

	Valid	30
	Missing	0
Mean		55.383
Std. Error of Mean		2.4756
Median		55.000
Mode		55.0
Std. Deviation		13.5594
Variance		183.857
Skewness		.054
Std. Error of Skewness		.427
Kurtosis		-1.414
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.833
Range		40.0
Minimum		35.0
Maximum		75.0
Sum		1661.5

Table 3.1 Summary of Descriptive Statistic Analysis of Before-Treatment Scores of Argumentative Achievement of the Field Independence-Comprehensive Modeling Writing Groups

The distribution of the before treatment scores of argumentative achievement of the field independence-Comprehensive Modeling Writing Group can be

displayed using the following histogram. The histogram shows that it is positively skewed at .54 meaning that the number of the students in this group achieving the scores above the mean is slightly more than those who achieve the scores below the mean.

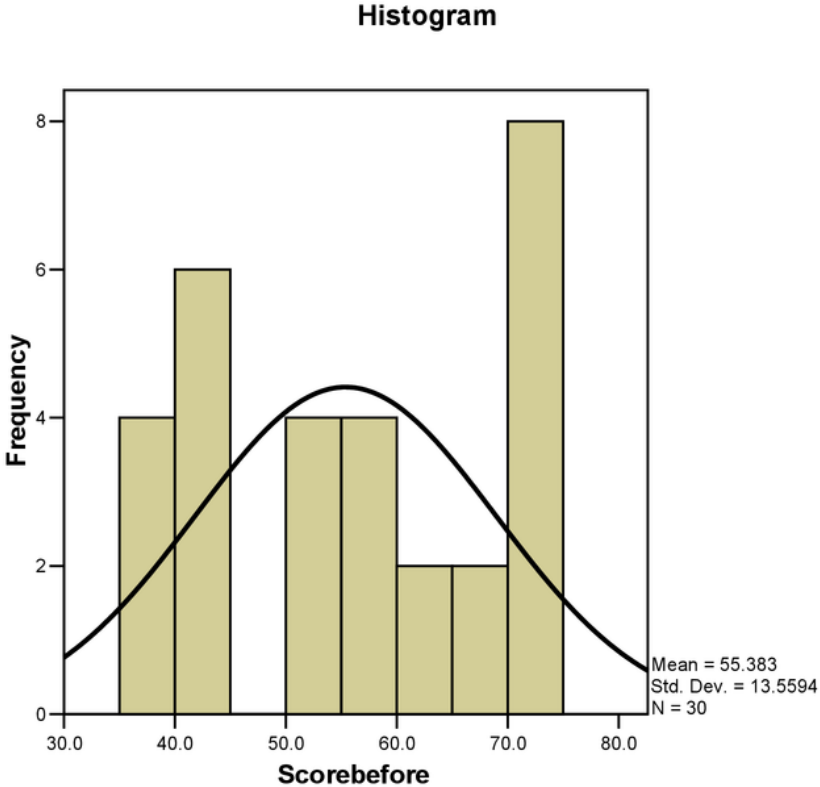


Figure 3.1 Histogram of Before Treatment Scores of Argumentative Achievement of the Field Independence-Comprehensive Modeling Writing Group

b. After Treatment Scores of Argumentative Achievement of the Field Independence Students Using Comprehensive Modeling Writing

The students in the group of field independence after taught using comprehensive modeling writing achieved the 55.0 as the lowest score and 85.0 as the highest score from 100 as the maximum and 0 as the minimum. The range score of this group is quite wide that is 30.0 showing that the difference between the unskilled student and the skilled student in this group is quite far.

N	Valid	30
	Missing	0
Mean		75.983
Std. Error of Mean		1.4654
Median		77.500
Mode		75.0(a)
Std. Deviation		8.0263
Variance		64.422
Skewness		-1.234
Std. Error of Skewness		.427
Kurtosis		1.015
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.833
Range		30.0
Minimum		55.0
Maximum		85.0
Sum		2279.5

Table 3.2 Summary of Descriptive Statistical Analysis of After-Treatment Scores of Argumentative Achievement of the Field Independence-Comprehensive Modeling Writing Groups

The mean score of this group is 75.983 with standard deviation 8.0263 and variance 64.422 showing that the students' scores in this group is widely

distributed. Yet, if it is compared with the scores before treatment, the width of the distribution decreases.

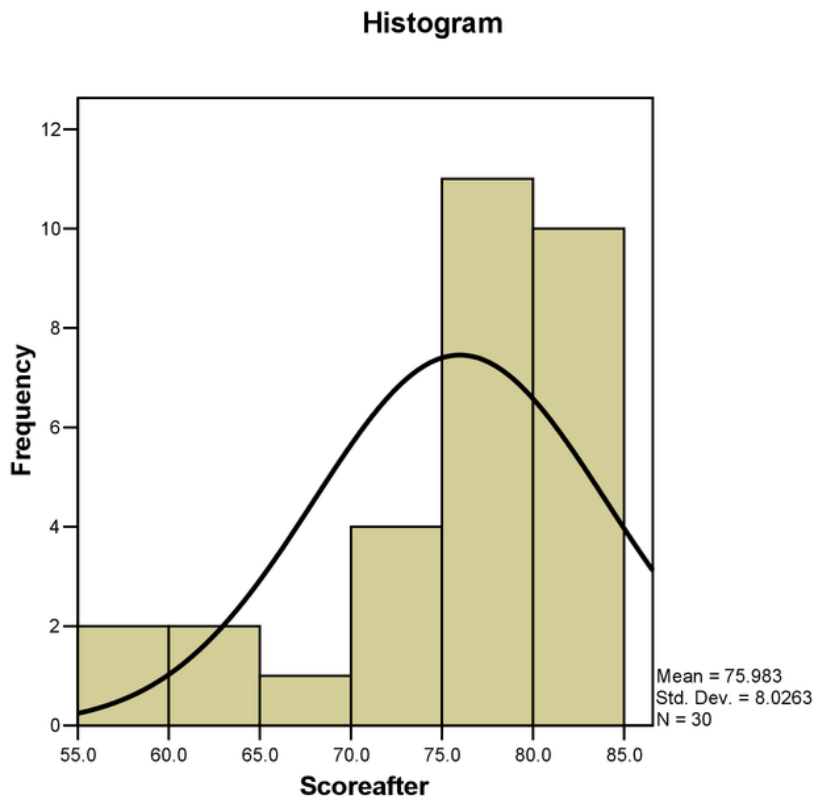


Figure 3.2 Histogram of After Treatment Scores of Argumentative Achievement of the Field Independence Comprehensive Modeling Writing Group

The after treatment scores distribution of argumentative achievement of the field dependence-Comprehensive Modeling Writing Group is represented by using the above histogram. The histogram is negatively skewed, with the value is relatively high that is -1.234 meaning that the number of the students in

this group achieving the scores below the mean is more those who achieve the scores above the mean.

B. Data Analysis

1. Comparison of Before and After Treatment Scores of Argumentative Writing Achievement of the Field Independence Students Using Comprehensive Modeling Writing Group

In this section, it is tested whether the mean score of the students' argumentative composition mean score ²² in the group of field independent cognitive style after given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing is higher than the students' argumentative composition score ²² in the group of field independent cognitive style before given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing (μ score after $>$ μ score before). The focus of the analysis is 30 students ²² in the group of field independent cognitive style before given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing and after given comprehensive modeling writing teaching. Therefore, it is about *one sided paired samples t-test* for upper tailed, by using the following hypothesis.

$$\begin{array}{ll} H_0 : \mu \text{ score after} \leq \mu \text{ score before} & H_0 : \mu D \leq 0 \\ \text{or} & \\ H_1 : \mu \text{ score after} > \mu \text{ score before} & H_1 : \mu D > 0 \end{array}$$

Where,

μ score after = the students' argumentative composition mean score ²² in the group of field independent cognitive style after given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing

μ score before = the students' argumentative composition mean score ²² in the group of field independent cognitive style before given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing

$$\mu D = \mu \text{ score after} - \mu \text{ score before}$$

40

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Scorebefore	55.383	30	13.5594	2.4756
	Scoreafter	75.983	30	8.0263	1.4654

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Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
evidencedPair 1	Scorebefore & Scoreafter	30	.892	.000

40

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Scorebefore - Scoreafter	-20.6000	7.3618	1.3441	-23.3490	-17.8510	-15.326	29	.000

Table 3.3 Summary of Statistical Analysis of the Difference between Before-After-Treatment Scores of Argumentative Achievement of the Field Independence-Comprehensive Modeling Writing Groups

The difference of the students' argumentative composition mean score ²² in the group of field independent cognitive style after given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing from the students' argumentative composition score ²² in the group of field independent cognitive style before given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing is $75.983 - 55.383 = 20.600$. The use of SPSS 1.2 t-test to test $H_0 : \mu \text{ score after} \leq \mu \text{ score before}$, produces t-value

= -15.326 with the degrees of freedom $30 - 1 = 29$. SPSS 12 output results in *p-value* for 2 tailed test = 0.000. Since this research uses one-tailed one or $H_1 : \mu \text{ score after} > \mu \text{ score before}$, then *p-value* must be divided by 2, $0.000/2 = 0.000$. This resulted *p-value* is smaller than $\alpha = 0.05$. It means that there is enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis and it is concluded that the students' argumentative composition mean score in the group of field independent cognitive style after given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing is significantly higher than the students' argumentative composition score in the group of field independent cognitive style before given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing. The result of SPSS analysis is summarized by the above table and the following histogram.

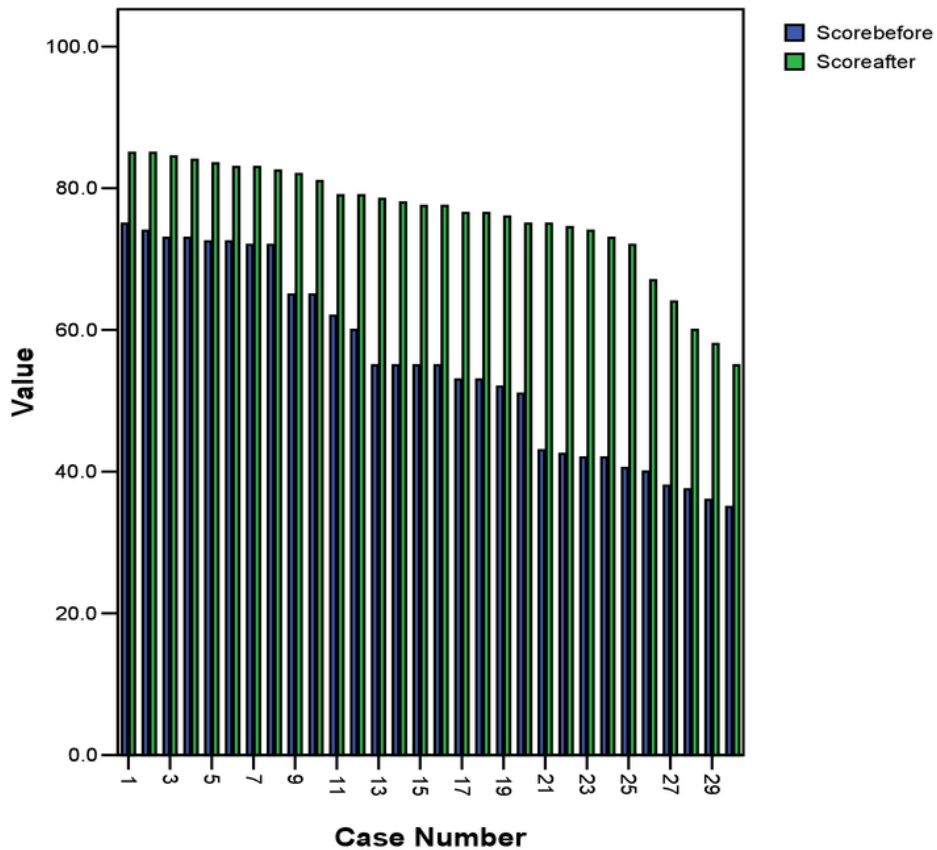


Figure 3.3 Histogram of the Difference between Before-After-Treatment Scores of Argumentative Achievement of the Field Independence-Product Oriented Groups

By observing the mean scores gained by every subject group, it can be inferred that there is an interesting combination between the style of cognitive the subjects have and the teaching orientation given to them. The students having field independent cognitive style achieve high achievement when they are given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing.

Chapter 6

Synchronizing the Use of Comprehensive Modeling Writing, Field Independent Student and Achievement

This chapter is devoted to discuss how the use of comprehensive modeling writing can be synchronized with the students having field independent cognitive style to get the most effective outcome. The main outcome expected is the students' high achievement in writing.

A. Teaching Writing Orientation the Teachers Uses Determines Students' Argumentative Composition Performance

Imtiaz (2003) hypothesizes that explicit instruction on academic English writing strategies would somehow improve students' writing skills in that they would know how to produce good argumentative essays. What has been stated by Imtiaz above is true. It has also been proved by this research. This research proves that the application of the correct approaches in teaching ¹ writing course for the third year EFL students increases significantly the students' performance in making argumentative composition.

In the data analysis it has been proved statistically ²⁰ that there is significant different mean score of the students' argumentative composition after taught using comprehensive modeling teaching in writing. Even, the students given process oriented teaching, a teaching strategy that is recently claimed to be the solution of problem left by the traditional comprehensive modeling teaching,

have less achievement compared with the groups given the comprehensive modeling one.

As suggested by Harmer (2001) when concentrating on the product the teachers are interested in the aim of a task and in the end product, whereas those who apply on a process approach, focus attention to the various stages that any pieces of writing goes through. When the teachers are too focused on the process oriented, he will be caught up in the stages. They will forget the product. It will make the teacher lose sight of the students' ultimate or final attainment. That is the product itself, a clear, articulate, well organized, effective piece of writing. However, when comprehensive modeling is used, the students' composition achievement can be maximized. Using comprehensive modeling oriented approach the teacher can give the attention to the process and product at once. In teaching learning activity the teacher first focuses on the organization of the writing as the process approach. Next, it is dealing with grammatical problems seen in writing. When students are not good at organizing their ideas yet, the teacher will deal with this before moving on to grammatical mistakes since better organization often leads to the reduction of other errors. Besides, the major point of writing is the clear expression of ideas. This more complete staging in comprehensive modeling oriented teaching in writing indeed leads the students to the higher quality of their composition.

Dependent Variable: Score Of Writing Test

	(I) Teaching Writing Orientation	(J) Teaching Writing Orientation	47 Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
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						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	1=Comprehensive modeling writing	2=Multi Dimensional Oriented Writing	-4.583(*)	1.2902	.001	-7.625	-1.542
		3=Process Oriented Writing	-1.728	1.2902	.375	-4.769	1.314
		2=Multi Dimensional Oriented Writing	4.583(*)	1.2902	.001	1.542	7.625
	3=Process Oriented Writing	1=Comprehensive modeling writing	2.856	1.2902	.071	-.186	5.897
		2=Multi Dimensional Oriented Writing	1.728	1.2902	.375	-1.314	4.769
		3=Process Oriented Writing	-2.856	1.2902	.071	-5.897	.186
Bonferroni	1=Comprehensive modeling writing	2=Multi Dimensional Oriented Writing	-4.583(*)	1.2902	.001	-7.692	-1.474
		3=Process Oriented Writing	-1.728	1.2902	.545	-4.837	1.381
		2=Multi Dimensional Oriented Writing	4.583(*)	1.2902	.001	1.474	7.692
	3=Process Oriented Writing	1=Comprehensive modeling writing	2.856	1.2902	.083	-.253	5.964
		2=Multi Dimensional Oriented Writing	1.728	1.2902	.545	-1.381	4.837
		3=Process Oriented Writing	-2.856	1.2902	.083	-5.964	.253

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Based on observed means.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 3.4 Post Hoc Test of Subjects' Argumentative Composition Achievement across Teaching Writing Orientations

From Table 4.34 and Table 4.35 it can be determined which group having significant difference and which group having no significant difference. The SPSS output above, shows that in the subset 1 there are the group of students given comprehensive modeling writing (66.700) and the group of students given process oriented writing (68.428). The interpretation is the argumentative composition achievement of students given comprehensive modeling writing

does not differ significantly with the argumentative composition achievement of students given process oriented writing. In subset 2 there are the group of students given process oriented writing (68.428) and the group of students given comprehensive modeling oriented writing (71.283) meaning that the argumentative composition achievement of students given process oriented writing does not differ significantly with the argumentative composition achievement of students given comprehensive modeling oriented writing.

	Teaching Writing Orientation	N	Subset	
			1	2
Tukey HSD(a,b)	1=Comprehensive modeling writing	90	66.700	
	3=Process Oriented Writing	90	68.428	68.428
	2=Multi Dimensional Oriented Writing	90		71.283
	Sig.		.375	.071

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Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed. Based on Type III Sum of Squares The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 74.913.

a Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 90.000.

b Alpha = .05.

Table 3.4 Homogeneous Subset of Subjects' Argumentative Composition Achievement across Teaching Writing Orientations

There is only one significant difference shown by the table that is the comparison between the argumentative composition achievement of students given process oriented writing and the argumentative composition achievement of students given comprehensive modeling oriented writing (table 4.34). Table 4.31 describing the estimated marginal means of subjects' argumentative

composition achievement in different classification of teaching writing orientation also shows that the students given comprehensive modeling oriented writing have the highest mean score in making argumentative composition. This fact clearly shows the superiority of comprehensive modeling oriented writing over comprehensive modeling writing and even for the process oriented writing.

This finding is in line with what has been investigated by **Kamimura (2000)** ⁶ from Senshu University, Japan. This study investigated whether product-oriented knowledge and composing process skills are both necessary or whether either one of the two is sufficient in order for EFL students to become skilled writers in EFL. Thirty-five Japanese college EFL students participated in the study as subjects. First, they wrote an argumentative essay, and immediately after finishing it, they were given a retrospective questionnaire designed to probe their composing process strategies. They also took a form-based test which assessed their knowledge of English academic texts. The students were classified into two groups, skilled and unskilled, according to the holistic scores given to their essays. The two groups were compared in terms of the behaviors shown in the questionnaire and the scores on the test. The results showed that the skilled writers possessed more developed knowledge of formal aspects of English academic writing as well as more sophisticated composing process strategies. It was also clarified that both the form-oriented knowledge and process-oriented skills are necessary to function as successful EFL writers. The study suggests that L2 writing instruction should maintain a

balance between process and product orientations to meet the needs of various L2 writers who come from non-English discourse communities.

In the middle of the controversy regarding the relative merits of product- and process-oriented approaches to teaching English composition, few empirical studies on the effectiveness of either approach have been conducted including what has been done by this research partly. As a result, for those who give too much compliment to process oriented teaching approach in writing as a result of their disappointment to comprehensive modeling teaching approach should decrease his favor and shift their preference into comprehensive modeling oriented one as the finding of this research proved that. Even the research by Tsao (2004), explained below, which gives similar tone in finding with this research, shows no favor at all to process oriented teaching approach. The study compared the relative effectiveness of the two approaches by conducting a quasi-experiment. The subjects were 40 English majors from two intact advanced writing classes in a 5-year college program, and the experiment lasted for one academic year. The results showed that: (1) the two approaches are both valid means of upgrading the students' overall ability in English writing, but neither of the two is clearly superior to the other; (2) a further analysis of the difference between the two approaches with regard to the four categories of composition (content, organization, grammar and usage) revealed that the product-oriented approach is more effective than the process-oriented one in improving the students' grammar and diction; (3) with

regard to the proficiency level of students, the product approach is particularly effective in fostering the grammar skills of less proficient writers, while the process approach cannot really improve either the grammar or diction skills of students at all levels of proficiency.

Instead of emphasizing on process writing only, making a balance between product and process is worthier. As in most language teaching approaches, it is quite possible for the teacher to go to an extreme in emphasizing process to the extent that the final product diminishes in importance. What has been reminded by Reid (1994) and Brown (2001) that ultimate goal, product, is important as well as process. That is reasonably true since without final product firmly in view in writing activity, the learners could quite simply drown themselves in a sea of revisions. Therefore, making the balance of applying the two approaches to boost the students' writing achievement in general teaching practice is really in need. The discussion in this section, the unique of the student's learning characteristic (student's cognitive style) is not taken account yet.

As showed by the result of data analysis, the students given comprehensive modeling approach in writing course get achievement higher than those given process one. Studying more deeply what is inside the approach may reveal what factors causing that fact. In writing course where product approach is given a student's ⁴⁵ attention focuses on adhering to and duplicating models and in particular on correct language. Typically, students, ⁴⁵ in classes adopting the product approach, would find themselves ⁴⁵ studying

model texts and attempting various exercises aimed towards drawing attention to relevant features of a text. These exercises would require students to check comprehension by completing sentences or adding logical connections following which, in a final exercise, students would produce parallel texts based on their own information. The comprehensive modeling approach demands that a student focus, sequentially, on model and form.

As White (1988), Jordan (1997) and Escholz (1980) argue, in adopting such an approach not only does the very nature of this sequence provide little or no insight into the actual processes involved in managing to arrive at the final product, but the students are also being restricted in what they can write. Escholz (1980: 24) points out that the product approach encourages students to use the same plan in a multitude of settings, applying the same form regardless of content, thereby 'stultifying and inhibiting writers rather than empowering them or liberating them.'

However, a weakness of product approaches are that process skills, such as planning a text, are given a relatively small role, and that the knowledge and skills that learners bring to the classroom are undervalued. However, there is strengths, they are that they recognize the need for learners to be given linguistic knowledge about texts, and they understand that imitation is one way in which people learn.

Although, in this research process oriented approach did not increases the students argumentative composition to the highest level as the comprehensive modeling oriented teaching did, it succeeded to improve the

students' argumentative achievement better than comprehensive modeling approach. Somehow, it is reasonably than process oriented teaching produced somewhat better learning outcome compared with comprehensive modeling teaching. According to its history, the ²⁹ process approach developed by way of a reaction to the confines presented by the product approach. Consequently, ¹ students changing classes from product to process, from an approach ¹ devoted to correct form and accuracy would potentially find themselves liberated with an approach concerned with individual levels of fluency and expression. In replacement of an approach which considered written language secondary and merely as a mechanism for reinforcing spoken language, the ¹⁵ process approach empowered its students, thereby enabling them to make clearer decisions about the direction of their writing 'by means of discussion, tasks, drafting, feedback and informed choices [thereby] encouraging students to be responsible for making improvements themselves.' (Jordan, 1997: 168) Furthermore, with the outcome a secondary concern, the role of the teacher also changes. That is, no longer required to offer a shining example of the model, the ²⁹ teacher becomes a facilitator in providing formative feedback during the process of each student's composition. Correspondingly, it is this process which takes on increased significance with the approach in encouraging students to assume greater responsibility for making their own improvements, as opposed to the mimicking of a pre-determined model. The advantage in ²⁶ adopting the process approach is in developing the significance of the cyclical and recursive nature of writing, supposedly, employed by native writers, where

'ordinarily pre-writing, writing and re-writing frequently seem to be going on simultaneously' (Smith, 1982: 104).

The disadvantages of process approaches that make the students given it in writing get lower achievement than those given comprehensive modeling² are that they often regard all writing as being produced by the same set of processes; that they give insufficient importance to the kind of texts writers produce and why such texts are produced; and that they offer learners insufficient input, particularly in terms of linguistic knowledge, to write successfully. The main advantages are that they understand the importance of the skills involved in writing, and recognize that what learners bring to the writing classroom contributes to the development of writing ability. The perceived evangelism⁴ of process approaches⁴ was criticized in the late 1980s primarily by English for Academic Purpose (EAP) practitioners (e.g. Horowitz 1986 and Swales 1987). It was pointed out that writing is ultimately judged by content, not process; teaching students to express their ideas is important, but an exclusive focus on this could lead to writer-based texts which might actually be inappropriate or wrong.

B. Cognitive Style Helps Affecting EFL Students' Performance in Making Argumentative Composition

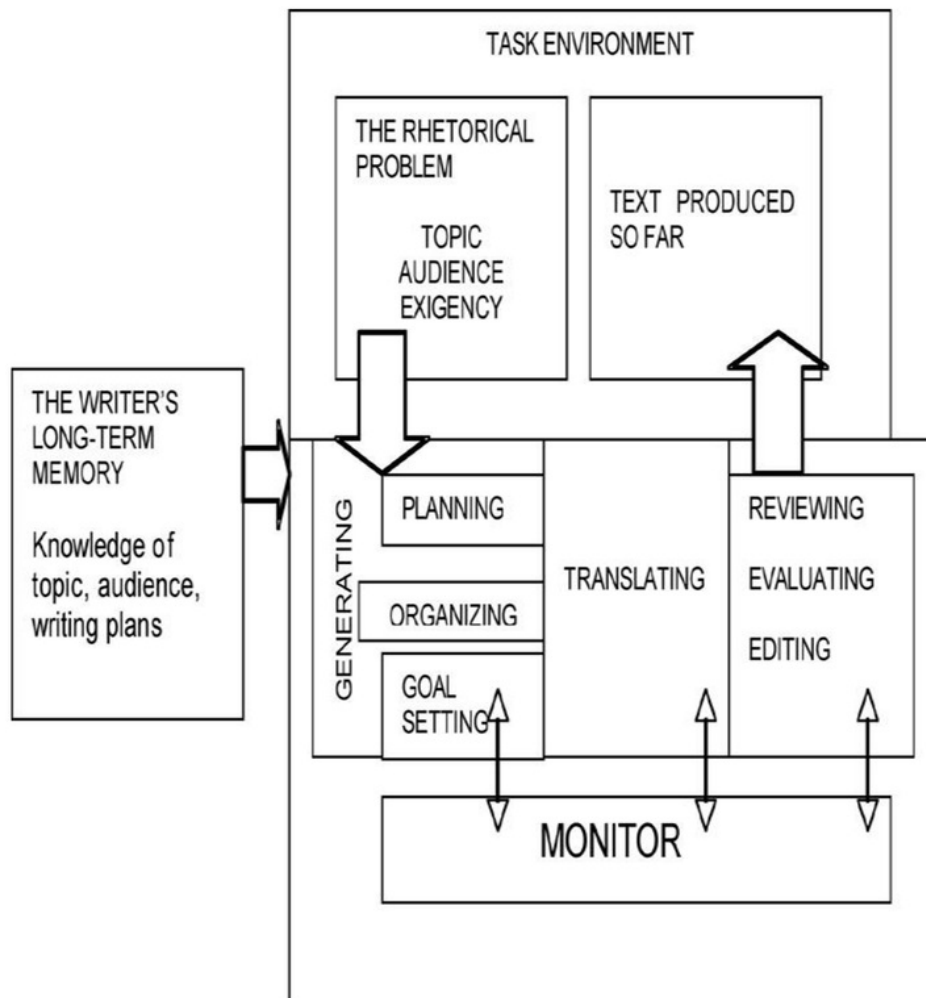
The empirical fact inferred from the research conducted by Sujito (2012) concerning with the¹⁰⁸ effect of cognitive style on the third year EFL

undergraduate students' composition achievement shows that there is significant effect of the cognitive style (*field independent cognitive style (FI)*, *neutral cognitive style (N)* and *field dependent cognitive style (FD)*) on their achievement in making argumentative composition. It is proved that the argumentative composition achievement of the students in the group of *field independent cognitive style (FI)*, *neutral cognitive style (N)* and *field dependent cognitive style (FD)* differs significantly. Concerning with the argumentative composition they can perform, the subjects having field independent cognitive style are proved to have the highest mean score in making argumentative composition. The second highest mean score is achieved by the subjects having neutral cognitive style. Whereas, the lowest mean score is achieved by the field dependent cognitive style group.

After considering the above empirical fact above, one important question challenging to discuss is concerning with why the students having *field independent cognitive style* have tendency to have *higher achievement* in making argumentative composition than the neutral cognitive style group and the field dependent cognitive style group. This question is in need to be verified. The more general interesting and important question needs also to discuss preceding the more specific one above is about how cognitive style owned by the students helps affecting the argumentative composition achievement. As has been explained before, cognitive style is defined the habit to act relatively constant inside of a person to receive, think, solve and recall/memorize information. Cognitive style is characteristic about how a person receives,

organizes and stores the information. It concerns also with how a learner receives, interacts and responds his learning environment (Messick, in Keefe (1987); Witkin, et al. (1971); Diptoadi (1990)). The reason of why cognitive style affects students' writing achievement is explained like the following paragraphs.

The act of writing is decidedly a cognitive process, and the steps involved in this cognitive process may be identified when some of the strategies used by the students are revealed (Hormazábal, 2007). Since it is cognitive process, writing activity is identified as a complex problem-solving activity, responding to a rhetorical situation in the form of a text. Their work, largely known as cognitive process model, represented the internal process of the writer's mind and looks at composing as a complex problem-solving activity Flower and Hayes (1981).



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Figure 3.5 A Cognitive Process Theory of Writing (Flower and Hayes, 1981)

As its activity is so complicated, during the process of making composition which is recursive, the students are continuously making evolving, rejecting ideas and thereby making it a dynamic practice of composition. Composing involves plans and development, which the writer brings to bear on the writing process. All elements of cognitive process are utilized by the students to make

composition. Therefore, the way the students use the elements of cognitive in their own way will determine the success of making composition.

After coming to the logical reason that the way the students use the elements of cognitive in their own way will determine the success of making composition, the next case which is important to discuss comprehensively is which cognitive style owned by the students that can help fostering their achievement in making argumentative composition. The more important thing is exploring the possibility of some certain cognitive styles have superiority in area of making argumentative composition. Table 4.36 and Table 4.37 show which group having significant difference and which group having no significant difference between the three groups.

Dependent Variable: Score Of Writing Test

	(I) Cognitive Style	(J) Cognitive Style	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	1=Field Independent Cognitive Style	2=Neutral Cognitive Style	.744	1.2902	.833	-2.297	3.786
		3=Field Dependent Cognitive Style	3.311(*)	1.2902	.029	.270	6.352

Bonferroni	2=Neutral Cognitive Style	33	1=Field Independent Cognitive Style	35	-0.744	1.2902	.833	-3.786	2.297
			3=Field Dependent Cognitive Style	59	2.567	1.2902	.117	-.475	5.608
	3=Field Dependent Cognitive Style		1=Field Independent Cognitive Style		-3.311(*)	1.2902	.029	-6.352	-.270
			2=Neutral Cognitive Style		-2.567	1.2902	.117	-5.608	.475
	1=Field Independent Cognitive Style	59	2=Neutral Cognitive Style	33	.744	1.2902	1.000	-2.364	3.853
			3=Field Dependent Cognitive Style		3.311(*)	1.2902	.033	.202	6.420
	2=Neutral Cognitive Style		1=Field Independent Cognitive Style	35	-.744	1.2902	1.000	-3.853	2.364
			3=Field Dependent Cognitive Style	59	2.567	1.2902	.143	-.542	5.676
	3=Field Dependent Cognitive Style		1=Field Independent Cognitive Style		-3.311(*)	1.2902	.033	-6.420	-.202
			2=Neutral Cognitive Style		-2.567	1.2902	.143	-5.676	.542

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Based on observed means.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 3.5 Post Hoc Test of Subjects' Argumentative Composition Achievement across Cognitive Styles (Sujito, 2012)

Table 4.36 and Table 4.37 show which group having significant difference and which group having no significant difference between the three groups. In subset 1 there are two groups shown, the group of students having Field Dependent Cognitive Style (66.844) and the group of students having Neutral Cognitive Style (69.411). It is interpreted that the argumentative composition achievement of students having Field Dependent Cognitive Style does not differ significantly with the argumentative composition achievement of students having Neutral Cognitive Style. In subset 2 there exists the group of students having Neutral Cognitive Style (69.411) and the group of students having Field Independent Cognitive Style (70.156) meaning that the argumentative composition achievement of students having Neutral Cognitive Style does not differ significantly with the argumentative composition achievement of

students having Field Independent Cognitive Style. The only significant difference is shown by the comparison between the argumentative composition achievement of students having Field Independent Cognitive Style and the argumentative composition achievement of students having Field Dependent Cognitive Style (table 4.36).

Table 4.32 displaying the estimated marginal means of subjects' argumentative composition achievement in different classification of cognitive style shows the highest mean score in making argumentative composition is achieved by the students in the group of independent cognitive style. This empirical fact strengthens the belief that the students having independent cognitive style is more superior in writing argumentative composition than the other two cognitive styles.

	Cognitive Style	N	Subset	
			1	2
Tukey HSD(a,b)	3=Field Dependent Cognitive Style	90	66.844	
	2=Neutral Cognitive Style	90	69.411	69.411
	1=Field Independent Cognitive Style	90		70.156
	Sig.		.117	.833

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed. Based on Type III Sum of Squares The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 74.913.

a Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 90.000.

b Alpha = .05.

Table 3.6 Homogeneous Subset of Subjects' Argumentative Composition Achievement across Cognitive Styles

The next hard task should be done after knowing the above fact is verifying the possible yet scientific reason of why the students having independent cognitive style is more superior in writing argumentative composition than the

students having neutral and dependent cognitive style. As asserted by some scholars, the learner having *Field Independent Cognitive Style* (FI) treats information and perception as an independent part of his environment/surrounding, whereas the learner having *Field Dependent Cognitive Style* (FD) treats information and perception as a whole and not separated from his environment/the surrounding. A person having FD cognitive style usually gets the difficulty to separate a concept or a perception from the surrounding context. It will result in the unclear and unassimilated information receiving. FD learner tends to view a concept or a problem as a whole (*global approach*). FD learner will face a problem as a confusing whole, without seeing the component inside that can be used to help solving the problem more quickly (Messick, in Keefe (1987); Witkin, et al. (1971); Diptoadi (1990)). As has been proposed by Hormazábal (2007) writing, especially writing argumentative composition is a cognitive activity. As it is cognitive, the activity requires a complex problem-solving activity. It also requires responding to a rhetorical situation in the form of a text. Their work, largely known as cognitive process model, represented the internal process of the writer's mind and looks at composing as a complex problem-solving activity Flower and Hayes (1981). The activity is so complicated, during the process of making composition in which the students are continuously making evolving, proposing the argumentation, rejecting ideas and thereby making it a dynamic practice of composition involving plans and development. In doing the activity, the students having *Field Independent Cognitive Style* (FI) who can separate a

concept or a perception from the surrounding context will get advantage. It is because the ability to separate a concept or a perception from the surrounding context will result in the clear and assimilated information receiving. They have also the ability to see the component inside that can be used to help solving the problem quickly. Besides, Field Independent EFL learners have a tendency to restructure the environment/context given with the dominant organization. Other favor given to the students having *Field Independent Cognitive Style* (FI) is related to their analytical skill. Saracho (in Freeman and Long (1991)) states that students having *Field Independent Cognitive Style* (FI) have strong analytic skills. Similarly, Hansen & Stansfield (1981); Chapelle & Roberts (1986) also state that field independent learners easily separate key details from a complex or confusing background, while their field dependent peers have trouble doing this. Field independent learners show significant advantages over field dependent learners in analytical tasks. Those are required very much in making argumentative composition. Hence, their achievement in writing argumentative composition is fostered.

On the other side, the EFL learner having *Field Dependent Cognitive Style* (FD) treats information and perception as a whole and not separated from his environment/the surrounding. Field dependent EFL learners have a tendency to follow the environment or the context given. A person having FD cognitive style usually gets the difficulty to separate a concept or a perception from the surrounding context. It will result in the unclear and unassimilated information receiving. FD learner tends to view a concept or a problem as a

whole (*global approach*). FD learner will face a problem as a confusing whole without seeing the By having such kind of limitation EFL learners get a much more barrier in writing argumentative composition that results in the lower achievement compared with the EFL learner having *Field Independent Cognitive Style* (FI). For the EFL learner having neutral cognitive style, it is not an urgency to explain the theoretical reason, since it can be predicted easier than the two extreme poles. It becomes clear merely by saying that the EFL learner having neutral cognitive style is the combination between the two or a half from one a half from another.

Many compliment given to the EFL learners having *Field Independent Cognitive Style* in learning language. Naiman et al. (in Freeman and Long, 1991) studies the correlation between SL (second language) achievement and cognitive style. They administered the Hidden Figure Test in which subjects are instructed to find simple geometric figures within complex designs. The perceptual challenge the subjects faces is to be able to break up the visual field and keep part of it separate. This challenge is hypothesized to be analogous to a person learning an SL who has to isolate an element from the context in which it is presented. People are termed field dependent if they are unable to abstract an element from its context, or background field. Naiman et al. found that field independent twelfth-grade students scored higher on imitation a listening comprehension tasks than did subjects who were field dependent. Tucker, Hamayan and Genesse (in Freeman and Long, 1991) also reports that a trait factor which included field independence significantly predicted the

French scores of Anglophone seven grade students on standardized achievement test. By contrast Bialystock and Frochlich (in Freeman and Long, 1991) attributed ¹¹ a very minor role to field independence. However, this test involves only reading comprehension which might account for discrepancy.

¹¹ In the USA, Hansen and Stanfield (1981) ¹¹ found that field-independence play a major role in the acquisition of linguistic competence for American college students enrolled in a Spanish course. The same researchers also ⁵ found a positive but rather modest link between field-independence and satisfactory scores on cloze tests, with a similar group of adult learners. Roberts (1983), in a study conducted with adult ESL learners in an American university, discovered that field-independence predicted success for this group on traditional tests of an analytic nature. Likewise, Hansen-Strain (1984) found that a significant positive relationship between field-independence and scores on L2 tests, which was particularly noticeable in the case of the cloze test and dependent to a certain degree on the learners' cultural background and sex. Chapelle and Roberts (1986) and Carter (1988) found support for the correlation of field-independence with L2 learning in the case of college students.

Given the interesting relationship between field-independence and tutored L2 learning, Brown (1987) suggests that field-independence may be an advantage in classroom L2 learning. Conversely, he implies, field-dependence may be suitable in untutored naturalistic L2 acquisition ¹¹ from the environments in which language is being spoken around the subject. This may be because of

the fact that naturalistic language acquisition involves natural communication in which field-dependent people may be more successful by virtue of their empathy, social outreach, and perception of other people. In the same vein, Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) indicate that more analytical field-independent characteristics are related to the conscious learning of meta-linguistic skills, while field-dependence seems to serve the development of communication skills through subconscious acquisition. Thus, it is no wonder that Abraham (1983) discovered a significant positive relationship between Krashen's (1981) strategy of monitoring, which is part of conscious tutored learning and field-independence.

Another study, Brown (1987) and Bialystok and Fröhlich (1978) postulates that field-independent learners may have the advantage in classroom foreign language learning because of the formal, or structure-oriented, nature of the classroom task, as opposed to a more natural or functional use of language for communication of meaning. The implication is that the supposed superiority of a field-independent cognitive style in classroom learning may be related to a distinction between the usual formal linguistic achievement orientation of classrooms and tests and the real competence, that is, functional language proficiency.

In their study, Naiman, et al. (1978) concludes that field-independence is more important as a predictor of success in the higher stages of language learning than in the early stages. This hypothesis corresponds to the ascending importance accorded to grammatical accuracy in Higgs and Clifford's (1982)

model of the relative contribution of various factors to language proficiency. In Carter's (1988) and in Hansen's (1984) studying field-dependence/independence finds the significant effect even at the very early stages of language learning. Most field-dependent subjects in Carter's study received an ACTFL rating of novice-mid or novice-high, indicating that they were still largely dependent on memorized words and phrases for whatever communication they found possible. In brief, Carter's study has a good number of implications and conclusions. First, field-independent cognitive skills were found advantageous in this study as well as in Hansen's study for both formal linguistic achievement and functional communicative proficiency. These findings cause us to question the hypothesis that field-dependence and field-independence may be differentially related to formal-linguistic and functional-communicative foreign language tasks or situations. Second, we must ask whether the apparent advantage of field-independent cognitive style at an early level of proficiency holds true for other proficiency levels or not. Third, if a field-independent cognitive style really affects both achievement and proficiency, educators should implement ways of drawing on this factor in formal language education. Finally, field-dependence and field-independence should be in the focus of the attention of testing specialists who claim to be striving for the development of objective measures of language proficiency.

In another study of the importance of field-independence, Abraham (1985) investigates the possible relationship between field-dependence/independence and the teaching of grammar. She claims that her

study provides insights into how students along one continuum of individual differences (i.e. that of cognitive style) internalize knowledge about one grammatical item in a second language. Chapelle (1988) relates field-dependence/independence to language testing by considering this issue as a source of variance in language tests. For the justification of her study, she claims that recent language testing research investigates factors other than language proficiency that may be responsible for variance in language test performance. There is some evidence indicating field-independent may be one variable responsible for introducing systematic error into language test scores. In her study, Chapelle reports research investigating the relationship between field-independence and language measures. The results of her study, she claims, indicate differential relationships of field-independence with cloze, dictation, and multiple-choice language tests. The relative strengths of these relationships also differed for native speakers in regular English classes, native speakers in remedial English classes, and non-native speakers.

Most of the available evidence offers support for a relationship between field independence and second language learning success. One disturbing consequence of the relationship is that both field dependence and field independence have been linked with second language success, but the former is usually thought to be something a field dependent person is more likely to exhibit. Brown (in Freeman and Long, 1991) offers an explanation that we have evoked before to explain other such conflicts. He suggests that field independence may be important to classroom learning and to performance on

paper – and – pencil tests; however, when it comes to untutored SLA, field dependence may be more beneficial because successful SLA will be determined by how well the learner can communicate with speakers of the TL (target language), and empathy will help in this regard. It is interesting to note that of their three measures of language proficiency, Hansen and Stanfield (in Freeman and Long, 1991) found the weakest link between field independence and communicative competence.

Compliment given to field independent students continues in some other aspects. Bachman (1990) hypothesizes that those “with high degree of field-independence would perform well on discrete point tests, in which the items are unrelated to one another and to the overall context in which they occur”. He also hypothesizes that persons with low field-independence degrees “perform well on integrative tests such as the cloze and the oral interview, in which they are not required to be conscious to discrete items”. ¹²⁴ Chapelle and Roberts (1986) reports significant correlation between field-independence and cloze test in adult ESL students (cited in Chapelle and Green, 1992).

Field-independence has been shown to be significantly and positively related to scores on several standardized paper and – pencil tests, to the use of monitoring, and to success on the integrative measures of imitation and cloze.

B. Conforming the Teaching Writing Orientation the Teacher Applies with the Cognitive Style the Students Have Boosts the Writing Achievement

From the above section, it is found that there is significant interaction between applying *comprehensive modeling writing* to students having *field independent cognitive style's* achievement in making argumentative composition. The third year EFL students' students having *field independent cognitive style* after taught using *comprehensive modeling writing* produces significantly different achievement in making argumentative composition.

The certain teaching strategy is only effective if it is combined with the students' characteristics. Teaching strategy is useless or even sacrifices the students' opportunity to be success in language learning if it is wrongly applied. Students as human in general have their own characteristics that need attention and treatment as they require personally hence fostering optimally their potency.

Referring to the teaching approach matched with the students' characteristic, the finding of this research explicitly reveals that comprehensive modeling teaching in writing is effective in increasing the argumentative composition achievement if it is given to EFL students' with ³³ *independent cognitive style*. This statement can be reversed by emphasizing the students' characteristics to be the ³³ *students with field independent cognitive style* will achieve high *achievement* in making argumentative composition only if they are given comprehensive modeling teaching in writing. The EFL ¹⁵⁹ *students with field independent cognitive style* are not recommended to be given teaching writing orientation other than product oriented. Otherwise it will make their achievement decreased. Process oriented teaching and comprehensive modeling

oriented teaching in writing is not suitable with the need of EFL students with field independent cognitive style.

Comprehensive modeling teaching in writing is suitable to be given for the learners who have ⁷⁹ field independent cognitive style. Field Independent learners have a tendency to restructure the environment/context given with the dominant organization different from the field dependent learners who have a tendency to follow the environment or the context given. FI learner lacks of social orientation and social modality compared with FD learner. Therefore, process oriented teaching is not match with their need. This approach is not advantageous to them because FI learner prefers physical subjects. They do not prefer social and oral linguistics as the process approach gives. FI learner is likely to be individualistic, not cooperative. Instead of preferring the teaching approach having the steps like process approach that make them lose of focus, the comprehensive modeling approach strengthens their analytical capability. Their ability to see the component inside that can be used to help solving the problem quickly can be build by comprehensive modeling approach. The comprehensive modeling approach is also able to develop their tendency to restructure the environment/context given with the dominant organization. Since students having *Field Independent Cognitive Style* (FI) have strong analytic skills and have ability ⁴² easily separate key details from a complex or confusing background by themselves that are required very much in making argumentative composition, giving them teaching approach that enables them

to work individually makes their achievement in writing argumentative composition fostered.

Garger and Guild (1987) have summarized the characteristics of field independent learners. These are reported below.

- a. Perceives analytically
- b. Experiences in an articulate fashion, imposes structures of restrictions
- c. ¹⁴ Makes specific concept distinctions, little overlap
- d. Impersonal orientation
- e. Learns social material only as an intentional task
- f. ¹⁴ Interested in new concepts for their own sake
- g. Has self-defined goals and reinforcements
- h. Can self-structure situations
- i. Less affected by criticism
- j. ¹⁴ Uses hypothesis-testing approach to attain concepts

The following is a list reproduced from Whitefield (1995) showing how learners having analytic or field independent cognitive style learn and suggests ways in which they should be taught. The table for global one is displayed later. According to him the characteristics of analytic learner are:

- a. learn step by step
- b. cumulative sequential pattern building towards a concept
- c. prefer quiet, well lit, formal design
- d. ¹⁴ have a strong need to complete the task they are working on
- e. respond well to words and numbers
- f. need visual re-enforcement
- g. give directions, fact sheets, underline important sections
- h. provide feedback on details - in sequence

The characteristics of independent or analytic learners given by Garger and Guild (1987) and Whitefield (1995) above support and add the conviction of what has been found by this research that comprehensive modeling approach is the approach really required by the independent or analytic EFL learners. Process oriented approach will bother their opportunity to learn and to explore their potency because the independent or analytic EFL learners have impersonal orientation. They learn ¹⁴ social material only as an intentional task. The independent or analytic EFL learners are ¹⁴ interested in new concepts for their own sake, have self-defined goals and reinforcements and can self-structure situations that make them do not need the steps in process oriented approach. Their preference to learn in quiet, well lit and formal design is really match with the procedure in comprehensive modeling approach. It is the procedure of learning they indeed need that can help fostering their achievement, without wasting the time following the steps and social reciprocal activity suggested by the process oriented one. Whitefield (1995) through his

Guidelines for Teaching Analytic Students suggests how to teach field independent students well. The suggestions are like the following:

- a. Explanations and visual reinforcement
- b. Analytics respond to key words and numbers.
- c. Write these on the board as you go.
- d. Answer questions about details directly, and use printed visuals such as the board and overheads.
- e. List all relevant information about assignments, work requirements, objectives and directions on paper, or have the students copy from the board.
- f. Don't tell them, show them.
- g. Proceed step by step through the details that need to be absorbed in order to acquire skills.
- h. Put key words on the board, underline important sections or use highlighter, check homework daily, teach independent use of the library facilities, etc.
- i. Provide instant feedback on tests and assignments (as soon as possible), and do what you say you will do! Analytics hold you to your word.

Concerning with the teaching strategy should be given to field independent EFL learner, Garger and Guild (1987), similar to Whitefield, have suggested the following teaching styles:

- a. ¹⁴ Prefers impersonal teaching situations such as lectures.
- b. Emphasizes cognitive aspects of instruction.

- c. Uses questions to introduce topics and following student answers.
- d. Uses a teacher-organized learning situation.
- e. Viewed by students as encouraging to apply principles
- f. Gives corrective feedback, uses negative evaluation
- g. Strong in organizing and guiding student learning

The suggestions given either by Whitefield (1995) and Garger and Guild (1987) must not be deliberately aimed at referring to one of the three approaches (product, process and comprehensive modeling oriented teaching) investigated by this research. Those are free from that intention. However, what has been suggested by them to teach for the EFL learner having independent cognitive style is really in line with the procedures of comprehensive modeling teaching in writing. For instance, Garger and Guild (1987) suggest that EFL learner having independent cognitive style should be taught by impersonal teaching situations such as lectures, emphasizing cognitive aspects of instruction, using a teacher-organized learning situation and giving corrective feedback. Comprehensive modeling approach by using write-rewrite for example is also aimed at giving feedback to the learner.

PART IV

CLOSING

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter presents the conclusion and suggestions of the entailing some closing notes. The conclusion is drawn on the basis of research evidence and discussion of the study. Suggestions are directed to the EFL teachers and EFL policy makers. Closing note is given by considering the ¹ limitations of the study. Hence, some suggestions for further prospective researchers are also given for more investigation.

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A. Conclusion

Based on the research evidence and discussion described in the previous chapter, the followings are the conclusions:

The students having field independent cognitive style achieve high achievement when they are given product oriented teaching in writing.

The empirical fact implies that the students prefer teaching approach differently as they have different cognitive style. The students with different cognitive style have different preference to the teaching orientation or approach given to them. The students with field independent cognitive style prefer product oriented teaching to boost their achievement.

The evidence of this research brings some implications to the language teaching-learning perspective in general and to the teaching of writing more specifically. The implications of the research evidence to the teaching learning issues in general are:

1. Teaching strategy is not the only factor determining the performance of the students. There are many other factors should be considered especially the students' characteristic which is unique in nature. One of them is the students' cognitive style. Realizing that the students' cognitive style is so unique that each has different preference in teaching approach, the teacher should prepare and apply some alternative approaches or ways of teaching to be given to the students as they prefer to learn through.

2. Students' unique characteristics affect their preferences in teaching orientation and if a certain teaching orientation can be matched with the students' characteristics it will boost students' achievement. Therefore, the individualized learning is recommended in this context. However, individualized learning should not be interpreted as teaching one student by one teacher. Individualized learning in this context is classifying the students as their characteristics (e.g cognitive style), putting the students having the same characteristics in the same class and teaching them with the approach they prefer.

3. ¹⁵⁰ Field-dependence and field-independence, the kinds of cognitive style ⁷ as one of the characteristics the language learners have are differentially

related to formal-linguistic and functional-communicative foreign language learning tasks or situations. As cognitive style really affects both achievement and proficiency in writing course, educators should implement ways of drawing on this factor in formal language education. They should have awareness and different expectation to the students that may have different kind of cognitive style.

Whereas the implications of this research finding to the teaching of writing are:

1. Applying a certain approach in the teaching of writing cannot be separated from students' preferences. Applying an approach which is not in accordance with the students' preferences will sacrifice the students' writing potency. The students' writing achievement can be fostered to the certain level of expectation if the teacher can make teaching writing approach he applies suitable with the students' preferences.

B. Suggestions

Relying on the findings and in reference to the discussion of this study, this part is devoted to recommendations for some related sides in EFL teaching. Recommendations are directed to writing instructors and English Department management.

1. The suggestions for writing instructors.

Suggestions for writing instructors are devoted to improve language teaching activity in three areas:

- a. In the teaching writing course the teacher should assign the students as their style and the teaching approach they give to the students should be the one that has been adjusted to the students' preference. Any approach in teaching writing course is good only if it is given to the students having the learning characteristic/style suitable with the procedure of applying the approach in teaching writing. Giving writing approach forcefully to the students who do not really require as their cognitive style is in contradictory with it will sacrifice the students' performance, wasting time and useless.

2. Suggestions for the Management and Curriculum Designer of English Department of Higher Education Institution.

With respect to the previous evidence and suggestions, English Department should fully realize that student's writing proficiency does not come by itself, so the department management requires a high degree of commitment to achieve a high standard of academic writing. For this purpose, deliberate writing programs should be outlined corresponding to Writing Courses, Writing Source Materials, Teaching Strategy and Course Offering Management. One of the current buzzwords in English L2 teaching circles is 'learner-based' instruction. Teaching learners how to learn, it is believed, will

better equip the learners in their SLA process. According to Wenden (in Smith and Riding, 2003), learning strategies is the key to learner's autonomy.

Therefore suggestions as follows are given:

- a. Teaching writing strategy in ELT curriculum ³⁸ should be based on students' cognitive style, attitudes, beliefs, and stated needs. The strategies should be chosen ³⁸ to fit the requirements of language tasks with the learners' goals and learners' style of learning.
- b. The management of the English Department should push the teacher to do teaching to ³⁸ be somewhat individualized, as different students prefer or need certain strategies for particular tasks.
- c. Writing course offering in parallel classes should be based the need of the students subject to the learners' goals and learners' cognitive style.
- d. The management should provide the teacher with teaching strategy training which is explicit, relevant and provide sufficient ¹⁴⁹ practice with varied L2 writing tasks involving authentic materials to make them having adequate capacity with the students' different teaching style preferences.

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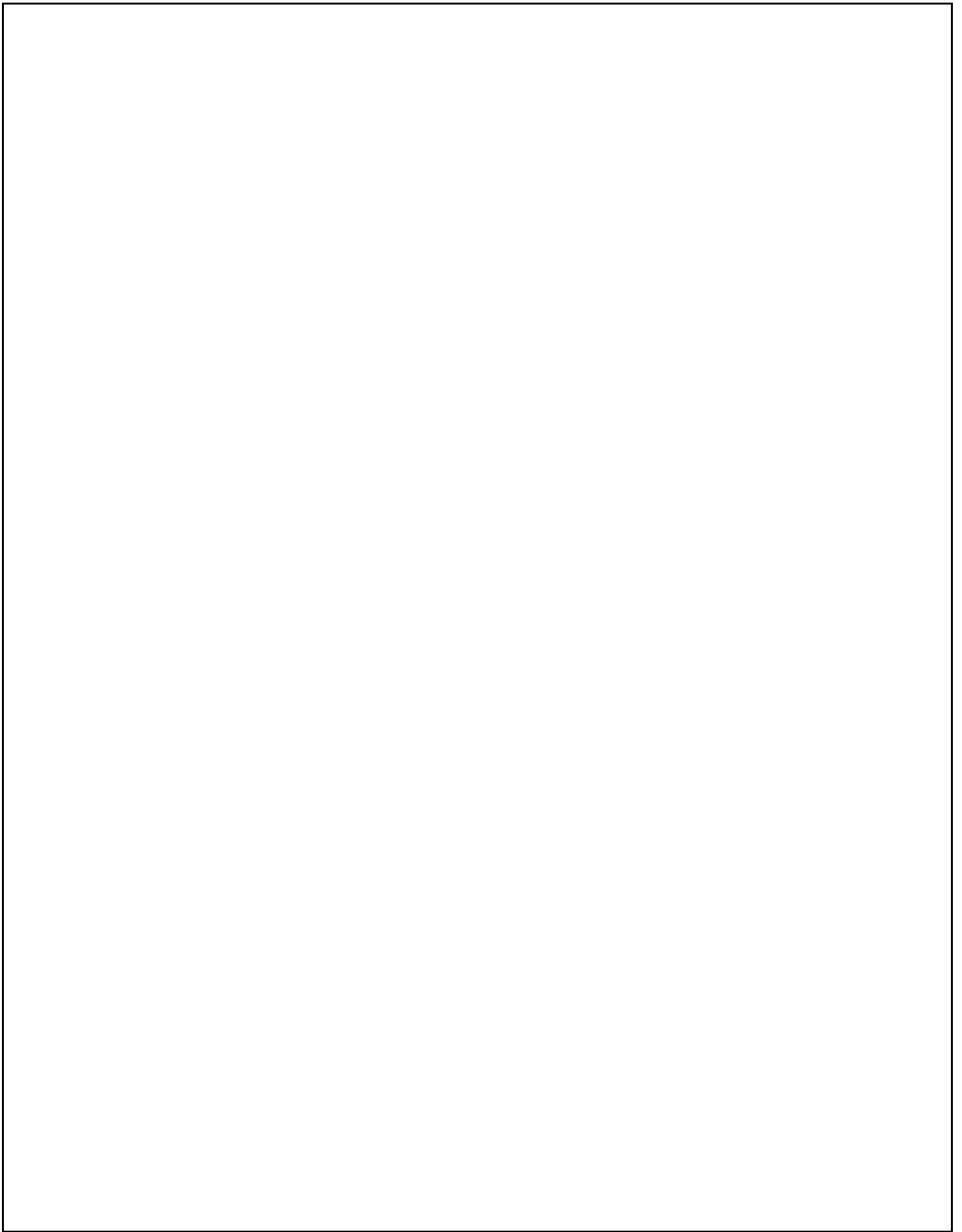
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