

A COMPARISON OF WRITING IMPROVEMENT
IN A TRADITIONAL APPROACH CLASS AND
A PROCESS APPROACH CLASS AS MEASURED
THROUGH CONTEXTUAL COHESIVE DEVICES

A THESIS

Submitted to the Institute of Economics and Social
Sciences of Bilkent University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of arts
in the Teaching of English As A Foreign Language

BY

HÜLYA TOROS

August, 1991

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1991

ABSTRACT

This study attempted to find if the process approach to writing instruction helped intermediate level EFL learners to improve their written work, particularly with respect to cohesive characteristics of their texts, better than a traditional approach. A total of twenty five EFL learners participated in the study. Because Halliday and Hasan's four types of external conjunctive cohesive devices (additive, adversative, causal, temporal) contribute to textual cohesion, they were chosen as a means of measuring students' improvement from the pre- to the post-test. Eight of the students were in the process class and seventeen of them were in the traditional class. Results indicated that (1) EFL students seem to profit from a more structured, traditional approach than the process approach to writing instruction; (2) there is a low correlation between the holistic measurement and the countings of external CCDs used by the students in their written work; (3) motivation of the students towards learning a language, and the way the teachers handle the approaches in their own teaching are the moderating factors determining the success of one approach to teaching writing or the other.

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HULYA TOROS

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Hulya Toros.
taros@du.edu.tr

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·T67
1991

B.0205

BILKENT UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
MA THESIS EXAMINATION RESULT FORM

July 31, 1991

The examining committee appointed by the
Institute of Economics and Social Sciences for the
thesis examination of the MA TEFL student

HULYA TOROS

has read the thesis of the student.
The committee has decided that the thesis
of the student is satisfactory.


Thesis title : A comparison of writing improvement
in a traditional approach class and
a process approach class as
measured through contextual
cohesive devices

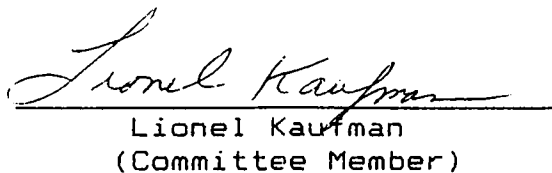
Thesis Advisor : Dr. James Stalker
Bilkent University, MA TEFL Program

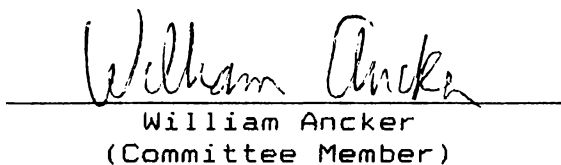
Committee Members : Dr. Lionel Kaufman
Bilkent University, MA TEFL Program

Mr. William Ancker
Bilkent University, MA TEFL Program

We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our combined opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.


James C. Stalker
(Advisor)


Lionel Kaufman
(Committee Member)


William Ancker
(Committee Member)

Approved for the
Institute of Economics and Social Sciences



Ali Karaosmanoglu
Director
Institute of Economics and Social Sciences

To my family

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. James C. Stalker for his guidance and patience throughout this study.

I am also grateful to Dr. Lionel Kaufman for his invaluable comments during the statistical analysis, and to Mr. William Ancker for his comments.

My thanks are also due to the teachers who participated in this study.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND AND GOALS OF THE STUDY

As Raimes (1983) points out "when we learn a second language, we learn to communicate with other people: to understand them, talk to them, read what they have written and write to them" (p. 3). Therefore, in order to communicate, one should not only be competent in speaking, but should also be able to communicate through writing.

The development of this study was prompted by two main factors. The first was five years of observation of the writing problems of intermediate EFL learners at the Cukurova University Agriculture Faculty. These problems proved to be not only of a grammatical nature, but an organizational one as well. Learners were unable to write coherent paragraphs providing supporting details for a given topic sentence. Further analysis of their writing showed they were unaware not only of cohesion/coherence techniques but of the very relationships between sentences; an ignorance of the hierarchization of information in a text, and an unawareness of the levels of generality within a text. The second factor was the observation of the general emphasis in classroom teaching practices on correct usage, correct grammar, and correct spelling.

Furthermore, there has recently been a surge of

interest in empirical research on the composing processes of L1 writers, and most of the research suggests that the process approach to writing instruction which stresses multiple drafts in order to allow the process of evaluation and revision to go forward helped students improve their writing strategies more than the traditional approach to teaching writing which emphasizes single drafts and mechanical accuracy. Hence, this study began as an attempt to find out if the process approach to writing instruction helped intermediate level EFL learners to improve their written work particularly with respect to cohesive characteristics of their texts, more than the traditional approach helped.

In this study in order to measure students' improvement in their written work Halliday and Hasan's conjunctive cohesive devices (hereafter abbreviated as CCDs) rather than the classical taxonomy of conjunctions, which is based on the Latinate model, was chosen. The underlying assumption is that textual CCDs provide coherence at the highest level of the text, structure it in such a way that the reader sees how the largest parts come together. They provide unity, a clear single focus to a topic.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH QUESTION

1.2.1 The research question which became the focus of this study is: assuming that an increase in external CCDs correlates with an increase in quality of writing, does a process approach to teaching writing cause a greater increase in external CCDs than a traditional approach to teaching writing?

1.2.2 Statement of Expectations

As a premise of the study, the process approach to teaching writing, which provides opportunities for writing multiple drafts and encourages the use of substantive feedback, is presumed to be more effective than a traditional approach which stresses only the first draft and mechanical correctness. Therefore it was hypothesized that this effectiveness will evidence itself as an increase in the use of external CCDs in the students' writing.

1.3 HYPOTHESIS

1.3.1 Directional-Hypothesis

There is a greater positive relationship between the use of the process approach to teaching writing and the increase in the number of external CCDs used by the EFL intermediate level students in their written work than between the use of the traditional approach to teaching writing and the increase in the number of external CCDs.

1.3.2 Null-Hypothesis:

1- There will be a significantly greater improvement in the number of external CCDs used by the traditional class students from the pre- to the post-test than by the process class.

2- There will be no significant improvement in the number of the external CCDs used by the process and the traditional class students from the pre- to the post-test.

1.3.3 Identification of variables

The variables which define this study are as follows:

Dependent variable:

Increase in the number of conjunctive cohesive devices in EFL intermediate level students' written work.

Independent variable:

Type of approach-the process approach and the traditional approach to writing instruction.

Extraneous variable:

Students' mood and motivation towards writing, and the teachers' ability in using the appropriate techniques of the approaches.

1.4 DEFINITIONS OF VARIABLES

1.4.1 The Process Approach to Writing Instruction

The process approach to teaching writing encourages students to write multiple drafts attending to issues of content in initial drafts. Any aspects of writing, syntax, organization, punctuation that impede understanding the content will be dealt with but the focus is on the content not on the linguistic features. Linguistic features that do not interfere with understanding but are inaccurate are dealt with in later stages. For example, mechanical errors such as spelling and punctuation are corrected in the final stages of editing.

1.4.2 The Traditional Approach to Writing Instruction

For this particular study, the traditional approach to teaching writing is defined as being characterized by single drafts which are corrected and graded by the teacher with high importance placed on mechanical correctness and accuracy of syntax.

1.4.3 Intermediate level

Students at BUSEL are given a placement test at the beginning of the year and those students who score between fifty and seventy out of hundred points on that test are accepted as intermediate level students. A BUSEL intermediate level student can understand and communicate with native speakers of English by using

simple but natural language, and read and comprehend the text-books they are studying. During their course of studying they are exposed to authentic materials and although they have difficulty in handling these materials by themselves they are able to comprehend them with the help of their teachers.

1.4.4 Cohesion

In this study Halliday's concept of cohesion was accepted as opposed to the traditional notion of cohesion which is not backed up with a theoretical background but just a classical taxonomy. The rationale for accepting Halliday and Hasan's concept was that their approach to grammar has a number of real strengths. First of all its basis is semantic, not syntactic i.e. certain principles of syntax are not denied but the role of linguistic items in any text in terms of their function in creating meaning is primary. In other words grammar and semantics are equally valued, a theoretical stance which agrees with the process approach to writing instruction. A second strength of Halliday's approach is that it is not only applicable to the spoken mode but in the written mode as well.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the general meaning of cohesion is included in the concept of text. By providing "texture", cohesion helps to

create a text. Although cohesion is necessary, it is not a sufficient condition in the creation of text. What creates text is the textual, or text-forming element, of the linguistic system, of which cohesion is one part. Stated as simply as possible, cohesion expresses the continuity that exists between one part of text and another. There has to be cohesion if meanings are to be exchanged at all.

Cohesion is expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary, and can be categorized under five headings: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Reference, substitution, and ellipsis are clearly grammatical and involve closed systems: simple options of presence or absence and systems such as those of person, number, proximity and degree of comparison. On the other hand, lexical cohesion involves open-choice and it is the selection of a lexical item that is related to the one occurring previously. Conjunction is on the borderline of the grammatical and the lexical; it is mainly grammatical but has a lexical component to it.

1.4.4.1 Conjunction as a means of text quality

In this study external CCDs were chosen as a means of measuring students' improvement in their written work. It was assumed that the more the students use

external CCDs, the higher the quality of their written work. The rationale behind this assumption is that external CCDs function as linkages between the elements that are constitutive of a text. External CCDs express the continuity that exists between one part of a text and another. In this respect, they clarify the relationships between ideas; they help one idea in a paragraph flow smoothly into the next idea. They cement ideas together so that the thoughts are related clearly, so that the reader can see how each sentence contributes to the point of the paragraph. That being so, external CCDs not only provide coherence but unity as well. Because of this important contribution it was hypothesized that an increase in the use of external CCDs in students' written work would indicate an increase in quality and by extension would indicate the successfulness of a particular approach to teaching writing.

Halliday and Hasan's (1976) CCDs are rather different in nature from the other cohesive relations. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), CCDs express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse. In describing conjunction as a cohesive device the focus is not on the semantic relations, as realized throughout the grammar of the language, but on the function they have of relating to

each other linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other structural means.

Conjunction, according to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) presentation, occurs in four types: additive, adversative, causal, temporal. The words and, yet, so, and then, which may occur in either an "external" or an "internal" context, represent these four very general conjunctive relations.

In general, the distinction between the external and internal CCDs can be explained as the latter being at sentence level and the first as at text level. This distinction can be clarified by illustrating the difference between the coordinate and and the conjunctive and. First of all, the coordinate and is structural, whereas conjunctive and is cohesive. Secondly, as opposed to the coordinate and, when the and relation operates conjunctively, between sentences, to give cohesion to a text, or to create a text, it is restricted to just a pair of sentences. A coordinate item such as boys and girls functions as a single whole; it constitutes a single element in the structure of a larger unit, for example, the subject in a clause. In fact, this potentiality is not limited to two items; we may have three, as boys, girls and teachers, or more. As Halliday and Hasan (1976) point out "there is no fixed limit either to the depth or to the extent of

coordinate structures" (p. 234).

On the other hand, with and as an external conjunctive relation, the situation is rather different. The relation, here, is between sentences, and "sentences follow one another one at a time as the text unfolds, they can not be rearranged, as a coordinate structure can, in different sequence and different bracketings," e.g: boys and girls or girls and teachers, and boys and parents (p. 235). If a new sentence is linked to the ones that come before, the conjunctive and is one way in which it may be linked. To sum up, if the and is used as a coordinate it can be omitted as in boys, girls and the teachers, and still form a single whole, whereas if it is used as a conjunctive and and if it is omitted it will not form a single whole.

The cohesive and is internal if it has the meaning of next in a series of things to be said, in which it links a series of questions, meaning "the next thing I want to know is" or if it links a series of points all contributing to one general argument in which it carries over some of the retrospective effect i.e projecting backwards, it has as a coordinator. This retrospective, projecting backwards, function is in fact rather significant, for e.g. in a series, like girls, boys and teachers, the meaning of and is

projected backwards and we interpret as girls and boys and teachers. Projecting backwards occurs only with the logical relations of and and or, which are the only ones expressed in the form of coordination.

As it is apparent, internal CCDs do not contribute to textual cohesion, therefore in this study only the external ones (see Appendix) were counted. The four types of CCDs will be discussed below.

1.4.4.2 Additive

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the and type and the or type that appear structurally in the form of coordination can be grouped under the category of additive. The distinction between the two is not of primary significance if textual cohesion is the focus. Although apparently similar, the correlative pairs both...and, either...or, and neither...nor are not used with a cohesive function; they are restricted to structural coordination within the sentence. The reason is that a coordinate pair functions as a single unit, in some higher structure, and so can be delineated as a constituent; in fact a cohesive "pair" is not a pair, but two independent elements the second of which is tied on the first.

The words, and, or, and nor, may express either the external or the internal type of conjunctive relation and there may not be a clear cut distinction

between the two; but when and is used alone as a cohesive item it is external, as distinct from "and then", which has the sense of "there is something more to be said," which is clearly internal (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 235). For example, in (1) the and has a meaning of "and then" and is used at sentence level therefore it is internal. However, in the second sentence the and is used at text level and therefore it is external.

(1) John went to the store and bought some candy.

(2) Economics is a complex subject and one we must understand if we are to understand the world.

And also and, and...too are the parallel forms of the positive and relation. The emphatic forms of the and relation occur only in an internal sense, that of "there is yet another point to be taken in conjunction with the previous one" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; p. 246). This is the meaning that is taken on by the and relation when it is a form of internal conjunction. There are a large number of conjunctive expressions which have this meaning, e.g: further, further more, again, also, moreover, what is more, besides, additionally, in addition, in addition to this, not only that but.

The basic meaning of the conjunctive or relation is alternative. With the or relation, the distinction

between the external and the internal planes is more clear cut. For example in the following example since the alternative comprises a single sentence it is claimed to be internal:

(3) Shall we go out for a walk? Or would you like to swim?

In its external sense, the objective alternatives together with its expansion or else is largely limited to questions, requests, permissions and predications. If it is associated with statements, or takes on the internal sense of "an alternative interpretation, another possible opinion, explanation, etc." (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 247). For example,

(4) Perhaps she was late. Or she has changed her mind and is not coming.

The negative form of the additive relation is expressed simply as nor. There are various other expressions with more or less the same meaning: and...not, not...either and and...not...either; neither, and...neither. The expanded forms of either have a sense of "and what is more" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 246). It is an element of internal meaning, because it expresses the speaker's attitude to or evaluation of what he is saying.

With negative comparison, the adversative type of conjunction is approached, where it has the sense of

"not...but..." Here expressions such as instead, rather, on the contrary are found.

Forms such as similarly, likewise, and in the same way are used to mention that a point is being reinforced or a new one added to the same effect. The cohesive use of comparison includes an external component as well. The meaning "dissimilarity" is expressed by the phrases on the other hand, by contrast, as opposed to this and so on. If the phrases on the other hand and on the one hand are used together the sense of dissimilarity is weakened, and the effect becomes more than a simple additive.

There are two other types of relation which can be accepted as subcategories of the additive. Both of these have internal relations though they may have external implications. The first is exposition or exemplification which structurally corresponds to apposition. The words which occur in the exposition function are: I mean, that is, that is to say, (or) in other words, (or) to put it another way; in the exemplificatory sense, for instance, for example, thus.

Other items, such as namely, and the abbreviations ie, viz, eg, are used as structural markers within the sentence, although they may link two sentences. Items such as incidentally, by the way combine the sense of additive with that of afterthought. They are perhaps

on the borderline of cohesion.

1.4.4.3 Adversative

Halliday and Hasan (1976) suggest that the basic meaning of the adversative relation is "contrary to expectation" (p. 250). The expectation may be derived from the content of what is being said, or from the communication process. Adversative is found on both the external and the internal planes.

An external adversative relation is expressed in its simple form by the word yet occurring initially in the sentence. But, however, and though are very similar to yet in this function. The word but differs from yet in that but contains the element and as one of its meaning components, whereas yet does not; for this reason, we regularly find sentences beginning and yet, but never and but. The word however is different. It can occur non-initially in the sentence. It has a separate tone group, separate from what follows, and so is associated with intonational prominence, whereas yet and but are normally spoken as reduced syllables and become tonal only for purposes of contrast. "In some instances the adversative relation between two sentences appears as it were with the sequence reversed, where the second sentence would correspond to the although clause in a hypotactic structure" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 252).

The usual modern sense of the word however is in fact derived from the general sense; in the same way various other expressions which are essentially of this type, such as any how, at any rate, are coming to function as adversatives in the more specific sense. At the same time, but and however occur in a related though somewhat different sense, which might be called contrastive. They share this contrastive function with on the other hand (but never in its correlative form on the one hand...on the other hand, which is comparative.)

The word yet does not occur in this sense. The two meanings "in spite of" and "as against" can be paralleled within the sentence, in the although type of dependent clause. This is a true adversative, and it can have only this sense if the although clause precedes the main clause where although is accented. If the although clause follows the main clause, where although is unaccented, it can have either the meaning "in spite of" or the meaning "as against."

There is another kind of internal adversative relation which is expressed by a number of items such as in fact, as a matter of fact, actually, to tell you the truth. The meaning is something like "as against what the current state of the communication process would lead us to expect, the fact of the matter is..."

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 253).

By contrast is another type of the adversative which has the sense of "not...but..." The meaning of this cohesive relation is again internal-although the context of its use may be found in the content of the presupposed and the presupposing sentences. The general meaning is "contrary to the expectation", but here the special sense is "as against what has just been said." The distinction between this and the "avowal" type such as in fact, is that the latter is an assertion of "the facts" in the face of real or imaginary resistance ("as against what you might think"), whereas here one formulation is rejected in favor of another ("as against what you have been told.") Characteristics expressions of this relation are instead (of that), rather, on the contrary, at least, I mean.

Finally the meaning no matter (whether...or not; which...still...) may be considered as a generalized form of the adversative relation. Dismissive expressions include in any/either case/event, any/either way, whichever happens, whether ... or not. The same meaning is further generalized to cover an entirely open-ended set of possibilities: no matter what, i.e., no matter under what circumstances, still... Taken by itself this seems to have nothing

cohesive about it; but it always presupposes that something has gone before, therefore it is semantically conjunctive.

1.4.4.4 Causal

As Halliday and Hasan (1976) claim, the simple form of causal relation is expressed by so, thus, hence, therefore, consequently, accordingly, and a number of expressions like as a result (of that), in consequence (of that), because of that. All of them combine with initial and. But the same general types exist as with the adversatives. Thus so occurs only initially, unless following and; thus like yet occurs initially or at least in the first part (the modal element) of the clause; therefore has the same potentialities as however. Adverbs such as consequently resemble the adversative adverbs like nevertheless; and the prepositional expressions such as a result (of this) have on the whole the same potentialities of occurrence as those with an adversative sense, but they are causal.

Causal relations specifically cover result, reason and purpose but these are not distinguished in the simplest form of expression. For example, so means "as a result of this," "for this reason," and "for this purpose." Since the notion of cause involves some degree of interpretation by the speaker, the

distinction between the external and the internal types of cohesion tends to be a little less clear cut than it is in the other contexts. The simple forms thus, hence, and therefore all occur regularly in an internal sense, implying some kind of reasoning or argument from a premise; in the same meaning there are some expressions like arising out of this, following from this. The reversed form of the causal relation, in which the presupposing sentence expresses the cause, is less usual as a form of cohesion.

The conditional type of conjunctive relation is also considered under the general heading of causal. Both of them are closely related linguistically. Where the causal means "a, therefore b," the conditional means "possibly a; if so, then b," and although the then and the therefore are not logically equivalent--"a" may entail "b" without being its cause--they are largely interchangeable as cohesive forms.

The simple form of expression of the conditional relation, meaning "under these circumstances," is the word then. Other items include in that case, that being the case, in such an event. The negative form of the conditional, under other circumstances, is expressed cohesively by otherwise. In the conditional relation, the distinction between the external and internal types of cohesion is not at all obvious. But

expressions such as in that respect, with regard to this, in this connection, the internal analogue of the conditional relation, are explained under this heading. The fact that these are related to conditionals is suggested also by the use of otherwise to express the same meaning with polarity reversed; otherwise is equivalent not only to "under other circumstances" but also to "in other respects," "aside/apart from this."

1.4.4.5 Temporal

Halliday and Hasan (1976) claim the temporal relation is expressed in its simple form by then which has a sequential sense. In this sequential sense we have not only then and and then but also next, afterwards, after that, subsequently and a number of other expressions.

The temporal may be made more specific by the presence of an additional component in the meaning, as well as that of succession in time. The external temporal relation is paralleled by the sequence of the sentences themselves: the second sentence refers to a later event. But this is not necessarily the case; the second sentence may be related to the first by means of temporal cohesion through an indication that it is simultaneous in time, or even previous. In the sense of "simultaneous" we have (just) then, at the same time, simultaneously; and here too the simple time

relation may be accompanied by some other component, eg: "then + in the interval" (meanwhile, all this time,) "then + repetition" (on this occasion, this time,) "then + moment of time" (at this point/moment,) "then + termination" (by this time) and so on. In the sense of "previous" we have earlier, before that, previously, with, again, the possibility of combination with other meanings:

"before + specific time interval" (five minutes earlier,) "before + immediately" (just before,) "before + termination" (up till that time, until then,) "before + repetition" (on a previous occasion). (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; p. 263)

The presupposing sentence may be temporally cohesive not because it stands in some particular time relation to the presupposed sentence but because it marks the end of some process or series of processes. This conclusive sense is expressed by items such as finally, at last, in the end, eventually. In one respect temporal conjunction differs from all other types, namely in that it occurs in a correlative form, with a cataphoric time expression in one sentence anticipating the anaphoric one that is to follow. The typical cataphoric temporal is first; also at first, first of all, to begin with, etc.

In temporal cohesion it is fairly easy to identify and interpret the distinction between the external and the internal type of conjunctive relation. In the

internal type the successivity is not in the events being talked about but in the communication process. The meaning "next in the course of discussion" is typically expressed by the words then or next, or by secondly, thirdly, etc, and the culmination of the discussion is indicated by expressions such as finally, as a final point, in conclusion. One important type of internal temporal conjunction is the here and now of the discourse. This may take a past, present or future form. Typical expressions are: past, up to now, up to this point, hither to, heretofore; present, at this point, here; future, from now on, henceforward, hereunder. The external forms of here and now are not cohesive but deictic. If on the other hand, here and now means "here and now in the text," then such forms will have a cohesive effect. As Halliday and Hasan (1976) note, these internal aspects of the temporal relations are "temporal" in the sense that they refer to the time dimension that is present in the communication process. The meaning of to sum up is basically a form of temporal conjunction even when expressed by other items such as to sum up, in short, in a word, to put it briefly.

1.4.4.6 Text

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), a text may be spoken or written, prose or verse, dialogue or monologue. A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or a sentence; it is not defined by its size. A text is considered as a semantic unit: a unit of meaning. Hence, it is related to a clause or sentence, not by size but by realization, the coding of one symbolic system in another. A text is not made up of sentences; it is realized by, or encoded in, sentences.

The expression of the semantic unity of the text lies in the cohesion among the sentences of which it is composed. Typically, every sentence in any text contains at least one anaphoric tie connecting it with what has gone before. Some sentences may also have a cataphoric tie, connecting up with what follows, but these are very much rarer and are not regarded as necessary to the creation of text.

Any piece of language that is operational, functioning as a unity in a situation, constitutes a text. A text is usually homogeneous, at least in those linguistic aspects which reflect and express its functional relationship to its setting. Because the speaker or writer uses cohesion to signal texture, and the listener or reader reacts to it in his

interpretation of texture, it is reasonable for us to make use of cohesion as a criterion for the recognition of the boundaries of a text. For most purposes, it can be considered that a new text begins where a sentence shows no cohesion with those that have preceded. We may see isolated sentences or structural units which do not cohere with those around them, even though they organize part of a connected passage. But usually if a sentence indicates a transition of some kind, for example, a transition between different stages in a complex transaction, or between narration and description in a passage of prose fiction, we might regard such instances as discontinuities, signalling the beginning of a new text. Sometimes then the new text will turn out to be an interpolation, after which the original text is once again resumed. So although the concept of a text is exact enough, and can be adequately and explicitly defined, the definition alone will not inform us with automatic criteria for recognizing in all instances what is a text and what is not.

In all linguistic contexts, we frequently have to deal with forms of interaction which lie on the borderline between textual continuity and discontinuity. But the existence of this kind of indeterminate instances does not invalidate the

usefulness of the general notion of text as the basic semantic unit of linguistic interaction.

1.4.4.7 Texture

Cohesion is a necessary component in the construction of a text but there are two other components of texture. One is the textual structure that is internal to the sentence: the organization of the sentence and its parts which relates it to its environment. The other is the macrostructure of the text, which establishes it as a text of a particular kind—conversation, narrative, lyric and so on.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF METHODOLOGY

For this study two intermediate level classes from the preparatory school at Bilkent University were chosen. The teacher of one class, who is used to teaching writing using a traditional approach, conducted the traditional class, while the other, who did her master's thesis on the process approach to writing, conducted the process class. Two separate conferences, one at the very beginning, the other during the study, were held with the two teachers in order to make sure that the researcher and the teachers of the both groups agreed on the essential steps to be followed during the study.

Before the study began both the process and the traditional classes wrote a twenty-minute essay on one

of three topics: "More Freedom for Women," "Problems of University Students," or "The Best/Worst Day in My Life." After a four week study period, both groups wrote a twenty-minute essay on one of three topics: "Love," "Marriage," or "Friendship." The criteria in choosing the six topics for the pre- and post-test was to find topics that would most probably motivate students towards writing.

At the end of the study the total number of the conjunctions for each student in the pre- and the post-tests was counted and the data were analyzed by carrying out two t-tests to determine the degree of significance between the means of the pre- and the post-test scores of the traditional and the process classes. Furthermore, in order to find whether using Halliday and Hasan's CCD system leads to an accurate assessment of quality, the post-tests were measured by three teachers, not the teachers who conducted the study, using a holistic scoring method.

1.6 ORGANIZATION OF THESIS

The first chapter introduces the background and goals of the study, statement of the research question, hypotheses, identification of variables, overview of methodology as well as the organization of the thesis. The second chapter is a review of the literature pertinent to this study. The third chapter identifies

the methodology used for collecting data. The fourth chapter consists of the presentation and analysis of the data. The fifth chapter presents the conclusions drawn from the study, some implications, and suggestions for further study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the two approaches, particularly the traditional and the process approach to writing instruction, and discusses some of the empirical research related to the implementation of these approaches. Based on the review of the literature, it can be concluded that the dissatisfaction with the limits of a product oriented view of writing led many researchers interested in the development of writing ability to look at the development itself from a process oriented perspective. For example, Donovan and McClelland (1980) suggest that the time has come to shift emphasis from "praising" and "blaming" to "making the writer" (p. x). They maintain that the correlation between knowledge of grammar and writing ability is very low, that negative criticism is not an effective means of improving students' writing abilities, and that the present orientation of expecting students to submit grammatically perfect papers results in frustrated teachers and alienated students. According to them, the focus should be on the process of writing the composition rather than on the composition as a single finished product.

2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE TRADITIONAL APPROACH TO WRITING INSTRUCTION

The traditional notion of writing is that it is a linear process with a strict plan-write-revise sequence. It focuses intensively upon organization and style. The traditional approach hypothesizes that knowledge of structures and the rules for combining them will result in students' becoming writers (Proett & Gill, 1986). Hence it deals with the properties of the linguistic production.

Corbett (1965) explains the notion of teaching writing with a traditional approach as "an emphases on correct usage, correct grammar, and correct spelling" and maintains that the act of teaching writing in a traditional approach focuses on "the topic sentence, the various methods of developing the paragraph...and the holy trinity of unity, coherence, and emphasis" (p. 626). According to Koch and Brazil (1978) the traditional approach to teaching the forming or structuring stage is to present lectures on formal rhetoric, illustrating them with examples of paragraph and essay development, and to assign professionally written essays for reading and classroom analysis. As with Koch and Brazil (1978), Judy (1980) suggests that "form" in writing has traditionally been presented as something independent of a writer's content, indeed, as

something which exists before content (p. 41). For example, for many years students have been taught an idealized form of the paragraph, and have been required to match their writing to that model.

As Chastain (1990) points out, in traditional classes teachers insist that the correction of errors is an indispensable component of effective language instruction. Otherwise, errors will fossilize and their elimination will become increasingly difficult as the habit becomes more firmly ingrained in the learner's language patterns. Moreover, Chastain (1990) indicates that foreign language teachers have traditionally assigned compositions at the end of grammar-based chapters as a means of testing their students' ability to utilize recently learned grammar to prepare an error-free product. They read the compositions and marked the errors. Then they returned the graded papers to the students either hoping that they would study the corrections in order to eliminate those errors from their writing in future compositions, or required them to correct their errors and to resubmit the paper for a final check on the grammatical accuracy.

Carnicelli (1980) says traditional writing instruction usually stresses only the writing stage: the student is given a topic and writes a first draft;

the teacher grades the draft, then assigns another topic. There is little or no time for pre-writing or rewriting. As Proett and Gill (1986) mention, revision is essentially recopying an assignment, correcting grammar, punctuation, and spelling, or simply tidying up the writing. Only the paper, the product, receives the teacher's attention.

2.3 AN OVERVIEW OF THE PROCESS APPROACH TO WRITING INSTRUCTION

The process approach to teaching writing concerns itself with the process through which a piece of writing comes into existence. In this approach, as Murray (1980) indicates, writing is an act of recording or communicating. It is a significant kind of thinking in which the symbols of language assume a purpose of their own and instruct the writer during the composing process. According to Kehl (1990) a process approach to teaching writing sees writing as a process of several steps, beginning first with generating ideas (via various sources), writing to discover what one wants to say, revising, getting feedback from various readers (between revisions), and writing again.

Judy (1980) says "students of all ages have a wide range of experiences that can serve as the starting point for writing: hopes and fears, wishes and ambitions, past events in their lives, even fantasies"

(p. 39). What seems most important is that students recognize that whatever they write should grow from their experience (Decker & Kathy, 1985). The teacher must provide time for students to talk about, to expand, and even to relearn or reexamine their experiences. Perl (1983) claims:

Composing does not occur in a straightforward, linear fashion. The process is one of accumulating discrete words or phrases down on the paper and then working from these bits to reflect upon structure, and then further develop what one means to say. It can be thought of as a kind of "retrospective structuring;" movement forward occurs only after one has some sense of where one wants to go. Both aspects, the reaching back and the sensing forward, have a clarifying effect... Rereading or backward movements become a way of assessing whether or not the words on the page adequately capture the original sense intended. (p. 18)

According to Perl (1983) constructing simultaneously involves discovery. Writers know more fully what they mean only after having written it. In this way "the explicit written form serves as a window on the implicit sense with which one began" (Perl, 1983, p. 18). As McClintic (1989) points out, the process oriented approach, by focusing students' attention toward the importance of improving a written piece of work through effort and revision, reflects an "incremental" theory of writing ability. According to McClintic (1989):

Incremental theorists tend to focus more on the task itself, believing that both better

and poorer writers can improve any piece of writing as they continue to re-work it, making use of new ideas and constructive feedback. (p. 2)

In the process approach, the teacher and the student face the task of making meaning together. The teacher and the writer together explore the purpose and content of the piece of writing. According to this view, the teacher has to help students finding their own content, their own forms, and their own language. The students write and the teacher writes. Decker and Kathy (1985) say:

The learner is an active participant in the learning process, collaborating with his teacher/coach to make meaning. He is afforded an opportunity to think, to read, and to write in a critical, discriminating, and meaningful context. (p. 3)

In this way the students produce the principal text in the writing course. Teachers using this approach encourage students to write multiple drafts of assignments, attending to issues of content (see section 1.4.1) in initial drafts and dealing with correction of mechanical errors such as spelling and punctuation in the final parts of editing. Students are also encouraged to share their writing with peers, seeking and using substantive feedback as part of the revision process (Atwell, 1981; Calkins, 1986; and Graves, 1983).

Koch and Brazil (1978) claim that if a teacher

places too great an emphasis on editing and proofreading at the outset of a composition course, the student's language, ideas, and experiences which she must start with in the composition process will be overshadowed by the student's fear of error.

2.3.1 The cycles of the writing process

The writing process is described in cycles, and consists of rehearsing, drafting and revising. Students are often aware of these cycles and experience each of them. The cycles are not necessarily sequential and discrete but rather recursive. As Decker and Kathy (1985) explain, a writer may be revising and realize that he needs to brainstorm for more information. He then applies the rehearsing strategy again to help him collect more raw material. Likewise, the writer may revise early in the writing process and again several times later as the writing progresses.

2.3.1.1 Rehearsing

Rehearsing is often the beginning of the writing process after the initial impetus to begin writing. It includes any experience, activity, or exercise that motivates a person to write, that generates materials and ideas for writing, or that focuses a writer's attention on a particular subject (Proett & Gill, 1986; Murray, 1980; Flinn, 1984; Decker & Kathy, 1985).

According to Proett and Gill (1986):

Pre-writing stimulates and enlarges thought and moves writers from the stage of thinking about a writing task to the act of thinking. The pre-writing stage is likely to be more important in generating quality than "marking" at the end. (p. 5)

As Murray (1980) claims, during the rehearsing process, the writer in the mind and on the page prepares himself for writing before knowing for sure that there will be writing. Rehearsing is considered by Decker and Kathy (1985) as all the thoughts, sights, sounds, tastes, feelings, opinions, and attitudes a person has ever experienced. According to Britton (1975), a writer's experiences serve to color facts which have been gathered. In the process of doing this planning, the writer can discover more material than he needs, one idea can lead on to another, details can be captured, and new approaches can emerge. The strategies that follow are designed to prepare the writer to get those words on paper (Proett & Gill, 1986).

For beginners, pre-writing may be planned learning experiences which the teacher provides, but later on as they become more experienced, writers need fewer planned experiences. This cycle helps writers to find out what they have to say. Several strategies have been discussed in the literature. They are generally accepted as ways to help students begin to write. Some

invention techniques used in the rehearsing cycle are logs, brainstorming, listing and cubing.

Logs are used as a pre-writing strategy in which teachers are given the opportunity to check the learning process rather than examining its end product. This activity helps students to pay attention to the writing to follow and provides students with a systematic process for recording and retaining learning ideas in all classes, not just the writing class.

Brainstorming, thunder in the brain, is a very common pre-writing technique. The idea behind this activity is to empty the brain on a particular topic so that students gather a variety of ideas, opinions, and viewpoints about it. Brainstorming, by teaching more able students to work cooperatively with less able students, develops group, intellectual and interpersonal skills. Brainstorming releases tension in teaching so that it allows students to be more relaxed with the target language. It not only helps students build up their confidence but serves as an excellent source of knowledge.

Listing is an activity in which students are asked to list words and short phrases related to the topic in a limited time. It is assumed that, once the writers have a list, they have a source of ideas to use as they

begin to write their paper, and that the listing stimulates associational responses, thus generating new and related ideas that may not have been immediately apparent.

Cubing is a writing activity in which students explore their subject quickly from different angles or points of view.

The rules for cubing are:

1- Use all six sides of the cube.

2- Move fast. Take only 3 to 5 minutes for each side.

Six sides of the cube:

Describe it: Look closely and tell what you see.

Compare it: What is it similar to or different from?

Associate it: What does it remind you of? And what other associations come to mind?

Analyze it: Tell how it is made; make it up if you are not sure.

Apply it: Tell what you can do with it. How can it be used?

Argue for or against it: Take a stand. Give any reasons...silly, serious, or in between.

2.3.1.2 Drafting

Drafting is the central cycle of the writing process. The first goal of a writing program at this cycle is to develop fluency and confidence in students as they work as writers. Fluency with written English

is critical to this part. Writers must learn how to express their thoughts and ideas in coherent written pieces, and they need to have experience in making choices in the written tasks (Murray, 1980; Proett & Gill, 1986). At this time it is helpful to put all the lists and notes away and synthesize the information in a draft. It is a reflection of the writer's thinking (McClintic, 1989). By writing drafts, students try out the ways of presenting their ideas and get responses from their peers or from their instructors (Raimes, 1985). After they develop freedom and confidence, they consider the needs of their audience and the purpose of their writing (Decker & Kathy, 1985).

According to Murray (1980) during the rehearsing, drafting, and revising cycles, four primary forces interact. They are collecting and connecting, and writing and reading. These forces interact so fast that we are often unaware of their interaction or even of their distinct existence. As we collect a piece of information, we immediately try to connect it with other pieces of information; when we write a phrase, we read it to see how it fits with what has gone before and how it may lead to what comes after. The material we gather becomes so immense that it demands connecting. The connections we make force us to see information we did not see before. The connections

force us to seek new, supporting information, but sometimes that information is contradictory. So we have to make new connections with new information which in turn demands new connections. These forces work for and against each other to produce new meanings.

There is another pair of powerful countervailing forces at work. The primary one is the physical act of writing (Murray, 1980). In fact, as Murray (1980) indicates, we record in written language what we say in our heads. This does not mean that writing is simply oral language written down. We practice what we want to say silently and later we may record and revise in written language what sounded right in our minds. The counterforce of reading works against the powerful force of writing. Reading involves criticism. We make comparisons; we look for immediate clarity. Just as connecting can control collecting too effectively and too early, so reading can suppress writing. That is, writers learn how to become readers of their own writing or learn that they must use their reader knowledge as well as their writer knowledge. According to Perl (1983), in writing we "writeread" or "readwrite" continually testing the word against the experience, the word against the one before and the one to come next. Eventually, we extend the range of this testing to phrase, to sentence, to paragraph, to page.

The forces of the writing process also relate to each other. The act of collecting is also an act of writing and reading. We can not collect information and store it without naming it and reading that name. It is language which often directs us towards connections, and we are led to them by the acts of writing and reading. In the rehearsing cycle writing and collecting are given more attention, whereas in the revising cycle the opposite is true; reading and connecting take the primary role.

The draft occurs when the four forces are in tentative balance. The forces work against each other to produce meaning. That is why in the beginning of the writing process there is no draft. The draft emerges when the writing can be read; the information begins to assume a meaningful order. As Murray (1980) points out, there is no clear line between the cycles of rehearsing, drafting, and revising, as there exists interaction between the forces.

2.3.1.3 Revising

Research has shown that rewriting has the highest correlation with the most improved writing. According to Spina (1984), revising is not recopying or correcting errors. During the revising cycle writers rethink their thoughts to determine if they are saying what they want to say (Murray, 1980). Generally, the

emphasis is on how well the written material communicates the writer's intent to the audience. According to Decker and Kathy (1985), during this cycle of the process, the writer considers unity, focus, order, clarity, and word choices. He may add further information or qualify details. Proett and Gill (1986) remind us that "revision" means "seeing again" (p. 21). They maintain that revision and rewriting are not punishment or the price that a student has to pay for a draft that is not acceptable the first time, but an opportunity in which students become involved with their writing. As Spina (1984) suggests, in order to do more than recopy, the students must be taught how to revise their writing for content as well as mechanics.

According to Murray (1980), revision which does not end in publication is the most significant kind of rehearsal for the following draft. Murray (1980) suggests:

The writer *listens* to see what is on the page, scans, moves in closely, uncaps the pen, slashes sections out, moves others around, adds new ones. Somewhere along the line the writer finds that instead of looking back to the previous draft, trying to clarify what has been written, the writer is actually looking ahead to the next draft to see what must be added or cut or reordered. And thus revising becomes rehearsing. (p. 5)

This process of discovering meaning--rehearsing, drafting, revising--repeated again and again is the way the writing's meaning is found and made clear.

It can be said that the writer is constantly learning from the writing what she intends to say. To learn what to do next, she does not just look outside the piece of writing, instead she looks within the piece of writing. The writing itself helps the writer see the subject (Murray, 1980).

Spina (1984) states that "once students have an understanding of the revision process, they can pair up to help each other with their writing" (p. 76). A checklist is given to each group to direct the team. Students pair up as "author" and "editor." They then meet with their editors and discuss their papers, using the checklist as a guide. When the papers are marked up and revised, a conference is held with the teacher. All three discuss each paper. Spina (1984) says "When everyone feels comfortable with the final product, the author, editor, and teacher sign the checklist" (p.76). Each student then rewrites the paper for publication. Flinn (1984) claims:

Students learn to take responsibility for editing their own papers through giving and receiving feedback in peer workshops and conferences with the teacher. One of the most important insights they can gain is that usage changes and that good editing means making decisions about voice, audience, and purpose. (p. 161)

Murray (1980) states that the experience of sharing writing should be reinforced by the writing conference. Individual conferences are the principal

one or two of the most important matters and make sure the student understands them. Other problems can be discussed in subsequent conferences if they are still present in the revised drafts. According to Murray (1980) while dealing with the problems, the teacher must respect the forces and not supply the student with his information, to make his connection, to use his language, to read what he sees in the text. The teacher should not look at the text for the student, not even with the student. By asking helpful questions of the student, the teacher shows the student how to question his or her own drafts: "What did you learn from this writing?" "Where is the writing taking you?" "What do you feel works best in this writing?"

The most effective teaching occurs when the students who have produced the work talk about how they have produced it. In this way, students are shown what they have learned and by doing so the teacher learns with them. The teacher extends, reinforces, and teaches what those students have already done and may be able to apply it to other tasks. Others in the class who have not tried it are encouraged to try it in the future (Murray, 1980).

Evaluation in the process writing course is not a matter of an occasional test. As the student passes through the writing process, there is constant

evaluation of the writing in process. The writer's evaluation is shared with the teacher or with other writers in the class. The evaluation is evaluated as the writing itself is evaluated. Murray (1980) claims that, "each draft, often each part of the draft, is discussed with readers--the teacher-writer and the other student-writers" (p. 18). Eventually the writing is published in a workshop, and a group of readers evaluate it. It is evaluated on many levels: Is there a subject? Does it say anything? Is it worth saying? Is it focused? Is it documented? Is it ordered? Are the parts developed? Is the writing clear? Does it have an appropriate voice? Do the sentences work? Do the paragraphs work? Are the verbs strong? Are the nouns specific? Is the spelling correct? Does the punctuation clarify?

As Murray (1980) points out there is, in fact, so much evaluation, so much self-criticism, so much rereading that the writing teacher has to help relieve the pressure of criticism. The pressure should never be so great that it destroys self-respect. It should be kept in mind that effective writing depends on the student's respect for the potential that may appear. The student has to have faith in the evolving draft to be able to see its value. To have faith in the draft means having faith in the self.

2.4 PREVIOUS STUDIES ON THE PROCESS APPROACH AND THE TRADITIONAL APPROACH TO WRITING INSTRUCTION

Though interest in EFL writing and the composing process has increased in recent years, little research has yet produced data-based studies that tackle the capabilities of EFL writers' or the effect of the process approach on EFL learners' writing strategies. Therefore, the data-based studies discussed in this section mostly reflect the effectiveness of the traditional approach or the process approach on ESL or native speakers' writing skills.

2.4.1 L1 Studies

In the field of teaching composition, Chomsky's theories as represented in Syntactic structures (1957) started a shift in attention from the surface structure of sentences to those processes which produced sentences. This theoretical orientation is reflected in Kellogg Hunt's T-unit, which is a main clause and all of its modifiers. Using this measure, Hunt (1965) examined the "syntactic" maturity of the writing of adults in Harper's and Atlantic magazines and compared it with the writing of fifty four students in grades four, eight, and twelve, and found that adults have longer T-units (more words per T-unit) and a larger ratio of clauses to T-units, a measure of subordination. Hence, Hunt's study raised the question

of whether or not lessons in different sentence transformations might not help the growth of syntactic maturity in students.

Following up on Hunt's study, Mellon (1969), who labelled this growth as "syntactic fluency," found that sentence combining exercises, which dealt with the surface structure combinations, not transformations of deep structure, led to growth, but also he found that students who improved their syntactic fluency did not necessarily receive higher essay scores than the students who had not improved. For this reason, Mellon (1969) claims that sentence combining is effective only if it is combined with wide reading and the exploration of ideas.

On the other hand, O'Hare (1973), who modified Mellon's exercises slightly, found that both essay scores and syntactic fluency improved as a result of direct instruction in sentence combining. Mellon's (1969) study differs from O'Hare's (1973) in that, for Mellon teaching more complex sentence structure does not lead to an increase in quality although it does lead to a quantity increase. However, O'Hare (1973) concludes that teaching sentence combining leads to both quality and quantity increase.

Bruno's (1984) study supports the use of the process approach as opposed to the traditional approach

to writing. Bruno's study focused on third, fourth, and fifth graders' achievement in composition by the use of a process approach to writing and with a traditional text-book work-sheet method. Students in both groups were evaluated by holistic grading procedures. Results of the study revealed that the process approach to writing was significantly better than the traditional approach at the .05 level of confidence.

On the other hand, a study by Hayes (1984) was less conclusive than Bruno's. Hayes examined the effect of a nine-week process writing instruction on seventh grade students in English classes. Results of the study indicated that those students in the treatment group did not improve in language ability skills but perceived writing to be an enjoyable activity.

McClintic (1989) studied the motivational differences that may be associated with the process approach and the traditional approach to writing instruction. Fifty students from fifth and sixth grades participated in the study. Thirty of the subjects received the process oriented approach, and twenty product oriented. The constructs considered in the study are incremental versus entity theories of writing ability; initial importance of mechanics versus

content; confidence; intrinsic motivation; utility value; and perceived competence. The results of her study are consistent with the hypothesis that motivational consequences may differ as a result of process and product oriented approaches to writing instruction. The multi-draft approach and emphasis on giving and using substantive feedback seemed to enhance the primary importance of content over mechanics and higher confidence in students. Students in process oriented classrooms did not find writing easy, however they were more aware of its usefulness. Frustration and worry resulted when students struggled to discover and convey important thoughts, and the predicted differences in intrinsic motivation and perceived self-competence were not significant.

Semke's (1984) study of the effects of four different methods of evaluating students' writing produced data that tend to support those who question the traditional approach to grading compositions. She compared the results of reacting to students' work by: 1. writing responses to the content; 2. correcting all the grammatical errors; 3. making positive comments and marking the errors; and 4. requiring that students correct all the marked errors. Her data indicate that those students who received comments on the content spent more time writing their compositions, made

greater progress, and unexpectedly, those who had to correct their errors wrote less and had more negative attitudes. The surprise was that the practice of having students correct their errors did not lead to the elimination of those errors on future compositions. This study suggests that we can not improve our students' writing ability if we focus exclusively on the code, on grammar or on the surface features of the written product.

Kantz's (1989) study was done in order to find out whether the rhetorical nature of the task exerts some special influence on the students' composing processes. Three students' case studies of reading a packet of eight sources and writing their papers in a read-aloud, think-aloud protocol condition have shown differences in composing process and essay quality. The difference in process between writers of highly-rated and low-rated essays stemmed from the writers' plans and decisions. The decisions writers made were: defining the problem, deciding on a rhetorical stance, choosing source material, and planning the organization and format of the new text. Highly rated essays were the ones in which the decisions were taken early in the process rather than during reading and writing processes. Furthermore, it was found that decisions related to form, such as text format, tended to be made

later in the process than decisions that affected basic strategies of presentation, such as how to talk to the readers.

The study done by Flower and Hayes (1981) indicates that "creating focus is one of the crucial acts that can bridge the gap between generating ideas and turning them into a paper" (p. 45) as opposed to the traditional writing instruction which ignores the strategies used in the process of writing, but focuses on correctness and form. Based on their research, they suggest that the writer can move from one writing subprocess to another any time during the process; thus for them writing is recursive.

In Flower and Hayes' (1981) study, using protocol analysis, the researchers found that good writers set goals and engage in problem solving during the pre-writing cycle and continue to modify these goals as they write. The quantity and quality of goals were found to be discriminating factors which differentiate good writers from poor ones.

Ruddell and Boyle (1984) studied fifty-one undergraduate students. Subjects were divided into three groups. The two groups received three hours of instruction on mapping, in which students were told to generate as many words or phrases as possible on a certain topic and then told to organize their words or

phrases into categories. They then placed their main idea in the center of the page and added secondary or tertiary ideas in the appropriate places. They also received instruction in writing strategies dealing with cohesion and revision. The third group received the same instruction without any mapping activity. Students in the first two groups were given ten minutes for mapping before a twenty minutes writing period, while students in the control group were given ten minutes for any organizational technique of their choice and twenty minutes to write. Essays were scored holistically by twenty teachers. Results revealed that students who mapped scored significantly higher than students who did not. Also, it was concluded that the mapping technique, by helping students concentrate on the relationships between ideas, enabled them to use more cohesive transitions than students who did not.

In his research Gould (1980) found that planning may consume as much as 65% of the writing time for college-educated adults. When writers begin the drafting phase, they often pause to engage in planning.

Research by Atwell (1981) indicates that all the undergraduate writers in her study engaged in pausing, but the good writers spent more time in large-scale planning than in planning at the word or sentence level. Poor writers were seen to be pausing longer for

lower-level planning.

Revision has been a subject of concern in a variety of studies. Reviewing involves looking back to read for a variety of purposes including rethinking about the text, proofreading, and deciding upon revisions. According to Moss's (1988) study, most writers, no matter how old or how experienced they are, review, but competent writers review to make changes in the meaning as opposed to poor writers who review for accuracy.

Sommer's (1979) study, which compared college freshmen and adult writers, indicated that adult writers made changes in the meaning while student writer revisions were mainly concerned with rewording. On the other hand, Bridwell's (1980) study, with hundred randomly selected seniors in high school, revealed that if students are given the opportunity, they make extensive revisions. The students in Bridwell's study made revisions on the average of about sixty one per student, and almost half of them were made on the first draft. However, no students did revisions at the text level.

2.4.2 ESL studies

Ney and Fillerup (1980) as cited in Brant (1989) repeated Mellon's (1969) study and hypothesized that students would improve both the syntax and "over-all

quality" of their writing if they are given sentence combining exercises. Their study, with fifty four ESL students, revealed that students who were subject to sentence combining exercises did in fact increase the complexity of their syntax. The "overall quality" of their writing, however, could not be distinguished from that of the control group. Unlike, Mellon (1969), and O'Hare (1973), Ney and Fillerup (1980) conclude that sentence combining exercises cause increases in quantity and complexity of sentences but not an increase in quality.

Perl's (1983) data suggest that students discover the specific details and syntactic structures as they write. Perl (1983) states:

Composing always involves some measure of both construction and discovery. Writers construct their discourse in as much as they begin with a sense of what they want to write. Constructing simultaneously affords discovery. (p. 331)

Perl assumes that writers know more fully what they mean only after having written it. Stallard's (1974) study focused on the revising strategies of ESL students. In his study, he found out that, in the revision cycle, while a group of good writers and a randomly selected group of writers did single word changes, the good writers were likely to do more multiple-word and paragraph changes. Stallard's (1974)

study, with ESL adult and basic writers, has shown that adult writers tended to change the whole sentence in order to create new ideas in contrast to inexperienced student writers who focused on single words which affected only the mechanical accuracy.

Hall (1990) examined the revising process of four advanced ESL writers in controlled L1 and L2 writing tasks. This study indicated that L1 and L2 revisions are similar when linguistic and discourse features of changes and the initiation of changing cycles are considered, whereas, revisions and recursiveness for ESL learners were found to be time consuming and burdening due to lack of vocabulary and knowledge of how these words shape the structure of the sentences.

Goldstein and Conrad (1990) studied the characteristics of teacher-student conferences and how students dealt with the revisions discussed during these conferences and the role that negotiation of meaning played in the success of such revisions. The study, with three advanced ESL students, revealed that conferences do not result either in student input or successful revision. Negotiation, which clarified the need for revision and the strategies to be undertaken, was found to be a significant factor in subsequent revision, but the conferences did not ensure that negotiation would take place, nor did they necessarily

result in a great deal of student input and control. Therefore, the researchers point out the importance of helping students understand the purpose of such conferences, the rules of speaking in conferences in contrast to classroom rules, and the roles of the participants.

2.4.3 EFL studies

Kucukal (1990) did a study with fifty-eight EFL university students. Her study focused on the assessment technique of the process approach, in particular, dealing with content at the rehearsing and drafting cycles and delaying mechanical errors to the final part of the writing, as opposed to the traditional way of assessment. She analyzed her data by counting the number of the words the students used in three drafts during the study, and then in order to measure the qualitative changes, the content of student papers were examined by the researcher by focusing on three points: How interesting are the ideas of students? Are their thoughts well organized? and How well written are their papers? Her eight-week study revealed that although there were no quantitative differences between the two groups, the writing of the students in the experimental group showed qualitative improvement.

There are no studies that focus on particular

syntactic features as measures of improvement, but it is clear that improvement, generally measured holistically, seems to occur more frequently in process classrooms than in traditional approach classrooms. Revision, in most cases, creates improvement. ESL students especially need instruction in how to conference and revise based on negotiated meanings.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The acquisition of writing is one of the major problematic areas in teaching EFL. This may be because either students are not used to writing even in their native language or they are taught writing through the traditional method which focuses on correct usage, grammar, and spelling. As Chastain (1990) points out, foreign language teachers have traditionally assigned compositions at the end of grammar-based chapters as a means of testing their students' grammar knowledge. Usually traditional writing instruction stresses only a limited portion of the writing process: the student is given a topic and writes a single draft; the teacher grades the draft, then assigns another topic and repeats the process. Under this system, students often fail to become good writers.

On the other hand, as McClintic (1979) mentions, the process approach to writing instruction, by focusing students' attention toward the importance of improving a written piece of work through effort and revision, helps students improve their writing and become good writers. Previous studies (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Semke, 1984) indicate that if grammar or the surface features of the written product are seen as the

be-all and end-all of the writing curriculum, we can not improve our students' writing ability. Whereas if the attention is more on the content, students spend more time writing their compositions and make greater progress in writing.

The basic goal of this study was to determine whether the process approach to writing caused a greater improvement in writing quality as measured by external CCDs when compared to a class that used a traditional approach. Therefore, it was assumed that the use of Halliday and Hasan's external CCDs would be the indicators of the improvement in students' written work. However, this study differs from others in that it focused on classes which were EFL rather than L1 or ESL classes. Although the study did not replicate any previous study, it drew on elements of design from several of the studies reviewed in Chapter II. In particular, as in Ruddell and Boyle's (1984) study, it was assumed that helping students focus on content would help them use more external CCDs which in turn would lead to coherent written pieces. And as in Bruno's (1984) study, one class was treated with the process approach to writing instruction (hereafter abbreviated as PC) while the other with the traditional approach to teaching writing (hereafter abbreviated as TC), and in order to measure the quality of the

students' post-tests holistic scoring method was used.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Because of its physical closeness to the researcher, the study was done at the Bilkent University School of English Languages (BUSEL). Two classes at BUSEL were selected as the process and traditional classes. Each class was selected because the teacher had expressed a preference for one approach over the other, and because they were willing to take part in the study. By choosing willing teachers who expressed a preference for one approach, the researcher was able to control as best she could for teacher motivation and teacher knowledge. The teachers were required only to conduct their classes as they normally would, except for the administration of the pre- and the post-tests, discussed below. During the four-week study each class took two hours of writing instruction per week, fifty minutes each, which makes a total of four hundred minutes for each of the treatment groups.

3.3 SUBJECTS

Two EFL teachers participated in the study. Because one teacher had done her master's thesis on the process approach to writing, she was assigned to the PC. The other teacher was not familiar with the process approach and preferred to use a traditional approach to writing, so she conducted the TC.

This study focused on twenty-nine intermediate level students, seventeen being in the TC and twelve in the PC. Nine of the students in the TC were males and eight of them were females. The PC consisted of seven male and five female students. The age of the subjects varied from seventeen to nineteen. All of them were native speakers of Turkish and this was their first year at BUSEL. At BUSEL students are given a placement test at the very beginning of the year and the students who score between fifty and seventy are accepted as intermediate level students. The activities of the study were carried out during regular class hours.

3.4 MATERIALS

3.4.1 Pre-test

Since the criteria in choosing topics was to motivate students to write, the topics were either based on their general experience or on subjects which could be accepted as universal. Topics requiring definition of abstract concepts were excluded. In order to get the best writing sample possible, subjects were given three choices. Both the PC and the TC students wrote a twenty-minute essay on one of these three topics: "More Freedom for Women," "Problems of the University Students," or "The Best/Worst Day in My Life."

3.4.2 Post-test

In order to avoid a practice effect students were given three new topics: "Love," "Marriage," or "Friendship." Again the objective was to find topics that would most probably motivate students towards writing. Both the process and the TC students were required to write a twenty-minute essay using one of the topics given to them.

3.4.3 Teaching Materials

The BUSEL curriculum is an "integrated" curriculum, therefore writing is integrated with the other skills, reading, listening and speaking. Although the classes are supposed to be "integrated," the implementation of the curriculum tends to focus on grammar with reading and listening skills used as ways of focusing on grammar. That is, the classes are not communicatively focused.

Since the topics chosen for writing skills in the TC aimed at providing extensive practice of specific grammatical points, they were directly related to the structures and vocabulary which were the focus of the classroom lesson. For example, the topics for comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and the linking words were "Compare/Contrast Ankara and Istanbul," "Advantages and Disadvantages of TV," and a "A Dialogue between You and a Tour Guide."

On the other hand, since the teacher of the PC aimed at teaching writing through writing, she did not use writing activities as a means for practicing the specific grammatical structures studied in that particular class hour, but viewed them as part of a whole process which improves through reading and writing across time. The students in the PC worked on four topics during the four-week study. In the first week they focused on the topic "My hometown." In the second week they were asked to create and develop a story based on five pictures which were related to each other. The third topic written on in the PC was "My life before and after Bilkent." Finally, in the fourth week the PC students were asked to develop a story based on a cartoon.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

At the beginning of the study two conferences were held, one with the TC teacher and the other with the PC teacher to ensure that the researcher and the teachers agreed on the essential points of each of the approaches to writing instruction. During the conference held with the TC teacher, the steps of the traditional approach to writing instruction were reviewed and at the end both the researcher and the TC teacher agreed that their definitions matched. That is, the TC teacher mentioned that the steps to be

followed for the study constituted her normal approach to teaching writing: teaching vocabulary, the grammatical points, topic sentence, and the composition, emphasizing correct usage, correct grammar and correct spelling, having students utilize the recently learned grammar to prepare an error-free product, reviewing items that were misused in compositions, assigning papers, correcting them, and handing them back. With the teacher of the PC, the stages of the process approach- rehearsing, drafting and revising- to be followed were reviewed together with the invention techniques of mapping, listing, brainstorming, cubing. Moreover, with the PC teacher the self-peer editing technique was selected.

3.5.1 Pre-test Administration

The experiment with the TC and the PC began with a pre-test for both of the groups during the week of April 1, 1991. The students in each class were given the three topics previously decided on: "More Freedom for Women," "Problems of University Students," "The Best/Worst Day in My Life." The students were instructed to write their compositions as an in-class writing activity on one of the three topics within twenty minutes. When they finished their work the teachers collected the papers and gave them to the researcher after class.

3.5.2 Week One

During the first writing lesson of the first week of the study the students in the TC did revision of the linking words for fifteen minutes, which they started studying the week before. Then they discussed the "advantages and disadvantages of TV" for fifteen minutes, and after that they were required to write a composition in class on the same topic in twenty minutes. At the end of the class, the students handed in the compositions they wrote, and then they were given another topic to be written at home: "What are the advantages and disadvantages of living abroad?"

In the following writing class the teacher explained the common errors that were found in the previous week's compositions, and then students did an exercise based on the comparative and superlative forms of the adjectives in half an hour. After that, students were required to write a dialogue in twenty minutes which took place between them and a tour guide. The aim was to have students practice the use of phrases such as "after that," "May I also ask," "Let me introduce myself." At the end of the lesson, the dialogues were collected by the instructor and then as a follow up activity students were asked to write a composition which introduced the town they usually go to in the summer. After class, the teacher corrected the

dialogues with corrections covering all categories of lexical, structural, and stylistic errors.

In the first week of the study the PC discussed their hometowns for ten minutes as a pre-writing activity, and then they were required to write a twenty-five minute informative essay on the same topic. At the end of the first drafting students did peer-editing in pairs for twenty minutes, giving feedback on the content of the composition to their peers. At the end of the class the papers were collected by the instructor since the teacher had the fear that students might either not bring them back or would lose them.

In the second writing class of the week, students were given twenty-five minutes to revise their papers according to the feedback they received from their peers. In the last twenty-five minutes of the writing class students exchanged their papers again and did peer editing for ten minutes focusing both on the content and the mechanical accuracy. After that, they exchanged their papers and everybody revised theirs in fifteen minutes according to the feedback they received from their peers. As it was in the previous class activity, the teacher collected the papers.

3.5.3 Week Two

At the beginning of the first writing class of the second week, the TC teacher revised the students'

essays based on the lexical, structural and stylistic errors the students had made in their dialogues for twenty-five minutes. After that, the students in the TC did an in-class twenty-five minute writing activity on the "Comparison and Contrast of Ankara and Istanbul." The points to be covered in the comparison were: the area, population, agriculture, historical places, geography and entertainment. After the papers were collected, students were told to write a comparison/contrast essay on different political party systems in the world as homework.

At the beginning of the second lesson of the second week, the TC teacher collected the homework and then for half an hour she explained the common mistakes in the previous week's compositions. After that, students were asked to write a comparison/contrast essay on "Women in Turkey and in the World" in twenty minutes and again at the end of the class the teacher collected the papers and corrected all the errors, especially mechanical ones, at home.

In the second week, the teacher of the PC chose four pictures from Picture Talk (1988) and recorded four songs: Spyro Gyro's "Josemita," Vaya Con Dios's "What's the Woman?" Hank Williams Jr.'s "Good friends, Good whisky," and Cat Stevens' "Where do the Children Play" prior to class. During the class hour, as a pre-

writing activity, the teacher put the four pictures one by one on the wall and asked the students to list words which came into their minds relating to a particular picture while listening to the music the teacher selected. As a second step of the pre-writing activity the students were requested to write two sentences about each picture as they listened to the same music. This pre-writing activity took twenty-five minutes and the students wrote a total of ten sentences. During the last twenty-five minutes of the class hour students were asked to write a composition about one of the four pictures. At the end of the class hour the teacher collected the drafts, commented on them at home and returned them in the following writing class.

In the second writing class, students were given half an hour to write their second drafts. When the students finished writing their drafts, a volunteer read her paper to the class and the other students, by posing questions and commenting on the content and mechanical accuracy, discussed the paper for about twenty minutes.

At the end of the second week the students took a midterm exam in which their proficiency level was determined. As a result of this test the composition of the TC remained the same but six of the students in the PC failed the test so were placed in a different

class. Six new students replaced those students, thus reducing the number of original participants in the PC to eight. No adjustment in procedure was made because of this change in the composition of the PC. The effects of the change will be discussed in chapter IV.

3.5.4 Week Three

In the third week, the students in the TC worked on the topic "The Best Years of Our Lives" for fifty minutes. The purpose of this in-class writing activity was to have students use linking words, to practice the use of sentences that show reason and result, as well as to write topic sentences. In this activity, students were asked to write their topic sentences in different places in each paragraph, for example, if the topic sentence of the first paragraph was the first sentence, then they were required to place the topic sentence in the middle or at the end in the following paragraphs. At the same time the students were required to use twenty linking words. However, they were asked to provide blanks for the linking words that they used and number them on their written work, while listing them on a separate piece of paper.

The students exchanged their papers, corrected each others grammatical errors, and discussed their corrections. As the point of this activity, students were required to provide their choices for the missing

linking words and to write them down on a separate piece of paper. They then discussed their lists with their peers. At the same time, they were to find their peer's topic sentences together with the sentences that show reason and result to be discussed in the next step. Finally, the pairs were required to note down the problematic items that they thought to be doubtful and to give the lists to the teacher.

In the next writing class, for twenty minutes, students were given the explanations of the errors in previous lesson's activity. Then, the students in the TC did one writing activity. This activity began with the teacher talking about the characteristics of one of her friends for about ten minutes. After listening to the teacher, the pre-writing activity, students were required to write a composition in twenty minutes about her by developing the main characteristics of the person that they listened to.

During this week, the students in the PC worked on the topic "My Life Before and After Bilkent." After a ten minute brainstorming activity, students were given twenty-five minutes to write on the topic. Then, for the last fifteen minutes, students exchanged their papers and did peer-editing focusing mainly on content. At the end of the class hour the teacher collected the papers to be distributed in the following writing

class.

In the next writing class students were given their papers and asked to write their second drafts. After twenty minutes of drafting students exchanged their papers and did peer editing for fifteen minutes focusing on content as well as the mechanical accuracy. For the rest of the fifteen minutes students revised their papers and handed them in at the end of the class.

3.5.5 Week Four

The fourth week was the preparation week for the coming final examinations for the students in the TC. The students were required to write a composition similar to the one that they were going to write in the final. The topic for the practice examination was "A Weekend Party." The students were expected to produce a three part essay consisting of an "Introduction," a "Body," and a "Conclusion." The teacher provided material to help the students in their writing. For the Introduction, the students were provided some questions together with short answers such as: who? people from the office, strange looking, blonde beauty; when? Friday, last weekend; where? Alison and Sally's, flat, north. For the Body, students were given clues about the events: children, pyjamas, dance, bold men, singing, etc. And for the Conclusion, final events

were introduced to the students: strangers, clean up, help, bold man, sleep, sofa, etc.

In this fifty minute writing activity, students were required to write a two hundred word composition by choosing any events they liked from the material supplied for the three parts of the essay. At the end of the activity, the teacher collected the papers and corrected the mechanical errors and asked students to revise their papers at home attending to issues of mechanical accuracy.

During the fourth week of the study, students in the PC developed a story from a cartoon. As a pre-writing activity, students talked about the cartoon for fifteen minutes and then they wrote a story based on the cartoon in thirty minutes. At the end of the class the teacher collected the papers and read them by focusing primarily on content.

In the second writing class of the week, the students were given thirty minutes to revise their papers according to the feedback they received from their teacher. Finally, a volunteer's paper was read to the class and it was discussed focusing on points which would help the writing be interesting and on which parts needed detailed information.

3.5.6 Summary

During the four-week study students took two hours of writing classes a week, fifty minutes each. Throughout the four hundred minutes of writing instruction the TC students wrote a total of ten essays and all were revised for mechanical accuracy. Little attention was paid to content. The goal was clearly the accuracy of syntax and mechanics. Content was of little importance in class discussions. Classroom time was focused on syntactic points, except for occasional writing in class. Out of ten themes, seven of them were written in class, three out of class. Only one revision based on the teacher correction was done out of class, the others were done in class. Almost half of each writing class was devoted to the revisions of the common mistakes--mostly structural and some lexical--in the student compositions.

The students in the PC wrote a total of four essays. Since the teacher had the fear that students might either not bring the written pieces back or would lose them, all the revisions were done in class. All the revisions focused mainly on the content. Syntactic and mechanical accuracy was of little importance. Out of six revisions, two of them were based on the teacher feedback, and four on peer feedback.

3.6 ANALYTICAL PROCEDURES

The following steps will be taken in Chapter IV in order to analyze the data collected:

1- The number of the external conjunctive cohesive devices used by the students in the traditional and the process classes in the pre- and the post-tests and the improvement rates for each group from pre- to post-test will be analyzed. Attention will focus on the type of conjunctive cohesive devices used by the students in each class.

2- Mean scores and standard deviations will be analyzed for each set of data.

3- A t-test will be calculated.

4- Holistic evaluation of the post-tests of both groups, done by three teachers who work at BUSEL, not the teachers in the study, will be compared with the CCD data.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this study it was hypothesized that there is a positive relationship between the use of the process approach to writing instruction and the number of external CCDs used by the students in their written work. In order to collect data two intermediate level classes were chosen for the study. While the students in the TC were taught with the traditional approach to writing which emphasizes single drafts and a focus on mechanical accuracy, the PC students were taught with the process approach to teaching writing which focuses on the content (see section 1.4.1) and the improvement of a piece of writing through multiple drafts. It was hypothesized that PC students would make more improvement during the four week study than the TC students.

Halliday and Hasan's four types of external CCDs (temporal, additive, causal, adversative) were chosen as a means of testing students' improvement since their use increases the quality of written work. There were seventeen subjects in the TC and sixteen in the PC but only eight of the PC students completed the study and the rest of them dropped out as a result of the proficiency test given by the administration at the end

of the second week of the study.

4.2 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Data analysis was started by counting the number of external CCDs used by the eight subjects of the process and seventeen of the traditional class in the twenty-minute pre- and the post-tests in which students were asked to write an essay on one of the three different topics given to them in each test. The topics used in the pre-test were: "Problems of University Students," "The Worst/Best Day in My Life," or "More Freedom for Women," and the topics used in the post test were: "Friendship," "Love," or "Marriage." Since the level of the students in the traditional and the process classes was intermediate, the researcher did not have much difficulty in counting the external CCDs used by the students in each class.

4.2.1 The number and the frequency of external CCDs used by the TC and the PC students in the pre- and the post-tests

The number of external CCDs that the TC students used totaled a hundred and eighty three: seventy one in the pre- and a hundred and twelve in the post-test (Table 4.1), while the PC students used a total of seventy four external CCDs: thirty six in the pre- and thirty eight in the post-test (Table 4.2).

Although the TC students seem to have used more

CCDs than the PC students in total, they produced a mean of 3.5 which was lower than the PC's mean of 4.3 in the pre-test. In the post-test TC students produced a mean of 4.8, while the PC mean was 4.6. Thus the TC improved more than the TC since their gain was 0.3.

Table 4.1

The Number of External CCDs Used by the Students in the TC in the pre- and the post-tests

<u>Students</u>	<u>Pre-test</u>	<u>Post-test</u>
1	2	3
2	3	5
3	2	4
4	1	3
5	2	5
6	1	7
7	3	5
8	7	4
9	3	3
10	2	2
11	4	4
12	2	5
13	4	4
14	7	6
15	6	8
16	7	2
17	4	11
<u>TOTAL:</u>	<u>60</u>	<u>81</u>
<u>Mean:</u>	<u>3.5</u>	<u>4.8</u>
<u>SD:</u>	<u>2.07</u>	<u>2.28</u>

Table 4.2

The Number of External CCDs Used by the Students in the PC in the Pre- and the Post-Tests

<u>Students</u>	<u>Pre-test</u>	<u>Post-test</u>
1	5	5
2	5	3
3	6	4
4	1	2
5	3	5
6	5	6
7	6	6
8	4	6
<u>TOTAL:</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>37</u>
<u>Means:</u>	<u>4.3</u>	<u>4.6</u>
<u>SD:</u>	<u>1.69</u>	<u>1.51</u>

As Table 4.3 presents while five of the TC students used two CCDs, three of them used seven, three of them used four, three of them used three, two of them used one and one of them used six in the pre-test and three of the PC students used five CCDs, two of them used six, one of them used four, one of them used three and one of them used one. In the TC frequency is equal to the number of students, that is compared to the PC, the TC is more balanced and homogeneous. Data indicate that the PC is top balanced; the top two students used the 3/2 (27) of the CCDs used in the pre-test. It is also seen that three of the TC students, who used seven CCDs, are better than any of the others in the PC.

Table 4.3

The Frequency and the Number of External CCDs used by the TC and the PC students in the Pre-Test

<u>Traditional Class</u>		<u>Process Class</u>	
<u>f</u>	<u>N of CCDs</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>N of CCDs</u>
5	2	3	5
3	7	2	6
3	4	1	4
3	3	1	3
2	1	1	1
1	6		

The frequency and the number of external CCDs used by the TC and the PC students in the post-test appear in Table 4.4. The frequency of external CCDs used by the TC students in the post-test are as follows: while one student used eleven CCDs, one of them used seven, one of them used six, four of them used five, four of them four, three of them used three and two of them used two which makes a total of eighty one CCDs. On the other hand, while three of the PC students used six CCDs, two of them used five, one of them four, one of them used three and one of them used two CCDs, which makes a total of thirty seven CCDs. The breakdown of the frequency indicate that the top in the PC has not changed, however in the TC the improvement is distributed almost equally, except for one student, who used only one CCD in the pre- and eleven in the post-test.

Table 4.4

The Frequency and the Number of External CCDs Used
by the TC and the PC Students in the Post-Test

<u>Traditional Class</u>		<u>Process Class</u>	
<u>f</u>	<u>N of CCDs</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>N of CCDs</u>
1	11	3	6
1	8	2	5
1	7	1	4
1	6	3	1
4	5	1	2
4	4		
3	3		
2	2		

4.2.2 T-test

As a second step of the data analysis two t-tests were carried out to determine the degree of the significance of the means of the pre- and post-test scores of the TC and the PC. The first t-test, which was performed on the gain scores of the TC students in the pre- and the post-tests, resulted in an observed t-value of 1.65 (df=16). The second t-test, which compares the gain scores of the PC students in the pre- and the post-test, gave an observed t-value of 0.3 (df=7). The gain scores of the TC indicates that the achievement from the pre- to the post-test was almost significant at .05 level for a one tailed test; however, the second t-test, which compared the gain scores of the PC students in the pre-and the post-tests demonstrated no significant difference.

4.2.3 The type of external CCDs used by the TC and the PC students in the pre- and the post-tests

The types of external CCDs used by the students in each class in the pre- and the post-tests were classified to find which external CCDs each class used. Table 4.5 demonstrates the variety of the external CCDs used by the TC students in the pre- and the post-tests. As Table 4.5 indicates there is an improvement in the variety of external CCDs used by the students from the pre- to the post-tests. TC students did not improve their variety of additives. They used a total of forty three CCDs in this group: sixteen in the pre-test (eleven and, five or), and twenty seven in the post-test (eighteen and, nine or). They used a total of forty one adversatives: seventeen in the pre-test (thirteen but, three however, one though), and twenty four in the post-test (eighteen but, two however, one yet, three though). They used a total of thirty one causals: fifteen in the pre-test (nine because, four for this reason, one so, one therefore), sixteen in the post-test (eleven because, one as a result, one so, one therefore, one in this way, one in that state). TC students used a total of twenty six temporals: twelve in the pre-test (six first, one second, two then, three after that), and fourteen in the post-test (three finally, seven first, one then, one second, two after

that).

Table 4.5

Categories of External CCDs Used by the Students in the
TC in the Pre- and the Post-Tests

<u>PRE-TEST</u>		<u>POST-TEST</u>	
<u>1- Additive</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>1- Additive</u>	<u>Number</u>
and	11	and	18
or	5	or	9
<u>Total:</u>	<u>16</u>		<u>27</u>
<u>2- Adversative</u>		<u>2- Adversative</u>	
but	13	but	18
however	3	however	2
though	1	though	3
		yet	1
<u>Total:</u>	<u>17</u>		<u>24</u>
<u>3- Causal</u>		<u>3- Causal</u>	
because	9	because	11
for this reason	4	as a result	1
so	1	so	1
therefore	1	therefore	1
		in this way	1
<u>Total:</u>	<u>15</u>	in that state	1
<u>4- Temporal</u>			<u>16</u>
first	6	<u>4- Temporal</u>	
second	1	first	7
after that	3	second	1
then	2	after that	2
		then	1
<u>Total:</u>	<u>12</u>	finally	3
<u>Grand Total:</u>	<u>60</u>		<u>14</u>
			<u>81</u>

As Table 4.6 shows TC students used adversatives in the pre-test and additives in the post-test the most. As opposed to the TC students, PC students decreased their variety of external CCDs in the post-test. They used a total of nineteen additives: six in the pre-test (four and, one and also, one or), and thirteen in the post-test (eight and, five or). The PC students used a total of eighteen adversatives: eleven

in the pre-test (eight but, one on the other hand, one however, one in any case), and seven in the post-test (five but, two on the other hand). They used a total of nineteen causals: eight in the pre-test (five because, two for, one for this reason), and eleven in the post-test (eight because, three therefore). The use of the temporals was sixteen: ten in the pre-test (three finally, three first, two then, one second, one after that), and six in the post-test (one finally, four first, one then).

Table 4.6

**Categories of the External CCDs Used by the PC Students
in the Pre- and the Post-tests**

<u>PRE-TEST</u>		<u>POST-TEST</u>	
<u>1- Additive</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>1- Additive</u>	<u>Number</u>
and	4	and	8
or	1	or	5
and also	1		
<u>Total:</u>	<u>6</u>		<u>13</u>
<u>2- Adversative</u>		<u>2- Adversative</u>	
but	8	but	5
on the other hand	1	on the other hand	2
however	1		
in any case	1		
<u>Total:</u>	<u>11</u>		<u>7</u>
<u>3- Causal</u>		<u>3- Causal</u>	
because	5	because	8
for this reason	1	therefore	3
for	2		
<u>Total:</u>	<u>8</u>		<u>11</u>
<u>4- Temporal</u>		<u>Temporal</u>	
finally	3	finally	1
first	3	first	4
then	2	then	1
second	1		
after that	1		
<u>Total:</u>	<u>10</u>		<u>6</u>
<u>Grand Total:</u>	<u>35</u>		<u>37</u>

In order to find if the TC students used more complex external CCDs than the PC students, the types of external CCDs used by the students in each class were compared. As Table 4.7 indicates, except for the use of causals in the pre-test, PC students' used a wider variety of external CCDs than the TC students did. In the use of additives while both of the classes used and and or, PC students used and also. Likewise, the TC students used three types of adversatives (but, however, and though), whereas the PC students used four types (but, on the other hand, however, and in any case.) In the use of causals, unlike additives and adversatives, the TC students' use of external CCDs varied more than the PC students': TC students used because, for this reason, so, and therefore, while the PC students used because, for, and for this reason. While the TC students used four types of temporals (first, second, then, after that), the PC students used five types of temporals (first, second, then, finally, after that.) Clearly, this indicates that the PC students used fifteen categories with a standard deviation of 2.02, while the TC students used only thirteen categories with a standard deviation of 4.05. Thus, while the PC used more categories, variance in the TC was greater.

Table 4.7

Categories of External CCDs Used by the TC and the PC
Students in the Pre-Test

<u>TRADITIONAL CLASS</u>		<u>PROCESS CLASS</u>	
<u>1- Additive</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>1- Additive</u>	<u>Number</u>
and	11	and	4
or	5	or	1
		and also	1
<u>Total:</u>	<u>16</u>		<u>6</u>
<u>2- Adversative</u>		<u>2- Adversative</u>	
but	13	but	8
however	3	however	1
though	1	in any case	1
		on the other hand	1
<u>Total:</u>	<u>17</u>		<u>11</u>
<u>3- Causal</u>		<u>3- Causal</u>	
because	9	because	5
for this reason	4	for this reason	1
so	1	for	2
therefore	1		
<u>Total:</u>	<u>15</u>		<u>8</u>
<u>4- Temporal</u>		<u>4- Temporal</u>	
first	6	first	3
second	1	second	1
then	2	then	2
after that	3	after that	1
		finally	3
<u>Total:</u>	<u>12</u>		<u>10</u>
<u>Grand Total:</u>	<u>60</u>		<u>35</u>

As Table 4.8 demonstrates, as opposed to the pre-test, in the post-test the TC students used more complex and a wider variety (seventeen) of external CCDs than the students in the PC (nine). Students in both of the classes used the same variety of additives: and and or. In the use of adversatives, while the TC students used four types of external CCDs (but, however, yet, though), PC students used only two (but, on the other hand.) Similarly, while the TC students

used six types of causals (because, as a result, so, therefore, in this way, in that state.) PC students used only two types (because, therefore.) In the use of temporals the TC students used five types of external CCDs (finally, first, then, second, after that.) while the PC students used three types (finally, first, then.) As Table 4.8 demonstrates as opposed to the PC, the TC improved not only in total number but in variety as well.

Table 4.8

Categories of External CCDs Used by the TC and the PC Students in the Post-Test

<u>TRADITIONAL CLASS</u>		<u>PROCESS CLASS</u>	
<u>1- Additive</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Additive</u>	<u>Number</u>
and	18	and	8
or	9	or	5
<u>Total:</u>	<u>27</u>		<u>13</u>
<u>2- Adversative</u>		<u>2- Adversative</u>	
but	18	but	5
however	2	on the other hand	2
yet	1		
though	3		
<u>Total:</u>	<u>24</u>		<u>7</u>
<u>3- Causal</u>		<u>3- Causal</u>	
because	11	because	8
therefore	1	therefore	3
as a result	1		
so	1		
in this way	1		
in that state	1		
<u>Total:</u>	<u>16</u>		<u>11</u>
<u>4- Temporal</u>		<u>4- Temporal</u>	
first	7	first	4
then	1	then	1
finally	3	finally	1
second	1		
after that	2		
<u>Total:</u>	<u>14</u>		<u>6</u>
<u>Grand Total:</u>	<u>81</u>		<u>37</u>

4.2.4 Improvement rates of the TC and the PC students from the pre- to the post-test

Table 4.9 demonstrates the improvement rates, from high to low, of the students in each treatment group from the pre- to the post-test. It is seen that, in the TC while ten students out of seventeen improved their use of CCDs, four of the students' use of external CCDs remained the same, and three students' use of them decreased. On the other hand, in the PC, four of the students out of eight improved their use of external CCDs, two of them remained the same and two of them decreased their use. The above analysis indicates that while the PC did not change much, TC is consistent in its improvement.

Table 4.9

The Improvement Rates of the Students in the PC and the TC from the Pre- to the Post-Test

<u>TRADITIONAL CLASS</u>		<u>PROCESS CLASS</u>	
<u>Number of Imp.</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>Number of Imp.</u>	<u>f</u>
7	1	2	2
6	1	1	2
3	2	0	2
2	5	-2	2
1	1		
0	4		
-1	1		
-3	1		
-5	1		

4.2.5 Holistic Evaluation

In order to find whether using Halliday and Hasan's CCD system leads to an accurate assessment of quality, the post-tests were measured using a holistic scoring in which the reader scored the composition based upon a general or overall impression of its quality. The basic premise of holistic scoring is that if scorers read each paper as a whole, they are better able to judge the competence of the writer in relationship to other writers responding to the same topic.

Hence, three teachers who work at BUSEL and who each have five years of experience in TEFL were asked to read the post-tests of each group and to rank the papers as: Poor, Average, and Good. In the evaluation of the papers identical judgements by two teachers were taken as the final ranking; in other words, if one paper was rated to be poor by the two teachers but average by the third teacher, that paper was evaluated as poor.

In the holistic evaluation, as Table 4.10 indicates four of the students in the TC were ranked as poor, eight of them were ranked as average, two of them were ranked as good, and three of them were split.

This analysis suggests that there is a low correlation between holistic grading and amount, kind,

or variety of CCD use. A Pearson Product Moment correlation of $r=0.26$ for the TC and $r=0.14$ for the PC was computed between the number of CCDs and holistic scoring.

Table 4.10 shows that in the TC although student 1 and student 4 used the same number (four) and the type of CCDs, student 1 was ranked as poor, while student 4 was split. Also, although student 8 used a greater variety of external CCDs than student 3, while using the same number of CCDs (four), student 8 was ranked as poor, while student 3 was ranked as average. Besides, both student 3, who used a total of four CCDs, and student 6, who used a total seven CCDs, were ranked as average, although student 6 used a greater variety than student 3. In addition to the ones mentioned above, while student 9, who used three CCDs, was ranked as poor, student 10, who used only two CCDs, was ranked as good as student 15, who used a total of eight CCDs. This analysis suggests that there is no match between holistic grading and amount, kind, or variety of CCD use.

As Table 4.11 indicates, five of the students in the PC were ranked as average, two of them were ranked as poor, and one of them was split. In the PC although student 1 used five CCDs, he was ranked as poor with student 4, who used only two CCDs. Both student 5 and

student 2 were ranked as average, although student 5 used a wider variety and a greater number of CCDs when compared to student 2, who used only three CCDs. Moreover, although student 6, student 7 and student 8 used the same number of CCDs, student 6 and student 7 were ranked as average, while student 8 was split.

Table 4.10
The Holistic Evaluation and the Type of CCDs Used by the TC students in the post-test

St	Type of CCDs	Total	Holistic Evaluation
10	and (2)	2	Good
15	and (3), however, though, or, first, because	8	Good
2	but, first, finally, because	5	Average
3	and, but (2), finally	4	Average
6	but (4), yet, and, because	7	Average
7	and, because (3), finally	5	Average
11	but (2), or, first	4	Average
12	and, but, though (2) because	5	Average
16	however, first	2	Average
17	first, after that, and (4), in this way, in that state, or (2)		Average
1	and, but (2)	3	Poor
5	but, or, so, then as a result	5	Poor
8	first, second, because, after that	4	Poor
9	but (2), first	3	Poor
4	and (2), but	3	Split
13	and, but, because, therefore	4	Split
14	and, or (4), because	6	Split

Table 4.11
The Holistic Evaluation and the Type of CCDs Used by the PC students in the post-test

St	Type of CCDs	Total	Holistic Evaluation
2	or, therefore, first	3	Average
3	because, and, first on the other hand	4	Average
5	because, therefore, on the other hand, and, but	5	Average
6	first, because (3), and (2)	6	Average
7	and (2), or, finally, but, first	6	Average
1	or, and, but (2), because	5	Poor
4	because, and	2	Poor
8	because, therefore, but, or (2), then	6	Split

4.3 RESULTS

The analysis of the data has shown that the TC students used a total of a hundred and forty one external CCDs: sixty in the pre- and eighty one in the post-test, while PC students used a total of seventy two external CCDs: thirty five in the pre- and thirty seven in the post-test. However, if the number of the students in each class is considered, seventeen in the TC and eight in the PC, it is seen that the mean number of external CCDs produced by each group in the pre-test (TC=3.5, PC=4.3) is higher for the PC students. However, in the post-test the TC students were found to be using a higher mean number of external CCDs than the PC students (TC=4.8, PC=4.6). In the TC the improvement rate from the pre-to the post-test was 35%, and it was 5.7% in the PC.

The two t-tests which were carried out to find the gain scores of the TC and PC from the pre- to the post-test show that there is no significant difference between the means indicating improvement the use of the external CCDs in either of the classes. However, the observed t-value of 1.65 in the t-test for the TC was close to t-critical value of 1.796, so the observed t-value was almost significant at the level of .05 for a one tailed test. It was not possible to compare the gain scores of the TC and the PC since there were not

sufficient number of subjects to pair their pre-test scores.

The holistic assessment which was done by three experienced teachers to measure the quality of the students' written work has shown that evaluating students' papers based on only the number of the CCDs used by the students is not sufficient; there are other components that need to be taken into consideration such as other types of cohesion; reference, substitution, ellipsis, lexical, the details that the writers use in their writing, the imaginative power that a writer has. This conclusion is drawn from the the fact that ratings of the teachers' and the number of external CCDs did not correlate highly with each other.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 SUMMARY

This study began as an attempt to find if the process approach to writing instruction would help intermediate level EFL learners to improve their written work, particularly with respect to cohesive characteristics of their texts, better than a traditional approach would.

As a premise of the study, the process approach to writing instruction, which encourages students to write multiple drafts attending to issues of content in initial drafts and to deal with mechanical accuracy in the final stages of editing, was presumed to be more effective than a traditional approach to teaching writing which focuses only on the product, a single draft, and mechanical accuracy.

Halliday and Hasan's four types of external CCDs, temporal, additive, adversative, causal, were chosen as a means of measuring students' improvement in their written work. The rationale behind this assumption was that external CCDs function as linkages between the elements that are constitutive of a text. Because of this important contribution, it was hypothesized that an increase in the use of CCDs in students' written work would indicate an increase in quality and by

extension would indicate the successfulness of a particular approach to teaching writing.

The four-week experiment was conducted at BUSEL with two intermediate level classes. A total of twenty five students, seventeen in the TC and eight in the PC, completed the entire study. Data were analyzed by counting and categorizing the number and the type of external CCDs used by the traditional and the process class students in the twenty minute pre- and the post-tests in which students were asked to write an essay on one of the three topics given to them in each test. Furthermore, two t-tests were carried out to find the significance of the achievement from the pre- to the post-test for each class, and also the post-tests of each class were evaluated holistically by three teachers, who were not the teachers of the PC and the TC.

The number of the external CCDs used by the students in each class has shown that the traditional class students used a total of a hundred and forty one CCDs, sixty in the pre- and eighty in the post-test, while the PC students used a total of seventy two, thirty one in the pre- and thirty seven in the post-test. The classification of the CCDs used by the students in each class on the pre- and the post-tests indicated that the PC students used a greater variety

of CCDs in the pre-test than the students in the TC. However, the number of the external CCDs used by the TC students was greater than the PC students'. On the other hand, in the post-test the TC students used a greater variety of external CCDs although they were fewer in number than the CCDs in the PC. When the improvement rates from the pre- to the post-test are considered, twelve TC students out of seventeen (35%) improved their use of CCDs, while in the PC this number was five out of eight students (5.7%). Therefore, it can be concluded that although the PC students' increase in the number of CCDs used was less than the TC students' and they did not increase their variety of the external CCDs as much as the students in the TC did, in fact, there was a progress towards increasing the use of external CCDs. A holistic evaluation has indicated that although the external CCDs may provide cohesion they can not be used alone as a means of measure of quality.

Furthermore, on the basis of the results, it was concluded that there is a low correlation between the holistic type of measurement and the number of the CCDs used by the students in their written work. Holistic evaluation has revealed that the quality of a piece of writing involves more than the use of CCDs such as the details the writer uses, or the imaginative power that

a writer has.

In fact, the most important conclusion that can be drawn from this study is the focus on the importance of the motivation the students have towards learning a language. This conclusion was drawn from the conferences held with the teachers at the beginning of the study, in which the PC teacher said that the students in the PC wrote only when somebody forced them; whereas, the TC teacher said that her students were willing to do everything related to English although they had difficulty in arranging their ideas while writing.

The fact that the PC did not make as much progress as the TC might have been due to circumstances beyond the control of the researcher, in which the full implementation of the process approach to writing instruction could not be implemented. For example, the revising part of the process was not fully functional because only class time was devoted to the revising cycle of the process approach to teaching writing.

5.2 ASSESSMENT

In retrospect, several factors limited the generalizability of the data collected. Among them is the number of the subjects who participated in the study. The seventeen subjects in the TC was probably sufficiently large, but with only eight in the PC it

was not possible to get enough data or discrimination.

Another issue which raises a question about the reliability of the study is the duration. Although this study appears to demonstrate the effectiveness of a traditional approach over a process approach to teaching writing, we can not safely reach this conclusion. Four weeks is not sufficient enough time to question the successfulness of either approach, particularly the process approach to teaching writing which assumes that students' writing abilities progress through reading and writing across time.

5.3 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The implication of this study is that intermediate EFL students seem to profit from a more structured, traditional approach, and it confirms the comment by Hall (1990), and Goldstein and Conrad (1990) that the process approach to teaching writing requires frequency in the language to be effective and profitable for the students.

Moreover, as mentioned in the summary section, student motivation was found to be a significant factor in the success of one approach or the other. Therefore, teachers being aware of this fact should try to motivate their students to learning a foreign language.

5.4 FUTURE RESEARCH

Further long-term research is needed to conclude whether a process or a traditional approach to writing instruction leads to an improvement in students' written work in EFL situations.

This study confirms the less conclusive result by Hayes (1984) found in ESL studies cited in Chapter II and suggests that either the process approach can not work in an EFL environment or further research needs to be done to determine how it must be implemented or modified to be effective.

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APPENDIX

SUMMARY OF THE EXTERNAL CCDs

from Halliday and Hasan (1976)

A- ADDITIVESimple additive relationsAdditive: and; and also, and...tooNegative: nor; and...not, not...either, neitherAlternative: or; or elseB- ADVERSATIVEAdversative relations "proper" ("in spite of")Simple: yet; though; onlyContaining "and": butEmphatic: however, nevertheless, despite this, all the
sameContrastive relations "as against"Simple: but, andEmphatic: however, on the other hand, at the same time,
as against thatDismissive (generalized adversative) relations ("no
matter..., still")Dismissal, closed: in any/either case/event, any/either
way, whicheverDismissal, open-ended: anyhow, at any rate, in any
case, however that may be

C- CAUSALCausal relations, general ("because...,so")Simple: so, thus, hence, therefore, thenEmphatic: consequently, accordingly, because of thisCausal relations, specificReason: for this reason, on account of thisResult: as a result (of this), in consequence of thisPurpose: for this purpose, with this in mind/view, with
this intention/in mindReversed causal relations, generalSimple: for; becauseConditional relations ("if..., then")Simple: thenEmphatic: in that case, that being the case, in such an
event, under those circumstancesGeneralized: under the circumstancesReversed polarity: otherwise, under the circumstancesTEMPORALSimple temporal relationsSequential: (and) then, next, afterwards, after that,
subsequentlySimultaneous: (just) then, at the same time,
simultaneouslyPreceding: earlier, before then/that, previouslyComplex temporal relationsImmediate: at once, thereupon, on which; just before

Interrupted: soon, presently, later, after a time; some
time earlier, formerly

Repetitive: next time, on another occasion; the last
time, on a previous occasion

Specific: next day, five minutes later, five minutes
earlier

Durative: meanwhile, all this time

Terminal: by this time; up till that time, until then

Punctiliar: next moment, at this point/moment, the
previous moment

Conclusive relations:

Simple: finally, at last, in the end, eventually

Sequential and conclusive relations: correlative forms

Sequential: first...then, first...next,
first...second...

Conclusive: at first...finally, at first...in the end