

KARADENİZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ * SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

**BATI DİLLERİ VE EDEBİYATI ANABİLİM DALI
UYGULAMALI DİL BİLİM**

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**TERTIARY LEVEL EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ROLE AND
IMPORTANCE OF WRITING SKILL IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
(ELT)**

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Ali Şükrü ÖZBAY

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TEMMUZ - 2004

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it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of
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ABSTRACT

The present study was undertaken in an attempt to discover tertiary level EFL teachers' perceptions of the role and importance of writing skills in English Language Teaching (ELT) and to determine the place of writing skill in EFL curriculum.

The subjects for the study were 35 EFL teachers who were teaching in English preparatory classes of Karadeniz Technical University. Data collection procedures consisted of a retrospective protocol with EFL teachers, a teacher questionnaire, an interview, and a document analysis. The retrospective protocol was made with 10 EFL teachers who were randomly chosen among the above-mentioned subject group. Then, all of the participant teachers (35) were given a questionnaire. The protocols and the questionnaires were aimed at understanding EFL teachers' perception of writing as a language skill. An interview was conducted with five sub-coordinators for the purpose of understanding the place of writing in the school curriculum. Also a document analysis was conducted. The decisions made by the university administration about the curriculum were examined and thus the place of writing was identified. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative data. Qualitative data were analyzed manually while SPSS (v11) for Windows and Excel statistical packages were used to analyze the quantitative data.

One of the major conclusions of the study in relation to the perceptions of EFL teachers' about writing is that EFL teachers have relatively negative attitudes towards writing and teaching writing, ranking it as the "least popular" skill. Another conclusion is that in the EFL curriculum writing is accepted as an important language skill and placed in the curriculum almost invariably. However, according to this study, its successful implementation in the EFL classes is rare, and it is generally regarded as the "least useful" language skill in the EFL curriculum by teachers and students alike. Another interesting finding is that EFL teachers are most keen on correcting grammar and organization errors. In other words, they consider errors in the surface structure as more important than those in the deep structure of a text in evaluating students' writing in the class.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma, İngilizce'yi bir yabancı dil olarak yüksek öğretim düzeyinde öğretmekte olan dil hocalarının yazma dil becerisinin İngilizce öğrenmedeki rolü ve önemi hakkındaki algılarını ortaya çıkarmak için yapılmıştır. Ayrıca çalışmanın bir diğer amacı, yazma dil becerisine müfredatta ayrılan yeri tespit etmektir.

Denekleri, Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller bölümündeki İngilizce hazırlık sınıflarında ders veren 35 hoca oluşturmaktadır. Verilerin toplanmasında sırasıyla, geriye dönük-hatırlama (retrospective protocol), anket, mülakat ve belge incelenmesi gibi metotlar kullanılmıştır. Geriye-dönük hatırlama metodu 35 denek arasından rast gele seçilen 10 kişi ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Daha sonra tüm deneklere (35) anket dağıtılmıştır. Ayrıca Yabancı Diller bölümünde görevli olan 4 koordinatör ile okul müfredatında yazma dil becerisinin yeri hakkında mülakat yapılmıştır. Aynı zamanda Üniversite Senatosu tarafından yabancı diller bölümü hakkında alınan resmi kararlar incelenerek, yazma dil becerisine yer verilip verilmediği tespit edilmeye çalışılmıştır. Bu çalışmada kalitatif ve kantitatif veriler kullanıldı. Kalitatif veriler el yordamıyla hesaplanırken, kantitatif verilerin hesaplanmasında SPSS for Windows ve Excel istatistik programı kullanıldı.

Yabancı dil hocalarının yazma dil becerisine dönük algıları ile ilgili önemli bulgulardan bir tanesi, bu hocaların bu dil becerisine karşı nispeten olumsuz tutumlara sahip olmalarıdır. Bunu da yazma dil becerisini sıralamada diğer dil becerilerinin arasında 'en az popüler' olarak seçmelerinden anlıyoruz. Yabancı dil öğretimi müfredatında yazma dil becerisinin önemli ve her zaman müfredat içinde kendine yer bulan bir dil becerisi olduğu çalışma sonucunda anlaşılmıştır. Ama bu becerinin sınıf içinde başarılı şekilde uygulanabileceğine dair çok başarılı örnekler yoktur ve bu yüzden bu beceri hocalar ve öğrenciler tarafından "en az faydalı" olarak görülmektedir.

Bu çalışma kapsamında bir diğer bulgu da İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğreten hocaların, öğrencilerin yazılarını düzeltirken daha çok gramer ve yazı organizasyonu özellikleri üzerinde durmalarıdır. Diğer bir deyişle metinlerin derin anlamlarından çok yüzeydeki hatalara karşı daha duyarlı oldukları görülmüştür.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

The popularity of writing as a means of communication does not go a long way back in history. For some time in the past, under the influence of the audio-lingual approach to language teaching, speech was given primary importance and the ability of writing was placed a poor second. It was even considered as an inferior skill and an exact imitation of speech (White, 1987). According to Chastain (1988), while the popularity of the audio-lingual movement made oral skills the focus of attention, productive skills such as writing were considered less important for a time. Leki (1991) argues that until recently it was the most ignored of the language skills.

Today, however many positive changes have occurred about the role of teaching writing as an ideal tool for communication. Most are as a result of the changes in attitudes through writing. Instead of being the last skill that is taught, and instead of being in the service of grammar, it has now become much more important in the second and foreign language curriculum (Leki, 1991; Hyland, 2002; Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

Considering the fact that one of the most important goals of learning a foreign language is communication with other people, understanding what they say, conveying thoughts to them, and writing to them and reading what they have written in order to carry out the purposes stated above, we often use our speech channels but we sometimes may feel the need to write for the purpose of sending our message to other people when they are not present, or are not listening to our words or looking at our gestures. When this happens, communication through writing gains prominence above all. A similar idea was expressed by Chastain (1988), who argued that writing is, no doubt, one of the most basic communication skills, and a valuable tool in the process of learning a second or foreign language. Both aspects of writing are important in the typical language class, and each can serve to reinforce the other. According to Hyland (2002) writing has been a central topic in applied linguistics for over half a century and remains an area of lively intellectual research

and debate. So, again the tendency to view writing as the least useful of the four language skills and the conclusion that writing is less important and even can be sacrificed to spend more time on the other three skills are not appropriate (Chastain, 1988).

In the world, in spite of all new technological advances, laboratories, electronic classrooms and so on, the schools and universities continue to depend on writing. In education, teachers should carefully consider the role of writing before deciding how much emphasis to place on it in organizing their courses. There will always be a need for people to be able to use language skillfully (Judy et al, 1981).

Based on the facts above, Olshtain (2001) argued that if the skill of writing is a means of communication, it should have a special status among the communicative aspects of language teaching and that is because the skill of writing makes it possible to communicate with distant and unknown readers through a variety of written text. A similar account of writing is expressed by Weigle (2002), who states that writing has important status in communicative language teaching in both second and foreign language settings, and that writing no longer functions as support of oral language use, grammar, and vocabulary.

Hyland (2002), on the other hand, points out that ability to write has multiple roles in our social, professional and academic contexts, and that it even has a role in determining our life chances both in L1 and L2 contexts.

Finally, Silva and Matsuda (2002) claimed that writing has always been part of applied linguistics and, although it was once considered as a mere representation of speech, it still provides a perfect way of monitoring students' language production.

Partly for the reasons stated above, and partly for my deep interest in the subject, I think that there is a further need for writing as a communicative activity to be encouraged for language learners in both ESL and EFL contexts.

1.2. Background of the Study

The teaching of writing has undergone great changes both in ESL and EFL worlds. So far, many approaches such as Product Approach, Process Approach and, Genre-Based Approach have been adopted in both contexts in order to equip the learners with good composition skills. However, during this transformation in the teaching of writing for ESL and EFL learners, not only learners themselves but also writing teachers play influential

roles. According to Zamel (1985), language teachers create goals, prepare text books, develop curricula for the teaching of writing, conduct classes, place standards and evaluate learners' achievement, and employed various error analysis models. I believe that because teachers still occupy an important place in the teaching activities, there is also a need to attempt to shed light on the issue of teaching writing skill from the stand point of language teachers. Their perceptions, the way they assess their students' written performances and the ways they analyze errors are all important factors for the teaching of writing. Zamel (1985) claims that despite teachers having really good intentions while they are responding to their students' writing, they nevertheless misread the student texts, are inconsistent in their reactions, make arbitrary corrections, write contradictory comments, provide vague prescriptions, impose abstract rules and standards, respond to the texts as fixed and final products, and rarely make content-specific comments or offer specific strategies for revising the text. Moreover, Kroll (2001) holds the view that we can hardly expect teachers to adequately serve their students when they are equipped simply with a general understanding of methods and materials and the strong teacher is the one who is reflective and who brings to the class a philosophy of teaching and a set of beliefs about teaching and learning.

At this point, Young (1988, cited in Tercanlioglu, 2001) holds that one of the most important aspects in the teaching of writing is the perception of language teachers of the importance of writing. In general, teachers' perceptions about teaching language skills have attracted the attention of researchers for a long time. The perceptions language teachers have of writing are accepted as important since the involvement, progress and success in teaching any skill is likely to be determined mostly by teachers' perceptions of "Can I be a good teacher?" "Do I want to be a good teacher?" and "Why?". There are also two more reasons why teacher perceptions are important, these being (a) their opinions and attitudes toward teaching may play an important role in their decisions on how best to modify and use various language teaching techniques and methods in the future, (b) certain attitudes and beliefs result from their perceptions can have a great influence later on their students' affective state (Young, 1988, cited in Tercanlioglu, 2001). So, in the case of teaching writing skills, it may well be a case that EFL and/or ESL teachers may vary in their perceptions of the importance of writing skill. Some may believe that writing is an important skill and should be given priority since it contributes broadly to the learning process (Judy et al, 1981). Others may not believe that the contribution of writing to the

learning process is of such a high order. However, according to Rivers (1981), writing is an essential classroom activity, and it is of considerable importance for consolidating learning in the other skill areas. It also provides a welcome change of activity and it will always remain useful as part of a language curriculum.

Kroll (2001) states it is true ESL/EFL writing teachers should be equipped with solid scholarly training to develop their own approach to the teaching of writing in order to choose methodologies and materials that best meet the needs of their students. Without knowing how to promote student learning, their decisions in the class may turn out to be impossible to carry out. At this point, EFL teachers' perception of the role and the importance of writing skill for their students gains prominence, since it becomes one of the crucial factors behind teachers' choice of methodologies and materials. Hence, there is a further need to investigate what perceptions EFL teachers have about the role and importance of writing skill in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

I believe that teachers should be aware of very common approaches to writing skill. Their knowledge of how they should teach writing skill, what methods to use, which learner errors to correct are directly related to their perceptions of this skill. Teachers' perceptions of the importance of the writing skill and their assessment procedures for that skill, and the role of that language skill for the teacher and in the language program are directly related to the successful implementation of a teaching program. According to Woods (1996), perceptions of teachers about their teaching play an important role in their decisions, judgments, and behavior in the class. When teachers have strong perceptions about the teaching of writing, they may have the opportunity to provide a supportive environment in the classroom and encourage students to work in collaboration (Tsui, 1996).

In the world of ELT there is a diversity of opinions about how writing can be implemented in the most efficient way. While some EFL writing teachers give priority to the mechanics of writing in their evaluation, such as spelling, punctuation, capitalization, word recognition and so on at the expense of ignoring content and the organization of ideas, other EFL teachers encourage their students to create meaning at the risk of violating even the basic mechanical rules in writing. And still some other teachers, according to

Coffin et al (2003), focus on both content and form of the writing—that is, the language used, the text structure, the construction of argument, grammar and punctuation. Another conflict, according to Allwright and Bailey (1991), occurs over EFL teachers' reactions towards students' errors in their writing. Questions such as “What causes learners to make errors in their writing?”, or “Are they really a problem or are they an important part of learning itself?” or “How do teachers react to learners' errors? and “Do their responses make any difference in students' writing?” will help EFL teachers resolve the conflict (Allwright and Bailey, 1991). Moreover, Kroll (2001) argues that in reacting to errors, language teachers should decide when to correct errors, in addition to who will correct errors, which errors to correct, and how to correct them. As a result, EFL teachers may have varying understanding of writing instruction which is shaped by the teaching situations, students' needs, materials, time, teachers themselves and so on. All these factors may also play an important role in shaping their perceptions towards writing as a language skill and their teaching of writing. Consequently there is a need to investigate these perceptions for the purpose of reaching a consensus as to which aspects of teaching writing should be considered as important and to what extent these considerations should include the form and the content.

Under the light of what has been discussed so far I believe that EFL teachers' perceptions of the role and importance of writing are important and must be investigated. Information about whether they are aware of the current methods and techniques and theories regarding the writing skill should also be sought.

A thorough analysis of these perceptions is important for two more reasons. The first one is that investigating teacher perceptions towards writing as a language skill will give us a chance to understand how writing skill is considered among the teachers as well as the students. The second is that through analyzing teacher perceptions, it may be possible to see what successful or experienced teachers are doing in writing courses that make their courses popular and what other teachers, usually inexperienced or unsuccessful ones, are missing in the implementation of their courses.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The idea behind this study is to find out tertiary level EFL teachers' perceptions of the role and importance of writing skill in English Language Teaching (ELT). These

perceptions may reveal the true nature of the EFL teachers' stance towards writing as a language skill. It is also hoped that the findings will help us see whether writing instruction in an EFL context should have a role according to teachers, and if so, to what extent writing instruction contributes to facilitating teaching and learning. As a result of this study, it will also be possible to see whether EFL teachers consider writing skill as an inferior skill, as was the case in the audio-lingual period, or as one which is not simply a language skill. We will also be informed about EFL teachers' priorities in evaluating writing papers. EFL teachers, students, and educational institutions will benefit from this study in various ways. First of all, EFL teachers will be informed about the general perceptions about writing as a language skill and they will have a chance to see the extent to which their perceptions fit the others'. Secondly, language students will benefit in such a way that the teachers will be more informed about writing skill and will reflect this to their teaching, which, in turn, will result in an increased emphasis on writing in classes. Thirdly, my documentary analysis about the role of writing in the ELT curriculum may be a means to redefine the role of writing in the curriculum and put the necessary emphasis on writing.

1.5. Significance of the Study

This study aims at investigating two interrelated aspects of writing as a language skill in foreign language teaching, these being the role of writing for the EFL teachers, and the role of writing skill in the EFL curriculum. It is hoped that a thorough understanding of the EFL teachers' stance towards writing instruction in EFL classes may provide hints about some important considerations for the future implementations of this skill. The contention is that language teachers still play a crucial role as the greatest inseparable component of teaching and learning activities.

With this idea in mind, the present study gains significance as it aims to find out the importance and role of writing perceived by EFL teachers.

1.6. Outline of the Study

This thesis is comprised of eight chapters. Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the topic with research questions, and it explains the purpose and the significance of the study. Chapter 2 is a review of literature. It presents the nature of written language, the theories of

writing and the role of language teachers in teaching writing. Chapter 3 is an explanation of the methodology of the study. Chapters 4, 5, and 6 are devoted to the analysis of the questionnaires, retrospective protocols, interviews and documents. Chapter 7 discusses the findings. Chapter 8 presents the conclusion and implications

1.7. Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

Main Research Questions

1. How is the role of writing perceived by English teachers teaching in EFL settings?
2. What is the role of writing skill in the EFL curriculum?

Specific Research Questions

3. Have EFL teachers received any training so far in teaching writing?
4. What are EFL teachers' priorities in the teaching of language skills?
5. What features of writing do EFL teachers consider as important in evaluating students' papers?
6. What kinds of errors are particularly highlighted by EFL teachers in writing and correction?
7. What types of feedback do EFL teachers prefer to give in writing courses?
8. Do EFL teachers consider errors in the surface structure as more important than those in the deep structure of a text in evaluating students' writing in the class?

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter deals with the theoretical background of writing, focusing on its definition, nature and place in Applied Linguistics. Moreover, it discusses the relation between spoken and written languages, various approaches towards teaching writing, the basic theories of writing, and the role of teachers in teaching writing. Finally, writing teachers' error analysis methods and their feedback to the written texts are highlighted.

2.2. The Nature of Written Language

The practice of writing and writing instruction, first of all in L1, does not go back a long way in history. For centuries, writing was practised only by literate people and professionals. People belonging to the lower classes did not know how to write at all. Ability to write was then seen as a superior skill which was under the domain of some literate and religious circles. Things have changed a lot since then, but today, unlike speaking, many people in the world still lack the adequate level of writing ability. However, this situation is not surprising since there is lack of interest in the teaching of writing, necessary writing materials or the inaccessibility of these materials. Throughout the history of linguistics, writing has been seen as simply a reflection of oral language. On the contrary today, many linguists have elected to treat written language as the representation of correct language. Here, we can draw a distinction between spoken (oral) and written language, because this distinction will help us understand why the development of writing abilities was limited. One of the most important distinctions between oral and written language is that writing is not perceived as a skill that can be naturally learned. It has to be passed on the next generations by using cultural, social, and psychological elements. In other words, writing requires long practice and experience. Lack of sound practice and experience in writing will cause lots of challenges and

difficulties to both L1 and L2 learners of writing. That is why not all speakers can be said to be good writers. There are also as many poor writers as there are good writers. So, in order to excel in writing, we need to train ourselves, to practise a lot, and to have a purpose (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

The following are the assumptions about the nature of written language. Those assumptions are expected to shed light on the interpretations of the current research on writing.

- In applied linguistics, the study of writing occupies an important place.
- Rather than a naturally learned skill, writing is composed of components which are passed on from one culture to another.
- Writing serves very different purposes, only some of which can be considered as academic.
- Writing in academic environments requires composing skills which turn the information into the written word.
- Oral language and written language influence each other positively, the former supporting the latter.
- Written texts show variations depending on the task, audience, and purpose. (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; pp: 17-18).

At this point making a necessary distinction between writing and speech will help understand why writing should be treated separately. According to Hyland (2002), writing and speech differ a lot, due to their distinct functions in communication. Speech is made in a natural context and the context naturally determines the course of the speech. On the other hand, in writing, a 'context' has to be created through planning, monitoring and organizing. Speech may be based on a shared situation, but in writing, a writer has to imagine his audience and create a situation to draw the attention of the audience. Moreover, there are organizational and structural differences between writing and speech.

However, there are at the same time similarities between oral and written language. In history, we see many examples of both oral and written languages in many complex patterns. In recent educational research, we see that practices of oral interaction exert positive influences on the later development of writing skills. So, written language is a true representation of the correct forms of language and it is for that reason that it should be considered as valuable (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; Weigle, 2002).

2.3. Writing in Applied Linguistics

Applied Linguistics tries to investigate the real world problems by implicating language and, because language is an inseparable part of our life, we must take a lively interest in the problems related to the use of language. All problems related to the use of language are within the scope of applied linguistics (Cook, 2003). There is a long-lasting relationship between applied linguistics and writing. In fact, writing occupies an important place in Applied Linguistics, and Applied Linguistics has particularly dealt with the development of writing skills for both L1 and L2 learners for more than 50 years (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). Within the scope of Applied Linguistics, writing has undergone profound changes in 50 years. Although in the early stages of applied linguistics writing was considered as a skill which was merely in the service of speech, it still served an important function as a monitor of students' language production. This insufficient treatment of writing ability in the early years resulted in failure to consider the true value of the writing skill. It was even assumed that anyone with a good knowledge of the mechanics of writing such as grammar and spelling would be able to write (Silva and Matsuda, 2002).

Fortunately enough, for the last thirty years or so, the true value of writing skill or written discourse has been understood, and it is now considered as an appropriate and significant area of inquiry within applied linguistics. The growth of composition skills was soon followed by the developments in the field of second-language writing. Indeed, in recent decades the writing skill and the teaching of writing have become a focus of great interest within first- and second- language contexts (Johnson and Johnson, 1999). The complexities of writing and writing instruction were recognized and lots of research studies have so far been directed towards finding solutions to the most recent challenges in writing. According to Silva and Matsuda (2002), although applied linguists have finally come to realize the importance and the complexity of writing and writing instruction, speaking generally it is still the least well understood area of applied linguistics.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) stated that many research studies have been conducted to reveal the components of writing and writing instruction over the last decades. These will be referred to later in this study. But, according to them, writing research still continues to be somewhat alienated from other second-language research studies in the scope of Applied Linguistics. One reason for this is that the term 'writing' has many meanings or

usages, and it is not yet clear what one means exactly when talking about it. Writing was taught as if it was the representation of speech, and it was also believed that when one masters spoken language, one can naturally write. However, writing literacy can help the development of general linguistics competence for learners. Writing is also taught to have no context that is, it is de-contextualized. It is argued that people never communicate through writing when they are facing each other.

Today writing is treated as an important communication tool, rather than as a secondary skill to speech in applied linguistics. It is now known that writing is more than simply a skill. The need for it in modern societies is more than is generally realized. In our everyday world we practise some forms of writing almost everywhere. Depending on the situation, audience, and the task, we practice writing for many different purposes such as for identification, communication, remembering, and composing. Composing is a particularly important development and it involves putting together sentences into coherent large structures, and containing surface features that reveal the intent behind the composed text. So, both writing through composing and writing without composing have significance in all contexts. Leki (1992) argues that when composing process for L2 learners began, it was seen that there were many similarities between L1 and L2 writers, and that the only difference was between experienced and inexperienced learners rather than between L1 and L2 writers. One big similarity was that both groups were able to rely on the same strategies. From this finding Leki (1992) concludes that language proficiency may exert positive influence on the quality of a text, and that it is an independent factor in the students' ability to write well in L2.

2.4. Literacy and Writing

Literacy and writing are very closely related to each other. As stressed before, writing is a learned ability which helps one to think logically and participate actively. This means according to Hyland (2002) that writing occupies an important place in modern society. In the history of literacy, writing skill was passed on to the next generations in meaningful social and cultural contexts. In other words, writing always occurs in social contexts, and is always associated with cultural activities. In the very early times in Europe, literacy was common only among specialists who were putting oral accounts into writing. In recent centuries, the rise of literacy, coupled with the rise of writing, emerged in

England and France in particular, and common literacy and schooled literacy became very popular in the succeeding years. In the twentieth century, a big transformation occurred in the meaning of literacy. With the influence of educational systems; that is, with the invention of Positivism and with scientific progress, literacy uses in society and in academic training became very popular (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

There are a number of theories about the nature and consequences of literacy on individuals and society. First of all we must remember that literacy has not got universally unique skills. On the contrary, it has a socially motivated set of skills. In other words, society determines the purposes, uses, and values of literacy. The important point in literacy development is the recognition that there may be very different literacy practices around the world and that not necessarily all of them are valued by a given education system created by the society. In the same way the history of writing bears some resemblance to the history of literacy in that in both cases the uses, purposes, and consequences are limited to a given social context. That means, in writing too, there are not universally valued or accepted systems, as there are many different ways to practise writing.

The literacy background a student has may well fit the social and educational considerations of a society or a school, and on the other hand the literacy background of another student may not fit well. However, this does not mean that the latter does not know how to write. This is because the literacy values of that society or school are different. And that is why, especially in second-language contexts, when a student fails to fit well the literacy expectations of that particular community, we must remember that the set of writing practices of the student may be valued in other contexts. Such an awareness will bring new perspectives to the teaching of writing, and to the way in which the writing practices of students are approached (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

2.5. Approaches towards Writing

2.5.1. Product Approaches

Partly with the influence of the audio-lingual method and partly before the invention of student-centered learning, product approaches dominated the ELT world for a time in the past. According to Raimes (1983), with the dominance of the audio-lingual

method, speech became a dominant skill and writing played a secondary role, often complementary to speech. In the instruction of writing, such activities as substitutions, transformations, and completions were exploited and accurate application of grammatical rules was sought. Students' attention was directed towards correct use of language through adhering to and imitating different model texts. Lots of exercises were exploited for the purpose of drawing students' attention to relevant features of the model text (Silva and Matsuda, 2002). Finished products in writing were valued most, since they were directing the learners towards the objectives already specified. In this way it was hoped that students would master correct usages and structures in the target language. During the reign of product approaches in writing instruction, most popular exercises were those which require students to check their comprehension by completing sentences and adding logical connections after which students would produce similar texts based on their own information.

This approach can be represented as follows:

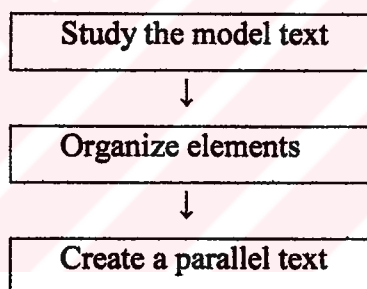


Figure 2.1: Product approach in writing

With product approaches in writing, compositions that students produced were supposed, on the one hand, to meet certain standards of prescribed English rhetorical style, and on the other hand, to reflect correct grammar, and to organize texts similar to what the audience would consider conventional. How well students created texts were measured according to the criteria that included content, organization, grammatical and vocabulary use, and mechanical considerations such as spelling and punctuation (Brown, 2001). The primary concern of the teachers was with the completed written product, not with the strategies or processes involved in its production or with the nature of any learning that might be required. Hyland (2002) also argued that product approaches can be put into the category of text-focused theories which are mainly based on structuralism and Noam

Chomsky's Transformational Grammar, in which texts are treated as autonomous objects that can be analyzed and described without having to create particular contexts, writers, and readers. Based on Hyland's proposition, we have to treat writing text as a separate or autonomous mechanism that depends on setting out ideas using correct vocabulary, grammar and structures. This makes the concept of producing a text a rather mechanistic activity, which is as if communication among individuals works only by transferring ideas from one to another through correct language forms. From this perspective, students' compositions were seen as the demonstration of their knowledge and forms, and their awareness of the system of rules used to create texts (Hyland, 2002).

Product approaches can be used for beginners. By using product approaches it may be possible to attract the beginner students' attention to adhering to and duplicating models of correct language. When students study model texts, their attention will be directed to the relevant features of a text. They may be required to check their comprehension by completing sentences, or by adding logical connections that follows the creation of parallel texts based on the information. With the product approaches students may have a chance to use correct grammar, spelling, and syntax. They may also have chance to use accurate and appropriate vocabulary

Product approaches, however, have received many criticisms so far. Zamel (1982) made perhaps the shortest but greatest one by arguing that product approaches ignored the complexity of writing, reducing its meaning to only exploring available syntactic options. Coffin et al (2003), on the other hand, argued that too little attention was given to the process of writing, including the conscious and unconscious decisions which the writers make for the purpose of communicating for different purposes and to different audiences. The product approach to writing has also been accused of being mindless, repetitive and anti-intellectual, since it was rooted in Behaviorist Theory in which the learner is not allowed to produce anything in the target language, since the use of language is the manipulation of fixed patterns which can only be learned by imitation. Harwood (2000) reminds us of the fact that this approach sacrifices learner motivation for the sake of correctness. And, Silva (1990) adds that this approach resulted in mindless copies of a particular organizational plan and that all activity was accepted as an exercise in habit formation.

Supporters of product approaches argued that the composing process of the learners was linear that is, learners progress from prewriting to writing and then to rewriting in a

systematic way. Students and teachers who were using product approaches were made to believe that the planning stage began and ended in the initial stage of composition. However, in actual composing, the process of writing has never been linear. In reality, Zamel (1983) argued that, writers planned throughout the writing process rather than exclusively at the start. It is also argued that the product approach provides little or no insight into the actual processes involved in managing to arrive at the final product and students are also restricted in the scope of writing they can manage. This also leads to inhibition on the part of the students as prospective good writers.

Nunan (1999) argues that students' copying, imitating, or transforming previous models in their writing are called "reproductive language work" and this can be acceptable only in sentence-level structuralist linguistics, but cannot be acceptable in discourse analysis. This is because, in determining the scope of the discourse, we have to place the sentences in correct discourse contexts. In order to create this discourse, we need to get our ideas onto the paper without worrying much about the formal correctness in the initial stage.

Table 2.1
Summary of the Product Approach

Product Approach	
(+)	(-)
a. correct spelling	a. no self-production
b. correct grammar and syntax	b. no self-discovery
c. accurate and appropriate vocabulary	c. no thinking and finding new ideas
d. relevant layout	d. no strong content
e. clear focus	e. no insight into the processes of writing
f. correct punctuation	f. no responsibility
g. identifiable organization	g. no creativity

In the face of many criticisms towards product approaches, resulting from dissatisfaction with controlled composition and the paragraph-pattern approach, these being two components of product approaches, and due to the belief that neither of those components served to inspire real writers, a new approach named the "process approach" became popular in the eighties (Silva and Matsuda, 2002).

2.5.2. Process Approaches

Process approach was a reaction to the limitations of product approaches, and it emerged from the individualist or expressivist tendency popular in education for a time, which emphasized individual expression on the part of the students (Coffin et al, 2003). The primary benefit of this new trend in writing instruction was that students found themselves liberated with an approach concerned with individual levels of fluency and self-expression. Unlike the previous product approaches in which the products that students created were important, during the rein of process approaches students were taught strategies that would encourage them to experiment with ideas through writing, and then share their writing with the classmates and get the opinion of several people to help them figure out what to say and how to say it (Leki, 1991).

For Kroll (2001), the process approach was a new ideology which piled great emphasis on developing a personal voice, and also promoted the idea of the learner-centered classroom.

According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), process approaches caused great transformations in the general perceptions of writing instruction and in the ways students learn to write. Some of these changes are listed below.

Process approaches frees the instruction from:

- The three-or-five-paragraph model;
- Simplistic assumptions about the organization and ordering of information;
- The typical one-draft writing assessment;
- The assumption that each student should be working alone, or only with the instructor on summative feedback;
- Reliance on grammar/usage handbooks and lectures;
- The linear composing model based on outlining, writing and editing (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: pp. 86-87).

Moreover, process approaches brought many advantages in writing instruction. Instead of the practices applied during the reign of product approaches, process approaches foster:

- Self-discovery and authorial 'voice';
- Meaningful writing on topics of importance to the writer;
- The need to plan out writing as a goal-oriented, contextualized activity;
- Invention and pre-writing tasks, and multiple drafting with feedback between drafts;
- A variety of feedback options from real audiences such as teacher, peer group;

- Free writing or journal writing as alternative means of generating writing and developing written expression;
 - Content information and personal expression as more important than final product grammar and usage;
 - The idea that writing is recursive rather than linear as a process;
 - Students' awareness of the writing process and of notions such as audience, voice, plans, etc.
- (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: pp:87).

Silva and Matsuda (2002) argue similarly that from a process perspective, writing is a complex, recursive and creative process that is very similar in its general outlines for first and second language writers, and also that learning to write requires the development of an efficient and effective composing process. Brown (2001), on the other hand, states that the writing process is very complex, and the various stages of drafting, reviewing and redrafting are done in a recursive way. This recursive, not linear, nature of writing is reflected in White and Arndt's (1991, cited in Brown, 2001) model of writing which is composed of drafting, structuring, reviewing, focusing, and generating ideas. This model is represented in a figure as follows (Brown, 2001; Harmer, 2001; Johnson K and Johnson H, 1999).

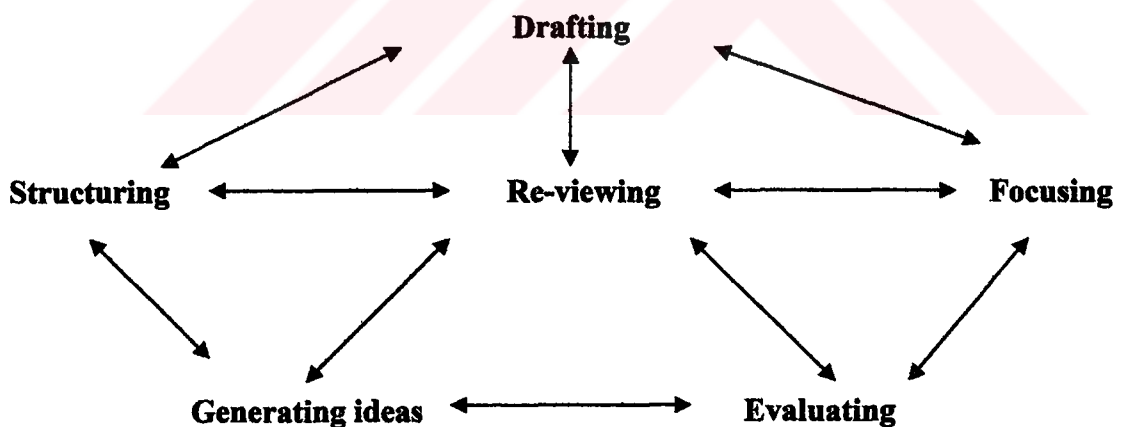


Figure 2.2: White and Arndt's diagram of process writing cited in Brown (2001: pp: 258).

Brown (2001) also comments that the process approach is an attempt to take advantage of the nature of the written code for the purpose of providing students with the chance of thinking while they are writing. This means that for him writing is a thinking process.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) point out that in order to understand the writing-as-a-process movement we need to look back at the major developments of the last thirty years.

For Faigley (1986), the last thirty years of writing can be divided into three stages that do not however, represent general historical transitions.

These stages are important for they represent new insights and responds to difficulties which are identified in preceding stage

- a. The expressive stage.
- b. The cognitive stage.
- c. The social stage.

2.5.2.1. The Expressive Stage

In the expressive stage, there is a reaction towards the narrow definition of writing based on the notions of correct grammar and usage. The expressivist view sees writing as a creative act of discovery in which process and product are equally important to the writer. This view urges writers to look for their own voices and express themselves freely (Hyland, 2002). That is to say, they should let their natural voices speak out. So, in this view writing is learned rather than taught, and the teacher has to act as facilitator and provide learners with the chance to reflect themselves on the writing through encouraging a positive and cooperative environment with minimal interference. Teachers are not supposed to impose their own ideas but to stimulate the writers' thinking through pre-writing tasks and to respond to the ideas the students produce. According to Berlin (1987, cited in McDonald, 2002), in this stage writers are encouraged to feel that a focus on audience will sacrifice their integrity in writing and that this is a perfect reason to ignore the audience. For such writers, writing is art and the writer tries to express his feelings, his personal and private vision of the world, things that cannot be expressed through everyday language.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) criticized the expressivist stage by claiming that a writer can not always be expected to have all the necessary intellectual background or the aspirations he draws heavily on in his writing. Thus, it may not be possible for him to find appropriate ways to express himself thoroughly. When the context of writing and the social context in which that writing was made is ignored, there will be no way to express one's feelings universally. What is more, the expressivist approach takes it for granted that inexperienced and expert writers think in the same way; that is, they have the same cognitive processing towards writing. In reality their cognitive processes are rather

different, which means that experienced and inexperienced writers don't think in the same way.

Hyland (2002), on the other hand, criticized this approach by calling it essentially a romantic view of writing which promotes abstract terms such as "self-actualization", or "originality", "integrity" and "spontaneity", which are also culturally variable and very subjective terms. He also argues that this approach takes the extreme learner-centered stance and it has the basic assumption that all writers have the same basic intellectual and creative potential, which is now seen as a very naive idea.

We should not forget that this approach helped in the move from the traditional approaches to writing. Many new writing process concepts have been explored following the practical advice given by expressivists. Their approach helped to move writing instruction and research away from the restricted views of traditional approaches. And, despite its limitations, it is still influential in some classrooms, and has helped inspire research into the cognitive view of writing (Hyland, 2002).

2.5.2.2. The Cognitive Stage

In the cognitive stage writing is seen basically as a problem-solving activity, and viewed as non-linear, exploratory, and generative, an activity through which writers discover and reformulate their ideas while they are creating the meaning, and pre-planning and editing are ongoing activities in this stage (Hyland, 2002; Weigle, 2002).

Dysthe (2001) states in summary that the focus of cognitive psychology is related to the internal processes of the individual mind, and writing research based on cognition has, so far, had considerable influence on the teaching of writing. Cognitive writing research is focused on the individual, on what goes on in the writer's mind, using research techniques like protocol analysis. The literature on writing expertise has shown us that case-study research, protocol analysis (think-aloud protocols) and retro-respective interviews are used in order to study the cognitive processes in writing and to understand what writers are actually doing in their writing process, since writing was seen as a problem-solving activity.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) states that by using the case study approach and the think-aloud methodology, Janet Emig showed us that writing has a recursive rather than linear nature. In her research, she tried to find out the role of pauses in think-aloud protocols, the

role of re-reading in revision, and the amount and type of revision among writers. Emig however failed to come up with a sound theoretical basis for her research, and for this reason, following her description of composing processes of writers as recursive, a great amount of research has been made to find out the complexities of writing as a cognitive activity (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

In an effort to reveal the basic differences between experienced and inexperienced writers, and to find out the various steps or influences in/on the writing process, a number of models have been proposed. Questions such as “what are the cognitive processes, or mental activities, involved in writing?” or “what sources of knowledge does the writer draw on in writing?” and “what other factors influence the writing process?” are addressed by these new models (Weigle, 2002: p. 23).

2.5.2.3. The Social Stage

In the social stage, it has been proposed that a piece of writing has a meaning only in the social context in which it is written as this social context defines the aim of the writing. In other words, writing is an act that occurs in a context serving a specific aim and that has been formed to address a particular audience (Hamp-Lyons and Kroll, 1997, cited in Weigle, 2002). Hyland (2002) states in summary that a piece of writing is easy to understand from the perspective of a social context and for this reason it should not be treated as a product of a single individual. He adds that a writer’s personal and social experiences are reflected in his writing. In other words “situation of expression” is what determines the context of the writing. Auerbach (1999) supports this idea by claiming that the ways people acquire and use writing change from context to context and from culture to culture since people are informally socialized into the local, culture-specific literacy practices of the communities in which they are immersed.

In order to understand the effects of social contexts on the kinds of writings that are produced by writers, many researchers used ethnographic studies in educational contexts as these studies mainly focused on the descriptions of people’s cultural practices. Also, in such studies, it becomes possible to describe complex social facts. Many researchers have tried to gain insight into the ways how and why people write by employing this way of naturally occurring data (Hayland, 2002).

From the perspective of ethnographic studies, writing must be evaluated in its naturally occurring contexts. In other words, for a thorough understanding of why and how people write, we have to see under what circumstances they write, and how they develop their abilities to write with no interference whatsoever. Applying ethnography to education will give us this chance to recognize and study the social contexts in which language occurs, and to assume that language will be used differently in different contexts, and to relate uses of different languages in their contexts (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

One of the leading research studies was done by Graves (1984, cited in Grabe and Kaplan, 1996) who used ethnographic case studies to study writing in classrooms. Based on the findings, he claimed that children have an innate desire to write from first day they begin school. It is the educational system which reduces this natural desire by providing little or no support to the children. He also argued that in most schools writing is ignored and students are not encouraged to write. Teachers do not know how to teach writing and almost never model writing in the classrooms.

2.5.3. Theories of Writing Process

It is important to know that recent research on the writing process occupies an important place since it helps greatly to refine our understanding of writing, and has brought about a greater awareness of the complexities of writing. In particular, famous researchers such as Flower and Hayes, Bereiter and Scardamalia have provided important insights into the development of writing abilities. For the purpose of providing a sound basis for the recent developments in writing, therefore there is a need to summarize some models of writing process put forward by the researchers above.

2.5.3.1. Flower and Hayes Model of Writing Process

One of the most influential researches on the strategies of writers was conducted by Flower and Hayes (1981; cited in Hyland, 2002) who combined a cognitive psychology perspective with a linguistic one, and came up with a very popular Flower-Hayes model of composing. Hyland (2002) summarizes this model by suggesting that the process of

writing is influenced by the task-environment and the writer's long-term memory. The main features of this model are as follows:

- Writers have goals,
- They plan extensively,
- Planning includes explaining a rhetorical problem, putting it in a context, then making it operational by exploring its parts, arriving at solutions and finally translating ideas on to the page,
- All work can be reviewed, evaluated and revised, even before any text has been produced,
- Planning, drafting, revising and editing are recursive, interactive, and potentially simultaneous,
- Plans and texts are constantly evaluated in a feedback loop,
- The whole process is overseen by an executive control called a monitor (Hyland, 2002: p. 25).

Flower and Hayes's research methodology was based on protocol analysis. They collected lots of protocols, and transcripts of students who were talking aloud while writing. They used this data for their perspectives in research. The cognitive model of the writing process they developed asserts that;

- Composing processes are interactive, intermingling, and potentially simultaneous;
- Composing is a goal-directed activity,
- Experienced writers compose differently than inexperienced writers. (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: p.91).

As shown in figure 2.3 on page 23, they divided the composing process (cognitive process) of writers into three parts, these being the composing processor, the task environment, and the writer's long-term memory. The task environment part includes the writing assignment and the text produced so far. The writer's long-term memory includes knowledge of topic, knowledge of audience, and writing plans. Finally the composing processor (cognitive processor) part includes three operational processes; namely, planning, translating, and reviewing, which are controlled by monitor. In the planning process, there are three sub-parts, these being, generating ideas, organizing information, and setting goals. During the actual generation of the text, the ideas in planning are transformed onto the page, and then they are reviewed and revised. In short, this model is aimed at showing the kinds of potential writing problems which a writer could face during the composing process (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

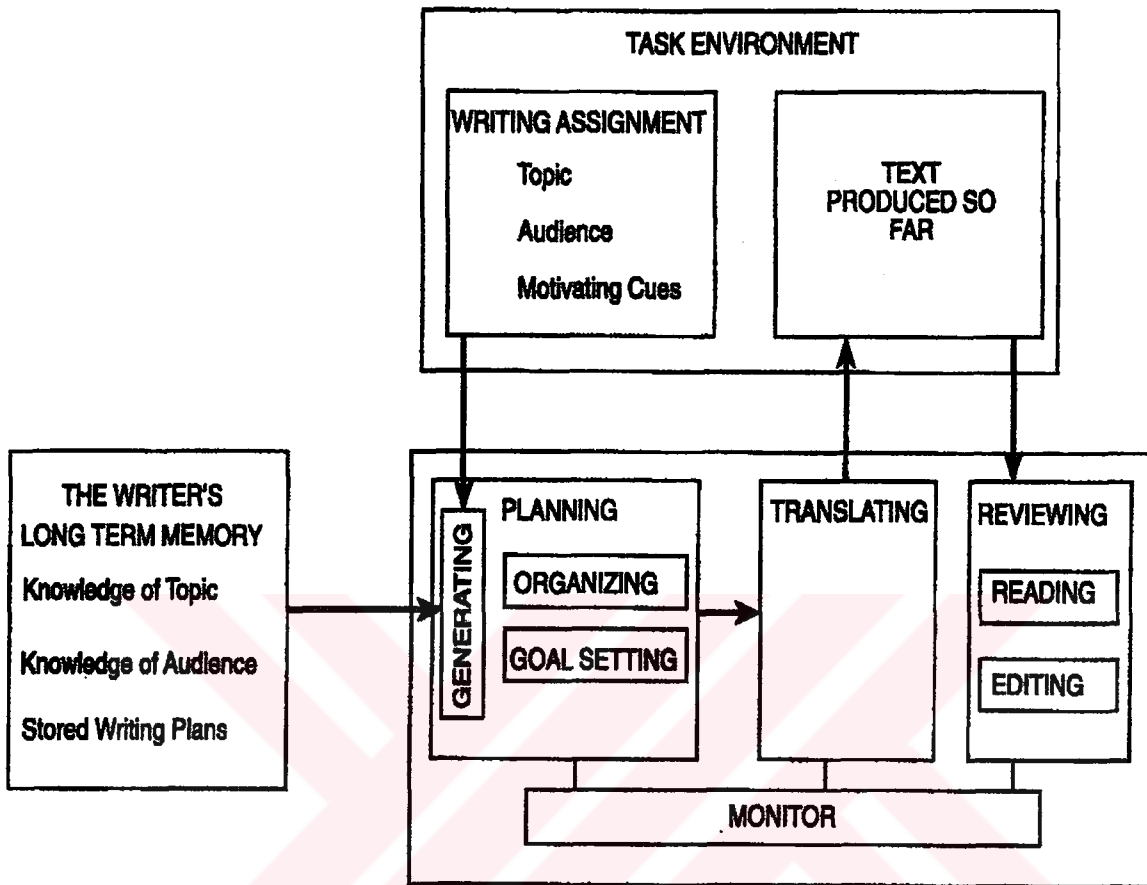


Figure 2.3: The Flower and Hayes writing process model cited in Weigle (2002; pp: 24)

However, there are some criticisms to this model. One of these is that writers are not likely to act the same way about their processing preferences and cognitive abilities. Different writers will use different processing strategies in their approach to the task.

A second criticism goes to the way this model has been displayed. It is argued that the transformation from the model to the actual writing experiences is barely explained. In other words, it is too vague to satisfy formal model building.

A third criticism and perhaps the most significant one is related to the methodology. Protocol analysis was used to obtain data and to establish a model on this data. However, it is claimed that it may not be a valid way of understanding writing process to the extent that Flower and Hayes claim. It is accepted that protocol analysis may shed light on some issues, but it cannot be the only source of evidence for a theory of writing process (Grabe W & R Kaplan, 1996).

2.5.3.2. Hayes Model of Writing Process

A second important model is the Hayes model on page 25, which is according to Weigle (2002), an up-dated version of the Flower-Hayes model. It attempts to outline the various influences on the writing process, particularly those internal to the writer. In this model, writing process is seen as having two parts, these being the task environment and the individual. In the task environment part, there are two sub-components, named the social and the physical environment. The social environment, in turn, includes audience and any collaborators in the writing process. On the other hand, the physical environment consists of two parts: the text written so far and the composing medium. However, the focus on the Hayes model is on the individual aspects, which include working memory, motivation and affect, cognitive processes, and long-term memory. Working memory comprises phonological memory, which stores verbal information, the visual-spatial sketchpad, which stores visually or spatially coded information, and a semantic memory, which stores conceptual information (Weigle, 2002).

In this model, motivation and affect are seen as important components. It is believed that the components of motivation such as beliefs and attitudes will certainly have an effect on the ways writers organize their writing. Another component of Hayes' model is the cognitive process, which includes text interpretation, reflection, and text production. In the text interpretation process, internal representations are created from linguistic and graphic input. In the reflection process, on the other hand, new internal representations are created from existing internal representations. As a result, in the text production, new linguistic output is produced from internal representations (Weigle, 2002).

In Hayes' model of writing, reading is considered as an important process in three ways. The first one is "reading to evaluate" in which writers read their texts critically to point the weaknesses and the strengths of them. While they are reading their texts, they employ a range of cognitive processes such as decoding words, applying grammar knowledge. As was suggested before, in this process it is seen that inexperienced writers are likely to focus on local errors such as sentence level errors rather than global errors, such as content or organization.

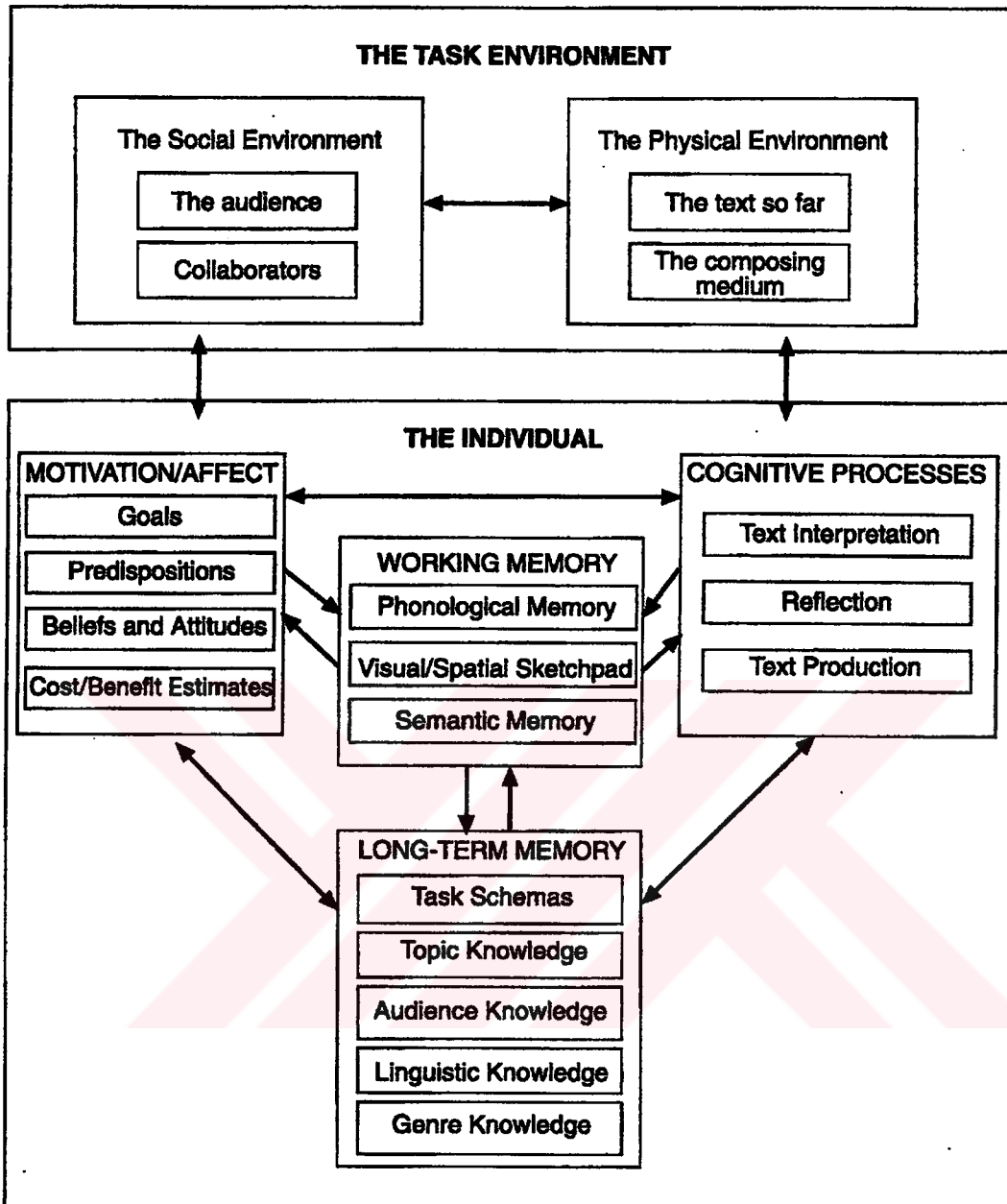


Figure 2.4: The Hayes Model cited in Weigle (2002: pp: 26).

According to Weigle (2002), there are three reasons why such writers fail to notice global errors and focus on sentence-level errors. The first reason to him is that these writers may have poor reading skills, and they may fail to recognize their content or organization errors in their texts. The second reason is that those writers may not direct their attention both to the global and local errors at the same time. The third reason is that they may not be aware of the fact that they need to pay attention to global errors such as content or organization.

The second and the third processes of reading in the Hayes model are “reading source texts” and “reading instructions”. Considering the fact that there exists almost always a source text which the writing task is based on, it is important to understand the source text, and to be able to refer to the source text and to use the information in it for the future writing. In the same way, task instructions are also important for the simple reason that the writer addresses the task properly. In the long-term memory component of the Hayes model, the information and the knowledge related to the writing task is stored. It includes such things as task schemas defined as the source of information stored in the long-term memory that specifies how to carry out a particular task, topic knowledge, audience knowledge, genre and linguistic knowledge (Weigle, 2002). In sum, Hayes’ model describes various factors which have an influence on writing, particularly from the standpoint of motivation/affect, cognitive processes, and long-term memory.

2.5.3.3. Bereiter and Scardamalia Model of Writing Process

This model argues that the writing process can not be the same way for all writers in different stages of writing. For example, writing process of a young learner and that of a mature skilled writer cannot be expected to occur in the same way. The writing process of a mature skilled writer is expected to be much more complex and efficient than that of a young learner’s as expertise in writing involves very hard and intensive work for some people. The focus of this model is to describe the reasons why and the ways in which skilled and less-skilled writers write differently. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) argue that some of the questions that this model seeks answers to are the following;

- What separates skilled writers from the less-skilled writers in terms of their processing model?
- Why do skilled and less-skilled writers revise differently?
- Why are some writing tasks easy and some others more difficult?
- Why do some people never seem to develop mature composition skills in spite of much practice and long educational experience?

(Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

In order to answer these questions they proposed two different models of the writing process, namely, *the knowledge-telling model* and *the knowledge-transforming*

model. The fact that there are many different types of composing behavior among skilled and less-skilled writers made them propose such a dual-model process.

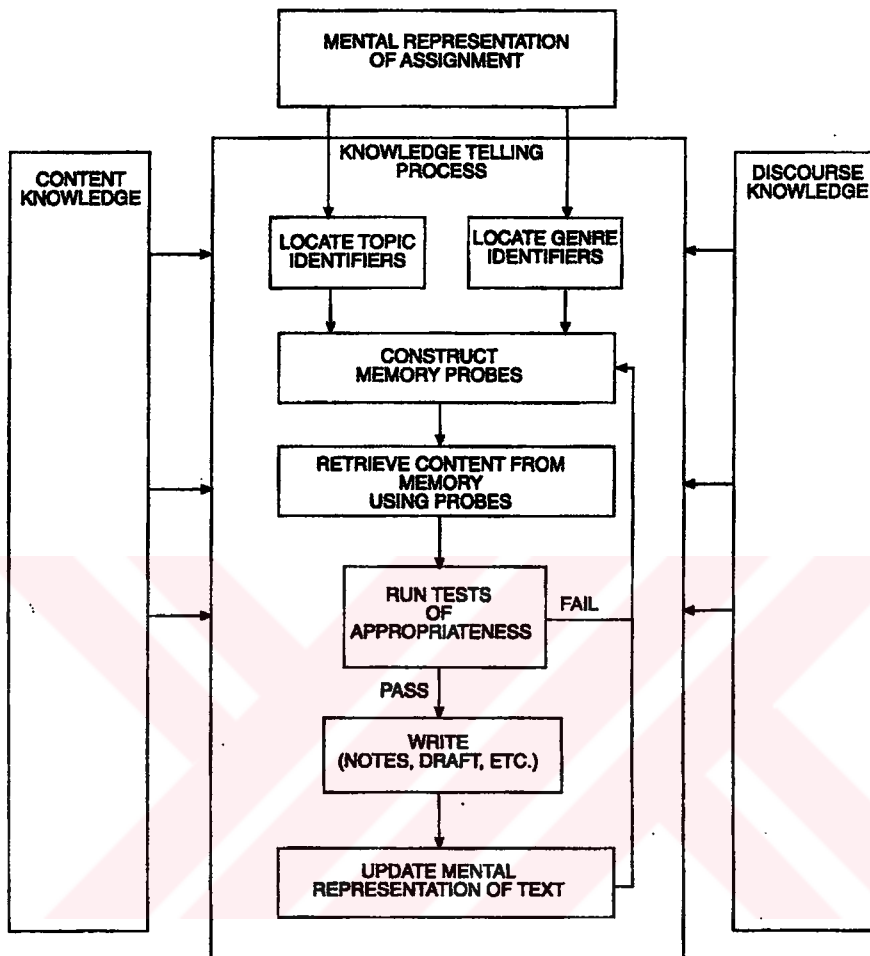


Figure 2.5: Structure of the knowledge-telling model of Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987, cited in Weigle, 2002: pp: 33).

Weigle (2002) states in summary that the knowledge-telling model of writing used by less-skilled writers involves very little planning and revision and can be called “natural” or “unproblematic” as can be applied by any writer who knows the rules of any language. In other words, according to Myles (2002), it has a basic structure that depends on the processes of retrieving content from memory with regard to topical and genre cues. Both Grabe and Kaplan (1996) and Weigle (2002) inform us that less-skilled writers in this model just turn their oral experiences into written form without worrying much about the conventions of writing. The only problem they have is to create content for their writing. In

this model, they are able to do this by using their internal resources since their primary aim is to tell what they remember from their internal resources.

Because generating content is the most important part of this knowledge-telling model, let us see what strategies less-skilled writers employ. The first of these strategies is that they look at the topic and ask themselves what they know about that topic. Secondly, they look at the type or kind (form of writing) of the assignment and ask themselves what they know about that. And thirdly, they read the text they have written so far and they create additional content by using what they have already written. Thus, the knowledge-telling model requires no more work than those tasks outlined above. One implication teachers should draw from this is that children or young and less-skilled learners of writing can write in this way and practise basic writing skills without confusion and lack of something to say (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; Weigle, 2002).

The process of knowledge-telling is represented in graphical terms in Figure 2.5 on page 27. In this model, the writer uses mental representation of the writing assignment, the topic, the genre, and any lexical items in the assignment in order to generate information. Idea identifiers are retrieved and memory is searched for relevant information. If the information that is remembered seems appropriate to the topic, this information is noted and used again to search memory for more things to say. The writing process ends when the memory probes fail to find additional appropriate context.

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One criticism is that this model does not take into account the complex nature of the writing process efficiently enough. The knowledge-telling model sheds little light on the task complexity involved in advanced writing demands. For this reason Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) have proposed a second writing process model, named the knowledge-transforming model of the writing process.

Weigle (2002) stated that the knowledge-transforming model needs much more effort and skill, and a great deal of practice. In this model, only putting one's ideas onto the paper is not sufficient, and one needs to use writing to create new knowledge. The writing process in this new model leads to new knowledge and may change a writer's view of what he is trying to convey. In Figure 2.6 on page 29 you see the graphical representation of this model.

In this model, the knowledge-telling model becomes a component of a larger and more comprehensible process of writing. The first step in this model involves problem analysis and goal setting and that leads to problem-solving activities in two domains, named the content problem space and the rhetorical problem space.

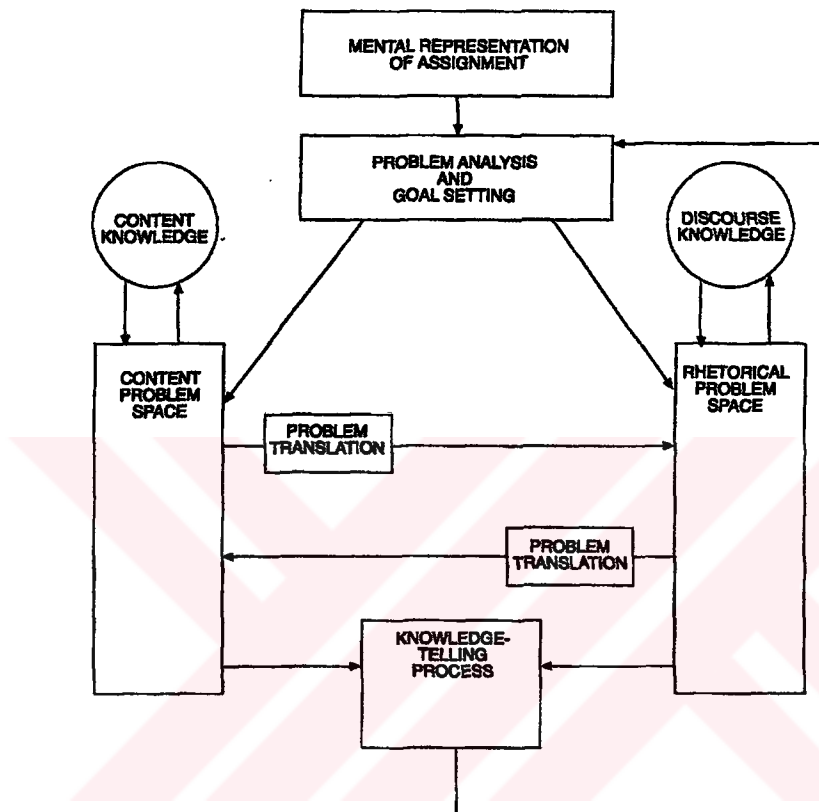


Figure 2.6: Structure of the knowledge-transforming model (Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987, cited in Weigle, 2002: pp: 34).

In the content problem space in the graphic above, beliefs and knowledge are dealt with and in the rhetorical problem space the writer works on how to best achieve the goals of the writing assignment. An attempt to find a solution to a content problem may lead the writer to a rhetorical problem in the rhetorical problem space. That means, according to Weigle (2002), that there is a two-way interaction between continuously developing knowledge and continuously developing text. As problems become resolved, they become input for the knowledge-telling process, during which the actual text is produced.

The two writing processes namely, the knowledge-transforming and the knowledge-telling models show that writers produce a piece of writing differently. Some writers use complex writing mechanisms in order to produce a new piece of writing that

sheds light on new ideas. On the other hand, some writers seem never to master the knowledge-transforming process and only write to generate sufficient on-topic material while maintaining cognitive complexity at a manageable level. According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), this two model process explains how skilled and unskilled writers differ in their writing as both groups use very different strategies in order to create the meaning. It also explains why some writing tasks are more difficult to organize and others again are easy to organize. That is to say, if the task requires much information, and if the writer is inexperienced, then the task will require more cognitive effort to accomplish.

The first criticism of this two-model writing process by Grabe and Kaplan (1996) is that the influence of context needs to be considered carefully if this model is to be a strong one. A second problem with this model is related to the ways in which a writer uses a knowledge-transforming model of the writing process. Whether a writer makes this cognitive transition is not clear from the evidence that is presented so far. A third related problem is whether or not it is possible to speak of stages in which a writer partially develops the ability of knowledge-transforming. If it is possible, then how can it be recognized and how can its applicability be generalized?

It is true that process approaches have had major influences on the teaching of writing for years in ways that aroused interest in and the awareness of how complex writing is, by avoiding the strict limitations and the narrowly-conceived product models. Teachers are now aware of the fact that writing is not an exercise in formal accuracy, but is something that requires multiple drafts, extensive feedback and so on. However, according to Hyland (2003), though there are great benefits of process approaches which are largely appreciated by many, there is still little evidence that process approaches actually lead to the production of better writing in L2 contexts. The reason for this is that process approaches still focus on the individual and ignore a really well formulated theory of how language works in human interactions. In other words, process approaches have had no satisfactory inputs from the ways meanings are formed socially, and with the forces outside the individual that exert influence on writers, that guide them, and that shape writing. However, genre-based approaches solve this problem through making the students aware that languages function in different ways in different social contexts.

2.5.4. Genre-based Approaches

There are many descriptions for the word genre. Hyland (2002) defines genres as abstract, socially recognized ways of using language. We use these recognized ways or conventions while writing and organizing messages in order to enable the reader to recognize our social purpose. For Martin (1984) a genre is “a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers or writers engage as members of our culture”. For Swales (1990) a genre consists of a group of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. Another definition by Reppen (2002) says that genres or genre-based approaches provide students with many chances to become familiar with the different purposes of written communication and the different ways information is organized in written texts.

The pedagogic potential of genres stems from the fact that the concept provides a way of looking at the various activities that the students are required to do in linguistic terms; that is, what kinds of discourses they have to be able to understand and produce in speech and writing. Another point is that within the framework of Genre-Based approach there is a tendency to combine genre and process approaches in the writing process. Thus, knowledge about the genre product and such steps as planning, drafting, revising, and editing would be treated together (Kay and Evans, 1998).

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) argue that students must be aware of the limitations of the kinds of writing they are asked to produce and be able to write for different purposes to develop their problem-solving skills. Then, based on this finding, we can safely argue that for a student to be successful academically he or she must have genre knowledge. This is because, genres represent ways in which students can solve problems to fit the general expectations and to provide students with tools to create meaningful communication and different ways to address the readers.

Any understanding of writing development should take into account a view of language that is supported by Halliday’s functional theory of language asserts that grammar develops as a result of the needs for speakers and writers to communicate functionally. This theory of language also informs us that we can not separate language from its context, but language varies greatly and in systematic ways within contexts and through it we can create meaning.

This theory of meaningful language use also requires the correct use of language forms which shape meaningful communication. This means that form and meaning are not separated in an integrated system. It seems that if all correct language use both by meaning and form is a matter of making discourse, genre becomes an essential factor in language use. Because creating a meaningful discourse depends on difference between sender and the receiver, certain types of discourse become models or ideal ways of communication. Later they become accepted as genres that serve for functional purposes in communication. This makes it necessary to teach students ideal or conventional ways of negotiating the meaning in their writing, the ways that are most appropriate to the learning tasks and contents (Grabe W & Kaplan R, 1996).

Hyland (2003) in his article on genre-based pedagogies states in summary that writing is not an abstract activity but a social one from the standpoint of genre-based pedagogies. According to him what may be called good writing, or a convincing argument, effective persuasion or creative expression does not depend on universal truths but on social conventions, social contexts, and contents.

It is the beliefs of this writer that genres give students the ability to work with informational content, and that that is why they must be taught to students. Moreover, by studying genres, students will have the chance of getting familiar with cultural preferences and the ideologies of others, and they will also become aware of the motivations of the people who use specific genres for some specific reasons. And last but not least, students will have the chance to see the ways in which knowledge is valued. For the reasons stated above, students need to learn genres. They need consistent practice with different types of writing tasks and to notice the structure of language in different genres for communicating the meaning.

2.5.5. Comparison of Three Major Approaches to the Teaching of Writing: Product, Process, and Genre

In the absence of the research before the 1980s on second/foreign language writing, L2 writing, which did not have a theory on which to ground itself then, was largely based on the findings of L1 writing research and theory (Johns, 1990; Krapels, 1990).

Then, the dominant approach in writing was the product approach. In this approach controlled composition and guided writing activities were very popular. While teaching writing, sentence drills, fill-ins, substitutions, transformations, and completions were used

and the content of writing was provided by the teacher (Raimes, 1991). Grammar and rhetorical forms were major concerns in product approaches. The stress was on the written product rather than the steps towards the finished documents. It represents a linear model for the teaching of writing. In it, the stages follow each other and writers do not go back while writing. The first stage is pre-writing in which writers put the words on the paper. In the second, the writing is done and in the final stage of re-writing the composition its final shape is given (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

In later times towards the end of the Seventies, an interest arose in the composing processes of L2 writers. Instead of 'accuracy' and 'patterns' in writing, such concepts as 'process' and 'meaning-making' were began to be used. Teachers under the influence of this new approach began to allow their students time and opportunity to select their topics, generate ideas, write drafts and revise. Grammar problems were postponed until the ideas and organization were fully established. This new approach was called the 'process approach'. This new approach assumed that learning how we write is more important than what we write. It was a recursive process in which writers often go back to the previous stages and check what they wrote before completing the composition (Raimes, 1985).

In the eighties and early nineties there were reactions against the process approach. One of the major criticisms of this approach was that it was not preparing students for academic expectations. Another criticism related to this first one was that the process approach was in conflict with the requirements of academic writing in that it did not take into consideration the final product (Raimes, 1991).

As a result of the harsh criticisms of process approaches, a new approach came into use. This new approach was the genre approach. It represented a reaction to both product and process approaches. A detailed description of genre was given in the previous chapters.

The differences between process approaches and product approaches are given in Table 2.2 on page 34.

Table 2.2

The differences between the product and process approaches (Varli, 2001).

	PROCESS APPROACH	PRODUCT APPROACH
1	Focus is on writing process	Focus is on written product
2	Revision is important	Minimum revision
3	No strict predetermined syllabus	Rule -- governed
4	The processes leading to the final product are the central focus of instruction	The product is the central focus of instruction
5	Students are given time to write, rewrite and to discover and consider feedback from teacher and peers	Students write in a given period, not get feedback from the teacher and peers
6	Student-centred and student writing is the central course material	Teacher-centred. and students write according to the materials
7	Individual conferences held on the problems with writing	Focus on formal correctness
8	Considers audience, purpose, and content	Focus on form and structure
9	Emphasizes recursiveness of discourse	Emphasizes linearity
10	Concerned with the production and comprehension of texts. Grammar, spelling, vocabulary, and punctuation concerns come last	Focus is on acquisition of correct grammar, spelling, vocabulary, and punctuation
11	Stresses what is first written is not the finished product but just a beginning	Students' first writing is the final product
12	The first draft is not corrected or graded. The reader responds to the ideas expressed	Extensive error correction
13	Students do not write on a given topic. They explore a topic through writing	The topic is important
14	Final text is not important in the beginning of the writing. The processes of writer to the goal are important	Final text is important since there is no chance to edit or revise it
15	Teachers are facilitators	Teachers have authoritarian role
16	Awareness and intervention stressed. Teachers intervene throughout the composing process, therefore problems are treated as they emerge, making writing tasks interactive	No teacher intervention during the writing process. Teachers react to the final product

2.6. The Role of Language Teachers in Teaching Writing

This section focuses initially on general teacher characteristics, and the teachers' new roles in the language classroom. Following this one-paragraph introduction of the

roles of language teachers, the roles of language teachers in teaching writing will be discussed.

Although the recent tendency in the teaching and learning activities puts a heavy emphasis on the importance of student-centered education, and reduces the roles of language teachers to a relatively passive status, it is contended in this paper that a teacher can make a big difference in a language class. Woods (1996) confirms this idea by claiming that what the individual teacher can bring to the learning experiences of the students in the fields of second and foreign language teaching should not be ignored. Kayaoğlu (1997), in addition, argues that teachers' unique beliefs are influential for learners, and teachers are significant factors in the development of attitudes of the students towards learning.

Harmer (2001) suggests that the teacher is no longer considered as the knowledge transmitter, or as the person putting the class under his control, or the only authority in the class, but is the person who facilitates the activities and provides resources for students whenever they need them. For this to happen, of course, teachers need to be equipped with certain qualities such as maturity, intuition, educational skills, openness to student input, and more tolerance to errors. Though from one activity to another, these roles may change, teachers are responsible for making these changes as efficiently as possible. According to Richards and Lockhart (1995), the roles of language teachers also depend on the contexts in which they work, since these contexts involve different teaching settings, and have an influence on teaching. For instance, in some teaching contexts teachers make their decisions and they are almost free to act in the ways they wish, but in others teachers may not be in a position of decision-making, but only of implementing the decisions which are made by the program directors. So, in these two contexts we can hardly expect teachers to adopt the same roles. On the other hand, even when teachers have full responsibility for their teaching, the roles they are going to adopt may still be not the same. Richards and Lockhart (1995) argue at this point that some of them may adopt organizational or managerial roles and put their efforts in planning their lessons and monitoring their teaching, and others may act as facilitators only. In a study made in an EFL context among 30 secondary school teachers, the actual and the preferred responsibilities of teachers were questioned. These teachers were given some tasks and were asked to report their actual situations and preferences. They were asked for which of the following tasks they actually have primary responsibility, and whether they taught they should have primary responsibilities. The results below show the averages of the answers they gave.

(0 = no responsibility; 5 = full responsibility)

	<i>Actual</i>	<i>Should have</i>
• Identifying learners' communicative needs,	3.64	4.68
• Selecting and grading syllabus content,	2.79	4.46
• Grouping learners into different classes or learning arrangements,	1.79	3.82
• Selecting/grading materials and learning activities,	4.50	4.71
• Monitoring and assessing learner progress,	4.36	4.57
• Course evaluation.	3.54	4.32

(Richards and Lockhart, 1995).

From the above figures we can understand that teachers demand more responsibilities and roles especially in the areas of needs identification, selecting and grading content, grouping learners, and course evaluation. It appears that when teachers have the roles stated above, their teaching approaches and methods will also be shaped accordingly because the responsibilities and roles teachers have will determine their roles in the class. According to Richards and Lockhart (1995) teachers create their own roles based on their responsibilities, theories of teaching and learning. In another study titled "Teacher Decision Making in the Adult ESL Classroom", Smith (1996) states that teachers' roles vary according to the tasks they carry out in the class. If the tasks are student-centered tasks, then teachers take facilitative or monitoring roles. In other words they stand out of the arena and leave the arena to their students. On the other hand, if the tasks are composed of open-ended discussions, then teachers are more likely to be involved actively in the tasks, partly because students will enjoy seeing their teachers participate.

In writing instruction, on the other hand, Brown (2001) states that with the influence of process approaches, students are expected to develop their own ideas, apply their own critical points of view, and find their own voices, and in order for students to carry out these functions, writing teachers are also expected to provide support to the students as facilitators or coaches. For a teacher to act as a facilitator means that he or she should offer help and support to the students in their efforts to engage in the thinking process of creating a text without imposing his or her own ideas during the creation of text. This help or support must be in the form of effective feedback that takes into consideration students' own values and beliefs.

This writer contends that for a thorough understanding of teachers' roles in the writing class, we need to consider different perspectives as the units of a whole. For Grabe and Kaplan (1996), the first of these perspectives is the training of the writing teacher. It seems clear that this perspective determines most accurately why teachers fail or succeed in teaching writing. Whether or not a teacher has received any explicit training in writing so far or whether he/she has had experience in teaching writing must be considered in determining the role of him or her in teaching writing. In other words, teachers' strengths or weaknesses must be known beforehand so that it is possible to prepare the writing curriculum on realistic grounds. Teachers are strongly expected to have formal training as a writing teacher. In other words, determining the roles of a teacher in a writing class requires, first of all, an assessment of his training in writing. Otherwise, the teacher is likely to end up with failure to implement good classes.

In some cases, the teacher's own writing ability may not be enough to teach writing. In this case he may avoid using process approaches for fear that this will reveal his limitations as a writer and as language teacher. In this case, again the role of teacher in writing is reduced to a minimum level.

It is also argued that some teachers may not give the control of the class to the students for fear that this will be understood as a weakness on the part of the students and for this reason they feel a need to exert continuous control and influence on the students. Or their not correcting students' errors may be understood as a linguistic weakness of the teacher. This will also have a negative impact on a teacher's ability to play his or her role(s) in writing class.

A second perspective, provided by Grabe and Kaplan (1996), on understanding the roles of writing teachers is the types of tasks they need to carry out in the lessons and the strong points they should bring to the classroom. They must act sometimes as a motivator and at other times as an interpreter of the task, an organizer, or an evaluator and resource person. Moreover, they should have a positive attitude and good tolerance, and flexibility towards the errors of the students, encouraging the students so that they will be able to cope with the tasks. They should create situations in which students will be able to perform to the best of their abilities, and foster a sense of community and sharing in the class so that writing can be a collaborative and cooperative endeavor and students achieve significant developmental goals. Finally, a writing teacher should have productive insights

into writing and the writing process. According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), they must know and convey the following insights to their students:

- Writing is a time – consuming activity and calls for planning.
- Different kinds of writing will be necessary to negotiate the meaning, and each kind of writing has its own pros and cons.
- Developing one’s writing ability requires constant practice.
- Students should be given positive feedback and encouragement to fulfill their task.
- Writing performance may change from time to time, and this is quite normal,
- Students sometimes display their assignments boldly in more complex ways (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

From the above insights that a writing teacher should bring to the class, it is obvious how complex the teacher’s roles can be.

On the other hand, perhaps, the maxim “the writing that can be postponed, will be” best exemplifies why there is a sort of dislike or fear on the part of both students and teachers. The unpopularity of writing stems from various causes such as its being an unnatural skill unlike speaking and listening which are natural, and the need to learn it. It may even be frustrating, because unlike speaking which flows out smoothly, we have to think twice and check for the correctness each time we write. Writing teachers’ role here is to help students generate ideas and use these ideas for expressing themselves.

Writing is time-consuming and difficult to teach, and many prospective student-teachers may not feel qualified to teach it, for they have not received necessary training in the teaching of writing. Moreover, many young teachers refrain from taking up the task of teaching writing for they do not trust their knowledge of writing or ability to write. Shin (2003) answers the question of how these student-teachers and new teachers can develop their teaching of writing while at the same time improving their skills as writers. She proposes the use of journals by teachers about conferencing and providing feedback. Thus, these prospective teachers will be confronted with what they already know and evaluate themselves as writers and teachers. One advantage of prospective writing teachers maintaining journals is the increased awareness journals give them about their own writing. This makes them understand the writing processes that others go through.

The situation for the present EFL teachers may not be so different as well. They have problems with writing, and writing for most of them is the least popular skill and the last skill they probably would like to teach.

2.7. Error Analysis and EFL Writing Teachers

In the analysis of learner errors, opinions and practices of EFL writing teachers remain deeply divided. Some teachers focus their attention only on the mechanics of writing, while others on content, or on both content and mechanics (Coffin et al, 2003). Allwright and Bailey (1991) argue that writing teachers should ask themselves some questions such as “Why students make errors?” or “Are these errors really important?” or “Do their responses make any difference in students’ writing?” in order to resolve the conflict in their analyses of students’ written performances. EFL writing teachers should also know when to correct errors, who will correct errors, which errors to correct and how to correct errors.

2.7.1. Errors in Language Teaching

In understanding teachers’ perceptions of any skill, it may be important to refer to the ways in which these teachers respond to errors. A thorough study of error correction in writing may provide important clues about the ways teachers perceive that particular skill under scrutiny. In addition, a careful study of teachers’ responses towards students’ errors may provide us with insights into the internal processes of teachers and an understanding of the teachers’ perception of the importance of writing.

Errors are inseparable for human learning, and in nearly all spheres of life we are likely to make lots of errors in many tasks we deal with. It is even suggested that the more errors we make, the better we learn a specific task. This idea is supported by Brown (1994), who says that mistakes, erroneous assumptions and misjudgments constitute real-life learning of any skill or task. Thus, he compares language learning to real – life learning, adding that second or foreign language learning has a trial-and-error nature. That means learners are likely to make lots of mistakes in the process of acquiring a second or foreign language, and in turn will receive feedback on these errors to reinforce their learning. In other words, good feedback will stimulate learning since it has such general

features as being relevant and informative, encouraging self - assessment and dialogue (Freeman and Lewis, 1998).

In addition, many researchers and teachers have already noticed that the mistakes or errors that the learners make should be analyzed carefully, for the prospective findings may shed light on the process of language acquisition (Garman, 1990). For Brown (1994), it is highly possible that learners' errors are likely to provide evidence as to how language is learned or acquired, and what strategies learners are using to learn. A similar idea is expressed by Gass and Selinker (1994), who state that errors should be seen as indications of learners' attempts to understand the new language system. This study of learners' errors is known as "error analysis".

Richards (1985) claim that analysis of errors in the written performances of ESL and EFL students occupies an important place in applied linguistics and language teaching. The focus in error analysis is on the psycholinguistic processes of language acquisition, and the data is provided from the language learners' sentences and utterances in the second or foreign language. The findings are designed to shed light on specific language strategies and processes of learners, so that hopefully they can develop a more comprehensive theory of second and foreign language learning.

According to Corder (1986) there are two broad reasons why learners' errors have such important implications for the teaching and learning of language skills such as writing. The first one is related to teaching pedagogy and the second to the theories. In order to understand the true nature of errors students produce, adopting this two-sided perspective appears necessary to this writer. Pedagogical perspective requires a good understanding of the nature of an error in order to find appropriate ways to get rid of that error. A theoretical perspective, further, points to the fact that the study of learners' errors enables us to study systematically. Treating the subject of errors from both perspectives will also help us make sound decisions about the development and improvement of materials and techniques of language teaching.

A necessary distinction should be made here between mistakes and errors to analyze learner language. This distinction between the two, according to Brown (1994) and Gass and Selinker (1994), is that the former is related to failure in performing the correct usage in language. The failure in using the correct language does not result from a lack of knowledge, but from some sort of breakdown, or from hesitations -- which are quite common in the mother language, let alone second or foreign languages. The latter, on the

other hand, is regarded as noticeable deviation from the target language, and clearly signals incompetence in the target language.

2.7.2. Identifying and Describing Errors

Since direct observation of learning processes and understanding linguistic systems of learners is not possible, production and comprehension data need to be analyzed, and then inferences are to be drawn on the problem areas. But this is not an easy process due to several factors such as instability of learners' systems (Brown, 1994).

During the process of error analysis there are five stages involved, these being recognition, interpretation, reconstruction, classification, and explanation. In the recognition, interpretation and reconstruction stages, teachers need to pay attention to what performance expectations they have from their students. This is due to the fact that if the error does not distort the meaning or disappoint the overall performance expectation of the teacher, then it may go untreated and becomes acceptable. But if the error distorts the meaning, then it should be recognized as a serious error and should be treated (McKeating, 1987). Recognizing or identifying errors and idiosyncratic utterances are modeled by Cordel (1971) on page 42.

In this model, when a sentence is uttered by learners, it is checked for any idiosyncrasies. For this check, overt and covert errors are treated separately. As seen in figure 2.7 on page 41, when the learners make overt or covert errors, and if the sentences containing these errors are interpreted correctly, then these sentences are re-constructed in the target language, compared with the original problematic sentences, and the differences are described. The model also makes it possible that when the mother language of the learner is known, translation can be used to indicate native language interference as a source of error. At other times when there is no correct interpretation of the problematic sentences, the error will go with no analysis whatsoever (Brown, 1994). In the classification stage, according to McKeating (1987), there are many ways to classify errors, and teachers can use them according to their purpose. Errors to him can be classified as linguistic errors such as omission errors, addition errors, substitution errors, and mis-ordering errors. It is true that this classification is not sufficient on its own, but for a start, necessary though. Linguistic classification of errors also calls for various levels of

linguistic description to these errors such as phonological, syntactic, lexico-semantic, situational and socio-linguistic.

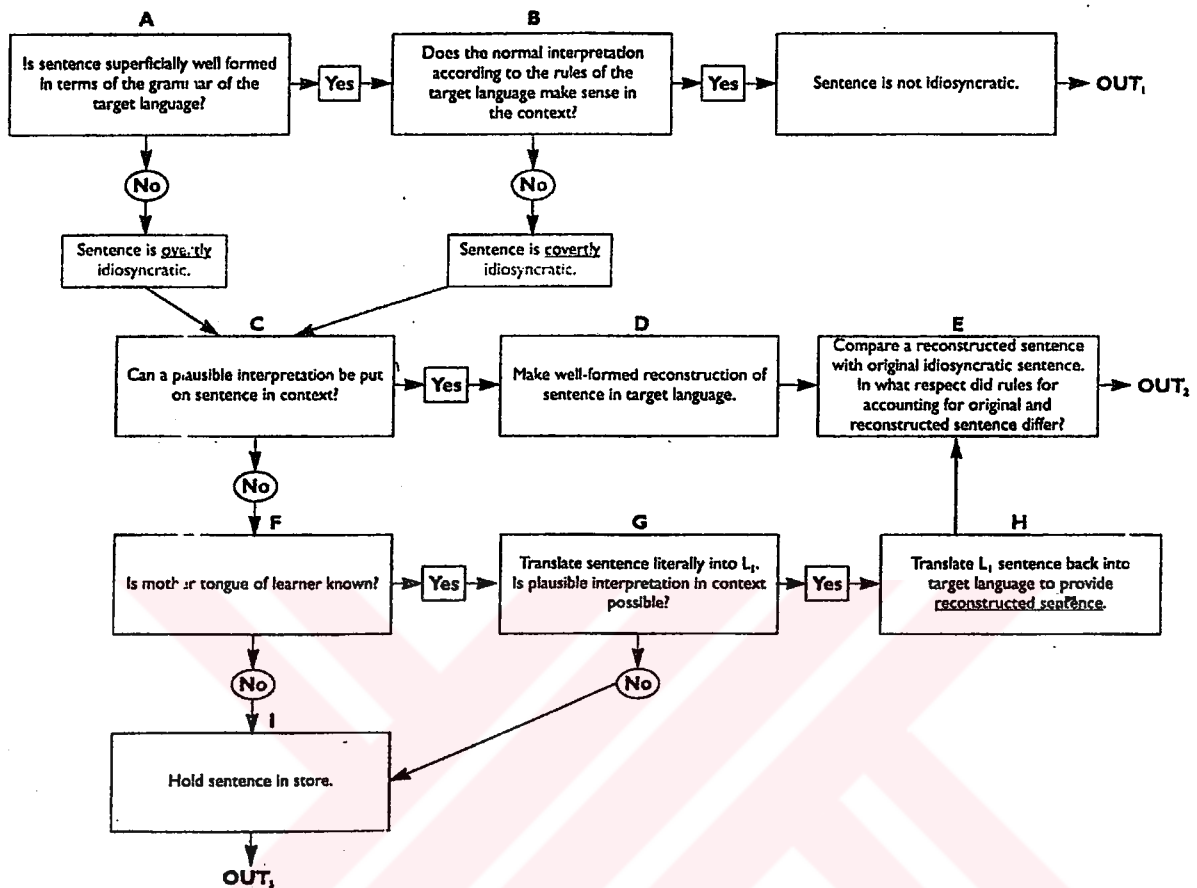


Figure 2.7: Procedure for identifying errors in second language learner production data. (Corder, 1971, cited in Brown, 1994).

2.7.3. Sources of Errors

Determining the source(s) of errors is an important step. Because, it helps us understand how the learners' cognitive and affective levels are related to the linguistic system they are using, and it also helps us to have an understanding of the process of second or foreign language acquisition (Brown, 1994). There are two basic sources of errors, these being the interlingual transfer and intralingual transfer (Gass and Selinker, 1994); (Littlewood, 1989). Interlingual transfer is also known as language transfer or language interference. It is the most common cause of errors among second or foreign language learners. At the beginning stages of learning a language, since the learners have no or very limited knowledge of the target language, they are prone to make lots of

language transfers from their native languages, which is the only linguistic system from which learners can draw experience (Gass and Selinker, 1994). According to Brown (1994), the errors that the learners are likely to make at beginning level will be negative interlingual transfer errors. If teachers know both languages, it will be possible for them to detect the sources of errors (Brown, 1994). For McKeating (1987) errors will most likely happen when there are partial similarities between the languages. When there are big differences between the languages, many learners have no difficulty using a very different word order, which implies that in this way at least big differences make a language easier to learn (McKeating, 1987).

Intralingual transfers, on the other hand, are the ones which are well beyond the interlingual ones, and they have become major factors in learning second or foreign language learning. Brown (1994) says that at the early stages interlingual transfers are very common, but in the later period when learners begin to learn the new language system more intralingual transfers such as overgeneralizations dominate. This is of course very natural because when learners take more and more steps towards acquiring the new language system, their existing native language systems exert some influence and learners begin to be affected more from their native languages. McKeating (1987) presents different types of intralingual transfer errors. One of these is cross-association, which may occur spontaneously or accidentally since it is very easy for teachers to encourage it unintentionally during teaching. When items with similar meaning but different structures are presented together, this may easily lead to unacceptable and strange structures. For example, when a teacher gives formulaic sentence structures like *too + adj + to + verb*, students may produce strange and unacceptable utterances such as “This apple is too sour to it” and with another formula *so + adj + that*, sentences such as “This bag is so heavy for me to carry it” or “This bag is too heavy that I can’t carry it” may result. The second of these negative intralingual transfers is wrong analogy or over-generalization in which learners try to find similar patterns and regularities in both languages in an effort to reduce the sheer number of things to learn. In such cases, Mc Keating (1987) argues that learners tend to over-generalize rules and fail to consider exceptions due to his insufficient knowledge of the target language. Examples of this case are seen in the use of “Does John can sing?” or “He goed” or “She explained me how to mend it”. For Brown (1994) a teacher or researcher needs repeated systematic observations of the learners in order to understand the source of the error. In a study by Taylor on the analysis of English

sentences produced by ESL learners, during the use of main verb and helping verb nine different types of error were recorded as follows:

Taylor's list of nine different types of error, these being

- Past tense form of verb following a modal,
 - Present tense-s on a verb following a modal,
 - *-Ing* on a verb following a modal,
 - *are(for to be)* following *will*
 - Past tense form of verb following *do*
 - Present tense *-s* on a verb following *do*
 - *-Ing* on a verb following *do*
 - Past tense form of a verb following *be*
 - Presents tense *-s* on a verb following *be*
- (Brown, 1994, pp: 214-216).

In spite of the limited nature of the findings that Taylor obtained, I believe that these findings still represent very common negative intralingual transfers.

There are, of course, other possible ways of negative intralingual transfers such as carelessness and errors encouraged by teachers unintentionally, and these are also called "context errors" – the word "context" referring the classroom with its teacher and the materials (Brown, 1994). Careless mistakes or lapses are caused by failure to follow a known rule for reasons such as forgetfulness or haste. When the attention of the learner is directed to the mistake, it is corrected easily. Errors encouraged by teachers are those caused by the heavy emphasis on items, which makes students so worried about not using them correctly, and they over-using them. For example, students may say "I lives in a small village" or "She can sings very well" and so on. Other results of teacher encouragement are wrong or problematic rules that are also far from adequate, and when students use these rules, they make errors. For example, if a teacher gives students a rule such as "if the action is in the past, the verb must always be in the past tense", this may create wrong encouragement on the part of the students. Thus, they may form sentences like "Last week they wanted to saw a movie, but their mother said they got to finish their homework" or "I saw him opened the window" (McKeating, 1987).

One major criticism of error analysis is that it depends totally on the errors when there is no more information about the learners' linguistic behavior (Gass and Selinker, 1994).

2.7.4. Sources of Errors in ESL and EFL Writing

According to Myles (2002) there are both social and cognitive factors which have influence on language learning and which are the cause of learners' errors in writing, and those factors are supported by Ellis (1994), who emphasize the importance of social factors as evidences of learners' progress and errors in writing. Learners may exhibit errors because they have negative attitudes toward the target language. If a learner's attitude or motivation is good he can perform better than others, but in the case of writing it is this writer's contention that most learners may have negative attitudes, partly resulting from their dislike for writing even in their native language, and partly from their belief that writing is not related to their career purposes. Ferris (1994) recommends here the creation of instrumental motivations for the students. This will be likely to increase their effectiveness in writing.

Another cause of errors identified by Ferris (1994) in second or foreign language learners' written products is their continued lack of progress in the target language. If learners fail to engage in the texts, or actively contribute to the lesson, he says, then, these failures will have an effect on their progress. In writing class there is a necessity to make the learners more acquainted with the writing skill. The third cause of errors as identified by Ferris (1994) is the wide and psychological distance between the student and the target culture and the last of Ferris' causes is their lack of integrative and instrumental motivation for learning. As stated previously, motivated learners of anything will be more successful, and so it is also with students of writing motivation will, in short, achieve better writing.

There are also cognitive factors behind the errors second or foreign language learners make in the course of their writing. Myles (2002) points out that writing is an active cognitive process during which as the learners learn more about the target language, they gradually reduce errors based on cognition. Andersons' model of language production, as cited in Myles (2002) exemplifies the cognitive writing processes in second - and foreign language. This model comprises three steps, these being construction, transformation, and execution. In the construction step learners plan what they are going to write, in the transformation step they use language rules to write down ideas, and in the execution step they come up with the written text. In the first two steps, according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), goals are set and then memory is searched for the necessary information and in the third step language is generated by using phrases and sentences.

Learners follow these steps and they actively develop the meaning they want to convey in their writing. In organizing the information, on the other hand, learner writers use different types of knowledge such as discourse knowledge, understanding of the audience, and sociolinguistic rules. As stated above, at the transformation step of Anderson's model of language production, the information should be converted into meaningful sentences during which writers explain their goals and ideas, and organization is developed in the construction stage. Revision is a part of this stage, and it is cognitively a very demanding task for second or foreign language learners since it includes such steps as task definition, evaluation, strategy selection, and modification of text in the writing plan (Grabe W & R Kaplan, 1996).

For a learner of a second- or foreign language, it is naturally not easy to use all the steps appropriately at the same time. They make a kind of selection in using these steps and they also develop their own ways of learning strategies. For O'Malley and Chamot, (1990) these strategies are called as meta-cognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/effective strategies. Those strategies have the potential to be very effective, but if an environment is thought to be stressful or threatening, then the cognition of the learner may be affected by these learners' affective states. In other words, when they are under stress, the writing performance of second or foreign learners may be affected badly. Another cognitive factor related to writing is language transfers, resulted by similarities and differences between the native and target languages (Odlin, 1989).

Fossilization- relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into a person's second language competence- is another important source of error in second or foreign language writing. Such errors can be very troublesome since they appear repeatedly in learners' written texts (Myles, 2002 ; Littlewood, 1989).

2.7.5. The Ways EFL Teachers Should Treat Errors in Students' Written Texts

It is possible to assume that many EFL teachers treat errors with some already pre-conceived notions in their heads. However, if these notions do not have clearly defined values, or they do not have objective criteria, then it will be virtually impossible for teachers to make consistent judgments on students' written texts based on these vague values or criteria. Thus, they will only focus on particular flaws such as punctuation, spelling, or word-order, and this will make them more or less proofreaders rather than

critical readers. Worse, students will be made to assume that successful texts are the ones with no grammar errors whatsoever.

As the students have different learning strategies to learn different linguistic skills, a good teacher should be flexible and have different strategies for correcting errors in writing and other skills according to the kind of errors, the ability, personality and gender of the students, the general atmosphere of the classroom, and the matter of accuracy or fluency.

Considerable research done in the area suggests that increased direct error correction does not lead to greater accuracy in the target language (Richard and Amato, 1995). We all remember those big reds “?” on our exam papers and compositions and we probably remember the way we felt when we saw them. This traditional way of providing feedback-that is covering the paper with red, pink or green ink- turns out to be demoralizing, and de-motivating. Feedback should be truthful and positive, and there may be less intimidating and more encouraging ways to give feedback such as conferencing, peer evaluation, minimal marking and so on. So, Ferris (2003, cited in Lee, 2003) proposes indirect error correction-indicating errors without correcting them- since that technique brings more benefit to students’ long term writing development. Ferris (2001) also argues that there is an agreement that error feedback will be most effective if it is selective, prioritized, and indirect. Indirect error correction means simply noting location of errors and not making overt corrections. In this way students are given the ability to self-edit the papers.

Nonetheless, error correction is one of the most debated topics in the field of second language teaching. Ferris (2003, cited in Lee, 2003) points out that teachers have to decide whether to correct or not to correct errors, identify or not to identify different types of errors, and to locate or not to locate errors directly. Moreover, questions such as “Should teachers correct errors for students?”, or “When do we correct errors?” or “When do we ignore them?” or “How do we correct them?” are important for teachers. It seems that ignoring them completely is not a solution but that direct and overt techniques do not serve students very well, and they are affectively damaging and do not help to improve students’ proficiency in the language (Fathman and Whalley, 1990).

Writing about the criteria for rational feedback, Allwright and Bailey (1991) conclude that it is unfair to penalize students for errors when they lack exposure to such forms or functions. Learners who make errors while creating language may not even be

aware of what a correct form looks like. Learners may acquire structures in a natural order, so elements that are beyond their language capabilities cannot be acquired until the particular language learner is linguistically capable. In other words, correcting these types of unfamiliar errors may be ineffectual.

A second factor noted by Allwright and Bailey (1991) is whether or not a particular error in writing is serious. The aims of the L2 writing class should be considered before determining the gravity of an error. It may be useful, they say, to view writing errors in a hierarchy, ranked according to their seriousness, with errors that significantly impair communication at the top of the list, followed by errors that occur frequently, errors that reflect misunderstanding or incomplete acquisition of the current classroom focus, and errors that have a highly stigmatizing effect on the listeners. Global errors, they assert, are more serious than local errors. They are the kinds of errors which need to be corrected since they cause distortion in the meaning of a sentence. On the other hand, local errors need not be corrected all the time since they do not prevent the flow of ideas. Global errors, they feel should almost always be corrected because they cause confusion regarding the relationship between constituent clauses, whereas local errors occur within a clause and should be corrected on a case-by-case basis. Research studies so far, Lee (2003) reports, point out the disadvantages of comprehensible error feedback- that is to say, marking all students' errors. This makes writing teachers turn into grammar teachers and ignore other important aspects of writing instruction (Zamel, 1985).

A third factor raised by Allwright and Bailey (1991) is consistency without which corrections will be offered arbitrarily, depending only on the teacher's patience, mood, motivation, or attitude. Consistency requires that the teacher bring the student to a point where the erroneous structure is, at the very least, recognized. Then if possible, the student may be able to repair the error. A second benefit of a consistent approach is that it intensifies the affects of a teacher's disposition. Just as students can become frustrated, so can teachers. As a result, teachers may react differently to different students within the classroom, depending on the situation, the frustration level, motivation, and attitudes of the teacher and the language learners. Relying on a consistent approach helps teachers avoid reacting emotionally to a student's errors (Chaudron, 1988).

In a typical writing lesson when the teacher asks students to write sentences about what they and other people enjoy doing, a student writes: "*my bruther injoye to play*

football". First, the student has had many mistakes but the sentence is not as bad as it looks, for it makes sense. Second, the purpose of this exercise is to practice "enjoy+ing", so this part needs to be corrected and the "-s" ending is also important, so the teacher can write "enjoys playing" above the line. And third, it is better to ignore the spelling mistakes in order not to distract attention from the main point. The teacher can make a note of them and include them in a later lesson.

2.7.6. Techniques for Responding to Students' Writing

Techniques for responding to students' writing can be classified. According to the Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990), the first technique is 'annotation'. Teachers can provide clear and constructive written responses -annotations- for the purpose of effectively facilitating rewriting. Those annotations must be fairly long, clear, and text-specific. It should also include constructive criticism and praise on the strengths of the text. They should focus on meaning and context, seek clarification and additional information and comment on language problems (Raimes, 1983).

Peterson (2000) in his article "Giving Effective Feedback to Improve Students' Writing Skills" mentions a second technique: 'group written responses', in which groups of students give their feedback on a separate sheet of paper for the members of their particular group. One advantage of this technique is that each writer gets immediate feedback from three or more peers.

The third technique is called "response journals". In this technique, students write about their problems, their successes and failures in a journal form, and once a week the teacher reads and responds the problems and offers solutions and support.

The fourth one is called the "revise-and-submit letters" technique. In this technique the teachers provides feedback in the form of a letter and then the student is expected to write back and report what they understand from the teacher's comments. This technique promotes learner independence, and gives students more chance to disagree with the teacher in a non-threatening way.

A fifth technique is the use of 'checklists' as a way to responding to students' writing. Checklists can be adapted by teachers for the purpose of structuring feedback for the students on a number of general or specific areas. One disadvantage here is that the structure of the checklist can limit the response from the teacher.

The sixth responding technique is the “reformulations”, which entails having a reformulator, probably a native speaker, who corrects students’ written work only at the surface-level and then discusses with the students one by one hoping that they will find out their errors and be able to create criteria for not making such errors again. Some disadvantages are that it is very time consuming, it may be difficult to find native speakers all the time, and it may focus students’ attention only in surface level changes. Despite all these disadvantages, particularly with the advanced students, this technique may work quite well.

The seventh technique is ‘conferencing’. Conferencing has increased a lot in popularity with the use of process approaches to writing. It requires collaborative work between the teacher and the student. One big advantage of this technique is that it creates an atmosphere in which the teacher and the students are engaged in the work closely and actively. Thus, the teacher may feel free to ask students specific questions about the texts they produce and the students have the chance to ask for clarification about the teachers responses.

Last technique involves ‘class discussions’, during which the teacher will have the power to direct students’ attention to any commonly occurring on any problematic point. One big advantage of this technique is that it gives the teacher the chance to act on the spot and thus to provide valuable input at a time when most needed and effective (Peterson, 2000).

It is obvious that the teacher response to the students’ written text has great influence on the students’ success, and according to Leki (1990) only when they get it students are really motivated to continue their efforts to write.

In a research study “L2 writing teachers’ perspectives, practices and problems regarding error feedback” Lee (2003) conducted questionnaires with 206 EFL teachers in Hong Kong who had varying teaching experiences. Those teachers were asked about what their main purposes of providing feedback on student errors were. The responses those teachers gave are as follows. The numbers show the frequency of the answers.

- For increasing students’ awareness of errors (65 times)
- For helping students avoid the same errors (45 times)
- For helping students improve their writing (30 times)
- For helping students correct their errors (15 times)
- For giving students encouragement (9 times)

- For learning how to express ideas or write better (7 times)
- For learning grammar/cohesion/coherence (5 times)
- For helping students reflect on their writing (4 times)
- For helping students locate their errors (2 errors)
- For long term benefits such as promoting self-learning (2 errors)

These findings show that EFL teachers want their students to become aware of their errors and to correct them. These two goals are the immediate goals of helping students. But as far as long-term goals are concerned, only a few of them want their students to locate errors and reflect and promote self learning (Lee, 2003).

In the same study, participant teachers were also asked what their beliefs regarding error feedback were, and 91 % of them preferred indirect feedback or selective feedback. However, in reality these teachers were under pressure to mark all the errors, and for this reason 60 % of them agreed that it is the teacher's job to locate errors and provide corrections for students. This inconsistency in their responses came through various channels such as the demands of the students and principals. So, the idea of empowering the students or putting the responsibility on the students only remained a thought in the teachers' minds (Lee, 2003).

In another study, "L2 Writing Teachers' Philosophical Values", Usui and Asaoka (1999) found that Japanese EFL teachers put greater emphasis on formal accuracy of the students' texts than do native speaking teachers of English. For this research, participants both native and Japanese were given erroneous sentences or a passage containing errors and specifically instructed to correct the errors they saw. They evaluated the paper and gave feedback as they would normally do as an EFL writing teacher. Four Japanese and four native-speaking teachers participated in the study. The result of this study was that both groups of teachers seemed to have similar ideas about what is important in writing, such as that writing is an ongoing process, cooperative learning is important and students' autonomy is important. On the other hand, they seemed to differ in types of feedback, types of problems and feedback procedure. Some participants showed concern about the affective aspects when giving feedback such as giving positive feedback, credit for sincere efforts, not giving too much feedback at one time. The types of feedback were also different. Most of them were in favor of giving written feedback, but some gave long and detailed feedback whereas others did not. Most of them commented that they would give oral feedback as well in the form of traditional conferencing. Those differences can be

attributed to their beliefs, previous experiences, previous program or students' goals and expectations. Also in this study it was seen that factors such as time, focus of assignment, relationship between the teacher and the student all have an influence on how the teachers give feedback and what types of feedback they give (Usui and Asaoka, 1998).

In a similar study called "Error Correction and Feedback Techniques: A Journal of Exploration" Gosse (2001) made a seven-month action research project to explore the teachers' rationale for current approaches to error correction and to offer alternative approaches towards error correction and feedback when responding to students' written work. Eleven EFL Arabic language teachers took part in the research. At the beginning of the study it was noted that most of the teachers were very busy correcting the students' work and there was a lack of consistency and often accuracy in the correction and feedback the teachers were providing. Most of them only used one approach to providing feedback and error correction: marking every mistake and providing the correct form. Sometimes they were not noticing mistakes or marking things wrong that actually were correct. Their feedback consisted only of underlining most grammar, spelling, and writing conventions mistakes. Very few of them were using editing symbols to indicate errors. In turn, the students were not required to go back, revise and learn from their mistakes, since their errors had already been corrected by their teachers. There was no encouragement for longer written work and teachers were already fed up with responding to the assignments which contain neither wrong or right answers. And the worst of all there was no established system to make the students responsible for their corrections, and with this one way approach, many students continued to make the same kinds of mistakes. The current practices were ineffective and time-consuming, and not encouraging the students to improve themselves (Doff, 1988).

In the process of this action research, the researcher organized group work in weekly workshops, and conducted one-on-one work with each teacher. In weekly workshops, which played an important role according to the researcher, wide-ranging subjects from writing conventions, correcting grammar mistakes, editing symbols, correcting paragraphs, wrong vocabulary and steps in the writing process, to creative writing, identifying parts of a sentence were dealt with. In one-on-one works with teachers, error correction and feedback interviews were conducted with the teachers. According to the Gosse (2001), the researcher, the result was a great success. All the teachers began to use editing symbols, their marking of exams were improved, and teachers developed more

detailed marking keys. They began to use ideas and approaches from the workshops and were very successful, and also began to use peer correction and group correction as ways of responding the students' papers. Finally, they adopted selective correction and found that it was very time efficient and that students responded positively. They made more conscious and well-informed decisions in line with their overall educational objectives.

I contend that this last research study is a very good example of how teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions towards writing language skill can change and develop. Teachers resembling those who participated in this research study can be found in other language teaching programs as well. So, the process of change that these teachers underwent can also happen in other institutions with other language teachers.



CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In the first part of this chapter the aim, setting, and subjects of this study are explained. In the second part data collection and the data analysis procedures are outlined.

3.2. Aim

The aim of this study is to find out tertiary-level EFL teachers' perceptions of the role and importance of writing skill in English language teaching (ELT), and to determine the place of writing skill in the EFL curriculum. As stressed in the introductory chapter, undertaking teachers' perceptions of the writing process can reveal the true nature of the EFL teachers' stance towards writing as a language skill. It is also believed that the teachers themselves can better explain the processes they go through while teaching writing and analyzing errors. The clear outline of their perceptions, the exact determination of the place of writing skill in the EFL curriculum, error analysis methods, if any, and the role of writing skill in ELT world will give us some ideas about the present situation and these ideas are likely to open new paths towards a better understanding of the teaching of writing skill in EFL settings.

This study will attempt to find answers to two main research questions.

1. How is the role of writing perceived by English teachers teaching in EFL settings?
2. What is the role of writing skill in the EFL curriculum?

Specific research questions

3. Have EFL teachers received any training so far in teaching writing?
4. What are EFL teachers' priorities in the teaching of language skills?
5. What features of writing do EFL teachers consider as important in evaluating students' papers?

6. What kinds of errors are particularly highlighted by EFL teachers in writing and correction?
7. What types of feedback do EFL teachers prefer to give in writing courses?
8. Do EFL teachers consider errors in the surface structure as more important than those in the deep structure of a text in evaluating students' writing in the class?

3.3. Methodology

In this study both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used and as one part of the triangulation, quantitative data was obtained through a teacher questionnaire in the collection of data. This was to allow us to understand the perceptions and the actual practices of teachers in teaching writing.

However, the quantitative data obtained in this way did not allow for in-depth explanation of the current practices and the ways teachers treat errors in the teaching and grading of writing in their courses. In other words, I believe that the actual perceptions and applications of teachers in teaching writing can not be ascertained by a reliance on a questionnaire alone.

For the reason stated above, qualitative data was also incorporated in the design of the study. The inclusion of qualitative data was aimed at complementing the findings of the quantitative data. Through qualitative data obtained by the use of protocols, it was intended to shed light on the actual processes of the teachers while evaluating the students' written performances. Lastly, an interview was conducted with five responsible sub-coordinators for the purpose of understanding the place of writing in the school curriculum. Also, a document analysis was conducted. The decisions made by the administration about the curriculum were examined and thus the place of writing was sought to be identified.

3.4. Triangulation in Educational Research

Triangulation, in its simplest form, is the application and combination of several research methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon. Cohen and Manion (1994) define it as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behavior. It is also called the multi-method approach because it aims to explain more fully the richness and complexity of human behavior through studying it from more

than one perspective using qualitative and quantitative data together. Robson (1995) states that triangulation provides a means of testing one source of information against other sources and that both correspondences and discrepancies are of value in such a way that the similar findings cross-validate each methodology, and discrepancies may require explanations by means of the investigation. Triangulation can be employed in both quantitative (validation) and qualitative (inquiry) studies. Moreover, it is a method-appropriate strategy for founding the credibility of qualitative analyses and it is an alternative to traditional criteria like reliability and validity. It is also the preferred line in the social sciences (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

There are four basic types of triangulation:

- Time triangulation, involving time, space, and persons;
- Investigator triangulation, which consists of the use of multiple, rather than single observers;
- Theoretical triangulation, which consists of using more than one theoretical scheme in the interpretation of the phenomenon;
- Methodological triangulation, which involves using more than one method and may consist of within-method or between-method strategies (Cohen and Manion, 1994; pp: 236-237).

Of these four types, methodological triangulation is the one which is used most frequently and the one that possibly has the most to offer. It has two subtypes. One uses the same method on different occasions and one uses different methods on the same object of study (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

Denzin (1989, cited in Nachmias, C. and Nachmias, D. 1996) state that as a research strategy, triangulation has the benefit of raising social scientists “above the personal prejudices that are originated from only single methodologies. “By putting together more than one method within the same study, observers can partially overcome the problems that appear from using single method (Nachmias, C. and Nachmias, D. 1996; pp: 206).”

Cohen and Manion (1994) stated that there are two main advantages of triangulation. The first one is that since exclusive reliance on one method may distort or bias the researcher’s picture of reality, and since the researcher needs to be confident that the data in hand truly represents the reality, this confidence can only be achieved when different methods of data collection give almost the same results. For example, the more the outcomes of a questionnaire correspond to those of an observational study of the same phenomenon, the more the researcher will be confident about the findings.

The second advantage is that since some researchers use always the same methods and claim that they are familiar only with these methods, the use of triangular techniques will help to overcome the problem of “method-boundedness” (Cohen and Manion, 1994; pp: 234).

3.5. Setting

The setting of the study was the Department of Foreign Languages of Karadeniz Technical University. During the course of the study the Foreign Languages Department held 65 English lecturers and 40 of them taught in the English preparatory classes. These teachers were required to teach grammar, reading, writing and listening for at least 30 hours in total each term. They used the same course materials, but were free to bring their own materials to their lessons. There were 35 classes in the department, and the students came from many different departments. Some of the lecturers employed in the department at the time were experienced teachers but most were not. At the initiation of their professions as teachers of English, some of them had not received any formal education in English language teaching (ELT). Indeed, at the time of writing, the university preparatory schools in Turkey do not require a formal ELT background from their teachers. Very few of the lecturers had a master’s degree in ELT and few had participated in seminars or certificate programs in ELT. One common attribute that almost all the lecturers shared was that they do what had been done in the past and what was being done currently in terms of the curriculum and the content, and the materials they used had little value in and of themselves.

In the opinion of this writer there was a great need for change.

3.6. Subjects

This study was conducted with 35 EFL teachers, teaching for the prep-classes in the School of Basic English, at Karadeniz Technical University. All the subjects, which were chosen randomly, were teaching grammar, reading, writing and listening in English preparatory classes for an average of 30 hours a week. Most of the subjects were very eager to take part in the study because they taught that the findings would bring solutions to some of the important problems that the current curriculum presented. Also they thought

that the findings of the research project would assist them to gain insight into their writing, thus contributing to their notion of writing and the successful classroom implementation of it.

The subjects' previous and current exposure to English outside the classroom varied significantly. Most of the subjects clearly stated that they only used English in the classroom. Few of them stated that they had completed their master's degree in ELT. Out of 35 subjects only 2 had received master's degree. What is more, almost 26 % of the subjects had not received any formal education in English language teaching (ELT), since the university administration does not require a formal ELT background from their teachers.

Table 3.1
Demographic Information of Teacher Participants (Subjects)

	No	%
Sex		
Female	15	42.9
Male	20	57.1
Age		
23-29	17	48.6
30-36	11	31.4
37-44	5	14.3
45- above	2	5.7
Years of profession		
Less than a year	1	2.9
1-4 years	11	31.4
5-8 years	10	28.6
9-14 years	8	22.9
More than 15 years	5	14.3
Undergraduate degrees		
Teaching English as a Foreign Language	26	74.3
English Language and Literature	9	25.7
Degrees or Qualifications in ELT		
MA (Master of Arts)	2	5.7
Certificate	2	5.7
Summer School	-	-
Seminars	2	5.7

The reasons for selecting these teachers were two-fold. First of all, within the scope of my proposed study, I thought these teachers would fit the required conditions, and best

exemplify the existing situation. I believed that their perceptions about the role of writing language skill in ELT and the ways they treat errors in the students' written works might shed light on questions such as why writing is not a very popular skill among EFL/ESL teachers, or why writing is ignored and considered as the least useful skill or not useful at all. The second reason was related to one of the limitations of the study, that is, my geographical location. There is only one university in Trabzon and the other universities are far from here. In addition, an interview was conducted with four teachers who are the coordinators of the various branches in order to determine the role of writing skill in curriculum. Table 3.1 above summarizes relevant subject characteristics.

3.7. Data Collection Procedures

The following data collection procedures were used in the study: (a) two writing tasks and retrospective protocols, (b) teacher questionnaire, (c) interviews with the sub-coordinators, and (d) document analysis.

3.7.1. Protocol Analysis

Protocol analysis is a method of data collection that examines the cognitive processes and interests as directly as possible by collecting verbal reports from the subjects. Although this method of data collection goes back a long way in psychology studies, it has rather recently been introduced into the studies in applied linguistics. It was realized not long ago by the researchers in applied linguistics that protocol analysis can be a strong method for looking at a variety of cognitive processes of interest to second language acquisition researchers (Jourdenais, 2001).

There are mainly three types of protocol analysis that can be used in collecting data from subjects, these being introspection, retrospection, and think-aloud protocols. Each of these data collection methods elicits different types of information from the subjects.

3.7.1.1. Introspection and Think-Aloud Protocols

Introspection is one way of supplementing information from observation. In this method subjects are required to explain their processing strategies simultaneously with their performance of a task, to observe the “workings of their mind” when they are involved in a particular task, describe them as they occur (Jourdenais, 2001; Lynch and Mendelson, 2002). This form of data collection is very similar to the ‘think-aloud protocol’ which requires the subjects to convert the heeded information into a verbal form to vocalize it.

Introspection studies are open to criticisms. One criticism of the introspection method is that when the subjects have to report their mind simultaneously with their teacher behavior listeners may listen differently from normal. A second criticism is that the data obtained in the end can be greatly influenced by the listeners’ skill in verbalizing the mental process, especially if the self-reporting is done in L2. A third criticism is that listeners’ reports may be influenced by the previous knowledge rather than by their listening.

Think-aloud protocols, like introspective reports, are also collected during the execution of a task, but unlike introspective reports do not ask the subject to interpret their cognitive behaviors. Rather, subjects are simply asked to think aloud while they are performing the task, and verbalize what comes to their mind as they are completing the activity.

3.7.1.2. Retrospection

Retrospection is an alternative method of collecting data in which retrospective reports are collected upon completion of a task as subjects are prompted to think back upon and report the processes they used and the thoughts they had, while the task was being completed. Retrospective data collection procedures are divided into two types, these being (a) immediate retrospection when traces of original cognition are still assumed to be in short-term memory and (b) delayed retrospection which can be found in subjects’ diaries, or notebooks, or any statement of experiences with particular language tasks for a period of a few hours, days or weeks after the event.

In retrospection there is a risk of contamination that is, in this kind of data collection, the subjects who are asked to recall how they understood the text may elaborate what they understood the first time and they may give additional information.

Table 3.2 below summarizes the features of the three different types of protocols.

Table 3.2
Types of protocol analysis: adapted from Jourdenais (2001)

	Concurrent with task	Subsequent to task	Asks learners to report processes
Retrospective		*	*
Introspective	*		*
Think-aloud	*		

3.7.2. Concerns about Protocol Use

Although there are many benefits offered by the use of protocols, there are also some concerns about the use of this data collection technique. One big concern is whether or not protocols can provide a reliable and complete piece of data on the cognitive processes of subjects. Another criticism is about the learners' memory limitation - that is, whether or not the subjects are able to accurately remember the thoughts they have during the task completion. This criticism is particularly the case for retrospective and introspective reports. The reliability of the reports can be harmed when the subjects report what they feel the researcher wants to hear rather than what is actually experienced. Another criticism is that the researcher can not be sure whether the subject gave the complete report or not. Finally, another major criticism is whether or not the subjects have the meta-linguistic ability to describe their behaviors (Jourdenais, 2001).

Though the criticisms provided above seem correct and more or less inevitable, protocol analysis is still a very popular means of collecting data from the subjects and will continue to be used in many educational studies. Hyland (2002) argues that today retrospectives, interviews, think-aloud protocols, reflective diaries, and observations all represent standard practices in research projects.

3.8. Methodology of the Current Study

In this study there are four different types of data collection procedures were used. The first two types, namely retrospective protocols and questionnaires were aimed at answering the first major research question. The last two were aimed answering the second research question. Retrospectives and questionnaires were done with EFL teachers and the interview was done with 4 coordinators.

3.8.1. Retrospective Protocol

Retrospective protocols were conducted with ten subjects who were chosen randomly out of the thirty-five subjects. To do this, they were given two composition papers containing 250 and 280 words. The tasks were chosen randomly among the composition papers which were written by prep-class students of Karadeniz Technical University. The contents were not particularly familiar to the participants. One of them was about the “The Advantages and Disadvantages of Television” and the other was about “What makes a successful marriage?” These tasks were given to 10 EFL teachers for their evaluation as a part of the retrospective protocols. The subjects were asked to analyze these compositions for errors on the basis of their own assessment criteria, if any.

3.8.2. The Teacher Questionnaire

Since this study was descriptive in nature, common methods and instruments which are used in survey research were used during the data collection of this study. One of the popular methods of data collection in surveys is the questionnaire. One of the advantages of questionnaires is that it becomes possible to collect data from a large audience which would otherwise be difficult to obtain. Moreover, a questionnaire is easy to administer, cheap, time-saving, and can be applied to large populations (Nunan, 1992; Openheim, 1992). One of the main disadvantages of questionnaires is that once they are completed, it is very difficult to ask for a clarification from the respondents. Munn and Drever (1995) outlined four main advantages of questionnaires. These are:

- An efficient use of time.
- Anonymity.
- The possibility of a high return rate.

- Standardized questions.
(Munn and Drever, 1995; pp: 2)

However, like all techniques, questionnaires are not free from limitations. The important thing here is that we should know the weaknesses and the strengths of our research methods.

Munn and Drever (1995) outlined three main limitations of questionnaires. These are:

- The information obtained is likely to describe rather than explain why things are the way they are.
- The information that is obtained through questionnaires can be superficial.
- The time needed to draft and pilot the questionnaire is often underestimated and so the usefulness of the questionnaire is reduced if it is not prepared adequately (Munn and Drever, 1995; pp: 5).

In this study, a teacher questionnaire was constructed in order to find answers to the questions posed earlier in this chapter. While the questionnaire was being constructed, the necessary measures dictated by the various sources such as Oppenheim's (1992) '*Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*', Munn and Drever's (1995) book of '*Using Questionnaires in Small Scale Research*' or Best and Kahn's (1998) book of '*Research in Education*' were taken into consideration for the purpose of reducing the problems to a minimum level.

There are many significant points that the researcher has to consider while preparing a questionnaire. One of the most important points is that the questions in the questionnaire must reflect the nature of inquiry and must elicit what they are intended to. Moreover, the instructions in the questionnaire must be clear and the respondents should not have any difficulty in understanding them. The format of the questionnaire must be clear and easy enough for a respondent to respond to. This point is particularly important because the respondent may not have a chance to ask for clarification. There must also be a logical order among the questions.

For the purpose of developing questionnaires which are valid, the information must be clearly defined previously, and must be specified as much as possible. In valid questionnaires all the questions are related to research questions, and the questions must be clear and unambiguous, must include only one concept at a time, and must ask for any information that the respondents are capable of answering. What is more, the questions must avoid negatives and double-barreled questions (Oppenheim, 1992; Arber, 1993).

Based on the above design considerations, in this study the information needed was determined, and before constructing the teacher questionnaire as many questions as possible were put together. By using these questions several important questions were constructed. Instructions and questions were revised several times in order to ensure validity and reliability before the pilot work began. The wording of the questionnaire was revised and by making necessary omissions and additions, the final questionnaire was finally prepared. The teacher questionnaire contained 42 questions.

Three types of question were used in the questionnaire: close-ended, open-ended and factual information questions. Open-ended questions asked respondents to reflect on the subject of the questions, and in this way the respondents' responses were elicited. Close-ended questions were of three types: yes-no questions, which asked the respondents to choose either yes or no; Likert scales, which contained a number of statements, and which asked the respondents to rate the statements; and ranking scales, which contained a number of statements and which asked the respondents to rank them in terms of their importance (Oppenheim, 1992; Best and Kahn, 1998).

The teacher questionnaire was divided into four sections. In the first section, questions related to language skills in general were asked. The data sought in this section was intended to see teachers' perceptions of the language skills in general. That is to say, which language skills are popular among the teachers and to what extent they are experienced enough in teaching these skills.

In the second section, questions related to beliefs and perceptions towards writing skill were asked. The questions in this section were directly related to writing skill and aimed to find out teachers' stance towards writing, and their awareness of the different processes and approaches in teaching writing.

In the third section, the questions were related to teaching writing and methodological preferences of teachers. Some questions in this section also dealt with error correction techniques of the teachers.

In section four, the questions were aimed at collecting background information. The data obtained in this section was intended for use in possible future correspondence and in order to be able to talk about the characteristics of the sample during the description of the sample.

3.8.3. Piloting the Teacher Questionnaire

Pilot work is one of the most important steps towards designing a sound questionnaire. It is also one of the prerequisites for successful and effective construction of a survey instrument (Oppenheim, 1992). A pilot study uses a small number of subjects who will not be used to provide data for the major study. In other words it involves getting a few individuals to work through the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher and then talk it over with him (Munn and Drever, 1995). Piloting helps the researcher to identify problems such as typographical mistakes, overlapping response sets, ambiguous instructions, difficulties that may arise during data collection, problems of form.

The teacher questionnaire in this study was piloted three times on nine samples. The samples consisted of two professors in ELT, two research assistants in applied linguistics, and four MA students in applied linguistics at Karadeniz Technical University, whose areas of specialization were applied linguistics and teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL). They were also graduates of ELT departments. They were asked to respond to the questionnaires, and reflect on any question that they thought should be modified or omitted. During the first piloting all the necessary modifications and omissions were processed. After the first treatment the subjects were asked to pilot again. In this second piloting the subjects focused on the details. The responses from the subjects were recorded and the necessary modifications were made to the questions and instructions. During the final piloting the subjects were all agreed on the design of the questionnaire. This process of piloting lasted two weeks, and was very taxing for the researcher since the questionnaire had to be modified and developed to a great extent.

3.8.4. The Interviews

In many disciplines of social sciences interviews are commonly used. Interviews are, according to Best and Kahn (1998) in a sense oral questionnaires during which the subjects give the needed information orally and face-to-face. The oral information that the subjects are giving can provide the researchers with insights and a true understanding of the topic he is investigating.

Interviews have many advantages over other data collection devices. People are often more willing to talk than to write. Through talking during the interview it may be

quite possible for a researcher to receive much more confidential information. Another advantage of interviews is that the researcher can explain much more clearly the purpose of the research and just what information he wants. In this way the possibility of the misinterpretation of the parts of the subject is reduced to a minimum level. Interviews, on the other hand, are time consuming and difficult to employ successfully and there is a constant danger of bias in the interviews. Since the interviewer has to be objective, sensitive and insightful, this procedure calls for expert people (Best and Kahn, 1998; Oppenheim, 1992; Blaxter et al, 1996).

Unstructured or open interviews unlike structured interviews offer much more freedom and flexibility to both the researcher and the subjects. Semi-structured interviews, on the other hand, are considered much more flexible than structured interviews (Cohen and Manion, 1995) In educational research “semi-structured interviews are favored most since they allow depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the interviewee’ responses” (Hitchcock and Huges, 1994, cited in Kayaoğlu, 1997).

For this purpose in the course of this study a semi-structured interview using open-ended questions was used. Open-ended questions, according to the Cohen and Manion (1994), are flexible, and allow the researcher to ask further questions to gain insight. They also prevent misunderstandings and encourage good rapport between the researcher and the subject, which leads to a truer assessment of what the subject really believes.

3.8.5. Interview with the Coordinators

A semi-structured interview composed of open-ended questions was conducted with the coordinator and the other three sub-coordinators in order to determine the place of writing skill in the language curriculum. A few structured questions were also included in the interview. The purpose of this interview was twofold. The first purpose was that a full understanding of the role of writing in the curriculum would give us some ideas about the perceptions of language teachers. The extent to which teachers’ perceptions were influenced by the placement of writing in the curriculum would partly be understood in this way. The second purpose was that by asking the coordinators questions about the role of writing, this researcher hoped to understand whether the school administration considers writing as yet another skill that should be regarded as necessary for the students.

The interviews took approximately 15 minutes each and all four of the coordinators preferred to be interviewed in their rooms. Interviews were transcribed and translated into English. The answers were rather short, so the process of translation was not very difficult. In order to ensure the reliability of the interviews same or similar questions were restated during the course of each interview. After the interview was over, a friendly talk with each of the coordinators ensured that the responses given during the interviews were almost the same.

3.8.6. Document Analysis

In many areas of scientific investigation, the result of analysis of documents is an important source of data. Document analysis is used as descriptive research where the documents to be analyzed are the focus of the analysis. In this way it becomes possible to explain the status of something at a particular time. Document analysis serves for important functions such as adding knowledge to fields of inquiry and explaining certain events (Best and Kahn, 1998).

Document analysis is used in education. Education documents provide a natural, contextual source of information about related endeavors; yet, the analysis of written documents has been an under-used technique in educational evaluation. Guba and Lincoln (1982) conclude that failure to use documents as a data source partly explains why educational inquiry is often not grounded. Document analysis helps to ground educational research by ensuring that the research is not removed from its social, historical, and political frame of reference. Furthermore, document analysis can provide a more objective and valid means for understanding particular aspects of education because the process itself is non-reactive (Caulley, 1983; Weber, 1990). In document analysis the following sources that can be used as sources of data include: records, reports, school decisions, printed forms, books and periodicals.

In this study, the decisions made by the senate of Karadeniz Technical University regarding the implementation of foreign language preparatory classes for the freshman classes were investigated for the purpose of finding out whether writing is incorporated into the school curriculum as yet another skill which has to be taught. The second reason why we included document analysis into the scope of this study is that, in education research, the three most common forms of data collection are observation, interviews, and

document analysis; and that multiple research methodology involving multiple researchers, and/or multiple data sources, are referred to as triangulation (Genzok, 2001; Foster & Wright, 2001).

3.8.7. Data Analysis

Data analysis was carried out on two types of data, these being quantitative and qualitative data. The data on quantitative analysis were obtained from teacher questionnaire and the data on qualitative analysis were obtained from retrospective protocols, interviews and document analysis.

The quantitative data which were obtained through questionnaires were entered into the computer and SPSS 11.5 package was used to perform statistical procedures. The questionnaire data were analyzed using descriptive statistical techniques such as frequencies and percentages. For further analysis a non-parametric technique known as the Wilcoxon Signed-ranks test was used for rank order and for Likert-scale questions.

The qualitative data which was obtained through retrospective protocols, interviews and document analysis were classified and organized into a manageable level on the basis of major themes and patterns extracted from data.

The results of the data analysis are presented in tables, and abbreviations in the tables are explained. The question/s related to each table is/are displayed before the table, and the explanation of each table follows.

CHAPTER 4

4. DATA ANALYSIS OF THE TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

4.1. Overview of the Study

This study investigated tertiary level EFL teachers' perceptions of the role and importance of writing skill in English language teaching (ELT) and the role of writing skill in the EFL curriculum. In part, this study aimed to find out whether EFL teachers are aware of the approaches and techniques in teaching writing and what kind of error analysis EFL teachers perform in their writing courses. The reason for this emphasis was that the investigator thought there might be a close relationship between teachers' perception towards teaching writing and the ways they treat students' written errors.

In order to collect data, questionnaires, interviews, retrospective protocols and document analysis were used, and the study was conducted with 35 EFL teachers currently teaching the preparatory classes of Karadeniz Technical University.

4.2. Introduction to the Quantitative Data Analysis

In order to analyze the questionnaire data, descriptive statistical techniques such as frequencies and percentages were used. For further analysis a non-parametric technique Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was used for rank order and Likert-scale questions.

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was used for the purpose of comparing two samples that are related. This test was applied in order to see the degree of change as well as the direction of different scores between samples. This test is similar to the Mann-Whitney test in that both operate on the differences between two sets of related scores by ranking. When the distributions of the two variables are the same, the numbers assigned earlier will be similar. In this study I used this test in order to see how the same subjects responded to the related items.

The questionnaire consisted of 42 questions arranged in four topics as shown in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1
Types of Questions in the Questionnaire

Language Skills In General	Perceptions towards Writing	Teaching Writing and Methodological Preferences	Demographic Information
<i>n:</i> 6	5	26	5

Note: *n*: Number of Questions

4.3. Analysis of the Questionnaire

Part A

In part A the first section of the questionnaire will be analysed. Questions 1 through 6 are related to language skills in general. Some of the questions in this section ask about the courses they have taught so far in their professional teaching, skills that teachers feel to be most important for themselves and for their students.

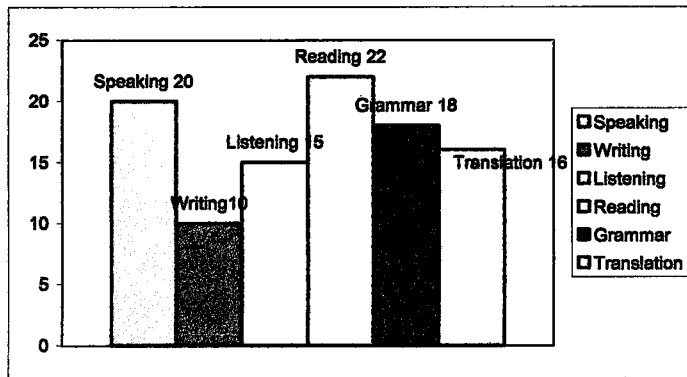
Item 1: *What is/are your favorite course(s) to teach?*

The teachers were asked to rank the courses to teach from 6 to 1, where 6 is most favored and 1 is the least favored, as follows:

- () Speaking
- () Writing
- () Listening
- () Reading
- () Grammar
- () Translation

Thirty-five participant EFL teachers answered this question and the results obtained are given in the graphic 4.1 below.

Graphic 4.1: Favorite Courses

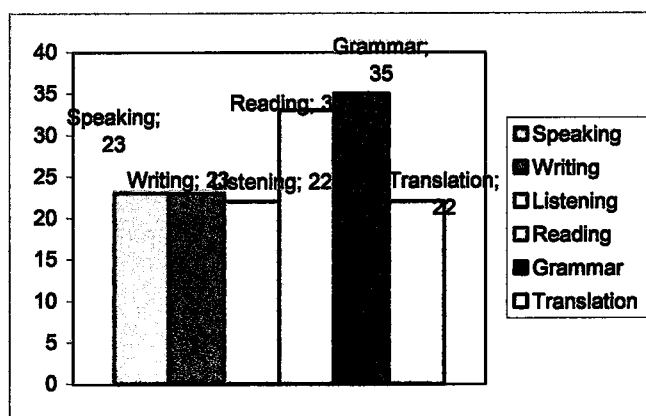


The descriptive analysis of this question shows that EFL teachers like to teach reading, speaking, grammar, translation, and listening courses more than writing. The least popular course for EFL teachers, as the graphic 1 suggests, is 'writing'. Almost 70% of the participants clearly stated that "writing" is not among their favorites. There may be many reasons behind this finding. One of the main reasons for this lack of interest in teaching a writing course can be the fact that those teachers, themselves, may not have received enough training in writing during their education. This naturally causes some concerns on the part of the teachers as to whether they can successfully implement writing courses.

Item 2: *"Which of the following courses have you taught so far?"*

They were to tick all courses they had taught. The second question in the questionnaire is related to the first one. A descriptive representation of the findings is given in the graphic 4.2 below.

Graphic 4.2: The Courses Taught So Far

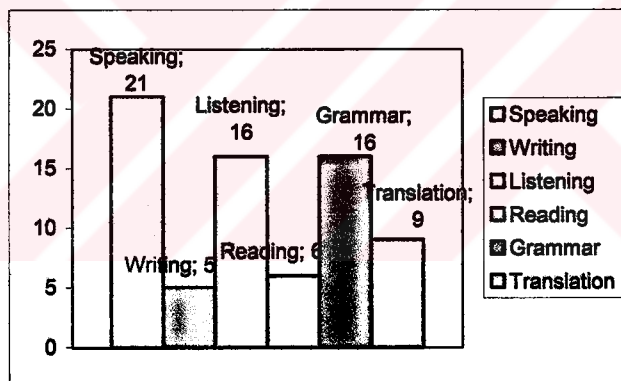


100% of the teachers answered this question and 23 out of 35 stated that they had taught writing courses during their teaching careers. In other words, 66% of them had taught the skill of writing in their courses. This finding shows that although 66% of the EFL teachers had taught the writing skill, only 30% of these teachers had put writing among their favorites. To this observer, it is remarkable that in spite of the fact that writing is not a popular skill among the teachers, they were involved in teaching writing. This involvement may not have been within their choices. It may have been because writing is in the syllabus and they have to teach it.

Item 3: *Which of the following language skills do you think a teacher should have most in teaching English as a Foreign Language?*

The participants were asked to rank the language skills from 6 to 1, 6 being the skill they should possess most, and 1 they should possess the least, if at all.

Graphic 4.3: Language Skills for EFL Teachers

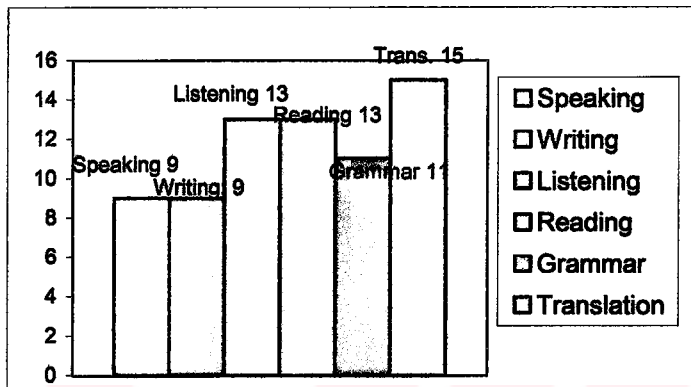


Graphic 4.3 shows the overall distribution of the responses that the respondents provided. Interestingly enough, for most of the teachers, writing was the least necessary skill that EFL teachers should have. From the graphical information, it is obvious that 85% of the EFL teachers thought that they would not need the skill of writing in their teaching. Although most of the teachers had taught writing previously in their profession, this situation did not change their ideas towards writing. It can be speculated that the unpopularity of writing among the teachers may have urged teachers to argue that there is no need for a teacher to equip himself/herself with writing anyway.

Item 4: *Which of the following language skills do you think your students will need most in their major/departmental courses?*

They were to rank the skills from 6 to 1, 6 being the skill they thought their students would most need.

Graphic 4.4: Language Skills for EFL Students



The data presented in this graphic 4.4 shows that 25% of the EFL teachers saw writing skill as a need for their students, but not so much for themselves. Of course, departmental needs may change, but still most of the respondents at the time provided answers which suggested that writing would not be as necessary as the other skills for their students in their departments.

Table: 4.2

The Results of Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks Test

Ranks		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
YWRITING - LWRITING	Negative Ranks	5	7,50	37,50
	Positive Ranks	13	10,27	133,50
	Ties	17		
	Total	35		

Test Statistics

	YWRITING - LWRITING
Z	-2,216
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,027

The responses given to the items 3 and 4 by the same subjects were analyzed to see whether there is any statistically significant difference between teachers' perception of writing skill for themselves and for their students. For this aim, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was applied. As a result of this test, it was found that there is a statistically significant difference between the both responses for writing ($p=0.027$ ($p < 0.05$)).

The test results show that teachers do see the writing skill as a need for their students but not as much for themselves. It can be speculated that teachers are aware of the fact that their students will need writing skill in their departments and this may be why they think writing skill is more important for their students.

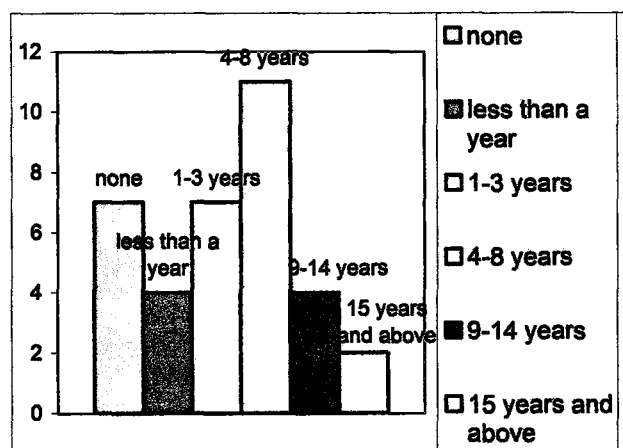
Item 5: "How long have you taught the following skill(s)?"

The teachers were to cycle for each skill the most appropriate response, choosing from the following:

- a) None b) Less than 1 year c) 1-3 years d) 4-8 years e) 15 years and above

The graphic 4.5 below shows a graphical representation of the amount of time the EFL teachers had been teaching writing courses. From the graphic, it is clear that 37% of the teachers have been teaching writing for 4-8 years. Another 20% percent of teachers have been teaching writing for 1-3 years and an equal percentage of teachers have not taught writing yet.

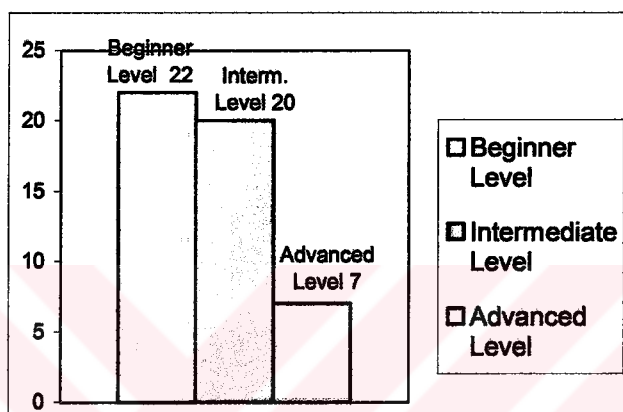
Graphic 4.5: How Long Have You Taught Writing?



Item 6: *What level(s) have you taught so far?*

This question is related to the previous question. As far as the writing is concerned, we see in graphic 4.6 below that 78% of the teachers have been teaching writing at the beginning level, 70% at the intermediate level, and 20% of them at the advanced level. Few respondents have ever actually taught in advanced levels.

Graphic 4.6: The Levels Taught So Far



In items 7 and 8, the teachers were asked to rank certain components of the writing skill from most important (7) to the least important (1). These two items are related items in that in the former, teachers were to rank the options for themselves, and in the latter, in general.

Item 7: *“How would you rate the following features when you, as a teacher, are writing in English?”*

Item 8: *“What do you think are the most important features of writing in general?”*

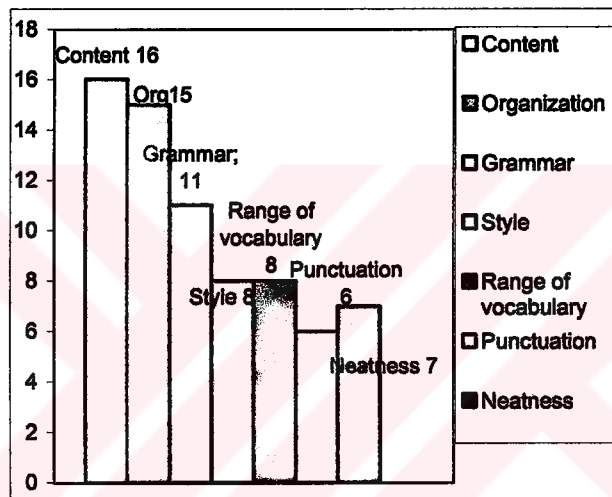
The teachers were asked which of the following features of writing are important for them as teachers and in general. These language skills were as follows, and participants were asked to rank them from 7 to 1, 7 being the most important feature and 1 the least important feature of writing.

- () Content/Ideas
- () Organization
- () Grammar
- () Style
- () Range of vocabulary

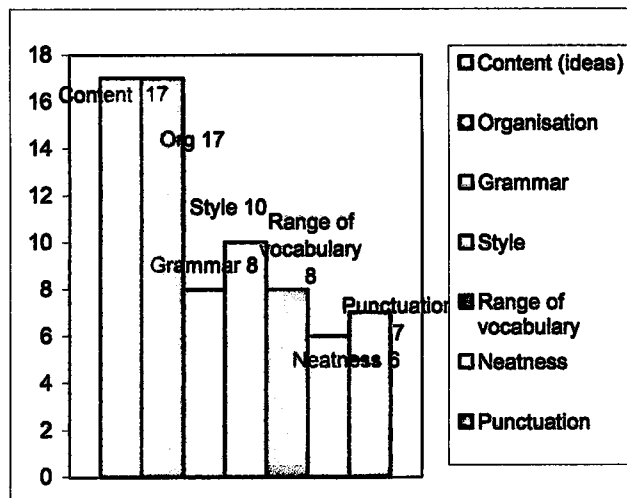
- () Neatness
- () Punctuation

From the responses given to both items, the two graphics below were created. From Graphic 4.7 it can be seen that 45% of the teachers stated that content would come first for them in writing. Similarly as shown in Graphic 4.8, 46% of them stated that content would come first in general too. Following content, second biggest concern on the part of the teachers is organization. 43% of the participant teachers put organization into second for themselves, and 46% of them put it second in general.

Graphic 4.7: Features of Writing for Teachers



Graphic 4.8: Features of Writing in General



The rankings made for the same options for both questions by the same subjects were analyzed to see whether there are any statistically significant differences between teachers' perception of writing skill for themselves and for their students. For this aim, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was applied.

First of all, content responses of items 7 and 8 were statistically analyzed. The results of the analysis are given in the table below.

Table 4.3
The results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Ranks		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
FCONTENT - TCONTENT	Negative Ranks	1	5,50	5,50
	Positive Ranks	6	3,75	22,50
	Ties	28		
	Total	35		

Test Statistics

	FCONTENT - TCONTENT
Z	-1,466
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,143

As a result of this test, it can be seen that there is not a statistically significant difference between the two responses for writing ($p=0.143$ ($p > 0.05$)).

Secondly, organization responses of the participant teachers in items 7 and 8 were statistically analyzed. For this, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was again applied.

The results of the analysis are given in the table below.

Table 4.4
The results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Ranks		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
FORGANIS - TORGANIS	Negative Ranks	2	3,00	6,00
	Positive Ranks	3	3,00	9,00
	Ties	30		
	Total	35		

Test Statistics

	FORGANIS - TORGANIS
Z	-,447
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,655

As a result of this test, it can be seen that there is not a statistically significant difference between the two responses for writing ($p = .655$ ($p > 0.05$)).

Thirdly, grammar responses of the items 7 and 8 were statistically analyzed. For this, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was applied.

The results of the analysis are given in the table below.

Table 4.5
The results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Ranks		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
FGRAMMA - TGRAMMA	Negative Ranks	4	4,00	16,00
	Positive Ranks	3	4,00	12,00
	Ties	28		
	Total	35		

Test Statistics

	FGRAMMA - TGRAMMA
Z	-,378
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,705

As a result of this test, it can be seen that there is not a statistically significant difference between the two responses for writing ($p = .705$ ($p > 0.05$)).

The rankings that participant teachers made for the other features of writing were analyzed statistically and the p values of each feature are given in the table below.

Table 4.6
The results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

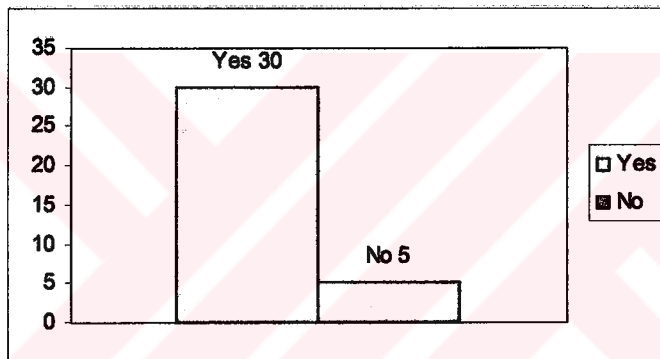
Features of Writing	P values	Sta. not significant
Style	$p = .564$ ($p > 0.05$)	Not significant
Range of vocabulary	$p = 1,000$ ($p > 0.05$)	Not significant
Neatness	$p = .462$ ($p > 0.05$)	Not significant
Punctuation	$p = .415$ ($p > 0.05$)	Not significant

Item 9: “Do you think there should be a separate writing course in the program?”

YES NO

The teachers were asked whether they thought there should be a separate writing course in the program or not. This was a ‘yes/no’ question. Almost 87% of the EFL teachers responded that they need to teach writing in a separate course. In the Graphic 4.9 we see that almost all teachers are for teaching writing separately. One of the reasons for this may be speculated to be the strict nature of writing, the rules applied in writing, and the difficulty of activating or stimulating students’ interests in it. In addition, the need to spend a huge effort and time to implement writing activities successfully in the class may be thought to make it compulsory to have separate hours for it.

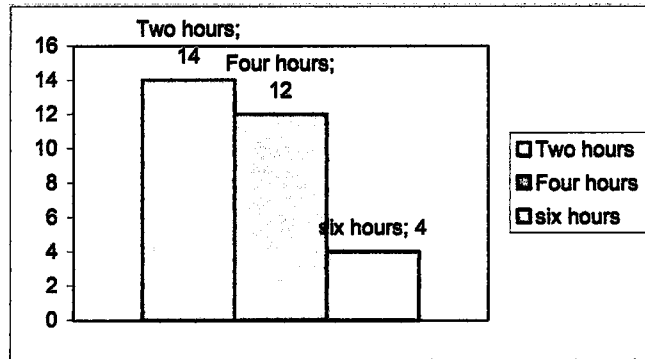
Graphic 4.9: There Should Be a Separate Writing Course



Item 10: *If your response to the item 9 is “YES”, then how many hours a week do you think it should be? Please indicate in number here*

In the graphic 4.10 below, we see that 40% of the teachers wanted only two hours for a separate writing lesson. 30% of them wanted four hours, and only 12% of them wanted six hours a week for writing.

Graphic 4.10: Average Course Hours Per Week for Writing

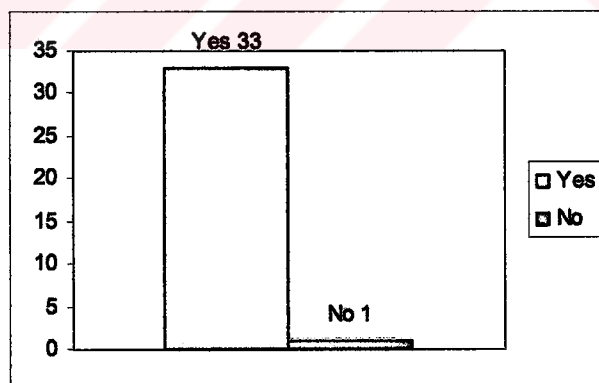


Item 11: *“Have you ever given writing tasks/topics to your students in the program so far?”*

The participant teachers were asked whether they had ever given writing topics or tasks to their students, and if they did what kind of topics they had given so far for their students in the program.

In the graphic 4.11 below, we see that 97% of the teachers had given writing tasks or topics to their students.

Graphic 4.11: Writing tasks for students



Part B

In this part, questions are related to beliefs and perceptions towards writing skill. The questions in this section were directly related to writing skill and aimed to find out teachers' stance towards writing, and their awareness of the different processes and

approaches in teaching writing. In these questions teachers were asked to give their opinions as follows:

- a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

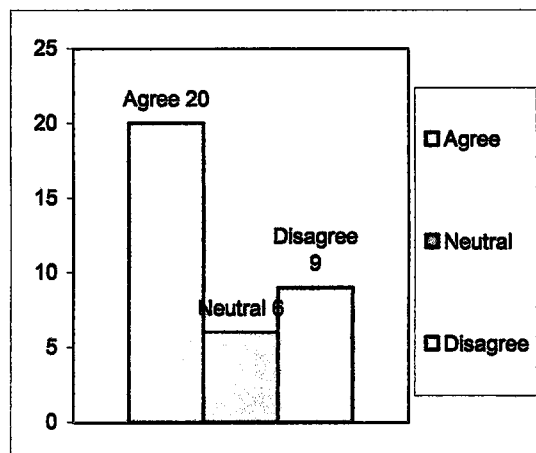
In items 12 and 13 the teachers were asked to give their opinions about two related options.

Item 12: *“I think reading, writing, speaking and listening skills should be given equal time in teaching.”*

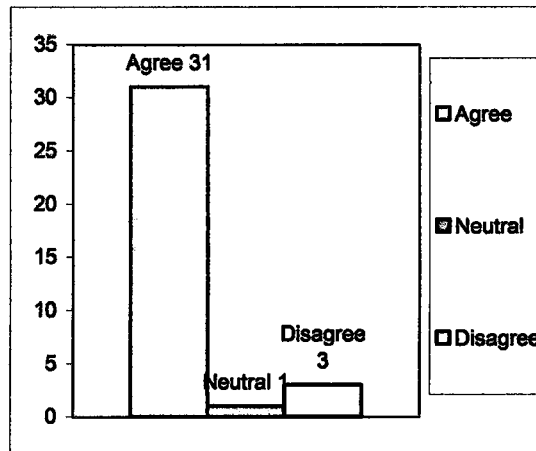
Item 13: *“I think students must be able to communicate in all four skills.”*

For item 12, 58% of the respondents agreed that all four language skills should be given equal time, and for item 13, 91% of them agreed that students need to be able to communicate in all skills. In graphics 4.12 and 4.13 we see clearly that in the view of respondents all language skills including writing should be emphasized and students should gain these skills equally well.

Graphic 4.12: All Skills Should be Given Equal Time



Graphic 4.13: Students Should Communicate in all Skills



In items 14, 15, 17, and 19 the opinion statements requested were all related in that all four statements were about the comparative difficulty of language skills in writing.

In this section the teachers were asked to give their opinions on the following.

Item 14: *“I believe that writing in English is more difficult than reading in English.”*

Item 15: *“I believe that writing in English is more difficult than listening in English.”*

Item 17: *“I believe that writing in English is more difficult than speaking in English.”*

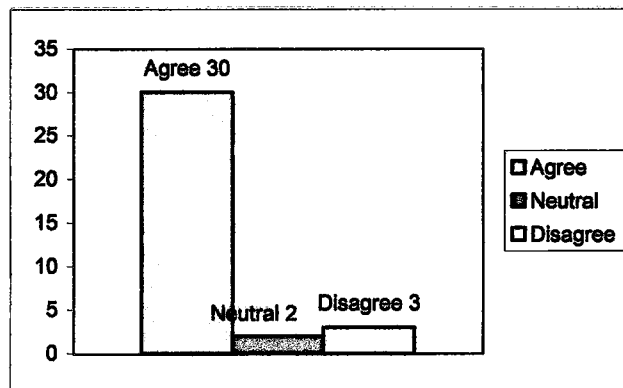
Item 19: *“I believe that writing is the most difficult skill to acquire.”*

The responses were to be as follows:

a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

Graphic 4.14: Writing is More Difficult than Reading in English



From Graphic 4.14 it can be speculated that 88% of the teachers thought writing in English was more difficult than reading in English. The reason why the participant teachers thought so can be that perhaps reading is a much more practised and popular skill than the others. Language teachers may have depended more on the ability to comprehend reading more than on the ability to write. Naturally they may have been exposed to reading much more than to writing. Another reason may be that since reading is a receptive skill, language learners and teachers alike are likely to receive from print without bothering to produce anything. However, writing is a productive skill, and the need to produce may have been associated in their minds with more work and effort on the part of the teacher. This situation naturally may have led to the conclusion that writing requires more participation and more challenge on the part of the language learners and teachers.

Item 15: *“I believe that writing in English is more difficult than listening in English.”*

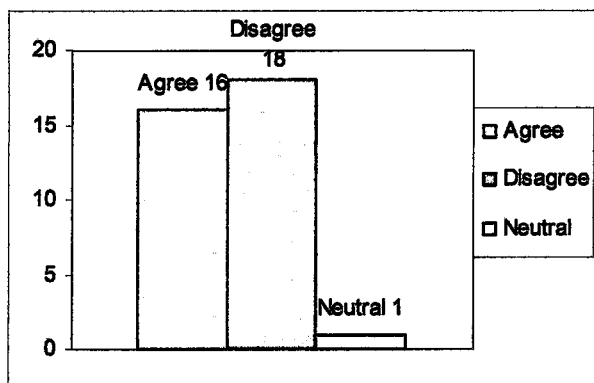
- a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

Below is the graphic 4.15 for item 15. From the graphic it is seen that 51% of the participant teachers disagreed with the view that writing in English was more difficult than listening in English. However, 46% of the teachers agreed with the statement that writing is more difficult than listening in English. In Turkish EFL settings the practice or application of the both skills, namely listening and writing, may be difficult for language

learners and teachers alike. For this reason it is no surprising that there are almost equal numbers of disagrees and agrees.

Graphic 4.15: Writing is More Difficult than Listening in English.



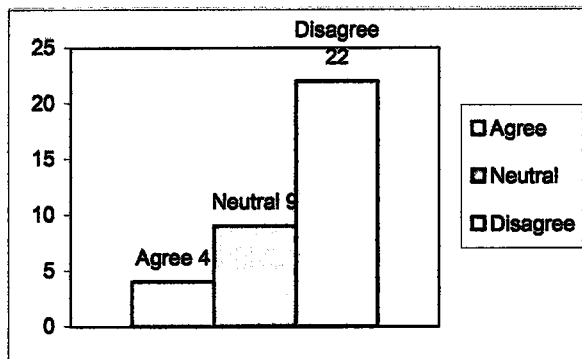
Item 17: *“I believe that writing in English is more difficult than speaking in English.”*

- a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

Below is the graphic4.16 for item 17. From the graphic it is seen that 65% of the teachers disagreed with the statement that writing is more difficult than speaking in English. Speaking and writing are two productive skills. So, it is interesting to note that majority of the teachers think speaking is more difficult than writing.

Graphic4.16: Writing is More Difficult than Speaking in English.



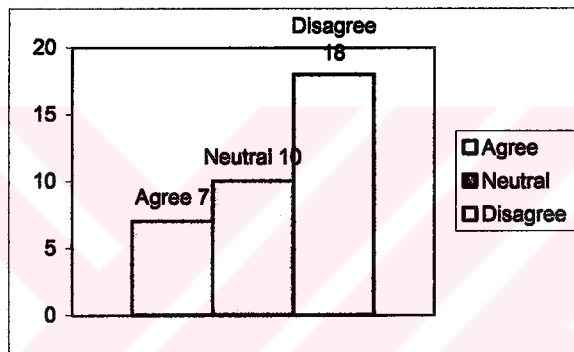
Item 19: “ *I believe that writing is the most difficult skill to acquire.* ”

a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

From the graphic 4.17, it is seen that 54% of the participant teachers disagreed with the view that writing is the most difficult skill to acquire. Another 30% of them were neutral. This finding confirms the previous finding that the participant teachers think that writing is not the most difficult skill to acquire.

Graphic 4.17: Writing is the Most Difficult Skill to Acquire



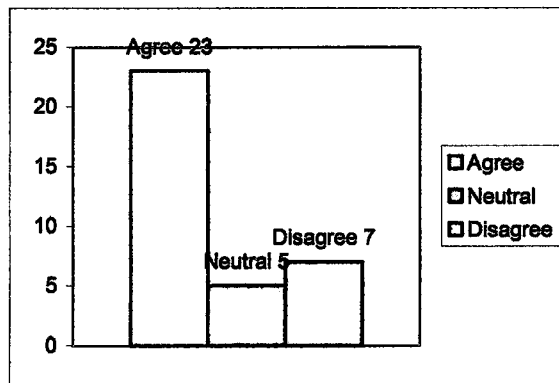
Item 16: “ *I would like my students to correct each other’s papers.* ”

a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

Below is graphic 4.18 for item 16. From the graphic it is seen that 65% of the teachers agreed that students should correct each other’s papers. Peer correction, as previously referred in literature review, is a method which, in some contexts, works very well. It has lots of advantages and disadvantages. In our contexts it is interesting to note that majority of the teachers think peer correction is useful in learning writing

Graphic 4.18: Peer Correction



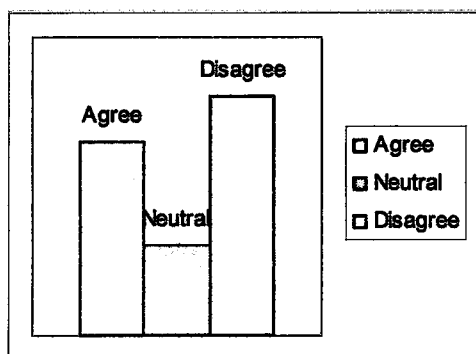
Item 18: *“Writing is basically using grammatically correct sentences.”*

a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

Below is graphic 4.19 for item 18. From the graphic 4.19 it is seen that 47% of the respondents disagreed with the view that writing comprises using grammatically correct sentences. On the other hand, 35 % of the teachers agreed with the view. Another 18% of the teachers remained neutral. Based on the findings, it can be speculated that there is not much of a consensus among language teachers about the role of writing in EFL settings. The percentage of neutrals also signal that the number of disagrees or agrees may change easily again. It should also be noted that, especially in EFL settings, the teaching of writing is still associated with the teaching of grammar by many teachers at beginner and intermediate levels. That is to say, no doubt, that when teachers return feedback, students see so many red marks, advising them not to make such grammar mistakes, but not a word about the content, that they are caught up with the idea that they should not make any mistakes in grammar and that is all that counts for their teachers. This tendency on the part of the teachers teaching writing in EFL setting may stem from the limited exposure to the basics of writing in their own previous education.

Graphic 4.19: Writing is basically using grammatically correct sentences.

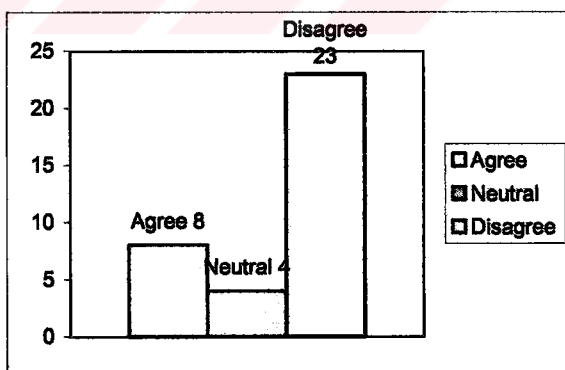


Item 20: *“Writing should be taught after students have learned the other skills such as reading, listening, and speaking.”*

- a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

Below is a graphic 4.20 for item 20. From the graphic it is interesting to note that contrary to common belief that writing is the last skill to teach, almost 70% of the language teachers disagreed that that was so. They thought that writing had to be taught simultaneously with other skills.

Graphic 4.20: Writing should be taught after reading, listening, and speaking



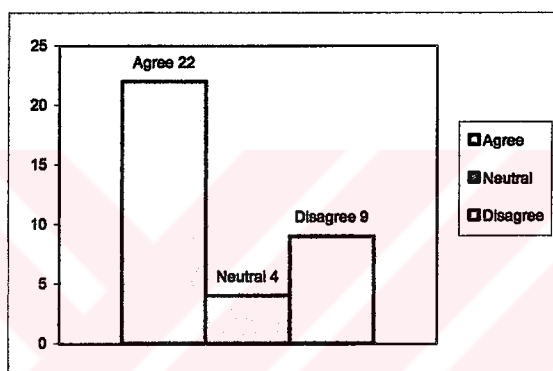
Item 21 *“Meaning (content) is more important than grammatical correctness in writing.”*

- a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

From the graphic 4.21 for the item 21 it is seen that almost 63% of the participant teachers agreed with the idea that meaning or content is more important than grammatical correctness in writing. Few teachers remained neutral 12% and 25% of the teachers disagreed with the idea. From this figures, it may be possible to speculate that teachers are aware of the importance of content. This finding also signals that at least the participant teachers will also consider the content structure of their students' written works, not merely focus on grammatical aspects.

Graphic 4.21: Meaning is more important than grammar in writing



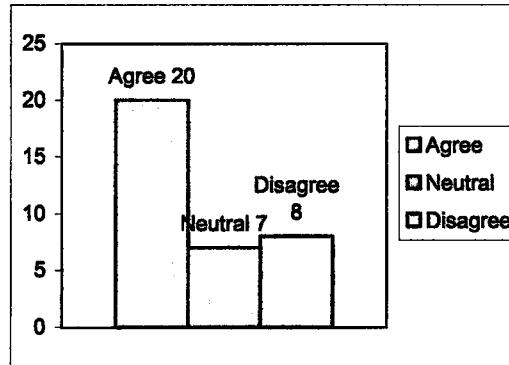
Item 22: *“Teaching writing requires more effort than other skills”*

a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

From the graphic 4.22 on page 89, it is seen that 55% of the participants think teaching writing calls for more effort than other skills. Another 20% of them remained neutral, and the 25 % of them disagreed with this view. In fact, all skills need time and effort. However, as previously noted in the data analysis, writing is an unpopular skill among the teachers and this unpopularity seems to stem from such things as the lack of exposure to it, a lack of interest in it, or lack of previous education in writing on the part of the teachers. When all these factors combine, it becomes natural for language teachers to think that they have to spend more effort on a skill such as writing.

Graphic 4.22: Teaching writing requires more effort than other skills



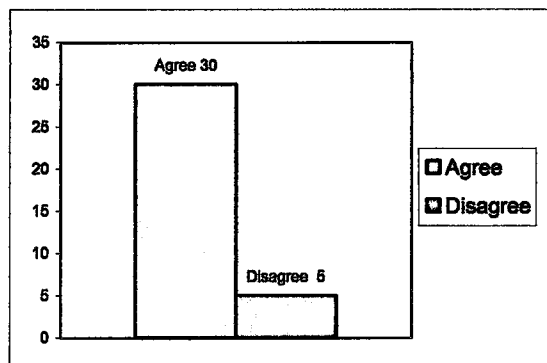
Item 25: *“I need to develop my own approach to the teaching of writing”*.

a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

Below is a graphic 4.23 for item 25. From the graphic, it is seen that 85% of the teachers think that they need to develop their own approach to the teaching of writing. Van Lier (1996, cited in Gosse, 2001) argued that such principles as awareness, autonomy, and authenticity are crucial not only for language learners but also for language teachers in that language teachers, instead of prescribing or encouraging a specific method of teaching, should try to develop decision-making and hypothesis-generating skills. Thus, in our study it was seen that most teachers agreed to move beyond the present prescriptive nature of their teaching towards making their own decisions in the classes.

Graphic 4.23: Develop an approach to the teaching of writing



In item 24, the teachers were asked to state their opinions about the following statement:

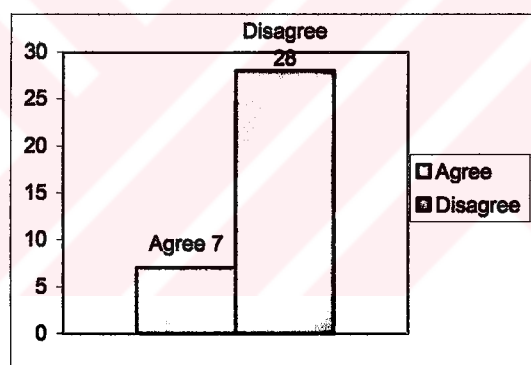
Item: 24: *“I have knowledge about the current research in teaching writing”*

a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

Below is a graphic 4.24 for item 24. From the graphic, it is seen that 80% of the teachers do not have knowledge about the current research in teaching writing. The other 20% of them say they have knowledge about teaching writing.

Graphic 4.24: Knowledge about the Current Research in Teaching Writing



Items 23 and 29 contain related statements. In these items, the teachers were asked to state their opinions about the following two statements:

Item 23: *“I think I should provide feedback mostly on content (meaning) for my students in their writing.”*

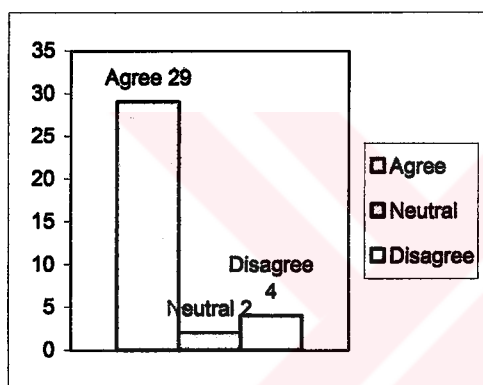
Item 29: *“I think I should provide feedback mostly on form (grammar) for my students in their writing.”*

a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

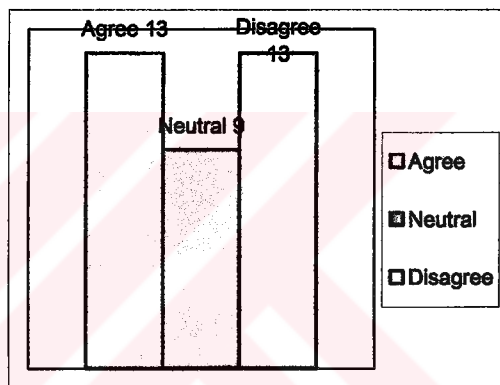
In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

From the graphic 4.25 on page 89, it is seen that 83% of the teachers think that they should provide feedback mostly on content. Based on these responses, it can be speculated that teachers are well aware of the importance of content. However, in the related item 29, the same teachers were asked to give their opinions about providing feedback on form. In the graphic 4.26 it is seen that 38% of the teachers agreed to give form feedback, and another 38 % of them disagreed to give form feedback, the other 24 % of them remaining neutral. These findings are very interesting and to some degree inconsistent. It can be speculated considering the number of neutrals that many teachers are not sure whether providing feedback on grammar is appropriate or not for their students' writing.

Graphic 4.25: Feedback on Content



Graphic4.26: Feedback on Form



Items 26, 27, and 28 are related statements about error correction. In these items, the teachers were asked to state their opinions about the following three statements:

Item 26: *"I think I should correct every error in student writing"*

Item 27: *"I think I should correct some errors in students' writing"*

Item 28: *"I think I should correct none of students' errors"*

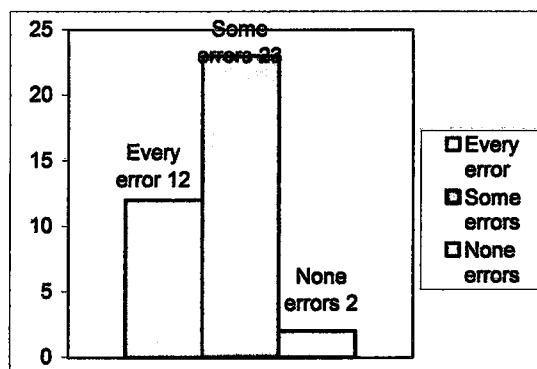
a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

From the graphic 4.27 on page 92 it is seen that 70% of the participant teachers said that they should correct some errors in their students' writing. Another 25% of the teachers said they should correct every error and 5% of them said they shouldn't correct any error in students' papers. A majority of the teachers are for correcting some errors and this idea is

confirmed by Ferris (2001), who argued that teachers need to be selective, and to prioritize in correcting errors so that students can find ways to self-edit their papers.

Graphic 4.27: The amount of errors to be corrected



In item 30, the teachers were asked to state their opinions about the following statement:

In item 30: *“I think all different types of writing must be taught to students”*

a) strongly agree b) agree c) neutral d) disagree e) strongly disagree

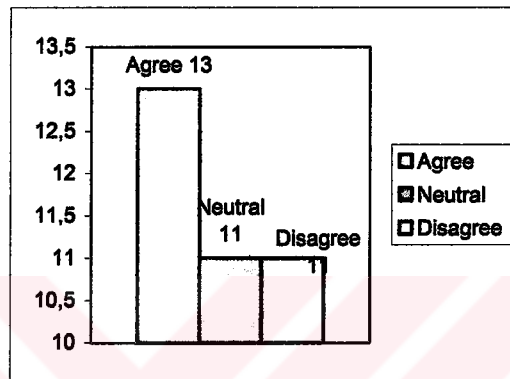
In the data analysis procedure, the strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree options were collapsed and treated as total agree or total disagree.

From the graphic 4.28 on page 93, it is seen that 40% of the participant teachers think that different types of writing must be taught to the students. However, another 30 % of them remained neutral and the other 30% of them disagreed with this view. The fact that the number of neutrals is high indicates that many teachers are not sure whether genre knowledge will be necessary for their students. In fact, with genre we use recognized ways or conventions while writing and organizing messages in order to enable the reader recognize our social purpose. Unfortunately, it is possible to note that this item may have produced a false finding because of the word “all” in the statement. Because respondents who would recommend a very wide range of types of writing-but not all- to be practised and learned in the classroom might well disagree with the statement. In this case some of the 30% who disagreed with the view above may have done so because of the word “all”.

Genre provide students with many chances to become familiar with the different purposes of written communication and the different ways information is organized in written texts (Reppen, 2002). Students must be aware of the limitations of the kinds of

writing they are asked to produce, and be able to write for different purposes to develop their problem-solving skills. All these facts about genre constitute a good reason why students should have genre knowledge. Moreover, genres represent ways in which students can solve problems to fit the general expectations and to provide students with tools to create meaningful communication and different ways to address the readers (Grabe, W. & Kaplan, R. 1996).

Graphic 4.28: Different types of writing must be taught



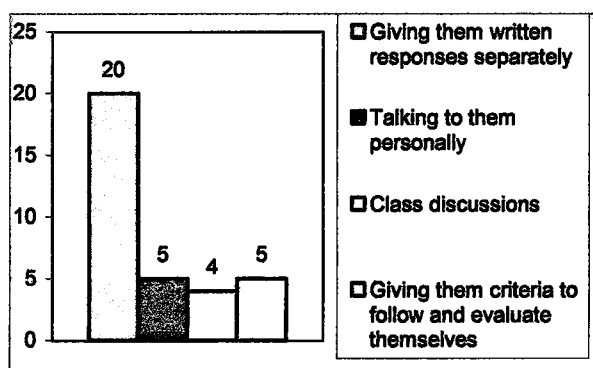
In item 31, the teachers were asked to choose among five different ways of giving feedback. They were to tick as few or many of the options they wanted to.

Item 31: *“I would like to give feedback to my students about their writing by”*

- Giving them written responses separately.
- Talking to them personally.
- Class discussions.
- Group written responses.
- Giving them criteria to follow and evaluate themselves.

From the graphic 4.29 on page 94, it is seen that 56% of the teachers would choose to give the written responses to their students separately. This is somewhat a traditional way of giving feedback. In this way it is hoped that teachers can provide clear and constructive written responses for the purpose of effectively facilitating rewriting.

Graphic 4.29: Feedback to My Students about Their Writing



The items 32, 33, and 34 contain related statements. In these items, the teachers were asked to state their opinions about their previous exposure to the writing.

Item 32: *“When I was a university student, I took writing courses.”*

Item 33: *“I have had training in teaching writing.”*

Item 34: *“When I was a university student, I was trained in academic writing.”*

For item 32 above, 70% of the teachers said that they had previously taken writing courses in their universities. However, the remaining 30% of the teachers said that they had taken very few writing courses in their universities. That is to say, the writing courses they were previously exposed to in their universities were quite inadequate in scope and content.

For item 33 above, 55% of the teachers said that they had had little training so far in teaching writing. Another 25% of them stated that they had had no training whatsoever in teaching writing so far. The remaining 20% of the respondents stated that they had training in teaching writing.

For item 34 above, 45% of the teachers said that they were not trained in academic writing at all. Another 31% of them stated that they had little training in academic writing and only 24% of them said they were trained in academic writing. The table 4.7 below shows the amount and percentages of the responses.

Table 4.7
Percentages of the Responses for Items

	Much	Little	Not any
32. Writing courses	70 %	30 %	-
33. Training in teaching writing	20 %	55%	20%
34. Training in academic writing	24 %	31 %	45 %

From the data presented, it is noted with interest that although the majority (70%) of the participant teachers took writing lessons in their university education this skill was still the least popular skill for these teachers. One of the possible reasons may be the inadequacy of university education in terms of teaching writing. Another possible reason is that many attempts on the part of the students to improve their writing may have ended in failure for a number of reasons such as lack of exposure to the necessary content, over-correction of errors or a failure to put theoretical information into the practice. These and other such reasons may have played a role, which, in turn, may have led to dissatisfaction and the feeling of continuous failure of students in writing.

On the other hand, from the table 4.7 on page 95 it is also seen that 20% of them had had a lot of training, but 55% of them had had little training in teaching writing. At this point it is interesting to note that although 80% of the participant teachers taught writing, as previously discussed, the training they had had in teaching writing may not have been adequate to meet their needs in their lessons.

From the table 4.7 on page 95 it is also seen that 45% of the participant teachers had had no training in academic writing whatsoever. 31% of them had had little training in writing and the only remaining 24% had received training in academic writing.

In item 35, the participant teachers were asked to rank the following choices about the possible types of errors in their students' writing, from (7) the most important to (1) the least important.

Item 35: *I think I should correcterrors most in students' writing.*

Option 1: content / ideas

Option 2: organization

Option 3: grammar

Option 4: style

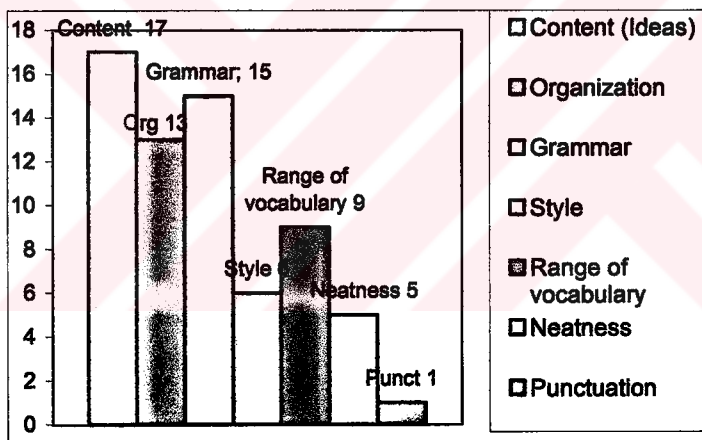
Option 5: range of vocabulary

Option 6: neatness

Option 7: punctuation

Graphic 4.30 on page 96 shows the “most important” choice of the teachers. In the graphic it is seen that 49 % of the teachers stated that they would correct content errors most in their students’ writing. This is followed by grammar errors at 42%. Then, 36 % of them stated that they would correct organization errors mostly. Another 25% of them stated that they thought errors in the range of vocabulary were the most important. The remaining percentages of other options are very low. The four error types mentioned here received the greatest level of concern by the teachers. The findings in this question indicated once more that most participant teachers have the biggest concern for the content of their students’ writing. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that content is followed by grammar and organization.

Graphic 4.30: Types of Errors in Students’ Writing



Item 36: “Which of the following error correction techniques do you use most while correcting students’ papers?”

The participant teachers were to indicate by ticking the most appropriate box, choosing from “always, sometimes, rarely, and never”.

Option 1: Only underline errors and correct them (e.g. *has went gone*).

Option 2: Underline errors, correct them, and categorize them (e.g. *has went gone*) (verb form).

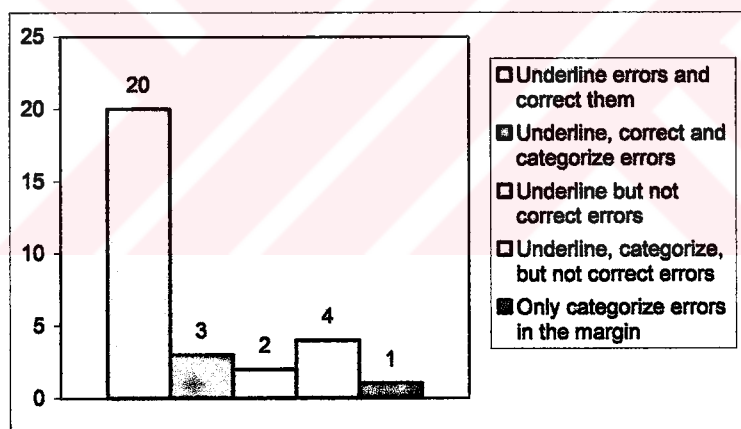
Option 3: Underline errors but do not correct them (e.g. *has went*).

Option 4: Underline errors, categorize them, but not correct them (*e.g. has went*) (*verb form*).

Option 5: Only categorize errors in the margin.

The graphic 4.31 on page 97 show the “always” choices of the teachers. From the graphic 4.31 it seems that 60% of the teachers always underline errors and correct them while they are reading their students’ papers. The remaining error correction techniques were reported as used in very low percentages. It is interesting to note that corrections are always done by most of the teachers in their students’ papers. However, as was previously stated, learners’ errors are important indicators for the teaching and learning of language skills. A pedagogical perspective of teaching pedagogy requires a good understanding of the nature of error in order to find appropriate ways to get rid of that error. Theoretical perspective of teaching pedagogy on the other hand, points that the study of learners’ errors enables us to study systematically.

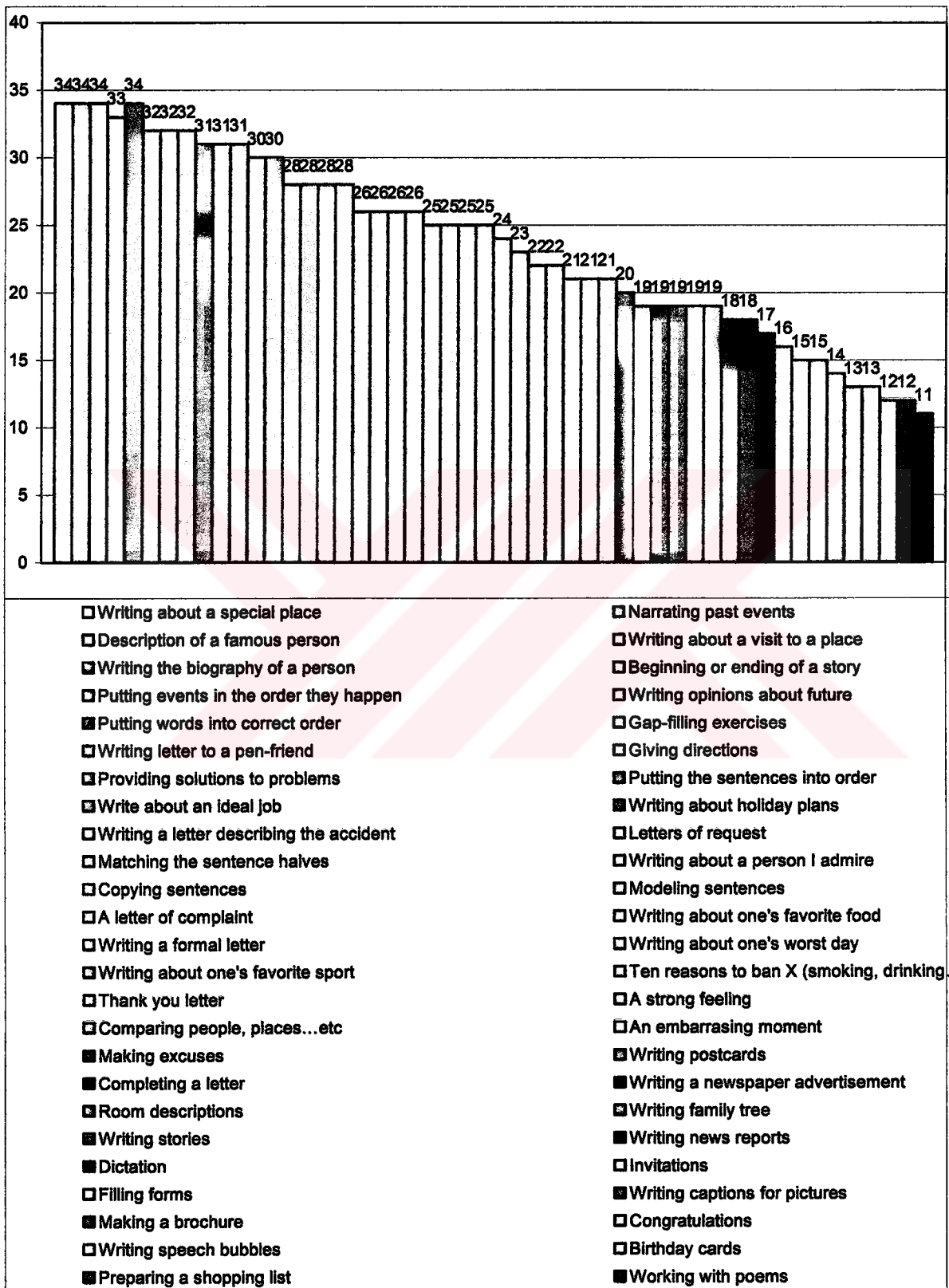
Graphic 4.31: Error Correction Techniques Frequently Used



Item 37: “Which of the following writing activities have you used so far in your classes for teaching writing?”

For this question 51 writing activities were given to the teachers in the questionnaire, and they were asked to choose among these activities the ones they often used in their classes. The activities were categorized into three groups, these being: controlled writing activities, guided writing activities, and free writing activities.

Graphic 4.32: The List of Writing Activities Participant Teachers Use 'Often' in Their Classes



In the table 4.8 on page 99, it is seen that the first 20 most frequently used writing activities are listed separately in order to understand what activities teachers are mostly engaged in the class and whether those activities belong to controlled, guided or free-writing activities.

Table 4.8
Most Frequently Used Writing Activities

Activities	Controlled Writing	Guided writing	Free writing
Writing about a special place	X		X
Description of a famous person	X	X	
Writing the biography of a person		X	
Putting events in the order they happen	X		
Putting words into correct order		X	
Writing letter to a pen-friend		X	
Providing solutions to problems	X		
Write about an ideal job	X		
Writing a letter describing the accident		X	
Matching sentence halves	X		
Copying sentences	X		
A letter of complaint	X	X	
Writing a formal letter		X	
Writing about one's favorite sport			
Thank you letter		X	
Comparing people, places, things...		X	
Making excuses		X	
Completing a letter		X	
Room descriptions		X	
Writing stories	X		X
Dictation	X		
Filling forms		X	
Making a brochure		X	
Writing speech bubbles		X	
Preparing a shopping list		X	
Narrating past events	X		

From the table 4.8 on page 99 it is interesting to note that most of the activities that are practiced by participant teachers are controlled and guided writing activities. All of these activities are from the course materials which are designed to teach all four skills. These course materials were examined by the investigator.



CHAPTER 5

5. DATA ANALYSIS OF THE RETROSPECTIVE PROTOCOLS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter initially describes the data taken from the teachers' responses to the retrospective protocols, and further examines the relationships, differences and similarities between the questionnaire and the protocol findings. This chapter concludes with an overall discussion of the key points emerging from questionnaire and protocol data.

5.2. Introduction to the Qualitative Data Analysis

In order to analyze retrospective protocols encoded categories for teachers' retrospective accounts of their evaluation of two writing papers were designed. These categories included seven basic features of teaching and grading writing papers. These are:

1. Content/Ideas (*the clear and focused way of creating meaning*)
2. Organization (*the correct way of presenting information*)
3. Grammar (*the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses*)
4. Style (*the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought*)
5. Range of vocabulary (*the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely*)
6. Punctuation (*the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text*)
7. Neatness (*the paper must be clean and free from crossings and such*)

After collecting protocol data, which was tape-recorded, the investigator examined the data and put each piece of data under relevant columns in the encoded categories. This process took longer than expected, since the investigator had to listen to and type each

account of the respondents and to categorize each sentence correctly. The encoded categories of retrospective protocols of each participant are given in tables in the appendix C.

In this section, the comments of the investigator for each protocol category were given.

5.3. Analysis of the Protocols

Protocol 1

In this protocol, the subject mainly focused his attention on grammar, saying that grammar is the first thing he would look for during correction of his students' papers. He gave examples of grammatical problems of the first composition paper such as the use of gerunds and infinitives, and sentence structures. He then mentioned few vocabulary problems in the paper, and finally he said that the content was not enough to support the writer's point of view.

For the second composition this order was repeated in the same way. This time the teacher liked the use of linking verbs, but added that the paper still had a few problems. The teacher also liked the organization of the second composition, and referred it as a "strong" one. Finally, he found the content rather short as he had in the first one.

It is interesting to note that this participant teacher mainly focused on problems in form rather than those in content. It can also be speculated that this participant teacher has a formalistic attitude towards students' written works, since he focused his attention mainly on formalistic features of the passages.

Protocol 2

In this protocol, in the first paper, the participant teacher focused his attention on organization of the paper. He thinks that organization of ideas is very important in a student's composition, and he did not like the organization of the first paper, saying that the ideas were not related to each other. Following this, the teacher went on examining the grammatical aspects of the first paper. He said that there were some problems in the use of connectors but he would ignore them. Also this teacher was careful to notice that the vocabulary the student writer used was not adequate to convey the intended meaning precisely.

In the second composition, the participant teacher focused his attention mostly on content. He said that the biggest problem for him in this composition was content. The content for him was very narrow and far from satisfactory in terms of creating the effect it was intended to. Secondly the teacher referred to the organization and said that the student writer did not incorporate his ideas into the writing.

From the data above we see that this participant teacher mainly focused his attention on problems in content and organization. This participant, unlike the first one, was considering “content” as yet another very important aspect of students’ writing.

Protocol 3

In this protocol, in the first student composition, the participant teacher focused her attention on the organization of the paper, claiming that for her, organization of ideas is the most important in a student’s composition. She liked the organization of the first composition and said that the order, the structure and the presentation of information were clear. The participant teacher then directed her attention on grammatical aspects of the composition and said that there were some serious problems with the use of gerunds and infinitives and adjective clauses in the paper.

In the second composition the same order was almost repeated. The teacher first focused her attention on organization and said that the organization in this second one had some problems too. The writer did not support the ideas expressed in the composition and the conclusion part was not, she said, adequate at all. She then added that the style of the second composition was not clear and the composition lacked consistent engagement.

From the data above it is interesting to note that this participant teacher mainly focused on problems in organization in both compositions, followed by grammar and style. She did not refer to any content problems in the compositions, unlike the other participant teachers.

Protocol 4

In this protocol, in the first student composition the participant teacher, like the respondent in protocol 3, focused her attention on organization of the paper. She made a detailed analysis of organization of the first composition and said she liked the organization. But she criticized the composition in terms of range of vocabulary and

punctuation. She said the writer used very simple vocabulary and did not use the punctuation correctly, which led to confusion on the part of the teacher.

In the second composition, the writer started with grammar and said that the use of adhesive signals was not correct, and this created a big problem in meaning. Secondly, the participant teacher referred to organization of the composition and said that the order of information was not given correctly. Finally, she mentioned the vocabulary and said that it was very limited.

In the data above, it is seen that this participant teacher mainly focused on problems in organization, range of vocabulary, grammar and punctuation in the both compositions. She did not refer to any content problems in the compositions.

Protocol 5

In this protocol, in the first student composition, the participant teacher focused her attention on the style of the composition. She gave examples of sentences from the first composition which were nonsensical. Then, referring to the grammar, she said that there were spelling and sentence structure problems in the composition. The teacher then referred to organization and said that the paper was organized well. But later she criticized content as very limited and not informative about the topic. Finally, the teacher added that there were also problems in the range of vocabulary and punctuation in the first composition.

Referring to the second composition, the writer started with organization and said that the ideas did not follow each other logically. In other words, the ideas did not, in her view, follow each other logically. Then she mentioned that there were gerunds and infinitive problems in the grammatical structure of the composition. Last but not least, she said that the content of the composition was very limited and that the paper had no clear sense of purpose. Finally, she said that there was wrong vocabulary in the composition.

From the data above it can be speculated that this teacher analyzed the papers from many different perspectives, but focused her attention most on the style of the compositions.

Protocol 6

In this protocol, in the first student composition, the participant teacher focused her attention on organization, grammar and style problems. She said that the organization of

the first composition was strong, but that there were structural and spelling problems. She also commented the student had not created a good style and that composition turned out to be very mechanical.

Referring to the second composition, the participant teacher turned her attention to grammar, organization, style and range of vocabulary. She said there were problems in the use of conjunctions and clauses, and the participant teacher saw such mistakes as important mistakes for a student. Secondly, the teacher did not like the organization of the second paper and said that it was actually worse than the first one since the ideas did not follow each other logically. Then the teacher gave an example of problematic vocabulary.

It is interesting to note that this teacher also focused her attention on organization and grammar like the others. She called grammar mistakes terrible mistakes. The investigator thinks that this is an indication that teachers may have overt concerns on grammar in their students' writing.

Protocol 7

In this protocol, in the first student composition, the participant teacher focused his attention mostly on grammar. He said the student did not use grammar structures correctly. He attempted to use complex grammar structures and he made serious mistakes in clauses such as "books are giving relax to people" or "books are written not only for give explanation but for tell stories, for relaxing people" and all this made the composition difficult to understand. The teacher also commented on the style and said that the student failed to use the language effectively.

In the second composition, the participant teacher turned his attention to grammar again and said that the student made a very good use of perfect tenses in the composition and said he used simple sentence structures much more correctly and he was able to express his ideas clearly and effectively. The teacher also added that this student will be a much more successful student in using advanced grammar structures step by step in the future. As far as organization is concerned the teacher said that the student moved well from general to specific and that the composition had a clearly identifiable introduction and conclusion. A few comments on the style and range of vocabulary were also included in his evaluation of the second student composition.

This teacher like many others talked about grammar and organization in the students' compositions.

Protocol 8

In this protocol, in the first student composition, the participant teacher focused his attention mostly on organization of the composition. He said the organization was poor, there were no topic sentences, and the topic was not narrowed. Secondly, the teacher said that the writer had translated from Turkish and he had made huge grammar mistakes such as the misuse of connectors, and spelling mistakes. Thirdly the teacher mentioned the content and said the content was not related and the student writer included in the composition more than one problem that was not related to the topic. The teacher also mentioned style problems, saying that the student writer confused the rules and conventions of spoken and written English.

In the second composition, the teacher said that not many new ideas were incorporated into the composition. In other words the composition was not supported by new ideas, which is a serious content problem. He also said there were important spelling mistakes such as “wether” and the use of “infact”, “creativeness”, “on anther way”, near position” are very striking vocabulary problems.

It is interesting to note that this teacher unlike others addressed his attention on organization, grammar and content only moderately.

Protocol 9

In this protocol, in the first student composition, the participant teacher focused his attention on the style. He said that the use of rhetorical questions was good, and that the topic was a very popular topic but that the writer did not give enough examples to elaborate the topic. The teacher also mentioned grammar and punctuation problems but did not elaborate on them.

In the second composition, the participant writer focused on grammar, organization and vocabulary problems. He said that in this second composition verb-tense agreement is problematic. There were spelling problems. The use of connectors was problematic and the writer could not express what he intended. There were some preposition mistakes such as “by a near position”. There were problems with verb-tense agreement. In addition, the organization was not good at all and the conclusion was inadequate and failed to convey the stance of the writer.

This participant teacher, like others, made comments on the mechanics of the two compositions rather than content. Thus, the researcher speculates that this teacher is keen on formal aspects of texts, like many other participant teachers.

Protocol 10

In this protocol, in the first student composition, the participant teacher like the previous one focused her attention on the style. She said that in this composition the writer seemed to have translated from Turkish and this made the composition difficult to comprehend. He asked some rhetorical questions, but one of them did not make any sense. Secondly, this teacher focused on grammar problems and said such mistakes as ‘or give’, ‘or relaxing’, ‘or processing’ are bad examples of grammar. Thirdly she said the uses of “possession” or “books’ utilities”, “divert our knowledge” are examples of wrong vocabulary. It seems that in the first composition this respondent directed her interest towards style, grammar, and range of vocabulary.

In the second student composition, the writer focused on grammar problems such as spelling and articles. Then, she said that the conclusion was not supported by the text as a whole. There was, she said, a disconnection between the conclusion and the other parts, and the stance of the writer was not clear. All these comments are related to organization of the composition. The teacher also said that the student writer made translations from Turkish such as “public’s brain”.

This teacher again focused mainly on grammar, style and organization of the compositions. She never mentioned content.

CHAPTER 6

6. INTERVIEW AND DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter initially describes the data taken from the coordinators. A semi-structured interview composed mostly of open-ended questions and including also some more structured questions was conducted with one coordinator and three sub-coordinators in order to determine the place of writing skill in the language curriculum.

6.2. Analysis of Interviews

The responses to the structured questions obtained from each interviewee were the same or very similar. This is why the responses were combined and treated as one. For example the first question was:

- *Is there a separate writing course in the curriculum? Why or Why not?*

All of the interviewees said that there is not a separate writing course in the curriculum. For the time being, reading and grammar skills are taught separately, but writing skill is incorporated into the course book lessons. They said that they once put writing skill into the curriculum as a separate course but it did not work. This was because the writing materials were not up to the expectations of the teachers and students. Also, teachers complained that writing courses were not working well at the time. Both teachers and students were reluctant to teach and learn writing. That is why, according to the respondents, students did not attend the writing courses and writing became an unpopular course in the school program.

One interviewee said *“Part of the reason why writing lessons do not work is that the teachers in the department lack the knowledge of teaching writing and need methodological knowledge of teaching writing”*.

Respondents also felt that, for those reasons, they had had to make some modifications in the school curriculum. Thus, the writing skill courses were taken out from the program.

Much the same unanimity was shown in response to the question:

- *Would you like “writing” as a separate skill to be incorporated into the curriculum?*

All of the interviewees’ responses to this question were “yes”. They all thought that their students would need to be able to write in English when they go to their departments. As the medium of language in some departments in KTU is English, the students of these departments especially would need writing skill in their exams, projects, assignment. However what had to be done before implementing writing courses in the department was, in their view, to prepare good materials which would meet the needs of the students adequately. Moreover, teachers would need to be educated in teaching writing, and the writing needs of the students would need to be identified beforehand. Only after these initial preparations, they said, should a writing course be planned and implemented. Last but not least, the course book teacher (the integrated skills teacher) for each class would need to be the one who also gave the writing course to the teachers, because the course book (the integrated skills program) has the greatest number of hours allotted and course book teachers would likely to know better the weaknesses and strengths of their students.

- *Who are responsible for preparing the school curriculum?*

All the interviewees responded that the Karadeniz Technical University Senate drew up the general outlines of the regulations to be applied by the department of foreign language English preparatory classes. Within the framework of these regulations, they said there exist such things as the general overall objectives of the school, the duration of the school term and description of the exams. So, the university senate is responsible for deciding what language skills to be taught to the students and the department coordinators are responsible for deciding how many hours a week a skill is to be taught.

In other words, they explained, *“The university senate says that the students in the department of foreign languages have to be equipped with all four language skills. Then we, as the prep-school coordinators, gather around and decide on the details of the curriculum such as the number of course hours for each lesson, and what books to study.”*

The coordinators responded as follows to the following question:

- *What factors do you take into consideration when deciding what courses to teach?*

One factor, they said, was that they have to take into consideration first the demands of the university. The university wants staff to teach the students here all skills equally well. However, there are other factors as well. The fact that most of the students at the school start this school at the beginner level makes grammar courses compulsory. The school also has reading classes six hours a week, plus eight hours of grammar classes and twelve hours of course book classes.

“Of course the level of competence the students have is what principally determines the courses” they said. At the beginning they have a placement exam, and all the students take this exam. Based on the results of the exam, they decide the level of the students and place them accordingly.

Another factor mentioned was the accessibility of appropriate materials for each course. Part of the reason why the department does not include writing in the curriculum as a separate course was, they said, the lack of writing materials. The materials in hand were directed towards solving students’ mechanical writing problems. During the writing courses done previously using these materials, it was seen that students memorized all the rules and sentence structures and wrote very similar paragraphs. That is why it was decided that writing skill should be included in the course book rather than treated as a separate skill.

In response to the question;

- *Do you think the absence of writing courses in the curriculum brings about problems in the language production of the students?*

All the interviewees said “yes”. Although in course books there are writing activities, these activities, they said, were not exploited in the lesson by some teachers and, instead, these activities were given as homework. But most of the students did not do them.

It was clear to all the coordinators that students lacked the ability to express themselves in written language. They did not know the difference between written and spoken language. This was unfortunate, they felt, because the practice of writing could give students many chances to practice the structures they learned in reading classes and the rules they learned in grammar classes. The students here clearly lacked this ability. In 2004, writing was incorporated into the exams. Lecturers asked them to write paragraphs, and these paragraphs were graded separately. From the student writings, staff saw that

students had serious problems in writing and that those problems could be solved by establishing writing classes separately in the curriculum.

6.3. Document Analysis

In this study, the decisions made by the senate of Karadeniz Technical University regarding the implementation of foreign language preparatory classes for the freshman students were studied for the purpose of finding out whether writing could be incorporated as a separate skill into the school curriculum.

The data obtained through document analysis showed that the senate of Karadeniz Technical University directed that freshman students in the department of foreign languages preparatory classes be equipped with such abilities as communicating orally and in writing, being able to follow their courses in English, translating texts into both languages, reading and drawing conclusions.

In the regulations regarding the department of foreign languages, some articles are directly to the teaching of language skills. In the “objectives” section of the senate decisions there is an article which describes the function of the English preparatory classes. This article says,

Objectives

Article 3: The objective of compulsory English preparatory classes is to provide KTU students with a sound foreign language education and to enable them to understand what they read and hear, to translate from both languages, to express themselves in oral and in written language, and to be able to communicate successfully in professional, cultural and social life. Moreover, it aims at giving post-graduate students a level of language fluency which will make them active participants of the expert courses, seminars and discussions.

Writing is clearly included, therefore, as a directive.

In another article related to the compulsory foreign language education, it says that the responsibility of organizing the teaching activities belongs to the department of foreign languages. This article says,

Compulsory Foreign Language Teaching

Article 5: The curriculum and all other teaching activities regarding the compulsory foreign language education are prepared by the department of foreign languages. The students to attend compulsory foreign language education are placed according to their levels.

The duration of the compulsory foreign language education is determined by the University Senate through the recommendations of the head of department of foreign languages.

During the course of education in the school the courses are given 30 hours a week for beginner classes and 20 hours a week for intermediate classes.

A full copy of the relevant documents that appeared in the official gazette, and which include the decisions by the Karadeniz Technical University Senate, regarding the implementation of foreign language teaching and learning activities, is given in appendix C.

The study's findings in the document analysis are similar to the interview findings in that what the coordinators said in the interviews regarding the decisions on the teaching and learning activities and what was revealed by the documents confirm each other. These findings indicate that not only the university senate but also school coordinators have responsibility for the design and implementation of school curriculum.

CHAPTER 7

7. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

7.1. Results and Discussion

In this study both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used. However, the quantitative data obtained through questionnaires did not allow for in-depth explanation of the current practices and the ways teachers treat errors in the teaching and grading writing in their courses. For this reason, qualitative data was also incorporated in the design of the study. The qualitative data collected complemented the findings of the quantitative data. In order to analyze retrospective protocols, encoded categories for teachers' retrospective accounts of their evaluation of two writing papers were designed.

The main research questions in this study were:

1. How is the role of writing perceived by English teachers teaching in EFL setting?
2. What is the role of writing skill in EFL Curriculum?

The specific research questions in this study were:

3. Have EFL teachers received any training so far in teaching writing?
4. What are EFL teachers' priorities in the teaching of language skills?
5. What features of writing do EFL teachers consider as important in evaluating students' papers?
6. What kinds of errors are particularly highlighted by EFL teachers in writing and correction?
7. What types of feedback do EFL teachers prefer to give in writing courses?
8. Do EFL teachers consider errors in the surface structure as more important than those in the deep structure of a text in evaluating students writing in the class?

The first question asked how the role of writing is perceived by English teachers teaching in EFL setting. Overall results of the examination of the questionnaire revealed that EFL teachers have relatively negative attitudes towards writing. They think that writing is not among their favorite skills to teach. In fact, writing is perceived as the least popular skill among many EFL teachers. However, despite the unpopularity of writing among the EFL teachers, they continue to teach writing courses. Another interesting finding was that EFL teachers consider skill in writing as a need for their students, but not so much for themselves. They also think that all four language skills, including writing, should be given equal time in teaching and that students must be able to communicate with all four skills. These findings are interesting for one reason that while EFL teachers think that writing is not a very necessary skill for themselves they think it is very necessary for the students who will need to write in exams, prepare homework assignments, projects. They also believe that teaching writing requires more effort than teaching other skills, but that that writing is not more difficult than other language skills in any way.

The second main research question was about the role of writing in the EFL curriculum. In EFL curriculum writing is recognized as another important language skill and it is placed in the curriculum almost invariably. As White (1987) argued, writing has traditionally occupied a place in English language syllabuses. In the same way, as the need for students to express themselves in oral and written language is considered important, those who are responsible for preparing the curriculum feel the necessity to organize writing classes for students. However, the problem is that, speaking generally, writing is not a popular language skill among the teachers or among the students. Moreover, the writing activities provided in the course book materials are generally composed of mechanical activities, and these activities encourage students to use correct grammar and sentences at the expense of sacrificing content. In other words, writing is considered by many teachers and students alike as purely complementary to grammar. That is why, although writing skill has been able to find itself a place in the curriculum, its successful implementation in the EFL classes is rare, and it is generally regarded as the least useful language skill in EFL curriculum by teachers and students alike.

Most of the EFL teachers in the study had received writing courses in their universities. Many EFL departments in Turkey have writing courses in their curriculum, but the content and the scope of these courses vary from one department to another. In addition, a few of the respondents had received training in teaching writing, and most of

them had received little or no training in teaching writing. As far as academic writing is concerned, the findings indicate that 76% of the participants had received little or no training so far in teaching academic writing.

The most popular language skills for many EFL teachers are reading, speaking, and grammar skills. Many EFL teachers like to teach reading and grammar skills more than the others. The popularity of reading and grammar may spring from the fact that these skills are prerequisites for teaching other skills. Indeed while evaluating students' papers many EFL teachers consider grammar and organization as more important than other features of writing.

When they are correcting their students' written papers EFL teachers are most keen on correcting grammar and organization errors. The first thing they look for is grammar. Grammar is followed by the organization problems. This finding concurs with the findings of another study that was done at the Brazilian English as a Foreign Language Institute. The results of that study showed that the focus of teacher feedback was the mechanics rather than the content, and that the EFL teachers expressed their views in such a way that the students benefited most from comments about mechanics, grammar, and organization. The results of another study carried out by Radecki and Swales (1988) also appear to concur with the findings in the current study in that teachers tend to give feedback in grammar and organization because their students want their surface errors to be corrected.

According to the researcher, the finding above is not surprising, because both language teachers and students see writing as a skill that helps reinforce grammar. That is why many Turkish EFL teachers and students prefer form-focused feedback to content-focused feedback. One of the reasons for this is the sets of beliefs of teachers and students about language learning – especially of teachers teaching in EFL contexts in Turkey. They are generally used to making analytic surface-level corrections rather than content-focused feedback. The reason for this may be the past experiences of teachers in that these teachers may have been more exposed to rule-based and sentence-level feedback.

EFL teachers consider errors in the surface structure as more important than those in the deep structure of a text in evaluating students' writing in the class. This is true for the many EFL teachers who give feedback directly to surface level problems such as grammar and organization in the students' papers. In addition, EFL teachers prefer to give written feedback to their students and they do this by using the technique of underlining errors and correcting them accordingly. This finding is concurrent with the findings of

Ferris (1997), who carried out research using 47 students in a first-year college composition course and who concluded that students made good use of teacher feedback and the students overwhelmingly tended to improve their writing as a result of the teachers' written feedback. On the other hand researchers such as Ferris, Pezone, Tade and Tinti (1997, cited in Reesor, 2002) also argue that written feedback allows for a level of individualized attention, and teachers have the chance of one-on-one communication with their students, written feedback also encourages motivation in the class. In another study, Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) found that students want their teachers to provide them with written feedback. Students then tend to make good use of written feedback they have received from their teachers in written form.

According to the findings presented in this study, the majority of EFL teachers' feedback consisted of only underlining grammar, spelling, and writing convention mistakes and many EFL teachers also provide correct forms, thus, not allowing students the chance to correct their own errors. These findings from this study are concurrent with the findings of Gosse (2001), which he obtained in an EFL English department. Gosse found out that teachers, if left unsupervised, overemphasize the mechanistic rules of language and expect their students to produce mechanically correct sentences in their compositions. The results of the Robb, Ross and Shotreed (1986) study were also concurrent with the findings of this study to the extent that EFL teachers, in particular, often place greater emphasis on responding to only surface level features such as mechanical errors than on responding to the overall content. The researcher thinks that an over-emphasis on mechanics of writing or on surface level problems will make teaching writing a rather mechanistic activity in which both teachers and students will find themselves doing grammar revision. Naturally in this process teachers will feel obliged to provide correct forms and rules for their students. However, the researcher is of the opinion that content level problems or deep level problems should also be the focus of an EFL writing classroom. Thus, it is hoped that writing classes will be more interesting and enjoyable than ever for teachers and students alike.

Another finding within the framework of the current study was that many EFL teachers need to develop their own approaches to the teaching of writing. As Van Lier (1996, cited in Gosse, 2002) pointed out there is a need for teachers to seek a process approach that is oriented to themselves and that focuses on developing decision-making skills. This will lead them towards gaining their own ways of dealing with their teaching.

In the context of this study most of the teachers pointed out that they needed to gain awareness, autonomy, and authenticity in teaching writing.



CHAPTER 8

8. CONCLUSION

8.1. Overview of the Study

As stated previously, the central concern of this study was to investigate tertiary level EFL teachers' perceptions of the role and importance of writing skill in English Language Teaching (ELT), and to determine the place of writing skill in the EFL curriculum. Data was collected from 35 teachers who are currently teaching in the foreign language department of Karadeniz Technical University. These teachers were given questionnaires which included questions regarding general language skills, perceptions of writing teachers, teaching writing and methodological perspectives.

In order to analyze the questionnaire data, descriptive statistical techniques such as frequencies and percentages were used. For further analysis a non-parametric technique, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was used for rank order and for Likert-scale questions.

Moreover, with 10 of the participant teachers, who were chosen randomly from amongst 35 teachers, a retrospective protocol was conducted. To do this the 10 respondents were given writing tasks to grade, and they were asked to tell the researcher their ideas, and thoughts, and the ways they treated the papers. An interview was also conducted with one coordinator and three sub-coordinators in order to determine the place of writing skill in the language curriculum. In addition, a document analysis was carried out for the purpose of finding out whether writing is incorporated into the school curriculum as a separate skill that has to be taught.

8.2. Pedagogical Implications for EFL Language Teachers

This study raises several pedagogical implications for Turkish EFL writing teachers and the ways they treat students' written performances. First of all, EFL writing teachers

should be trained in pre-service teacher training programs about the power and potential benefits of writing for EFL students. This is because many EFL teachers teach writing with the knowledge that it is not a popular skill among all parties concerned. This knowledge may also be the reason why EFL teachers tend to focus on the mechanics of writing rather than on content since a focus on mechanics turns the writing class into a practical revision of grammar.

Secondly, EFL teachers must be encouraged to develop themselves in theoretical terms in areas of language such as teaching writing. Realization of teachers' self-development in in-service teacher training programs such as seminars, workshops will encourage teachers to become more competent in their jobs. Moreover, this training process should be directed towards training teachers for specific objectives such as teaching writing. Thus it may be possible for teachers to develop their own approaches towards teaching writing and to choose methodologies and materials that arise from principled decisions.

Thirdly, a wide range of literature on different aspects of ELT and assessment of each skill must be made available to all EFL teachers for their future professional careers.

Another implication of this study for EFL preparatory teachers is that they must understand that not all students respond equally to any particular type of feedback. In other words, a better feedback system must be created in which students inform their teachers easily about their needs in writing and thus make it possible for a teacher to provide appropriate help to the students.

The fifth implication is related to the course materials for writing. The course materials in EFL writing classes should include all three types of writing activities-namely, guided, controlled, and free writing activities. At the beginning stages guided activities and later controlled writing activities may be used to prepare the students for free writing activities. The writing materials to be used for future courses must necessarily include free writing activities. Failure to do so will lead to a rather mechanistic view of writing on the part of the teachers and students alike.

8.3. Directions for Further Research and Limitations of the Study

I believe that a through analysis of EFL teachers' perceptions towards writing is not enough. A fuller study would call for students' participation as well. This researcher made

questionnaires and retrospective protocols with EFL teachers but he did not incorporate students' thoughts, expectations, or perceptions of a good writing teacher into the study. As a matter of fact a questionnaire similar to the teacher questionnaire was conducted with 50 EFL students, but since there was not enough time the researcher could not analyze the data collected from student questionnaires.

A second limitation of the study is related to the sample size. In fact, the project collected a rather limited number of samples (35) for such a large-scale study. That is why the findings may not be generalized to the majority of university preparatory schools. If this research could be replicated with a larger number of participants from different universities in Turkey, its findings would reveal more about the perceptions of Turkish EFL teachers.

Another limitation of the study was that before the questionnaire was administered it was taken for granted that all participant EFL teachers had taught writing already as part of their teaching. However some of the participants had not. Some of the responses in the questionnaire, therefore, may have been based on intuitions rather than actual experience.

In the future, the data in this study could be usefully analyzed again with the inclusion of the data obtained from the students' questionnaire. When teachers' and students' perceptions of writing skill are combined, there will be a truer assessment of the place and role of writing in EFL settings, and in the light of these perceptions more accurate and useful classroom materials can be designed for EFL teachers and students alike.

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Appendix A

EFL Teacher Questionnaire

Dear Colleague,

The aim of this questionnaire is to find out university-level EFL teachers' perceptions of the role and importance of writing skills in English Language Teaching (ELT). Your cooperation would be much appreciated.

The questionnaire is anonymous; you do not need to put your name on the form. Your responses will be kept confidential. Thank you for your participation, and cooperation.

Ali Şükrü ÖZBAY

KTU- MA in Applied Linguistics

Part A

Read questions 1 and 2, and put a tick (✓) in the box(es) that most closely correspond(s) to your opinion (you can tick more than one box for each question)

	1. What is/are your favourite course(s) to teach?	2. Which of the following courses have you taught so far?
Speaking		
Writing		
Listening		
Reading		
Grammar		
Translation		

Read questions 3 and 4, and put the items in order of importance to you

(6=Most Important; 1=Least Important)

	3. Which of the following language skills do you think a teacher should have most in teaching English as a Foreign Language?	4. Which of the following language skills do you think your students will need most in their major/departmental courses?
Speaking		
Writing		
Listening		
Reading		
Grammar		
Translation		

Read questions 5 and 6, then put a tick (✓) in the box(es)

	5. How long have you taught the following skill(s)?						6. What level(s) have you taught so far?		
Speaking	none	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-8 years	9-14 years	15 years and above	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
Writing	None	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-8 years	9-14 years	15 years and above	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
Listening	None	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-8 years	9-14 years	15 years and above	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
Reading	None	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-8 years	9-14 years	15 years and above	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
Grammar	None	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-8 years	9-14 years	15 years and above	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
Translation	None	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-8 years	9-14 years	15 years and above	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
Other(s)...	None	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-8 years	9-14 years	15 years and above	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced

7. How would you rate the following features when you, as a teacher, are writing in English?

(7= Most Important - 1= Least Important)

- Content/Ideas *(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)*
- Organization *(the correct way of presenting information)*
- Grammar *(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)*
- Style *(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, thought)*
- Range of vocabulary *(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)*
- Punctuation *(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)*
- Neatness *(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)*

8. What do you think are the most important features of writing in general?

(7=Most important; 1=Least important)

- Content/Ideas
- Organization
- Grammar
- Style
- Range of vocabulary
- Neatness
- Punctuation

9. Do you think there should be a separate writing course in the program?

- YES NO

10. If your response to question 9 is “**YES**”, then how many hours a week do you think it should be? Please indicate in number here. (.....)

11. Have you ever given writing **tasks/topics** to your students in the program so far?

- YES NO

Part B

Please read each statement, then put an X in the box that most closely corresponds to your opinion

SA: Strongly agree

A: Agree

N: Neutral

D: Disagree

SD: Strongly disagree

	SA	A	N	D	SD
12. I think reading, writing, speaking and listening skills should be given equal time in teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. I think students must be able to communicate in all four skills .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. I believe that writing in English is more difficult than reading in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. I believe that writing in English is more difficult than listening in English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I would like my students to correct each other's papers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I believe that writing in English is more difficult than speaking in English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Writing is basically using grammatically correct sentences.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. Writing is the most difficult skill to acquire.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- | | SA | A | N | D | SD |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 20. Writing should be taught after students have learned the other skills such as reading, listening, and speaking. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. Meaning (content) is more important than grammatical correctness in writing. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22. Teaching writing requires more effort than other skills | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23. I think I should provide feedback mostly on content (meaning) for my students in their writing. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24. I have knowledge about the current research in teaching writing. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25. I need training to develop my own approach to the teaching of writing. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26. I think I should correct every error in students' writing. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. I think I should correct some errors in students' writing | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. I think I should correct none of students' errors. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. I think I should provide feedback mostly on form (grammar) for my students in their writing. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30. I think all different types of writing must be taught to students. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 31. I would like to give feedback to my students about their writing by | | | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> giving them written responses separately. | | | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> talking to them personally. | | | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> class discussions | | | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> group written responses | | | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> giving them criteria to follow and evaluate themselves. | | | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> other (s)..... | | | | | |

Read questions from 32 to 34 and put a tick (✓) in the boxes

	Very much	Much	Little	Not any
32. When I was a university student, I took writing courses				
33. I have had training in teaching writing				
34. When I was a university student, I was trained in academic writing.				

Read question 35 and put the items in order of importance to you

(7= Most Important - 1= Least Important)

35. I think I should correcterrors **most** in students' writing.

- content / ideas
- organization
- grammar
- style
- range of vocabulary
- neatness
- punctuation

36. Which of the following error correction techniques do you use most while correcting students' papers? **(put a tick (✓) in the box/es)**

	always	Somt.	rarely	never
Only underline errors and correct them(<i>e.g. has <u>went</u> gone</i>).				
Underline errors, correct them, and categorize them (<i>e.g. has <u>went</u> gone</i>) (<i>verb form</i>).				
Underline errors but do not correct them (<i>e.g. has <u>went</u></i>).				
Underline errors, categorize them, but I don't correct them (<i>e.g. has <u>went</u></i>) (<i>verb form</i>).				
Only categorize errors in the margin.				

37. Which of the following writing activities have you used so far in your classes for teaching writing? (put a tick (✓) in the box/es)

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Copying sentences				
Making a brochure				
Letters of request				
Putting words into correct order				
Matching sentence halves				
Modeling sentences				
Writing captions for pictures				
Writing speech bubbles				
Putting the sentences into order				
Preparing a shopping list				
Birthday cards				
Thank you letter				
Invitations				
Congratulations				
A strong feeling				
Giving directions				
A letter of complaint				
Writing about a special place				
Writing about one's favorite food				
Write about an ideal job				
Making excuses				

Filling forms				
Gap-filling exercises				
Working with poems				
Dictation				
Comparing people, places, things...				
Narrating past events				
Writing the biography of a person				
Writing about a visit to a place				
Providing solutions to problems				
Writing letter to a pen-friend				
Description of a famous person				
Writing family tree				
Beginning or ending of a story				
Writing postcards				
Writing about holiday plans				
Completing a letter				
Writing a formal letter				
Putting events in the order they happen				
Writing a letter describing the accident				
Writing a for-and-against essay				
Writing opinions about future				
Writing an newspaper advertisement				
Writing news reports				
Writing about one's favorite sport				
Writing about a person I admire				

Room descriptions				
Writing about one's worst day				
Ten reasons to ban X (smoking, drinking)				
An embarrassing moment				
Writing stories				
Other:				
Other:				

Part C

38. Please feel free to add any comment and idea about the issue that has not been covered in the questionnaire. (YOU CAN USE THE NEXT PAGE FOR YOUR COMMENTS)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Part D

1. Gender: a) Male b) Female

2. Age: a) 23-29 b) 30-36 c) 37-44 d) 45 and above

3. I have been in the profession for:

a) less than a year b) 1-4 years c) 5-8 years d) 9-14 years e) more than 15 years

4. I got my BA (undergraduate degree) in

- o Teaching English as a Foreign Language
- o English Language and Literature
- o American Language and Literature
- o Other (Please specify)

5. Any degrees and / or qualifications held in ELT(English Language Teaching):

Type of degree / qualification	Institution	Year
MA (Master of Art):		
Certificate:		
Summer School:		
Seminars:		
Other:...		

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. Your time is greatly appreciated.



Appendix B

Transcripts of Encoded Categories of Retrospective Analyses

Subject 1

<i>Category</i>	<i>Accounts</i>
1. Content/Ideas <i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i>	3. The composition is not long enough to support the writer's point of view. The writer missed some points.
2. Organization <i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i>	<i>1. He moved from general to specific. In the first paragraph the writer mentioned advantages of television, and in the second he mentioned the disadvantages. So I think this second composition is very strong in organization</i>
3. Grammar <i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i>	<p>1. I think the first thing I look for in a student's paper is the grammar problems. And I think this first composition paper has some grammar problems such as failure to use gerunds and infinitives in the examples of "for relaxing, or for processing". Also, there are some problems in the sentence structures such as "...know the past before books?" or "any can contradict a notion we know it very well", or "book is book". They smell Turkish, which may be because students' lack of knowledge in English</p> <p><i>2. This writer successfully used linking verbs such as firstly, secondly, thirdly... That is why I liked it. But there are few grammar problems such as the use of "in fact" at the end of the sentence. It smells Turkish.</i></p>
4. Style <i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i>	
5. Range of vocabulary <i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i>	2. But this composition also includes word form problems such as "information tressures"
6. Punctuation <i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i>	
7. Neatnes <i>(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)</i>	

Comments: 4. But I must say the topic is very interesting. For me, a composition must be corrected in two ways, these being correction for grammar problems, and for using correct word forms and order.

3. Also this writer made a good start by giving a general statement about the topic and style. It is long enough to support the ideas.

Subject 2

Category	Accounts
<p>1. Content/Ideas <i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i></p>	<p>1. The content of the composition is far from satisfactory. I mean the writer only mentioned health problems associated with television as a disadvantage. The writer missed the point of social and cultural aspects of television. This composition should have been broadened with further examples of the advantages and disadvantages of television. In other words, the writer failed to compare and contrast the both aspects of television satisfactorily enough. Of course, the composition has grammar problems, but for me the biggest problem in this composition is the very limited content, and thus the composition failed to create the effect it was intended to do at the beginning.</p>
<p>2. Organization <i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i></p>	<p>1. For me, one of the important considerations in a composition is that a writer must be very careful in organizing his composition. In other words, he must present the information or his ideas correctly and in an order. In this composition, the conclusion has not been made very well. Ideas are not related strongly.</p> <p>2. The conclusion part is again very short, and the writer did not incorporate his thoughts into the composition in conclusion part.</p>
<p>3. Grammar <i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i></p>	<p>2. Moreover, there are a few grammar and style errors in the passage. The writer did not link the sentences correctly and the sentences do not follow each other logically. And the connectors such as "because" or "but" were not used appropriately. Though there are some problems in grammar, I will ignore them</p>
<p>4. Style <i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i></p>	
<p>5. Range of vocabulary <i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i></p>	<p>3. However, I think the range of vocabulary this writer used is far from conveying the intended message precisely. In other words, he used wrong words. It is also limited.</p>
<p>6. Punctuation <i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i></p>	/

Subject 3

Category	Accounts
<p>1. Content/Ideas</p> <p><i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i></p>	
<p>2. Organization</p> <p><i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i></p>	<p>1. For me, the most important thing is how well the writer tried to put his thoughts onto the paper. That is to say, the extent the writer provided support for his own ideas adequately is among my important concerns in a students' writing. The organization is good and the ideas are expressed correctly. The order, structure and presentation of information are understandable</p> <p>2. I don't understand whether the writer wants to conclude or introduce new ideas in the conclusion part. This composition is weaker than the first one, and the ideas are not supported clearly. The conclusion paragraph is not clear at all.</p>
<p>3. Grammar</p> <p><i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i></p>	<p>2. My second biggest concern in such compositions is the grammar problems. I consider grammar problems as very important and they influence my grading greatly. In this paper, there are some problems in the use of gerunds, infinitives, and adjective clauses such as "for give", "for relax" or "anyone can contradict any notion which we know it well". Or "why don't we know the past from books"</p>
<p>4. Style</p> <p><i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i></p>	<p>1. The style is poor and in the introduction section the aim of the writer is not clear at all, and some sentences are not clear, I don't understand why the writer put these sentences here</p>
<p>5. Range of vocabulary</p> <p><i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i></p>	
<p>6. Punctuation</p> <p><i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i></p>	
<p>7. Neatness</p> <p><i>(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)</i></p>	

Subject 4

<i>Category</i>	<i>Accounts</i>
1. Content/Ideas <i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i>	
2. Organization <i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i>	<p>1. Organization of this composition is built very well. The first paragraph or the thesis statement is given very clearly. Judging by the first paragraph, I understand what the writer is writing about. The first paragraph gives the reader a clear picture of what is going to be discussed in the composition. The writer used such adhesive signals as first, second, third successfully, which helped to create a good organization. In other words, the information is correctly and orderly presented in the writing, and I liked it really</p> <p><i>2. The writer also included more than one idea within one paragraph. The concluding paragraph is not clear either. The organization is not completed, that is to say the information is not given correctly</i></p>
3. Grammar <i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i>	<p><i>1. In this second composition the adhesive signals pose a big problem. The reader is easily confused by the flow of ideas due to the lack of correct cohesive signals.</i></p> <p><i>The use of such things as “infact”, “because”, “apart form these”, “on another way” help to confuse the meaning.</i></p>
4. Style <i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i>	
5. Range of vocabulary <i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i>	<p>2. The writer also used poor vocabulary such as “yesterday, today, and certainly tomorrow...,” does not make any meaning. The use of “possession” is also problematic. The writer repeated the word “use” many times for reading books. That is to say, the writer used very simple vocabulary.</p> <p><i>3 The range of vocabulary is very limited. For example “it has good sides as bad sides” or “....watched by a near position” or “TV makes people’s brain lazy...”</i></p>
6. Punctuation <i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i>	<p>3. However punctuation problems catch my attention. The writer did not use the punctuation correctly and this misleads the reader.</p>
7. Neatness <i>(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)</i>	/

Subject 5

Category	Accounts
<p>1. Content/Ideas</p> <p><i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i></p>	<p>4. The content is also very limited. There is nothing new in this composition. The writer did not incorporate his thoughts into the writing.</p> <p>3. The title is not relevant to the content much. The formal organization can be seen but the content organization is not clear at all. That is to say, the contents of the paragraphs are not related, and do not follow one another logically. The paper has no clear sense of purpose</p>
<p>2. Organization</p> <p><i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i></p>	<p>3. The title is compatible with the content. The writer made a good introduction and a good organization by introducing ideas orderly and separately</p> <p>1. The organization is poor in this composition. Although there is a good introduction the rest of the composition does not support the ideas given in the introduction</p>
<p>3. Grammar</p> <p><i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i></p>	<p>2. But there are many grammar mistakes. The writer misused “because” and there are spelling mistakes such as “tressures” . Some sentences are nor correct and don’t make any meaning. They are as if the words are put together without considering grammar. In other words, the words are quite loosely arranged.</p> <p>2. The use of “for” instead of “to” signals that the writer is not aware of the uses of gerunds and infinitives. That is a grammar mistake. “For relaxing” instead of “to relax”, “for processing” instead of “to process” can be given as examples of incorrect use of grammar</p>
<p>4. Style</p> <p><i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i></p>	<p>1. The style is not appropriate. The text smells Turkish in terms of grammar and vocabulary. For example “People are introduced to the world beauties” don’t make any sense. Also the use of “on another way” instead of “on the other hand” is a good example that the writer is merely translating Turkish cohesive links as they are without considering possible English equivalents. The writer asked questions to the reader but these questions don’t make any sense. For example “Why don’t we know the past from books”</p>
<p>5. Range of vocabulary</p> <p><i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i></p>	<p>5. The use of “create” instead of “provide” is another good example of lack of correct vocabulary.</p> <p>4. It seems that the use of “divert” or “contradict” seems that the writer doesn’t know how to use words correctly</p>
<p>6. Punctuation</p> <p><i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i></p>	<p>6. There are also punctuation problems such as the use of full-stop following “in my opinion”.</p>
<p>7. Neatness</p> <p><i>(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)</i></p>	

Subject 6

Category	Accounts
1. Content/Ideas <i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i>	
2. Organization <i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i>	<p>1. The organization is strong enough to move the reader through the text. The writer made comparisons between books and computers and in this way formed a good argument.</p> <p>2. <i>The organization of this composition is worse than the first one. The ideas do not follow each other logically.</i></p>
3. Grammar <i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i>	<p>2. But there are some structural and spelling mistakes in the composition. "Tressures" is an important spelling mistake here</p> <p>1. <i>Grammatical structure is very weak and the use of conjunctions is wrong. The use of "apart from" is wrong. For me such mistakes are very important in compositions. The writer did not use relative clauses correctly.</i></p>
4. Style <i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i>	<p>3. Book is book" is a very bad example of style. I think the biggest problem in this paper is that the writer put things as if he is writing in Turkish not in English. He doesn't how to express ideas in English and directly translated from Turkish.</p> <p>4. <i>The sentences are very weak and meaningless.</i></p>
5. Range of vocabulary <i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i>	<p>3. <i>"Public's brain" is a very bad example of wrong vocabulary and Turkish translation.</i></p>
6. Punctuation <i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i>	
7. Neatness <i>(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)</i>	<p>4. Also this paper is not neat at all.</p>

Subject 7

Category	Accounts
1. Content/Ideas <i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i>	
2. Organization <i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i>	2. He made a good organization from general to specific. It has clearly identifiable introduction and conclusion.
3. Grammar <i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i>	1. He did not use grammar structures correctly. He attempted to use complex grammar structures and he made serious mistakes in clauses such as “books are giving relax to people” or “books are written not only for give explanation but for tell stories, for relaxing people” and all this made the composition difficult to understand. 1. The students made a very good use of perfect tenses in the composition. He used simple sentence structures much more correctly and he was able to express his ideas clearly and effectively. This student will be a much more successful student in using advanced grammar structures step by step in the future
4. Style <i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i>	2. This student did not use the language effectively 3. He has a good style in the composition
5. Range of vocabulary <i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i>	4. The vocabulary he used is rather simple but correct.
6. Punctuation <i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i>	
7. Neatness <i>(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)</i>	

Subject 8

Category	Accounts
<p>1. Content/Ideas</p> <p><i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i></p>	<p>3. The topic of the composition is very narrow. The writer included in the composition two different points. He also included the role of computers in the composition, and this not related to topic</p> <p>1. Grammar of this composition is good, but not many new ideas are incorporated into the composition.. The composition is not supported by new ideas.</p>
<p>2. Organization</p> <p><i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i></p>	<p>1. The organization is poor. There are no topic sentences and the topic is not narrowed. Transitions are very poor. This composition seems to be a direct translation From Turkish.</p>
<p>3. Grammar</p> <p><i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i></p>	<p>2. The writer has translated from Turkish and he made huge grammar mistakes. Negative transfers from Turkish can be seen in some parts. Also there are many spelling mistakes. The use of “for give” seems very apparent. He also misused connectors such as “because”.</p> <p>2. There are important spelling mistakes such as “wether”.</p>
<p>4. Style</p> <p><i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i></p>	<p>4. The use of “yes” means that the difference between spoken and written language is not known by the writer</p>
<p>5. Range of vocabulary</p> <p><i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i></p>	<p>3. The use of “infact”, “creativity”, “on anther way”, near position” are very striking vocabulary problems</p>
<p>6. Punctuation</p> <p><i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i></p>	
<p>7. Neatness</p> <p><i>(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)</i></p>	/

Subject 9

Category	Accounts
<p>1. Content/Ideas</p> <p><i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i></p>	
<p>2. Organization</p> <p><i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i></p>	<p>2. The conclusion is inadequate and fails to give the stance of the writer. The organization is not good at all.</p>
<p>3. Grammar</p> <p><i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i></p>	<p>2. There are some grammar mistakes</p> <p>1. In this composition verb-tense agreement is problematic. There are spelling problems. The use of connectors is problematic and the writer couldn't express what he is intended to. There are some preposition mistakes such as "by a near position". There are problems with verb-tense agreement</p>
<p>4. Style</p> <p><i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i></p>	<p>1. The use of rhetorical questions is good. The topic is a very popular topic but the writer did not give enough examples to elaborate the topic.</p>
<p>5. Range of vocabulary</p> <p><i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i></p>	<p>3. and the writer used wrong vocabulary</p>
<p>6. Punctuation</p> <p><i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i></p>	<p>3. There are punctuation problems. The writer misused commas</p>
<p>7. Neatness</p> <p><i>(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)</i></p>	<p>/</p>

Subject 10

Category	Accounts
<p>1. Content/Ideas</p> <p><i>(the clear and focused way of creating meaning)</i></p>	
<p>2. Organization</p> <p><i>(the correct way of presenting information)</i></p>	<p>2. The conclusion is not supported by the entire parts. There is a disconnection between the conclusion and the other parts. The stance of the writer is not clear.</p>
<p>3. Grammar</p> <p><i>(the correct use of sentence structures, and types of clauses)</i></p>	<p>2. Such mistakes as “for give”, “for relaxing”, or “for processing” are bad examples of grammar. Some prepositions such as “with” were misused.</p> <p>1. Spelling problems appear in this composition. The use of “because” in the second paragraph is wrong. The writer misused such articles as “on” and “by</p>
<p>4. Style</p> <p><i>(the correct way of expressing an idea, a fact, a concept, or a thought)</i></p>	<p>1. In this composition the writer seems to have translated from Turkish and this made the composition difficult to comprehend. “Book is book” is an example of translation. He asked some rhetorical questions, but one of them does not make any sense. “Why don’t we know the past before the books?” is a bad rhetorical question.</p>
<p>5. Range of vocabulary</p> <p><i>(the correct use of words to convey the intended message precisely)</i></p>	<p>3. The uses of “possession” or “books’ utilities”, “divert our knowledge” are examples of wrong vocabulary</p> <p>3. He also made translations from Turkish such as “public’s brain”.</p>
<p>6. Punctuation</p> <p><i>(the correct way for guiding readers to proceed through the text)</i></p>	
<p>7. Neatness</p> <p><i>(the paper must be clean and free from crossings and as such)</i></p>	

Appendix C

Interview Questions

- 1. Is there a separate writing course in the curriculum? Why or Why not?**
- 2. Would you like “writing” as a separate skill to be incorporated into the curriculum?**
- 3. Who are responsible for preparing the school curriculum?**
- 4. What factors do you take into consideration when deciding what courses to teach?**
- 5. Do you think the absence of writing courses in the curriculum brings about problems in the language production of the students?**



Appendix D**Documents from the Official Gazette Regarding the Compulsory****English Preparatory Education at Karadeniz Technical University**

13 Mayıs 1997 – Sayı : 22988

RESMİ GAZETE

Sayfa : 7

Yönetmelikler**Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesinden :****Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi Zorunlu Yabancı Dil Hazırlık Eğitim-Öğretimi Yönetmeliği****Kapsam**

Madde 1 — Bu Yönetmelik, Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü tarafından yürütülen zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimini kapsar.

Zorunlu Yabancı Dil Hazırlık Eğitim-Öğretimi Öğrencileri

Madde 2 — Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi öğrencileri, zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi bulunan bir bölüme kaydını yaptırmış ve açılan zorunlu yabancı dil yeterlik-seviye tespit sınavına katılmamış veya katılıp da bu sınavda başarılı olamamış öğrencilerdir.

Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliği hükümlerine göre lisansüstü bir programa kabul edilip de yapılan yabancı dil sınavında başarısız olan lisansüstü eğitim-öğretim öğrencileri, yeni eğitim-öğretim yılı başında zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimine kabul edilirler ve diğer zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi öğrencileri gibi bu Yönetmelik hükümlerine tabi tutulurlar.

Amaç

Madde 3 — Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretiminin amacı, öğrencilere kayıt oldukları eğitim-öğretimin öngördüğü yabancı dilde kendi konularında okuduklarını ve duyduklarını anlayabilme, kavrayabilme, metinleri Türkçe'ye çevirebilme, yazı ve sözlü kendilerini yeterince ifade edebilme, profesyonel, kültürel ve sosyal hayata gerekli olan dil iletişimini sağlayabilme yeterliliğini kazandırmaktır. Ayrıca, lisansüstü eğitim-öğretim öğrencilerini, meslek derslerini izleyebilecek, seminer ve tartışmalara etkin olarak katkıda bulunabilecek düzeye getirebilmektir.

Zorunlu Yabancı Dil Eğitim-Öğretiminin Süresi

Madde 4 — Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi, lisans öğrencileri için bir yıl hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi ve bir yıl destek eğitim-öğretimi olmak üzere en çok iki yıllık hazırlık eğitim-öğretimini kapsar.

Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimlerini başarı ile tamamlayan öğrenciler, asıl eğitim-öğretimlerine başlarlar. Asıl eğitim-öğretimlerine kaydolmayan öğrencilerin Üniversite ile ilişkileri kesilir.

Zorunlu Yabancı Dil Hazırlık Eğitim-Öğretimi

Madde 5 — Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi, Yabancı Diller Bölümü Başkanlığı tarafından hazırlanır. Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimine devam edecek öğrenciler, seviyelerine uygun sınıflara alınırlar.

Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi yıllık olarak düzenlenir ve süresi Yabancı Diller Bölüm Başkanlığının önerisi üzerine Üniversite Senatosu tarafından kararlaştırılır. Ayrıca, akademik takvimde belirtilir.

Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi süresince dersler, öğrencilerin seviyelerine göre haftada en az 20 saat, en çok 30 saat olarak düzenlenir.

Rize İlahiyat Fakültesine yeni kayıt yaptıran öğrencilere Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi Önlisans ve Lisans Eğitim-Öğretim, Sınav, Değerlendirme ve Öğrenci İşleri Yönetmeliğinin 23 üncü Maddesinin son fıkrası hükümleri uygulanır.

Sınavlar

Madde 6 — Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretiminde; yeterlik-seviye tespiti sınavı, ara sınavlar ve yıl sonu genel sınavı uygulanır. Her sınav yazılı, sözlü veya hem yazılı hem sözlü yapılabilir.

Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi bulunan bir lisans eğitim-öğretimine ilk kez kaydını yaptırmış öğrenciler yabancı dil yeterlik sınavına tabi tutulurlar. Ayrıca, zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretiminin yıl sonu genel sınavında başarısız olan veya bu sınava katılmayan lisans eğitim-öğretimi öğrencileri ve yüksek lisans eğitim-öğretimi öğrencileri, ilk açılacak yeterlik-seviye tespit sınavına alınır.

Başka bir yükseköğretim kurumunca veya Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü tarafından önceki yıllarda açılmış olan yabancı dil yeterlik-seviye tespit sınavını başarmış öğrenciler, zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimini başka bir yükseköğretim kurumunda başarı ile tamamlamış öğrenciler, Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesinde yabancı dil yeterlik seviye-tespit sınavı gerektiren bir eğitim-öğretime geçiş yapmış olan öğrenciler, zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretiminde başarılı olup da yeniden kaydını yaptıran öğrenciler ile TOEFL gibi uluslararası sınavlardan veya KPDS sınavından Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü Başkanlığının belirleyeceği puanları almış olan öğrenciler, zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretiminden muaf tutulurlar.

Yeterlik-seviye tespiti sınavı, yazılı ve sözlü olmak üzere tek veya iki aşamalı olarak yapılabilir. Bu sınavın uygulanış şekli Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü tarafından kararlaştırılır. Yeterlik-seviye tespiti sınavında başarı notu 100 üzerinden en az 80 puandır.

Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimine kaydolun öğrencilerin hangi grupta eğitim-öğretim görebilecekleri yeterlik-seviye tespiti sınavı sonuçlarına göre saptanır. Grupların sayısı, haftalık ders saatleri ve grup değiştirme kuralları, her eğitim-öğretim yılı başında zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi bölüm kurulunca kararlaştırılır.

Zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık eğitim-öğretimi süresince uygulanan çalışmaların kapsamı ve amaçları göz önüne alınarak, her yarıyıl içinde en az 2 ara sınav yapılır. Ara sınav tarihleri, Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü Başkanlığı tarafından yarıyıl başında ilan edilir.

Ara sınavlar dışında önceden tarih bildirilmeksizin kısa süreli sınavlar da yapılabilir. Bu sınavların katkı payları Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü Başkanlığınca belirlenir.

Yıl sonu genel sınavına, devam zorunluluğuna yerine getirmiş olan ve yıl içi not ortalaması en az 40 olan öğrenciler katılırlar.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Ali Őükrü ÖZBAY, born in Terme in 1972, completed his primary, secondary and high school education in Terme. In 1991, he began to study in the English Language and Literature department of Ankara University. Following his graduation from Ankara University in 1996, he worked for a year in Erzincan Anatolian High School. In 1998, he began teaching as a lecturer in the foreign languages department of Karadeniz Technical University. In 2001, he started his master in applied linguistics in the English department of Karadeniz Technical University, where he is currently teaching listening comprehension for preparatory class, expository writing for first year students, and translation for the first and second year students.