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Adopting a Student-centered Approach through Cooperative Learning to Enhance Students' Writing Skill: The Case of Second Year Students, University of Constantine

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Dedications

This work is dedicated to

My parents Nabil and Nadjah for making me who I am. I will always appreciate all they have done to me

My sisters and brothers for supporting me all the way through

My extended family

My friends

All who showed interest in my work

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Abstract

The study's focal point is to check whether cooperative learning is a step forward to create a well-managed classroom that allows effective learners' cooperation, performance and involvement. The study also sets out to investigate the way teachers of writing make students work jointly and whether teachers use cooperative learning appropriately at the Department of Letters and the English Language, University of Constantine. To see clearly into the efficacy of cooperative learning, the researcher advanced the hypothesis that if learners are taught writing from a student-centeredness perspective via cooperative learning, their writing is likely to improve. Two questionnaires, one for teachers of writing and another for a sample of second years, and a post-test were used to collect data about the various and pertinent issues on cooperative learning. The teachers questionnaire results showed that although teachers lack effective implementation of cooperative learning, they think it is efficacious in boosting learners' writing. The data of the students questionnaire, showed positive attitudes toward writing in small group contexts. To further evaluate the effectiveness of using cooperative learning in teaching writing, we conducted an experiment in which the Experimental Group received the experiment treatment, i.e. the adapted Student Team-achievement Divisions method (S.T.A.D). The students of this group were asked to accomplish five cooperative writing tasks and five individual writing ones whereas the students of the Control Group were asked to complete the same ten tasks individually. The analysis of the data of the experiment, after comparing the two groups' individual written works and after conducting the post-test, showed a significant achievement among the subjects of the Experimental Group in comparison to that of the Control Group. Such results bear out the research hypothesis (H_1).

Key words: Cooperative learning, the S.T.A.D Method, Writing

List of Abbreviations and Coding Conventions

C.L Cooperative Learning

Df Degree of freedom

P.B.L Problem-based Learning

S.C.A Student-centered Approach

S.C.L Student-centered Learning

S.C.T Student-centered Teaching

S.T.A.D Students Team-Achievement Divisions

S^2 Variance

T.G.T Teams-games-Tournaments

W.E Written Expression

$\bar{X}$ Mean

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General Introduction

1. Introduction

Teaching writing to second years needs a great deal of effort for it is the time to show to students how to write a complete essay with its different paragraph types. In this situation, students need to be more immersed in learning and teaching need to be well prepared and applied. In effect, the Student-centered Approach to teaching emphasizes the significance of giving more attention to classroom management and to the learners' role in the classroom through incorporating learning experiences that engage them and that offer clear expectations. One way to achieve this is to make students work in small groups.

2. Statement of the Problem

From classroom reminiscences, we noticed that when teachers of writing in our department make students write together in small groups, they tend to use the group work technique that is less structured, rather than cooperative learning methods. Some Written Expression teachers seem to lack the required knowledge to employ this method in an efficient and structured fashion. Hence, learners display little awareness of what exactly to do in small group situations in terms of skills to use and roles to undertake. In other words, if learners are not made aware by their teachers of the objectives of working together, and how to effectively function in small communities, less learning –we think– will take place, and thus this situation may not contribute to the development of their performances as student writers.

3. Aims of the Study

The research tries to examine the suitability of employing cooperative learning in writing instruction. More specifically, it attempts to investigate the efficacy of Slavin's (1995) student team-achievement divisions method in boosting the learners' writing skill. Another major objective of the study is to cast light on the W.E teachers' attitudes about the way they

use cooperative learning or the group work technique in teaching writing. It is believed that learning outcomes are largely associated with instructional strategies that teachers employ in classrooms. For such a reason, this work entails equipping teachers with 'a toolkit' of a range of instructions that are expected to create an effectual cooperative environment in writing classes. Together with this, it is essential to probe the learners' standpoints on this issue as they are the main concern of the work; we believe their opinions on cooperative learning would help us understand their needs as student writers.

4. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The research puts the following questions:

- Is cooperative learning an efficacious approach to teaching writing?
- What views do teachers and students hold about cooperative learning?
- How can we possibly use cooperative learning to boost students' writing proficiency?
- Is the student team-achievement divisions a suitable cooperative learning method to implement on second year learners?
- Do Written Expression teachers use cooperative learning or group work technique at all? If yes, how?
- Do they know how to implement cooperative learning the way it should be?
- How do they truly manage cooperative learning/group work in their classes?
- What are the factors that influence employing this approach effectively in the classroom?

In consideration of the above questions, we hypothesize that implementing cooperative learning through the adapted Student Team-achievement Divisions method within the perspective of student-centeredness in teaching writing is likely to boost the students' writing skill.

5. Population and Sampling

The population of our interest are second year students at the Department of Letters and the English Language, University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine. The sample involves fifty students chosen randomly from the parent population of second-years.

6. Research Tools and Methodology

For the requirements of the research, a pilot study was carried out to help the researcher have a flavor of the study ahead as to reconsider, and adjust some points to be used in the main study. The pilot study consisted of two questionnaires, one for five Written Expression teachers and another for eight students, and an experiment.

For the main study, two questionnaires were used. A questionnaire was handed to eighteen Written Expression teachers to probe their attitudes toward cooperative learning in teaching writing, and to see whether they really employ cooperative learning in their classes. The questions were around cooperative learning, the group work technique, classroom management (how they organize the classroom when they make students work together), and the issues that hinder them to best employ cooperative learning/group work. This questionnaire helped uncover and gain an understanding of important issues in connection with cooperative learning/group work and writing instruction. The other questionnaire was given to a sample (N=50) of second year students. This questionnaire was to explore students' attitudes, standpoints, and difficulties when they work in small group situations.

The other research tool, the experiment, involved two research groups namely an Experimental Group, who received the research treatment -that is the adapted student team-achievement divisions method, and a Control Group who did not receive the research treatment together with a post-test. This experimental design is adopted to mainly test the

hypothesis, which seeks to investigate the efficacy of our treatment with specific reference to teaching/learning writing.

We first employed the adapted student team-achievement divisions method to make students cooperatively brainstorm and do activities. Such a cooperative work aimed at making students negotiate meaning, learn from each other and solve problems. To check this, we used of a post-test in which both the Experimental and the Control group were asked to individually write an essay about a given topic. By means of the t-test, the students' grades were used to see whether there was a significant difference in achievement between the two groups.

7. Structure of the Study

The study is divided into five chapters, three of which are theoretical; they offer a review of literature on teaching and learning writing, students-centered teaching and cooperative learning. The fourth and the fifth chapters are the practical part of the study that analyzes the collected data to check the research hypothesis.

Chapter One provides a literature on writing giving its definition, approaches to teaching it and the difficulties learners find when they write. The chapter presents writing as a cognitive skill that requires students to go through the process of thinking, reflecting and revising. This makes it a challenging skill that is not easy master. The chapter also describes the basic approaches to writing, namely the Product Approach, the Process Approach, the Genre Approach, and the Process-Genre Approach. In this chapter, there was also a discussion about teaching organization, content, style, coherence, cohesion, and punctuation and other basic writing elements, together with writing in language classroom, teachers' role and feedback.

Chapter Two deals with the student-centered approach to teaching and learning which sees the students as the focal point of any teaching/learning environment. Accordingly, this

chapter focuses on the shift from teacher-centeredness to student-centeredness for better teaching/learning practices to occur. Nevertheless, learner-centeredness does not at all disregard direct instruction and the teachers' role in education. The point is that teachers have to integrate a variety of teaching strategies that engage students in learning with certain level of responsibility and ownership of learning. A particular focus was also put on the principles this approach is based on which -if effectively applied and considered by teachers, would result in efficient learning and positive productivity on the students' part.

Chapter Three offers a review of literature on cooperative learning, which is seen as the most applied method of the student-centered approach. Light is shed on the gains that cooperative learning brings to learning from academic, social and psychological standpoints. This chapter also highlights the five key elements of cooperative learning that ensure an effectual cooperation in small group situations when well applied and considered. These elements include positive interdependence, individual and group accountability, interpersonal skills (social skills), face to face interaction, and group processing. The main methods of cooperative learning were embodied with specific focus on the student team-achievement divisions method which was employed in the study's experiment to check its efficacy on the students' writing skill. Further, some attention was consecrated to classroom management with connection to cooperation and other learning forms as individualistic and competitive learning. Eventually, this chapter stresses the use of reward system and the effect of cooperative learning on the student's individual achievement.

Chapter Four, set for the practical part, opens with a pilot study which is followed by a description of the sample, the teachers and students questionnaires. The data were tabulated and analyzed. The analysis yielded information on the way teachers consider and apply cooperative learning/group work practices and the students' standpoints and issues when they write together.

Chapter Five encompasses the situation research design in which an experiment was conducted to check the hypothesis. The chapter presents and describes the methodology followed; and demonstrates the experiment with the use of the adapted student team-achievement divisions method, the writing tasks and the post-test.

First, the adapted student team-achievement divisions method was implemented with the Experimental Group during three months in which students were asked to accomplish writing tasks cooperatively then individually. However, the students of the Control Group were asked to complete only individual writing tasks. Next, the Experimental and the Control group's individual written works were analyzed and compared to see how much improvement has taken place. Then, a post-test was used in which both groups were asked to write an essay about a given topic individually. The students' marks obtained from the post-test were used to make inferential statistics through a t-test to see whether there was a remarkable difference in achievement between the two groups.

Chapter One

Teaching and Learning Writing: An Overview

Chapter One

Teaching and Learning Writing: An Overview

1.1. Introduction

Writing has for many years accupied a significant place in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. The writing skill in an English language classroom is no exception and it is of great significance that students know how to write and express themselves in an appropriate manageable way tackling different topics and following given rules and conventions. These rules and conventions involve the way a piece of writing should be written in terms of the language, organization, content and even the steps to go through.

The aim of this chapter is to explore some of the insights in terms of how best writing can be taught and learned. There are matters of concern that we see important to be addressed to get the most out of teachers and students. We initiated the chapter by providing some definitions and views of the nature of writing. Then we touched on the challenging nature of writing and how teachers and learners can possibly handle it. A good part of this chapter focuses on the major approaches to writing instruction.

Next, the chapter proposes the main components of writing: organization, content, style, coherence, cohesion, unity and punctuation which are seen to be crucial elements for students to master to help them boost their academic prose. Further, the following issues are considered: *1)* looking at writing as a device to support learning the language as a system, and *2)* considering teaching writing as a skill on its own right. This chapter also stresses the tasks of the teacher in writing classrooms presenting the different roles they undertake to support student writers. Finally, two basic ways of reacting to students writing: responding and correcting are examined.

1.2. Writing Defined

Writing, a language skill, means expressing thoughts through written words. For Scrivener (2005:92) writing "involves a different kind of mental process. There is more time to think, to reflect, to prepare, to rehearse, to make mistakes and to find alternative and better solutions". It means that writing is done quite differently in comparison to the other skills. When writing, we generally go through a process of thinking, gathering information, organizing and modifying. It is a skill that needs time and reflection so that we can make ourselves clear to those who are going to read our works i.e. to audiences we cannot negotiate meaning with directly. To Clark and Mecceca (2007:4) writing is "an instrument of thinking that allows students to express their thoughts". Coulmas (2003:01) gives a further definition of writing by distinguishing six different meanings of writing: "(1) tactical marks; (2) the activity of putting such a system of recording language by means of visible or to use; (3) the result of such activity, a text; (4) the particular form of such result, a script style such as a block letter writing; (5) artistic composition; (6) a professional occupation". In effect, in each of the meanings Coulmas gives, it is clear that writing is truly a central skill in life, from being a symbolic system used for particular purpose to an art by itself or even someone's job. This is all to mean that writing offer manifold opportunities.

1.3. The Challenge of Writing

The challenge with writing is that it ought to be mastered by learners which is not easy to do. To many students, writing remains complex because they often equate it with difficulty, yet many of them are eager to master it. Gallagher (2006) thinks that writing is so difficult that it is considered the most intricate of all human activities. Hence, because writing is hard, not all students are willing to write; some seem to be not confident and not enthusiastic to start writing in English for several reasons in terms of language, ideas, etc. According to Harmer (2004:61) the learners' reluctance to write is because:

- They have anxieties about their handwriting, their spelling or their ability to construct sentences and paragraphs.
- They rarely write even in their own language and so the activity feels alien.
- They fear that they have 'nothing to say'.
- Finally, it is because writing just does not interest some students.

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) also try to explain the difficulty with writing saying that it lies on the fact that it needs time and effort for cognitive activities that the process of writing demands which themselves makes learners worried and anxious. Indeed, teachers of writing often notice that many students get bored whenever they are asked to write something (sentences, paragraphs or essays). It seems that such situation students live in is repeated which, if it seems 'natural', it is not definitely a welcomed behavior. Thus, instructors should not neglect such a students' attitudes vis-à-vis writing and should work accordingly to help them overcome that as not to "sugarcoat that message for (…) students [but rather to] highlight the difficulty as an opportunity for them to create something truly rewarding" (Gallagher, 2006:16). Although teachers cannot necessarily make writing a pleasure for every learner, they can help them gain confidence and knowledge to enable them to produce texts. In this context Harmer (2004:61) states:

> with students like this who lack formality or confidence with writing … we need to spend some time building the **writing habit** – that is, making students feel comfortable as writers in English and so gaining willing participation in more creative or extended activities. This will involve choosing the right activities…and providing them with enough language and information to allow them to complete writing tasks successfully. (Original Bold)

In addition to the strong knowledge background that students should have in order to make writing easier, they should also be made confident and enthusiastic to write. Further,

Taylor (2009) suggests that writing can be done without great difficulty if one learns how to cope with the problems he encounters when starting to write. That is, students can overcome writing difficulties by trying to find ways to locate sources of difficulty which face them when they compose a text.

1.4. Basic Approaches to Writing Instruction

There are basically four major approaches to writing. The first is related to the teaching of writing in which language is focused on and the emphasis being placed on correctness: *The Product Approach*. The second approach, however, sees writing as a process which involves steps or stages to go through focusing on both form and content: *The Process Approach*. The third classifies discourse to types of texts and tries to teach students that each type has a function and a form to reach social/academic purpose: *The Genre Approach*. The last is a mix that inherits features of both the process and the genre approaches: *The Process-Genre Approach.*

1.4.1. The Product Approach

Historically, the product approach to writing has been explicitly implemented in higher education, where the focus has been on learners' writing as a final piece or products (Coffin el. al., 2003). McLane and McNamee (1990) point out that instructors who use the traditional product-oriented approach tend to emphasize on the grammar and the mechanics of writing with less focus on the students' communicative goal. In the same context, Huber-warring (2008) adds that the major purpose of the product approach is producing error-free coherent texts. This means this approach pays more attention to the language used, as a system, rather than whether this language, as system and ideas, has truly fulfilled its communicative purpose.

De Villar et. al. (1994:162) explain how things work in the product approach. They posit:

> At its worst, the product approach to writing consists of the following linear steps: Teachers generally assign the same topic to all students with intent of determining if the students have mastered certain content rather than to determine if they can use writing to explore a topic (…) In some cases the instructor even stipulates a required length or specific structure for the writing. (…) the students then receive the graded papers back and either are not allowed to receive them or are required to edit mechanical problems. Such teaching practices produce writers with characteristics of poor writers. (…) they will pay little attention to planning or to the discovery of meaning.

Students in this case become passive learners who use writing to learn, maybe the grammar of the language and not to use writing for a communicative purpose (for the sake of writing).

The dissatisfaction of the product approach to writing instruction and its failure make an appeal to another different approach. Duntosky et. al. (2009) state that the prevailing approach to teaching writing shifted form a product (emphasis on mechanics and grammar) to a process approach. They add that unlike the product approach, in a process approach instructors create an atmosphere where students have time to write and reflect upon what they produced. In effect, the process approach sees writing as number of stages to go through and not a final text to be perfect.

1.4.2. The Process Approach

Any writer whether novice or experienced needs a way to end up his written work. The way we refer to here is 'the process' a writer goes through before submitting the final written piece to the intended reader which is so significant even to great novelists and writers. In an educational environment, students should be aware of such a process, and accordingly, writing is less difficult if they write from a solid knowledge base (I.S.P. Nation, 2009). That

is, if students do not know how to go through the different steps of the writing process, then this may create them some challenges as turning ideas into a well written text.

The word 'process', in effect, involves steps or stages that writers accomplish to reach the final draft of their works. The number of the steps within the writing process is not the same to many scholars. Pottle (2000) sees that the process is made up of six steps: (1) brainstorming,(2) developing sentences and paragraphs, (3) writing the rough draft-organizing paragraphs, (4) revising, (5) proofreading, (6) the finished piece. Johns (2004), however, has a different description of the process of writing: prewriting that involves planning and organizing, writing that involves drafting and rewriting involves editing and refining. Another possible division of the writing process is that of Foster (2010) who suggests that 'writing process guidebooks' typically describe five stages: planning, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing.

Even though the word process refers to different stages that follow each other in an ordered way, we still can go back to any stage when we need to. Donohue (2009) sees that the recursive nature of writing process, though more complex than linear, helps students reflect on their writing as well as teachers to give their feedback. In effect, as Gunnery (2007:6-5) sees, it is this recursive nature of the process that creates good writing. She suggests that:

> A difficulty in explaining the writing process is that we often make it seem linear and clean: pre-writing, drafting, writing, researching, conferring, revising, final draft writing and then publishing or sharing. It seems that one thing follows the other until the writer has accomplished a polished and presentable piece. This isn't the case, though – writing creates a mess! And it's the mess that's needed in order for writing to evolve into something "polished and presentable".

The significance of this recursive nature of the writing process may encourage teachers to make students aware of the fact that they may go back to any stage of the process if they

need to and that the process of writing should not be only linear. In what follows are the different stages of the process of writing that can be approached linearly or recursively.

1.4.2.1. Prewriting

The prewriting stage includes different ways students use to gather information and come up with ideas. The following are the most common ones.

1.4.2.1.1. Freewriting

One way to generate information is freewriting; it is starting writing on a paper without stopping to get information and know about the topic. For Johns (2004), freewriting may be applied not only to gather information about a certain topic but to discover the topic. The idea of writing without stopping helps the student not cut the chain of thoughts he has about the topic. Putting it much clearer, Elbow (1998) holds that free writing is the simplest way to get ideas on paper.

When using this strategy, students do not have to concentrate on the accuracy of their language, they "write without thinking about writing" (Tabb and Moore, 2001:15) i.e. they tend to focus on the ideas but not yet the language as a system. Next, when learners reach the other stages as planning and drafting, they should select only those relevant ideas and should make the necessary corrections and polish up. Thus, the main purpose of this strategy is just to generate information. For this reason, teachers should make students aware that at this stage they have to focus primarily on the ideas rather than the language since they will fix it later.

1.4.2.1.2. Brainstorming

Brainstorming is another sub-skill that helps students generate information about a given topic. Muschla (2011) points out that it is an intellectual, fast and active exercise the main aim of which is to expand ideas. This strategy can be done individually or within a group of students (American Books-works Corporation, 2010). It involves jotting down ideas

as they come to mind about the topic at hand. According to Johns (2004), the purpose behind brainstorming is to create a free flow of ideas before deciding which ones to employ; it is important that one generates information early without assessing them or carrying about organization or style. Although freewriting and brainstorming seem alike but 'freewriting' is completely individual; whereas 'brainstorming' can be done individually or in a group which requires discussion and negotiation of meaning.

1.4.2.1.3. Using Diagrams

Students do not have the same way of learning. Some respond well to what the teacher says in lectures; others, however, respond better to what the instructor draws or writes on the board. This also can be the same when it comes to information generation. Some learners may generate more ideas if they draw them on a paper like using diagrams or spiders. For Johns (ibid) it is useful for students who visualize information to draw a diagram of their basic ideas and main points as it helps them get a visible image of their topic.

Using tree diagrams in ideas generation means drawing a picture of what you know about a given topic in which the controlling idea developed is first written at the top of a blank piece of paper, then jot down everything that comes to mind (Bates, 1998). On making the ideas clearly seen on paper, Bean (2011) thinks that the visual nature of diagrams helps to see at a glance the 'skeleton' of an argument.

1.4.2.2. Planning

The planning stage or organization is the second step of the writing process which helps students organize the information they gathered in the prewriting stage. According to Harmer (2004), through planning, learners determine how to sort their ideas and how best to display their information. Planning also aids create a structure for the text (Soles, 2008). That is, planning involves putting information in the right order to give a clear picture of what the

essay wants to reach i.e. the writer's purpose. It is a map of the main ideas of the document, the major key points along the way (Johns, 2004).

Before the student writer starts to plan what he is going to write, he has to consider some important matters as *purpose, audience* and *content structure* (Harmer, 2004). First, the student writer needs to know his purpose behind writing for it will affect the text type, the language to be used and the information to be included. Second, he needs to know who the audience is because this will influence "the shape of writing" and language style i.e. whether to use formal or informal language, for example. Lastly, context structure is very important to take into account before drafting; it is about how best to arrange the facts, ideas or arguments to be used in the text (Kisser and Mandell, 2008). Yet, it is important to note that after planning, students can change, reorder the ideas in a different way during the drafting stage until they reach the final draft.

1.4.2.3. Drafting

Drafting takes place after that prewriting and planning are accomplished. It means starting putting the information gathered and planned into more meaningful related sentences which create, when it is finished, an unpolished paragraph or essay. Drafting for Moore and Cassel (2011:165) refers "to the writing of the paper, but it may also include cutting and pasting from prewriting activities", i.e. drafting can be done with less organization. According to Donohue (2009), during the drafting phase, the learners are able to craft their own writing. She suggests that at the level of this stage, the instructor can try different ways of support to help learners when they write; teachers can better assist their students' writing at all levels (grammar, form, content, style, etc). It is indeed a phase when students can be well supported by the teachers' feedback and help. Accordingly, the first draft is written with the aim that it will be modified later so learners may have many drafts before reaching the final version.

1.4.2.4. Revising

Revising is a step when to try to polish up writing most importantly the ideas and the structure of the written piece. In other words, it is the time to begin considering the general structure of the essay including the introduction and the conclusion (Glenn and Gray, 2011). Revision means 'seeing again'; it is not only polishing, it is considering the audience or reader needs by adding, replacing, omitting and recognizing material (Tompkins et. al., 2014). According to Moore and Cassel (2011), a good revision reexamines the arguments of the essay to make sure that the evidence used has been presented and expressed in a convincing way. This stage has to do with reconsidering the relevance of ideas and the suitability of using a given structure for a text. It is worth noting that students should not start revising early their drafts; it is better for them to think of big blocks of thoughts and attempt to combine them in a coherent manner (Olson, 1987).

1.4.2.5. Editing

After revising, writers move directly to the following step, editing. It involves reading through the text to decide what to keep and what to change; clarifying ambiguous or confusing structures; using different words, etc. (Harmer, 2004). According to Glenn and Gray (2011:21) editing:

> focuses on surface features: punctuation, spelling, word choice and standardized English, grammar, and sentence structure. As you prepare your work for final submission, consider reading it allowed to discover which sentence structures and word choice would be improved

Editing is, then, about reconsidering the text in terms of language as a system that involves checking the grammar, mechanics and diction of the text at hand. This is done to render it more appropriate to the message set in the mind by the writer to communicate to his audience.

1.4.3. The Genre Approach

The genre approach can be applied to writing instruction which sees discourse as typified texts. Historically, the word 'genre' was considered as "an old fashioned, traditional, and outmoded concept, associated with an emphasis on rigidity and formalist conventions"; recently, however, the term 'genre' has been broadened and redefined in relation to function rather than form (Clark, 2003:241)

In language teaching, this approach "refers to pedagogy that involves examining and deconstructing examples of genre (categories of texts)" (Bruce, 2008:06). In simpler terms, the genre approach involves teaching a range of text types as essays, editorials, and business letter so that students can understand the distinctions in structure, form and components to gain the required information to be able to write their own texts of the same type (Belbase, 2012). Likewise, Swales (1990) defined genre basically by its prevalent communicative purposes, explaining that a genre-centered approach to instruction would allow learners to perceive why a given genre had gained its characteristic features which assist them cerate that genre more successfully.

The aim of such an approach is to draw students and teachers' attention to the diversity of written texts which vary in terms of nature and purpose (Mercer, 1996). This is to mean that different genres require different structures, for example the degree of formality of an academic essay is quite different from of a letter to a friend and even the structures of both texts are very comparable.

Bruce (2008) holds that while many consider the genre approach valuable for the teaching of writing, an issue raises questions about how genre should be defined, which genre should be chosen and how they should be implemented for writing instruction in order to meet learners' needs. He observes that the variety of terminology given to discourse classification (genre) resulted in "the wide diversity of types of knowledge that constitutes

genre in these various proposals" (p.7). The following table provides a clear image of the diversity of approaches to text classification.

Whole text	Parts of texts
genre (Hasan, 1989; Swales, 1990; Behtia,1993; Flower, 1982) text genre (Pilegaard and Frandsen, 1996; Werlich, 1976) macro-genres (Martin, 1994, 1995, 1997) discourse type (Virtanen, 1992)	genre (Swales, 1990) elemental genre (Feez, 2002) text type (Biber, 1989; Pilegaard and, Frandsen, 1996; Werich, 1976; Virtanen, 1992) rhetorical functions(Selinker and Tribble, 1973; 1997) rhetorical modes (Silva, 1990) macro-genres (Grabe, 2002) séquence (Adam, 1985, 1992) discoures patterns (Van Djik, 1980) generic values (Bahtia, 2002, 2004) language styles (Bloor, 1998)

Table 01. Diversity of Approaches to Text Classification (ibid: 07)

Bruce (2008) adds that the problem of terminology does not only include the many labels we have for texts types/genres but also involves a disagreement about the nature of 'genre': for whether it is a social phenomenon or a cognitive one. To solve the terminology problem, it is suggested that any discourse classification is related to one of the two categories either the social genres which are created to achieve socially recognized and understood purposes, as personal letters, novels and academic articles, or the cognitive genres which refers to the overall cognitive orientation of a piece of writing in terms of a particular rhetorical purpose as the narrative, expository, descriptive, argumentative or instructional text types (Pilegaard and Frandsen, 1996).

However, what's problematic about the genre approach is probably its rigidity. This approach provides certain types of texts focusing on the conventions related to every text type that limit students' imaginative engagement in writing which may become a 'straitjacket' that makes teachers follow one rigid and unchanged curriculum (Mercer. 1996; Fox and Street, 2007). Nevertheless, in considering the above discussed approaches, there was a possibility that 'genre' can be equated with 'process' considering the strengths of both approaches. This

possibility sees an interrelationship between genre and process which leads to the emergence of a recently introduced approach namely *The Process-genre Approach*.

1.4.4. The Process-genre Approach

In the Process-genre Approach 'process' and 'genre' are seen complementary approaches in which writing includes knowledge about the language and context in which the writing happens, and the purpose of the writing as well, as in the genre approach; and skills in using the language such as planning, drafting and revising as in the process approach (Benjamins, 2009). When proposing the newly emerged approach, Badger and White (2000) consider that it allows learners to study the relationship between purpose and form for a specific genre while using the recursive process of the prewriting, drafting, revision, and editing (in Belbase, 2012). In other words, while the genre-based approach focuses on writing *purpose*, language and context, the process approach offers a *framework* to effectively teach writing skills (Sarjit and Poon, 2005). Badger and White (2000; in ibid.) suggest the following teaching procedure for the process-genre approach that is divided into the following six steps:

1.4.4.1. Preparation

The instructor starts preparing the learners to write by defining a topic and relating it to a specific genre, such as an argumentative essay arguing for or against an issue of current interest. This helps students to perceive the structural features of the genre.

1.4.4.2. Modeling

At this stage the instructor presents a model of the genre and asks learners consider the aim of the text. For instance, the purpose of an argumentative essay is to encourage the audience to act on or believe in something. Then, the teacher explains how the text is organized and how its structure contributes to accomplish its purpose.

1.4.4.3. Planning

This step involves various meaningful activities that help students generate information about the topic, including brainstorming, discussing, and reading related material. The purpose is to allow students develop an interest in the topic by associating it with their experience and real world.

1.4.4.4. Joint constructing

In this stage, the teacher and students work jointly as an initiation of writing a text. In so doing, the teacher applies the writing processes of brainstorming, drafting, and revising. The learners give information and ideas and the teacher on the other hand writes the generated text on the board. The final draft offers a model for learners to refer to when they write individually.

1.4.4.5. Independent constructing

Now, students individually accomplish the task of writing about a similar topic. For this stage, the task can be done in the class where the teacher is there to facilitate leaning and support students. But, if the teacher decides to assign it as homework, he has to clarify what students should do.

1.4.4.6. Revising and editing

In the last step, students have to revise and edit the final draft. When it comes to evaluation the teacher can allow for peer correction. Students may examine, discuss, and assess their work with their mates while the teacher again guides and facilitates. The teacher may publish the students' work, as a way to motivate them become effective writers.

The process-genre approach is diagrammatically illustrated in the following figure:

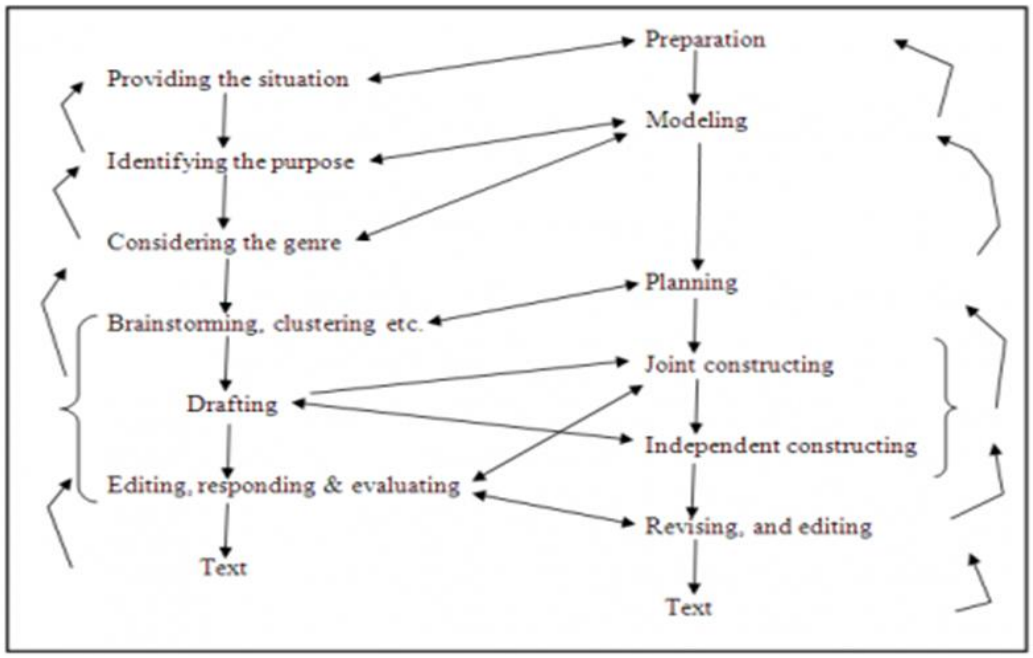

Figure 01. Illustration of How the Six Steps Interact in a Recursive Way with Themselves and with Other Writing Skills.
(Badger and White, 2000; in Belbase, 2012)

It can be noticed in this figure that like the process approach, the genre-process approach stages also have a recursive nature in which they interact with themselves and other writing skills but with a special focus on a given text type.

1.5. Basic Components of Writing

Organization, content, style, coherence, cohesion, unity and punctuation are important components of writing. If considered and used properly by writers, they ensure a clear, understandable and organized text. In what follows, the focus is on essay writing.

1.5.1. Organization

Organization in writing is significant in that it allows the audience to clearly follow the writer's focal points and chain of thoughts. When a student starts to draft an essay, for instance he has to make sure it contains an introduction, developmental paragraphs and a conclusion; he has also to check that the thesis statement reflects the main idea of the essay and that the paragraphs respect paragraph format (Tarafder, 2009). Likewise, McCormack and Slaght (2009; in white, 2010) consider that a well organized essay is easy to follow, in which the major ideas and the general structure are clear to the reader. He adds that the introduction should contain general statements and followed by a well formulated thesis statement; the body paragraphs should be written in a coherent way to facilitate reading; and eventually, the conclusion has to recapitulate the major points of the essay. In effect, it is organization that represents the 'skeleton' of a text or an essay; a reader can simply recognize or identify the main point when he just reads the thesis statement, the topic sentence or even the conclusion.

1.5.2. Content

Content is another component of writing that involves information, ideas, examples, etc that make up a text. The ideas included in a text should be relevant supporting details as statistics, expert analysis, relevant quotation or anecdotes (Dang et. al., 2005). Further, Hinkel (2010) states that lessons in academic writing often emphasize the fact that the instances used in written academic discourse need to be relevant to the main points and ideas tackled in support of the writer's thesis. This is to mean that the suitability of the instances used in written texts should adhere to the text's main theme. According to Scarry and Scarry (2014), when writing, a learner has to include content or supporting details with regard to the method of development he uses; for example, if the learner is describing a person's appearance, then he has to use details that entail sensory images. As students start planning what to write, they need to consider the ideas or the information that are focused, relevant and supporting.

1.5.3. Style

Style is a notion of writing that is very crucial so as to communicate a specific writing purpose. According to Zeidler (2005) style is very challenging because various academic discourse communities have certain and special styles of writing which involve word choice, terminology, etc. However, writing style is not only concerned with choosing words but also concerned with tone and structural relationships between words (Alcorn, 2002). We believe that our style is defined by the vocabulary we select (simple or large), by the tone we use (formal or informal) and by sentence construction (complex or simple, native like or non-native like).

On the other hand, Bond and Hughes (1994) describe good and bad styles in relation to essay's style for situational writing in which personal eye-witness account is reported. They state that good style is informative, detailed and accurate while bad style is descriptive vague and subjective. However, Hayot (2014) explains that style involves the sentence-and paragraph-level effects of grammar, diction and figural language the interaction of which creates a writerly style or one's own style. To reach its communicative function, style in writing should adhere well to the purpose of text or the writer's intention in which diction, tone and sentence structure are adequately employed.

1.5.4. Coherence

Coherence is a condition of clear writing; it has to do with arranging ideas or sentences in a reasonable way so that readers can make sense of what writers are communicating in their texts. According to Hinkel (2004) coherence refers to the organization of discourse in a text that fit together logically. In other words, coherence occurs when the ideas or the sentences are related to each other so that every sentence explains or is connected to the one before it. It is also about how a text is arranged, how the information is put and how the content sticks together (Wendling and Robert, 2009). Putting it much clearer, coherence is a result of

considering different factors, "which combine to make every paragraph, every sentence, and every phrase contribute to the meaning of the whole piece" (Kies, 1995).

Coherence remains definitely a necessary element in writing which guarantees a clear understanding of texts. With it, readers can follow writers' chain of thoughts reaching the intended meaning they want them to get. Therefore, writers should explicitly clarify and carefully plan coherence patterns they use in a text (ibid.).

1.5.5. Cohesion

For a text to be coherent, cohesion is another writing element that is needed to be considered. Cohesion is the 'glue' that sticks the ideas together by means of linguistic devices such as words and phrases; it helps gain a coherent text at the level of a paragraph and at the level of an essay (Zemach and Remisek, 2003).

However, if a text contains many of the linking devices, this is still not a guarantee to make sense in case the ideas in that text *are not* put or written in a logical understandable way. Harmer (2002:24) gives an example of a cohesive text but not a coherent one:

> This made her afraid. It was open at the letter's page. His eyes were shut and she noticed the Daily Mail at his side. She knew then that he had read her contribution. Gillian came round the corner of the house and saw her husband sitting in his usual chair on the terrace. She had never written to the paper.

Even though some cohesive devices are used in this example (this, it, his, she …), the text remains largely incoherent for there are some sentences which should appear before others and vice versa**,** for example *Gillian came round the corner of the house and saw her husband sitting in his usual chair on the terrace* should come before *His eyes were shut and she noticed the Daily Mail at his side.* This is to mean that what make a text coherent are not only the connectors but also the logic that hangs the ideas/sentences together.

In sum, for a text to be clear and understandable, coherence and cohesion or at least coherence, should be considered when writing. For the teaching of writing, instructors should draw a distinction between coherence and cohesion as well as shed some light on the fact that a coherent text can be cohesive but a cohesive text may not be necessarily coherent.

1.5.6. Unity

In addition to coherence and cohesion, all good expository writing should exhibit unity. Unity means that all the ideas and sentences used in a text are related to one topic; in other terms, it is "the quality of centrality and relevance, or belongingness" LepionKa (2008: 118). Teachers of writing need to make their students aware of the importance that all the ideas in their writing should relate to the main idea of the text and that including irrelevant information breaks the unity of that text. To help students produce a unified text, Zemach and Remisek (2003) suggest that one way to keep an essay unified is to omit unnecessary and irrelevant ideas right from the outline.

1.5.7. Punctuation

Angelillo (2002:8) defines punctuation as "the system of little symbols [that] is full of meaning, nuance, and intricacy". In other words, (1) punctuation means something in writing; indeed, every punctuation mark has a sense and a function as well, (2) not all writers use the same punctuation conventions and, (3) this system is not easy to learn, teach, and master. In short, Angelillo describes punctuation as something important not absolute and complicated.

It is of central importance to learners to master the skill of using punctuation in their writing for most of the time students' writings are judged by the quality of their punctuation. Harmer (2004) points out that sometimes if commas, full stops, or any other punctuation marks are badly or wrongly used, this does not only give a bad impression about writing but also make a text difficult to understand. In effect, punctuation can serve as a guide for readers to make sense of the writer's ideas and even emotions without which the text will not

communicate much of the desired meaning. For instance, the exclamation point is used to express strong emotions as surprise and anger and if a writer does not insert an exclamation mark after a sentence that is supposed to express anger then we may not understand that he was angry, we may have other interpretations.

It grows paramount that instructors make students read and write more effectively, and make reading-writing connections so as to enable their students see how punctuation marks are being judiciously used (Edgier, 2007). In other terms, what should be shown and clarified to students is the significance of using punctuation marks in their texts by making them aware of that through *reading* because it pictures how those marks are actually used.

1.6. Writing for Learning and Writing for Writing

1.6.1. Writing for Learning

Writing for learning means writing for the sake of learning the language. Students may learn better grammar, vocabulary and so many language aspects through writing (Harmer, 2004). In other words, learners use writing as a vehicle to reach certain language objectives that is, through learning how to write well, students can be encouraged to develop their language.

Interests in writing for learning are based on the belief that the act of writing promotes thinking and learning. Armbruster (2005) describes writing as a tool to develop concepts and generalizations, promote critical thinking and problem solving, analyze and reflect on their thinking and understanding, gain new insights, and contribute to learning and remembering content information. For example, students can best learn how to use English tenses if they are given an opportunity to use them in sentences or even paragraphs the aim of which is to relate the rules on tenses with appropriate contexts. For this reason, as language teachers, we have to consider the vital roles writing plays in the process of learning a foreign language for it does not only develop the skill itself (writing) but other language aspects as well.

1.6.2. Writing for Writing (Writing-to-Write/Learning to Write)

It is clear that 'writing for learning' focuses on the by-product of the activity rather than 'writing itself' and so it is not necessarily helpful for students to write more effectively (Harmer; 2004:34). It seems, then, that writing to learn emphasizes other language aspects and other language practices but not the process of writing a text. However, teaching 'writing for writing' is different; the objective here is "to help students to become better writers and to learn how to write in various genres using different registers (…) to communicate real messages in an appropriate manner" (ibid.).

For Couzijn and Rijlaarsdam (2005) learning to write is about developing the writing skill and not merely constructing a text. Thus, developing the writing skill, which is one of our research concerns, involves knowing the different aspects and processes connected to it. In this context, Juan and Flor (2006) set out that the consensus of current research is that learning to write in a foreign language basically includes learners fostering: 1) features of the text they compose, 2) their processes of writing, and3) their adherence to the social context. In other words, learning to write consists in developing the skill of writing itself by improving grammar, diction, mechanics, content form etc, the writing process as well as the communicative and the social roles of the text. All in all, writing for writing is not a means to reach any course objectives but a goal to make students work on the process of writing with all its features and aspects.

1.7. The Tasks of the Teacher in Writing Classes

1.7.1. Demonstrating

Demonstrating has to do with how teachers present a writing assignment and with what they ask students to be aware of before they start a writing activity/task. According to Hunt et. al. (2009) "a demonstration primarily involves showing". This means, as demonstrator, the teacher shows learners how a task is done, offers models of good practice, describe processes, and clarifies procedures.

The way teachers demonstrate a writing activity/task is very crucial. Students need to be given a writing assignment which is clear and straightforward. In sum and as Gallagher (2006) states students do not require an instructor who assigns writing, they require an instructor who demonstrates what good writers do.

1.7.2. Motivating and Provoking

Students usually find it difficult to start writing directly after they are given the topic. They require a kind of encouragement from their teachers for good writing to take place. When teachers build trust, embolden risk taking, and consider mistakes as learning opportunities, students will become enthusiastic and motivated to reach their potentials as writers (Richards & Hawes, 2004), and will have "the opportunity to write (…) in a supportive, risk-free environment" (Turbill and Bean, 2006:36).

Peterson (2008) also recommended that learners should be invited and encouraged to write about topics which are interesting and challenging. According to Gallagher (2006) a good way to encourage learner to initiate writing is to let them know that not all what they write will be graded. In what follows, Killen (2006:297) suggests some points to motivate learners to write:

- Encourage students to write about things they find interesting.
- Give students opportunities to write about things they think they understand well.
- Have students write about challenging things, not just basic things.
- Accept different forms of writing. Model good writing practices for your students but look beyond technical aspects of their writing when providing feedback.
- Be satisfied with students writing short pieces until they develop confidence to write longer pieces
- Help students to understand that the quality of their writing is determined by how well it helps them to understand, not by its length.
- Give students encouraging feedback on their writing.

- Encourage students to revisit things they have written so that they can see how their understanding and their writing ability have developed.

It seems that encouraging students to write involves paying close attention to a number of things most specifically their interests, needs and abilities.

1.7.3. Supporting

While students are writing, they need assistance on the part of the teacher. The teacher's role as a supporter is to help students get ideas for the text they will write (Hedge, 2000). According to Horning and Beker (2006) the teacher takes on the role of supporter by engaging in the writing process in which he creates an atmosphere where learner and teacher can freely exchange ideas (give-and-take process) or even by sitting side-by-side or at around table which allows leaner and teacher review the paper together. To Carrasquillo and Rodriguez (2002), however, to produce successful writers, one of the things a supporter teacher should emphasize is to give students chances to choose their own topics so that they become personally engaged in their writing.

Furthermore, supporting students includes that "teachers act as facilitators, organizing writing experiences that enable learners to develop effective composing strategies" (Richards, 1990:11). Hence, when students feel supported by their teacher, their learning process is facilitated, and so they become highly motivated to write more effectively and succeed.

1.7.4. Evaluating

In the role of assessor, teachers of writing check each learner's writing to determine its strengths and weaknesses (Richard & Hawes, 2004). When the teacher responds to students' work, he does so while the learner is drafting his piece of writing telling him what limitations are in the work and often proposes some suggestions to improve it. To put it in other words, the teacher does not grade the work as a final product but only draws the students' attention to the mistakes and what might possibly make the piece better. The teacher, as Richards

(1990:111) puts it, is “an investigator of the writing process”, that is, one role an instructor can undertake in assessment is to respond to learners’ written work to get an image of how well their work is going so far.

In fact, instructors should offer a variety of feedback that emboldens and boosts students’ writing (I.S.P. Nation, 2009). Peterson (2008) hopes that the teacher’s feedback helps learners become better at composing so that comments help them gain confidence as writers. Evaluating is not only for grading, it is also considered as a learning opportunity; it is a chance for students to look at their mistakes. As assessors, teachers’ aim is not to attempt to boost students’ skills to write perfect or artful written pieces; nevertheless, they should not be satisfied with unqualified writing (Hinkel, 2004).

1.8. Assessing Writing

At any stage in the writing process, learners need the instructor’s feedback to make the right corrections and modifications concerning the language, ideas and organization of the text they are preparing. Feedback helps novice and even advanced learners know more and better the language and the writing process as well. In effect, assessing writing does not only involve evaluating students’ work during the writing process, it also includes correcting the students’ writing final product. In this regard, Harmer (2004) points out that at different stages in the writing process, instructors must provide learners with editorial comments, suggestions, or language advice. He adds that they expect an evaluation from their teachers on what they are doing or what they have done”. In the same context, Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (2006) state that feedback can take two forms *spoken (oral feedback)* or *written* and that it can take place after or before the writer has finished his work; they add that evaluating or judging writers at various steps of the writing process is beneficial and stimulating.

1.8.1. Responding

The major goal for responding to learners' works is to help them polish up their writing. Responding means discussing student's writing on earlier draft rather than judging it (Ferris and Hedgcock, 2014). It is a way of showing the teacher's feedback to students in which he tries to discuss – but not yet judge – the students' work. In this case, the instructor can ask students, for example, about the reason they organized the ideas in a given way and he (teacher) can even give some suggestions about such a point. In the following figure, it is shown that responding takes place in earlier stages of the writing process:

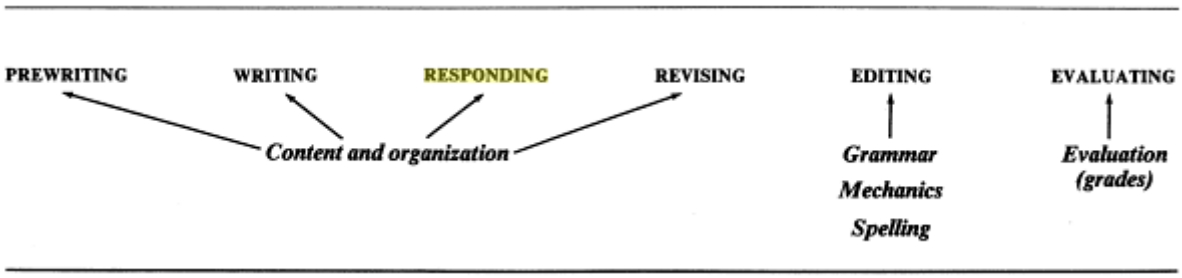

Figure 02. Stage of the Writing Process

(Gray, 1987:202)

It is a good technique for students to get from their teachers an image of how well their works are going so far. According to Lippman (2003) formative assessment (responding) focuses on describing learners writing while they are still in the process of writing the aim of which is to help them enhance their writing ability.

1.8.2. Correcting

Correcting is the time when teachers show deliberately the students' mistakes on issues such as syntax (word order), concord (grammatical agreement between subjects and verbs), collocations (words which live together) or diction (Harmer, 2004). Lippman (2003) labels correcting as summative assessment which "aims to measure the success of a particular

endeavor after it is over" (p.203). She adds that in assessing writing, the objective is not to "shape students' thinking or learning", but rather to judge how well learners have done in a writing task (ibid).

However, there is something problematic in correcting which cannot appear in responding. The problem is that after students give their final draft to their teachers, they might not get feedback or assessment soon enough. About this Couzijn and Rijlaarsdam (2005) put it:

> Getting feedback is very difficult for writers, since usually a considerable difference in time and/or space keeps them separated from their genuine test case: the reader. This is a serious problem for writing instruction because in many domains, feedback is known to be mainly (or even: only) effective if it follows directly after the task. If a writer has to wait for days or even weeks before getting information about the inadequacy of his task execution, it will be very hard for him to link concrete writing strategies to (evaluations of) their real consequences (p.212).

Indeed, the fact that some teachers spend a long time correcting students' writing, may make learners forget even what they have exactly done and so they do not know what to focus on. Because a learner cannot rely heavily on another reader to evaluate his works the same way he does with his teacher, he is obliged to wait until he gets feedback sooner or later. For this reason, teachers of writing have to do their best to make 'the distance' between feedback and students as shorter as possible. It is true that it is not easily possible in overcrowded classes but one way to minimize the pressure of having a lot of papers to correct is the implementation C.L in which there are less papers to correct and so that the distance between feedback and students can be shortened .

A major controversy about writing assessment, however, concerns with whether it should be in a form of correction or commentary (responding). Sommen (1982) points out that more traditional approaches to writing instruction believed that by correcting learners

mistakes in final drafts, their writing would be improved (in MacArthur, 2006). Nevertheless, focusing on correcting students' final drafts only will make them concentrate on issues like sentence structures and mechanics (ibid). In effect, writing has not to do only with language as a system but also with process, ideas, coherence, cohesion…etc. For such a reason, assessment should not only be concerned, with how well language is used but also with how well ideas are; and not only in the final draft but in the different stages of the writing process. Hamp-lyons and Heasley (2006) believe that both commentary and correction are significant in writing assessment and the role of instructors is to discover which works effectively for given learners and for certain stages of writing.

Both responding and correcting can be considered when assessing learners' writing ability. What is important is that teachers should know exactly when to use them –that is, they can respond to students' work only when they are still writing (during the process of writing) and they can correct their works when the task is over. All in all, assessment is a significant element of writing instruction; when effective assessment takes place and when students truly consider the assessment with due care whenever they get it, this is expected to boost their writing.

1.9. Conclusion

In language teaching/learning, writing is seen a primordial tool for communication, a skill that is taught and learnt. For teaching/learning writing to occur, great efforts should be made on the teachers and students' part. To achieve this, they should both have a strong knowledge base of how this can possibly be done. Hence, one of the things that this chapter has tried to show is the four basic approaches to teaching writing that could be interrelated bringing a newly emerged approach called 'The Process-genre Approach'. This approach is expected to help students integrate the skills of the process approach with its recursive nature and with different types of texts which have certain forms and functions.

However, things are easier said than done. Even though this approach is said to be very helpful for teaching/learning writing, writing remains a challenging area for many students. Learning to write in a foreign language is, in fact, a demanding task. Accordingly, teachers and students have to play an effectual dynamic role to empower the writing ability. W.E teachers are not only preparing students for the sake of the exam, but more for significantly manifold use of this skill. Thus, having an awareness of what writing consists of on the teachers and learners' part is likely to help them translate this knowledge in the classroom and even outside it.

Chapter Two

Student-centered Teaching and Learning

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Student-centered Learning and Teaching

2.1. Introduction

Classrooms were often all about the teacher. This 'sage on the stage' was the dominant behavior in education where the aim of the teacher is to transfer knowledge to the students. Perhaps, changing the focus from the teacher to the learner is a little hard; it is easy to stand up front and lecture for hours but not as easy to create an environment where students take the central part of learning and engagement. Thus, the shift to a more student-centered classroom was necessary.

Moving to a student-centered approach (S.C.A) requires the teachers to have a clear understanding of the nuts and bolts of how to successfully implement it. This chapter provides a framework of this teaching approach that can be regarded as an open door to engagement, autonomy and active learning. It first explores the nature and the roots of this approach then highlights the shift from teacher-centeredness to student-centeredness. The chapter also looks at the different principles that make the 'skeleton' of any learner-centered classroom. It also touches upon the various roles and tasks that teachers as well as students undertake in the classroom.

2.2. Student-centered Teaching Defined

Student-centered teaching (S.C.T) is an approach that has received considerable attention in education. This instructional approach employs certain strategies and applies principles which would make learning more active and engaging. It is the shift from the focus on teaching to the focus on learning. According to Sweat-Guy and Buzzetto-More (2007), the S.C.A centers on learners by considering their needs, perceptions and by offering them chances and possibilities to choose what to learn. Making choices about what to learn is a part

of sharing responsibility with the teacher i.e. one of the key principles of S.C.T is responsibility that students undertake in the learning process. However, this does not entirely mean that students have a complete freedom and power over their learning; it is advisable to make students choose what and how to learn when they are ready (Nunan, 2013).

In a S.C.T environment, the students' needs are taken into account in terms of objectives and preferences in learning. For Phifer (2002) the student-centered classroom is often a suitable context for less able learners who are seen as students who have different ways of learning, not as students who have weaknesses and cannot learn. This entails that choices of what and how to learn are offered for different learning needs and levels. In a similar vein, Boghian (2013) posits that S.C.T puts emphasis on the students' needs rather than on other actors (teachers, administrative) included in the educational process. A more holistic definition of S.C.T can be that of McCombs (2004) who defines it as:

> the perspective that couples a focus on individual learners (their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities and needs) with a focus on learning (the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs and about teaching practices that are more effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning and achievement for all learners.

As a matter of fact, learner-centeredness, as its name indicates, focuses on learners and learning i.e. what learners need, prefer, have and what they are able to do. These are valued in accordance with knowledge and teaching in order to motivate students learn and ultimately do well and succeed.

Brandes and Ginnis (2001:06) state that "student-centered learning is not a bag of trucks; it is about attitudes and relationships". To Brandes and Ginnis this approach needs preparation, planning and decisions to be made about learners and learning. Further, the teacher's relationship with the students and the students' relationship with each other are seen as important to be considered and valued. The shift to such an approach requires a solid knowledge about the underlying principles that make up an active learning environment

whereby students are the focal point in the classroom and in which they are supposed to be actively engaged in the learning process.

2.3. Student-centered Teaching Roots and Origins: An Overview

The term 'student-centered learning' (S.C.L) was put first by Carl Rogers (ibid.). In effect, S.C.A to teaching and learning is taken from his Theory of 'Therapy, Personality and Interpersonal Relationships' in (1959). In such a theory, he "provides a basic hypothesis underlying person-centered teaching/learning as a constructivism tendency characterized by realness-acceptance, and emphatic understanding" (Sweat-Guy and Buzzetto-More, 2007:117). Rogers' theory was most probably influenced by the constructivist approach of learning which addresses learners' social skills and personal experiences. S.C.T. is considerably influenced by the works of Piaget (1970) and Vygotsky (1978) on constructivism which is a prominent educational theory (Weimer, 2002; in Osborne, 2008). According to the constructivism view, knowledge should be actively constructed by the learners (Sridevi, 2008). Further, for Jillings (2007) S.C.T, within the constructivism perspective, acknowledges the individual and the cooperative construction of knowledge in the process of learning.

A notable feature of the constructivist learning is 'cooperation' among students; it is through interaction with each others that students construct knowledge (Baets and Linder, 2003). Piaget's constructivist theory focused on individual cognitive development where the students construct meaning via active and prior knowledge and observation (Mayes, 2006). On the other hand, Vygotsky's social cultural theory centers on the social nature of learning in which students construct their concepts collaboratively to learn a specific skill (Du, 2011). In a nutshell, the S.C.A to teaching and learning values the individual development of learners as they construct meaning and knowledge as well as their social interaction among each other to work interdependently.

2.4. Student-centered Teaching versus Teacher-Centered Teaching

Before shifting to a more learner-centered classroom, teaching was the prominent concern of educators; the focus was on teaching and how teachers can possibly transmit knowledge to students who passively receive it. In effect, the distinction between student-centeredness and teacher-centeredness is quite noticeable in that the focus of teaching is not only on teaching itself but also on learners and the process of learning.

According to Boyle (2012:72), teacher-centered classrooms have the instructor as "the core learning experience and place students in passive role". Cooper et. al. (2009) add that it includes a systematic direct way or instruction of how to use a skill, strategy or a process. Learning in the traditional classrooms is direct and less engaging where students sit watch and passively receive knowledge from a teacher whose aim is to transmit this knowledge regardless of whether students are at the heart of the learning experience. Doyle (2008) believes that many university students think that much of work should be done by the teacher which is not surprising because this is usually what they experience for much of their education. He adds that the learners' mantra of "tell me what you want me to know and I will learnt it and give it back to you" is there and thriving in higher education (ibid:7). This denotes that the teacher-centered environment does not encourage, innovation, critical thinking and control over one's learning. It is far away from capturing the students' full interest to learn since they do not feel active and engaged in the learning experience but rather feel they are being fed with what teachers want them to grasp instead of making them construct their own knowledge under their supervision.

The student-centered classroom is a contrast in function and purpose to the traditional teacher-centered one. In the learning environment of the former, the focus is placed on learning and learners, where students are actively engaged in doing something as they undertake greater roles and responsibility over [their own] learning. S.C.T fosters learning by involving students in a much firsthand learning and by engaging them in personal learning

experiences; they can possibly discover things by themselves, develop critical thinking, connect their learning to the world around them and use their innate curiosity, if they have one, to find out the power of their own learning (First Hand Learning Inc., 2007; in Doyle, 2008). Further, Nunan (2013:93) contends that one of the key differences between student-centeredness and teacher-centeredness is that in a learner-centered curriculum "key decisions about what will be taught, how it will be taught, when it will be taught, and how it will be assessed will be made with reference to the learner."

The S.C.A to teaching and learning considers the learners' interests, needs and abilities and so decisions about teaching/learning are taken on the basis of what fits the learners. In the following page is a table is Hurimi's (2005) comparison of key instructional variables in teacher- and student-centered learning environments. He compared their learning outcomes, goals and objectives, instructional strategy, assessment, teacher's role, student's role and environment.

Instructional variables	Instructional Approach	
	Teacher-centered	**Student-centered**
Learning outcomes	• Discipline-specific verbal information • Lower-order thinking skills (e.g. recall, identify, define) • Memorization of abstracted and isolated facts, figures and formulas	• Interdisciplinary information and knowledge • Higher-order thinking skills (e.g., problem solving) • Information processing skills (e.g., search for, access, organize, interpret, communicate information)
Goals and objectives	• Teacher prescribes learning goals and objectives based on prior experiences, past practices, and state and/or locally mandated standards.	• Students work with teachers to select learning goals and objectives based on authentic problems and students' prior knowledge, interests, and experience.
Instructional strategy	• Instructional strategy prescribed by teacher • Group paced, designed for average student • Information organize and presented primarily by teacher (e.g., lectures) with some supplemental reading assignments	• Teacher works with students to determine learning strategy • Self-paced, designed to meet needs of individual student • Student given direct access to multiple sources of information (e.g., books, online database, community members)
Assessment	• Assessment used to sort students • Paper-and-pencil exams used to assess students' acquisition of information • Teacher sets performance criteria for students • Students left to find out what teacher wants	• Assessment integral part of learning • Performance based, use to assess students' ability to apply knowledge • Students work with teachers to define performance criteria • Students develop self-assessment and peer assessment skills
Teacher's role	• Teacher organize and presents information to group of students • Teacher acts as gatekeeper of knowledge, controlling students access to information • Teacher directs learning	• Teacher provides multiple means for accessing information • Teacher acts as facilitator, helps students access and process information • Teacher facilitates learning
Student's role	• Students expect teachers to teach them what's required to pass the test • Passive recipients of information • Reconstructs knowledge and information	• Students take responsibility for learning • Active knowledge seekers • Constructs knowledge and meaning
Environment	• Students sit individually in rows, information presented primarily via lectures and reading assignments	• Students work at stations, individually and in small groups, with access to electronic resources

Table 02. Comparison of Key Instructional Variables in Teacher- and Student-centered Learning Environments
(Hurimi, 2005:105)

For Lucido and Borabo (1997), the shift to a more S.C.A to learning will be noticeable in the upcoming years. However, this approach may not be suitable all the time for everyone. Archer and Hughes (2011) explain that many learners find it difficult to learn when less guidance and support are provided. This denotes that this kind of students may learn better if teachers teach more, explain more and guide more. They add that appropriate use of L.C.T can be by incorporating some elements of teacher-centered explicit instruction. Cooper et.al. (2009) point out that some learners get knowledge through direct teaching better; whereas others can construct knowledge better through S.C.T. Further, they believe that a good teacher uses different ways of instruction in accordance with the students' abilities and needs and the tasks they are to accomplish. This means that students require the implementation of both student-centered and teacher-centered instruction. It is important to note that student-centeredness does in no way neglect the role of the teacher and his contribution in the learning enterprise.

2.5. Student-centered Instruction Gains

The student-centered approach with its principles and components and the benefits that it brings to learners and learning lay on the fact that "it is all about them". This approach promotes learners' personal development (Weimer, 2013). Students, with the teacher's aid, can develop lifelong learning skills that involve the 'learning-how-to-learn' skills and strategies required to solve learning problems (Doyle, 2008). Implementing student-centered principles in the teaching and learning processes would make students more involved by making them do something in the classroom in which autonomous learning stakes place. In so doing students would attempt to develop ways, skills and strategies to learn and know how to face learning complexities and challenges whenever they surface.

Fostering students' critical thinking is one of the student-centeredness priorities. Phifer (2005:49) puts that "goals in student-centered, lifelong learning classrooms foster students' curiosity, questioning, and critical thinking". That is, the activities used in the

student-centered approach helps students think critically in which they ask questions about information and try to use ways to understand it by comparing, analyzing and evaluating. In the same context, Hurimi (2005) explains that learner-centeredness facilitates students' learning by helping them develop their skills when it comes to critical thinking, problem solving and decision making in which they access, interpret, organize and apply information. This means students' learning is supported by materials, activities and tasks that would make them try various strategies to solve learning problems and to know how to make the right learning decisions when they feel unsure or stuck about what to do next in a given task or activity.

About the psychological health, Noonan (2013: 64) suggests that students "benefit from the arousal of positive emotions (…) experience enjoyment through novelty (…), and enjoy learning with peers". In other words, when students are engaged in the learning process, they become more motivated and enthusiastic to learn. They may enjoy the novelty of the student-centered models of teaching and learning in small groups as well.

2.6. Learner-centered Approach Principles

In order to establish a positive classroom environment and promote favorable student-centered classroom, there must be a set of components, characteristics, more particularly *principles.* The principles are what guide and describe the teacher as a facilitator when implementing the S.C.A (Weimer, 2013). According to McCombs and Miller (2009:33-34), this approach reflects four domains which provide a general way of viewing how the individual principles combine and interact to influence learners and learning this include:

- *Cognitive and metacognitive*: the intellectual capacities of learners and how they facilitate the learning process;

- *Motivational and affective*: the roles played by motivation and emotion in learning;

- *Developmental and social*: the influence of various, diverse aspects of learner development, and the importance of interpersonal interaction in learning;

- *Individual differences*: how individual differences influence learning, how teachers, students, and administrators adapt to learning diversity; and how standards and assessments can best support differences in learners. (italics mine)

These domains affect learners cognitively, emotionally, socially and individually. That is, they allow learners to be knowledge seekers in which they develop and use cognitive skills to construct meaning and store information; considering these domains helps create a suitable climate for learning in which students can easily be engaged and motivated to learn. When learners feel that their needs are valued in a way which allows them to interact with each other, they are likely to succeed academically. Further, socially they gather students to work jointly as well as consider individual differences in which choices, interests and preferences in learning are respected. The interaction of those domains yield a certain set of principles which would make the classroom a better context for learning and create facilitative teaching. Likewise, Brandes and Ginnis (2001:6) state: "when the fundamental principles of a S.C.A have been internalized by the teacher, each day in school can be fresh and new and unpredictable". The principles are what the teacher relies on to create a context of different teaching strategies that tap into what students value. In the subsequent page are the six student-centered teaching principles.

2.6.1. Actively Engage Learners

To actively engage the students in the learning process, a number of factors should be taken into account one of which is the use of a variety of learning activities that stimulates students interest (Portman, 2011). Learning is meaningful when topics are relevant to students' lives and interests. If this happens, they can actively be engaged in constructing their

knowledge; they take part as active participants in the learning experience. This entails that learning activities should be relevant and satisfactory to students which to capture their full attention.

Explaining the material clearly is another factor which ensures the student engagement. They can be cognitively as well as emotionally engaged with learning if the material is carefully designed and presented. Further, knowledge is best learnt when presented in a meaningful context of pre-existing knowledge of personal experience. It is easier for students to understand the material if teachers design instructions, assignments and activities around what they know or have experienced. Weimer (2013:76) points out that "the instructional design aspects of the teachers' role are integral part of learner-centered approaches. They are vehicles through which learning occurs".

Another interesting factor which actively engages learners has to do with the use of a variety of methods that encourage active and deep approaches to learning. Chickering and Gamson (1987) think that a teacher should use active learning techniques (in Osborn, 2008) Teachers are required to implement multiple instructional strategies that foster critical thinking, decision making, reflecting, making inferences and problem solving.

2.6.2. Demonstrate Empathy and Respect

To Kenny (2013), demonstrating empathy and respect involves showing interest in students' opinions and concerns; seeking to understand needs, prior knowledge and approaches to learning and encouraging interaction between instructor and students. What Kenny is driving at is that student-centeredness involves valuing the learners' views and interests; this can be achieved by respecting and listening to their ideas. This would raise students' enthusiasm to participate in the classroom for learners would feel that their opinions are valued and heard and their interests are taken into consideration.

Instructors also need to consider the learners' pre-existing knowledge and ways to learn. Students are seen as knowledge seekers, in so doing they use a number of methods, strategies and techniques and what teachers are required to do is trying to understand them. According to McCombs and Miller (2009:33), one of the key processes involved in developing learning learner-centered principles and practice is "finding strategies that acknowledge individual differences and diversity of learners' needs and interests". On what concerns abilities, Blumberg (2009) states that when a teacher has less able students, he may pay careful attention to how he designs or implements the course.

Student-centered classrooms encourage interaction between teachers and students. Instead of having the teacher as 'a sage on the stage'; someone who lectures and goes home, learner-centeredness invites a positive interaction between the knowledge seekers (students) and the facilitators (teachers). This would show the teacher's empathy toward his students where they can ask questions and give answers in order to boost the give-and-take learning process.

2.6.3. Communicate Clear Expectations

This principle includes making the intended learning outcomes and standards clear for performance; providing organization, structure and direction for where the course is going (Kenny, 2013). This means stating the course objectives first to students and what is expected from them to master in the end are recommended. It is believed that the reason behind communicating such expectations is to put focus on the content to be learnt. If students know exactly what they have to center on during the lecture, they will probably perform better i.e. when students' awareness is raised about a given input, they are expected to notice it and give it more attention.

Effectively organizing and structuring the course ensures emphasis on the content being learnt and carefully states the direction of the course objectives. About this Ferris and Hedgcock (2014:173) posit:

> thinking carefully about how to lead students from their current level of toward established standards also enables teachers to make their aims explicit and transparent to students, who can then understand the purposes underlying classroom activities and assignments.

When teachers consider a given aim for teaching, course content and activities *should* point *toward* the achievement of that aim. This may involve planning the course, carefully and implementing the suitable strategies and techniques for instruction as well as assessment.

2.6.4. Encourage Students' Independence

Attard et. al. (2010) suggest that in a student-centeredness context, students should have control over their learning. Students' sense of ownership and responsibility is enhanced by giving them more power and chances to develop personal interests. In addition, learners are offered choices; they have choices in topic study, things to write about, assignment descriptions and ways of assessment. Nevertheless, some students can handle more choices, others fewer choices but students do have choices. In effect, there is not one degree of choice that is right for every situation. McCombs and Miller (2009:33) state that one of the student-centered principles involves "tailoring strategies to differing learners needs for personal control and choice…" At times, the teacher is the one who chooses how and what students learn.

2.6.5. Create a Teaching and Learning Community

This principle has to do with implementing C.L techniques. According to Kenny (2013), it consists of using teaching methods and learning strategies that encourage mutual learning, as well as thoughtful, respectful and collaborative engagement and dialogue between all

members of the classroom community. Weimer puts it (2013:81) "much research… establishes that a range of different group structures enable students to learn from and with each other". This includes making students work jointly in small groups to do a task or accomplish a project in which they are asked to create a small community for learning to succeed in the work at hand.

2.6.6. Use Appropriate Assessment for Learning

According to Portman (2011) this principle includes putting learners at the heart of assessment in which students are involved in the process of evaluation by means of peer and self-correction. Further, the assessment methods used should serve the course objective; they should go hand in hand with what the course expect the students to achieve, understand or master in the end. The harmony that exists between the way teachers evaluate the learners and the intended course outcomes is vital. Teachers need to explain and show to students how they are assessed by providing criteria for evaluation. On the whole, assessment should be purposeful and well planned to ensure effective learning.

In S.C.T, both formative and summative assessment are considered parts of continuous assessment and regarded significant in teaching. Freeman and Lewis (1998:33) postulate that:

> Current thinking favours continuous assessment (…). It helps you to take account of variability in students' performance. By means of [it] you can also pace students, ensuring that they keep up with the work.

Continuous assessment is a consistent evaluation of the learners' work and participation in the classroom that enables a teacher to take a wider view of their performances. Furthermore, in order to improve teaching and learning, student-centered instructors are advised to review relevant information on how to best teach and get students learn. In this context, Nicholls (2005) thinks that teaching needs teachers to go over discipline-specific literature on instruction and learning, center reflection on certain areas of one's practice and

focus teaching on both learners and learning. In effect, teachers should keep up with whatever is current and effective in teaching.

2.7. Student-centered Teaching Methods

Learner-centeredness represents the core of some teaching methods; these include: C.L, active leaning and problem-based learning. They are regarded the most common methods of S.C.T.

2.7.1. Cooperative Learning

C.L and S.C.A are closely tied for the former is viewed the most applied method in comparison to the other student-centered modes. Price-Rom (2008) contends that it is worth noting that of all the learner-centered approaches to teaching, C.L proved to be the most popular. Increasingly, effective instruction is shifting to C.L modes, to easily implement S.C.T (Roueche, et.al, 2003). It seems that this direction allows for a variety of ways to realize the S.C.A. principles by offering students opportunities to work, think and share ideas in small groups; then they can be at the center of learning; consequently, learning takes place. Importantly, Wesley-Smith and Goss (2010:147) put that in "[cooperative] learning, instruction is learner-centered rather than teacher-centered and knowledge is viewed as a social construct, cooperatively and collectively developed by students". That is, in cooperative contexts, learning is considered a social act and students are seen central and developers of that act.

For Bourman (1997) one of the reasons that values C.L is that it makes learning student-centered where learners work together and assist one another for a shared goal instead of staying and watch the teacher lecturing. In effect, successful implementation of C.L method, ensures a creation of a student-centered environment in the classroom as it makes the learners active in which they can do a number of things: interact, share ideas, solve problems and

construct their own knowledge; they become more autonomous and responsible of their learning and that what student-centeredness calls for.

2.7.2. Active Learning

Active learning is a teaching method that encourages students' engagement and involvement and that focuses on learner and learning (Roueche, 2003). Student-centeredness and active learning are closely aligned in that both of them invite students' into an active engagement and a dynamic participation in doing an activity or solving a problem. Likewise, Gabriel (2008) points out that active learning pedagogy values learning which is the core and the ultimate objective of learner-centered paradigm.

Michael and Modell (2003:06) define an active learning environment as "one in which students are engaged in the process of building testing and refining their mental models." For Barkley (2010), active learning means that the mind is actively engaged where students dynamically participate in their learning by reflecting on and monitoring both the process and the ultimate outcome of their learning. In the same vein, Moore and Moore (2004) think that active environment assists learners focus on certain practices that are productive, and encourages them achieve and master specific academic standards. They add that this can be achieved by varying the delivery of methods; identifying barriers to learning; utilizing social and cooperative groupings; and continually providing ample practice opportunities.

Doyle (2008:11) suggests some examples of active learning activities that involve peers working together: playing a game, working in pairs to solve a problem, drawing a concept map of their understanding, answering questions in pairs and sharing answers and doing a role play. Furthermore, according to KenWorthy-U'Ren (2009), learners who prefer active learning activities have an opportunity to learn from their real experience. In a nutshell, active learning "is to learner-centered teaching as bread is to butter" Weimer (2013:39).

2.7.3. Problem-based Learning

One of the methods that is closely connected to S.C.T is the Problem-based Learning Approach (P.B.L). Lorbeer and Scrooggins (2008) point out that P.B.L is a more specific from of S.C.T that was first developed at McMaster University in the 1960s. In a P.B.L context, learners work in teams to solve a problem where they identify learning issues and put a plan for sharing the work to find a solution to the problem (Nelson, 2007). Likewise, Orellana et. al. (2009) think that problem-based learning focuses on solving authentic issues and encourages critical thinking, analytical and reasoning skills. In a similar vein, Bussert et. al. (2008) state that problem-based learning is an instructional strategy which promotes critical thinking and long term learning. The idea is that P.B.L is based on problems to be solved critically by students who would develop skill and strategies to succeed in doing so. This can be done individually or in small groups where the teacher is a guide and a facilitator.

P.B.L is an instructional method which is based on real-world problems where the solution of a problem invites and motivates students to learn (Glasgow et. al., 2010). In other words, the problems (real world problems) are selected to achieve certain learning or course objectives and the solution process offers a way for students to engage effectively with the subject and content of the learning (Oliver, 2002). Solving problems and figuring out solutions are stimuli for learning; it is a way to make students critical thinkers, active and engaged, learners who rely on themselves as a team. In effect, they work together and on their potentials which eventually provoke learning.

About this Battino (2002:14) indicates that S.C.L. and P.B.L "suggest the idea that learning improves if the learner is immersed (…)". This means learning occurs more effectively if students were fully engaged in doing stimulating activities and P.B.L ensures such involvement and engagement through solving authentic issues which need them to think critically and so develop and use their cognitive skills. In P.B.L, students "explore a variety of information sources to help them understand and analyze questions relevant to their own

lives" (Peterson, 2010:77). When students attempt to solve problems, this helps them use many data and information they already know to analyze the questions at hand. According to Rimondini (2011) learners are motivated and encouraged to learn by the problem-based approach because the problems they try to solve themselves act as a motive for learning i.e. they consider them challenges.

2.8. Learners within Student-centered Environment

Students are the first concern and the core of the S.C.A. In any student-centered classroom, learners change their role from 'spoon fed' students to knowledge seekers, decision makers and active participants. Responsibility is one of the major aspects of student-centeredness whereby students take ownership of the learning experience. This responsibility involves a number of things like decisions, choices and preferences in learning. However, Nunan (2013) thinks that it is wrong to assume that students can inherit an ability of choosing what and how to learn, not all learners are naturally endowed with such choices.

Further, Weimer (2013) postulates that learners who are new to S.C.T often tell teachers that they cannot do what they are asking. For this, instructors should gradually start using student-centered activities so that students can resist to more work. Asking students to be 'leaner-centered' is too demanding for some of them because it necessitates more work on their part. Moving to more student-centered classes should be carefully calculated so that learners do not repel from such a relatively new environment. We think this can possibly be done by gradually introducing the approach through less demanding activities.

2.9. Teachers' Task in Student-centered Classroom

In the S.C.A to teaching, the teacher's task is different in comparison to the traditional teacher-centered one. In a student-centered class, teacher-talk fades away to pave the way to a more student-talk and engagement (Boghian, 2013). Teachers should give more chances and

opportunities for students to be engaged in the learning experience through student-teacher interaction or student-student interaction.

In student-centeredness, the task of the teacher is not easy as one may think because there is less teaching. It is a bit challenging for teachers to effectively undertake a role in which one should consider a number of things to 'make' successful learners. Brandes and Ginnis (2001) explain that for teachers who are starting to move to a more student-centered context, there may be a period of inexperience whereby they may slowly take more risks and face challenges; yet it is possible for them later to increase confidence and experience to invent not just adopt ideas; they can even motivate students to improvise and make their own learning experiences. It may seem hard to be a student-centered teacher for the many considerations that should be met to create a vivid environment for learning, however; it would be a great satisfaction if we, teachers, see visible results of such careful planning and preparation.

Furthermore, McCombs and Miller (2009) think that the role of teachers shifts to that of co-learners and supporters of the social and interpersonal development of the students. This entails that the students' relationships with each other is one of the learning requirements that teachers should ensure to develop social skills for better learning to take place. Hattle (2012:140) adds that "the essence of the student-centered teacher is fourfold: (…) warmth, trust, empathy, and positive relationships".

Another role of the teacher in a learner-centered environment is that of offering learning opportunities and present possibilities for study through exploration and discovery (Sweat-Guy and Buzzetto-More, 2007). On the other hand, Barnard (2005) suggests that the teacher's major role in the student classroom is that of a facilitator; this needs a change in thinking from the instructor teaching learners to the instructor as a contributor in the student learning process. Likewise, Grant and Hill (2006) state that even though the students have certain authority in S.C.L, the teacher still facilitates learning by helping the learners with refining

goals, selecting resources, creating elements in the project and so forth. A more detailed description of the teacher as facilitator can be that of Phifer (2002:47) in which he facilitates students' choices and growth:

- The facilitator creates the environment and produces to help students determine parameters and expectations.
- Facilitators plan learning activities to motivate and cultivate involvement and successful progression of learning.
- Teachers in the facilitator role teach students to use problem-solving to determine best alternative for their actions.
- Teachers listen to students to determine student needs and wants.
- Teachers or trained students may assume the role of mediator to guide students in resolving conflicts.

For McCombs and Miller (2009) teachers' who implement the S.C.A are aware that the learning experience is a natural, life long process. Motivation to learn is also natural when the learning context is encouraging and engaging.

2.10. Conclusion

The student-centered approach is an approach to teaching that is increasingly being encouraged in higher education. In learner-centeredness, students have more power and choices and become more responsible for their learning. Teachers, on the other hand, should be mindful of how to share power with students, how to ensure engagement and active learning, and above all, how to be successful facilitators of learning. To make this learning/teaching mode work, certain principles should be applied. These principles include: actively engaging learners, demonstrating empathy and respect, communicating clear expectations, encouraging students' independence, creating a teaching and learning

community and use appropriate assessment for learning; they can lead to effective schooling and positive productivity on the teachers and students' part.

A successful student-centered classroom is the one which integrates a variety of teaching methods and strategies all of which invite and encourage students seek knowledge, construct meaning and take ownership of their learning. This approach does not only make students the focal point of learning/teaching but also critical thinkers who try new and different ways to solve problems. In a nutshell, student-centered teaching is a mode of instruction and an enterprise worth considering.

Chapter Three

Cooperative Learning: Methods, Motivation and Achievements

Chapter Three
Cooperative Learning: Methods, Motivation and Achievements

3.1. Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the exploration of a teaching approach namely *The Cooperative Learning Approach*. Cooperative learning (C.L) is defined and the advantages that it brought to teaching and learning are highlighted. Of a particular importance is the distinction that will be made between 'Cooperative Learning' and 'Group Learning' which is sometimes overlooked. Then, some light is shed on five key elements of this approach which represent the focal points that students should know and be aware of for effective cooperation to occur.

The core of this chapter centers on six main cooperative learning models developed by different scholars for various areas and grade levels. This chapter examines how cooperative learning can possibly be implemented in the classroom in terms of management, organization and students' grouping, and it evenly tries to consider the different tasks teachers and students undertake in cooperative learning contexts. Equally important, a part of this chapter attempts to trace back the shift from individualistic learning and competitive learning to cooperative learning and to try to show how that this latter promotes students' achievements in comparison to the other forms of learning.

Finally, the importance of integrating motivation and reward in optimizing cooperation and learning are signaled out. Then, some focus is put on the relationship between cooperative learning and later individual achievement.

3.2.Cooperative Learning Defined

As an operational definition cooperation means working together for a common goal. In classroom settings, the idea of cooperation stresses the point that students act as tutors to one another to learn. According to Coffey (2008), the C.L approach was developed to minimize competitive learning in American schools. In its broad sense, C.L is a variety of instructional methods in which small teams of learners work together and assist each other complete a task (Slavin, 1995; Jacob, 1999). For Farmer (1999:01), C.L "involves a structured group of people who have specific learning tasks to accomplish together". Indeed, C.L is not simply getting students to work together, it is structured in the sense that learners should know what they are exactly doing in terms of task/activity goals and how to cooperate effectively. They have to be made aware that they are not only working jointly but also participating, interacting, explaining, socializing, etc. Put differently, this approach is a grouping technique which is designed to increase learners' involvement by focusing on the social aspects of learning (Kennedy et. al. 2004). As a matter of fact, in a C.L class, teachers should have the basic knowledge of how to organize and structure the small groups (buzz groups) in terms of roles, steps to be followed, and assessment. In this regard, Cooper (2012) points out that C.L includes the explicit, conscious instruction of social skills.

Last but not least, Weinstein (2009:269) posits that "cooperative learning is a method that builds on the best of peer tutoring and the benefits of trying to teach something to someone else". This approach is expected to encourage students develop and use academic, cognitive and social skills for learning to take place. In other words, learners are expected to apply a variety of techniques to deal with one another in a team to accomplish the activity/task goal.

3.3. Cooperative Learning versus Group Learning

It is commonly held that 'cooperative learning' is 'group work', they have been even used synonymously (Ulrich & Glendon, 2005), but they are not exactly so, and it grows important to distinguish between the two. To Feinstein (2006:358), "group work is not cooperative learning", the two might share some points but are never the same thing. In group learning, for example, one or a few learners can do all the work; there is nothing to prevent a learner from being uninvolved or make his mate do the work (ibid.). Accordingly, if the group work does not include members who foster one another's learning and success then it is not C.L (Tenbrink, 2012). Conversely, C.L is the instructional implementation of small group activities where learners work together to promote their own and each other's learning and achievement (Johnson &Johnson, 1994 a.).

Williams (2007) states that group work is unstructured in comparison to cooperative learning where the task is clearly structured and the learning goals are completely explained to students. Traditionally, teachers often assign group work to be done outside the classroom with no time allocated to the groups' interaction and communication (Venable, 2002). In this type of learning that is out-of-class group work, students divide the work into parts each of which is the job and responsibility of one individual student that does not encourage interaction. Placing students in a group and asking them to work together without structuring the task or the activity or without making them aware of the basic principles of C.L is *group work* and not *cooperative learning*. Kagan and Kagan (2009) point out that without structuring the interaction of students when working together, it is unlikely that C.L will take place.

C.L is carefully structured, organized, prepared and planned, and grouping the students is no exception. In C.L, heterogeneous groups meet regularly but in group work they change every class period (Ulrich & Glendon, 2005). Further, the size of the team and the length of the time allocated for the task/activity should be tailored according to whether it is simple or complex (Ryan et. al., 2008) -that is if the task/activity is simple, a teacher can ask students to work in pairs or in three for a short period of time, but when the task is rather complex, he might form a group of three or more to work during the whole session. All in all, C.L needs more structure and preparation than does group work.

What can also distinguish C.L from group work is that C.L has crucial elements that must be considered (Stiles, 2006). For Kagan and Kagan (1998), group work does not promote positive interdependence or individual accountability and does not ensure equal participation and effective interaction among students. In effect, the basic elements should appear within small group work to be cooperative (Smink & Schargel, 2004). The main elements of C.L are the core of any cooperative structure and students should be aware of them; they include: *Positive Interdependence, Individual and Group Accountability, Interpersonal Skills, Face to Face Promotive Interaction and Group Processing* (cf. section: 3.5.). It is simple, in the structural approach if any one of the key elements is not applied during team work, learners are not doing C.L (Kagan & Kagan 1998).

In short, it is very significant to distinguish between C.L and group work before trying to start forming students into groups. In effect all "cooperative learning is done in groups, but not all group work is cooperative learning" (Ryan et. al. 2008:158). C.L can be described as a general term that group work, which is a small part, is included in.

3.4. Benefits of Cooperative Learning

C.L has manifold benefits. Slavin (1995) contends that it is an efficient instructional technique for a variety of learners in a variety of situations. This, indeed, makes C.L has a flexible nature; it can be used in academic settings from school to college and in different situation from simple classroom tasks to long term projects. For Grawford (2005), C.L is academically and socially good for it involves developing thinking and problems solving, raising motivation, learning interpersonal skills and promoting interpersonal and inter-group understanding. To these can be added psychological outcomes which are equally important as they form an integral part of the learner's personality (Agarwal and Nagar, 2011). The three basic categories of C.L advantages are as follows.

3.4.1. Academic Benefits

Most often academic advantages drawn from C.L activities interest teachers more because they are about learning as such. C.L can help students improve their problem-solving strategies because team members can evaluate each other's contributions (Farmer, 1999). In effect, learners can develop a sense of assessing one another where they can judge, revise and improve group opinions and productions. Doing this means that they are trying to work out problems, think and evaluate to accomplish the task/activity goal.

For Richards and Renandy (2002), when accurately organized and implemented, C.L helps optimize learning. They listed the following academic benefits (p.49-50):

- Less teacher talk
- Increased student talk
- More varied students talk
- More negotiation of meaning
- Greater amount of comprehensible input
- A more relaxed classroom atmosphere
- Greater motivation for learning

C.L activities get students to transfer knowledge, apply strategies and use materials to get the work done in the time available to them. Earlier on, Slavin (1986) asserts that research on high school college students and adults has proven that C.L can help students academically by developing critical thinking and other deep and sophisticated conceptual learning. He observed that students who were subjected to C.L models have evolved learning that is permanent, strong and enduring; additionally, they could think in a reasonable logical way through interaction and negotiation of meaning within small groups.

3.4.2. Social Benefits

In addition to academic achievement benefits, C.L also entails social benefits. For Zhang (2010) cooperation helps learners develop their social abilities. C.L teams act just like small communities where socializing is primordial and strategic to make common and shared benefits in return (Harris & Harley, 2004). In a similar vein, Laal and Ghodsi (2012) state that C.L builds a social support system for students; it helps students understand the diverse perspectives and it permits an establishment of a positive context for practicing cooperation.

When effective cooperative work takes place in the classroom, learners can learn how to handle group conflicts, how to work with individuals who are different from them so that they can cope with similar contexts in the future. Further, the social nature of C.L helps learners understand that their mates have different ideas, different ways of learning and different understandings of things. By so doing, students learn how to effectively negotiate and how to be more tolerant of their team members, as they would do in real life situations.

3.4.3. Psychological Benefits

On a rather personal stance, C.L provides a comfortable environment for the student to learn so that with his counterparts he learns to inquire and interact without, say, being embarrassed or hesitant. Hartman (2002) contends that this approach has a positive influence on the learner's self-esteem, helping behavior, interest, personal linking, mutual concern

among peers, cooperation, and positive attitude toward school and learning. Students can be more motivated because they work with their peers which is fun. To Macaro (1997:135) learners who were inquired about C.L asserted that working together with other students offers comfort and confidence because they feel at ease working with students "at the same level and pace than in the whole group situation". He adds that learners feel less anxious when the instructor is not in front of the class 'firing' difficult questions.

C.L provides a relaxing atmosphere that makes learners less frustrated; they can ask questions to their peers which they didn't dare asking to their teachers. It is expected that when C.L is well implemented, students are likely to get such an environment that makes learning more informative, fun and with less pressure. The idea of this approach is that if students couldn't understand a lesson point, for any reason, they may do when they work in teams since the groups are heterogeneous and cooperating appropriately. On the other hand, Slavin (1985:12) thinks that "increased self-esteem had been anticipated as an outcome of cooperative learning because students in a cooperative learning class feel more liked by their classmates and because they are likely to feel more successful academically". What Slavin is driving at is that when a learner feels a sense of personal worth and ability to do well or to work with other mates, this would make him respect himself and his abilities and liked by others as well.

3.5. Key Elements of Cooperative Learning

There are five main elements of C.L which ensure an effective cooperation in terms of academic and social achievements. For this reason, students should be explicitly taught those elements, understand them all and use them in any cooperative context.

3.5.1. Positive Interdependence

Positive interdependence means the students' awareness that every member is involved in the group work. Brody and Davidson (1998) explain that positive interdependence takes

place when students believe the group work succeeds only if everyone works. Basically, awareness that group success/failure relies on how much students care about supporting each other is of great use. It helps create a shared support among students and increases the devotion to the group's success (Giepen, 2010). This entails that when group members know that everyone is working for the group's success, they feel secured thus they work harder as a team. Furthermore, Jacobs (2006) writes that "positive interdependence is missing when students do not seem to care about helping one another to learn" (p.39). This means that it is also about helping, supporting and even tutoring one another. If students develop a positive interdependence when collaborating, they know that they have to 'sink or swim together' (Agarwal and Nagar, 2011). Not only this, positive interdependence boosts the quality of social harmony and peer tutoring (Palmer, 2000). Group's compatibility and assistance as a social community can be increased when learners are aware of positive interdependence and apply it as well.

3.5.2. Individual and Group Accountability

Individual and group accountability is another equally significant element of C.L that involves the feeling of being responsible and accountable to reach the group's task goal. It includes completing ones' part of the work as well as supporting the other team members complete their tasks (Fery et. al., 2009). Doing this is expected to raise learners' contribution and their enthusiasm to learn (Kagan & Kagan, 2009). When all team members share the work, it is more likely that they become motivated and more ready to succeed as a group. For Giepen (2010), each group needs to be responsible for accomplishing its goals and every group member should have a sense of responsibility toward the learning process and the group progress where "no one can 'hitchhike' on the work of others" (Agarwal and Nagar, 2011:25) i.e. all group members should *equally* participate.

3.5.3. Interpersonal Skills (Social Skills)

In a C.L context, students learn how to collaborate with their mates. Hines (2008) states that interpersonal skills should be taught to students to effectively cooperate. They represent the basic connection among team members, and if team members are to work together successfully and overcome stress, they ought to be to have modicum of these skills (Gillies et. al., 2008). Interpersonal skills (social skills) are required to function as a part of a team for they are basic skills of cooperative learning. They include leadership, decision making, trust building, communication and conflict management skills (Johnson& Johnson, 2003). These skills help learners to succeed in group and task work (Giepen, 2010).

3.5.4. Face to Face Promotive Interaction

It is the extent to which students participate and *interact* with one another within the small groups. Group mates are required to sit close enough so that effective interaction takes place (ibid.).Promotive interaction means that learners try to develop each others' success by helping, supporting, encouraging and praising each others' achievements to learn (Gillies et. al., 2008). Likewise, Laal et. al. (2013) think that when interacting, students share their knowledge, clarify what they comprehend and tutor one another. Face to face interaction is a path for students to share ideas, negotiate and understand one another. Students also require knowing that the ongoing face-to-face interactions are needed for success academically as well as socially.

3.5.5. Group Processing

Group processing is a sort of group assessment in which students clearly picture out both academic and social performances of the members. According Gillis (2003) group processing means determining what the group members have done and what they require to accomplish the group's goal i.e. it is about reflecting on their learning process. It is described

as discussing and reviewing how well or bad a group works together in order to decide on actions to take; this helps learners evaluate and enhance the quality of their work as a team.

3.6. Cooperative Learning Methods

Many methods have been developed in C.L. These methods are structured from both the social and cognitive-developmental perspectives. All cooperative models are based on social and psychological research and study (Slavin, 1986). What is common in both views is that they are socially oriented. The following are five common C.L methods:

3.6.1. The Jigsaw

This method was basically developed by Aronson (1978); it is one of the earliest of C.L models (Slavin, 1985). It involves dividing the material into parts in which every member of the team gets his part and starts to study it and understand it. In Jigsaw, students are grouped heterogeneously. Once done, every member then tries to explain his point to his mates and share the information -that is, the job of every individual member is to master the part of information on the material he has, and then teaches it to his group. The next step in Jigsaw is testing students and giving group scores. Goodman (1990) however, states that the original Jigsaw as put by Aronson involves no team scores. In order to clearly explain the method, Sanderson (2010) puts the following example.

> As part of history lesson, each [member] in the group might be given information about a different stage of a historical figure's life. Because each member of the group only has one piece of information, group members need to walk together to learn the information possessed by each student. This process gives each [member] a chance to explain his/ her material to the other students, and listen to one another (p.311).

For Kordaki and Siempos (2011), the application of Jigsaw method can be as follows:

1. Divide the material into subparts.
2. Group the students heterogeneously.

3. Assign roles and materials to each learner.
4. Form a group of experts.
5. Let the experts study the task and manage how to tutor it to their mates.
6. Let the experts instruct in their teams.
7. The teacher gives his feedback to the groups.

Jigsaw has at its core the idea that learners collaborate together toward a shared aim of mastering and understanding the material. Glasgow and Hicks (2003) assert that a study on the efficacy of the Jigsaw method was conducted with seven classes of learners in Grades 7 and 8 revealed that this method has social and academic benefits. This include: group of self-control, self-management, ambition, independence, social interaction, improved reading abilities, systematic reproduction of knowledge, ability to make conclusions and summarizing.

3.6.2. Group Investigation

The group investigation method needs the learners to build small interest teams, plan and apply their investigation, gather the team mates' results then present the work to the whole class (Tan et. al., 2006). In other words, students should first consider a common topic, decide on subtopics that interest every one of them, and then the instructor groups the students on the basis of shared interests. The following step is to get the learners plan the investigation and cooperate. Finally, results are presented and groups are evaluated.

It is worth noting that the grouping system of this method is based on the students' interests in a given subject for study and investigation (Ellis & Steven, 1998). This means that students organize themselves into groups because they share the same concern i.e. the groups are to some extent homogeneous not heterogeneous as in other CL. models.

An example of this kind of grouping is given by Larson and Keiper (2011) where the students who are interested in the same topic work together:

> If the teacher wants students to examine stem cell research and then craft a policy recommendation to their state senator, some students may be interested in cloning others in controversies surrounding cloning research and others in stem cell potential. (p.178)

The objective of group investigation is to learn the material and know how to implement it (Sharan et. al., 1999). By the same token, Ellis and Steven (1998) reveal that what is central to this model is planning what they will investigate and how they will investigate it. Similarly, "the approach focuses on the cooperation, investigation and interpretation of a problem situation" (Fechner, 2009:44). Group investigation is based on four principals named the four "I's": *I*nvestigation, *I*nteraction, *I*nterpretation and *I*ntrinsic motivation (Tan et. al., 2006). Investigation means that groups focus on the process of investigating or making inquiries about a selected topic. Interaction is a characteristic of C.L methods in which learners explore the topic or task at hand. Interpretation takes place when the group gathers and analyzes the findings of each member to foster understanding and to clarify ideas. Finally, students' intrinsic motivation is raised by giving them autonomy in the process of investigation. Tan et. al. (ibid) point out that this method de-emphasizes reward. It fosters intrinsic motivation maybe because they study what they like and what they are interested in or because the task "specialization diminishes the chance that anyone student can do all the work while others get a "free ride" (Feldman, 1990:157). The group investigation method consists of six stages:

- Identification of the topic of study for the groups.
- Planning the group investigation.
- Carrying out the investigation.
- Preparation of the final product.
- Presentation.

- Evaluation. (Ellis & Steven, 1998).

Zingaro (2008) states that research findings acknowledge higher levels of achievement from group investigation activities as compared with whole-class teaching. He adds that it has been found that group investigation fosters positive inter-ethnic relations and raises intrinsic motivation.

3.6.3. Learning Together

This method is developed by Johnson & Johnson in the 1970s whereby learners work in small teams on one paper or a work-sheet for which they earn rewards (Slavin, 1995). According to Jacob (1999) "the learning together method is rooted in motivational theory" (p.18). Learning together focuses on a team stressing group task goals and reward (Tasai et. al., 2011). The main concern of this method is to make the group work together on the same task, and same worksheet; it develops cooperative skills and considers individual achievement. Similarly, Slavin (1986) points out that it emphasizes two main points:

1- Helping learners be effective team members.

2- Awareness of group assessment.

The praise or the recognition that learners get is given on the basis of the grades for the achievement of every individual member. This method is based on principals not structures or producers, these include:

1- Positive interdependence.

2- Face to face promotive interaction.

3- Individual accountability.

4- Interpersonal and small group skills.

5- Group processing.

Once these are carefully applied and taken into account, team can work successfully to realize the group task goal for earning rewards which motivates students work harder for the

next cooperation. In sum, the most important characteristics of this method are the existence of the group aim and sharing opinions, materials, work and the group reward (Gokkurt et. al., 2012).

3.6.4. The Structural Approach

This approach, also called structures and tactics, is designed by Kagan which comprises a range of experiences to be implemented in C.L classrooms. Brody and Nagel (2004) state that the structural approach to cooperative learning is distinct from the other methods in its practices and teacher's training. This means that the approach is based on structures and not procedures. Kagan and Kagan (2009:6.1) posit "structures redefine teaching. Teaching is not what the teacher says, but rather providing students with learning experiences. Structures maximize student interaction with each other and engagement with the academic content". Indeed, this is what C.L calls for: minimizing teacher actions and maximizing the students' engagement in the learning process. Those structures are tools that teachers use in given situations to ensure learners interaction and involvement to master academic content.

Griffin and Butler (2005) see that the practical planning of a cooperative learning lecture shows the instructors how to apply assortment of distinct structures, each selected for cognitive, physical and social goals; they are best achieved within certain instructional situations. This is to mean that each structure severs as a tool to fulfill a given goal in a given situation. About this Kagan and Kagan give the following example:

> Without many tools a builder is ill-equipped to build a house. Without many structures, a teacher is ill-equipped to construct a wide range of cooperative learning experiences for students… Jotting thoughts is used to generate ideas. Sum-the-Ranks is used to make team decisions… (op cit. p.6.1)

The example demonstrates that the structures Kagan and Kagan designed are teaching tools that every teacher should have in his 'toolbox' to be ready to provide students with suitable experiences for learning. There are six keys to the structural approach:

1- Structures
2- Basic principles (Pies)
3- Team-building and class-building
4- Team
5- Management
6- Social skills (Brody & Nagel, 2004)

The inclusion of these elements makes C.L effective. Over the years, Kagan developed more than 200 structures; here is a sample of Kagan and Kagan's (2002) structures:

Kagan Structure	Description
Timed Pair Share	One student talks for specified time and the other listens. Then they switch roles.
Team Interview	Each student on a team in turn is interviewed by his/her teammates.
Numbered Heads Together	After the teacher asks a question, students write their own answer, discuss it in their groups, signal they are ready, and the teacher calls a number. Students with that number respond using a range of simultaneous response modes.
Boss/Secretary	One student ("Boss") dictates to another ("Secretary") who records the answer. The boss receives praise and then students switch roles.
Mix-N-Match	Students circulate in the room with cards, quizzing each other and then finding their match. For example, the person who has the picture of a shoe searches for the one who has the word "shoe."

Table 03. Sample Kagan Structures (Kagan &Kagan, 2002)

3.6.5. Students Team-achievement Divisions (S.T.A.D)

This method is one of the five major *Students Team Learning Methods* developed by Slavin at Johns Hopkins University. The S.T.A.D is one of the simplest C.L models and a very suitable method for novice users of the cooperation approach (Slavin 1995). The idea of the S.T.A.D is to motivate learners help and embolden each other understand the lesson presented earlier by the teacher. The system of this method encourages team members do well in both: the collaborative and individual works. This form of learning requires a focus on the three principal concepts of student Team Learning: individual accountability, equal participation of success and team rewards (ibid.). The S.T.A.D consists of five major components; class presentation, teams, quizzes, individual improvement and team recognition. The following is a summary table of the five components described:

S.T.A.D Components	Description
1- Class presentation	The teacher first introduces the lesson to students before they start cooperating.
2- Teams	Students start to work in groups on the task to accomplish the shared goal.
3- Quizzes	Students take individual quizzes. Learners are not allowed to assist each other during the test.
4- Individual improvement	Individual improvement scores are gained to see whether students have improved according to their past performance and how much they have improved.
5- Team recognition	Groups may win certificates or other kind of rewards if their averages of improvement scores exceed a certain level.

Table 04.The Students Team-achievement Divisions Components (Slavin, 1995)

For Slavin (1995) before stating any S.T.A.D unit the teacher should prepare a number of points. This includes:

3.6.5.1. Preparation

3.6.5.1.1. Material

The S.T.A.D can be used with curriculum materials particularly developed for Students Team Learning distributed by the Johns Hopkins Team Learning Project or it can be used with lessons taken from textbooks or other published sources or with what teachers prepare.

3.6.5.1.2. Assigning Students to Teams

Groups are important elements in the S.T.A.D work. It is a good idea to have four-member groups in the class that is half male, half female, three white students and one minority student. The group should also contain mixed abilities –that is, one high performer, two average achievers and one low achiever. Students may not like the teams they are with, but still a teacher does not have to let learners choose with whom they work with because they tend to choose other students who resemble them. If the number of the student is not divisible of four, the remainder will form one, two or three teams composed of less or more than four members.

3.6.5.1.3. Determining Initial Base Scores

Base scores are students' grades on past quizzes or tests. If students have already marks on three or more works before the teacher started S.T.A.D, he can calculate learners' averages from past quizzes' scores and use them as base scores. If this is not possible, however, he may use students' final grades from the previous year.

3.6.5.1.4. Team Building

In order to get students know each other before starting an S.T.A.D program, it is useful to make them work in team-building exercises.

3.6.5.2. Schedule of Activities

3.6.5.2.1. Teach

Time: 1-2 sessions
Main idea: Present the lesson/material
Material needed: the lesson

In the S.T.A.D method, every lesson starts with a class presentation in which all of the opening, development and guide practice should be taken into consideration on the students' part.

3.6.5.2.2. Team Study

Time: 1-2 sessions
Main Idea: Students study cooperatively.
Material needed: Two worksheets and two answer sheets for every team.

The main aim of team study is that students should understand the material very well to explain it to each other; help and assess one another and make sure that all team members have truly mastered the material and ready to take the quiz.

3.6.5.2.3. Test

Time: ½- time class period
Main idea: Students work individually on a quiz.
Material needed: The quiz

The teacher hands in the quiz and gives students enough time to complete it. He must be sure that students are working individually because the purpose of the quiz is mainly to know how much they benefited from team work. Team scores must be figured in time for the next session.

3.6.5.2.4. Team Recognition

Main idea: determining individual improvement scores and group scores and award winners.

3.6.5.2.4.1. Figuring Individual and Team Scores

Improvement points:

Students get points for their teams based on the degree to which their quiz scores exceed their base scores:

Quiz Score	Improvement Points
more than 10 points below base score	5
10 points below to 1 point below base score	10
base score to 10 points above base score	20
more than 10 points above base score	30

(p. 80)

3.6.5.2.4.2. Team scores

The team scores do not depend on the quiz scores of the students but on the improvement points earned on the basis of differences of achievement between *base scores* and *quiz scores*. To get the team scores, the teacher divides the team's improvement points by the number of the group members.

3.6.5.2.4.3. Recognizing Team Accomplishments

Three levels of awards are gained. These are given on the basis of groups' average improvement scores:

Criterion (team average)	***Awards***
15	GOODTEAM
20	GREATTEAM
25	SUPERTEAM

(p. 80)

It can be noticed that there is a possibility that all teams can have an award because they are not competing with each other. What is supposed from them to do is to have an average of improvement points of one of the criteria stated above (15, 20 and 25). In addition to other kinds of rewards; certificates represent a good choice to award winners.

It seems that the S.T.A.D is very successful at all levels: social and academic outcomes and even for individual achievement. However, Harris and Harley (2004) think that some issues may appear as well; for some teachers, it is difficult to accurately keep up with improvement scores. On the other hand, Ghaith and Kawtharani (2006) cite that S.T.A.D is found to be very useful when teaching using the cooperative approach in that all learners, regardless their level, are given equal chances to earn improvement scores to their groups.

3.6.6. The Teams-game-tournaments (T.G.T)

The T.G.T method is also one model of Student Team Learning designed by Slavin. This method is very similar to the S.T.A.D method, the only distinct feature in T.G.T is that there is a contest with playing a game instead of the examination/quiz (Tasai et. al., 2011). Students in this method have games of tournament rather than quizzes for which they gain improvement points for team recognition. The T.G.T consists of five main components as put by Slavin (1995):

- **Class presentation**: The teacher first introduces the lesson before they start cooperating.

- **Teams**: Students start to work in base groups to accomplish the shared goal.

- **Games**: Games are played in three member teams; each member represents a different group. Generally, the game is about answering questions on what has been learned in class presentation and teams.

- **Tournament**: The tournaments represent the structure of the games themselves; they take place at the end of the week and they are considered the practice of what has been learned earlier. The teacher assigns learners into the groups homogeneously to ensure equal competition. In the tournaments students challenge one another's answers.

- **Team Recognition**: Base groups may win certificates or other kind of rewards if their averages of tournament scores exceed a certain level.

The T.G.T method encourages students to study the material together first in base groups in which they prepare for the whole week to succeed in the competition (tournament). When tournaments are held, the groups are formed of three members of similar ability from different earlier groups. This means that they work together in base teams to master the material then split up in different tournament groups to form homogeneous teams for competition, and then eventually come back to their base teams for team recognition.

The three members compete at tournaments using what has been learned throughout the week with their earlier groups. “Most of games are simply numbered questions on a ditto sheet” (Slavin, 1995:84). Students gain points by answering correctly or correcting other’s answers (Brophy, 2010). According to Nettleton (2008) this method that is based on games and tournaments helps students who fear competition; it also fasters both academic and social achievements.

3.7. Classroom Management

C.L is a form of instruction that should be effectively organized by teachers for implementing “cooperative learning is not like waving a magic wand: just say few magic words, and whoosh! Everything is working great” (Richards & Remandy, 2002:03). This approach is highly structured; instructors do not simply ask students to work together, they have many things to do and decisions to make. Students contribute to group work organization; they also take an important part in managing the team successfully. In effect, such management can be applied in our classes by making both students and teachers aware of the nuts and bolts of the C.L elements and methods.

Dyson and Casey (2012) point out that it is not enough for teachers to use C.L models to foster academic and social learning; they have to be experienced managers in C.L contexts. An instructor should know how to use this technique in terms of organizing the class, assigning tasks and evaluating team works (Brody and Nagel, 2004). However, before starting any C.L unit, students need to know what exactly C.L is. Having solid knowledge base on

how C.L works is very significant for successful classroom organization on the teachers and the students' parts. Learners, too, need to know the basic elements of C.L. What teachers know and what students should consider are vital factors for efficient cooperative work to take place because as Brody and Nagel (2004, 37-38) contend, "when teachers fail to understand the theory underlying a particular method, they are likely to misapply the method and/or abandon it when problems occur".

3.7.1. Grouping Students

One of the things that teachers should know is how to group the students. They have to ask themselves: on which basis should they group the students? How would they do that? How many students should they assign in every group?

The first question has many possible answers. There is not a particular or fixed number for the groups but maybe four students for every team is the best choice. Hartman (2002) suggests that most cooperative learning forms include group of four to eight students. Murdoch and Wilson (2004) on the other hand, assert that the size of the group is basically determined by the aim and the type of the task. They suggest that pair work is often the first recommended step when applying C.L and that the members' number is likely to increase if students become more skilled.

Grouping the students does not end at determining the size of the teams; there are other things to consider. For C.L to be structured, instructors should choose the students themselves on particular basis. Many proponents of cooperative learning emphasize the importance of setting up heterogeneous groups (op.cit:166). Heterogeneous grouping means to include in the teams students of different achievement levels and gender. If a small group is composed of four, it is good to choose one high level student, two average and a low level one; the gender can be two females working with two males if possible (Slavin, 1995). However, Farmer (1999) thinks that "students' background, experiences, and skills can be recognized and used to best advantage when groups are arranged to maximize diversity" (p.02). What Farmer

suggested maybe good but only with students a teacher knows very much. Yet, if a teacher tries to use C.L with students he teaches for the first time, Slavin's suggestion would be better. In order to have an idea of the students' ability level, a teacher can make an entry test. He grades the students tests then use the marks earned to make the grouping.

3.7.2. Assigning Roles and Tasks

As mentioned earlier, asking learners to work in groups is never enough; it must be deliberately taught how to collaborate effectively. Group roles should be made clear for students prior to applying them to achieve significant results; learners need to consider the importance of group skills and that they will be evaluated on the basis of those skills (Farmer, 1999). In a four member group a teacher can ask one student to be the writer, another as a time keeper, a third student to be organizer and the other one to present the work.

In addition to these main components of C.L classroom management, Farmer (ibid:5-6) suggests some points that should be involved in each team work:

- Introduction of clarification of member roles.
- Restatement of the assigned tasks.
- Open-ended discussion about the activity, possible problems, and related issues.
- Decisions about strategies to use to achieve goals.
- Work toward goals.
- Assessment including check for clarity and quality of work.
- Summation and thanks.

These points help organize the group session in which the instructor first assigns roles for students. He explains to them how things work in the assigned tasks. A discussion can be raised on the task itself tackling issues and potential problems encountered in the process. This makes them determine the adequate techniques to accomplish the group's shared goal.

Then, during the cooperative process, the instructor can respond to the teams' works and finally corrections will be made and rewards are given to the best achievers.

3.8. Cooperative Learning as Social Act (Social Objectives)

C.L has a social nature; the group itself is a small family or community that develops social skills to achieve its goals. Applying C.L models in the classroom aims at producing positive outcomes by implementing the most significant findings of social psychology (Kagan & Kagan, 2009). Jolliffe (2007) makes a good connection between cooperation and the social nature of humans:

> Many academics agree that humans have been successful as species, not because we are physically strong or able to camouflage ourselves, or run swiftly as some animal do, or because we are intelligent. But even this would not ensure our survival; what does is our ability to work with others to fulfill shared goals: to cooperate. (p. 4-5)

According to Agarwal and Nagar (2011), students are involved in a social process which they have to consider very well. Since they are working together, learners are supposed to socialize; they should be good listeners, good supporters and good communicators. Williams (2007:3) posits that C.L is able "to lead students into the social power of learning". The social aspect of C.L allows students to create a comfortable atmosphere so that they accomplish academic success. When students know how to effectively socialize, they can work on the task/activity and fulfill its goal as well as handle conflict among group members, if any.

Indeed, students need to learn how to be effective group members; they should develop interpersonal skills. All team members should have a sense of social responsibility toward their team. Accordingly, the groups' main purpose in any team work maybe academic as accomplishing or succeeding in a given task, and precisely C.L offers a social

environment where students basically develop social leadership, decision-making and communication skills (Vanghan, 2002; in Hines, 2008).

3.9. Cooperative Learning as a Cognitive Act (Academic Objectives)

The goal of C.L is basically cognitive (academic outcomes). To Palmer (2000), C.L fosters metacognitive thought. When working in groups, students learn many cognitive skills; they think, explain to each other, ask questions, create, discover things, transfer knowledge and solve problems.

If properly managed, C.L helps every member in the group understand the concept being taught (Slavin, 1995). This is what C.L focuses on: to understand the material. Similarly, Hines (2008) explains that when a small group tries to work out a problem on a task, this creates a cognitive curiosity where team members try to figure out ways to resolve it.

Collaborative work emphasizes academic process and for that, teachers should provide well-presented instruction with adequate assessment that allows students evaluate their improvement (Farmer, 1999). The academic process and achievement are major aspects in C.L; this latter provides situation for students to teach each other for as the saying says 'the best way to learn something is to teach it'. C.L provides an educational environment for students to create a chance to speak their minds, suggest and share ideas with their peers in a give-and-take process to accomplish the group's goal.

3.10. The Teachers' Role in Cooperative Learning Classrooms

In spite of the fact that C.L is closely tied to learners, teachers are still significant part that can make success of failure of collaboration. Instructors should have a basic knowledge of the major roles to undertake in any cooperative learning context. For Rolheiser and Stevahn (2011) teachers are required to understand the various theoretical roots of C.L to be able to use it effectively in the classroom.

The role of the teacher in cooperative classrooms is different from that of traditional classrooms as it "changes from 'the sage to the stage' to 'the guide on the side'" (McWhaw et. al., 2003:70) but still with a given authority for 'there must be a boss' though with less teaching and less control the instructor remains the 'motor' who motivates learners and works toward successful cooperation.

The nature of C.L ensures such roles; when students cooperate, the teacher no longer acts as a tutor for them simply because students act as tutors to each other. The teacher's main concern is to watch, guide, monitor, assess his learners and let learning takes care of itself within the small groups. Accordingly, it is not easy for teachers to monitor and guide students, help and evaluate them without hindering them to learn. An experienced teacher is the one who knows well how to effectively play his role and make cooperation successful at the same time.

For learning to take place within the small teams, a part of the teacher's roles is to teach students how to effectively cooperate. This includes teaching prerequisite skills to students which is of great help for cooperative activities to be successful (Cooper, 2012). The teacher's role is to teach students the basic requirements as to show them the key elements of cooperative learning. Besides, the teacher's role is to structure the activity in a way that makes individual accountability possible and practical (Williams, 2007). Last but not least, the teacher's ultimate role is to check on the groups' progress and whether they are aware of using the target language well (Jacobs, 2006).

All in all, it is only when the teacher carefully orchestrates collaborative tasks/activities in the classroom that students can cooperate seriously, otherwise they would talk instead of working, devote the work to one member of the group and not engage fully in the cooperation (Clark, 2003). For this reason, teachers should strictly ensure students' engagement in the collaborative work regarding their authority and responsibility.

3.11. The Students' Tasks in Cooperative Learning

The main concern of C.L is to embolden students to learn from each other through peer tutoring, interaction, evaluation, etc. The roles learners undertake, then, are various and demanding. According to Murdoch and Wilson (2004) roles students play make them able to use a variety of skills and foster individual accountability. They list some examples of students' roles:

- Problem solver (makes suggestions on how to sort out a problem if it rises).
- Recorder (records the group's ideas).
- Time keeper (keeps on eye the clock and lets the group know how much time they have).
- 'Go-for' (gathers and returns necessary materials).
- Encourager (makes a point of ensuring that good ideas are acknowledged and that people are involved).
- Observer (watches and listens to the group, identifying how they are working together, strengths and weaknesses and then reports back to them or the class).
- Organizer/coordinator (gets the group going and keeps them on track). (p.25)

With the many different roles students play in cooperative work, it is impossible that every individual member in the group play them all. Hence, it is devisable to divide the roles for students. Teachers can decide on who plays what or let students do that themselves. For Larson and Keiper (2011) the main job students do in C.L is to 'pull their weight' and work together to achieve the activity goal.

3.12. Individualistic and Competitive Learning

Individualistic, competitive and cooperative learning demonstrate three different teaching techniques. Yet, these approaches are implemented in all subject areas and grade levels (Kirchner, 2005). In the late 1960s, individualistic learning started to be implemented extensively, but after forty years of using competitive and individualistic approaches and after

considerable research on the effectiveness of cooperative learning, American schools returned to cooperative learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1994).

3.12.1. Individualistic Learning

Individualistic Learning is students working by themselves (independently) to achieve learning aims unrelated to those of the other learners (Johnson & Johnson, 2013). Each student's goals, learning and success are untied to the others'. In individualistic learning, the learning context is structured and organized in such a way that makes students able to work alone to accomplish his own goal (Kirchner, 2005).

Agarwal and Nagar (2011:14-15) list the values that students inherently learn when they are exposed to individualistic experiences:

a- Commitment to one's own self-interest (only personal succeed is viewed as important, other's success is irrelevant),
b- Success depends on one's own efforts,
c- The pleasure of succeeding is personal and relevant only to oneself,
d- Other people are irrelevant,
e- Self-worth is based on a one-dimensional view that the characteristics that help the person succeed are valued (in school),
f- Extrinsic motivation to gain reward for achieving goals up to criteria is valued,
g- Similar people are liked and dissimilar people are disliked.

In a nutshell, individualistic learning takes place when students think that they are independent academically and cognitively; communication and interaction among students is often unmarked; no one influences the others learning or success.

3.12.2. Competitive Learning

In a competitive learning environment, students work against each other toward an academic goal as a grade of 'A' which only one of few of learners can gain (Johnson & Johnson, 2013). In this type of learning, students considerably care about wining not learning;

they are not considerate in establishing long term relationships and they avoid interaction with other students (McQuaig, 2008). In order to win they are required to work accurately, harder and sometimes faster than their mates. Therefore, learners look for a result which is personally useful yet 'fateful' to others with whom they are competitively linked (Agarwal and Nagar, 2011). Since the main concern of students in competitive learning is winning not mastering, they can be drawn to cheating which is a destruction of the essence of this approach that is learning through trying to compete and win.

3.13. Cooperative Learning and Motivation

The C.L approach is closely tied to motivational theories, the social environment that collaboration provides students with is fun and comfortable, and so they are more likely to be motivated to engage in the learning process. By the same token Johnson & Johnson (2003) cite that motivation is inherently social; it occurs within a scope of interpersonal relationships. This denotes that motivation appears when people learn or work with each other ensuring collaboration and responsibility. In language learning, for instance, cooperation can create a suitable psychological atmosphere to foster intrinsic motivation in students (Nakata, 2006). About intrinsic motivation Slavin (2011:161) writes:

> The relationships are conceived to be reciprocal, such that a task motivation leads to the development of group cohesion, that development may reinforce and enhance task motivation. By the same token, the cognitive process may become intrinsically rewarding and lead to increased task motivation and group cohesion.

Slavin's quote reveals that motivation can be a factor to success and an end result of that success as well. In this way students can be intrinsically rewarded and so successful again. Druckman and Bjork (1994) also contend that positive interdependence theory believes that effective collaboration is basically based on motivation; that is, positive

cooperative efforts are gained by shared contribution to accomplish a goal. On the other hand, Taylor and Mackenney (2008) think that motivation is an outcome of C.L techniques in that they embolden students to care about one another and to contribute in accomplishing the task.

It is clearly noticed, then, that motivation appears in C.L in two faces or sides; it is a factor to success and a purpose to success. Purpose and factor are simply two faces of the same coin being 'motivation'. It is worth noting that motivation, whether a starting point or an end result, is crucial and an inseparable element of any C.L context.

3.14. Reward in Cooperative Learning

In general, rewarding someone means giving him or doing for him something for a positive action he has already done. In learning, a reward is a sort of incentive for the sake of encouraging and motivating students to learn and win. In C.L, the group reward serves as a motive to learners to assist one another learn and embolden one another's learning achievement (Slavin, 1986). The reward teachers give to successful groups is a part of motivating students to work together effectively for group goal achievement. As the group works, goal and learning is shared by students so the reward; all team mates get the same reward they deserve. The teacher, in effect, is responsible of giving rewards for team participation (Ulrich and Glendon, 2005).

A wide range of rewards can be used to encourage winners. However, for Strebe (2013) a teacher can ask students of what makes a good reward but carefully. He can use bonus points, give no homework, free reading time or given playthings for the break (Bochmann & Kirchmann, 2006; in Giepen,2010), certificates, privileges such as stickers, snacks in the room or extra credit (Kagan, 1980; Slavin, 1988, 1987; in Spapon-shevin and Schnedewind, 1991). In order to choose the right reward for the right recognition, teachers should consider the students level and the type of the task as well. In the same regard,

Mishra and Shanman (2005) write "rewards are allocated based on the quality and the quantity of the group product measured against predefined standard" (p.309).

Rewards or tokens as some call them, said to be very effective in the cooperative approach. Research on C.L in elementary and high schools supports the motivation perspective that team rewards are crucial to the efficiency of C.L (Slavin et. al, 2003). Slavin (1986) contends that a study on S.T.A.D found that when learners in interacting teams were working toward a group's reward, they assisted each other virtually more than when they collaborate without any rewards to be given.

In spite of the considerable research evidence that prove the effectiveness of the reward system, McCorkle and Meszaros (1997) state that one of the flaws of C.L is the group rewards. Kagan and Kagan (2009) also thinks that the reward is pitfall and that students will work for points only. To explain that rewards erode intrinsic motivation they write:

> The most damaging blow against rewards diminishes students' intrinsic motivation. Rewards can make a task pleasurable for its own sake and decrease the likelihood students will continue to perform once the rewards are withheld. (p.16.2)

We can note that the reward itself is not a problem in C.L; the main problem is about using extrinsic rewards rather than intrinsic ones. The former said to erode the intrinsic; students seem to learn and work for the sake of the reward not for learning. In effect, what is problematic about extrinsic rewards is that when they 'disappear', students no longer make that effort to succeed socially, academically and even cognitively in the collaboration. An oral praise or teacher feedback may be more meaningful for learners than material rewards.

On the other hand, Pritchard and Whitehead (2004:40) reveal "good command of attraction and intrinsic reward and needs to use meaningful extrinsic reward strategies as backup". Hence, C.L teachers shouldn't deny any of the two rewards each of which has its

own role to play to motivate students learn; nevertheless students shouldn't consider extrinsic rewards as condition of learning/working.

3.15. Cooperative Learning and Individual Achievement

C.L is a process where students work together toward a joint aim. The aim of C.L context is to learn and succeed in doing the task or activity. However, they are not typically the sole aims. We mean by this that C.L is a way for students to promote later individual achievement. In this regard, Agarwal and Nagar (2011) state that through collaboration, students can foster individual learning. One of the main concerns is that students can benefit from each other whether when they get help from other members or when they tutor one another. The point is that C.L is a tool that students use to be able to understand the material and solve a problem; it is a form of learning. Hence, and through this type of learning, students can rely on themselves succeed in doing a task later on their own without a need of cooperative learning. When C.L is successful and well implemented, students can transfer their knowledge from small group learning situation to individual learning. Terry (2007) contends that more than three hundred studies on the effectiveness of C.L on achievement in university contexts reveal that C.L develops higher individual achievement. What really shows that C.L was successful is not group success only but also later individual success.

C.L is closely tied to individual achievement. When students succeed academically, socially and even cognitively during collaboration, they are likely to succeed when they work individually on the same type of the task. This is what S.T.A.D and other Students' Team Learning Methods include. Slavin (1995) understood the point that cooperative learning and individual achievement can't be separated for this reason the S.T.A.D method does not only make students work together but also have quiz to make sure that they really benefited from that earlier collaboration.

3.16. Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, some light has been shed on cooperative learning as an innovative approach that brought a lot to teaching and learning as well. Cooperative learning can be described as a form of learning that makes students work jointly to get academic, social and even psychological benefits. We tried to show that cooperative learning is highly structured and that it stresses the reward system as a sort of raising students' motivation to learn and succeed. It was also significant to distinguish cooperative learning and group work and show that they should not be implemented interchangeably. It could be noticed that the basic principles of cooperative learning are the starting points for successful collaborative context if well taught to students.

For cooperative learning to be highly structured, three points should be taken into consideration: classroom management, the five key elements and the implementation of one of the cooperative learning methods. The interrelationship between these points is highly valued -that is, cooperative learning does not take place if one of those is misapplied. Students are required to know the basic requirements of effective cooperation. Cooperative learning is one form of student-centeredness, but this does not exclude the teacher's role since he makes them understand that when collaborating 'they have to swim together or sink together!'

Chapter Four
The Pilot Study and the Analysis of the Questionnaires

Chapter Four
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4.1. Introduction

This chapter opens with a pilot study which paves the way to reconsider the main study in a more manageable fashion. Then, an analysis of the teacher and the student questionnaires will answer some of the earlier stated questions in the general introduction.

Section 1: The Pilot Study

4.2. The Pilot Study

The pilot study helps test the way a researcher conducts his study to identify potential issues that may have an impact on the quality and validity of the results (Blessing and Chakrabarti, 2009). For this, W.E teachers and students were given pilot questionnaires; besides, the pilot experiment that includes the treatment, the analysis of the students' written works and the post-test was conducted. The pilot study allows shaving an understanding of the question's relevance and the treatment's effectiveness to meet the research needs.

4.2.3. The Teachers Pilot Questionnaire

We administered a pilot questionnaire to five W.E teachers at the Department of Letters and the English Language, University of Constantine. It includes eight closed and open ended questions.

4.2.3.1. Analysis of the Teacher Pilot Questionnaire

Question 01: How long have you been teaching writing?

One year	Two years	Ten years	Total
02	02	01	05
40%	40%	20%	100%

Table 05. Teachers' Experience in Teaching Writing

Of the total number of respondents (N=05) 40% said they taught writing for one year; 40% for two years; against 20% who has taught writing for 10 years.

Question 02: Do you make students work in groups in writing classes?

Yes	No	Total
05	00	05
100%	00%	100%

Table 06.Asking Students to Write Individually

Table 06 shows that all teachers 100% make students work in groups in writing classes.

Question 03: If yes how often?

Always	often	Sometimes	Total
00	02	03	05
00%	40%	60%	100%

Table 07.Teachers' Frequency of Using the Group Work Technique in Writing Classes

60% of respondents said that they 'sometimes' make students work in groups in writing classes; against 40% who said 'often' and no one opted for 'always'.

Question 4: How much time do you give your students to accomplish a group work activity?

Less than half an hour	Half an hour	An hour	An hour and a half	Total
00	03	01	01	05
00%	60%	20%	20%	100%

Table 08.Time Allocated for GroupWork

Table (08) shows that 60% of the informants set 'half an hour' for collaborative learning/writing activities, 20% allocate 'an hour', 20% set 'an hour and a half' and no one sets 'less than an hour'.

Question 05: Do you think that your students like working in small groups?

Yes	No	Total
04	01	05
80%	20%	100%

Table 09.Teachers' Attitude toward whether Students Like to Work in Small Groups

Of the total respondents, 80% assert that students like working in small group situations; against 20% who think that they do not.

Question 06: Do you think that your students face some problems when collaborating?

Yes	No	Total
05	00	05
100%	00%	100%

Table 10.Teachers' Attitude toward the Problems Students Face while Collaborating

100%of the respondents said that their students encounter difficulties when they work together.

Question 07: If yes, what are they?

a	a+b	Total
03	02	05
60%	40%	100%

Table 11.Teachers' Opinion about the Different Problems Students Face while working in Groups

60% of the respondents assert that the problem students face is 'unequal participation'; against 40% who said that 'unequal participation' and 'imposing points of view' are what students encounter. We noticed that 'unequal participation' is the most occurring problem; it appears five times; then, in the second position is 'imposing points of view' which occurs two time, against 'social skill problems' which has not appeared at all.

Question 08: Do you think that collaborative learning enhances the students' writing level?

Yes	No	Total
05	00	05
100%	00%	100%

Table 12.Teachers' Opinion about the Effectiveness of Group Work in Boosting Students' Writing

100% of teachers responded positively to the question. They think that collaborative writing helps boost learners' writing skills.

4.2.3.2. Discussion of the Results of the Teacher Pilot Questionnaire

The analysis of the teacher pilot questionnaire yielded general information concerning group work implementation in writing classes. Generally speaking, all teachers sometimes make students work jointly in writing classes. The analysis also shows that teachers see that students truly like to work in small group situations (Table 09). Further, Table 11 shows that they believe 'unequal participation' is the problem learners most encounter while working

together. Eventually, it has been indicated in Table 12 that all teachers assert the effectiveness of making students working jointly in enhancing their writing skill.

4.2.4. The Student Pilot Questionnaire

The pilot questionnaire was handed to 16 second year students at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine. The questionnaire encompasses six closed questions on group work writing situations. This involves their standpoints, beliefs and difficulties.

4.2.4.1. Analysis of the Student Pilot Questionnaire

Question 01: Have you ever worked in a group in a writing class?

Yes	No	Total
15	01	16
93.75%	6.25%	100%

Table 13. Students' Prior Experience in Cooperative Writing

Of the total respondents (N= 16) 93.75% said that they worked in small group work situations; against 6.25% who said 'no'.

Question 02: Do you think that writing is better done individually or in groups?

Individually	In groups	Total
07	09	16
43.75%	56.25%	100%

Table14. Students' Attitude toward Individualistic and Cooperative Writing

Of the total respondents, 56.25% think that writing is better done in a small group; against 43.75% of them who prefer to write individually.

Question 03: Do you enjoy doing a writing task in small a group?

Yes	No	Total
12	04	16
75%	25%	100%

Table 15. Students' feelings toward Writing in a Group

75% of the students said it is enjoyable to write in small groups; against only 25% who said 'no'.

Question 04: Do you think that working in groups helps you understand the writing process better or does it just slow you down?

Helps you learn	Slows you down	Total
16	00	16
100%	00%	100%

Table16. Students' Attitudes toward the Benefits of Cooperative Writing

The above table shows that all respondents (100%) said that working in groups helps them understand the writing process better.

Question 05: Does your teacher come round and offer feedback or does he just let you work alone until you finish?

Comes round	Lets you work alone	Total
15	01	16
93.75%	6.25%	100%

Table 17. Teacher Use feedback while Students Work in Groups

93.75% of the participants replied that their teacher offers feedback while working together; against 6.25% who said that he lets them work alone until they finish.

Question 06: do you have any problems during group learning tasks?

Yes	No	Total
06	10	16
37.7%	62.5%	100%

Table 18. Students' Facing Group Learning Problems

Of the total informants (N=16), 62.5% said that they do not have any problems when they write in a group; against 37.5% who said that they do.

4.2.4.2. Discussion of the Results of the Student Pilot Questionnaire

The analysis of the student pilot questionnaire provides information on the way the participants respond to points on group work writing. Globally, it has been noticed that the informants believe that writing is better done in groups than individually. This, in effect, justifies their answers for Q03 and Q04 for most of them enjoy working in groups with other mates and it also helps them understand the process of writing better (Tables 15 &16).The analysis also reveals that their teacher provide feedback while they are working in teams which is indeed required for effective productivity on the students' part. Further, what was encouraging is that most of the participants do not experience problems when writing in small group situation.

4.2.5. The Pilot Experiment

The experiment includes a treatment (group learning), two groups: Experimental Group and Control Group with eight students in each, and a post-test. It also involves a descriptive analysis of both groups' written works to check the improvement from the first work to the second one. Then, an inferential analysis takes place through a t-test to mark any difference in achievement for both groups.

4.2.5.1. The Pilot Treatment

The pilot treatment lasted about one month in which the Experimental Group was asked to write together in small groups two essays separately: an example essay on '*appearances are deceptive*' and a comparison contrast essay on '*our generation and our parents' generation'*. It is worth noting that while student were working jointly, we moved round from time to time to check their progress.

4.2.5.2. Analysis of the Students' Pilot Written Works

This analysis includes an evaluation of the students' writing on grammar, spelling, mechanics, organization, content and style. The results show the students' behavior with their writing from the first work to the second one.

4.2.5.2.1. Analysis of the Results of the Pilot Experimental Group First Work

Groups	**Grammar mistakes**	**Spelling mistakes**	**Mechanics mistakes**	**The number of mistakes**	**The number of words**	**%**
Group 01	10	04	03	17	259	6.56%
Group 02	10	00	17	27	362	5.45%
Total	**20**	**04**	**20**	**44**	**621**	
Proportion	**45.45%**	**9.09%**	**45.45%**	**7.08%**		

Table 19. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Mistakes of the Pilot Experimental Group First Work

The figures in Table 19 indicate that 45.45% of the mistakes are grammatical, 45.45% are mechanics mistakes and 9.09% are spelling mistakes. The students have a proportion of 7.08% of mistakes for 621 words.

Groups	Organization			Content			Style		
Group 01	G			A			G		
Group 02	A			A			G		
Total	**G**	1	50%	**G**	0	0°%	**G**	2	100%
	A	1	50%	**A**	2	100%	**A**	0	0%
	B	0	00%	**B**	0	0%	**B**	0	0%
G: good; **A**:average; **B**:bad.									

Table 20. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Writing of the Pilot Experimental Group First Work

This table shows that 50% of the participants had a good organization and 50% had an average organization. On content, both sub-groups 100% have an average content. Concerning style, all of the participants 100% had a good style.

4.2.5.2.2. Analysis of the Results of the Pilot Experimental Group Second Work

Groups	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	The number of mistakes	The number of words	%
Group 01	07	00	06	13	309	4.20%
Group 02	08	05	15	28	250	11.12%
Total	**15**	**06**	**21**	**41**	**559**	
Proportion	**36.58%**	**14.63%**	**51.21%**	**7.33%**		

Table 21. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Mistakes of the Pilot Experimental Group Second Work

Of the total number of mistakes (559), 51.21% are mechanics mistakes, 36.58% are grammar mistakes and 14.63% are spelling mistakes. The overall percentage of mistakes made by students for 559 words is 7.33%.

Groups	Improvement		No improvement	
Group 01			X	
Group 02	√			
Total	**01**	**50%**	**01**	**50%**
√: improvement; X: no improvement				

Table 22. Pilot Experimental Group's Improvement From the First Work to the Second Work

For the second work, one sub-group (50%) has improved his writing in terms of making less surface mistakes from the first work to the second whereas the other group (50%) has not.

Groups	Organization			Content			Style		
Group 01	A			G			G		
Group 02	B			A			A		
Total	**G**	0	0%	**G**	1	50%	**G**	1	50%
	A	1	50%	**A**	1	50%	**A**	1	50%
	B	1	50%	**B**	0	0%	**B**	0	0%

Table 23. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Writing of the Pilot Experimental Group Second Work

Table (23) shows that one sub-group (50%) had an average organization while the other sub-group (50%) had a bad organization. Again 50% of the participants had a good content while 50% had an average content. Concerning 'style', 50% also had a 'good' and 50% had an 'average'.

Organization				Content				Style			
/	1st Essay	2nd Essay	Imp/ no Imp	/	1st Essay	2nd Essay	Imp/ no Imp	/	1st Essay	2nd Essay	Imp/ no Imp
G	50%	0%	**No Imp**	**G**	0%	50%	**Imp**	**G**	100%	50%	**Imp**
A	50%	50%	**No Imp**	**A**	100%	50%	**No Imp**	**A**	0%	50%	**No Imp**
B	00%	50%	**No Imp**	**B**	0%	0%	**Imp**	**B**	0%	0%	**No Imp**
Imp: improvement; **No Imp**: no improvement; **G**: good; **A**: average; **B**: bad											

Table 24. Experimental Group's Improvement in Organization, Content and Style From the First Work to the Second Work

Students' organization has not improved from the first work to the second work. However, their content was boosted for 50% of them had a 'good' in the second work while none had it in the first work. Concerning 'style', 50% of the participants have failed to keep their style 'good', while 50% have.

4.2.5.2.3. Analysis of the Results of the Pilot Control Group First Work

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	The number of mistakes	The number of words	%
1	12	02	07	21	276	7.60%
2	13	01	04	18	146	12.32%
3	15	05	07	27	189	14.28%
4	19	00	06	25	199	12.56%
5	09	03	16	28	199	14.07%
6	09	03	03	15	212	7.07%
7	17	09	09	34	338	10.05%
8	07	06	06	15	225	6.66%
Total	**101**	**24**	**58**	**183**	**1684**	
Proportion	**55.19%**	**13.11%**	**31.69%**	**10.86%**		

Table 25. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Mistakes of the Pilot Control Group First Work

For the first work, 55.19% of mistakes made by students are grammatical, 31.69% are mechanics mistakes and 13.11% are spelling mistakes. The general proportion of mistakes made by students for 1684 words is 10.86%.

Students	Organization			Content			Style		
1	A			A			A		
2	B			A			A		
3	B			A			B		
4	B			B			B		
5	A			A			A		
6	G			A			A		
7	A			A			B		
8	B			A			A		
Total	**G**	01	12.5%	**G**	00	00%	**G**	00	OO%
	A	03	37.5%	**A**	07	87.5%	**A**	05	62.5%
	B	04	50%	**B**	01	12.5%	**B**	03	37.5%

Table 26. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Writing of the Pilot Control Group First Work

For the same work, 50% of the respondents had a bad organization, 37.5% had an average organization; against 12.5 who had a good organization. Concerning content, 87.5% had an 'average', 12.5% had a 'bad' and none had a 'good'. On style, 62.5% had an 'average' style, 37.5% had a bad style and none had a good style.

4.2.5.2.4. Analysis of the Results of the Pilot Control Group Second Work

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	The number of mistakes	The number of words	%
1	15	00	04	19	322	5.90%
2	17	01	08	26	388	6.70%
3	25	06	20	51	404	12.62%
4	12	03	08	23	292	7.87%
5	21	02	07	30	419	7.15%
6	081	01	07	16	299	5.35%
7	17	08	19	44	298	14.76%
8	06	04	13	23	234	9.82%
Total	**121**	**25**	**86**	**232**	**2666**	
Proportion	**52.15%**	**10.77%**	**37.06%**	**8.70%**		

Table 27. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Mistakes of the Pilot Control Group Second Work

In the second work, the analysis of the informants' work show that again 52.15% of the mistakes are of a grammatical type, 37.06% are mechanics mistakes while only 10.77% are spelling mistakes. The general percentage of mistakes made by students for 2666 words is 8.70%.

Students	Improvement		No improvement	
1	√			
2	√			
3			X	
4	√			
5	√			
6	√			
7			X	
8			X	
Total	**05**	**62.5%**	**03**	**37.5%**

Table 28. Control Group's Improvement from the First Work to the Second Work

Table (28) shows that 62.5% have improved from the first work the second one while 37.5% of the students have not.

Students	Organization			Content			Style		
1	A			A			A		
2	G			A			A		
3	A			A			A		
4	B			B			B		
5	G			G			A		
6	G			A			A		
7	G			A			B		
8	B			B			B		
Total	**G**	4	50%	**G**	1	12.5%	**G**	0	0%
	A	2	25%	**A**	5	62.5%	**A**	5	62.5%
	B	2	25%	**B**	2	25%	**B**	3	37.5%

Table 29. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Writing of the Pilot Control Group Second Work

The figures in Table 29 show that 50% of the respondents had a good organization, 25% had an average organization and 25% had a bad organization. On content, 62.5% of them had an 'average', 25% had a 'bad' and 12.5% had a 'good'. Concerning style, 62.5% had an average style, 37.5 had a bad style while none had a good style.

Organization				Content				Style			
/	1st Essay	2nd Essay	Imp/ no Imp	/	1st Essay	2nd Essay	Imp/ no Imp	/	1st Essay	2nd Essay	Imp/ no Imp
G	12.5%	50%	**Imp**	**G**	00%	12.5%	**Imp**	**G**	00%	00%	**No Imp**
A	37.5%	25%	**No Imp**	**A**	87.5%	62.5%	**No Imp**	**A**	62.5%	62.5%	**No Imp**
B	50%	25%	**Imp**	**B**	12.5%	25%	**No Imp**	**B**	37.5%	37.5%	**No Imp**

Table 30. Control Group's Improvement in Organization, Content and Style From the First Work to the Second Work

Table 30 shows that students' organization was improved for 50% had a 'good' in the second work against 12.5% in the first. The informants have slightly improved their content for 12.5% had a good content in the second work against 00% in the first. Concerning style, they have not improved at all.

4.2.5.2.5. General Discussion

The figures in Tables 19, 21, 25 and 27 show that most mistakes made by students are grammar and mechanics mistakes. The figures also reveal that although the Experimental Group have made less mistakes in comparison to the Control Group, the latter have improved their writing in terms of making less mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics from the first work to the second work in contrast to the Experimental Group (Tables 22 and 28). Both Experimental and Control group have not significantly improved their writing concerning organization, content and style for 'Improvement' has appeared only three times while 'Non improvement' has occurred six times for each (Tables 24 and 30).

4.2.5.3. The Pilot Post-test

The post-test took place after we implemented group work technique on the Experimental Group. In an hour and a half, the participants of both groups (N=16) were asked to develop an essay on one of the following topics:

Drawing on your experiences and observations use examples to demonstrate your attitude toward:

- You do not know what you have till it is gone.

Compare and/or contrast:

- Inner beauty and physical beauty.
- Your best friend and your arch-enemy.

The marks obtained in this test are the raw data that will be used later in the t-test. The latter is a statistical test that will be employed to analyze the data obtained from the post-test and see whether there is a considerable difference in achievement between the groups.

4.2.5.3.1. Presenting the Data

The data obtained for the computation are the recorded marks from the post-test of both the Experimental and the Control groups.

	Experimental Group		**Control Group**	
N	X_1	X_1^2	X_2	X_2^2
01	12	144	15	225
02	12	144	13	169
03	11.5	132.25	14	196
04	09	81	13	169
05	11	121	11	121
06	12.5	156.25	13.5	182.25
07	11	121	13	169
08	12.5	156.25	10	100
Total	$\sum X_1 = 91.5$ $\bar{X}_1 = 11.43$	$\sum X_1^2 = 1055.75$	$\sum X_2 = 102.5$ $\bar{X}_2 = 12.81$	$\sum X_2^2 = 1331.25$

Table 31. The Experimental and Control Groups' Pilot Test Marks

4.2.5.3.2. Computation of the Mean, Variance, *t* and *df*

1- Calculating the Means ($\bar{X}$)

To find the means ($\bar{X}$), we used the following formula: $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$

$$\bar{X}_1 = \frac{\sum X_1}{N_1} = \frac{91.5}{8} = 11.43$$

$$\bar{X}_2 = \frac{\sum X_2}{N_2} = \frac{102.5}{8} = 12.81$$

2- Calculating the Variances S_1^2 and S_2^2

$$S_1^2 = \frac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} = \frac{1055.75}{8} - 11.43^2 = 1.32$$

$$S_2^2 = \frac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} = \frac{1331.25}{8} - 12.81^2 = 2.31$$

3- Computing *t*

To calculate *t*, we used the following formula and made the right substitutions of the previously figured values: $\bar{X}_1$, $\bar{X}_2$, N_1, N_2, S_1^2 and S_2^2.

$$t\mathrm{N1} + \mathrm{N2} - 2 = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)\sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2)N_1N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1S_1^2 + N_2S_2^2)(N_1 + N_2)}}$$

$$= \frac{(11.43 - 12.81)\sqrt{(8 + 8 - 2)8 \times 8}}{\sqrt{(8 \times 1.32 + 8 \times 2.31)(8 + 8)}}$$

$$= -\mathbf{1.91}$$

4- Calculating *df* (degree of freedom)

To find the value of the degree of freedom, we made use of the following formula:

$df = N_1 + N_2 - 2$

$df = 8 + 8 - 2 = 14$

The *df* value (14) will be used to read the t-table to figure out the critical value of *t*.

5- Finding the critical value of *t* in the t-table

To find out the value of *t*, we should turn to the t-table and check the value corresponding to 14 degrees of freedom for 0.05 level of significance. Accordingly, for 14 degrees of freedom the value of *t* required for 0.05 level of significance is 2.145. To Miller (2005) the found value (2.145) has to be divided by 2 for the test is **one-tailed**[1]. Therefore, the critical value of *t* that will be compared with the calculated *t* is 1.22 (2.145÷2= 1.22). In the following table, it is clearly shown how we read the t-table.

	Level of significance				*Level of significance*		
df	·10	·05	·02	*df*	·10	·05	·02
12	1·782	2·179	2·681	29	1·699	2·045	2·462
13	1·771	2·160	2·650	30	1·697	2·042	2·457
14	1·761	2·145	2·624				
15	1·753	2·131	2·602	40	1·684	2·021	2·423
				60	1·671	2·000	2·390
16	1·746	2·120	2·583	120	1·658	1·980	2·358
17	1·740	2·110	2·567		1·645	1·960	2·326

*For a *one-tailed* test the significance levels should be divided by 2.

Table 32.The t-table (Miller, 2005:141)

[1] It is one-tailed test because we have predicted the direction of the difference between two conditions (cf. Miller, 2005).

The observed value of *t* of the experiment is found to be not greater than the critical value of *t* (1.22□-1.91). The conclusion to be drawn is that the difference of achievement is not significant between the two groups.

4.2.6. General Discussion of the Pilot Study Results

According to the results of the pilot study, a number of things should be reconsidered and adjusted. On the whole, the questions included in the student questionnaire are relevant and suitable; however, other inquiries have to be added to it as the way students interact, work, assess, and deal with each other in the small group situations. Further, the analysis of their written works reveals that the Control Group improved their writing from the first work to the second, while the Experimental Group who received the research treatment have not. This can be due to not considering the basic requirement of effective cooperation. In addition, both groups failed to improve their writing in terms of organization, content and style. The results of the post-test, on the other hand, have shown that the difference is not significant in achievement between the writings of the two groups. Considering all the results of the pilot study, one can advance the thought that the group work technique should be better planned and organized; it is not effective the way it was implemented by the researcher. That is, the group work technique ought to be closely related to the C.L approach i.e. the C.L elements should be used (cf. section: 3.5.). Further, the results of the experiment pushed us to inquire W.E teachers about how they truly make learners work jointly in small group situation. Hence, we tended to add a number of questions on classroom management and other related issues.

Section 2: The Analysis of the Questionnaires

4.3. Population and Random Sampling

The research population is second year students at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine. The reason behind the choice of this population is that students are expected to know each other for they have been together in their first year which makes it easier for them to work together in teams. They feel actually more comfortable if they work with students they already know. Secondly, compared to first years second year students produce longer pieces of writing which fits the research requirements.

The sample is fifty students (N=50) were chosen on a random basis for we worked with the groups that were appointed to us on the timetable by the administration of the department. The sample has more or less the same background knowledge and was to some extent homogenous.

It was not possible to have more than 50 students for the sample because the researcher was given only two 2nd-year groups to teach. This is rather an unwanted variable and thus fifty students could be considered as a representative sample.

4.4. The Questionnaires

By far questionnaires are the most used data collection instruments in statistical work (Dörnyei and Toguchi, 2002). Questions or items must be based on the information needed to serve the objectives of the research. The role of this research device is to translate the research aims into certain items to be answered by the participants (Lankavil, 2007). Dörnyei (2003) thinks that questionnaires are helpful in that one can gather huge amount of data in a quite short time; they are easily processed and less expensive. He points out:

> They are also versatile, which means that they can be used successfully with a variety of people in a variety of situations targeting a variety of topics…the vast majority of research projects in the behavioral and social sciences involve at one stage or another collecting some sort of questionnaire data (p. 10).

In the study, two questionnaires, respectively the teachers and the students' questionnaires will be used.

4.4.1. Description and Administration of the Teachers Questionnaire

The teacher questionnaire was administered to 18 teachers of writing at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of 'Frères Mentouri', Constantine to uncover what teachers actually do in their classes. The questionnaire was meant to probe how C.L/group work is implemented and to check to what extent the respondents use C.L the way it should be.

The questionnaire contains a total of 30 items scattered between questions and statements. Various types of questions were used including nineteen 'c*losed questions',* six *'open-ended questions '*and five '*likert Scale statements'.* The questionnaire is divided into three sections. In section one: *Student Centeredness, Group work and cooperative learning*, we first asked our informants general questions: the degree they hold and the experience they have in teaching writing. Then, the other remaining questions were generally on student-centered instruction, group work and C.L implementation.

For section two, *Implementing Group Work/Cooperative Learning*, the questions are rather designed to classroom management. They included questions on grouping students, C.L skills and learners' roles, the use of rewards, the time teachers allocate for C.L activities, their roles and students' motivation in C.L contexts.

Last section, *Teachers' Problems, Beliefs and Attitudes*, is for uncovering the problems teachers encounter in C.L/group work contexts and their standpoints vis-à-vis C.L and individualistic learning. This involves knowing the teachers' degrees of opinion on the students' ability to effectively work cooperatively, together with the suitability of time and students' number to implement C.L. Besides questions about the usefulness of C.L and the problems their learners face during cooperation were also put. All in all, the questions were

straightforward with the expectation to get a clear understanding of how teachers implement C.L /group work in their classes.

4.4.2. Analysis of the Teacher Questionnaire

Section one: Student Centeredness, Group Work and Cooperative Learning

1. Degree Held

BA	Master	Magister	PhD	Total
01	11	04	02	18
5.55%	61.11%	22.22%	11.11%	100%

Table 33. Teachers' Degrees Held

Most of respondents 61.11% (N=18) are Master holders; 22.22% have a Magister; against 11.11% who have a PhD and along one has a BA.

Question 2: How long have you been teaching writing?

1 year	2 years	3 years	4 years	10 years	20 years	25 years	30 years	No answer	Total
03	03	05	02	01	01	01	01	01	18
16.66%	16.66%	27.77%	11.11%	5.55%	5.55%	5.55%	5.55%	5.55%	100%

Table 34. Teachers' Experience in Teaching Writing

Of the total respondents (N=18), 27.77% have been teaching W.E. for 03 years, 16.66% for 01 and 02 years separately, 11.11% for 04 years, against only 5.55% for each of 10, 20, 25 and 30 years.

Question 3: Is your teaching *student-centered* or *teacher-centered?*

Student-centered	Teacher-centered	No answer	Total
14	03	01	18
77.77%	16.66%	5.55%	100%

Table 35. Teachers' Approach to Teaching

Of the total respondents (N=18), 77.77% said that they use the student-centered approach; against 16.66% who adopted the teacher-centered one. The percentage about student-centeredness sounds really encouraging; this may reflect our teachers' awareness of the need to shift the attention from the teacher being the provider of knowledge to students' desire to make their own learning.

Question 04: Do you ask students to write individually?

Yes	No	Total
17	01	18
94.44%	5.55%	100%

Table 36. Asking Students to Write Individually

Of the total participants, 94.44% asserted that they ask their students to write individually; against 5.55% who does not do that. The figures are not surprising because usually teachers assign individual or homework; yet this question invites for the following one.

Question 05: Do you make them write together in groups?

Yes	No	Total
16	02	18
88.88%	11.11%	100%

Table 37. Making Students Write in Groups

88.88% of the participants indicate that they get students to write together in the classroom; against 11.11% who said that they do not do so.

Question 06: Which of the following you do more?

Make them write in the classroom	Assign homework	Both	No answer	Total
08	04	05	01	18
44.44%	22.22%	27.77%	5.55%	100%

Table 38. Teachers' Type of Assignment

Of the total informants 44.44% indicated that what they do more is getting students to write in the classroom; 27.77% said that they do both though the question was about which one they assign more; 22.22%, however, asserted that they assign homework more; against 5.55% who had no opinion.

Question 07: When you make students work together, do you use cooperative learning or group work?

Cooperative learning	Group work	No answer	Total
06	11	01	18
33.33%	61.11%	5.55%	100%

Table 39. Teachers' Use of Cooperative Learning and GroupWork

Of the total respondents (N=18), 61.11% revealed that they use group work as a technique; 33.33% said that C.L is the approach they implement; against one teacher 5.55% who had no opinion.

Question 8: How often do you implement cooperative learning/group work in writing classes?

Always	often	Sometimes	No answer	Total
01	04	11	02	18
5.55%	22.22%	61.1%	11.11%	100%

Table 40. Teachers' Frequency of Using Cooperative Learning/GroupWork

Of the total respondents (N=18), 61.1% said that they ‘sometimes’ do that; 22.22% said ‘often’; two respondents 11.11% had no opinion; against 5.55% who said ‘always’.

Question 9: If you implement group work, would you briefly explain how you usually use it.

The aim of asking teachers to explain is mainly to get an idea about the way teachers use group work in writing classrooms. The results are to a large extent disappointing. It has been found that:

- Only one teacher groups students heterogeneously.
- Only one teacher assigns roles for students to play during group work.
- Only one teacher asks the students to discuss and explain to one another the material/task when working together.
- Yet, the roles for another teacher includes devoting a part of the essay to be developed by one of the team members i.e. one member writes the introduction, the other the first paragraph and another member is responsible for writing the second paragraph, etc. In the case of writing, it is certainly C.L or even group work because everyone is responsible for a given task to do; they do not at all develop individual accountability or even interpersonal relationships.
- Some other teachers group students according to the way they sit in the classroom, others simply let the students select the groups they want to work in.
- Most of them form groups of four members.
- Only two teachers asserted that they move around to evaluate what the group did.
- Globally, the teachers write that they divide the whole class into groups of four members in a random way then assign a task to accomplish.

It can be clearly noticed that the group work technique they are implementing is not highly structured.

Question 10: If you use cooperative learning, would you name the method(s) you usually use.

With this question, we wanted to make sure that what W.E. teachers are implementing is truly C.L. The six respondents wrote: product method, showcase portfolio, information gap activities, writing tasks, encouraging activities, and grammar and vocabulary activities. Two teachers wrote that they use C.L but they are not familiar with the methods because they are not experts in using the approach's models; however one remaining teacher gave no answer. The answers show that even if they said that they use C.L but still the methods they indicated do not belong to the approach (C.L).

Question 11: Have you had training on using cooperative learning in teaching writing per se?

Yes	No	Total
01	17	18
5.55%	94.44%	100%

Table 41. Teachers' Training on Using Cooperative Learning

As shown in the above table, 94.44% of the informants except 5.55% i.e. one teacher had no training on using C.L in writing instruction. These answers justify the previous answers for question 08. That is, if they are not trained on implementing C.L in writing classes, it is so reasonable that they do not know and use the common C.L methods like S.T.A.D, T.G.T, Leaning Together, Jigsaw, etc.

Question 12: I understand cooperative learning well enough to implement it successfully.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Undecided	Total
01	04	05	01	07	18
5.55%	22.22%	27.77%	5.55%	38.88%	100%

Table 42. Teachers' Understanding about Using Cooperative Learning

On such a question, 38.88% of the total informants opted for ‘undecided’, 27.77% ‘disagree’, 22.22% ‘agree’, 5.55% ‘strongly agree’; against one respondent 5.55% who ticked for ‘strongly disagree’.

Section two: Implementing Group Work/Cooperative Learning

Question 13: Do you prefer to let students choose whom to work with, or do you assign them in any particular way?

Most of W.E teachers revealed that they let students choose whom to work with; four teachers asserted that students form the group the way they sit in the classroom and only one teacher said that he organizes the teams according to their proficiency. It seems that almost all teachers have no solid criteria to apply when grouping the students. For grouping to be structured in the case of teaching writing, teachers should from heterogeneous groups of different ability levels.

Question 14: How many students do you include in each group?

Three students	Four students	Five students	No answer	Total
03	12	00	03	18
16.66%	16.66%	00%	16.66%	100%

Table 43. Distribution of Students in Small Groups

66.66% of the participants revealed that they include four members in each group; 16.66% ‘three’; no one includes ‘five’; against 16.66% who expressed no opinion.

Question 15: What are the skills that you make your student focus on while cooperating?

In this question, we wanted to know further about structuring group work. We asked about C.L skills to know whether W.E teachers make learners focus on when working together. Five teachers had no answer and two others said that they do not do that at all. The other teachers’ answers are: content, grammar, peer tutoring, organization, generation the main ideas, the process of writing, interacting, communicating, revising, sharing and

discussing ideas, assessing, communicative skills. It can be noticed that almost all the answers do not include skills as such (content, grammar, etc.) only few answers were related to the skills (interacting, discussing- decision- making and assessing).

Question 16: Do you assign different roles for students to undertake in the group work/cooperative learning?

Yes	No	Total
02	16	18
11.11%	88.88%	100%

Tables 44. Assigning Different Roles per Group Work/Cooperative Learning

88.88% of the participants said that they do not assign roles for students to undertake in the C.L/group work; against two teachers 11.11% who said 'yes'. The respondents were then asked to mention the roles they assign for their learners if their answer is 'yes'. The two teachers who responded positively to the question gave the following answers:

Teacher 01: "the students can share with their friends' ideas and correct them to each other".

Teacher 02: "for example, one student writes the introduction of the essay, the other writes the first body paragraph and another one the second, etc."

According to the answers of the first teacher, the roles that students should undertake are only to discuss or negotiate the ideas; in fact, the roles that students play are more than that. The second teacher, however, revealed that he divides the work between students so that the role of every individual member is to be responsible for completing one part of the task. In a writing classroom, this is not C.L because in this case neither individual accountability nor interpersonal relationships take place in the group (cf. sections 3.5. and 3.11.).

Question17: How much time do you devote to a group work/cooperative learning task?

½ Class period (45minutes)	01 Class period (90 minutes)	02 Class period (three hours)	Total
05	12	01	18
27.77%	66.66%	5.55%	100%

Table 45. Time Allocated for Group Work/Cooperative Learning

As a response to this question, 66.66% of teachers said they devote one class period for one C.L/group work task; 27.77% said they devote half class period; against 5.55% (one informant) who said he devotes a 2-class period. In the space provided for further answer, the teacher who already revealed that he devotes a 02-class period for one task, wrote that he does so most of the time but sometimes he devotes only one class period.

Question 18: What do you exactly do when you walk from group to group to check on their progress?

Correct their works	Respond to their works	Both	Total
00	02	16	18
0%	11.11%	88.88%	100%

Table 46. Teachers' Evaluation of Small Groups' Progress

Of the total respondents, 88.88% asserted that they do both of correcting and responding; only 11.11% said 'respond' and no one of them said that they only correct their works.

Question 19: Do you reward to best achieving groups?

Yes	No	Total
12	6	18
66.66%	33.33%	100%

Table 47. Rewarding the Best Achieving Groups

66.66% of the respondents asserted that they reward the best achieving groups; against 33.33% who said 'no'. Besides, the respondents were asked about the type of the rewards

given. The twelve teachers who have already stated they reward the best achieving groups gave the following answers.

They give bonus marks to be added to the students' second marks. Others use words of praise and write the best work on the board. It seems that the respondents are aware that their students need to be rewarded. Bonus marks seem to be the best rewards for they contribute to students' success in terms of encouraging and fostering their motivation to learn and participate in the class ethos (Widdowson, 1990).

Question 20: What do you think are the main roles teachers undertake in a cooperative learning context?

The following are the roles as put by the teachers: Monitoring and explaining, making students motivated, a guide, a source of feedback, facilitator, councilor, advisor, organizer and controller. In the teachers' answers, the role of 'guide' accrues seven times, assessor four times, monitor, organizer, facilitator and controller appear two times; the other remaining roles occur only one time. Since 'guide' is the most occurring role, we can say that the respondents are more or less aware of the roles to undertake in C.L environment.

Question 21: How would you describe your students when you make them write together?

Motivated	Indifferent	Not motivated	Total
16	02	00	18
88.88%	11.11%	0%	100%

Table 48. Teachers' Description of their Students When they Write Together

Of the total respondents (N=18), 88.88% said 'motivated'; against 11.11% who said 'indifferent' and no one of them asserted that the students are not motivated. The results were satisfactory since in the students' questionnaire (cf. Q: 04), students said that they feel confident and comfortable when they work in groups with their peers.

Section Three: Teachers' Problems, Beliefs and Attitudes

Question 22: My students lack the skills necessary for effective cooperation.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Undecided	Total
04	13	0	0	01	18
22.22%	72.22%	0%	0%	5.55%	100%

Table 49. Teachers' Standpoints about Students' Lack for Effective Cooperation

72.22% of the participants said that they agree that their students lack the skills necessary for effective cooperation to take place; 22.22% said they 'strongly agree'; against 5.55% (one teacher) who was undecided.

Question 23: There is little time available to prepare students to work effectively in groups.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Undecided	Total
07	11	00	00	00	18
38.88%	61.11%	0%	0%	0%	100%

Table 50. Teachers' Opinion about the Time to Prepare Students to Work Effectively in Groups

Of the total respondents, 61.11% agree; against 38.88% who 'strongly agree'. It seems that the time devoted for teaching writing is not long enough to make students effective cooperators.

Question 24: There are too many students in my class to implement cooperative learning effectively.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Undecided	Total
12	4	01	01	00	18
66.66%	22.22%	5.55%	5.55%	0%	100%

Table 51. Teachers' Opinion about the Number of Students and the Efficiency of Cooperative Learning

66.66% of the participants strongly agree; 22.22% agree; 5.55% disagree; against one instructor 5.55% (one) who strongly disagree with the statement.

Question 25: Implementing cooperative learning requires a great deal of effort.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Undecided	Total
06	08	01	00	03	18
33.33%	44.44%	5.55%	00%	16.66%	100%

Table 52. Teachers' Viewpoints about How Best to Implement Cooperative Learning

Table 52 shows that 44.44% of the respondents agree that applying C.L needs a great deal of effort, 33.33% strongly agree; 5.55% disagree; against 16.66% who are undecided. The figures revealed that the respondents said that it is not easy to use C.L with such conditions, especially for Q 20, 21 and 22.

Question 26: Do students who cooperate in writing assignments produce better texts than individuals who complete assignments alone?

Yes	No	Total
17	01	18
94.44%	5.55%	100%

Tables 53. Teachers' Opinion about Students' Individual Writing Achievements through Cooperative Writing

Of the total respondents, 94.44% said 'yes'; against one participant 5.55% who said 'no'.

Question 27: Does the experience of cooperative learning, transfer positively to later writing?

Yes	No	No answer	Total
17	00	01	18
94.44%	0%	5.55%	100%

Table 54. Teachers' Attitudes Towards the Positive Transfer of Cooperative Learning to Later Writing

The figures show that 94.44% of the respondents think that the experience of cooperative writing transfers positively to later writing; against 5.55% (one participant) who has no answer. This is again another indication that C.L is efficient for teaching the writing skill.

Question 28: What do you think is more efficient to help students write successfully?

Cooperative Learning	Individualistic Learning	Both	No answer	Total
11	03	03	01	18
61.11%	16.66%	16.66%	5.55%	100%

Table 55. Teachers' Opinion about the Efficient Approach to Help Students Write Successfully

61.11% of the informants opted for 'Cooperative Learning', while 16.66% chose 'Individualistic Learning'; 16.66% said 'both' though we have not included it in the options; against 5.55% who had no opinion.

Question 29: Do your students face any problems while cooperating?

Yes	No	Total
17	01	18
94.44%	5.55%	100%

Table 56. Teachers' Attitude toward the Problems Students Face while Cooperating

Of the total respondents, 94.44% responded positively the question; against 5.55% (one informant) who asserted that his students do not face any problem.

Question 30: If yes, what is (are) the problems(s)?

a	c	a+b	a+c	b+c	a+b+c	No answer	Total
01	06	02	04	01	03	01	18
5.55%	33.33%	11.11%	22.22%	5.55%	16.66%	5.55%	100%

Table 57. Teachers' Opinion about the Different Problems Students Face while Cooperating

It can be noticed in Table 57 that 33.33% of the respondents said that **(c)** 'unequal participation' is the problem that students face while cooperating; 22.22% said **(a+c)** 'imposing points of view' and 'unequal participation', 16% said **(a+b+c)** 'imposing points of view', 'social skill problems' and 'unequal participation', 11.11% said **(a+b)** 'imposing points of view' and 'social skill problems', 5.55% said **(a)** 'imposing points of view', 5.55% said **(b+c)** 'social skill problems' and 'unequal participation'; against one respondent (5.55%) who gave no answer.

4.4.3. Discussion of the Teacher Questionnaire Results

The analysis of the teachers' responses yielded significant data in that they provide a general understanding of their attitudes, perspectives, difficulties as well as the way they manage writing classes when making students work together in teams. The following are the main points.

Most of respondents are master or Magister holders who have approximately the same experience, yet not highly expert in teachers writing. Table 34 shows that only 22.22% of the informants have taught writing for over 10 years. This makes us think that there must be cooperation between the novice and the more experienced teachers.

77.77% of respondents use student–centered approach in teaching writing. Yet, according to Table 38, only 44.44% make their students write in the classroom; which means that there is a contradiction and that most of their classes are not really student–centered.

Further, the results in Tables 39 and 40 show that the respondents sometimes make students work together but only few of them use C.L per se.

Answers to Q9 and Q10 reveal that the group work technique that the respondents use is unstructured. The other teachers who indicated that they use C.L have not mentioned any clear C.L method; what they wrote are merely activities we usually use (they were unable to name one common C.L method). What is needed in C.L is a method that is highly structured and organized which consists of steps and principles to follow and apply.

The respondents seemingly had no training to implement C.L and only few of them think that they have a good command of using such an approach. These results justify their answers to Q10 because they did not mention a clear C.L method: this is an indicator that even if they think they use C.L but still it is not enough structured.

Through section two it has been noticed that, globally, the respondents have an unclear understanding of what C.L classroom management is. When asked about the way they organize the groups, most of their answers were that they let students do the grouping by themselves. In C.L, however, the teacher is the one who structures the teams, for grouping to be structured, group members should be selected on the basis of their writing abilities (cf. Chapter 3).

On C.L skills, it seems that the respondents do not have a clear idea about the appropriate skills which students should focus on when working together. This entails that they do not explain to their learners such skills before they let them start any C.L or group work activity.

For the question related to roles that students should play in team work, almost all the respondents do not assign roles for learners (cf. Chapter 3). Their unawareness of assigning these kinds of roles makes the work less structured.

Table 45 indicates that most of the informants 66.66% devote a whole class period (which last 1 hour and 30 minutes) for C.L/group work activities. Yet, although we provided a

space for more explanation they didn't add anything. One class period is not suitable all the time; for simple tasks, there is no need of a whole class period. One of the main requirements for effective C.L is to allocate an appropriate time for the tasks which ensures a focus on the work on the part of the students.

The figures in Table 46 show that almost all the informants 88.88% correct and respond to their students' written productions when they walk from one group to another to check their progress. In fact, what should teachers do in this case is only responding but not correcting. In writing assessment, responding is the most suitable way of evaluation when students are still working together. Correction takes place after students submit the works.

What was encouraging in these answers is the fact that W.E teachers include four members in the groups which we think appropriate for writing activities for second years. Another thing is that they use the system of reward when implementing C.L/group work. Besides, the figures revealed in Tables 49, 50, 51 and 52 show that teachers face some problems using C.L when it comes to having the appropriate conditions to make it effective.

About the benefits of C.L, the results inTables53, 54 and 55 indicate that teachers think that this technique is more efficient to help students write successfully instead of individualistic learning. Lastly, the participants believe that their students have some problems when they collaborate and it seems to be a serious handicap as how to impose their points of view. This indeed justifies the teachers' and students unawareness of the basic C.L skills.

4.4.4. Description and Administration of the Student Questionnaire

The purpose of the students' questionnaire is exploratory; it is to uncover their reactions towards C.L, towards what they do in the writing classroom, towards their teachers' use of C.L/group work and even towards the problems they encounter during cooperation. In other

words, the questions are generally on classroom experiences and on the way instructors implement C.L/group work.

Seventeen questions were used closed questions and multiple choice questions with extra space for additional answers. The questionnaire was handed out to fifty students (N=50). Prior to administrating the questionnaire to the students, they received an explanation of what C.L is for it was believed that they are not familiar with the term.

It was made sure that all students have understood the questions. The informants were given about twenty minutes to complete the questionnaire individually. All these precautions were to guarantee that the questionnaire was to a large extent administered in good conditions.

4.4.5. Analysis of the Student Questionnaire

Question 01: Have you ever worked in a group in a writing class?

Yes	No	Total
50	00	50
100%	00%	100%

Table 58. Students' Prior Experience in Cooperative Writing

100% all of the participants said that they have already worked in a group in a writing class.

Question 02: If yes, how often?

Always	Often	Sometimes	Total
25	04	21	50
50%	08%	42%	100%

Table 59. Students' Frequency of Experiencing Cooperative Writing

Of the total informants (N=50) 50% said 'always'; 42% said 'sometimes'; 08% said; 'often'.

Question 03: Do you think that writing is better done individually or in groups?

Individually	In groups	Total
18	32	50
36%	64%	100%

Table 60. Students' Attitude toward Individualistic and Cooperative Writing

64% of the informants indicated that they prefer writing in groups; against 36% who said that writing individually is better.

Question 04: Do you feel confident when writing in a group?

Yes	No	Total
41	09	50
82%	18%	100%

Table 61. Students' Feelings toward Writing in a Group

This question was to check the affective side of the learners when working in a group i.e. whether they feel confident and comfortable when writing in a small group. Of the total respondents, 82% said 'yes'; against 18% who asserted that they do not.

Question 05: If yes, how often?

Always	Often	Sometimes	No Answer	Total
09	20	11	10	50
18%	40%	22%	20%	100%

Table 62. Students' Frequency of Feeling Confidence in Cooperative Writing

40% said 'often'; 22% said 'sometimes'; 18% said 'always'; against 20% who had no answer because they have already answered 'no' in the previous question (Q04).

Question 06: Do you think that working in groups helps you understand the writing process better or it just slows you down?

Helps you learn	Slows you down	No answer	Total
39	08	03	50
78%	16%	06%	100%

Table 63. Students' Attitudes toward the Benefits of Cooperative Writing

78% of the participants asserted that working in groups helps them understand the writing process; 16% think that it slows them down; against 06% who had no answer.

Question 07: If yes, in which area(s) does it help you?

Language areas	Number of occurrences	Percentage of occurrences
a+d	03	06%
a+e	01	02%
a+f	01	02%
a+b+f	01	02%
a+c+g	01	02%
a+d+f	04	08%
a+e+f	03	06%
a+e+g	01	02%
a+g+h	01	02%
a+b+c+f	01	02%
a+b+e+f	03	06%
a+b+e+g	01	02%
a+d+e+f	05	10%
a+e+f+h	03	06%
a+f+g+h	01	02%
a+b+c+d+f	02	04%
a+b+d+f+h	01	02%
a+b+e+f+h	01	02%
a+b+e+g+h	01	02%
a+c+d+g+h	01	02%
a+c+e+f+h	01	02%
a+b+e+f+g+h	01	02%
a+d+e+f+g+h	01	02%
b	01	02%
b+e+f+g	01	02%
No Answer	09	18%
Total	**50**	**100%**
a. Gathering information **b.** Planning **c.** Drafting **d.** Revising **e.** Grammar **f.** Diction (the choice of words) **g.** Coherence **h.** Unity		

Table 64. The Areas in Which Cooperative Learning Helps Students in Writing

As shown in Table 35, working in groups helps develop the skill of gathering information for later writing more than the other seven areas proposed; 'gathering

information' appears 38times with proportion of (the numbers of occurrences are included rather than the percentages for ease of clarification). In the second position is 'diction' which occurs 30 times, then 'grammar' 21 times, 'revising' 18 times, 'planning' 13 times, 'coherence' 10 times, 'unity' 09 times and finally 'drafting' occurs only 06 times. 18% of the respondents did not express any opinion because they have already indicated that the group work slows them down, and so they did not need to answer.

In the extra space provided, some students added that working in small groups gives them a chance to share their ideas with others, learn new things (vocabulary, new information, etc.) and how to write effectively. Others wrote that cooperation is a good opportunity for them to develop social skills and efficient ways to communicate with other peers.

Question 08: Do you help your group mates learn the material when cooperating?

Yes	No	No answer	Total
48	01	01	50
96%	02%	02%	100%

Table 65. Students' Help to Each Other

96% of the informants indicated that they helped their mates learn when working together, 02% (one student) said 'no'; against 02% (one learner) who gave no answer.

Question 09: If yes, how often?

Always	Often	Sometimes	No Answer	Total
12	16	21	01	50
24%	32%	42%	02%	100%

Table 66. Students' Frequency of Helping Each Other

42% of the informants asserted that they 'sometimes' help their group mates when cooperating 36% said 'often'; 24% said 'always'; against one student 02% who had no answer.

Question 10: In case you do not understand the material, do you ask your group members for clarification?

Yes	No	No answer	Total
47	02	01	50
94%	04%	02%	100%

Table 67. Asking Team-mates for Clarification

According to the results indicated in the Table 67, 94% of participants argued that they ask for help from their mates when they need to. Only two students 04% said that they do not, and 02% (one participant)had no answer.

Question 11: I yes, how often?

Always	Often	Sometimes	No Answer	Total
15	10	22	03	50
30%	20%	44%	06%	100%

Table 68. Students' Frequency of Asking Team-mates for Clarification

Responses to this question revealed that among the student who ask their group-mates for clarification,44% of them 'sometimes' do that; 30% 'always'; 20% 'often'; against 06% who did not answer.

Question 12: Do you use social skills as turn taking, tolerance, accepting points of views, interacting softly?

Yes	No	No answer	Total
46	03	01	50
92%	06%	02%	100%

Table 69. Students' Use of Social Skills

Most of the informants reacted positively to the question for 92% said that they use those skills when working in teams. Only 06% of them do not do so; against 02% (one respondent) who did not react to the question.

Question 13: Does your teacher use a particular method(s) when making you work in groups?

Yes	No	Total
15	35	50
30%	70%	100%

Table 70. Teacher Use a Particular Method(s) When Making Students Work in Groups

Of the total respondents (N=50), 70% said 'no', while 30% asserted that their teacher do so.

Question 14: Does your teacher show how to be effective team members?

Yes	No	Total
38	12	50
76%	24%	100%

Table 71. Teachers' Showing Students How to be Effective Team Members

On this question, 76 % of the informants responded that their teachers do that; against 24% who said 'no'.

Question 15: During a writing task, how often does your teacher come round and provide small group feedback?

Always	Often	Sometimes	Total
28	9	13	50
56%	18%	26%	100%

Table 72. Teachers' Frequency of Providing Feedback

56% of the participants said that their teacher 'always' respond to their productions; 18% who said 'often', other 18% who asserted 'sometimes' and 04% said 'rarely'.

Question 16: Do you have any problems during collaborative learning tasks?

Yes	No	Total
21	29	50
42%	58%	100%

Table 73. Students' Facing Collaborative Learning Problems

The above table show close results. More than half of the students (58%) indicate that they face problems when cooperating; against 42% who asserted that they do not face any.

Question 17: If yes, what is (are) the problem(s) you face during cooperative learning?

a	b	c	a+b	b+c	a+b+c	No answer	Total
04	02	02	09	03	03	27	50
08%	04%	04%	18%	06%	06%	54%	100%

a. Imposing points of view **b.** social skill problems **c.** unequal participation

Table 74. Students' Collaborative Learning Problems

The main problems that the informants face in collaboration are 'imposing points of view' and 'unequal participation'. 18% of the informants said that (**a+b**) 'Imposing points of view' and 'social skill problems' are the problems they face; 08% said (**a**) 'Imposing points of view'; 06% said (**b+c**) 'social skill problems' and 'unequal participation'; 06% said (**a+b+c**) 'Imposing points of view', 'social skill problems' and 'unequal participation', 04% said (**b**) 'social skill problems' and 04% said (**c**) 'unequal participation'.

For extra comments, some wrote that among the problems they face are: the different abilities, different perspectives toward things, and lots of misunderstanding among the team members. They also seem to suffer from some stubborn, unserious and untrustworthy group members who impose points of view, devote the work to others or simply give wrong answers.

4.4.6. Discussion of the Student Questionnaire Results

The analysis of the students' answers has revealed some valuable information about the participants' perspectives, standpoints and awkwardness in regard to working in groups. The results in Table 58 indicate that all students (100%) have already experienced working in small groups in writing classes. In effect, this is very encouraging since working in teams is said to be very efficient in learning writing which is the concern of our research.

Table 60 shows that of the total students, 64% of them prefer working in groups but not working individually. They liked the atmosphere of collaboration maybe because it is fun and more engaging. About how they feel when working in small groups, 82% of the informants asserted they feel confident as indicated in Table 61. This is perhaps because they work with peers, which is less frustrating and stressing in comparison to whole class situation where the teacher is in the front firing questions! It seems that cooperation is not only good in the affective side of learning it also helps them learn the writing process as shown in Table 63.It is especially a good chance to learn how to gather information (Table 64) mainly because the team members discuss the topic to be written. This probably shows them how to come up with ideas or 'how to think'.

4.5. Conclusion

The pilot study was an attempt to picture the general procedure for the main study; it provides us with information that allowed for suitable adjustments. On the other hand, the results of the teacher questionnaire show that the majority of teachers utilize group work rather than C.L and even the remaining few who said they use C.L have no solid background of how to implement it successfully. Globally, it may be assumed that teachers lack the information and the skills needed for effective cooperation to take place. Classroom management does not only require the students to work together but also requires the teachers to have a clear understanding of the nuts and bolts of how to plan, structure, implement, and evaluate cooperative activities. It is worth noting that although teachers have some problems

in how to use C.L; but still they reacted positively toward adopting it as an effectual strategy that would help learners produce better written texts. In fact, the effort expended on C.L is probably worth to spend as long as teachers are aware of how to implement it so that students benefit academically and socially.

The student questionnaire, on the other hand, show that generally learners prefer working in groups rather than individually. Affectively speaking, they think C.L/group work is a comfortable context where they can learn more confidently. Further, their answers stress the point that their teachers use group work and not C.L which needs to be highly managed and structured. Although some students seem to have some problems when cooperating, globally, small group situation appears to be the suitable atmosphere for them to learn writing.

Chapter Five
The Situation Research Analysis: Implementing the Student Team-Achievement Divisions Method

Chapter Five

The Situation Research Analysis: Implementing the Student Team-Achievement Divisions Method

5.1. Introduction

This chapter is consecrated to the description and the analysis of the experiment representing an investigation of the efficacy of the adapted Student Team-Achievement Divisions method (S.T.A.D), a cooperative learning/instructional method, in boosting learners' writing skill. The results of the experiment permitted the researcher to deeply understand issues on the connection between student-centeredness, cooperative learning, classroom management and writing. Such connection is likely to bring about efficacious impact on learners' performance as writers in academic settings.

5.2. Design and Methodology

The theoretical frame within which this study is carried out is the trend of students-centered approach which stimulates the use of C.L in writing classrooms. Therefore, it can be assumed that second-year students who are taught writing from a learner-centered perspective via C.L would foster their writing proficiency. To investigate the impact of the independent variable which is C.L on the dependent variable i.e. learners' performance in writing, the experimental research design chosen was descriptive and inferential. First, the students' five written works of the experimental and the control groups are analyzed to check whether they truly improved from one work to another, then a post-test is carried out to check the research's hypothesis. To do that, a two-group only post-test design was used.

5.3. Two-groups Only Post-test Design

The two-group only post-test design, also called post-test-only control group design, is an experimental design that is used to check the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable through a post-test to take place after a treatment was introduced to the Experimental Group only rather than the Control Group. In other words, it is a commonly used design in which the researcher obtains two groups, experimental and a control group, and then he administers a treatment to the experimental group and tests the performance of both groups in the end. That is, a comparison will be held between the two groups' performances (Rao, 1990). Likewise, Baker and Charvat (2008) also concluded that the difference in post-test scores between the two groups can be considered as a sign or an estimate of the impact of the treatment. In this design, the subjects have to be randomly assigned to either the Experimental or Control Group for this would increase the chance of equivalence in the groups (Lynch, 2010) and this is what has been done. In the same context, Bless et. al. (2006:87) state that "randomization aims at ensuring that the experimental and control groups are identical except for that only the experimental group receives the treatment or event". In sum, this design consists in dividing the sample randomly into equal groups, introducing the treatment to one of them and using the post-test measurement to compare the results. This figure clarifies how this design works:

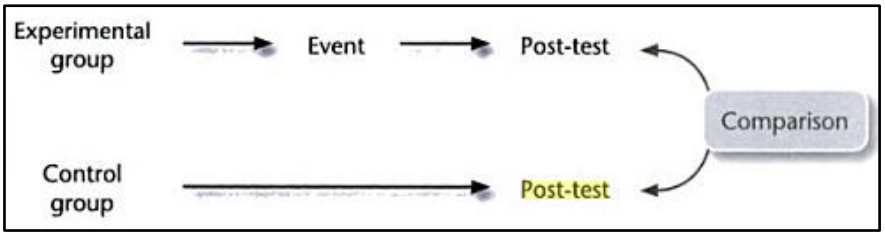

Figure03. Post-test-only Control Group Design (Bless et. al., 2006:87)

5.4. The Experiment

The experiment involved a treatment about the adapted S.T.A.D (cf. section: 3.6.4. and section: 5.4.2.1.3.) and two groups –a sample of 50 second-year students with 25 students in each– randomly chosen from the target population at the Department of Letters and the English Language University of Constantine. One group serves as an Experimental Group which receives the treatment, while the other stands as a Control Group. Students of the Experimental Group write cooperatively; whereas the students of the Control Group write individually; they never work in groups. It has been hypothesized that the adapted S.T.A.D method can have an efficient impact on the students' writing skill.

5.4.1. The Grouping

Prior to starting to apply the S.T.A.D method, we had to prepare some points which we thought significant. In Slavin's S.T.A.D method the groups are arranged heterogeneously i.e. according to students academic level, sex and ethnicity. In our experiment it is proceeded in the same way except that the factor of ethnicity is not of interest in this research. To group the students heterogeneously means that the teams embrace mixed abilities and gender: a high performer, a low performer and two average performers, two girls and two boys if possible.

To decide on the students' abilities, an entry test was used. Students were asked to write a paragraph on *the main reasons that make people lie*. The marks obtained from this test were used to make the grouping. In the following page, the table presents the students gender and the marks they had in the entry test:

Students	Students' marks in the entry test	Writing level	Gender
01	12	high performer	female
02	11	average performer	female
03	07	low performer	female
04	08	low performer	male
05	13	high performer	male
06	12	high performer	female
07	13	high performer	male
08	11	average performer	female
09	10	average performer	female
10	10	average performer	female
11	10	average performer	female
12	14	high performer	female
13	10	average performer	female
14	12	high performer	female
15	08	low performer	female
16	10	average performer	female
17	09	average performer	female
18	06	low performer	female
19	11	average performer	female
20	10	average performer	male
21	07	low performer	female
22	11	average performer	female
23	08	low performer	male
24	07	low Performer	female
25	09	average Performer	female

Table 75. Students' Gender and Writing Level

Table 75 shows that the marks earned from the entry test range from 06 to 14. It is also shown that we have 06 high performers, 12 average performers and 07 low performers. On what concerns students gender[1], there are 20 females and only 05 males. 'High performer' is a relative term that means high compared with the class not necessarily with specific norms (Slavin, 1995).

We believe that a four-member group is a pretty good group. However, 25 students, the size of the Experimental Group, is not divisible by four. This means we might have groups of four and five members or four and three members. If we choose to work with four and five members, first we will have a problem to move smoothly around to check on the students' progress in the classroom; second we think that the tasks we will assign do not need that big number of students (five members). Hence, it was decided to work with groups of four and three members. For 25 students, there are four small groups that consist of four members and

[1] In this study, gender is not a research variable; but, it is a crucial feature for heterogeneous grouping as put by Slavin (1995).

three small groups that include three members. The following table shows how the seven groups are arranged in terms of academic performance and gender:

Groups	The number of students in every group	Groups' academic performance	Groups' gender
Group 01	four members	- one high performer - two average performers - one low performer	all females
Group 02	four members	- one high performer - two average performers - one low performer	all females
Group 03	four members	- one high performer - two average performers - one low performer	two males two females
Group 04	four members	- two average performers - two low performers	two males two females
Group 05	three members	- one high performer - one average performer - one low performer	all females
Group 06	three members	- one high performer - one average performer - one low performer	one male two females
Group 07	three members	- one high performer - two average performers	all females

Table 76. Groups' Sizes, Gender and Academic Performances

It can be noticed in Table 76 that all the three levels (high, average and low) could not be included in all the groups. Group 04 and 07 consist of only two levels simply because there were no other choices. In effect, the researcher struggled hard to make the groups as heterogeneous as possible.

5.4.2. Preparing the Materials

The materials that were put forward for the experiment are: The Student Team-Achievement Divisions method (Slavin, 1995) and ten cooperative and individual writing activities.

5.4.2.1. Students Team-achievement Divisions (S.T.A.D) Method

One of the learning/teaching approaches that can be constructed from student-centered teaching reinforcing and emphasizing active learning, responsibility and cooperation is the

C.L approach and for this latter to be highly structured we used a method called the S.T.A.D developed by Slavin at Johns Hopkins University in America.

It was decided to use the S.T.A.D to teach writing because it was believed to be more appropriate to achieve the research main aim which is promoting students' writing achievements. Further, this method can be applied to language teaching and for different levels; it is a good model to start with for instructors who are new to the cooperative approach (Slavin, 1995). The S.T.A.D consists of five main components: class presentation, teams, quizzes, individual improvement and team recognition. The following is a reminder table of the components:

S.T.A.D Components	Description
1- Class presentation	The teacher first introduces the lesson to students before they start cooperating.
2- Teams	Students start to work in groups on the task to accomplish the shared goal.
3- Quizzes	Students take individual quizzes. They are not allowed to assist each other during the test.
4- Individual improvement	Individual improvement scores are gained to see whether students have improved according to their past performance and how much they have improved.
5- Team recognition	Groups may win certificates or other kind of rewards if their averages of improvement scores exceed a certain level.

Table 77. Students Team-achievement Divisions Components (Slavin, 1995)

5.4.2.1.1. How Much Adoption

Slavin's S.T.A.D has been adapted to cope better with W.E. classes at the University of Constantine. Yet, not all of its components have been dropped. The main idea of class presentation is adopted. The fact that there is a need to present first a lesson in which students should pay careful attention to it seems to be appropriate for the present research requirements. As far as the material is concerned, it was referred to teacher-made material and textbooks as main sources.

In the second step when students work in teams, most of the S.T.A.D principles were also adopted. Having heterogeneous groups of four members in each where students help, support, assess each other and use social skills to master the material, seems to be a suitable idea.

The next thing that students do in S.T.A.D is to take the quiz. Making students work individually on a task in which they can apply what they have learnt from class presentation and group work, and having the teacher figuring quizzes scores and team scores for the next class are completely adopted.

On what concerns individual improvement scores, the only thing we adopted is the main idea of having base scores and improvement points which may contribute to teams' success. This is the essence of S.T.A.D because it determines to what extent students benefited from class presentation and group work. The only thing that we adopted from Slavin's' 'team recognition' is the idea of awarding successful teams.

5.4.2.1.2. How Much of Adaptation

For some pedagogic considerations, mainly to cope with the Algerian class requirements the S.T.A.D has been adapted according to how *Written Expression* is being taught, to the level of our students and according to the system of scoring (out of *20/20* not out of *100*). All the five S.T.A.D components were included except for, the way they are organized and applied which is not the same. Two components *team work and the quiz* have been made one, the way the individual improvement points are counted has been changed and it was opted for another kind of reward. The adaptation turned the S.T.A.D to consist of only four components with different scoring and rewarding systems. The following is how the adaptation was conducted.

5.4.2.1.2.1 Adapting Team Study and Quiz

In Slavin's S.T.A.D, team study and the quiz are separate tasks except that students rely on what they learned from team study to succeed in the quiz. Further, what students produce in team study is not taken into consideration to decide on improvement points but only the quiz. In the adapted S.T.A.D, however, both of group and individual works are graded and are taken into consideration when it comes to determining the individual improvement points. This means that the marks gained from team work products as well as the quizzes will be used to form averages. That is, if a group of four, for instance, got ***13*** in the group work and in the quiz the following marks:

S1:*10* - **S2:***12* - **S3:***09* - **S4:***14*, their averages will be as follows:

13 + 10 ÷ 2 = 11.5 ⟶ average of **S1**

13 + 12 ÷ 2 = 12.5 ⟶ average of **S2**

13 + 09 ÷ 2 = 11 ⟶ average of **S3**

13 + 14 ÷ 2 = 13.5 ⟶ average of **S4**

The averages students get represent their efforts when cooperating and when working individually. For the adaptation, both works should be graded and taken into account for students' success because if team work/study is not valued; students may not work as seriously as they are expected to do. Hence, and since both the group study and the quiz contribute to how much students' improvements are, it was decided by the researcher to gather them under one subheading being: **Group and Individual Works**.

Note: The averages are compared to the base scores to figure out the students' improvement points and teams' scores.

5.4.2.1.2.2. Adapting the Individual Improvement Scores' System

The marks obtained by students from the group study and the individual work are out of 20 and not 100 as Slavin has suggested (The scoring system used in America is quite different

from that used in Algeria). Hence, the improvement points will not be determined on the basis of Slavin's criteria. The following table explains the new proposed grading system:

The status of the average score	Improvement points	Improvement/No improvement
Less than base score	00 point	No improvement
Equals base score	00 point	No improvement
0.25p above base score	2.5 points	Improvement
0.5p above base score	5 points	Improvement
0.75p above base score	7.5 points	Improvement
01p above base score	10 points	Improvement
02ps above base score	20 points	Improvement
03ps above base score	30 points	Improvement
X ps above base score	*Y* points	Improvement
p: point; ps: points		

Table 78. The System of the Improvement Points

Contrary to Slavin's system in which improvement scores do not exceed 30 points of improvement, the method suggested permits the students to get more than 50 points which is believed to be fair enough since it allows students get points for every improvement they achieve. For instance, if the base score of a student is *08* and the average is *13*, this means that there are 05 points above the base score (13-8=05) and the student in this case will get 50 points of improvement. Here is a clear example of the achievement of a group:

Students	Base scores	Averages	Improvement points	Total	Team averages
01	10	10 (+00)	00	45 points	11.25
02	07	11 (+04)	40		
03	12	11 (+00)	00		
04	13	14.5 (+1.5)	15		

Table 79. Example of a Group Achievement in an S.T.A.D Unit

The same idea of the improvement points was kept –that is, all students, even the less able ones, have the chance to improve their academic achievement and get a bonus. In the case of writing, it is not about those who write best but rather about those who improved more.

5.4.2.1.2.3. Adapting Team Recognition

Slavin's method (1995) does not encourage competition because teams have to reach certain criteria to get the reward; they are not competing with one another but working to exceed a given criteria. For Slavin (1995), there is a possibility that all groups can win. Further, the rewards Slavin has suggested are certificates or oral praises. In fact, this can be applicable to elementary students but not to university students. Our learners need competition and another kind of reward. For this reason, it was suggested that the three best groups which have the highest team averages (improvement points) will get the reward. This may raise motivation and hard work. Furthermore, as far as dealing with university students, certificates are believed not to help; students need rather a more valuable reward. 'A bonus score' seems the best choice for it is likely to contribute to their success and it may largely increase their motivation to do better in the next S.T.A.D.

5.4.2.1.3. The New Adapted S.T.A.D

The following is a brief display of the S.T.A.D after the adaptation:

- **Class Presentation:** It takes from one to two class periods where by the teacher explicitly presents the material which he prepares or takes from textbooks.
- **Team and Individual Works:** After class presentation, the team work should take place so that learners can relate what they have learnt with what they will practice on. The teacher forms heterogeneous groups of four members and three and get them work together employing social and academic skills to accomplish the task goal. In the following session, students take a quiz on the same type of the task they had in the group work. The time devoted to team and individual works depends on the task.
- **Improvement Scores:** The grades obtained from group and individual works are used to decide on improvement points of every individual learner and later for every group.

- **Team Recognition:** This is the last step of the S.T.A.D in which the three best groups who have the highest improvement points earn a reward: bonus score.

5.4.2.2. The Writing Tasks

The S.T.A.D involves cooperative tasks and individual works to be accomplished by students in order to decide on improvement points for later reward if any. In the case of writing classes, two tasks for every S.T.A.D unit are needed: one for cooperative writing and another for the quiz (individual work). Throughout the treatment, the five writing tasks were used in which students were required to write a paragraph, paragraphs or a whole essay on a given topic. That is, following the W.E syllabus for second years, the participants were not asked to write a complete essay in all the five S.T.A.D units but just parts of it. Further, the tasks used in the S.T.A.D units whether cooperative or individual should reflect the earlier presented lessons which makes the tasks or quizzes assignment closely related to the lessons. For instance, if the lesson presented was about how to write an introduction, the cooperative and individual tasks should be on introduction writing.

The lessons used in the treatment are the usual courses instructors use to teach writing for second years. This mainly includes essay writing (how to write an essay). The lessons we used are:

1. *First semester*: types of introductions, the thesis statement, how to relate topic sentences to the thesis statement, how to develop body paragraphs in an essay, and ways to conclude an essay –how to write a conclusion.
2. *Second semester*: types of essays (the example essay).

It worth noting that these lessons are those used in the experiment, not the only ones taught to students throughout the year. The topics or the assignments used in the treatment are summarized in Table 80 in the following page.

S.T.A.D Units	Group work assignments	Quiz assignments
Unit One	Write an introduction for the following topic: *Ways to escape stress* Identify the type of introduction you used.	Write an introduction about the following: *Things you like/dislike about your University* Identify the type of introduction you used
Unit Two	Write an introduction and three possible topic sentences on: *'Life is full of so many injustices'.*	Compose an introduction and three possible topic sentences on one of the following topics: - What are the bad effects of using the Internet? - What are the effects of plastic surgery?
Unit Three	The topic: '*qualities of a successful person'* Write an introduction (identity the type), two topic sentences and develop a paragraph on one of the topic sentences.	Write an introduction, three topic sentences and develop one topic sentence on one of the following topics: 1- If you could change three important things about your country, what would you change? 2- Many people work for money. What are the other reasons that make people work?
Unit Four	Write the thesis statement, three topic sentences, develop one paragraph and write a logical conclusion on: '*things people do to stay healthy'.*	Write a thesis statement, three topic sentences, develop a paragraph and write a conclusion on: '*what is your opinion about fortune telling?'*
Unit Five	*People depend a lot on technology*. Write an essay: introduction, three developmental paragraphs and a conclusion. Use examples to support this idea.	Write an example essay on: '*Appearances are deceptive'*.

Table 80. Group Work and Quiz Assignments

5.4.3. The Treatment

The treatment lasted three months in which five S.T.A.D units were used, each of which took from three to five class periods. The research treatment did not only include implementing the S.T.A.D method but also explaining what C.L and the S.T.A.D method are. We believe that doing so would make students perceive the main objective of the whole approach or work.

5.4.3.1. Teaching Cooperative Learning

Prior to teaching and applying the S.T.A.D method, we tried to explain to the participants of the Experimental Group only what C.L is. They were equally made aware of the basic requirements of effective cooperation within the small group situation (cf**.** Appendix # 05).

5.4.3.2. Teaching the S.T.A.D

Since we are going to use the S.T.A.D as a C.L model for teaching writing to the Experimental Group, it is very crucial that they know and understand it well. Hence, the S.T.A.D method was explained, we dictated its main components and clarified some points on how to count the improvement scores on the board (cf. Appendix # 06).

5.4.3.3. The Five S.T.A.D Units Used in the Experiment

This is a description of how the adapted version of the S.T.A.D was used in the experiment. It was implemented five times where every S.T.A.D unit was explained according to a given material (lesson).

5.4.3.3.1. The First S.T.A.D Unit

a. Class Presentation

Before getting students to write, a lesson on the four different types of introduction was presented: *the funnel, the turnabout, the dramatic entrance and the relevant quotation*. Then, the main components: *general statements* and *the thesis statement* of each one were explained. In doing so, we have asked students to pay careful attention to the lesson for later practice.

b. Group and Individual Works

b.1. Group Work

Directly after class presentation, the next session was devoted to team work. Students were asked to form groups as we assigned to them (cf. section: 5.4.1.). The assignment was written on the board and explained (Table 80). The time allocated to accomplish the task was 45 minutes. To ensure good cooperation, students were reminded of how to work together efficiently in terms of academic and social skills, then every student in the team was given a role to undertake: writer, time keeper, leader, etc. After that students started to write together. During cooperation the researcher monitored and guided the students.

b.2. Individual Work

Before taking the quiz, students were handed in their group works graded and corrected; they needed to know how well or badly they did in the group work so that they would work better in the quiz. The time set for the quiz and the type of the task were similar to the group work. In this stage, all students worked individually; no one helped the other. The experimenter's role in this task was not to monitor or guide but to ensure individual work.

c. Improvement Points

To decide on improvement points, group and individual works grades were needed. The base scores are the marks obtained in the entry test (cf. Table 75). The group work grades and individual grades form the averages which are compared with the base scores to find out whether students have improved their writing skill from the entry test to writing an introduction (Group works+ individual works). Table 81 explains how this was done.

Instruction to Read the Table: In the subsequent table, the base scores of this unit are the marks obtained in the entry test; the group work scores are the grades got in the work where the subjects cooperated; and the individual scores are the marks got in the quiz. To calculate the averages, the group work marks were added to the quiz marks then divided by two. Next,

to find out the improvement scores, the averages were compared with the base scores (cf. section: 5.4.2.1.2.2.). Because the groups do not have the same number (some include four members others three), the improvement points were divided by the number of the students in a given group to obtain fair results. It was proceeded likewise for tables (82, 83, 84 & 85).

Groups	Students	Base Scores	Group Work Scores	Individual Scores	Averages	Improvement Scores and Averages		Bonuses
Group 01	1	08	/	09	09	10	**72.5/18.12**	00
	2	13	12	13	12.5	00		
	3	09	12	12 .5	12.25	32.5		
	4	10	12	14	13	30		
Group 02	1	14	13.5	12.5	13	00	**47.5/15.83**	00
	2	09	13.5	10	11.75	27.5		
	3	11	13.5	12.5	13	20		
Group 03	1	10	14	08	11	10	**25/8.33**	00
	2	11	14	07	10.5	00		
	3	13	14	15	14.5	15		
Group 04	1	11	/	12.5	12.5	15	**62.5/15.62**	00
	2	07	11.5	10	10.75	37.5		
	3	10	11.5	10	10.75	7.5		
	4	12	11.5	13	12.25	2.5		
Group 05	1	7	13.5	12	12.75	57.5	**82.5/27 .5**	**+03**
	2	11	13.5	13	13.25	22.5		
	3	12	13.5	11	12.25	2.5		
Group 06	1	12	12.5	15	13.75	17.5	**90/22.5**	**+02**
	2	11	12.5	/	12.5	15		
	3	10	12.5	10	11.25	12.5		
	4	08	12.5	12.5	12.5	45		
Group 07	1	10	11	14.5	12.75	27.5	**87.5/21.87**	**+01**
	2	8	11	05	7.5	00		
	3	10	11	12	11.5	15		
	4	11	/	11	11	50		

Table 81. Students' Marks, Improvement Points and Bonuses of the First S.T.A.D Unit

In this unit, the base scores (the entry tests marks) range from 07 to 14, whereas the averages range from 7.5 to 14.5. It can be noticed that all the small groups have improved their writing skill from the entry test to introduction writing. Their improvement averages range from 8.33 to 27.5 which we think a significant result.

d. Team Recognition

Based on Table 51 it was decided on the three best achieving groups. The groups with highest improvement scores got the reward. Group 05 with the highest improvement points got 03 points, the second group (group 06) got 02 points and the third best group (group 07) had 01 point. Table 51 was handed to the students before the next S.T.A.D unit was started and the same was done for all the rest of the units.

5.4.3.3.2. The Second S.T.A.D Unit

a. Class Presentation

In this unit, in over two class periods students were taught how to write topic sentences for the developmental paragraphs and how to closely relate them to the thesis statement. Again we asked them to carefully concentrate on the lecture for later practice.

b. Group and Individual Works

b.1. Group Work

The next step was to make students work cooperatively on a task related to the lesson presented earlier. Students were assigned in the same groups as for the first unit, and then the task assignment was written and explained on the board (Table 80). The time devoted for this task was 45 minutes. Every team member was given a role different from that played in the first unit. The experimenter's role during the cooperation was to monitor and guide students. Corrections took place before they had the quiz.

b.2. The Individual Work

This is the stage where students were not allowed to work as a team. It was the time students tried out the same type of the task with the same time allocated in an individual way. That is, the quiz was a reflection of the group work task except that students were asked to work on their own. Before we decided on the improvement scores, we corrected the quizzes and handed them to the students.

c. Improvement Points

In this unit the base scores are not the marks gained from the entry test but are the averages of the first unit. That is, to find out the improvement scores of the second unit, the averages of the first unit were compared with the averages of the second one. The following table explains the process:

Groups	Students	Base Scores	Group Work Scores	Individual Scores	Averages	Improvement Scores and Averages		Bonuses
Group 01	1	09	08	04	06	00	**00**	00
	2	13	08	10	09	00		
	3	12.25	08	11	9.5	00		
	4	13	/	08	08	00		
Group 02	1	13	09	15	12	00	**00**	00
	2	11.75	09	10	9.5	00		
	3	13	09	11	10	00		
Group 03	1	11	14	10	12	10	**10/3.33**	**+03**
	2	11	14	07	10.5	00		
	3	14.5	14	12	13	00		
Group 04	1	12.5	11	12	11.5	00	**00**	00
	2	10.75	11	08	09.5	00		
	3	10.75	11	10	10.5	00		
	4	12.25	11	12.5	11.62	00		
Group 05	1	12.75	12	12.5	12.25	00	**00**	00
	2	13.25	12	12	12	00		
	3	12.25	12	11	11.5	00		
Group 06	1	13.75	13	15	14	2.5	**05/1.25**	**+02**
	2	12.5	13	09	11	00		
	3	11.25	13	10	11.5	2.5		
	4	12.5	13	10	11.5	00		
Group 07	1	12.75	09	13	11	00	**00**	00
	2	7.5	09	06	7.5	00		
	3	11.5	09	10	9.5	00		
	4	11	/	09	09	00		

Table 82. Students' Marks, Improvement Points and Bonuses of the Second S.T.A.D Unit

In the second S.T.A.D unit, the base scores (the averages of the first S.T.A.D unit) ranged from 7 to 14.5 while the averages ranged from 06 to 13. As indicated in Table 52, only two groups (group 06 and group 03) have improved their writing skill from the first unit to the second one; the other five groups, however, failed to do so. The improvement averages of the two improved groups range from 1.25 to 3.33.

d. Team Recognition

In normal cases, the three first groups with the highest improvement points will get bonus scores: 03 points, 02 points and 01 point respectively. However, in this unit only two groups got the bonus points: group 03 gained 03 points and group 06 earned 02 points because they were the only groups who improved (cf. Table 82)

5.4.3.3.3. The Third S.T.A.D Unit

a. Class Presentation

In the third S.T.A.D unit, students were lectured on how to develop a body paragraph for an essay. They were provided with the basic elements of an effective paragraph development. The participants were asked to pay careful attention to the main points of the lesson to help them in both the group and individual works.

b. Group Work and Individual Works

b.1. Group Work

The next thing to be done is to get students work together to accomplish the task with the same group members. The participants were asked to write an introduction, three topic sentences and a body paragraph. They were required to play roles different from that of the previous S.T.A.D unit. Before starting to cooperate, the participants were reminded of some basic points for effective cooperation. Again the experimenter's role was to monitor and guide the students while working together.

b.2. The Individual Work

As stated in the other units, at this stage the participants are not allowed to help one another. They had to rely on what has been learned in the small group situation to do well in the quiz. They had the same assignment type and time of the group work task.

c. Improvement Points

For this unit, the base scores of the students are the averages of the second unit. They are compared with their new averages to figure out the extent to which students improved their writing from the second unit to the third one. Doing this helps us find the best performers.

Groups	Students	Base Scores	Group Work Scores	Individual Scores	Averages	Improvement Scores and Averages		Bonuses
Group 01	1	06	10	07	8.5	25	**65/ 16.25**	**+ 02**
	2	09	10	10	10	10		
	3	9.5	10	11	10.5	10		
	4	08	10	/	10	20		
Group 02	1	12	13	13.5	13.25	12.5	**32.5/10.86**	00
	2	9.5	/	9	9	00		
	3	10	13	11	12	20		
Group 03	1	12	14.5	08	11.25	00	**25/8.33**	
	2	10.5	14.5	09	11.75	12.5		
	3	13	14.5	14	14.25	12.5		
Group 04	1	11.5	11	12	11.5	00	**16.3/4.07**	00
	2	9.5	/	08	08	00		
	3	10.5	11	12.5	11.75	12.5		
	4	11.62	11	13	12	3.8		
Group 05	1	12.25	13	12.5	12.75	05	**22.5/7.5**	00
	2	12	13	13	13	10		
	3	11.5	13	11.5	12.25	7.5		
Group 06	1	14	14	14.5	14.25	2.5	**52.5/13.12**	**+01**
	2	11	14	13	13.5	25		
	3	11.5	14	11	12.5	10		
	4	11.5	14	10	12	05		
Group 07	1	11	12.5	11	11.75	7.5	**75/18.75**	**+03**
	2	7.5	12.5	10	11.25	37.5		
	3	9.5	12.5	09	10.75	12.5		
	4	09	12.5	09	10.75	17.5		

Table 83. Students' Marks, Improvement Points and Bonuses of the Third S.T.A.D Unit

As indicated in Table 83, the base scores (the averages of the second unit) range from 06 to 13 whereas the averages range from 8 to 14.25. It is also shown that all the groups had an improvement from the second unit to the third one. Their improvement averages range from 4.07 to 18.15 in comparison with the second unit; the results of this unit are more encouraging.

d. Team Recognition

Bonus scores were given to the first three groups of the highest improvement scores (improvement averages). As shown in Table 83, group 07 got 03 bonus points, group 01 had 02 points and group 06 gained 01 point.

5.4.3.3.4. The Fourth S.T.A.D Unit

a. Class Presentation

The fourth lecture was on how to write a logical conclusion. Students were given different ways to do it; this took one class period.

b. Group and Individual Works

b.1. Group Work

Working with the same team members; the participants were given an assignment that closely reflects the lesson presented earlier. In the assignment, students were not asked to write an introduction because it was thought they practiced it enough (six times); hence, the assignment embraces the following instructions:

Write a thesis statement, three topic sentences, develop one paragraph and write a logical conclusion

The time set for the task was one hour and fifteen minutes. Again, the role of the experimenter was to monitor and guide students to cooperate effectively.

b.2. Individual Work

After the students were given back their group works corrected, they were directly tested individually on conclusion writing. They were given one hour an fifteen minutes to complete the test with the same type task. Before counting improvement scores, the quizzes were handed to the students corrected and graded.

c. Improvement Points

After grading the individual and the group works which form the averages, these latter are compared to the base scores (the averages of the third S.T.A.D unit) to decide on improvement scores for late rewards. Consider the following table:

Groups	Students	Base Scores	Group Work Scores	Individual Scores	Averages	Improvement Scores and Averages		Bonuses
Group 01	1	8.5	11	/	11	25	**70/17.5**	**+02**
	2	10	11	11	11	10		
	3	10.5	/	11	11	05		
	4	10	/	13	13	30		
Group 02	1	13.25	15	14	14.5	12.5	**37.5/12.5**	**+01**
	2	9	12	11	11.5	25		
	3	12	09	08	8.5	00		
Group 03	1	11.25	12	11	11.5	2.5	**2.5/0.83**	00
	2	11.75	12	08	10	00		
	3	14.25	12	14	13	00		
Group 04	1	11.5	/	13	13	15	**79.5/19.87**	**+03**
	2	08	13	08	10.5	25		
	3	11.75	13	14	13.5	27.5		
	4	12	13	13.5	13.25	12.5		
Group 05	1	12.75	09	/	09	00	**00**	00
	2	13	09	14	11.5	00		
	3	12.25	09	13	11	00		
Group 06	1	14.25	13.5	14	13.75	00	**7.5/1.87**	00
	2	13.5	13.5	/	13.5	00		
	3	12.5	13.5	11	12.25	00		
	4	12	13.5	12	12.75	7.5		
Group 07	1	11.75	10	11	10.5	00	**7.5/1.87**	00
	2	11.25	/	/	/	00		
	3	10.75	/	10	10	00		
	4	10.75	10	12	11	7.5		

Table 84. Students' Marks, Improvement Points and Bonuses of the Fourth S.T.A.D Unit

In the fourth S.T.A.D unit, the base scores (the averages of the third unit) range from 8 to 14.25 while the averages range from 9 to 14.5. It is indicated in Table 54 that all the groups, except one, have improved their writing skill from the third to the fourth unit. Their improvement averages range from 00 to 19.87.

d. Team Recognition

As shown in Table 84, the three best achieving groups earned bonus scores: group 04 gained 03 points, group 01 had 02 points and group 02 got 01 point.

5.4.3.3.5. The Fifth S.T.A.D Unit

a. Class Presentation

In the last S.T.A.D unit, the lecture was presented on ‘How to write an example essay’. The main characteristics of such an essay type were explained, then two model essays entitled “Greatness” and “Useless Trifles” were analyzed and studied. The class presentation took about three class periods. Again students were made aware of the fact that they should pay attention to the lesson components for effective practice later.

b. Group and Individual Works

b.1. Group Work

Before getting the students to write cooperatively a complete essay, they were first asked to write an outline for it. We wanted them to have more than 01 hour and 30 minutes because it was the first time they wrote a complete essay. They had half an hour to plan the essay in a session and in another session they had 01 hour and 30 minutes to write an essay cooperatively. The experimenter monitored and guided students.

b.2. Individual Work

The same type of the task was used in the test but the time allocated for it is 01 hour and 30 minutes only; students did not need extra time (as the group work) because it was the second time they experience writing a complete essay.

c. Improvement Points

After students got their works (group and individual works) corrected and marked, the next step was to decide on students’ improvement scores. The base scores are the averages of the fourth S.T.A.D unit; the improvement points were computed by comparing the base scores to the averages. In the following page, consider Table 85:

Groups	Students	Base Scores	Group Work Scores	Individual Scores	Averages	Improvement Scores/Averages		Bonuses
Group 01	1	11	11	11	11	00	**05/11.25**	00
	2	11	11	8	9.5	00		
	3	11	11	12	11.5	05		
	4	13	11	11.5	11.25	00		
Group 02	1	14.5	15	14.5	14.75	05	**75/25**	**+03**
	2	11.5	15	13	14	25		
	3	8.5	15	11	13	45		
Group 03	1	11.5	14	09	11.5	00	**55/18.33**	**+02**
	2	10	14	/	14	40		
	3	13	14	15	14.5	15		
Group 04	1	13	/	/	/	00	**00**	00
	2	10.5	13	08	10.5	00		
	3	13.5	13	11	12	00		
	4	13.25	13	15	14	00		
Group 05	1	09	14.5	12.5	13.5	45	**75/25**	**+03**
	2	11.5	14.5	10	12.25	7.5		
	3	11	14.5	12	13.25	22.5		
Group 06	1	13.75	12	14	13	00	**00**	00
	2	13.5	12	13	12.5	00		
	3	12.25	12	11	11.5	00		
	4	12.75	12	11	11.5	00		
Group 07	1	10.5	12	13	12.5	20	**52.5/13.12**	00
	2	/	12	/	12	7.5		
	3	10	12	11	11.5	15		
	4	11	12	/	12	10		

Table 85. Students' Marks, Improvement Points and Bonuses of the Fifth S.T.A.D Unit

In the last unit, the base scores (the averages of the fourth unit) range from 9 to 14.5 whereas the averages range from 9 to 14.75. Table 85 shows that all the groups had an improvement except one group. Their improvement averages range from 00 to 25.

d. Team Recognition

Teams who got the first three highest improvement scores earned a reward. Table 85 indicates that two groups (group 02 and group 05) had the same improvement averages; hence, both groups got 03 points. Since two positions were taken, this means that only one group remained that is group 03 who had 02 points.

5.4.4. Analysis of the Students' Individual Written Works

This analysis involves an evaluation of the students' writing on grammar, spelling, mechanics, organization, content and style. The aim of this analysis is to give more description to their writing, to check whether improvement took place from one work to

another and to know or find out which group (Experimental or Control) improved their writing more in terms of the areas stated above. It can be noted that only the individual works are used and compared - that is, the Experimental Group has experienced both cooperative writing and individual writing in the treatment (the five S.T.A.D units) whereas the Control Group has practiced only individual writing i.e. the Control Group had exactly the same topics, but all of them were written individually (cf. Table 50). Hence, only the works in which both of them experienced individual writing on the same topics were compared because it is believed that it would not be suitable to compare individual works with group works.

In this analysis, the number of mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics made by every individual student were counted, and then the number of words written or used by each student. Finally, the percentage of mistakes made by every individual on the basis of the number of words used in a given work was figured out. In the end, the same thing was done for all grammar, spelling and mechanics mistakes made by all the students (Experimental and Control Group separately) in order to discover the proportion of mistakes made by a certain group on the basis of the number of words used in all their works. In other words, a kind of 'individual evaluation' and 'group evaluation' were performed. The former helped find out whether a student has improved from one group to another in terms of making less mistakes; this means if a participant gets a lower proportion in the previous work than the preceded one no matter how the improvement is, it is an indication that he has improved his writing. The latter was used to know whether the group (experimental or control) has improved from one work to another again in terms of making less surface errors.

Second, students' writing was assessed in relation to organization, content, and style. Because it is not suitable to give a number of how much mistakes made in each, we only gave values of 'Good', 'Average'[2] and 'Bad'. Every individual subject was given a value for each of those language areas and then the general proportion was figured out for all the students

[2] The value 'average' is given to mean that the student level in organization, content or style is neither good nor bad.

(Experimental and Control Group separately). Then, to check for 'improvement' and 'non-improvement', the results of the work were compared. The analysis allows for a clear understanding of the students' way of writing, their weaknesses and strengths.

5.4.4.1. Analysis of the Results of the Experimental Group Works

Five individual written works of the Experimental Group will be analyzed to get a clear image of their writing skill as they move from one work to another.

5.4.4.1.1. Analysis of the Results of the First Unit Individual Work

In the following table, participants' mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics of the first individual work are recorded.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	Number of mistakes	Number of words	%
1	06	01	01	08	109	7.33%
2	/	/	/	/	/	/
3	09	01	02	12	65	18.46%
4	01	01	01	03	73	4.10%
5	06	01	01	08	86	9.30%
6	05	04	07	16	81	19.75%
7	01	01	04	06	62	9.67%
8	03	01	07	11	72	15.27%
9	02	01	08	11	82	13.41%
10	04	02	02	08	72	11.11%
11	01	02	03	06	88	6.81%
12	07	00	01	08	80	10%
13	03	00	01	04	64	6.25%
14	05	01	03	09	66	13.63%
15	01	04	01	06	69	8.69%
16	07	01	08	16	107	14.95%
17	07	01	01	09	87	10.34%
18	01	02	03	06	44	13.63%
19	05	00	02	07	59	11.86%
20	00	01	04	05	62	8.06%
21	06	02	0	08	84	9.52%
22	01	01	02	04	69	5.79%
23	02	02	04	08	54	14.81%
24	06	03	01	10	53	18.51%
25	04	00	03	07	56	12.50%
Total	**93**	**33**	**70**	**196**	**1675**	
Proportion	**47.44%**	**16.83%**	**35.71%**	**11.70%**		

Table 86. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group Mistakes of the First Work

Concerning the first work in which students were asked to write an introduction, the twenty four students (one student was absent) made 47.44% of mistakes in grammar from the

total number of mistakes, 35.71% mistakes in mechanics and 16.83% mistakes in spelling. Yet, of the total number of words written by all the students (1675), 11.70% of them are mistakes.

The following table represents an evaluation of the students' writing in terms of organization, content and style of their writing.

Students	**Organization**			**Content**			**Style**		
1	G			G			G		
2	/			/			/		
3	A			B			B		
4	G			A			G		
5	A			A			B		
6	A			A			G		
7	A			B			A		
8	G			A			A		
9	A			A			B		
10	B			B			B		
11	A			A			G		
12	G			B			A		
13	A			A			A		
14	A			B			B		
15	A			A			B		
16	G			A			A		
17	A			B			A		
18	B			A			A		
19	B			A			A		
20	G			G			G		
21	G			A			B		
22	G			A			A		
23	B			B			A		
24	A			B			B		
25	B			A			B		
Total	**G**	08	33.33%	**G**	02	8.38%	**G**	05	20.83%
	A	11	45.83%	**A**	14	58.33%	**A**	10	41.66%
	B	05	20.83%	**B**	08	33.33%	**B**	09	37.50%
G: good; **A**: average; **B**:bad.									

Table 87. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group First Work

Table 87 shows that 45.83% of participants had an average organization, 33.33% of them had 'good'; against 20.83% who had 'bad'. Concerning content, 58.33% of students' content was average; 33.33% 'bad' and 8.33% of students' content was 'good'. On the other

hand, less than half of the informants 41.66% had an average style, 37.50% of them had 'bad'; against 20.83% whose style was 'good'.

5.4.4.1.2. Analysis of the Results of the Second Unit Individual Work

The subsequent table presents an evaluation of the subjects' writing by figuring out grammar, spelling and mechanics mistakes.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	Number of mistakes	Number of words	%
1	05	00	04	09	158	5.69%
2	03	02	05	10	77	12.98%
3	09	09	04	22	85	25.88%
4	02	01	04	07	118	5.93%
5	09	00	06	15	161	24.59%
6	08	04	05	17	97	17.52%
7	04	02	08	14	98	14.28%
8	08	09	07	24	134	17.91%
9	02	01	08	11	104	10.57%
10	10	01	06	17	147	11.56%
11	07	02	08	17	140	12.14%
12	11	01	02	14	125	11.2%
13	08	01	00	09	125	7.2%
14	05	01	02	08	80	10%
15	02	05	02	09	84	10.71%
16	09	01	07	17	117	14.52
17	05	01	09	15	139	10.79%
18	/	/	/	/	/	/
19	02	06	07	15	88	17.04%
20	03	03	04	10	125	8%
21	04	03	05	12	130	9.23%
22	02	02	04	08	79	10.12%
23	/	/	/	/	/	/
24	14	10	02	26	180	14.44%
25	09	10	05	24	117	20.51%
Total	**141**	**75**	**114**	**330**	**2708**	
Proportion	**42.72%**	**22.72%**	**34.54%**	**12.18%**		

Table 88. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group Mistakes of the Second Work

For the second work where students were required to write an introduction and three topic sentences, the twenty-three students (two were absent) made 42.72% of mistakes in Grammar, 34.54% in mechanics; against 22.72% in spelling. About the general proportion of mistakes, 12.18% were made for 2708 words.

This table shows the students' improvement and non-improvement in writing when their first work is compared to the second work.

Students	Improvement		No improvement	
1	√			
2	/		/	
3			X	
4			X	
5			X	
6	√			
7			X	
8			X	
9	√			
10			X	
11			X	
12			X	
13			X	
14	√			
15			X	
16	√			
17			X	
18	/		/	
19			X	
20	√			
21	√			
22			X	
23	/			
24	√			
25			X	
Total	**08**	**36.36%**	**14**	**63.63%**
√: improvement; X: no improvement; / the student was absent				

Table 89. Experimental Group's Improvement from the First work to the Second Work

Of the twenty two students (one student was absent in the first work and the two were absent in the second), 63.63% of them made more mistakes in the second work than the first work; against 36.36% who improved their writing in terms of making less mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics.

The following table is an assessment of the students' writing organization, content and style.

Students	Organization			Content			Style		
1	G			A			A		
2	B			A			A		
3	A			B			B		
4	A			A			A		
5	A			G			G		
6	B			A			A		
7	G			A			A		
8	A			A			A		
9	A			A			G		
10	A			A			B		
11	G			G			G		
12	A			A			A		
13	A			A			A		
14	B			B			B		
15	B			A			A		
16	G			G			A		
17	G			A			B		
18	/			/			/		
19	G			A			A		
20	G			G			G		
21	G			A			A		
22	A			A			G		
23	/			/			/		
24	B			A			B		
25	A			A			B		
Total	**G**	08	34.78%	**G**	04	17.33%	**G**	05	21.73%
	A	10	43.47%	**A**	17	73.91%	**A**	12	52.17%
	B	05	21.73%	**B**	02	8.69%	**B**	06	26.08%

Table 90. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group Second Work

For the same work, the figures in the above table show that 43.47% of learners had an average organization, 34.78% had a good organization; against 21.73% who had a bad organization. On content, 73.91% had an average content, 17.33% had a good content; against only 8.69% who had a bad one. Concerning style, 52.17% of the informants had an average style, 26.08% had a bad style; against only 21.73% who had a good style.

In the subsequent table are students' records on writing improvement and non-improvement in terms of organization, content and style

Organization				**Content**				**Style**			
/	1st Work	2nd Work	Imp/no Imp	/	1st Work	2nd Work	Imp/no Imp	/	1st Work	2nd Work	Imp/no Imp
G	33.33%	34.78%	**Imp**	**G**	8.33%	17.33%	**Imp**	**G**	20.83%	21.73%	**Imp**
A	45.83%	43.47%	**No Imp**	**A**	58.33%	73.91%	**Imp**	**A**	41.66%	52.17%	**Imp**
B	20.83%	21.73%	**No Imp**	**B**	33.33%	8.69%	**Imp**	**B**	37.5%	26.08%	**Imp**
Imp: improvement; **No Imp**: no improvement; **G**: good; **A**: average; **B**: bad											

Table 91. Experimental Group's Improvement in Organization, Content and Style from the First work to the Second work

This table shows that students' organization did not noticeably improve. Indeed, 34.78% of the informants had a 'good' in the second work; against 33.33% in the first, 45.83% had an 'average' in the first work, against 43.47% in the second, and 21.73% had a 'bad' in the second work; against 20.83% in the first work. In relation to content, we believe that the learners have improved: 17.33% of them had a 'good' in the second work; against 8.33% in the first, 73.91% of the informants had an average style in the second work against 58.33% in the first, and 33.33% of them had a 'bad' in the first work; against 8.69% in the second. On style, 21.73% of the participants had a 'good' in the second work; against 20.83% in the first, 52.17% of them had an 'average' in the second work; against 41.66% in the first and 37.5% had a 'bad' in the first work against 26.08% in the second.

5.4.4.1.3. Analysis of the Results of the Third Unit Individual Work

The following table exhibits the proportions of the informants' writing mistakes in grammar spelling and mechanics.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	Number of mistakes	Number of words	%
1	02	01	07	10	294	3.40%
2	06	03	05	14	209	6.69%
3	14	10	06	30	133	22.55%
4	00	01	01	02	240	0.83%
5	13	02	03	18	195	2.23%
6	10	08	07	25	120	20.83%
7	07	03	04	14	158	8.86%
8	06	13	10	29	208	26.85%
9	08	03	03	14	167	8.38%
10	12	06	04	22	137	16.05%
11	01	06	03	10	217	4.60%
12	10	02	07	19	236	8.05%
13	11	02	02	15	239	6.27%
14	04	06	09	19	126	15.07%
15	04	05	07	16	124	12.90%
16	10	06	05	21	200	10.5
17	03	03	06	12	156	7.69%
18	08	17	03	28	139	20.14%
19	01	06	03	10	127	7.87%
20	03	06	04	13	164	7.78%
21	04	00	01	05	243	2.05%
22	04	06	13	23	189	12.16%
23	07	01	10	18	131	13.74%
24	20	01	11	32	208	15.38%
25	05	04	03	12	97	12.37%
Total	**173**	**121**	**137**	**431**	**4277**	
Proportion	**40.13%**	**28.07%**	**31.78%**	**10.07%**		

Table 92. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group Mistakes of the Third Work

In the third work, the participants were asked to write an introduction, three topic sentences, and one developmental paragraph on one of the topic sentences. The analysis of their works shows that 40.13% of the mistakes done by the students were grammatical; 31.78% were mechanics mistakes; against only 28.07% of them which belong to spelling. On the other hand, the general percentage of mistakes made by students for 4277 words is 10.07% which we think better than the previous work.

The table displays students' improvement/non-improvement from the second work to the third work on grammar, spelling and mechanics.

Students	Improvement		No improvement	
1	√			
2	√			
3	√			
4	√			
5	√			
6			X	
7	√			
8	√			
9	√			
10			X	
11	√			
12	√			
13	√			
14			X	
15			X	
16	√			
17	√			
18	√			
19	√			
20	√			
21	√			
22			X	
23	√			
24			X	
25	√			
Total	**19**	**76%**	**06**	**24%**

Table 93. Experimental Group's Improvement from Second Work to Third Work

The figures in Table 86 seem encouraging. Of the total number of participants (N=25), 76% made less mistakes, while only 24% who didn't foster their writing in terms of making less grammar, spelling and mechanics errors.

Note: in the third work, student #23 was compared to his first work because he was absent in the second work.

The following table shows an evaluation of the students' writing organization, content and style.

Students	Organization			Content			Style		
1	G			G			G		
2	G			G			G		
3	A			B			B		
4	G			A			G		
5	G			A			A		
6	A			A			A		
7	A			A			A		
8	G			A			B		
9	G			A			A		
10	B			A			B		
11	G			A			G		
12	G			A			A		
13	A			G			G		
14	B			A			B		
15	A			A			A		
16	G			A			G		
17	G			A			A		
18	A			A			A		
19	G			A			G		
20	A			A			G		
21	G			G			A		
22	G			G			G		
23	B			B			A		
24	A			B			B		
25	A			B			A		
Total	**G**	13	52%	**G**	05	20%	**G**	09	36%
	A	09	36%	**A**	16	64%	**A**	11	44%
	B	03	12%	**B**	04	16%	**B**	05	20%

Table 94. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group Third Work

Concerning organization, content and style of the third work, the figures in Table 94 seem also encouraging 52% had a good organization; 36% had an average organization; against 12% who had a bad organization. As far as content is concerned, 64% of the students had an average content, 20% had a good content; against only 16% who had a bad one. On the other hand, 44% had an average style; 36% of them had a good style; while only 20% who had a bad style.

The following table shows the students' improvement and non-improvement on writing organization, content and style.

Organization				**Content**				**Style**			
	2nd Work	3rd Work	Imp/no Imp		2nd Work	3nd Essay	Imp/ no Imp		2nd Work	3rd Work	Imp/no Imp
G	34.78%	52%	**Imp**	**G**	17.33%	20%	**Imp**	**G**	21.73%	36%	**Imp**
A	43.47%	36%	**No Imp**	**A**	73.91%	64%	**No Imp**	**A**	52.17%	44%	**No Imp**
B	21.73%	12%	**Imp**	**B**	8.69%	16%	**No Imp**	**B**	26.08%	20%	**Imp**

Table 95. Experimental Group's Improvement in Organization, Content and Style from the Second Work to the Third Work

Concerning organization, we noticed that there was an improvement for 52% of the students had a good organization in the third work; against 34.78% in the second work and 21.73% of them had a bad organization in the second work; against 12% in the third work. On content, there was no significant improvement: 73.91 % of the participants had an 'average' in the second work; against 64% in the third work, and 16% of them had a 'bad' in the third work; against 8.69% in the second work. On the other hand, in general there was a slight enhancement in students' style for 36% of the informants had a 'good' in the third work; against 21.73% in the second work and 26.08% of them had a 'bad' in the second work against 20% in the third work.

5.4.4.1.4. Analysis of the Results of the Fourth Unit Individual Work

The following table, show the informants' mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics of the fourth work.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	Number of mistakes	Number of words	%
1	08	01	03	12	199	6.03%
2	/	/	/	/	/	/
3	24	06	07	37	193	19.17%
4	00	01	01	02	134	1.49%
5	07	05	06	18	237	7.59%
6	11	07	08	26	146	17.80
7	05	02	09	16	207	7.72
8	07	07	15	29	245	11.83%
9	04	01	05	10	167	5.98%
10	09	02	01	12	189	6.34%
11	05	03	04	12	195	6.15%
12	15	03	02	20	198	10.10%
13	07	04	05	16	190	8.42%
14	/	/	/	/	/	/
15	04	10	08	22	213	10.32%
16	06	02	10	18	152	11.84%
17	13	02	03	18	162	11.11%
18	07	07	12	26	173	18.97%
19	06	05	00	11	104	10.57%
20	02	07	05	14	163	8.58%
21	/	/	/	/	/	/
22	05	01	07	13	200	6.5%
23	/	/	/	/	/	/
24	16	01	02	19	187	10.16%
25	10	06	04	20	175	11.42
Total	**171**	**83**	**117**	**371**	3829	
Proportion	**46.09%**	**22.37%**	**31.53%**	**9.68%**		

Table 96. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group Mistakes of the Fourth Work

Concerning the fourth work, the students' task was a little different. They were asked to write a thesis statement, three topic sentences, one developmental paragraph and a logical conclusion. The results in Table 96 indicate that students made fewer mistakes in comparison to the previous work. In 3829 words, the respondents made 46.09% mistakes in grammar; 31.53% mistakes in mechanics; and 22.37% of mistakes of spelling. On the whole, students had a proportion of 9.68% mistakes for 3829 words.

This table exhibits the participants' improvement and non-improvement in terms of making less grammar, spelling and mechanics mistakes.

Students	Improvement		No improvement	
1			X	
2	/		/	
3	√			
4			X	
5			X	
6	√			
7	√			
8	√			
9	√			
10	√			
11			X	
12			X	
13			X	
14	/		/	
15	√			
16			X	
17			X	
18	√			
19			X	
20			X	
21	/		/	
22	√			
23	/		/	
24	√			
25	√			
Total	**11**	**52.38%**	**10**	**47.61%**

Table 97. Experimental Group's Improvement from the Third Work to the Fourth Work

Of the twenty one students (four students were absent in the fourth work) 52.38% of them made less mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics, while 47.61% made more mistakes in the fourth work than the third work.

The table displays an evaluation the students' writing in terms of organization, content and style of their writing.

Students	Organization			Content			Style		
1	A			G			G		
2	/			/			/		
3	A			B			B		
4	G			A			G		
5	G			A			G		
6	A			A			A		
7	A			G			G		
8	A			A			B		
9	G			G			G		
10	A			A			A		
11	G			G			G		
12	A			A			A		
13	G			G			G		
14	/			/			/		
15	A			G			G		
16	G			G			G		
17	A			A			A		
18	G			G			A		
19	B			A			A		
20	A			A			G		
21	/			/			/		
22	G			G			G		
23	/			/			/		
24	B			B			B		
25	A			A			A		
Total	**G**	08	38.09%	**G**	09	42.85%	**G**	10	47.61%
	A	11	52.38%	**A**	10	47.61%	**A**	08	38.09%
	B	02	9.52%	**B**	02	9.2%	**B**	03	14.23%

Table 98. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group Fourth Work

Table 98 reveals that 52.38% of informants had an average organization; 38.09% of them had a 'good'; against only 9.52% who had a 'bad'. On content, however, the results are more encouraging 47.61% of students' content was average; 42.85% was good; against only 9.20% whose content was bad. On style, the results are much more encouraging: 47.61% had a good style; 38.09% of them had an average style; while only 14.28% who had a bad style.

The subsequent table exhibits the subjects' improvement and non-improvement of their writing organization, content and style.

Organization				Content				Style			
/	3rd Work	4th Work	Imp/ no Imp	/	3rd Work	4th Work	Imp/ no Imp	/	3rd Work	4th Work	Imp/ no Imp
G	52%	38.09%	**No Imp**	**G**	20%	42.85%	**Imp**	**G**	36%	47.61%	**Imp**
A	36%	52.38%	**Imp**	**A**	64%	47.61%	**Imp**	**A**	44%	38.09%	**No Imp**
B	12%	9.52%	**Imp**	**B**	16%	9.52%	**Imp**	**B**	20%	14.28%	**Imp**

Table 99. Experimental Group's Improvement Organization, Content and Style from the Third Work to the Fourth Work

The figures in the above table suggest that students' organization improved a little for 52.38% of them had an average organization in the fourth work; against 36% in the third. For content, there was an improvement: 42.85% of the participants had a good content in the fourth work; against 20% in the third and 16% of them had a bad content in the third work; against 9.52% in the fourth. On style, however, it appears clear that students have enhanced their performance too from the third work to the fourth: 47.61% of the subjects improved their style in writing in the fourth; against only 36% in the third, 44% of them had an average style in the third work; against only 38.09% in the fourth work, and 20% of them had a bad style in the third work against 14.28% in the fourth.

5.4.4.1.5. Analysis of the Results of the Fifth Unit Individual Work

The table shows the informants' mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	Number of mistakes	Number of words	%
1	09	01	07	17	551	3.08%
2	07	03	9	19	363	5.23%
3	31	11	21	63	488	12.90%
4	03	01	03	07	348	2.01%
5	13	09	14	36	620	5.80%
6	14	16	11	41	209	19.61%
7	/	/	/	/	/	/
8	10	12	19	41	405	10.12%
9	06	06	11	23	433	5.31%
10	12	06	15	33	264	12.5%
11	10	04	12	26	412	6.31%
12	14	02	05	21	416	5.04%
13	09	07	06	22	545	4.03%
14	08	01	06	15	348	4.31%
15	12	09	12	33	349	9.45%
16	09	06	13	28	270	10.37%
17	09	02	03	14	284	4.92%
18	/	/	/	/	/	/
19	14	06	08	28	250	11.2%
20	13	10	06	29	333	8.70%
21	08	09	05	22	451	4.87%
22	07	09	04	20	618	3.23%
23	/	/	/	/	/	/
24	/	/	/	/	/	/
25	14	02	17	33	332	9.33%
Total	**232**	**132**	**207**	**571**	**8284**	
Proportion	**40.63%**	**23.11%**	**36.25%**	**6.89%**		

Table 100. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group Mistakes of the Fifth Work

For the last work, students had to write an example assay. Twenty one students (four students were absent) made 40.63% of mistakes in grammar, 36.25% in mechanics and 23.11% in spelling. The general proportion of mistakes made by students for 8284 words is 6.89%.

This table displays the experimenter's evaluation of the students' writing improvement and non-improvement in terms of surface mistakes.

Students	Improvement		No improvement	
1	√			
2	√			
3	√			
4			X	
5	√			
6			X	
7	/		/	
8			X	
9	√			
10			X	
11			X	
12	√			
13	√			
14	√			
15	√			
16	√			
17	√			
18	/		/	
19			X	
20			X	
21			X	
22	√			
23	/		/	
24	/		/	
25	√			
Total	**13**	**61.90%**	**08**	

Table 101. Experimental Group's Improvement from Fourth Work to Fifth Work

The numbers in Table 101 reveal that 61.90% improved their writing in terms of grammar, spelling and mechanics; against 38.09% who made more mistakes in the fifth than the fourth work.

Note: The fifth works of the students # 02, 14 and 21 were compared to their third works because they had no fourth work.

The table shows the participants' levels in writing organization, content and style.

Students	Organization			Content			Style		
1	G			G			G		
2	G			G			G		
3	A			A			B		
4	G			G			G		
5	G			G			A		
6	G			A			B		
7	/			/			/		
8	A			G			G		
9	G			B			A		
10	G			B			A		
11	G			G			G		
12	G			G			A		
13	G			G			G		
14	A			A			G		
15	G			G			A		
16	G			A			G		
17	G			B			A		
18	/			/			/		
19	G			A			A		
20	G			G			G		
21	G			A			G		
22	A			B			G		
23	/			/			/		
24	/			/			/		
25	G			A			G		
Total	**G**	17	80.95%	**G**	10	47.61%	**G**	12	57.14%
	A	04	19.04%	**A**	07	33.33%	**A**	07	33.33%
	B	00	00%	**B**	04	19.04%	**B**	02	9.52%

Table 102. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Experimental Group Fifth Work

For the same work, the above Table 102 shows a noticeable improvement in students' organization, content and style. Most of the students (80.95%) had a good organization, 19.04% of them had an average organization and none of them had 'bad'. Concerning content, 47.61% the students had a 'good', 33.33% had an 'average'; against 19.04% whose content was bad. On the other hand, 57.14% of the participants' had a good style; 33.33% of them had an average style while only 9.52% had a bad one.

The following table shows the students' improvement and non-improvement in their writing organization, content and style.

Organization				Content				Style			
/	4th Work	5th Work	Imp/no Imp	/	4th Work	5th Work	Imp/no Imp	/	4th Work	5th Work	Imp/no Imp
G	38.09%	80.95%	**Imp**	**G**	42.85%	47.61%	**Imp**	**G**	47.61%	57.14%	**Imp**
A	52.38%	14.04%	**No Imp**	**A**	47.61%	33.33%	**No imp**	**A**	38.09%	33.33%	**No imp**
B	9.52%	00%	**Imp**	**B**	9.53%	19.04%	**No imp**	**B**	14.28%	9.52%	**Imp**

Table 103. Experimental Group's Improvement in Organization, Content and Style from the Fourth Work to the Fifth Work

In comparing the performances in the fourth and the fifth works, it can be noticed that the participants have enhanced their organization for 80.95% of them had a good organization in the fifth work; against 38.09% in the fourth; no one had a bad organization in the fifth work; against 9.52% in the fourth. Concerning content, 47.61% of the learners had an average content in the fourth work; against 33.33% in the fifth and 19.04% of them had a bad content in the fifth work; against only 9.53% in the fourth work. This means that students have not significantly improved their content from the forth work to the fifth. About style, there was a noticeable improvement for 57.14% of the informants had a good style in the fifth work; against 47.61% in the fourth and 9.52% of them had a bad style in the fifth work; against 14.28% in the fourth.

5.4.4.2. Discussion of the Results of the Experimental Group Individual Works

After analyzing the experimental group's five written works in terms of detecting grammar, spelling and mechanics mistakes, it becomes clear that grammar mistakes are the most frequently appearing mistakes in all the works. The percentage of grammar mistakes range from 40.13% to 47%. In the second position are mechanics mistakes that range from

31.53% to 36.25%. The least made mistakes are those of spelling whose proportion range from 16.83% to 28.07% of all the made mistakes.

Looking for individual improvement of every student in terms of making less mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics from one work to another, one can observe that the results are in general encouraging -except for the results of the second work (Table 89) in which 63.63% of the informants have made more mistakes in the second work in comparison with the first work. In general, as stated earlier, the students who erred less were more than the others who didn't as Tables 93, 97, and 101 suggest:

- From the second work to the third work: 76% of students have boosted their writing and 24% have not.
- From the third work to the fourth work: 52.38% of students have improved their writing and 47.61% have not.
- From the fourth work to the fifth work: 61.90% of students have improved their writing and 38.09% have not.

This means that more than half of the participants could make less errors in four written individual works.

Note: to find out whether the students have improved or made fewer mistakes from one work to another, the experimenter has compared the percentages of mistakes made by every individual student from one work to another respectively. That is, if the percentage of mistakes done in a work is less than the previous one, this means that the students had an improvement and vice versa.

On the other hand, another comparison of the students writing was made on their *general* improvement from one work to another in terms of the proportion of grammar, spelling and mechanics mistakes made by *all* the students in each work. Tables 86, 88, 92, 96 and 100 show that the informants have made more mistakes from the first work (11.70%) to the second work (12.18%), but they have improved from the second work to the third (10.07%), from the third work to the fourth (9.68%) and from the fourth work to the fifth (6.89%), where less mistakes were made. One can hold that students have succeeded in enhancing their writing in terms of making fewer mistakes in grammar, spelling and

mechanics. In effect, the students have made about half mistakes less in the last work than in the first work (6.89% <11.70%) which is a significant improvement.

On evaluating students' writing organization, content and style, improvement from one work to another can be noticed. Tables 91, 95, 99 and 103 show that 'improvement' appeared 23 times against only 13 times for 'no improvement'. The same tables indicate that on the whole the area in which students were good is 'organization' because in the four works 'organization' had the highest percentage (33.33%, 34.78%, 52% and 80.95%). However, the area in which students were bad is 'Style' because in almost all the works (first, second, third and fourth) the proportion for 'Bad' was the highest (37.50%, 26.08, 20% and 14.23%).

5.4.4.3. Analysis of the Results of the Control Group Individual Works

Five individual written works of the Control Group will be analyzed to get an idea of their writing skill as they move from one work to another. Students were asked to do the same as the experimental group in terms of topics and task type. In the subsequent tables, students' mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics were recorded, as well as the organization, content and style of their writing.

5.4.4.3.1. Analysis of the Results of the First Unit Individual Work

The following table shows participants' mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics of the first individual work.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	The number of mistakes	The number of words	%
1	/	/	/	/	/	/
2	06	01	08	15	75	20%
3	04	01	04	09	82	10.97%
4	01	00	03	04	69	3
5	14	06	09	29	173	16.76%
6	04	02	02	08	54	14.81%
7	02	00	04	06	100	6%
8	12	02	04	18	97	18.55%
9	04	04	05	13	57	22.80%
10	10	05	03	18	83	21.68%
11	1	00	03	04	85	4.70%
12	/	/	/	/	/	/
13	/	/	/	/	/	/
14	07	06	03	16	98	16.32%
15	03	02	01	06	100	6
16	07	01	05	13	58	22.41%
17	11	03	03	17	158	10.75%
18	03	05	02	10	59	16.94%
19	02	02	01	05	120	4.16%
20	04	04	01	09	100	9%
21	04	01	07	12	63	19.04%
22	05	02	05	12	82	14.63%
23	09	05	05	19	142	13.38%
24	01	01	03	05	70	7.14%
25	08	06	06	20	79	25.31%
Total	**122**	**59**	**87**	**268**	**2004**	
Proportion	**45.52%**	**22.01%**	**32.46%**	**13.37%**		

Table 104. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Control Group Mistakes of the First Work

Table 104 shows that students made mostly grammar mistakes 45.52%, then mechanics mistakes 32.46%, and 22.01% are spelling mistakes. The general proportion of the students' mistakes according to the number of words written by them in this work is 13.37%; this means that they made 268 Mistake in 2004 words.

The table presents an evaluation of the students' writing in terms of organization, content and style.

Students	Organization			Content			Style		
1	/			/			/		
2	G			A			B		
3	A			B			B		
4	G			A			G		
5	A			A			A		
6	A			A			A		
7	G			A			G		
8	B			B			B		
9	A			A			B		
10	B			B			B		
11	G			A			G		
12	/			/			/		
13	/			/			/		
14	A			A			B		
15	A			B			A		
16	B			A			B		
17	A			A			B		
18	A			B			B		
19	B			A			A		
20	A			A			G		
21	A			B			B		
22	B			A			A		
23	B			A			B		
24	B			A			A		
25	A			B			B		
Total	**G**	04	18.18%	**G**	00	00%	**G**	04	18.18%
	A	11	50%	**A**	15	68.18%	**A**	05	22.72%
	B	07	31.81%	**B**	07	31.81%	**B**	13	59.09%

Table 105. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Control Group First Work

Table 105 indicates that 50% of the participants' organization was average, 31.81% had a 'bad'; against only 18.18% got a 'good'. About content, 68.18% of students had an 'average', 31.81% had a 'bad' and none of them had a 'good'. Concerning style, 59.09% of them had a bad style; 22.72% had an average one; against 18.18% who had a good style.

5.4.4.3.2. Analysis of the Results of the Second Unit Individual Work

The table shows the evaluation grades of the subjects' writing by figuring out grammar, spelling and mechanics mistakes.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	The number of mistakes	The number of words	%
1	17	01	09	27	125	21.6%
2	03	01	01	05	105	4.76%
3	06	02	03	11	115	9.56%
4	02	00	00	02	100	02%
5	05	05	10	20	146	13.69%
6	10	12	12	34	147	23.12%
7	02	02	03	07	165	4.24%
8	14	00	04	18	97	18.55%
9	09	06	07	22	91	24.17%
10	/	/	/	/	/	/
11	03	00	02	05	100	5%
12	11	03	01	15	97	15.46%
13	06	02	01	09	80	11.25%
14	10	01	02	13	144	9.02%
15	08	07	03	18	140	12.85%
16	13	01	02	16	137	9.48%
17	15	00	08	23	126	18.25%
18	06	01	01	08	72	11.11%
19	11	02	00	13	99	13.13%
20	06	01	04	11	148	7.43%
21	10	04	05	19	92	20.65%
22	09	07	07	23	102	22.54%
23	13	03	06	22	102	21.56%
24	/	/	/	/	/	/
25	17	06	06	29	98	29.59%
Total	**206**	**67**	**97**	**370**	**2646**	
Proportion	**55.67%**	**18.10%**	**26.21%**	**13.98%**		

Table 106. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Control Group Mistakes of the Second Work

Concerning the second work, 55.67% of the mistakes made were grammar mistakes, 26.21% were mechanics mistakes; while 18.10% were spelling mistakes. The percentage of the mistakes made is 13.98% for 2646 words.

This table shows the students' improvement and non-improvement in writing when their first work is compared to the second work.

Students	Improvement		No improvement	
1	/		/	
2	√			
3	√			
4	√			
5	√			
6			X	
7	√			
8			X	
9			X	
10	/		/	
11			X	
12	/		/	
13	/		/	
14	√			
15			X	
16	√			
17			X	
18	√			
19			X	
20	√			
21			X	
22			X	
23			X	
24	/		/	
25			X	
Total	**09**	**45%**	**11**	**55%**

Table 107. Control Group's Improvement from the First Work to the Second Work

Of the twenty students (three students were absent in the first work and two others in the second work), 55% made more mistakes in the second work than in the first work concerning grammar, spelling and mechanics; against 45% of them who have improved their writing and made less mistakes.

The following table is an assessment of the students' writing organization, content and style.

Students	Organization			Content			Style		
1	B			B			B		
2	A			A			A		
3	A			A			A		
4	G			A			G		
5	B			A			B		
6	B			A			A		
7	G			A			G		
8	B			B			B		
9	A			B			B		
10	/			/			/		
11	G			G			G		
12	B			B			B		
13	B			A			A		
14	B			A			B		
15	A			A			A		
16	B			B			B		
17	A			A			A		
18	A			A			A		
19	A			A			A		
20	A			G			G		
21	B			B			B		
22	A			B			B		
23	B			B			B		
24	/			/			/		
25	B			B			B		
Total	**G**	03	13.04%	**G**	02	8.69%	**G**	04	17.39%
	A	09	39.13%	**A**	12	52.17%	**A**	08	34.78%
	B	11	47.82%	**B**	09	39.13%	**B**	11	47.82%

Table 108. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Control Group Second Work

For the same work, the figures in Table 108 indicate that 47.82% of the students had a bad organization, 39.13% had an average organization; against only 13.04% who had a good organization. On content, 52.17% had an average content; 39.13% had a bad content; against 8.69% who had a good content. On the other hand, 47.82% had a bad style, 34.78% had an average style; while only few 17.39% had a good style.

The table checks students' writing improvement and non-improvement in terms of organization, content and style

Organization				Content				Style			
/	1st Work	2nd Work	Imp/ no Imp	/	1st Work	2nd Work	Imp/ no Imp	/	1st Work	2nd Work	Imp/ no Imp
G	18.18%	13.04%	**No Imp**	**G**	00%	8.69%	**No Imp**	**G**	18.18%	17.39%	**No Imp**
A	50%	39.13%	**No Imp**	**A**	68.18%	52.17%	**No Imp**	**A**	22.72%	34.58%	**Imp**
B	31.81%	47.82%	**No Imp**	**B**	31.81%	39.13%	**No Imp**	**B**	59.09%	47.82%	**Imp**

Table 109. Control Group's Improvement in Organization, Content and Style from the First Work to the Second Work

For the control group, it is noticed that the students generally have not improved their organization from the first work to the second. 18.18% of them had a good organization in the first work; against 13.04% in the second. 50% of the participants had an average organization in the first work against 39.13% in the second, and 47.82% of them had a bad organization in the second work against 31.81% in the first. About content, no one had a good content in the first work against 8.69% in the second work; 68.18% of them had an average content in the first work against 52.17% in the second, and 39.13% of them had a bad content in the second work against 31.81% in the first. On style, there was a slight improvement; 34.58% of the informants had an average style in the second work against 22.72% in the first; and 59.09% of them got a bad style in the first work against only 47.82% in the second.

5.4.4.3.3. Analysis of the Results of the Third Unit Individual Work

The table exhibits the proportions of the informants' writing mistakes in grammar spelling and mechanics.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	Number of mistakes	Number of words	%
1	09	01	03	13	111	11.71%
2	01	04	06	11	268	4.10%
3	08	02	07	17	212	8.01%
4	06	00	00	06	212	2.83%
5	29	11	13	53	337	15.72%
6	12	09	08	29	289	10.03%
7	08	03	03	14	288	4.86%
8	12	02	05	19	253	7.50%
9	03	07	08	18	150	12%
10	08	06	04	18	138	13.04%
11	02	00	04	06	232	2.58%
12	13	04	07	24	212	11.32%
13	07	02	05	14	201	6.96%
14	06	04	05	15	132	11.36%
15	09	09	13	31	336	9.22%
16	18	01	04	23	224	10.26%
17	15	10	18	43	246	17.47%
18	08	02	08	18	137	13.13%
19	10	01	04	15	143	10.84%
20	06	02	05	13	269	4.83%
21	12	01	11	24	227	10.57%
22	11	02	09	22	174	12.64%
23	22	00	08	30	186	16.12%
24	02	05	08	15	183	18.07%
25	18	04	05	27	176	15.34%
Total	**255**	**92**	**171**	**518**	**4991**	
Proportion	**49.22%**	**17.76%**	**33.01%**	**10.37%**		

Table 110. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Control Group Mistakes of the Third Work

Concerning the third work, 49.22% of the mistakes made are grammar mistakes then 33.01% are mechanics mistakes, and 17.76% are spelling mistakes. The global percentage of mistakes made by all students together is 10.37% for 4991 words which is less than that of the second work.

The table shows the students' improvement/non improvement from the second work to the third work on grammar, spelling and mechanics.

Students	Improvement		No improvement	
1	√			
2	√			
3	√			
4			X	
5			X	
6	√			
7			X	
8	√			
9	√			
10	√			
11	√			
12	√			
13	√			
14			X	
15	√			
16			X	
17	√			
18			X	
19	√			
20	√			
21	√			
22	√			
23	√			
24			X	
25	√			
Total	**18**	**72%**	**07**	**28%**

Table 111. Control Group's Improvement from the Second Work to the Third Work

Table 111 shows that of the total number of students (N=25), 72% had improved their writing making less mistakes in grammar, mechanics and spelling; against 28% who did not boost their writing from the second work to the third work.

Note: The third works of students #10, 13 and 24 were compared to the first work and not the second work because they had no second work.

The following table shows an evaluation of the students' writing organization, content and style.

Students	organization			Content			Style		
1	B			A			B		
2	G			A			A		
3	G			A			G		
4	A			G			G		
5	A			B			B		
6	A			A			A		
7	A			B			G		
8	B			B			A		
9	G			A			A		
10	B			B			B		
11	G			G			G		
12	A			A			A		
13	A			A			A		
14	B			A			A		
15	G			A			A		
16	A			A			A		
17	G			B			B		
18	G			A			A		
19	G			A			G		
20	A			A			A		
21	A			B			A		
22	A			B			B		
23	A			A			B		
24	A			G			G		
25	A			A			B		
Total	**G**	08	32%	**G**	03	12%	**G**	06	24%
	A	13	52%	**A**	14	56%	**A**	12	48%
	B	04	16%	**B**	08	32%	**B**	07	28%

Table 112.Qualitative Observational Grid of the Control Group Third Work

Table 112 shows that 52% the participants had an average organization, 32% had a good organization, while 16% of them had a bad organization. On content, the majority of students 56% had an average content, 32% had bad content; against 12% of them who had a good content. Concerning style, 48% of students had an average style, 28% had a bad style; while 24% had a good style.

The following table shows the students' improvement and non-improvement on writing organization, content and style.

Organization				**Content**				**Style**			
/	2nd Work	3rd Work	Imp/ no Imp	/	2nd Work	3nd Work	Imp/ no Imp	/	2nd Work	3rd Work	Imp/ no Imp
G	13.04%	32%	**Imp**	**G**	8.69%	12%	**Imp**	**G**	17.39%	24%	**Imp**
A	39.13%	52%	**Imp**	**A**	52.17%	56%	**Imp**	**A**	34.58%	48%	**Imp**
B	47.82%	16%	**Imp**	**B**	39.13%	32%	**Imp**	**B**	47.82%	28%	**Imp**

Table 113. Control Group's Improvement in Organization, Content and Style from the Second Work to the Third Work

The figures suggest that the students had an improvement in organization, content and style. As far as organization is concerned, 32% of the informants had a good organization in the third work; against13.04% in the second; 52% of them had an average organization in the third work against 39.13% in the second work; and 47.82% of the participants had a bad organization in the second work while 16% of them in the third. About content, 12% of the subjects had a good content in the third work; against 8.69% in the second, 56% of them had an average content in the third work; against 52.17% in the second; and 32% of them had a bad content in the third work; against 39.13% in the second. On style, 24% of the participants had good style in third the work against17.39% in the second, 48% had an average style in the third work; against 34.58% in the second, and 47.82% of them had bad style in the second work against 28% in the third.

5.4.4.3.4. Analysis of the Results of the Fourth Unit Individual Work

The table shows the informants' mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics of the fourth work.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	Number of mistakes	Number of words	%
1	/	/	/	/	/	/
2	18	00	03	21	257	8.17%
3	20	01	08	29	304	9.53%
4	03	01	01	05	161	3.10%
5	19	07	04	30	206	14.56%
6	05	02	12	19	207	9.17%
7	07	01	03	11	351	3.13%
8	08	03	10	21	179	11.73%
9	/	/	/	/	/	/
10	/	/	/	/	/	/
11	05	00	12	17	309	5.53%
12	/	/	/	/	/	/
13	12	08	11	31	267	11.61%
14	14	08	09	31	187	16.57%
15	13	09	12	34	320	10.62%
16	18	07	05	30	236	12.71%
17	14	07	07	28	183	15.30%
18	03	03	03	09	102	8.82%
19	11	05	03	19	186	10.21%
20	02	04	05	11	184	5.97%
21	10	02	06	18	197	9.13%
22	06	11	06	23	170	13.52%
23	04	02	11	17	245	6.93%
24	/	/	/	/	/	/
25	15	08	11	34	176	19.31%
Total	**207**	**89**	**142**	**438**	**4427**	
Proportion	**47.26%**	**20.31%**	**32.42%**	**9.89%**		

Table 114. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Control Group Mistakes of the Fourth Work

For the fourth work, the control group (only 21 students: 4 students were absent), the participants made 47.26% grammar mistakes 32.42% mechanics mistakes against 20.31% spelling mistakes. On the whole, the participants made 9.89% of mistakes for 4427 words.

This table exhibits the participants' improvement and non-improvement in terms of making less grammar, spelling and mechanics mistakes.

Students	Improvement		No improvement	
1	/		/	
2			X	
3			X	
4			X	
5	√			
6	√			
7	√			
8			X	
9	/		/	
10	/		/	
11			X	
12	/		/	
13			X	
14			X	
15			X	
16			X	
17	√			
18	√			
19	√			
20			X	
21	√			
22	√			
23	√			
24	/		/	
25			X	
Total	**9**	**45%**	**11**	**55%**

Table 115. Control Group's Improvement from the Third Work to the Fourth Work

Of the twenty students (five students were absent in the fourth work), 55% of them did not improved their writing from the third work to the fourth while 45% of students did.

The table shows an evaluation of the students writing in terms of organization, content and style.

Students	Organization			Content			Style		
1	/			/			/		
2	A			A			B		
3	A			A			A		
4	A			G			G		
5	B			B			B		
6	G			A			A		
7	G			G			G		
8	B			A			A		
9	/			/			/		
10	/			/			/		
11	G			G			G		
12	/			/			/		
13	B			A			B		
14	A			A			B		
15	A			A			B		
16	G			A			A		
17	G			A			A		
18	A			A			A		
19	A			G			A		
20	B			B			A		
21	A			A			B		
22	A			B			B		
23	B			A			A		
24	/			/			/		
25	B			B			B		
Total	**G**	05	25%	**G**	04	20%	**G**	03	15%
	A	09	45%	**A**	12	60%	**A**	09	45%
	B	06	30%	**B**	04	20%	**B**	08	40%

Table 116. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Control Group Fourth Work

The figures show that 45% of students had an average organization; 30% had a bad organization, while 25% had a good organization. On content, 60% of students had an average content, 20% had a good average, and another 20% had a bad content. On style, 45% of students had an average style, 40% had a bad style; against 15% who had a good style.

The table exhibits the subjects' improvement and non-improvement of their writing organization, content and style.

Organization				**Content**				**Style**			
	3rd Work	4th Work	Imp/ no Imp		3rd Work	4th Work	Imp/ no Imp		3rd Work	4th Work	Imp/ no Imp
G	32%	25%	**No Imp**	**G**	12%	20%	**Imp**	**G**	24%	15%	**No Imp**
A	52%	45%	**No Imp**	**A**	56%	60%	**Imp**	**A**	48%	45%	**No Imp**
B	16%	30%	**No Imp**	**B**	32%	20%	**Imp**	**B**	28%	40%	**No Imp**

Table 117. Control Group's Improvement in Organization, Content and Style from to the Third Work to the Fourth Work

Comparing the third work to the fourth, we noticed that the students have improved only their content. Concerning organization, 32% of the students had a good organization in the third work, against 25% in the fourth; 52% of them had an average organization in the third, while 45% in the fourth; and 30% of them had a bad organization in the fourth work; against 16% in the third. For content, the results were different; 20% of the informants had a good content in the fourth work; against 12% in the third; 60% of them had an average content in the fourth work; against 56% in the third; and 32% of them had a bad content in the third work; against only 20% in the fourth. The table also indicates that there was no improvement in students' style. 24% of them had a good style in the third work; against 15% only in the fourth work, 45% of the subjects had an average style in the fourth work; against 48% in the third; and 40% of them had a bad style in the fourth work; against 28% in the third.

5.4.4.3.5. Analysis of the Result of the Fifth Unit Individual Work

This table shows the evaluation grades of the students' writing improvement and non-improvement in terms of making surface mistakes.

Students	Grammar mistakes	Spelling mistakes	Mechanics mistakes	Number of mistakes	Number of words	%
1	08	02	12	22	285	7.71%
2	24	03	11	38	669	5.68%
3	12	03	10	25	445	5.61%
4	06	03	00	09	415	2.16%
5	54	09	14	77	624	12.33%
6	15	03	06	24	613	3.91%
7	21	06	37	64	969	9.19%
8	/	/	/	/	/	/
9	18	05	08	31	338	9.17%
10	10	05	15	30	340	7.35%
11	05	05	08	18	360	5%
12	03	02	02	07	565	1.23%
13	13	02	11	26	279	9.67%
14	19	01	11	31	257	12.06%
15	23	12	15	50	756	6.61%
16	21	00	05	26	406	6.40%
17	22	05	09	36	336	11.01%
18	10	05	09	24	282	8.51%
19	11	11	17	39	522	7.47%
20	02	00	09	11	347	3.17%
21	19	05	14	38	345	11.01%
22	19	06	09	34	359	9.47%
23	03	01	16	20	313	6.38%
24	/	/	/	/	/	/
25	22	01	16	39	281	13.87%
Total	**360**	**95**	**264**	**719**	**9806**	
Proportion	**50.06%**	**13.21%**	**36.71%**	**7.33%**		

Table 118. Quantitative Observational Grid of the Control Group Mistakes of the Fifth Work

Concerning the last work (fifth work) the results are much better. Students made fewer mistakes in comparison to the other four works. 50.06% of mistakes are grammatical; 36.71% are mechanics mistakes, and 13.21% are spelling mistakes. The percentage of mistakes of all learners together is 7.33% for 9806 words.

This table displays an evaluation of the students' writing improvement and non-improvement in terms of making surface mistakes.

Students	Improvement		No improvement	
1	√			
2	√			
3	√			
4	√			
5	√			
6	√			
7			X	
8	/		/	
9	√			
10	√			
11	√			
12	√			
13	√			
14			X	
15	√			
16	√			
17	√			
18	√			
19	√			
20	√			
21			X	
22	√			
23	√			
24	/		/	
25	√			
Total	**20**	**86.95%**	**03**	**13.04%**

Table 119. Control Group's Improvement from the Fourth Work to the Fifth Work

The figures show that of the twenty three students (two students were absent) 86.95% of them made less mistakes in grammar, spelling and mechanics from the fourth work to the fifth work; against 13.04% who didn't.

Note: The fifth works of the students # 01, 09, 10 and 12 were compared to the third work not the fourth because they were absent in the fourth work.

The table shows the participants' levels in writing organization, content and style.

Students	organization			Content			Style		
1	A			A			G		
2	G			B			A		
3	G			G			A		
4	G			G			G		
5	G			B			B		
6	G			G			A		
7	G			G			G		
8	/			/			/		
9	G			B			A		
10	G			A			B		
11	G			G			G		
12	A			B			G		
13	A			B			A		
14	G			A			B		
15	A			A			A		
16	A			G			A		
17	G			A			B		
18	G			G			A		
19	A			G			G		
20	A			G			G		
21	G			A			B		
22	A			A			A		
23	B			A			G		
24	/			/			/		
25	G			A			B		
Total	**G**	14	60.86%	**G**	09	39.13%	**G**	08	34.78%
	A	08	34.78%	**A**	09	39.13%	**A**	09	39.13%
	B	01	4.34%	**B**	05	21.73%	**B**	06	26.08%

Table 120. Qualitative Observational Grid of the Control Group Fifth Work

Table 119 shows that 60.86% of students had a good organization; 34.78% had an average organization; against 4.34% (one student) who had a bad organization. Concerning content, 39.13% of students had a good content, other 39.13% who had an average content; against 21.73% of them who had a bad content. On style, 39.13% of the participants had an average style, 34.78% of them had a good style; while 26.08% had a bad style.

This table shows the students' improvement and non-improvement in their writing organization, content and style.

Organization				Content				Style			
/	4th Work	5th Work	Imp/ no Imp	/	4th Work	5th Work	Imp/ no Imp	/	4th Work	5th Work	Imp/ no Imp
G	25%	60.86%	**Imp**	**G**	20%	39.13%	**Imp**	**G**	15%	34.78%	**Imp**
A	45%	34.78%	**No Imp**	**A**	60%	39.13%	**No Imp**	**A**	45%	39.13%	**No Imp**
B	30%	4.34%	**Imp**	**B**	20%	21.73%	**No Imp**	**B**	40%	26.08%	**No Imp**

Table 121. Control Group's Improvement in Organization, Content and Style from the Fourth Work to the Fifth Work

The table indicates that students' organization has improved for 60.86% of them had a good organization in the fifth work; against 25% in the fourth, 45% of the participants had an average organization in the fourth work; against 34.78% in the fifth; and 30% of them had a bad organization in the fourth work; against only 4.34% in the fifth. Concerning content, there was a slight improvement; 39.13% of the informants had a good content in the fifth work, against 20% in the fourth; and 60% of them had an average content in the fourth work; against 39.13% in the fifth. On style, however, there was a significant improvement for 34.78% of the students had a good style in the fifth work; against 15% in the fourth work; 45% of them had an average style in the fourth work; against 39.13 in the fifth; and 40% had a bad style in the fourth work; against only 26.08% in the fifth.

5.4.4.4. Discussion of the Results of the Individual Works of the Control Group

The analysis of the control group's five written works in terms of assessing grammar, spelling and mechanics yielded similar results to that of the Experimental Group in which grammar errors are the most made type of errors in comparison to mechanics and spelling mistakes. The proportion of grammar mistakes range from 45.52% to 55.67%. In the second position are mechanics mistakes with a range of 26.21% to 36.71%; then, spelling mistakes which range from 13.21% to 22.01%.

After comparing students' ***individual*** improvement from one work to another in relation to their proficiency in grammar, spelling and mechanics, the experimenter noticed that the Control Group had not improved from the first work to the second work and from the third work to the fourth one either. In both cases, students who did not improve their writing are more than those who did as indicated in Tables 107 and 115; this can be summarized as follows:

- From the first work to the second work: 45% of the participants have improved their writing while 55% have not.
- From the third work to the fourth work: 45% of the informants have improved their writing while 55% have not.

However, it is noticed that there is an improvement in their performance when we compared their results of the second work with those of the third work and the results of the fourth work with those of the fifth one as shown in Tables 111 and 119; the results are summarized as follows:

- From the second work to the third work: 72% have improved the skill while 28% have not.
- From the fourth work to the fifth work: 86.95% have improved the skill whereas 13.04% have not.

Another kind of comparison should be made between the results obtained in every single written work to check for students' improvement in terms of making lesser mistakes as they move from one work to another. Tables 104, 106, 110, 114 and 118 show that the participants have made more mistakes from the first work (13.73%) to the second work (13.98%) which means that no improvement took place. However, an improvement was found in the rest of the written works: from the second to the third work (10.37%), from the third work to the fourth (9.89%) and from the fourth to the fifth (7.33%). The results, in effect,

indicate that students generally improved their writing when it comes to making fewer mistakes from one work to another respectively.

On assessing the informants' writing in relation to organization, content and style, we have not noticed an improvement. Tables 109, 113, 117 and 121 show that 'improvement' appeared 19 times, against 13 times for 'non-improvement'. Further, the researcher observed that in general the participants have done well in organization for almost all the works. In the first, second, fourth and fifth works; organization had the highest percentage for 'Good' (18.18%, 32%, 25% and 60%). On the other hand, 'style' was the worst; most of the times, students did not do well in this area in four works (first, second, fourth and fifth); in all those works the proportion for 'Bad' was the highest (54.54%, 47.82%, 40% and 26.08%).

5.4.4.5. Putting It All Together

In analyzing the two groups' five works in terms of how much mistakes they made in grammar, spelling and mechanics and how well they did concerning organization, content and style, one can notice that both groups share some points but differ in others. Concerning grammar, spelling and mechanics, what is noticed is that the Experimental Group made more mistakes in mechanics than the Control Group. Yet, the control group made more mistakes in grammar than the Experimental Group. Both groups have made grammar mistakes more than the other kind of mistakes. This means that the most 'pervasive' mistakes made by both the Experimental and the Control Groups are of a grammatical form; followed by mechanics mistakes, then the spelling mistakes.

When we checked for improvement in both groups, we observed that the two groups failed to improve their performance (making less grammar, mechanics and spelling mistakes) from the first to the second work but they did well in the rest of the works. Besides, looking to the final results of the five works of both groups, we noticed that the Control Group made more mistakes in grammar, mechanics and spelling: 13.37%, 13.98%, 10.37, 9.89%, and 7.33% as shown in Tables 104, 106, 110, 114 and 118 -than the Experimental Group:

11.70%, 12.18%, 10.07%, 9.68% and 6.89% (cf. Tables 86, 88, 92, 96 & 100). Again, when analyzing the students' individual improvement from one work to another, the Experimental Group had improved 3 times out of four as shown in Tables 89, 93, 97 and 101; whereas the Control Group have improved only 2 times as indicated in Tables 107, 111, 115 and 119.

On analyzing the students' works in relation to organization, content and style and after 'improvement' and 'non-improvement' were checked, it was found out that the Experimental Group improvement in those areas was 23 times against only 19 for the Control Group. Further, in both groups students were better in 'organization' compared to 'content' and particularly 'style' which was the least mastered area.

The Control Group made more surface mistakes compared to the Experimental Group and this latter had improved three times when we checked for individual improvement against only two times for the Control Group. In addition to the fact that the Experimental Group has improved his organization content and style 23 times against 19 times for the Control Group (cf. Tables 91, 95, 99, 103, 109, 113, 117, & 121), we can conclude that though the Control Group also improved, the Experimental Group has improved his writing performance more.

5.4.5. The Post-test

The post-test is used to check the truth of the research prediction. It took place after we implemented the five S.T.A.D units on the Experimental Group. In an hour and a half, the participants of both groups (N=50) were asked to write an *example essay* on one of the following topics:

- It is always important to say the truth, but there are circumstances in which it is better to lie.
- We learn more from finding out that we have made mistakes.

The marks earned from this test are the raw data that will be used later in the t-test.

5.4.5.1. The t-test

To investigate the impact of the adapted S.T.A.D on students writing skill, a statistical test i.e. the t-test was used to analyze the data obtained from the post-test and see whether there is difference in achievement between the groups. the t-test is believed to be the most appropriate tool of inferential statistics for it is a robust parametric test that yields significant statistics and helps compare sample means of two different groups taking randomly from a population (Ary et. al., 2010; Martella and Nelson, 2013).

Before starting any computational procedure, it should be first decided whether our experiment is for related or independent samples and whether the test used is one-tailed or two tailed. Since the experiment employed two groups: one experimental and the other control this means that they are independent from each other (the Experimental Group receives the research treatment while the Control Group does not) i.e. they are not taught writing exactly the same way; hence, the t-test is for independent groups. On the other hand, it is a one-tailed test because the prediction is directional –that is, we predict a direction of the effect that the treatment will probably have a positive impact on the experimental groups' writing skill.

5.4.5.2. Procedure

Miller (2005) suggests the following general procedure for the computation of the t-test for independent samples (one-tailed):

1. Calculate the two groups' means: $\overline{X}_1$ and $\overline{X}_2$.
2. Compute the two groups' variances: S_1^2 and S_2^2.
3. Substitute the values of $\overline{X}_1$, $\overline{X}_2$, S_1^2, S_2^2, N_1, N_2 to calculate *t* using the following formula:

$$t_{N1+N2-2} = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)\sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2)N_1N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1S_1^2 + N_2 S_2^2)(N_1 + N_2)}}$$

4. Find the number of degrees of freedom: *df*.
5. Using table II (t-table), find the value of *t* required for the chosen level of significance. Finding it depends on the number of degrees of freedom and whether the test is one-tailed or two-tailed.
6. If the calculated *t* is equal or greater than the value of *t* found in table II (t-table) then we can reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternate one.

5.4.5.3. Presenting the Data

The data used for the computation are the marks are obtained from the post-test of both the Experimental and the Control groups.

	Experimental Group		**Control Group**	
N	X_1	X_1^2	X_2	X_2^2
01	15	225	11.5	132.25
02	13	169	12	144
03	09	81	12.5	156.25
04	15	225	14	196
05	14	196	07	49
06	12	144	13	169
07	10	100	13	169
08	12	144	08	64
09	13	169	10	100
10	12	144	07	49
11	15	225	15	225
12	13	169	12.5	156.25
13	14	196	10	100
14	11	121	09	81
15	12	144	13	169
16	13	169	12	144
17	12	144	11	121
18	10	100	10	100
19	13	169	13	169
20	14	196	14.5	210.25
21	14.5	210.25	13	169
22	11	121	10	100
23	11	121	11	121
24	12.5	156.25	11	121
25	12.5	156.25	09	81
Total	**$\sum X_1$ = 313.5** **$\bar{X}_1$= 12.54**	**$\sum X_1^2$ = 3994.75**	**$\sum X_2$ = 282** **$\bar{X}_2$= 11.28**	**$\sum X_2^2$= 3296**

Table 122. The Experimental and Control Groups' Post-test Grades

5.4.5.4. Computation of the Means, Variance, *t* and *df*

1- Calculating the Means ($\overline{X}$) of the Experimental and the Control Group

To find the means ($\overline{X}$), the formula: $\overline{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$ was used.

- For the Experimental Group, the sum of the students' grades ($\sum X_1 = 313.5$) was divided by the number of students ($N_1 = 25$). Making the substitution, we found:

$$\overline{X}_1 = \frac{\sum X_1}{N_1} = \frac{313.5}{25} = 12.54$$

- For the Control Group we also divided the sum of the students marks obtained in the post-test ($\sum X_2 = 282$) by the number of the participants ($N_2 = 25$). Making the substitution, the following result was found:

$$\overline{X}_2 = \frac{\sum X_2}{N_2} = \frac{282}{25} = 11.28$$

2- Calculating the Variances S_1^2 and S_2^2

To find the variances of both groups, the following formulae were used:

$$S_1^2 = \frac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} - X_1^2 \text{ (Experimental Group)}$$

$$S_2^2 = \frac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} - X_2^2 \text{ (Control Group)}$$

Making the substitution from table it was found:

$$S_1^2 = \frac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} = \frac{3994.75}{25} - 12.54^2 = 2.54$$

$$S_2^2 = \frac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} = \frac{3296}{25} - 11.28^2 = 4.61$$

3- Computing *t*

To calculate *t*, the following formula was used and the right substitutions of the previously figured values: $\overline{X}_1$, $\overline{X}_2$, N_1, N_2, S_1^2 and S_2^2 were made.

$$t_{N1+N2-2} = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)\sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2)N_1N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1S_1^2 + N_2S_2^2)(N_1 + N_2)}}$$

$$= \frac{(12.54 - 11.28)\sqrt{(25 + 25 - 2)25 \times 25}}{\sqrt{(25 \times 2.54 + 25 \times 4.61) \times (25 + 25)}}$$

$$= \frac{1.26\sqrt{48 \times 625}}{\sqrt{(63.5 + 115.25) \times 50}}$$

$$= \frac{1.26\sqrt{30000}}{\sqrt{178.75 \times 50}}$$

$$= \frac{218.23}{94.53}$$

$$= \mathbf{2.30}$$

4- Calculating *df* (degree of freedom)

To find the value of the degree of freedom, the following formula was used:

$df = N_1 + N_2 - 2$

$df = 25 + 25 - 2 = 48$

The *df* value (48) is used to read the t-table to figure out the critical value of *t.*

5- Finding the critical value of *t* in the t-table

To find out the value of *t,* it was taken recourse to the t-table to check the value corresponding to 48 degrees of freedom for 0.05 level of significance. We noticed, in fact, that there is no row for 48 degrees of freedom. In this regard Dietz and Kalof (2009:352) explain:

> Looking in the t-table, the critical value for an alpha level of 0.05 and 48 degrees of freedom is not listed. But we have t values for 40 and 60 degrees of freedom. It is always better to be cautions and use fewer degrees of freedom than we actually have.

Thus, the value 40 is used to be our degree of freedom. For 40 degrees of freedom the value of *t* required for 0.05 level of significance is 2.021. According to Miller (2005) the found value (2.021) has to be divided by 2 because our test is **one-tailed**. Therefore, the critical value of *t* that will be compared to the calculated *t* is 1.010 (2.021÷2 = 1.010). In the following table, it is clearly shown how to read the t-table.

	Level of significance				*Level of significance*		
df	·10	·05	·02	*df*	·10	·05	·02
12	1·782	2·179	2·681	29	1·699	2·045	2·462
13	1·771	2·160	2·650	30	1·697	2·042	2·457
14	1·761	2·145	2·624				
15	1·753	2·131	2·602	40	1·684	2·021	2·423
				60	1·671	2·000	2·390
16	1·746	2·120	2·583	120	1·658	1·980	2·358
17	1·740	2·110	2·567		1·645	1·960	2·326

*For a *one-tailed* test the significance levels should be divided by 2.

Table 123. T-table (ibid:141)

5.4.5.5. Discussion of the Results

After using the treatment, which lasted three months, a post-test was used to see whether the independent variable, the *cooperative learning approach*, have an effect on the dependent variable –the *writing achievement*. To inspect that, a t-test was employed to draw statistical inferences about the accumulated data. In Table 122, it has been noticed that the mean (average) of the Experimental Group's marks of the post-test (*12.54)* is greater than the mean of the Control Group's grades (*11.28).* However, one cannot guarantee that the difference between both means (averages) is due to the positive impact of the independent variable on the Experimental Group's performance unless all the needed computations are done. After the required computations (means, variances, *t* and *df*) were carried out, the observed/calculated value of *t* of the experiment is found to be greater than the critical value of *t* (2.30 1.010).

We can then draw a conclusion that there is to some extent a significant difference of achievement between the two groups. Thus, the result obtained proves the research prediction; it explains the cause-effect relationship between the two variables. This would allow for a consideration that adopting C.L through the adapted S.T.A.D enhances learners' writing achievement. In effect, the post-test has shown that there is a close connection between C.L and successful individual achievement; students' awareness of efficient cooperative skills is crucial. That is, while working together, learners are required to ask questions, explain and justify their opinions, set forth their reasons, and upgrade their knowledge for the sake of improving their learning. Therefore, one can hold the thought that individual achievement is closely related to cooperative skills and well structured tasks in terms of awareness and implementation for one can think that students are likely to use what they have learnt in the small group situations when they are asked to write individually.

5.5. Conclusion

This chapter encompasses the experiment which includes the implementation of the research treatment (the adapted student team-achievement divisions method), an analysis of the students' mistakes made across five written works for both Experimental and Control Group to check for improvement and a post-test. The findings of the post-test support the research hypothesis; they point to one clear conclusion: the adapted student team-achievement divisions method can be of great help for students to boost their writing skill. We believe that it is a fruitful teaching method to adopt to teach writing for second years in our department. The comparative analysis of students' individual works also reinforces such a claim; it was found out that the Experimental Group improved more from one work to another in comparison to the Control Group.

Substantially, learning writing can be considered as closely tied to what we write as individuals and what others think of what we wrote. Peers can, in effect, act as guides and helpers, sustaining the purport that, after all, four brains are better than one! For this reason, it is important to note that attention should be given to the cooperative learning approach in general and to the student team-achievement divisions method in particular which is a promising mode of students' cooperation and engagement.

General Conclusion and Recommendations

The main concern of this study is to cast light on the importance of regarding students as the focal 'motor' of the learning experience in writing. Student-centeredness is a concept that should often appear in writing classes, which ensures the creation of a world of engagement in the classroom to make students practice together in an organized structured fashion; through cooperative learning. The idea lying behind this work is to emphasize the implementation of cooperative learning methods in teaching writing, and for this, we hypothesized that if students are taught writing from a student-centeredness perspective via cooperative learning, their writing is likely to be improved.

The present work attempts to shed light on the link between writing instruction, student-centeredness and cooperative learning. The review of literature has emphasized the shift from teacher-centeredness to student-centeredness when teaching writing through cooperative learning cooperative learning. Different approaches and components of writing have been highlighted, in Chapter One. In Chapter Two, the act of implementing Student Centered Approach was described as a step forward to make students autonomous, responsible, cooperative and knowledge seekers. In Chapter Three, cooperation was seen as one way to learner-centeredness' implementation; it stresses the point that it should be well structured and organized and that it is far away from the notion of the 'group work' technique. Cooperative learning allows for student-student interaction, engagement and responsibility in learning.

Chapter Four included the pilot study and the description and the analysis of the questionnaires. The students who participated in this study are second-year students at the University of Constantine. For data collection, two questionnaires were used; one addressed to 18 Written Expression teachers, and another to a sample of 50 second year students. The results of the students questionnaire proved that cooperative learning is a mode of learning

that is desirable on the students' part; it helps them learn and makes them feel comfortable as they work in small groups. The teachers questionnaire allowed for understanding which pattern teachers follow when they get students to work together. It evenly allowed grasping the fact that teachers of writing at the Department of Letters and the English Language do not 'adequately' use cooperative learning, in all likelihood they lack solid knowledge of how to implement it effectively. Chapter Five was consecrated to the research situation. The results yielded by the experiment assert the efficacy of using cooperative learning in teaching writing; it has been shown that students who received the experiment treatment and have practiced writing cooperatively throughout three months developed the skill more than those of the control group who worked individually. Thus, the hypothesis has been confirmed.

In the light of these findings, and in respect to cooperative learning perspectives, the experimenter suggests a cluster of pedagogical recommendations summarized in the following points.

- Teachers should give writing more careful attention as to make students realize that writing is a challenging skill that needs intensive practice to be improved and maintained high.
- Writing classes need more student-centered contexts. Such an approach is expected to get the learners at the core of learning and makes the classroom a workshop where students construct meaning by their own, solve problems, or actively learn under the teacher's guidance and supervision as a facilitator of learning.
- Students should conspicuously write cooperatively, individually and competitively which are three crucial elements of learning/teaching, and which are the very essence of the student team-achievement divisions method.
- Importance should be given to students' grouping, their roles in the subgroups, time allocation and feedback. Primarily, student should know what cooperative learning is. A general explanation of the approach helps pave the way to students to gain a clear

understanding of what is needed from them as participants in the whole learning enterprise.

Eventually, cooperative learning and student-centeredness cannot be considered as ‘panacea that cures all ills’; but one has to admit that they are stepping stones toward an efficacious fashion to teaching/learning writing. It is truly significant to grant both cooperative learning and student-centered teaching more consideration and attention. Accordingly, teachers should be trained on how to implement such an approach in their teaching classes, and should consult the relevant literature on the issue.

Cooperation is not only valid within the borders of school; it may have long-term benefits. The social skills learnt within small groups can be used in future social life and profession. Through this research, the efforts were to bring to the fore the many positive aspects of cooperative learning and teaching within the province of Slavin’s adapted student team-achievement divisions method. We hope that this research would allow a reconsideration of the teaching of writing in our department and by extension in the departments of other Algerian universities.

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A P P E N D I C E S

Appendix # 01

Teacher Pilot Questionnaire

We would be so grateful if you could answer the following questions concerning your attitudes toward collaborative learning/writing. The answers will be helpful data for the pilot study we are undertaking.

1- How long have you been teaching writing?

……

2- Do you make students work in groups in writing classes?

Yes ☐ No ☐

3- If yes how often?

Always ☐ Often ☐ Sometimes ☐ Rarely ☐

4- How much time do you give your students to accomplish a group work activity?

Less than half an hour ☐ Half an hour ☐ An hour ☐ hour and a half ☐

5- Do you think that your students like working in small groups?

Yes ☐ No ☐

6- Do you think that your students face some problems when collaborating?

Yes ☐ No ☐

7- If yes, what are they?

Unequal participation ☐ Imposing points of view ☐ social skill problems ☐

Others, please specify.

……

8- Do you think that collaborative learning/writing enhances the students' writing level?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Thank you

Appendix # 02

Student Pilot Questionnaire

Put a tick (√) in the box correspondent to your answer.

1- Have you ever worked in a group in a writing class?

Yes ☐ No ☐

2- Do you think that writing is better done individually or in groups?

Individually ☐ In groups ☐

3- Do you enjoy doing a writing task in small a group?

Yes ☐ No ☐

4- Do you think that working in groups helps you understand the writing process better or does it just slow you down?

Helps you learn ☐ Slows you down ☐

5- Does your teacher come round and offer feedback or does he just let you work alone until you finish?

Comes round ☐ Lets you work alone ☐

6- Do you have any problems during group learning tasks?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Thank you

Appendix # 03

Teacher Questionnaire

The present questionnaire seeks information on cooperative learning/group work within the perspective of student centeredness. Browsing the questions would mainly help us get a clear understanding of the way teachers manage writing classes when getting students work together in teams.

Section One: Student Centeredness, Group work and Cooperative Learning

1. Degree held:

BA ☐ Master ☐ Magister ☐ PhD ☐

2. How long have you been teaching writing?

.....

3. Is your teaching:

Student-centered ☐ Teacher-centered ☐

4. Do you ask students to write individually?

Yes ☐ No ☐

5. Do you make them write together in groups?

Yes ☐ No ☐

6. Which of the following you do more?

Make them write in the classroom ☐ Assign homework ☐

7. When you make students work together, do you use ‘cooperative learning’ or ‘group work’?

Cooperative learning ☐ Group work ☐

8. How often do you implement cooperative learning/group work in writing classes?

Always ☐ Often ☐ Sometimes ☐

9. If you implement group work, would you briefly explain how you usually use it.

……

10. If you use cooperative learning, would you name the method(s) you usually use?

……

11. Have you had any training on using cooperative learning in teaching writing *per se*?

Yes ☐ No ☐

12. I understand cooperative learning well enough to implement it successfully.

Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Undecided ☐

Section Two: Implementing Group work/ Cooperative Learning (Classroom Management)

13. Do you prefer to let students choose whom to work with or you assign them in any particular way?

……

14. How many members do you include in each group?

Three students ☐ Four students ☐ Five students ☐

Others, please specify.

……

15. What are the skills that you make your student focus on while cooperating?

……

16. Do you assign different roles for students to undertake in the group work/cooperative learning?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, what are they?

……

17. How much time do you devote to a group work/cooperative learning task?

½Class period ☐ 1 Class period ☐ 2 Class periods ☐

Others, please specify.

……

18. What do you exactly do when you walk from group to group to check on their progress?

Correct their works ☐ Respond to their works ☐ Both ☐

Others, please specify.

……

19. Do you reward the best achieving groups?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, what kind of reward(s) do you use?

……

20. What do you think are the main roles teachers undertake in a cooperative learning context?

……

21. How would you describe your students when you make them write together?

Motivated ☐ Indifferent ☐ Not motivated ☐

Section Three: Teachers' Problems, Beliefs and Attitudes

22. My students lack the skills necessary for effective cooperation.

Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Undecided ☐

23. There is little time available to prepare students to work effectively in groups.

Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Undecided ☐

24. There are too many students in my class to implement cooperative learning effectively.

Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Undecided ☐

25. Implementing cooperative learning requires a great deal of effort.

Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Undecided ☐

26. Do students who cooperate on writing assignments produce better texts than individuals who complete assignments alone?

Yes ☐ No ☐

27. Does the experience of cooperative writing transfer positively to later writing?

Yes ☐ No ☐

28. What do you think is more efficient to help students write successfully?

Cooperative learning ☐ Individualistic learning ☐

29. Do your students face any problems while working collaboratively?

Yes ☐ No ☐

30. If yes, what is (are) the problem(s)?

a. Imposing points of view ☐ b. Social skill problems ☐

c. Unequal participation ☐

others, please specify.

……

Thank you for cooperation

Appendix # 04

Student Questionnaire

Put a tick (√) in the box correspondent to your answer.

1. Have you ever worked in a group in a writing class?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

2. If yes, how often?

   Always ☐ Often ☐ Sometimes ☐

3. Do you think that writing is better done individually or in groups?

   Individually ☐ In groups ☐

4. Do you feel confident when writing in a group?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

5. If yes, how often?

   Always ☐ Often ☐ Sometimes ☐

6. Do you think that working in groups helps you understand the writing process better or it just slows you down?

   Helps you learn ☐ Slows you down ☐

7. If yes, in which area(s) does it help you?

   a. Gathering information ☐ **b.** Planning ☐ **c.** Drafting ☐ **d.** Revising ☐

   e. Grammar ☐ **f.** Diction (the choice of words) ☐ **g.** Coherence ☐ **h.** Unity ☐

   Others, please specify.

   ……

8. Do you help your group mates learn the material when collaborating?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

9. If yes, how often?

Always ☐ Often ☐ Sometimes ☐

10. In case you do not understand the material, do you ask your group members for clarification?

Yes ☐ No ☐

11. I yes, how often?

Always ☐ Often ☐ Sometimes ☐

12. Do you use social skills as turn taking, tolerance, accepting points of views, interacting softly?

Yes ☐ No ☐

13. Does your teacher use a particular method(s) when making you work in groups?

Yes ☐ No ☐

14. Does your teacher show how to be effective team members?

Yes ☐ No ☐

15. During a writing task, how often does your teacher come round and provide small group feedback?

Yes ☐ No ☐

16. Do you have any problems during collaborative learning tasks?

Yes ☐ No ☐

17. If yes, what is (are) the problem(s) you face during collaborative learning?

Imposing points of view ☐ Social skill problems ☐ Unequal participation ☐

……

Thank you

Appendix # 05

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is a student-centered Method. It emphasizes the use a variety of different types of methods that shifts the role of the instructors from givers of information to facilitators of students' learning. Traditionally instructors focused on what they did, and not on what the students are learning. This emphasis on what instructors often leads to students who are passive and who do not take responsibility for their own learning.

Cooperative learning is a learning method that involves making students work together in small groups in order to accomplish a task. In group work, you are asked to participate, interact, explain, ask and socialize. This means that you are responsible for your own learning; every team member is responsible for the whole group's performance and achievement as well. When cooperating, all the team members are supposed to participate in doing the task or solving the problem. You should think and share your answers and propositions with your team.

Social skills are also demanded, when socializing in a group work, you have to consider the following points:

- You have to interact effectively this involves turn taking (making sure that each person has an equal opportunity to participate) and knowing how to brainstorm with others.
- You have to be tolerant and accept others points of view.
- You have to know what to do when one group member fails to contribute.
- You have to know how to handle conflict with other group members (do not fight).

Adapted from Slavin (1995)

Appendix # 06

Teaching the Students Team-achievement Divisions Method (S.T.A.D)

The S.T.A.D is a simple cooperative learning method that is organized and structured. It consists of four major components:

1. Class presentation
2. Team and individual works
3. Students' improvement
4. Team recognition

1. **Class presentation:** the teacher here presents the lesson for one to two class periods. You have to realize that you must pay careful attention during the class presentation because all the information you get from it will be used in the team and individual works.
2. **Team and individual works:** it takes from one to two period classes in which all the small groups should accomplish a task. During team work, group members task is not only to produce or solve something but also to master the material that the teacher first introduced by helping and explaining to each other. That is, you have to make sure that all team members have understood the lesson. After team work, you will have a quiz about the same material that has been learnt. You will have marks for both works.
3. **Students' improvement:** all of team, quiz and base scores will be used to define the improvement score of every student. The improvement scores will be taken into consideration to decide which group improved better.

    - Every student should have a base score.
    - Every student should an average score of team and quiz scores.
    - The average score will be compared to base score in which the improvement score exceeds the base score.

Consider the following example:

The status of the average score	**Improvement points**
Less than base score	00 point
0.5p above base score	5 points
0.75p above base score	7.5 points
01p above base score	10 points
02ps above base score	20 points
03ps above base score	30 points
*X*ps above base score	*Y* points

Example: the following are student's scores.

Team work: 13 Individual work: 11 Base score: 10

His average score is: (13+11) ÷ 2 = 12 and,

His base score is 10; hence, he has two points above base score. On the basis of the above table of improvement scores this student has 20 points.

4. **Team recognition:** Each student's improvement score will be added to his group members' improvement scores. The group with the highest scores will get a reward.

Adapted from Slavin, R. (1995). Cooperative Learning, second edition.

Appendix # 07

Sample of the First Pilot Group Work of the Experimental Group

. Guezin Houda
. Zerniche Nadjet
. Bouguessa Amira
. chaieb Meriem
G° 4

The topic:
Appearances are deceptive

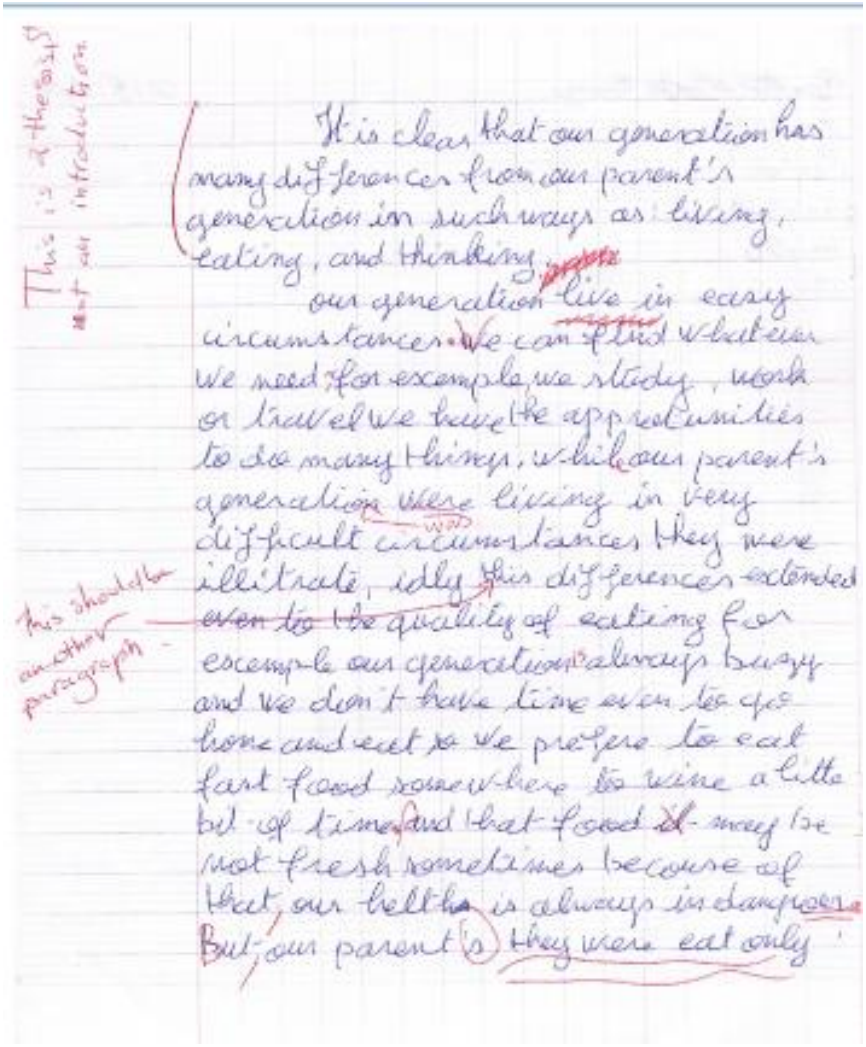
Nowdays, many people are influenced by the appearances of people, things etc. Because they think that the physical appearances is the true image for these things. But, "Not all that glitters is gold". Simply, because appearances are deceptive and it can be proved in many (situation) fields like products, clothes etc.

(On)

Unfortunately, the external appearance of products can be deceive people. so that They think that it is the best, however, they discover the opposite. For example, the nice cover and the low price of product can attract people but, when it

Appendix # 08

Sample of the Second Pilot Group Work of the Experimental Group



It is clear that our generation has many differences from our parent's generation in such ways as living, eating, and thinking.

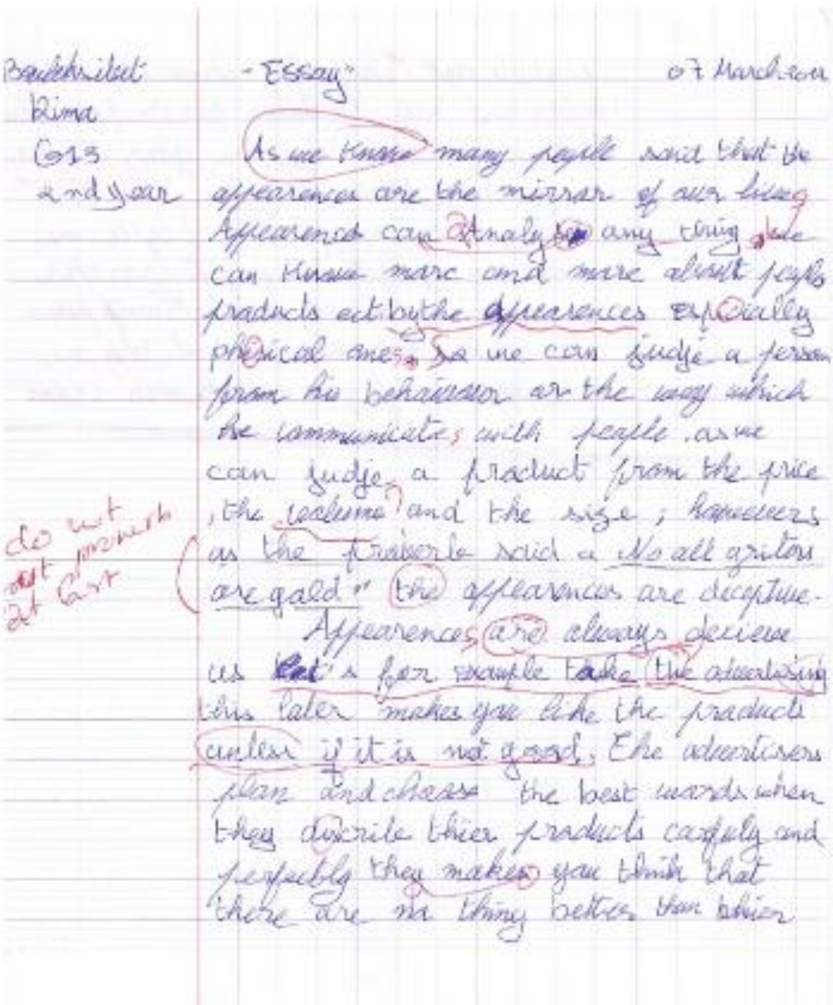
our generation live in easy circumstances. We can find whatever we need for example we study, work or travel we have the opportunities to do many things, while our parent's generation were living in very difficult circumstances they were illitrate, idly this differences extended even to the quality of eating for escample our generation always busy and we don't have time even to go home and eat so we prefere to eat fast food somewhere to save a little bit of time and that food may be not fresh sometimes because of that, our helth is always in danger But, our parent's they were eat only

This is a thesis statement not an introduction

This should be another paragraph

Appendix # 09

Sample of the First Pilot Individual Work of the Control Group


Bouhkhibet
Rima
G13
2nd year

- Essay -

07 March 20..

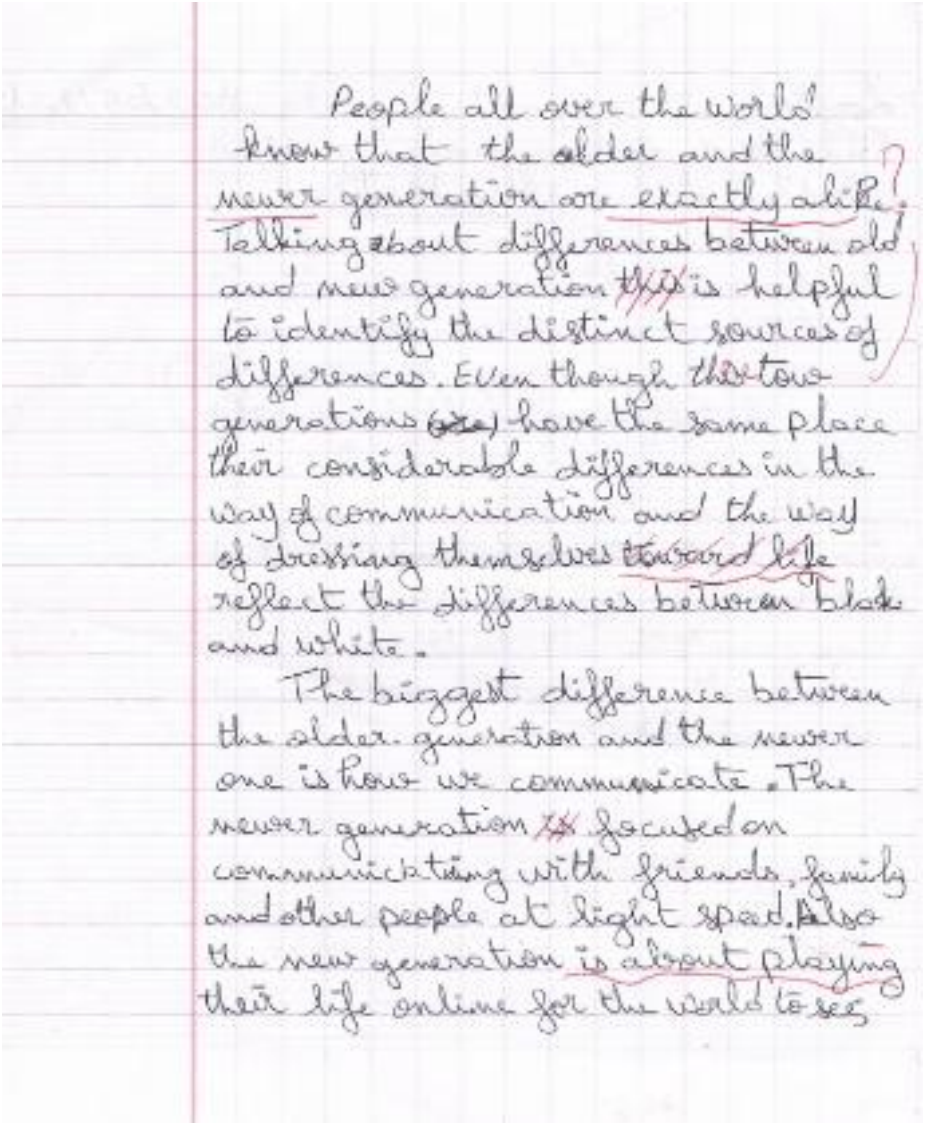
As we know many people said that the appearances are the mirror of our being. Appearences can analyse any thing we can know more and more about people products ect by the appearences especially phesical ones, so we can judge a person from his behaviour or the way which he communicates with people. as we can judge a product from the price, the volume and the size; however as the proverb said « No all glitters are gold » the appearances are deceptive.

Appearences are always decieve us let's for example take the advertising this later makes you like the products unless if it is not good. The advertisers plan and choose the best words when they discribe thier products carefuly and perfectly they makes you think that there are no thing better than their

do not put proverb at first

Appendix # 10

Sample of the Second Pilot Individual Work of the Control Group

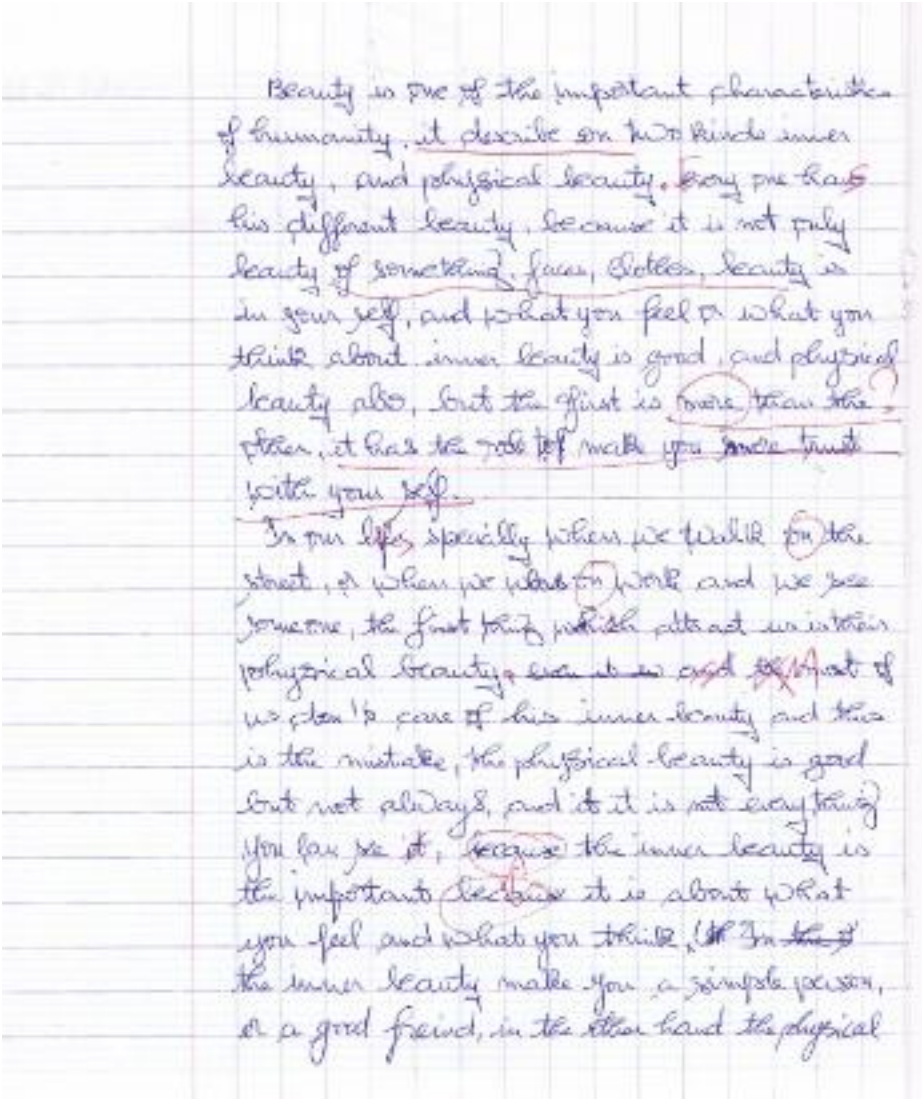


People all over the world know that the older and the newer generation are exactly alike? Talking about differences between old and new generation is helpful to identify the distinct sources of differences. Even though the two generations have the same place their considerable differences in the way of communication and the way of dressing themselves toward life reflect the differences between black and white.

The biggest difference between the older generation and the newer one is how we communicate. The newer generation focused on communicating with friends, family and other people at light speed. Also the new generation is about playing their life online for the world to see

Appendix # 11

Sample of the Pilot Post-Test of the Experimental Group

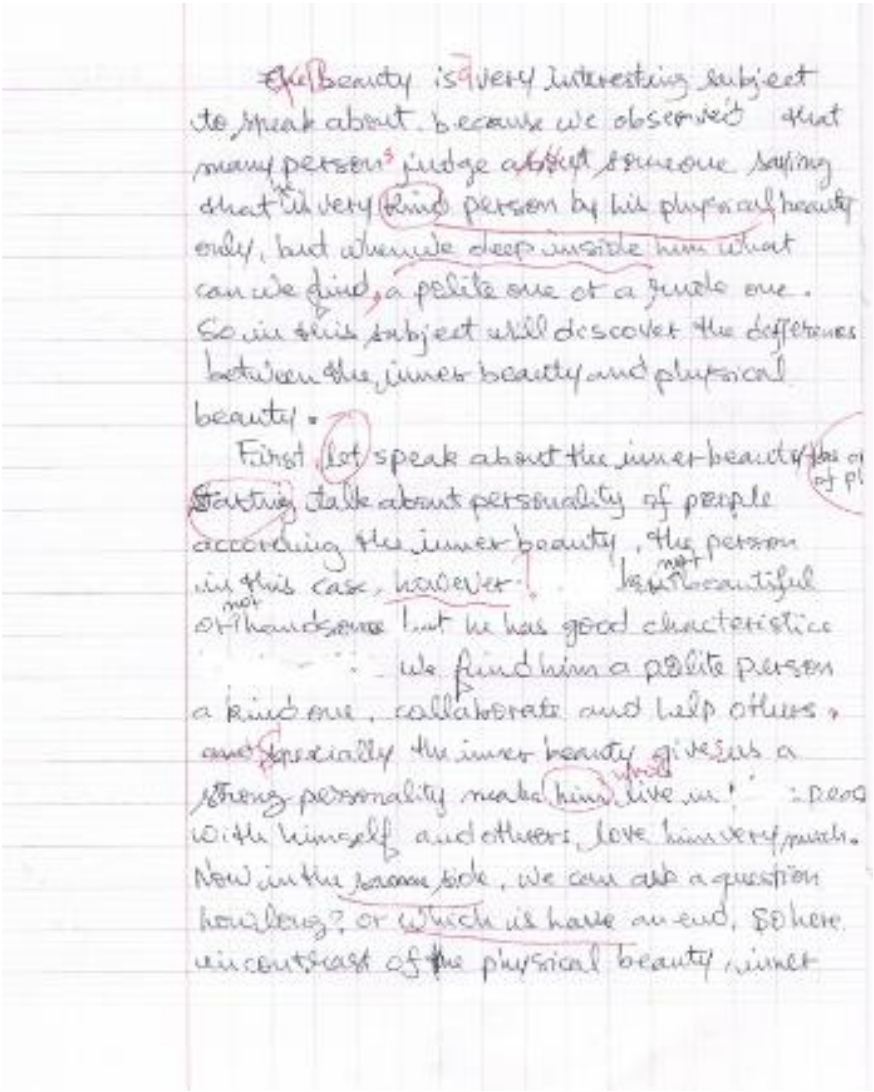


Beauty is one of the important characteristics of humanity, it describe on two kinds inner beauty, and physical beauty. Every one has his different beauty, because it is not only beauty of something faces, clothes, beauty is in your self, and what you feel or what you think about. inner beauty is good, and physical beauty also, but the first is more than the other, it has the role to make you more trust with your self.

In our life, specially when we walk in the street, or when we work and we see someone, the first thing which attract us is their physical beauty, even it is not good. Most of us don't a care of his inner beauty and this is the mistake, the physical beauty is good but not always, and it it is not everything you saw see it, because the inner beauty is the important because it is about what you feel and what you think. In the the inner beauty make you a simple person, a good friend, in the other hand the physical

Appendix # 12

Sample of the Pilot Post-Test of the Control Group



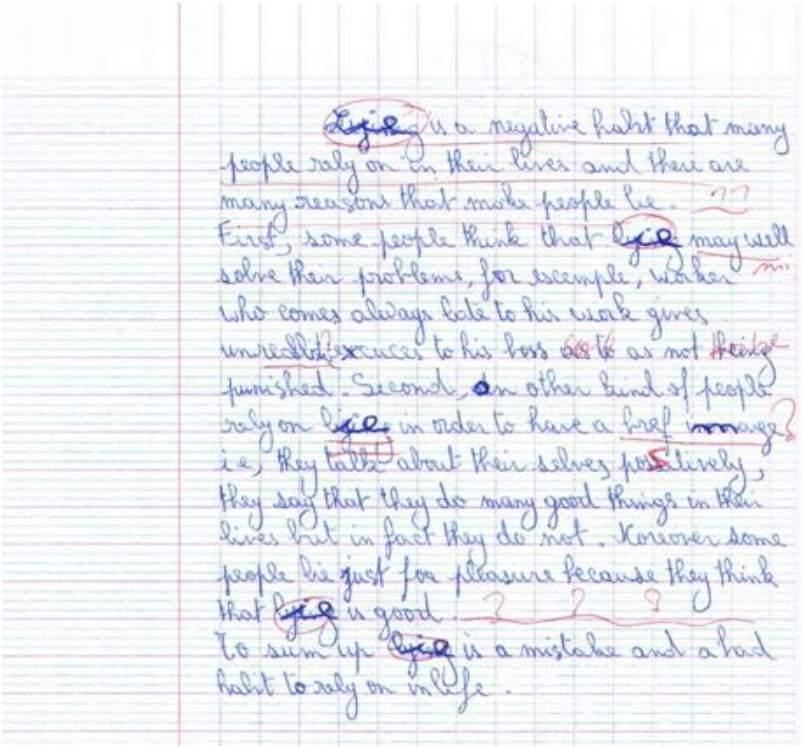
Beauty is very interesting subject to speak about. because we observed that many person's judge about someone saying that is very kind person by his physical beauty only, but actually deep inside him what can we find, a polite one or a rude one. So in this subject will discover the differences between the inner beauty and physical beauty.

First let speak about the inner beauty [illegible] talk about personality of people according the inner beauty, the person in this case, however not beautiful or not handsome but he has good characteristics we find him a polite person a kind one, collaborate and help others, and specially the inner beauty gives us a strong personality make him live in good with himself and others, love him very much. Now in the reverse side, we can ask a question how long? or which is have an end, So here in contrast of the physical beauty, inner

Appendix # 13

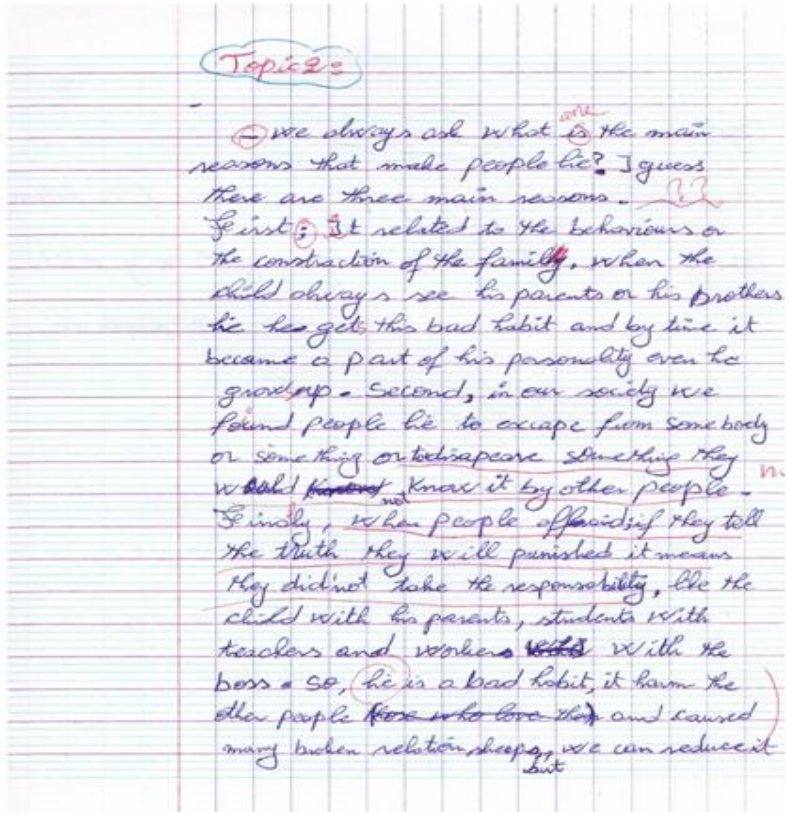
Sample of the Entry Test of the Experimental Group

Student # 01



Lying is a negative habit that many people rely on in their lives and there are many reasons that make people lie. First, some people think that lying may well solve their problems, for example, worker who comes always late to his work gives unreasonable excuses to his boss so as not being punished. Second, an other kind of people rely on lying in order to have a brief image, i.e, they talk about their selves positively, they say that they do many good things in their lives but in fact they do not. Moreover some people lie just for pleasure because they think that lying is good. To sum up lying is a mistake and a bad habit to rely on in life.

Student # 02



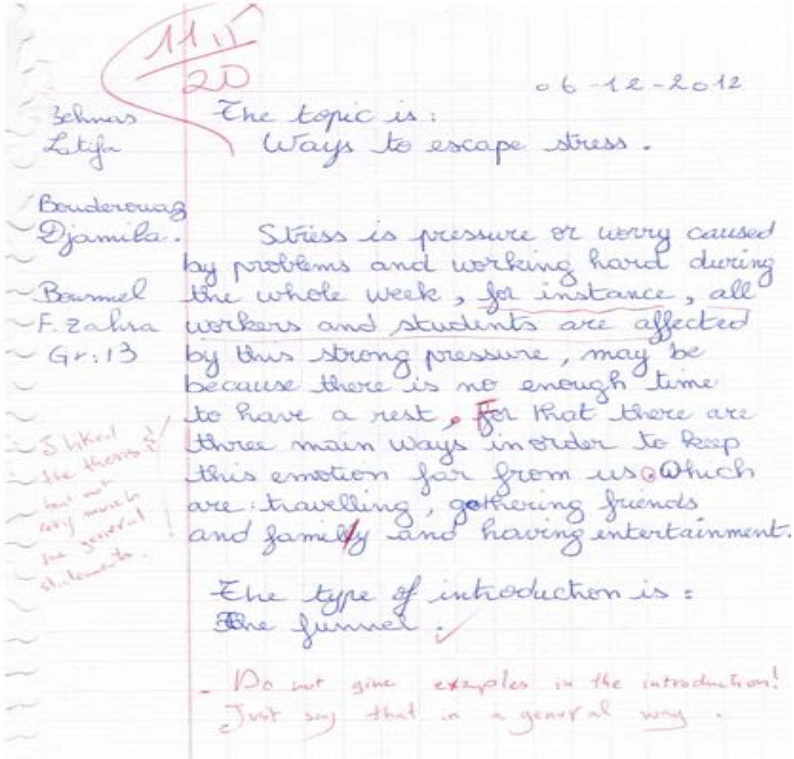
Topic 2:

- We always ask what are the main reasons that make people lie? I guess there are three main reasons. First: It related to the behaviours or the construction of the family, when the child always see his parents or his brothers lie he get this bad habit and by time it became a part of his personality even he grow up. Second, in our society we found people lie to escape from somebody or something or to appear something they would not know it by other people. Finally, when people afraid if they tell the truth they will punished it means they didn't take the responsibility, like the child with his parents, students with teachers and workers with the boss. so, lie is a bad habit, it harm the other people and caused many broken relationships, we can reduce it but

Appendix # 14

Sample of the Cooperative Work First Unit of the Experimental Group

Group #01



11,5 / 20

06-12-2012

Selmas Litifa

Bouderouaz Djamila.

Boumel F. Zahra

Gr: 13

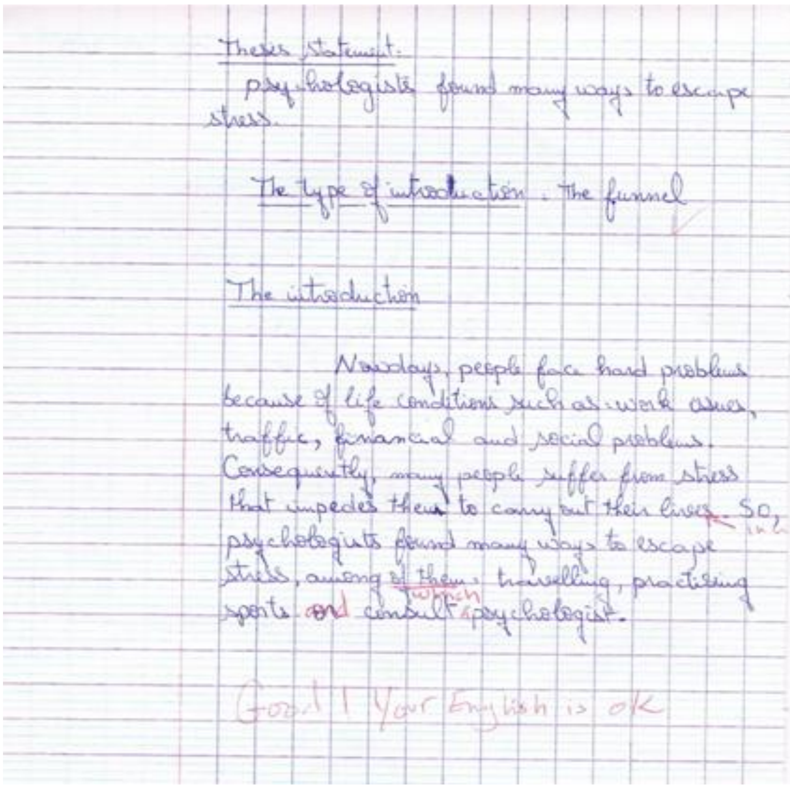
The topic is:
Ways to escape stress.

Stress is pressure or worry caused by problems and working hard during the whole week, for instance, all workers and students are affected by this strong pressure, may be because there is no enough time to have a rest, for that there are three main ways in order to keep this emotion far from us. Which are: travelling, gathering friends and family and having entertainment.

The type of introduction is:
The funnel.

- Do not give examples in the introduction! Just say that in a general way.

Group #02



Theses statement:
psychologists found many ways to escape stress.

The type of introduction: The funnel

The introduction

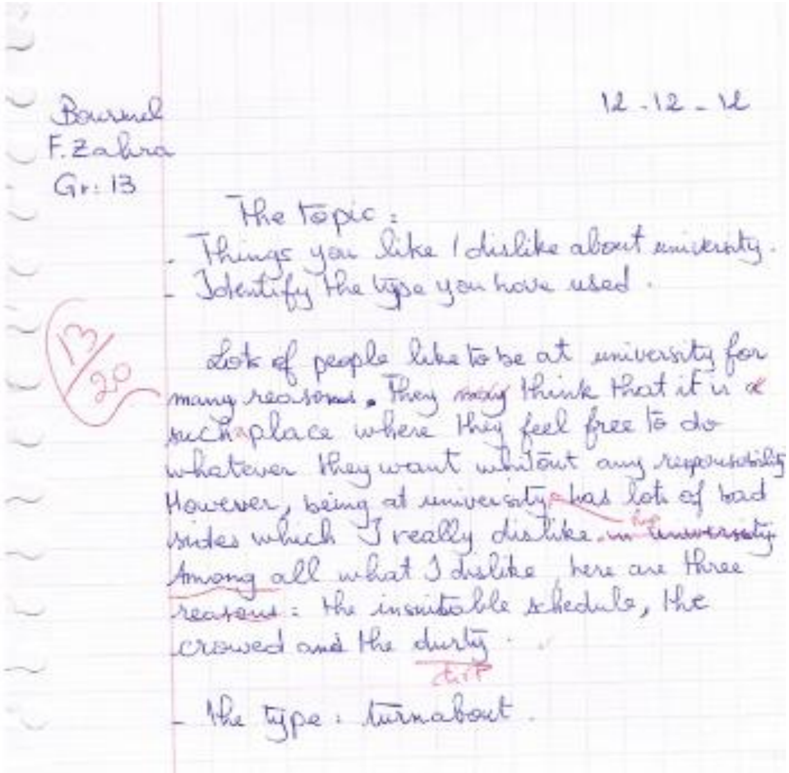
Nowadays, people face hard problems because of life conditions such as: work issues, traffic, financial and social problems. Consequently, many people suffer from stress that impedes them to carry out their lives. So, psychologists found many ways to escape stress, among of them: travelling, practising sports and consult a psychologist.

Good! Your English is ok

Appendix # 15

Sample of the Individual Work First Unit of the Experimental Group

Student # 01



Boumel
F. Zahra
Gr: 13

12.12.12

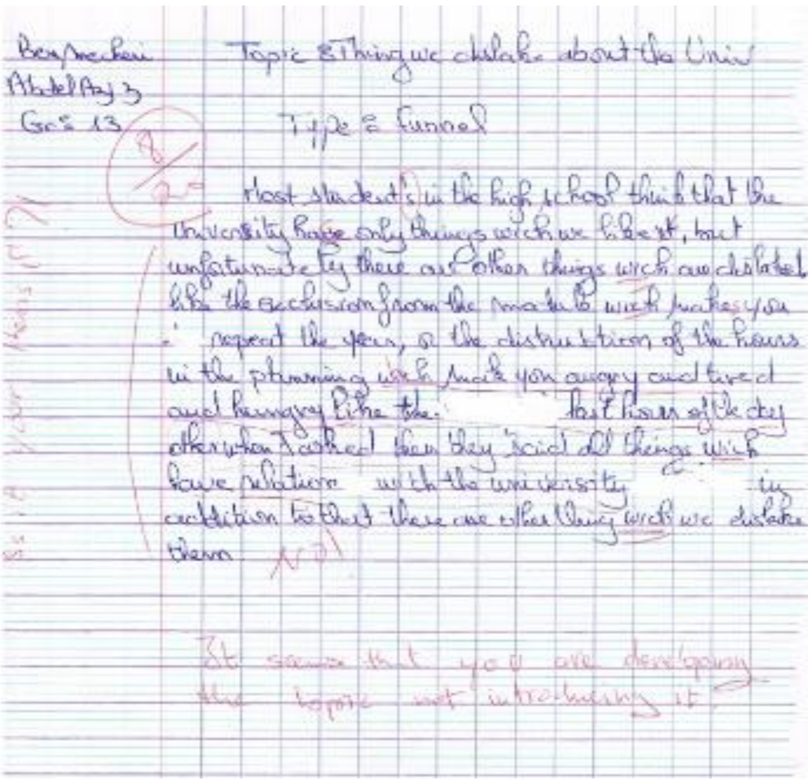
The topic:
- Things you like / dislike about university.
- Identify the type you have used.

13/20

Lot of people like to be at university for many reasons. They may think that it is a such place where they feel free to do whatever they want without any responsibility However, being at university has lot of bad sides which I really dislike in university. Among all what I dislike here are three reasons: the insuitable schedule, the crowed and the durty. dirt

- the type: turnabout.

Student # 02



Benmechri
Abdelhay 3
Gr: 13

Topic: Thing we dislike about the Univ

Type: funnel

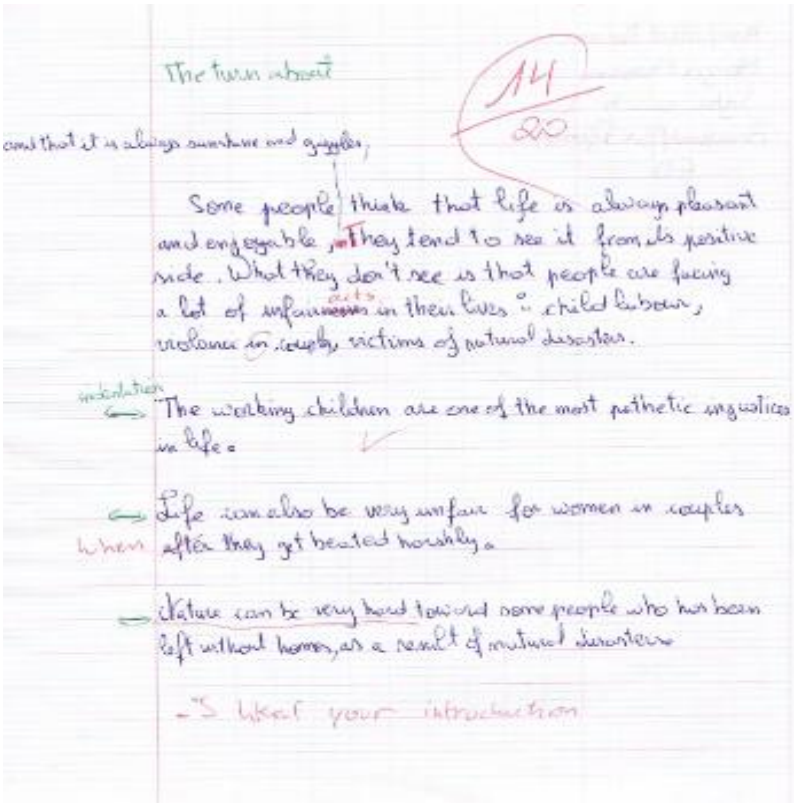
Most student's in the high school think that the University have only things wich we like it, but unfortunately there are other things wich are disliked like the exclusion from the module wich makes you repeat the year, or the distribution of the hours in the planning wich make you angry and tired and hungry like the last hour of the day other when I asked them they said all things wich have relation with the university in addition to that there are other thing wich we dislike them

It seems that you are developing the topic not introducing it.

Appendix # 16

Sample of the Cooperative Work Second Unit of the Experimental Group

Group #01



The turn about

and that it is always sunshine and giggles.

14/20

Some people think that life is always pleasant and enjoyable, they tend to see it from its positive side. What they don't see is that people are facing a lot of unfairness in their lives : child labour, violence in couples, victims of natural disaster.

introduction

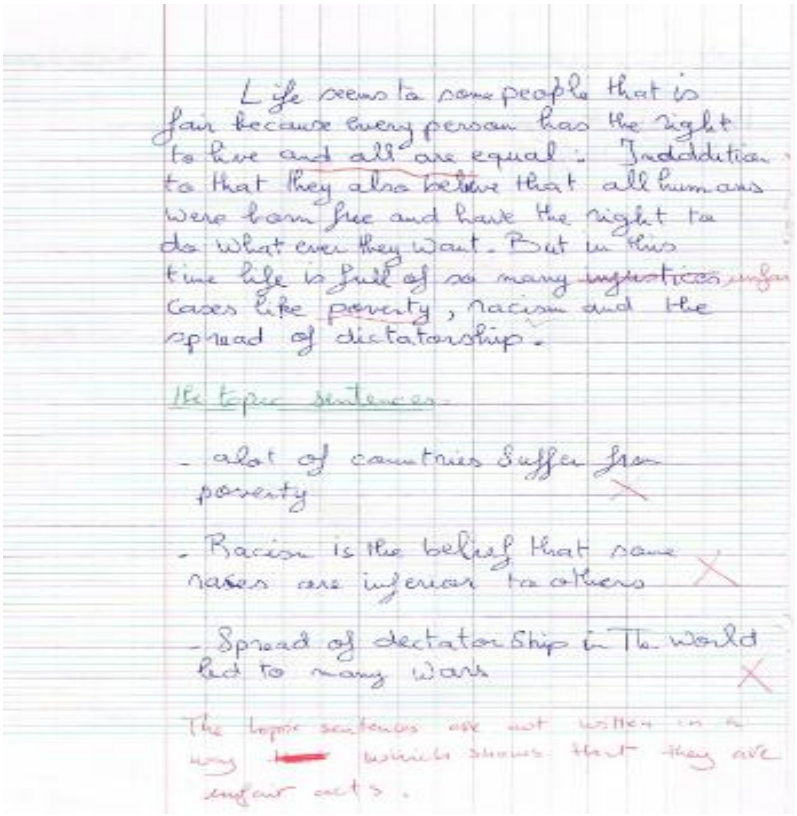
The working children are one of the most pathetic injustices in life.

Life can also be very unfair for women in couples when after they get beated horribly.

Nature can be very hard toward some people who has been left without homes, as a result of natural disasters.

- I like your introduction

Group #02



Life seems to some people that is fair because every person has the right to live and all are equal. Inadditian to that they also believe that all humans were born free and have the right to do what ever they want. But in this time life is full of so many injustices unfair cases like poverty, racism and the spread of dictatorships.

The topic sentences

- alot of countries Suffer from poverty

- Racism is the belief that some races are inferior to others

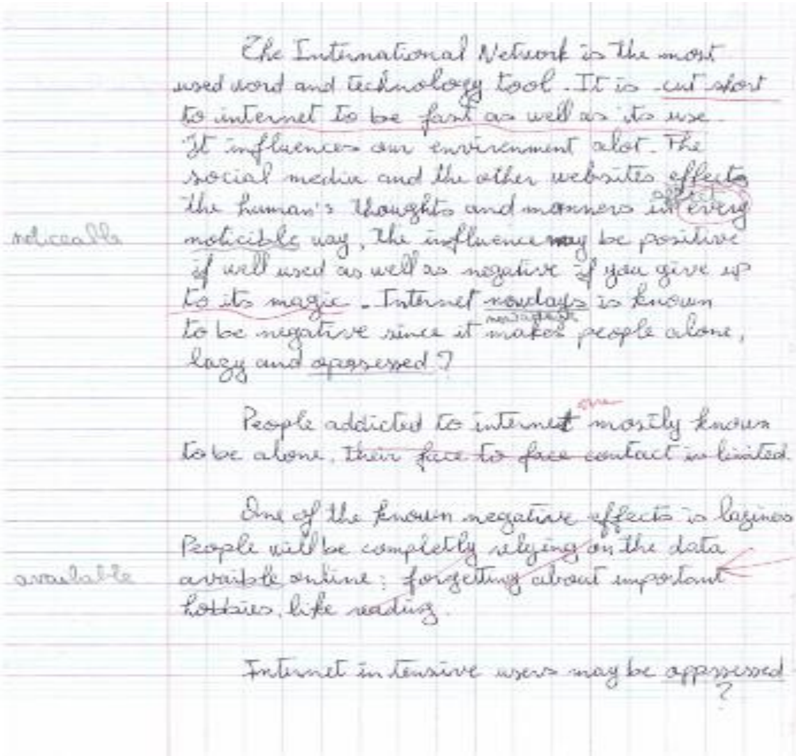
- Spread of dictator Ship in The world led to many Wars

The topic sentences are not written in a way which shows that they are unfair acts.

Appendix # 17

Sample of the Individual Work Second Unit of the Experimental Group

Student # 01



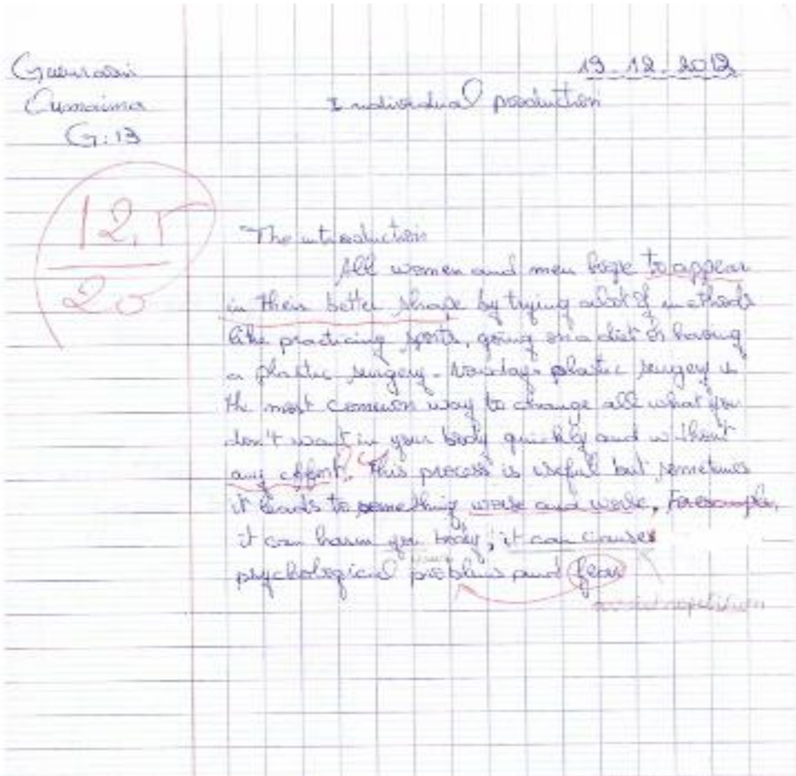
The International Network is the most used word and technology tool. It is cut short to internet to be fast as well as its use. It influences our environment alot. The social media and the other websites effects the human's thoughts and manners in every noticible way, the influence may be positive if well used as well as negative if you give up to its magic. Internet nowdays is known to be negative since it makes people alone, lazy and oppressed ?

People addicted to internet mostly known to be alone, their face to face contact is limited.

One of the known negative effects is laziness People will be completly relying on the data availble online; forgetting about important hobbies, like reading.

Internet intensive users may be oppressed

Student # 01



Gueuraoui Oumaima G:13

19-12-2019

Individual production

12,5/20

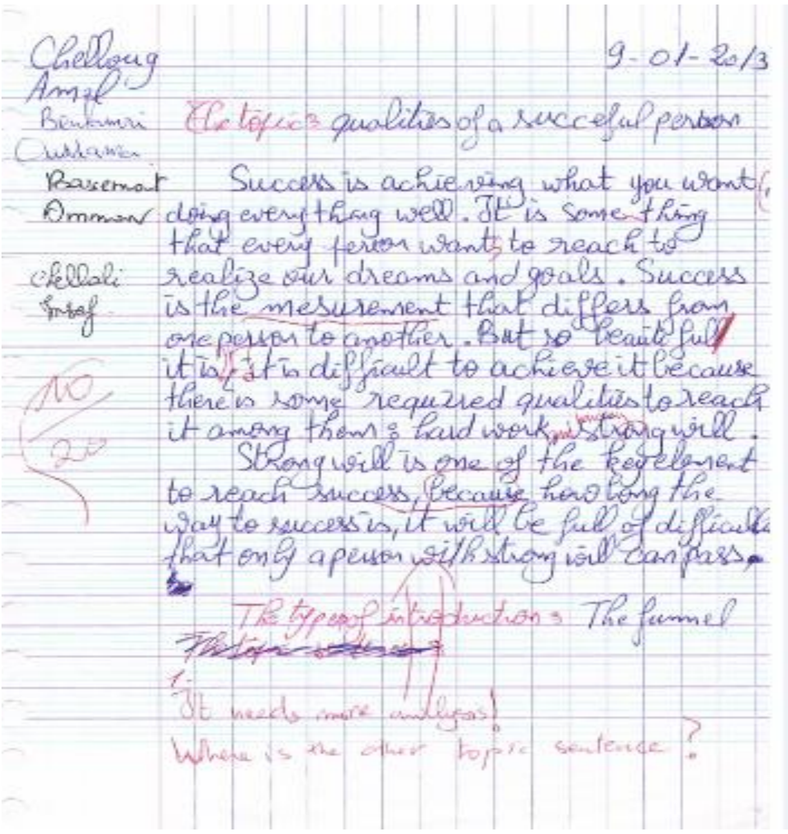
The introduction

All women and men hope to appear in their better shape by trying alot of methods like practicing sports, going on a diet or having a plastic surgery. Nowdays plastic surgery is the most common way to change all what you don't want in your body quickly and without any effort. This process is useful but sometimes it leads to something worse and worse, For example, it can harm your body, it can causes psychological problems and fear

Appendix # 18

Sample of the Cooperative Work Third Unit of the Experimental Group

Group #01



Chellouq Amal
Benkmri Ouidane
Basemat Omman
Chellali Israf

9-01-2013

The topic: qualities of a succeful person

Success is achieving what you want, doing every thing well. It is some thing that every person wants to reach to realize our dreams and goals. Success is the mesurement that differs from one person to another. But so beautiful it is, it is difficult to achieve it because there is some required qualities to reach it among them: hard work, strong will.

Strong will is one of the key element to reach success, because how long the way to success is, it will be full of difficulties that only a person with strong will can pass.

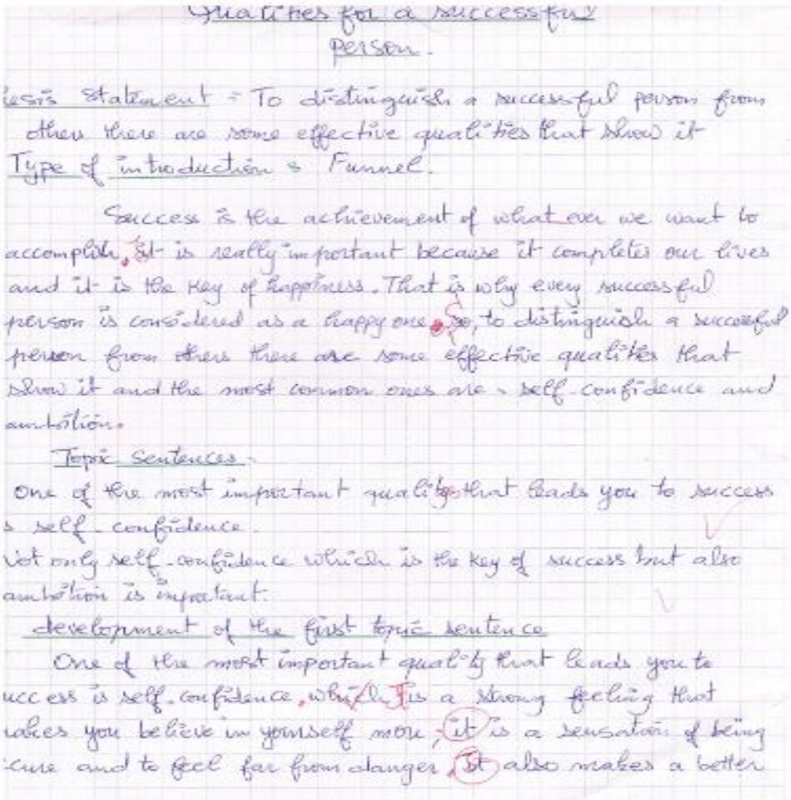
The type of introduction: The funnel

10/20

It needs more analysis!

Where is the other topic sentence?

Group #02



Qualities for a successful person.

Thesis statement: To distinguish a successful person from other there are some effective qualities that show it

Type of introduction: Funnel.

Success is the achievement of whatever we want to accomplish, it is really important because it completes our lives and it is the key of happiness. That is why every successful person is considered as a happy one. So, to distinguish a successful person from others there are some effective qualities that show it and the most common ones are: self-confidence and ambition.

Topic sentences:

One of the most important quality that leads you to success is self-confidence.

Not only self-confidence which is the key of success but also ambition is important.

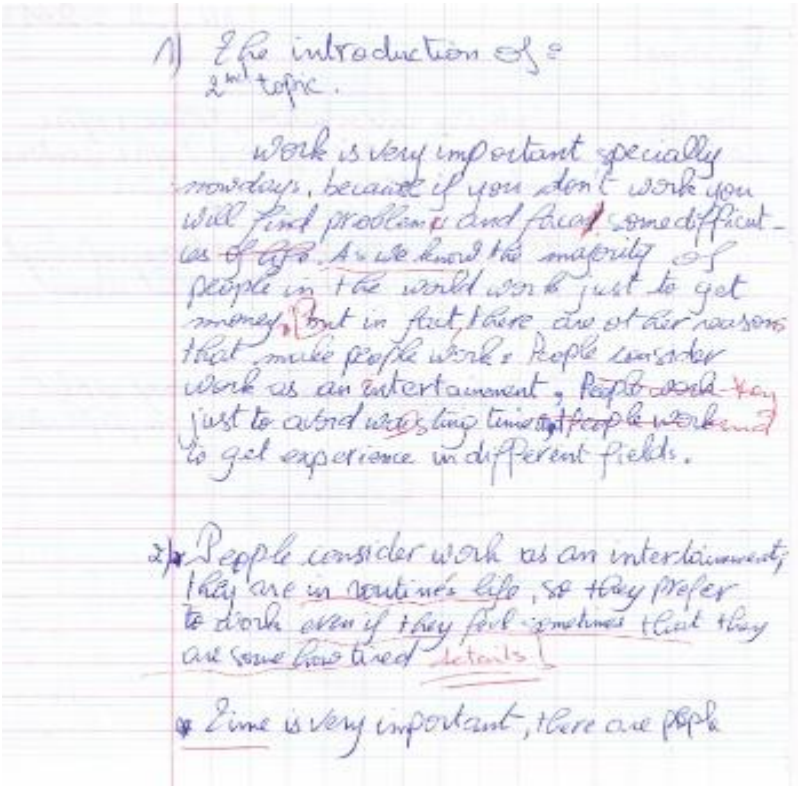
development of the first topic sentence

One of the most important quality that leads you to success is self-confidence, which is a strong feeling that makes you believe in yourself more, it is a sensation of being secure and to feel far from danger. It also makes a better

Appendix # 19

Sample of the Individual Work Third Unit of the Experimental Group

Student #01



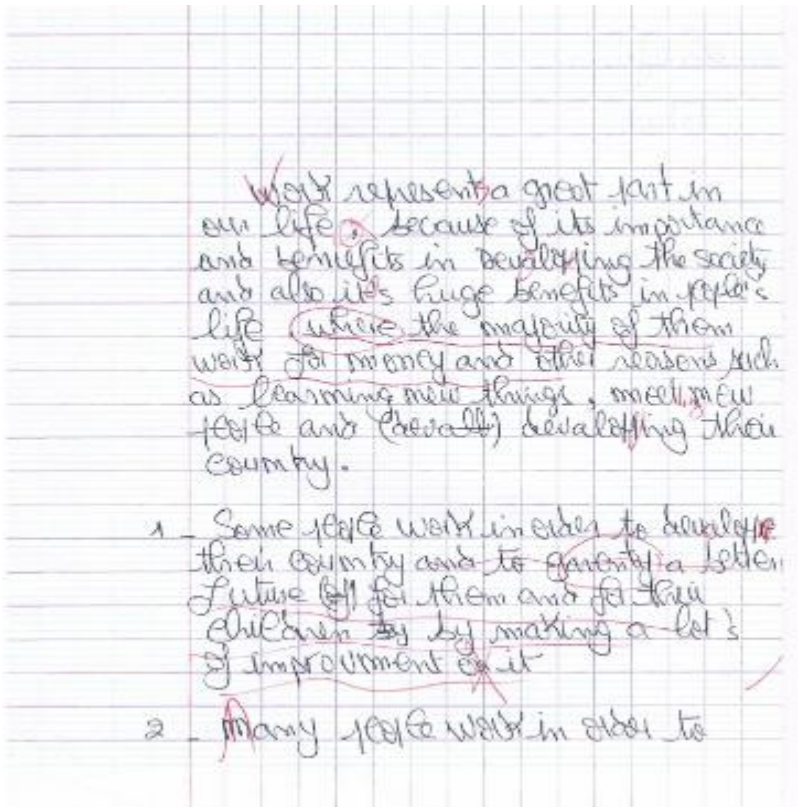
1) The introduction of the 2nd topic.

Work is very important specially nowdays, because if you don't work you will find problems and face some difficulties of life. As we know the majority of people in the world work just to get money, but in fact there are other reasons that make people work. People consider work as an entertainment, People work not just to avoid wasting time but people work and to get experience in different fields.

2) People consider work as an interlainment, they are in routine's life, so they prefer to work even if they feel sometimes that they are some how tired. Details!

* Time is very important, there are pepl

Student #02



Work represents a great part in our life because of its importance and benefits in developing the society and also it's huge benefits in people's life where the majority of them work for money and other reasons such as learning new things, meeting new people and (overall) developping their country.

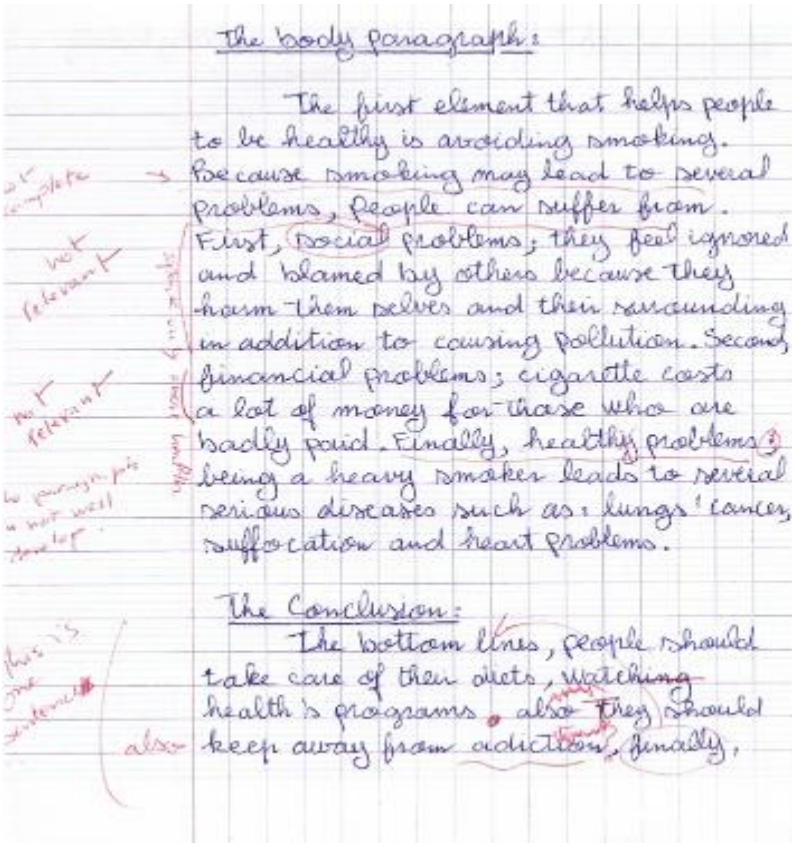
1 - Some people work in order to developp their country and to garantee a better future life for them and for their children by by making a lot's of improvment on it

2 - Many people work in order to

Appendix # 20

Sample of the Cooperative Work Fourth Unit of the Experimental Group

Group #01



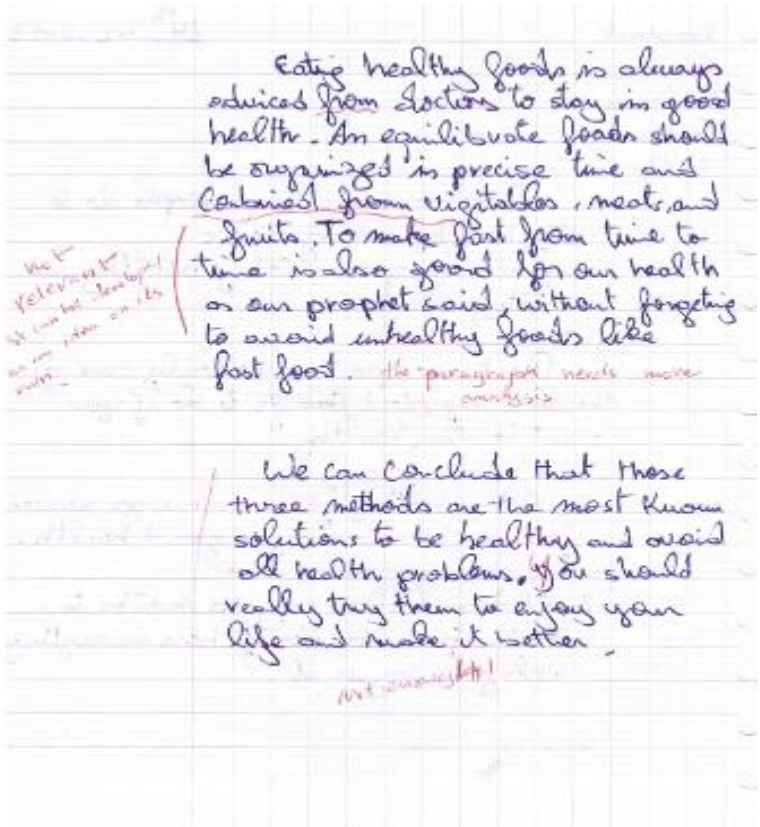
The body paragraph:

The first element that helps people to be healthy is avoiding smoking. Because smoking may lead to several problems, people can suffer from. First, social problems; they feel ignored and blamed by others because they harm themselves and their surrounding in addition to causing pollution. Second, financial problems; cigarette costs a lot of money for those who are badly paid. Finally, healthy problems being a heavy smoker leads to several serious diseases such as: lungs' cancer, suffocation and heart problems.

The Conclusion:

The bottom lines, people should take care of their diets, watching health's programs. also they should keep away from addiction. finally,

Group #02



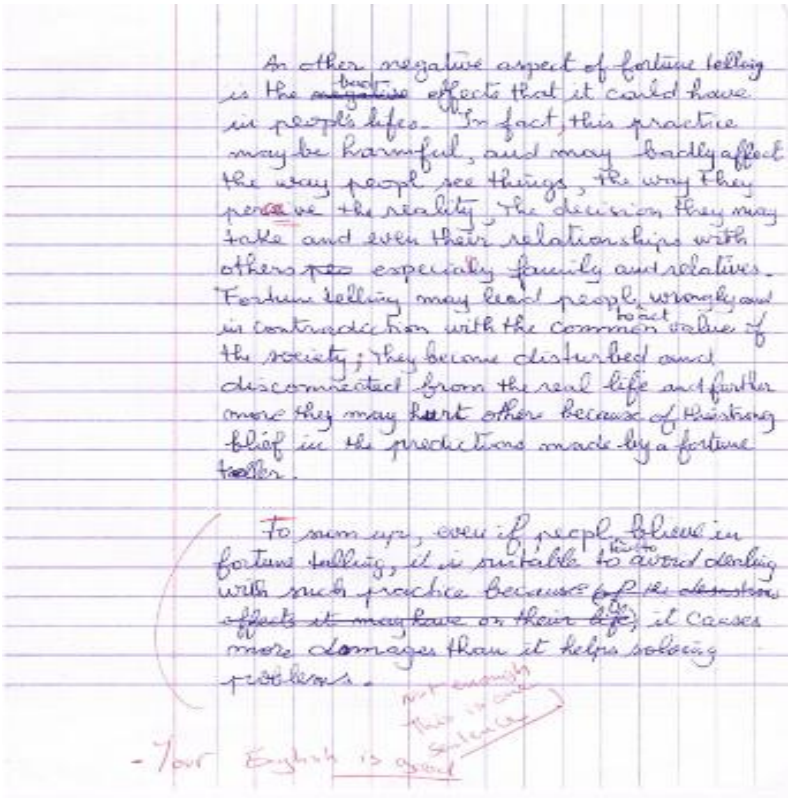
Eating healthy foods is always advices from doctors to stay in good health. An equilibrate foods should be organized in precise time and Contained from vigitables, meats, and fruits. To make fast from time to time is also good for our health as our prophet said, without forgeting to avoid unhealthy foods like fast food.

We can conclude that those three methods are the most known solutions to be healthy and avoid all health problems. you should really try them to enjoy your life and make it better.

Appendix # 21

Sample of the Individual Work Fourth Unit of the Experimental Group

Student #01

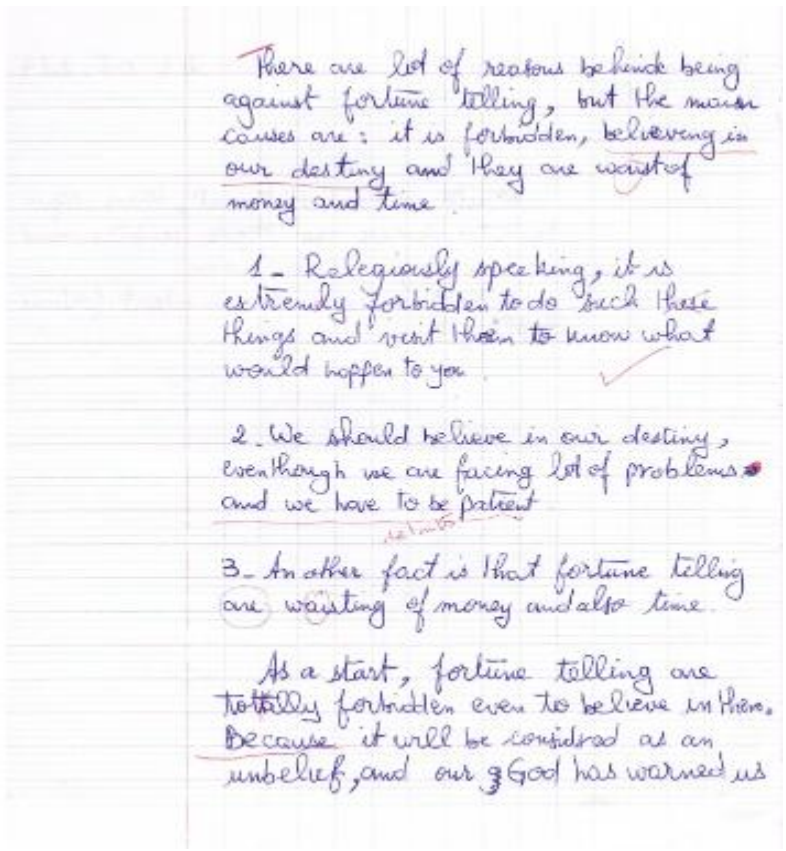


An other negative aspect of fortune telling is the ~~negative~~ bad effects that it could have in people's lifes. In fact, this practice may be harmful, and may badly affect the way people see things, the way they perceive the reality, the decision they may take and even their relationships with others ~~too~~ especially family and relatives. Fortune telling may lead people wrongly and in contradiction with the common value of the society; they become disturbed and disconnected from the real life and further more they may hurt other because of their strong belief in the predictions made by a fortune teller.

To sum up, even if people believe in fortune telling, it is suitable to avoid dealing with such practice because ~~of the damaging effects it may have on their life~~, it causes more damages than it helps solving problems.

- Your English is good

Student #02



There are lot of reasons behinde being against fortune telling, but the mains causes are: it is forbidden, believeing in our destiny and they are waste of money and time.

1- Religiously speaking, it is extremly forbidden to do such these things and visit them to know what would happen to you.

2- We should believe in our destiny, even though we are facing lot of problems and we have to be patient.

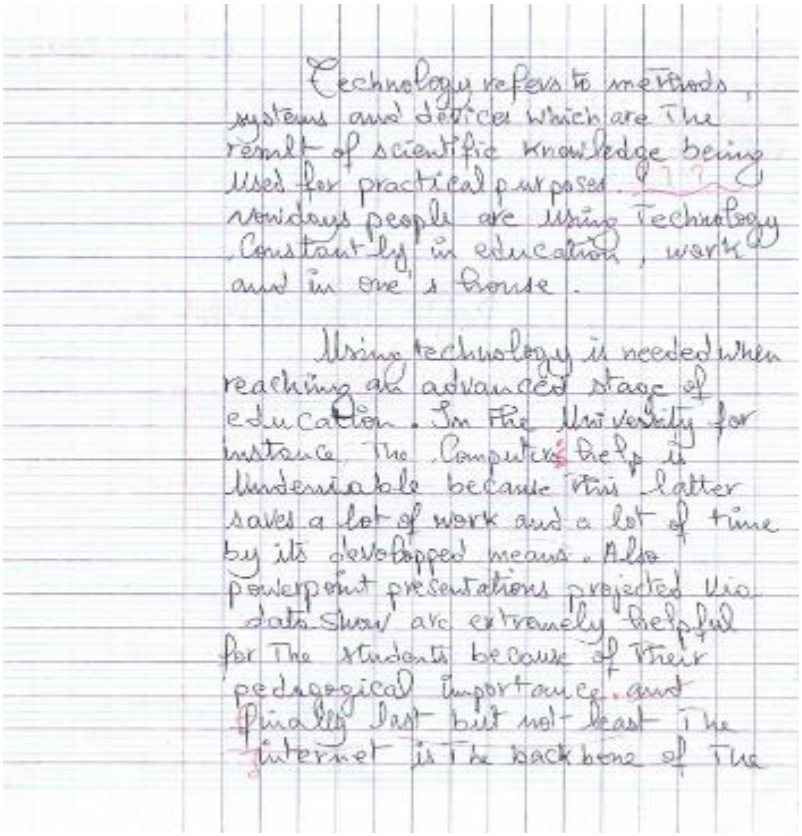
3- An other fact is that fortune telling are waisting of money and also time.

As a start, fortune telling are totally forbidden even to believe in them. Because it will be considred as an unbelief, and our God has warned us

Appendix # 22

Sample of the Cooperative Work Fifth Unit of the Experimental Group

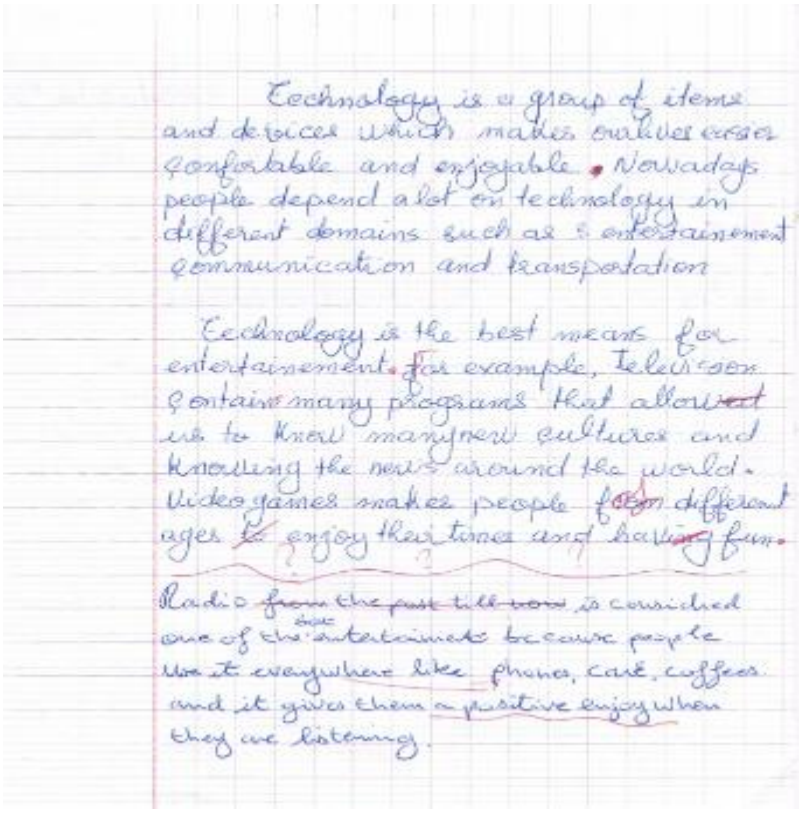
Group #01



Technology refers to methods, systems and devices which are the result of scientific knowledge being used for practical purposed. Nowadays people are using Technology constantly in education, work and in one's house.

Using technology is needed when reaching an advanced stage of education. In the University for instance the Computer help is Undeniable because this latter saves a lot of work and a lot of time by its developped means. Also powerpoint presentations projected via data Show are extremely helpful for the students because of their pedagogical importance. and finally last but not least the Internet is the back bone of the

Group #02



Technology is a group of items and devices which makes ourlives more confortable and enjoyable. Nowadays people depend a lot on technology in different domains such as : entertainement communication and transportation

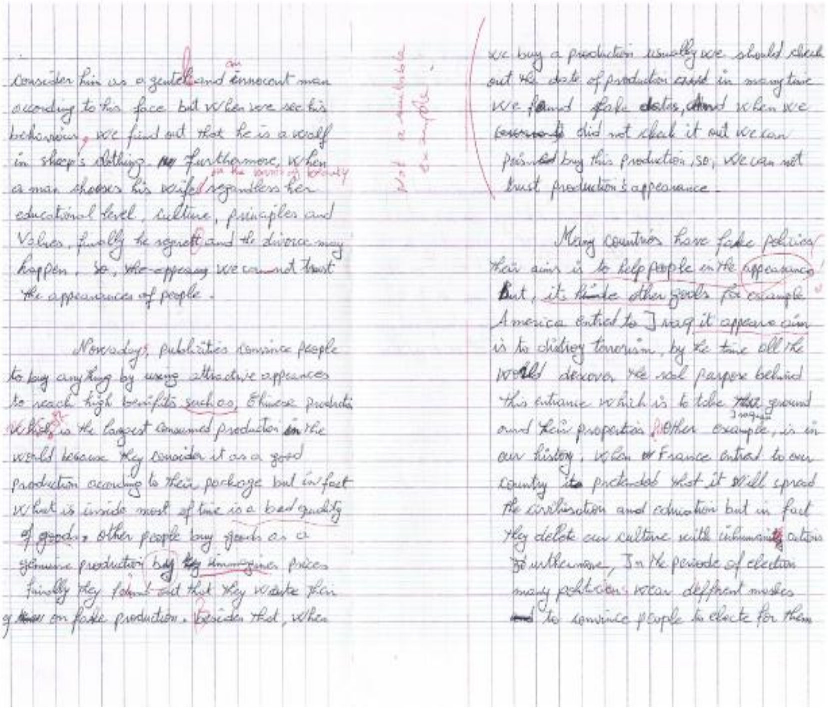
Technology is the best means for entertainement. For example, Television contains many programs that allow us to know many new cultures and knowing the news around the world. Video games makes people of different ages enjoy their times and having fun.

Radio from the past till now is considered one of the entertainment because people use it everywhere like phones, car, coffees and it gives them a positive enjoy when they are listening.

Appendix # 23

Sample of the Individual Work Fifth Unit of the Experimental Group

Student #01



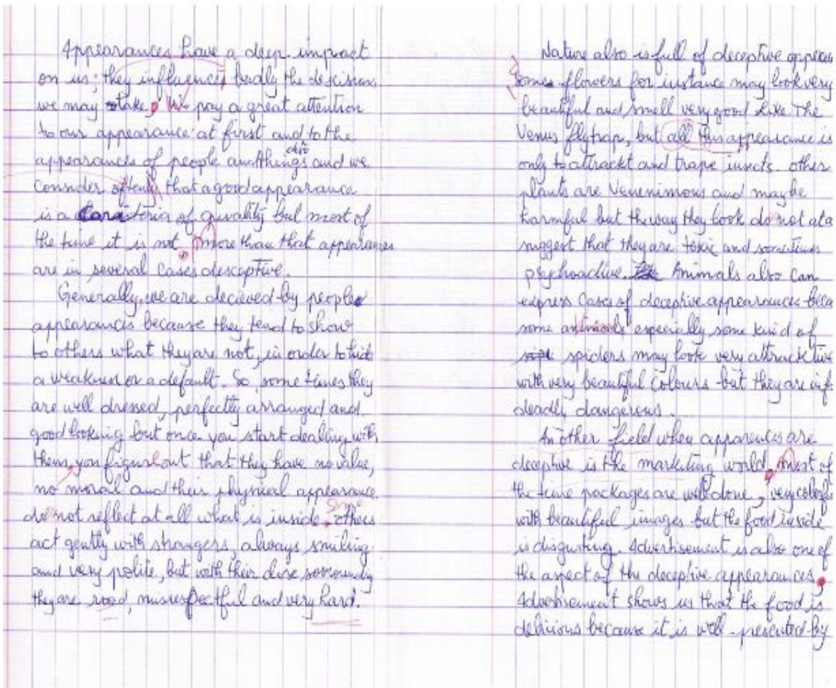
consider him as a gentle and innocent man according to his face but when we see his behaviour, we find out that he is a wolf in sheep's clothing. Furthermore, when a man chooses his wife regardless her educational level, culture, principles and values, finally he regrets and the divorce may happen. So, the appearing we cannot trust the appearances of people.

Nowadays, publicities convince people to buy anything by using attractive appearances to reach high benifits such as, Chinese products which is the largest consumed production in the world because they consider it as a good production according to their package but in fact what is inside most of time is a bad quality of goods, other people buy goods as a genuine production by imaginer prices finally they found out that they waste their money on fake production. Besides that, when

we buy a production usually we should check out the date of production exist in many time we found fake dates, and when we did not check it out we can buy this production, so, we can not trust production's appearance.

Many countries have fake policies their aim is to help people in the appearance! But, it hide other goals for example America entred to Iraq it appears aim is to distroy terrorism, by the time all the world discover the real purpose behind this entrance which is to take the Iraqi ground and their propertis. Other example, is in our history, when France entred to our country its pretended that it will spread the civilisation and education but in fact they delete our culture with inhumanity actions. Furthermore, In the periode of election many politicians wear deffrent maskes to convince people to electe for them

Student #02



Appearances have a deep impact on us; they influence badly the decisions we may take. We pay a great attention to our appearance at first and to the appearances of people and things and we consider often that a good appearance is a carasterin of quality but most of the time it is not. More than that appearances are in several cases descaptive.

Generally, we are deceived by people appearances because they tend to show to others what they are not, in order to hide a weakness or a default. So, some times they are well dressed, perfectly arranged and good looking but once you start dealing with them, you figure out that they have no value, no moral and their physical appearance do not reflect at all what is inside. Others act gently with strangers, always smiling and very polite, but with their close surrounding they are rood, misrespectful and very hard.

Nature also is full of deceptive appearances. Some flowers for instance may look very beautiful and smell very good like the Venus flytrap, but all this appearance is only to attrackt and trape insects. Other plants are venenimous and may be harmful but the way they look do not also suggest that they are toxic and sometimes psychoactive. Animals also can express cases of deceptive appearances because some animals especially some kind of spiders may look very attracktive with very beautiful colours but they are in fact deadly dangerous.

Another field where apparences are deceptive is the marketing world. Most of the time packages are well done, very colorful with beautiful images but the food inside is disgusting. Advertisement is also one of the aspect of the deceptive appearances. Advertisement shows us that the food is delicious because it is well-presented by

Appendix # 24

Sample of the First Individual Work of the Control Group

Student #01

The topic : ways to escape stress.
- I have used : The funnel.

This days stress is concidered as a hudge problem in our life, the majority of people are stressed and that because of wondering how to face and find solutions to the problems in their life yet there are who are stressed about unimportant issues as a result stress is very bad for their health like doctors says it is a silent killer it cause many illnesses, a dangerous one for instance, bloodpressure, Obesity, cancer... ect. There are many ways to escape stress by using psycological ways, relaxing, working, taking medicines for stress.

- Do not give examples in the [illegible]

Student #02

Zergui Sonia G04

The topic: Ways to escape stress.

Two years ago, when we were passing our exam, my friend was very nervous and confused. after she saw the question paper, she became afraid then she started crying. Because of the big stress. this latter is a difficult situation may all of us face. which is a presure that puts us in a dilema. For that each one must know the key to avoid that stress as closing the eyes then thinking for while before getting stressed. other way which is the self confidence, Preparing ourselves and being ready to face such situations, taking a deep breath and counting till ten before getting nervous, all that can lead to (escape) avoid stress.

not well [illegible]

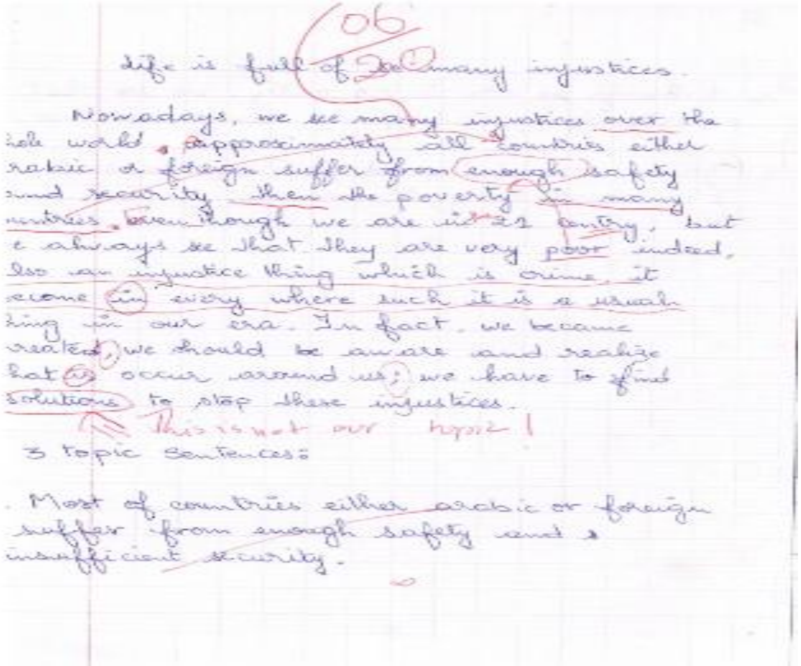
Dramatic entrance

11.5 / 20

Appendix # 25

Sample of the Second Individual Work of the Control Group

Student #01



06

Life is full of many injustices.

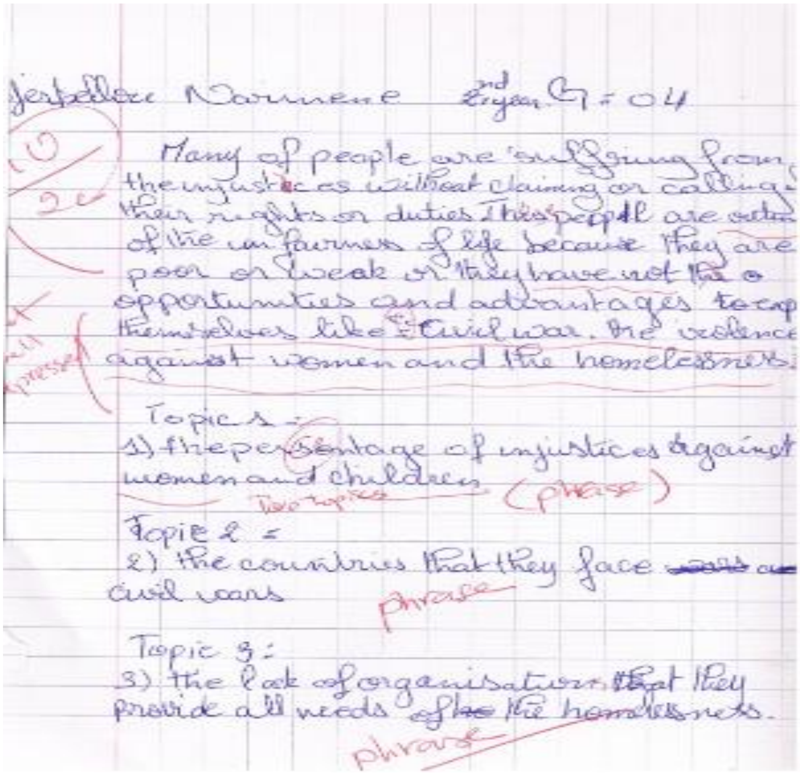
Nowadays, we see many injustices over the whole world, approximately all countries either arabic or foreign suffer from enough safety and security then the poverty in many countries, even though we are in 21 century, but we always see that they are very poor indeed. Also an injustice thing which is crime, it become in every where such it is a usual thing in our era. In fact, we became created, we should be aware and realize that occur around us; we have to find solutions to stop these injustices.

This is not our topic!

3 topic sentences:

. Most of countries either arabic or foreign suffer from enough safety and insufficient security.

Student #02



2nd year G = 04

Many of people are suffering from the injustices without claiming or calling their rights or duties. This people are victim of the unfairness of life because they are poor or weak or they have not the opportunities and advantages to express themselves like civil war, the violence against women and the homelessness.

Topic 1 :
1) the percentage of injustices against women and children (phrase)

Two topics

Topic 2 :
2) the countries that they face civil wars

phrase

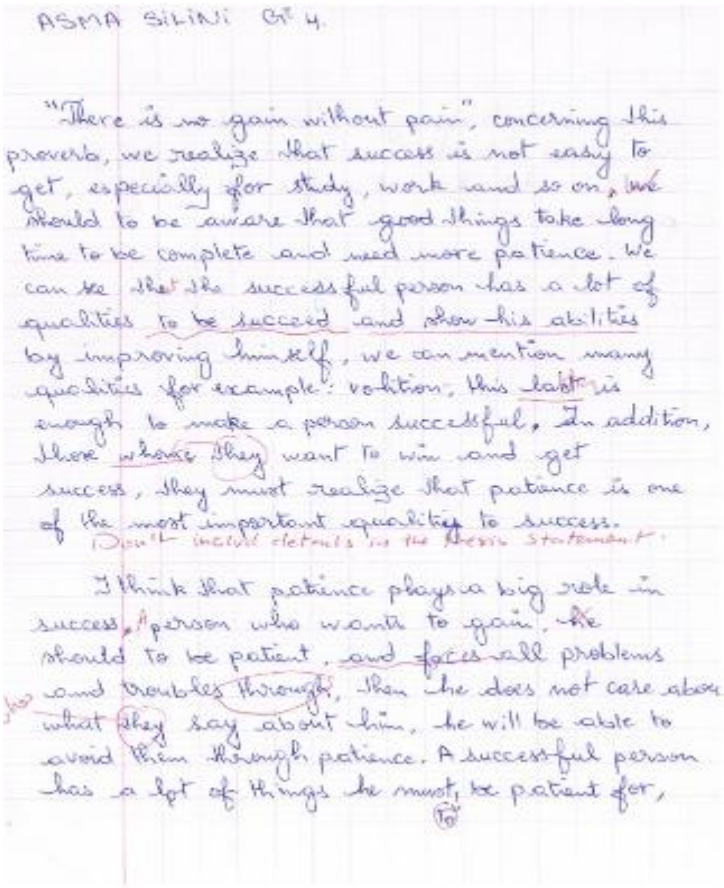
Topic 3:
3) the lack of organisation that they provide all needs of the homelessness.

phrase

Appendix # 26

Sample of the Third Individual Work of the Control Group

Student #01



ASMA SILIANI Gr 4

"There is no gain without pain", concerning this proverb, we realize that success is not easy to get, especially for study, work and so on, we should to be aware that good things take long time to be complete and need more patience. We can see that the successful person has a lot of qualities to be succeed and show his abilities by improving himself, we can mention many qualities for example: volition, this habit is enough to make a person successful, In addition, those whose they want to win and get success, they must realize that patance is one of the most important qualities to success.

Don't include details in the thesis statement.

I think that patience plays a big role in success, A person who wants to gain, he should to be patient, and faces all problems and troubles through, then he does not care about what they say about him, he will be able to avoid them through patience. A successful person has a lot of things he must, be patient for,

Student #02

Life can be seen as a chess table where people are the masks keys. It is the hard step we are able to overcome that determines our success from failure. If we consider overcoming hard paths and challenges of life to be success therefor a successful person ought to have some important qualities such as optimism, patience and devotion. [Funnel]

A successful person should be for me and for most an optimistic person. Which means that the person should have positive views towards life so he/she can go through it. An optimistic person, is the one that does not fear failure and tends to be stronger and determined no matter how hard a sith can be. Keeping in mind positive thoughts and trying to look at matters from the other side is considered as a major quality for a successful person.

Not only optimism is needed but also patience is, for a successful person to be one

Appendix #27

Sample of the Fourth Individual Work of the Control Group

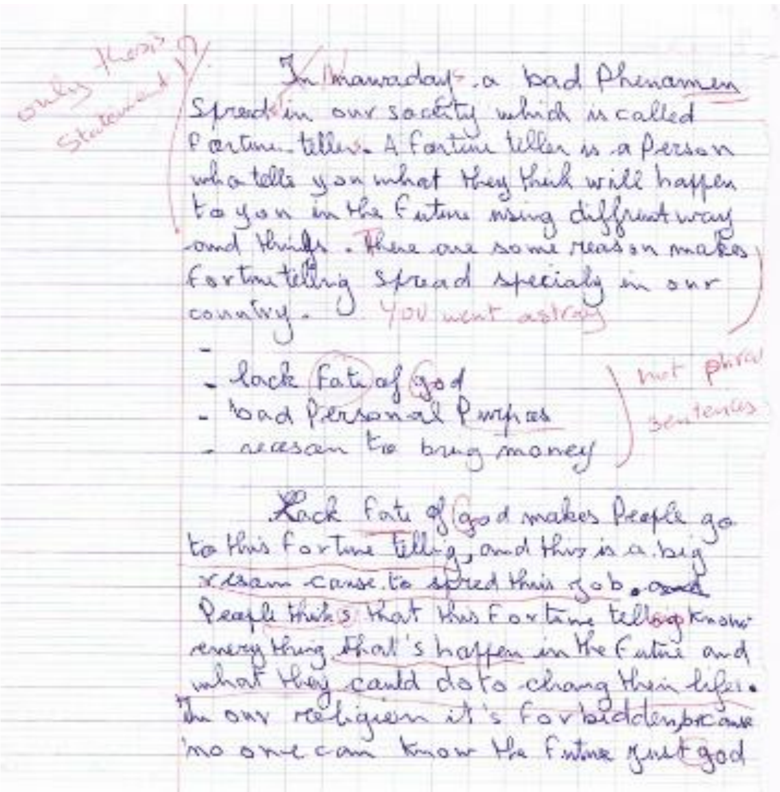
Student #01


Fortune telling is forbidden in our religion because no one can see what will happen to people in the future only God does.

development.

Fortune tellers are untrustful people because they work with their pretended knowledge on seeing the future. But instead they are stealing the money of people who believe that it is a reliable source. People such as those who are not well educated especially who do not have a good level, or people who face many problems on their lives, or also individuals who are not attached to our religion, I mean people who have a lack of something in their lives. So, those fortune tellers tell people what they want to hear in order to steal them and they benefit to get more and more money each time these poor people come to them. In sum, I think it is not good, and these people should be punished by the government because they are

Student #02


Nowadays a bad phenomen spread in our society which is called fortune teller. A fortune teller is a person who tells you what they think will happen to you in the future using diffrent way and things. There are some reason makes fortune telling spread specialy in our country. You went astray

- lack fate of god
- bad personal purpos
- reason to bring money

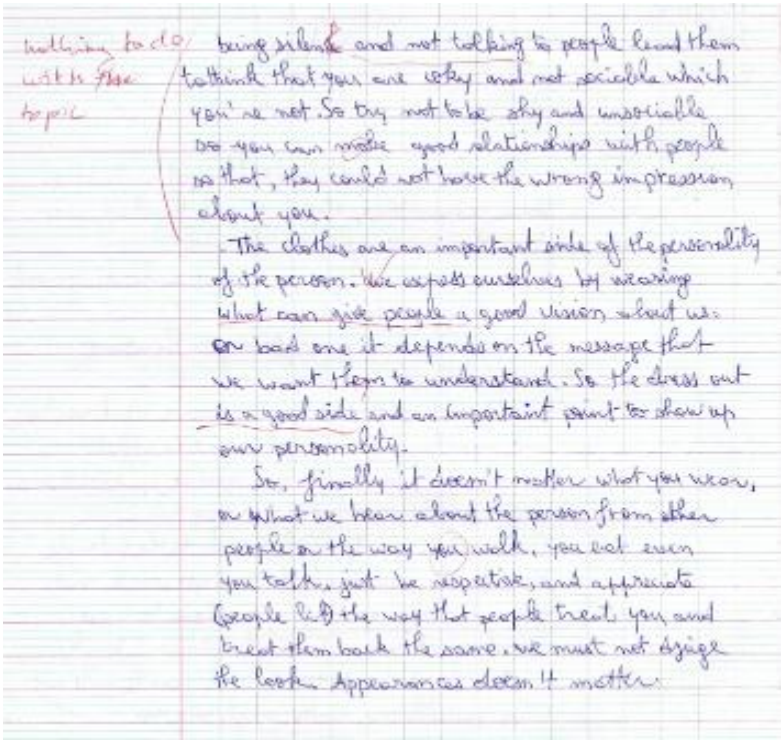
not phrases sentences

Lack fate of god makes people go to this fortune tellig, and this is a big reason cause to spred this job. and People thinks that this fortune tellers know every thing that's happen in the future and what they could do to chang their life. In our religion it's forbidden because no one can know the future just god

Appendix #28

Sample of the Fifth Individual Work of the Control Group

Student #01



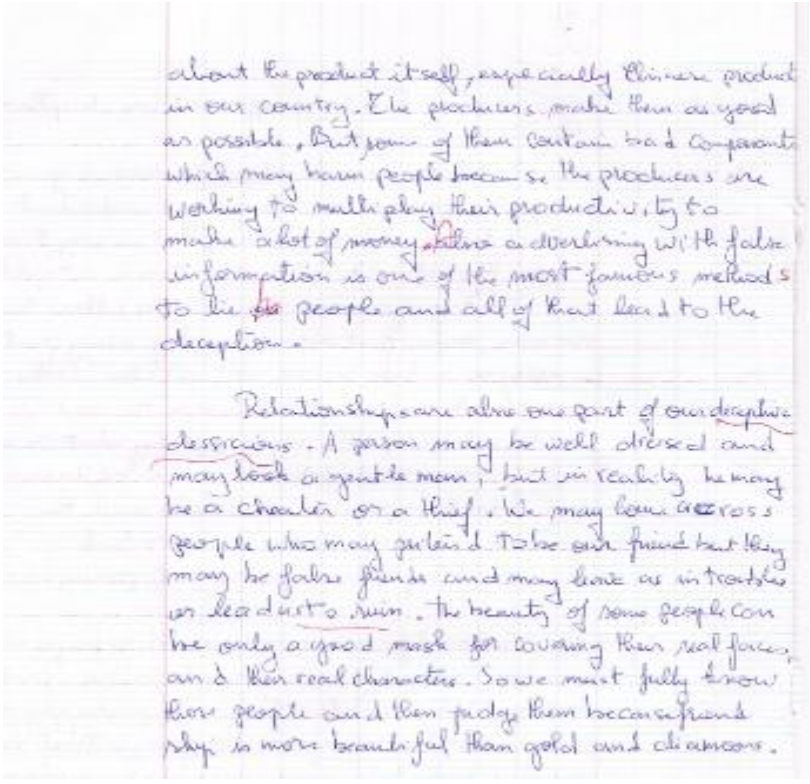
nothing to do with the topic

being silent and not talking to people lead them to think that you are shy and not sociable which you're not. So try not to be shy and unsociable so you can make good relationships with people so that, they could not have the wrong impression about you.

The clothes are an important side of the personality of the person. We express ourselves by wearing what can give people a good vision about us: or bad one it depends on the message that we want them to understand. So the dress out is a good side and an important point to show up our personality.

So, finally it doesn't matter what you wear, or what we hear about the person from other people or the way you walk, you eat even you talk, just be respetisk, and appreciate (people like) the way that people treat you and treat them back the same, we must not judge the look. Appearances doesn't matter.

Student #02



about the product it self, especially Chinese product in our country. The producers make them as good as possible, but some of them contain bad components which may harm people because the producers are working to multiply their productivity, try to make a lot of money, using advertising with false information is one of the most famous methods to lie people and all of that lead to the deception.

Relationships are also one part of our deceptive dessicions. A person may be well dressed and may look a gentle man, but in reality he may be a cheater or a thief. We may have across people who may pretend to be our friend but they may be false friends and may have as intention to lead us to ruin. The beauty of some people can be only a good mask for covering their real face, and their real characters. So we must fully know those people and then judge them because friendship is more beautiful than gold and diamonds.

Appendix #29

Sample of the Post-test of the Experimental Group

Student #01

Ben Mahidi Atef Abd El Hakim
G13

07/04/2015.

07/20

• We learn more from findingout that we have made mistakes.

In our days we made a lot of diccisions, and some are good and some are bad and anyway our life not based on because we can fix our problem our diccisions if we are more mature, and also we don't forget that we should learn from our mistakes to be better enough.

Where is the example

If we learn from our mistakes it's a good diccissions that make us don't fall in the same fault again but everyone had make a mistake before and he learns from it, and that means he wants to be more confident and make the right diccissions in the hardest moment and especially this days in our generation and our society.

And it's like in my life a lot of bad mistakes and now I'm pay for it like a stoped my studies for one year and the next year after I repeat and now if I didn't succeded I will fired from the university and now I should prove my capacities and make good decisions to save my future.

The essay is not organized at all!!

Student #02

Boutebsel Ikram
CS13

13/04/2015

13/20

2- It is always important to tell the truth but there are circumstances in which it is better to lie.
* Use examples and details to support your answer.

The truth is a quality or state of being based on fact which is needed always to be consious about all the events or stories that happen. Although telling the truth is extreamly important, there are some particular situations in which the resolution is lying, among them: not make the truth obvious in particular illnesses, in big problems between spouses and with children whom have bad social conditions.

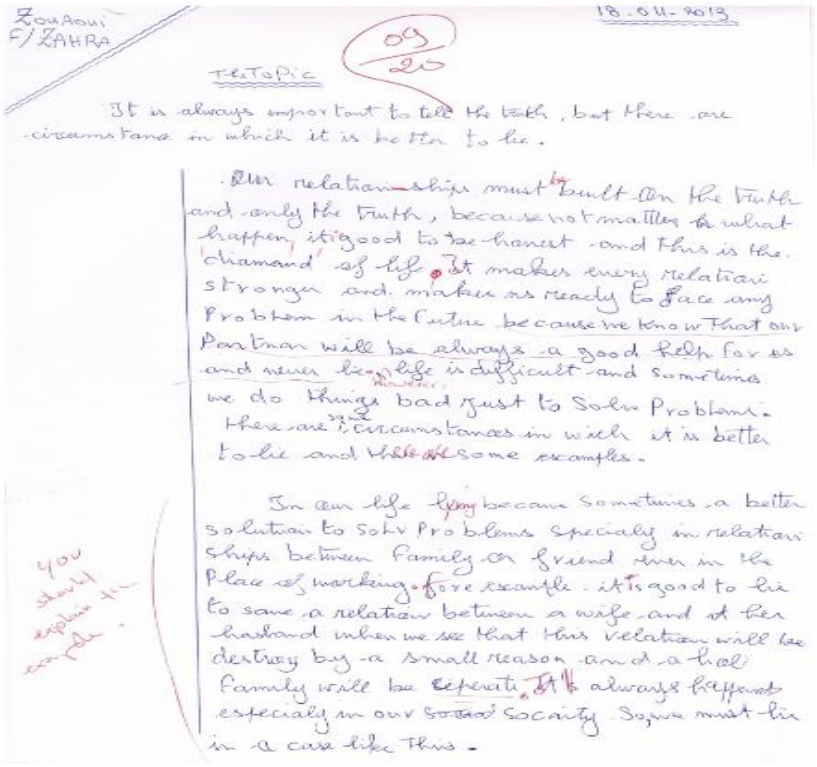
Not make the truth obvious in particular illnesses can be a good solution. For example: a doctor hides the illness's truth to the patient in order not to amaze him, he can tell another family's member about his state because we are human being living with warmth and affection by nature and here lying can have an effective side that's why in this circumstant it is better to lie especially cancer which is considered as a very dangerous illness which need a lot of care.

It is better to lie in big problems

Appendix #30

Sample of the Post-test of the Control Group

Student #01



ZouAoui
F/ZAHRA

18-04-2013

09/20

TheTopic

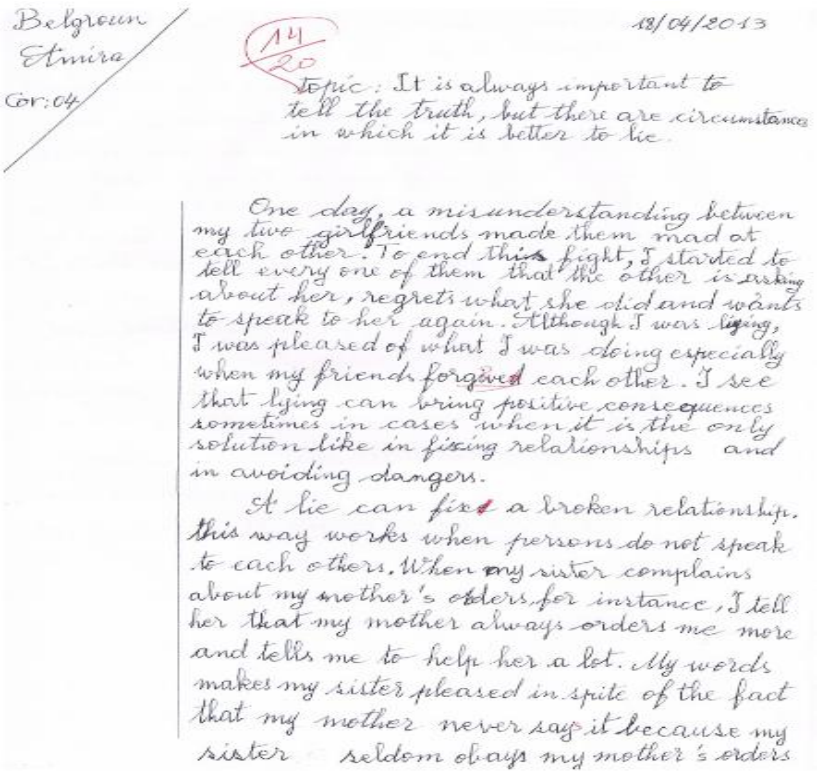
It is always important to tell the truth, but there are circumstans in which it is better to lie.

Our relationships must be built on the truth and only the truth, because no matter to what happen, it's good to be honest and this is the 'chamand' of life. It makes every relation stronger and makes us ready to face any Problem in the future because we know That our Partnar will be always a good help for us and never leave. life is difficult and sometimes we do things bad just to Solve Problems. There are circumstances in wich it is better to lie and Here some examples.

In our life lying became sometimes a better solution to solv Problems specialy in relationships between family or friend even in the Place of working. fore example: it is good to lie to save a relation between a wife and her husband when we see that this relation will be destroy by a small reason and a lie! family will be seperate. It's always happend especialy in our socaity. So we must lie in a case like this.

you should explain it more

Student #02



Belgroun
Etmira
Gr:04

14/20

18/04/2013

topic: It is always important to tell the truth, but there are circumstances in which it is better to lie.

One day, a misunderstanding between my two girlfriends made them mad at each other. To end this fight, I started to tell every one of them that the other is asking about her, regrets what she did and wants to speak to her again. Although I was lying, I was pleased of what I was doing especially when my friends forgived each other. I see that lying can bring positive consequences sometimes in cases when it is the only solution like in fixing relationships and in avoiding dangers.

A lie can fix a broken relationship. this way works when persons do not speak to each others. When my sister complains about my mother's orders for instance, I tell her that my mother always orders me more and tells me to help her a lot. My words makes my sister pleased in spite of the fact that my mother never says it because my sister seldom obeys my mother's orders

Résumé

Le point focal de l'étude est de montrer que l'apprentissage coopératif est un pas en avant pour créer une classe bien gérée qui accueille la coopération et la participation des apprenants. L'étude tente également à enquêter sur la façon dont les enseignants de l'Expression Ecrite intègrent les étudiants dans des sous-groupes d'étude. Plus précisément, nous avons essayé d'examiner si les enseignants utilisent vraiment l'apprentissage coopératif de la façon dont il devrait être au sein du Département de lettres et de la langue Anglaise, Université de Constantine. Explorer l'efficacité de l'apprentissage coopératif est stimulée par l'hypothèse que si l'écrit est enseigné aux apprenants du point de vue étudiant-centrisme via l'apprentissage coopératif, leur compétence de rédaction est susceptible de s'améliore. Pour cette recherche, nous avons utilisé deux questionnaires un pour les enseignants de l'écrit et l'autre pour un échantillon de 2eme année pour recueillir des données sur diverses questions pertinentes sur l'apprentissage coopératif. Les résultats montrent que quoique les enseignants manquent de mise en œuvre effective de l'apprentissage coopératif, ils pensent que ce dernier est efficace dans la stimulation de la rédaction des apprenants. En outre, les résultats du questionnaire des étudiants démontrent leurs attitudes positives à l'égard de la rédaction en petits groupes. Pour évaluer l'efficacité de l'utilisation de l'apprentissage coopératif dans l'enseignement de l'écriture, nous avons aussi mené une expérience dans lequel les étudiants de groupe expérimental reçoit le traitement la méthode de STAD adaptée. L'analyse du post-test montre une différence significative de rendement entre les deux groupes ce qui confirme l'hypothèse de recherche.

Mots clé: l'apprentissage coopératif, la méthode de STAD, écrit

الملخص

إن النقطة التي يتمحور حولها هذا البحث هو تبين أن منهج التعلم التعاوني هو خطوة للأمام لخلق صف محكم التسيير يرحب بفكرة تعاون و مشاركة الطلاب في تحصيل المعرفة . يهدف البحث إلى استقصاء الطريقة التي يتبعها أساتذة التعبير الكتابي في دمج الطلاب في مجموعات معرفية صغيرة، نبحث بشكل خاص ما إذا كان الأساتذة يطبقون منهج التعلم التعاوني بشكل مناسب في قسم الآداب و اللغة الإنجليزية، جامعة قسنطينة . لكي نتحقق من فعالية التعلم التعاوني افتراضنا انه إذا درس الطلاب من منظور المنهج المتمركز حول الطلاب من خلال تطبيق التعلم التعاوني سيادي هذا على الأرجح إلى تطوير مهاراتهم الكتابية. لقد استعملنا استبيانين في هذا البحث أحدهما موجه إلى أساتذة التعبير الكتابي واخر لعينة من طلبة السنة الثانية وكذلك اختبار بعدي الغاية من ذلك هو جمع معلومات مختلفة عن مسائل متعلقة بالتعلم التعاوني . النتائج أظهرت انه بالرغم من أن الأساتذة ينقصهم التطبيق المحكم لمنهج التعلم التعاوني إلا أنهم يظنون انه فعال في تطوير مهارات الكتابة لدى الطلاب بالإضافة إلى ذلك بينت نتائج استبيان الطلبة موقفهم الايجابي اتجاه فكرة تعلم الكتابة في نطاق مجموعات صغيرة. لتقييم فعالية التعلم التعاوني في تدريس التعبير الكتابي قمنا بإجراء تجربة بحث بحيث تم تطبيق إحدى طرق التعلم التعاوني على الفوج التجريبي . بين تحليل معطيات التجربة فرقا محسوسا في انجاز الفوجين التجريبي والضابط وهذا ما يؤكد تحقق فرضية البحث.

الكلمات المفتاحية: التعبير الكتابي، التعلم التعاوني، منهجية S.T.A.D