Chapter Two

Literature Review

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Chapter Two

Literature Review

As it has been stated in chapter one, one of the aims of this study is to review both L2 Literature that offers extensive discussion of, and guidelines for, the practices and processes of teaching L2 writing and the theoretical background to the study. Therefore, this chapter tries to survey the relevant literature related to the theoretical aspects of the study. The survey may help in providing some insights into the relevant L2 writing studies that have been carried out, reflecting their contexts, subjects, procedures, findings, relevance to the present study, and their implications on L2 language learning and teaching. Besides, it clarifies issues at a theoretical level to help lecturers understand their role better in the teaching of writing.

It will first give a brief definition about English for Academic Purposes (EAP), its history of development and some specific earlier studies in EAP and its teaching. It will also shed lights on needs analysis and assessments in EAP. This will be followed by EAP writing and three specific studies related to the process approach. It will then discuss the academic genres such as academic textbooks, lectures, and research articles and the genre awareness and analysis. This will be followed by a brief discussion of the topics and issues in writing research.
The chapter will also articulate the basic theoretical background to the study. It will discuss the relationship between language proficiency and academic performance. It will clarify that language proficiency has something to do with the academic performance depending on the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP). More specifically, it will show that the transfer of the cognitive skills from L1 to L2 can take place if the common underlying proficiency is developed. Therefore, this chapter suggests that the cognitive skills should be taught in the colleges of Aden University for academic development since the data collected by means of students' interview showed that the students lacked both proficiency at the surface level and the common underlying proficiency.

It will then discuss the history of the composing process—the four views on writing processes: the expressive, cognitive, social, and the discourse, and thereby it presents the different aspects involved in the teaching of writing. The expressive approach sees writing as a means of expressing genuine feelings and thoughts of the writers. The cognitive views writing as various processes of planning, organising, composing, editing, and redrafting, which are recursive. The social context approach views writing within a social environment. The discourse approach looks at writing as being connected with any particular discourse.

Furthermore, the chapter will reflect the importance of learning strategies in improving learners' skills. Learners can make use of these strategies in learning and writing when encountering difficulties. It will make it clear that learners are mentally active during the learning process and they should be aware of such activities in order to improve their writing skills. It will also discuss the teachers' role in the composing process and articulate their role in fostering the improvement of writing. Their role involves their intervention during the process of writing by offering a feedback which
contributes to the improvement of the students’ writing. The chapter will end with a
discussion of the major different approaches to the teaching of writing: the product,
the process, and the genre. It will review them, reflect on their strengths and
weaknesses, and suggest combining them to achieve a better and more synthetic
approach to the teaching of writing.

2.0 English for Academic Purposes

Definitions

Many researchers have defined the term English for Academic Purposes
(EAP), a branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Though their definitions
make use of different expressions and terminology, these definitions speak about
similar ideas. Susan Carkin (2005), for example, defines EAP as a term used in formal
academic settings. The notion of EAP, she contends, is similar to English for
Occupational Purposes (EOP), where language is used for the former in academic
contexts and for the latter in professional and non-professional contexts. Carkin
clarifies that EAP is subdivided into two parts: English for General Academic
Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP).

This distinction, she confesses, was originally made by Blue (1988; cited in
Dudley–Evans & St. John, 1998). The main difference between these two types of
EAP relates primarily to the scope. EGAP gives special importance to the teaching of
English common core skills and activities for general academic purposes in different
subjects and involves the learning of skills elements of wide relevant academic skills.
But ESAP gives importance to “higher order skills, student development, and
authentic texts and features” (Carkin, 2005, p. 85).
Similar subdivisions have already been made by Jordan (1997) for ESP. He divides it into: English for Occupational, English for Vocational, English for Professional Purposes (EOP/EVP/EPP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). But he uses different terminological framework. He uses ‘study skills’ to refer to ‘common core’ (Coffey 1984) elements, whereas ‘subject-specific’ to refer to ‘English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)’ (Blue 1988), though the content of these is the same (Figure 1). Jordan (1997) clarifies that “listening and note making” (p. 5) are examples of study skills, whereas “the language structure, vocabulary, and the particular skills for a particular subject” (p. 5) are examples of subject-specific. He makes it clear that subject-specific language includes the “register, discourse, and genre analyses” (p. 228).

![Diagram of EAP and study skills definitions and scope](image)

Figure 1: EAP and study skills: definitions and scope

(Jordan, 1997, p. 3)
These different definitions of EAP, when examined closely, seem to reveal that EAP is a homogeneous and a well-defined term, not ambiguous or confusing. However, the overuse of different terminology for explaining the same idea might confuse students who are researching this area. Judith (1987) rightly claims that

One of the problems of reading about research methods and reading research reports is the terminology. Researchers use terms and occasionally jargon that may be incomprehensible to other people. It is the same in any field, where a specialized language develops to ease communication among professionals. (p.4)

Therefore, the use of various terms in this area makes the distinction of such terms ambiguous. Jordan (1997) also emphasises such an ambiguity:

It should be noted that different writers often use different terminology when discussing activities, tasks, exercises, techniques, etc. Consequently, at times it becomes confusing; it is not always easy, in any case, to make distinctions. (p.124)

Notwithstanding, Figure 1 above shows the common divisions of ESP and indicates the level at which individual ESP courses may occur. The topmost level of the figure indicates that language skills: the receptive and productive are necessary for all language purposes and that English may be divided into two branches: English for general purposes where language is usually studied for exam purposes and English for social purposes where language is studied for the communicative purposes. The two branches make use of language skills: the receptive and productive.

The branches just below this level, as it is clear in the figure, indicate the two main divisions of ESP which they differ from each other according to whether the student needs English for academic study, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or for work or training, English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), which is also known as English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) and English for Professional Purposes
(EPP). EOP may include English for trainee doctors and technicians such as airline pilots and hotel staff.

At the next level down, EAP is divided into two divisions: English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) which often have a study skills component such as listening, note-taking as well as academic register, style and language proficiency use, and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) where language is used according to the specialism such as English for medicine and engineering.

However, it is clear from Figure 1 that EAP can be split into the two subdivisions of English for general purposes and English for social purposes. But having such subdivisions seems to be inappropriate since English for general purposes subsumes social demands and this is why this kind of subdivisions might not be necessary and therefore is redundant. The reason is that English courses for general purposes teach general language proficiency that enables a student to be proficient in reading, listening, writing, and speaking skills which the student will use in real life situations for social purposes. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) say that English for social sciences “is not common, probably because it is not thought to differ significantly from more traditional humanities-based General English” (pp. 16 & 18).

The figure also shows that English for general purposes has no particular purpose in school exams. That is, the teaching of English in schools has no aim to achieve, since it is done for exams. This may be because there are some teachers who are servants to the prescribed books whose aims are to finish the course from page 1 to page 100. Therefore, they prepare their students for the exams but not for the outside real situations.

Nevertheless, it should be fully realised that this may not always be the case. For example, in some schools or within the school context throughout this country,
Yemen, and the world, there are some programmes of teaching English which deal with English as a foreign or second language with the aim of teaching students the skills they will need in regular classes in tertiary contexts or levels such as English, geography, maths, biology, engineering, medicine, economics, etc. Thus, it must be understood that teaching English for general purposes has some goals to be achieved based on the overall aim of teaching English as a foreign or second language.

It is worth mentioning that the idea of the world language skills, as shown in Figure 1, as central to all the language purposes, has been already emphasised by the British Council ETIC (1975; cited in Jordan 1997) who defined EAP as “concerned with those communication skills in English which are required for study purposes in formal education systems” (p.1). But ETIC subdivides EAP differently. It subdivides EAP into EAP (other than EST) (shown in Figure 2) and English for Science and Technology (EST).

![Figure 2 English: purposes](Jordan 1997, p. 3)

The divisions of EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) above into two different strands: EPP (English for Professional Purposes) and EVP (English for Vocational Purposes) seem to be confusing since they are all connected with a person’s job or profession. Furthermore, some other interpretations, as in Figure 1, count such terms as one branch of ESP, i.e. EOP is also known as EPP or EVP.
Thus, different classifications of EAP have been given by researchers and each contained different terminology, as in Figures 1 and 2. Nevertheless, the classification in Figure 2 is not clearly a detailed one. This is because the division of EAP into ‘EAP’ (other than EST) is ambiguous and such an issue can be clarified through what counts for scientific subjects. For example, medicine, maths etc. count as examples of English for science and this may be due to the theories which underlie them.

Therefore, because of being theorized, medicine and maths are science subjects. They have come to exist as science subjects because of the theories which underlie them. But what about other subjects like law and business, for example, which may count as unscientific subjects?

It is worth noting that a theory is the basis of naming subjects like maths as scientific or science subject. Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens (1964) state that the theory is originally constructed as a result of “countless observations” (p. 5). Thus, a theory is the basis for naming medicine and maths as science subjects. But subjects like law and business have their theories which explain them and which are the results of due observations within their domain. This, however, gives the superiority to the classification of Figure 1 as a detailed and clear one.

It is perhaps the nature of human beings to like naming things and this is why different writers often use different terminology when discussing language concepts, thoughts etc. Notwithstanding, the following lines will reveal the history of development of EAP, reflecting its emergence.

*History of Development of EAP*

On the basis of what has been mentioned it is crucial to trace the history of development of EAP.
John Swales (2001; cited in Carkin 2005) dates the appearance of EAP in the 1960s. He explained that "early EAP studies" (p. 86) in 1960s were different from "the more prominent literary" (p. 86) studies in regard to the "descriptive goals" (p. 86), the way they represented the "normal' scientific genres and their synchronic focus" (p. 86). The idea of EAP seems to have emerged from the argument for a specialised language for linguistic sciences by Halliday et al. (1964). This specialised language, they claim, would employ specific terms or words with specialised meaning. If the terms are taken out of the discourse (e.g. medical) it will be incomprehensible to others. Halliday et al. (1964) provides in their book *The linguistic sciences and language teaching* the main reason behind the theorisation of EAP. They argue that it is because descriptions of language particularly vocabulary and syntax are different from the language used for general purposes, technical terminology must be used in the linguistic sciences. These terms, Halliday et al. clarify, are different since they are specialised categories.

What Halliday et al. were concerned about was obviously language and nothing more than language. They focused more on the detailed study of the linguistic terms in order to understand more about the particular fields rather than the study of how these terms should be taught. Swales (2000) explained that "... the 1964 "manifesto" offered a simple relationship between linguistic analysis and pedagogic materials" (p. 60).

However, the focus, then, has shifted from focusing on language at the sentence level to a level above the sentence. This took place, as explained Hutchinson and Waters (1987), with the appearance of the field of "discourse analysis". They clarified that attention in this period was paid to the understanding of the way sentences in discourse form larger meaningful units to yield meaning. The focus, next,
was given to relating the discourse analysis to the learners' motive for learning, i.e., paying attention to the situations in which learners will use the language that they will learn. Later, that attention was directed to the “thinking processes” which are the basis of “language use”. This focus was on the reading or listening strategies involving learning, reflecting, and analysing the way meaning is constructed from “written or spoken discourse” (pp. 10-14). However, a lot of studies have been conducted in EAP since its appearance in the 1960s. Earlier studies, as explained by Carkin (2005), were not focused and described “relatively broad academic language categories, including English for Science and Technology” (p. 86), whereas later ones were “more focused” (p. 86) and defined “limited sets of features in highly particular registers” (p. 86).

Specific Earlier Studies in EAP

Different kinds of studies were done earlier in the field of EAP. Here are brief descriptions of two studies.

It is worth bearing that earlier studies had focused on broad academic language categories, for example, English for Science and Technology (EST). This may be due to the division of EAP into EST. As explained by Kennedy and Bolitho (1985), the idea of EST has, in the earlier times, produced textbooks in favour of scientific content.

Earlier, Lackstrom, Selinker, and Trimble (1973), for example, investigated the relationship between the grammatical choice and rhetorical function in the written English of science and technology. They chose two categories – article and tense choice since these were difficult to describe and to teach to foreign learners of English. They concerned themselves with the idea of presupposition, that is, the shared information between the technical writer and the reader which they feel had an
effect on the surface syntax in the areas they had investigated – article and tense choice.

Thus, Lackstrom et al. (1973) investigated the two areas of grammar and the semantic-rhetorical presupposition. They have indicated that article choice before a noun in noun phrases relies on the degree or 'semantics of generality' and sometimes goes along with tense choice. It is the article choice which determines “the degree of generality” not the tense choice and that the tenses are decided in most of cases “at Level B of the rhetorical hierarchy” (p. 136).

However, this kind of study involved a particular type of English which is English for science and technology. But can tense choice, for example, be applied to other type of formal writing? This is the point which was not really clarified. Nevertheless, what they have come up with regarding the article choice is correct. The choice of an article determines the degree of generality not the tense choice.

Later the focus shifted to limited sets of features in register examining. Tarone, Dwyer, Gillette, and Icke (1998), for instance, studied the frequency of the active and passive verb forms in two astrophysics journal articles. They have shown that the active voice is used much more often than the passive and that the active first person plural ‘we’ is used in a balanced way according to the rhetorical structure of these papers. They came up with some generalisations as a result of their investigations of the functions of the active and the passive verbs in the rhetorical structure of the two papers: (1) that writers of astrophysics journal papers utilise the first person plural active ‘we’ form to show their procedural choice while the passive to show an established or standard procedure, (2) these authors utilise the first person plural active for their own work when contrasting their research with other recent research, which, in turn, is expressed by using the passive. Besides, these authors
generally describe the work which is not contrasted to theirs using the active verb form (3) these authors utilise the passive for describing their suggested future work, and (4) the use of the active or the passive form of verb is determined by the need for emphasis. The need for emphasis determines the use of active or the passive forms of the verb.

They finally suggested that the same uses of the voice may be applied to English journal papers in other fields which do not take the form of an experimental study. There is, however, little doubt about the possibility of those generalisations to exist together or to be applied to other English journal papers. Moreover, in spite of the clear theorisation about the use of active and passive in journal articles, the article does not suggest ways in which this can be applied to the teaching of academic writing. The teaching of EAP, however, has become necessary or must be done to meet learners' needs.

**Teaching of EAP**

Research in 1970s and 1990s identified the specific language used for academic purpose – that is, the use of article, tense choice and passive / active use. What is important for discussion is can EAP be taught? Who should it be taught to?

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998; cited in Carkin, 2005) have classified four settings where EAP can be taught in tertiary levels of study. The first setting is where EAP is taught in “higher education settings in English- speaking countries, like the United States, United Kingdom, Canada and Australia”. Students in this setting are mainly “international” and they have come for “graduate and undergraduate degrees” and “for short-term campus or field -based programmes” (p. 86).

The second setting is where EAP is taught in countries in which English is the medium of instruction throughout schools, such as “Zimbabwe and Singapore” (p.
The students in this setting use English in schools and use their native language when communicating among themselves in daily life.

The third setting is where EAP is taught "in countries where specialty subjects" are taught in English "such as medicine, technology, engineering and science", whereas the other subjects are taught in "a national language" (p. 86). The final setting is the one where the first language is taught in "all tertiary education" with English used as "an 'auxiliary' language as in many South American countries" (p. 87).

It can be understood, Dudley-Evans & St. John confess, that the highest support for English will be in an English speaking setting whereas the least support will be in a setting where English is dealt with as a school subject. Nevertheless, in order to teach EAP, a language syllabus is to be drawn up to cater to the needs of the learner. To identify and suggest a syllabus, a needs analysis has to be systematically done. In the EAP/ESP research a lot of emphasis is put on systematic needs analysis.

Needs Analysis and Assessment in EAP

According to Nunan (1988), needs analysis is a set of steps carried out to collect data "about learners and about communication tasks" to be utilised in "syllabus design" (p. 75). But such a definition seems to be incomplete since it just mentions the learners and tasks but not the professors whose role in the process EFL/SL teaching/learning cannot be ignored. The professors also understand the environment the students live in and the needs of such environment. Hyland (2003) defines needs analysis as the ways of gathering and evaluating "this kind of information: the means of establishing the how and what of a course" (p. 58).

Many studies, however, have investigated the needs of EAP students in different ways. For example, the studies conducted in the 1980s and 1990s have
surveyed and interviewed university professors and analysed different skills of a
language. Santos' (1988) study of professors at the University of California, Los
Angeles (UCLA), for example, represents an attempt to investigate their reactions to
two 400-word compositions. The first was written by a Chinese student and the other
by a Korean. He took 178 professors, aged from 27 to 77, with a medium age of 45.6
years, who were selected on the basis of their presence when collecting the data and
their desire to take part in the study. The number of males was 156, whereas the
females were 22. 144 were native speakers of English whereas 34 were not. There
were 96 from the humanities/social sciences and 82 from the physical sciences.

The professors were divided into four groups of 10, 10, 80 and 78 respectively
and the balance was maintained in each group between the disciplines. Groups '1' and
'3' corrected and rated the Chinese student's composition and the other two groups
did the same task with the Korean student's composition. The two compositions were
chosen out of 100 on the basis of the different errors they contained and their
representation of two linguistic and cultural backgrounds. They were equal in length
and used the system of five paragraph system of organisation: introduction, body
(three paragraphs), and conclusion.

The professors were given a questionnaire to be completed. It contained
information about the department, sex, age, native language, proficiency in speaking
other language and the percentage of non-native students in the classes and whether
they were undergraduates or graduates. It also contained some information about how
professors deal with errors: whether a) they do not correct them but give them
importance, b) they do not correct them and do not give them value, c) they correct
them and they do not look them down, or d) they correct but give them less
importance.
The study was conducted in two phases. In the first phase 20 professors (10 for each composition) were given a typed, original, and uncorrected copy of one of the two compositions to read and rate it on six 10-point scales. For content, there were three scales: holistic impression, development, and sophistication, and for language: comprehensibility, acceptability, irritation. The professors were asked to look again over the compositions to correct everything which is incorrect. The aim in the first phase is to find out about most of the errors which are most noticeable to the professors.

In the second phase, the most noticeable errors, which most professors corrected, were corrected. Copies of the compositions which have been partly corrected were typed and the 10-point scales were used. Besides, the most salient errors have been singled out by being both typed separately and underlined. Finally, the professors were asked to deal with the composition as an academic piece of writing created under formal instruction and were told how to interpret comprehensibility, acceptability, and irritation.

The following findings achieved statistical significance:
(i) The language was given a higher value than the content. In other words, the professors judged the content more severely than the language.
(ii) There was a significant difference among language variables from highest to lowest. Comprehensibility and irritation got the highest rating respectively, whereas acceptability got the lowest. The professors regarded the errors contained in the sentences comprehensible unirritating but not accepted linguistically.
(iii) The humanities/social professors gave much more importance to the lexical errors than did the physical science professors.
The age of professors has played a significant role in rating. The younger professors rated the language more irritating than did the older professors.

This study, however, has some relevance to my study. It has a big significance to my context since the result of such study is similar to the results obtained from the teachers' questionnaires. The majority of the teachers in my study gave a significant importance to language, especially grammar and vocabulary. It is the same importance given by the humanities/social professors in Santos' study and herein lies the relevance and significance of such study.

Notwithstanding, Santos study has two main pedagogical implications. The first implication is that the process approach should be used in teaching a composition through making a good use of the processes such as planning, drafting and revising. The other implication is that vocabulary should be included in ESL writing course since the results obtained showed the importance of this particular area.

Similar findings have been made by Vann, Meyer, and Lorenz (1984). Their study tried to examine the faculty instructors' response to the written errors of non-native students of English. 164 respondents of the faculty at Iowa State University, served as subjects of the study. They were from different disciplines a) Social sciences, Education, and Humanities; b) Biological and Agricultural sciences; and c) Physical and Mathematical Sciences and Engineering. They were divided into two groups. The first group consisted of subjects who communicated with foreign students and guided even one foreign student thesis or had given written tasks in courses. The second group consisted of those who did not communicate with foreign students or did not give writing tasks in courses.

A three page questionnaire was given to the faculty to be completed. It contained information about a) age; b) if the subject was a native speaker of English;
c) the highest academic degree; d) sex; e) rank; f) the number of foreign students the respondents have taught; and g) the number of writing tasks the respondent has given. It also contained responses to 36 sentences which contained errors of different types. The selected errors to be investigated were: spelling (deletion and substitution), articles, comma splice (linking two sentences with a comma), prepositions, pronoun agreement, subject-verb agreement, word choice, relative clauses, tense, it-deletion, and word order. The subjects were asked to rate the 36 sentences which contained errors made by foreign students on a 5-point scale of acceptability. The sentences were mixed so that the subject did not meet two errors of the same type.

The results showed that errors were not acceptable especially those which were global and rarely violated by native speakers. They also showed that the difference in age and academic discipline had its effect on the judgment upon certain errors. This study, thus, has some significance and relevance to my study because my study has also investigated the way teachers in the Colleges of education at Aden University deal with their students’ errors. Moreover, the suggested approach in this study (i.e. the process-genre approach) recommends teachers to help their students realise that writing is learning and communicating to others what they have discovered rather than grammar and usage. The attempt to correct errors of grammar and usage should, as it is suggested by this approach, be made in the final draft.

Teachers, therefore, should help students edit and proofread before submitting their final drafts for a grade. This would make students feel not threatened by the fear of red-pen marks or low grades and get a fair chance to write and rewrite till both students and teacher are satisfied with the performance. Herein lies the importance and relevance of such study as it directs the teachers’ attention to errors.
These results are similar to those obtained by Santos (1988). However, these results should not be taken for granted as forming the basis for needs analysis and assessment. The problem with these studies is that they do not take into account the needs of the other consumer of the teaching material (i.e. students) and the social context in which they live and may work. Students learn best what they immediately need and willing to know. They also learn what they feel good about. So there must be an understanding of how students think, feel, and what they need.

Thus, students' needs and attitudes should be investigated and on the basis of the information collected a course designer can give his judgments on what should be taught for particular students in a particular context. Carkin (2005) explains the criticism raised by Nunan (1988). He, she clarifies, criticised faculty surveys which excluded the examination of students' experience relying on the limited faculty's understanding of ESL student difficulties. The other criticism raised was that university instructors were presented with predetermined categories which they must answer. Such an act excluded possible useful responses outside the survey. However, these two studies are, to some extent, similar to my study since their results showed the importance of the content in writing a composition. My study gives importance to meaning or content which enhances language forms as a student goes on writing. This importance is suggested by the process approach which cares about content. This sense of importance may be developed through the practice of writing without worrying about grammar or accuracy.

But these studies are different from my study since they do not incorporate the students who are the real consumers of a coursebook within the framework of investigation and herein lies the importance of my study. The last point to be
mentioned here is that it is difficult to suggest that the study carried out by Vann et al. can be applied to teaching since it dealt only with language at a sentence level.

Ferris and Tagg (1996) have also conducted a needs analysis study in EAP. The study, which has been carried out at four tertiary institutions in California (Sacramento City College (SSC); California State University, Sacramento (CSUS); University of California, Davis (UCD); and the University of Southern California (USC)), tried to find out about the types of listening and speaking tasks which instructors expect or require from university students.

They surveyed over 900 professors who were chosen as subjects on the basis of the type of institution they taught in as well as their specific academic discipline. The respondents taught graduate and upper-division courses, except those instructors in SCC who taught lower-division courses. They said that they delivered lectures followed by seminar and discussion. The respondents were instructors of business, engineering, computer science, mathematics, music, natural sciences, and miscellaneous subjects. The miscellaneous responses were incorporated in the totals but not in the statistical procedures which measured the discipline differences.

In this study, a survey has been conducted. It was mailed to the respondents after it had been adjusted on the basis of the pilot version sent to members of CSUS. The responses were collected over a six-week period. Some space was given for extra comments. 234 of the surveys were completed and returned. The findings have indicated that instructors’ requirements differ across academic disciplines, type of institution and class size.

Again this study focuses on instructors’ needs or requirements which may differ from the students’. Nunan (1988) says that student’s and teacher’s needs may
be different from each other and that both teachers and students should be involved in needs analysis to reach relating needs.

The results of this study, however, may involve general implications for ESL teaching and materials development. The first implication is that EAP teachers should not expect that all graduate students are in need of the same oral tasks. Business students' needs will, for example, differ from science students' needs. The former may need to practise in simulations, speaking tasks and informal reports; for them it is important to act in interactive situations. The latter may need to know how to understand lectures which contain scientific terminology and how to report orally in the laboratory. They may not need to practise speaking tasks and take part in discussions.

The second implication is that EAP programmes should pay attention to the context of EAP courses (e.g. the type of institution, the effect of class size, lecturing method, classes containing ESL students and native speakers). The third and last implication is that teachers should help students in practising academic listening comprehension tasks in different contexts with different lecturers.

Ferris and Tagg (1996) also carried out another study at the same four different institutions to investigate college/university professors' views on ESL students' difficulties. 946 professors in different disciplines have served as subjects of the study. The survey was adjusted after it had been sent to a small number of instructors. Then the surveys were sent to the other respondents and were collected within seven – week period. Only 234 of the surveys were completed and returned, a rate of 25.6%.

The findings showed that the respondents indicated that ESL students were not able to take part in discussions, ask or answer questions, or communicate with others
except with the persons who speak their language. Regarding oral presentation, business professors only considered it important in ESL students' abilities. This may be due to the importance of formal presentation in business. However, most of the professors generally agreed about the importance of ESL students' ability to speak fluently in class discussions and to provide clear, well-organised answers to their questions. In addition, content-area professors wanted ESL teachers to make their students ready for communication in classroom through emphasising the importance of communication skills. These communications skills should be enhanced, they argued, through getting them to ask and answer questions and practise speaking as well as encouraging them to take part in class discussion. Moreover, many respondents indicated that ESL students should be given an opportunity and the encouragement to communicate with native speakers or with those who do not speak their language. But the respondents were not annoyed with the students' problem of pronunciation.

Such study has some relevance to my study as the students in the Colleges of Education at Aden University lack the opportunity to take part in the classroom discussion. The classroom observation done by me showed that teacher participation was more while students were passive listeners. The teacher continued his lecture by explaining the difficult words and the entire text. Therefore, the interaction between the teacher and the students was less.

The analysis of the observational data (experience 2) also showed that the students were not encouraged by the teacher to ask questions, initiate or take part in discussion. Moreover, the result obtained from the Students’ questionnaire has shown that the majority of teachers do not usually encourage their students to work in
groups. Hence, the lack of practising the skill of speaking through group discussion, and herein lies the importance and relevance of the study.

Similar to their previous study, the rate of responses in this study is, to some extent, low. It was 25.6%. Thus the results obtained do not represent the opinions of the entire population in the academic departments investigated. In addition, each group of professors has its own needs related to their particular field and this involves different needs which are in alignment with the different fields. In this way, the study produced controversial results regarding the needs. This explains why business professors were more concerned about students' oral presentation abilities.

Another point which should be mentioned here is that this study involved professors who constitute part of the story in the process of needs assessment neglecting the other part, i.e. the students who may have different needs from professors. Therefore, professors and students should be surveyed so that their needs may come in line with each other. And this is the limitation that my study tried to avoid. It tried to investigate both the teachers' and students' needs.

However, Ferris and Tagg (1996) study has some pedagogical implications which are related to developing language strategies. The first implication is that EAP teachers should devote much time and effort to help students realise the importance of communication in the classrooms. The other implication has something to do with the development of listening strategies. ESL teachers should create particular conditions for their students such as free-form classroom communications and to film these conditions using a video camera and examine them with their students so as to get them prepared for real classroom situations. However, these simulated situations may not reflect the real situations. Students need authentic situations such as hearing
professors delivering real lectures, communicating with native speakers, dealing with technical texts and vocabulary, and practising real and genuine writing tasks.

Apart from this survey of college professors, there are other studies which investigated the academic texts which should be handled by students. These studies concentrated on the use and distribution of discourse characteristics and linguistic features. For example, Biber, Conrad, Reppen, Byrd, and Helt (2002) study, which was carried out at four academic sites (California State University, Sacramento; Georgia State University; Iowa State University, Northern Arizona University), tried to describe a multidimensional analysis of register variation in the TOEFL 2000 spoken and written Academic language (T2K-SWAL) corpus which is used at U.S. Universities and main academic disciplines (e.g. humanities, natural sciences). The participants of the study for the spoken corpus were mainly students. They recorded their academic speech as it happened in the class sessions and study groups in over two-week period. And this procedure was also done with the faculty who recorded their office hours with the acceptance of the students.

This approach has been followed to avoid artificial discourse created by researcher presence in spoken situations. Service encounters were also recorded as students communicated with staff to make the business of the university. Many places were included: the university bookstore, copy shop, coffee shop, library information desk, media centre, academic department offices, and student business services.

The researchers, in regard to class sessions and textbooks, sampled spoken and written text from six main disciplines: business, education, engineering, humanities, natural science, and social science, and three levels of education (lower-division undergraduate, upper-division undergraduate, and graduate). They also included some
sub disciplines like chemistry, philosophy, and psychology, for future research but not to be described in this study.

All texts were coded to recognise the content area and register. Spoken texts were transcribed and the speakers were distinguished using "demographic information" in the header such as status as instructor or student. The researchers have corrected all texts to ensure accuracy when transcribing or scanning, and they grammatically added to the texts using an automatic grammatical tagger. They have then corrected the grammatical tags using an interactive "grammar checker to ensure a high degree of accuracy for the final annotated corpus" (Biber et al., 2002, p. 22). The description of the variation among registers depended on the mean dimension scores for the ten university registers in corpus. Large positive mean scores of the features in the registers on a particular dimension mean high frequencies of the positive features of that dimension and low frequencies of its negative features and vice versa.

The findings of this study, which showed the linguistic characteristics of the separate registers and the difference among them, can be explained along the five dimensions as follows:

(1) The "University Registers Along Dimension 1: Involved versus informational production" (p. 24)

They showed that all written registers had large negative scores and low positive features showing a frequent use of negative features such as nouns, long words, preposition, and attributive adjectives. According to the functional approach, these written registers are deliberately informational in purpose. However, all spoken registers had high positive scores regarding involvement, showing a frequent use of features such as present tense verbs, private verbs, first-and second – person pronouns, and contractions.
(2) The "University Registers Along Dimension 2: Narrative Versus Nonnarrative Discourse" (P. 28)

With this dimension the written registers had large negative scores showing the extreme absence of narrative features, whereas the spoken registers such as study groups, office hours and labs indicated the use of narrative features to some extent.

(3) The "University Registers Along Dimension 3: Situation-Dependent Versus Elaborated Reference" (p. 30)

They showed that spoken university registers had positive scores representing a frequent use of time and place adverbials which are interpreted as situation-dependent reference, whereas written registers had large negative scores showing the frequent use of Wh-relative clauses, phrasal coordinating and nominalizations, interpreted as elaborated reference.

(4) The "University Registers Along Dimension 4: Overt Expression of Persuasion" (P. 33)

Features such as modal and semimodal verbs for predication (e.g. will, would, be going to) and necessity (e.g. must, should, have to) as well as suasive verbs (e.g. command, demand, insist) and conditional subordination were, to a great extent, used in registers like newspaper editorials. But these features were used relatively frequently by all spoken registers, and two of these registers such as classroom management and office hours were marked for using these features densely. Besides, written course management was also marked for using these features. These features were explained as representing a persuasive style.

(5) The "University Registers Along Dimension 5: Nonimpersonal Versus Impersonal Style" (P. 35)
All spoken registers did not use the passive construction such as main-clause verb phrases and post nominal modifiers, whereas all written registers used this feature frequently.

Thus, these findings reflect the great linguistic variation through university registers on the five dimensions and show that registers are more connected with variation rather than academic discipline and level. However, this study lacked the closer observation of the interactions. The researchers were absent from the settings investigated. They did not know how these interactions were happening. As a result of this, they were not able to get detailed information about the setting and participants.

This study is not directly relevant to my study. However, my study tries to clarify in detail the genre approach and its characteristics and suggests its inclusion in the syllabuses of Aden University. For such approach does not only deal with the linguistic/grammatical elements used in the target texts but also deals with the context which creates such texts and determines the content and style of these texts. And here lies the relevance between the two studies.

Nevertheless, Biber et al. study has some implications for teaching and further research. The most important implication is that students must encounter interactive and involved spoken registers along with informational ones. They must deal with texts of elaborated reference along with texts of situated reference, and text which contained the features of overt persuasion along with texts which miss these features. Students must also deal with texts that use many passives along with those which do not use them. Thus, teachers and researchers should realise that students are in need for a wide range of registers.
The other implication for teaching is that teachers should integrate the spoken and written material. This kind of integration proved to be missed among the universities registers. It is challenging to bring this kind of integration around.

There are also some implications for materials development which resulted from the analysis of the type of language used in university registers. The implication here is mainly for developing tests. Tests such as TOEFL should show the type of language used at universities. On the basis of the results, students do not need only to meet an academic prose but also interactive informational registers. Thus, students should deal with different registers which they will encounter at university.

For further research, future studies should conduct a more detailed analysis of registers of specific disciplines which may expose the similarities and differences across disciplines. Furthermore, studies should investigate how students react to the difference between the communicative discourse of the class and the informational prose of the teaching materials. Instructors’ reaction should also be given some attention to: how they react in classrooms, how they use interactional features when teaching.

What one may come up with is that researchers should look at needs analysis and assessment from different perspectives, and that there is no single style to needs analysis and assessment. As a researcher, I have also learned from looking into these studies that there are several needs which are not only restricted to instructors or even students, and that there are several methods through which information can be obtained. This information which must be sought should also include the situations where language will be used and the purposes for which the language is needed as well as the type of interactions which will take place at that particular setting.
2.1 EAP Writing

Based on the results of the analysis of data collected (chapter 4), the majority of Aden University teachers and students have not received an adequate knowledge of the composing processes of writing and therefore the absence of the practice of such processes in a writing classroom. I have no doubt that the students were not given a chance to express their experiences and opinions since they were prescribed with forms and functions which, therefore, impeded them from expressing their personal experiences.

Thus, university students are in need of another orientation that may give them the opportunity to express themselves creatively, i.e. the process approach which has been explained in detail in Chapter Two. Hyland (2003) indicates that this approach, like the "expressive perspective" (p. 10), stresses the writer as an "individual" (p. 10) and tells the teachers how to make the writing task easier for learners. The teacher, according to this approach, he explains, is to direct learners during the writing process and help them generate a draft of ideas and refine them.

L1 research has given great importance to the composing processes of writing, Carkin (2005) explains. It has shown that the process approach to writing in L2 is the result of "L1 composition research" (p. 89). To give some more insights into such approach, examples of three studies related to the process approach which examine its features will be given. As a researcher, I will try to show the relevance of these studies to my study, the context of each study, its subjects, procedures, findings, and implications on language learning / teaching.

Specific Studies Related to the Process Approach

As it has been stated in chapter one, the orientation of the writing coursebooks used in the colleges of Aden University is functional, which was believed to replace
the grammatical/product-oriented approach. However, such approach seems different from the grammatical one.

This is due to the focus placed on the end-product rather than the process in a writing class. Accordingly, my study will try to show the characteristics of the process approach which emphasises the skill of writing as a process to reach the product. This approach cares about the processes which yield the written product.

Thus, my study puts forward the inclusion of the process approach in the syllabus of Aden University. Nevertheless, different kinds of studies were carried out which were related to the process approach. Here are detailed descriptions of three studies which looked at:

1. Examining the composing processes of ESL students.
2. Examining the influence of teacher commentary on students' revision.
3. Examining the comments, reactions, and markings made by teachers on compositions in University-Level ESL writing classes.

Zamel (1983) has conducted a case study which attempted to examine the composing processes of ESL students. He took six students of different language groups (Chinese, Spanish, Portuguese, Hebrew, and Persian), who were members of his own intermediate composition class. The subjects were advanced ESL students since they had instruction in composition and other language skills and who were completing university level essay assignments at Sophomore and junior levels, but have a problem in composing in a second language.

Students were told about the purposes of the study and that their participation would help teachers understand writing. They were asked to write as if they were in normal conditions and were not put under the restriction of more traditional experimental conditions. They were given a course-related writing task and were
encouraged to take much time to complete this assignment. The students were then observed while they were writing papers which were supposed to represent formal expository writing that depended on related readings and in-class discussions.

The findings showed that the students' writing behaviours, the skilled and the unskilled, were not able entirely to treat or control the stages of the composing processes such as prewriting, writing, and revising, though the thinking brainstorming and note taking took place before and after the process of composing began. This indicates that planning is not one of the forming units of the composing processes but a characteristic that writers use during composing.

Although planning was necessary for helping the students go through the topic, they moved to another alternative which was convincing. Revising also took place when the students rewrote what they have written. Therefore, one of the main findings is that ESL advanced writers realised that composing entails fixed interaction between thinking, writing and rewriting and that these writers have developed their individual strategies which help them write about a topic without going through the pre-writing stage.

The second finding is that during the writing of the essays, the writing process was noticed to be recursive and generative and occasionally verbalised aloud. All the students reread and looked at what they have already written so as to assess whether their expressions were correct. This means that they were making meaning while they were making their judgment about these expressions.

The third and last finding is that revision took place during the writing sessions. The students started to reread what they had written in the previous session. The breaks between sessions have also given them the opportunity to review their writing as if they were other readers. They started to attend to correcting grammar and
looking up words in dictionaries as soon as the ideas were ready, though their work still was not free from errors, which were not the result of not having enough command over the language. They were able to find out about ideas as they went on writing.

Thus, the process of composing as described by students helped them know and examine their ideas and construct a structure into which they arranged their ideas. It was a creative and generative process, though it was not always planned. But it gave the students the opportunity to discover and explore. It caused them to combine ideas, to revise what they have already taken down, and to rebuild another structure to fit these changes. This led them to evaluate and express their views and communicate meaning though the linguistic difficulties they encountered.

However, it can be noted from the findings that there was a complexity with planning. It is obvious that the crucial factor is connected with the mental processes of understanding and therefore it is difficult, for example, to make planning and editing activities which may have an effect on students. In addition, it is difficult to test how much the writers know about a subject or what they can do.

Therefore, this study has some implications for teaching. Teachers should give their students the opportunity to examine and discover ideas. They should help them to realise that writing is problem solving since writers find solutions as they go on writing. Students should understand that choices or judgments about form and organisation take place in relation to the ideas which are communicated.

Teachers and students should work together on the problems of writing. Teachers should help students through brainstorming when they are not able to generate notes. They should also establish a relationship with students through their intervention in the process. This kind of relationship would help teachers understand
the students' thoughts and they can then give information according to the students' needs rather than a curriculum which does not take into account the individual's needs. It is also suggested for ESL writing instruction to use an approach more similar to error analysis and to produce syllabi which are student-centered and through which teachers can be aware of what students do in their writing and whether they need to be taught. Therefore, this should constitute a reason for further instruction.

Students should also learn that content and meaning should be communicated first and that language will come along as their ideas are being formed. This is a very difficult task for teachers and students since students are in the process of gaining their linguistic competence and it is the responsibility of teachers to help them in gaining this kind of knowledge. Moreover, teachers should not pay great attention to correctness and usage so as not to give the students the feeling that language form is more important than language functions.

Another study was conducted by Ferris (1997) on the same approach but on one of the composing processes: revision. It tried to examine the influence of teacher feedback on student revision. It also tried to examine whether revisions influenced by teacher feedback have made important and successful changes in students' papers. She took 47 students who enrolled in three sections of a sheltered ESL freshman composition course at a large public university in California. Almost all of them were in the first and the second years of local schools or high community colleges who were permanent residents of US. They represented ten native language groups (Amharic, Chinese, Estonian, Greek, Hmong, Korean, Lao, Russian, Spanish, and Vietnamese).

The students were asked to complete four main essay assignments which contained several different task types: personal, narrative, expository, and persuasive
and were asked to write a minimum of three drafts for each assignment. Copies of students’ first and second drafts from the first three essay assignments have been gathered. A hand written commentary on the copies of the first drafts has been given by the teacher on the marginal and at the end of students’ papers. The students started writing the second drafts after they have received the teacher’s feedback. 247 papers have been collected from the 47 students (3-6 drafts per student). Out of these, 110 pairs of first and revised drafts have been used for analysis; the others were not used because of problems with photocopying or because a first draft or revision has been missing. It is worth noting that the students were taught reading and writing strategies, grammar and editing minilessons, discussion or reading, prewriting and revision activities, and regular peer response sessions in permanently assigned writing groups.

The results showed that the marginal request for information, request which paid no attention to syntactic form, and summary comments on grammar resulted in the most important revisions. The questions or statements that supplied students with information have had less influence whereas positive comments nearly have not made any changes at all. Mainly, longer text specific comments have made major changes more than those which were shorter and general, and which were positive comments. Hedges have been noticed to have little influence on changes made. General statements usually have had either positive revisions or no change at all. This proposes two opening simultaneous truths. The first is that students do give much attention to the teacher feedback, which assisted them to make serious, effective revisions. The second is that students occasionally disregard the suggestions given in teacher commentary.

The results have also shown that the changes which were made are likely to have a significant improvement on the students’ papers and that very few have
negative effect on students' papers. The comments which took the question form and statements which gave the students information had mixed effects on students' papers. Longer comments seemed to have made positive changes and revisions got improved as comments got longer. Revisions which were based on text-specific comments usually improved the students' papers more than did general comments.

This study, however, has some implications for L2 writing instruction and for further research as well. It is obvious from the results that students may either effectively react to the teacher commentary or disregard it completely. This should encourage teachers both to supply students' drafts with their written commentary and to make them aware of the fact that students may not make use of their feedback for revision because of laziness or misunderstanding of teacher's commentary or of ineffective revising strategies.

Hence, teachers should pay attention to their responding strategies, making them clear to their students, and assisting students in learning how to revise, making them consider the feedback received. One way of encouraging students to respond to the feedback is to ask them to revise their papers through examining carefully the feedback and to submit a letter explaining how they dealt with the teacher's comments and why they have ignored some of them. This technique would encourage students react to feedback and revision and thereby give students an opportunity to disregard comments so long as they give justification to their decisions.

Another implication of this study is that some comments may cause some problems for the students while revising. In spite of students' understanding of teacher's comments which were in question form, the results of revision have sometimes confusing effects. Students may understand the teacher's comments but may not be able to include the required changes successfully. Therefore, teachers
should be careful when forming questions and should help students in understanding them clearly. For example, teachers should make it clear for their students that the purpose of the questions raised is to cause them to have an idea about particular topics as they do revisions but it is not essential to answer them systematically in the body of their paper.

Moreover, teachers should assess their questioning strategies, asking themselves if the question is going to improve the students' papers when raised or whether it is effective to give feedback in a different form which would give positive changes. Another problem, which may arise from comments (even though they contain information) is that students may not be able to react to these sorts of comments since they do not clearly guide students to do something. Thus, L2 writing teachers should give some suggestions showing how to make use of the information or to explain in short orally or to give endnotes indicating that these comments should be considered carefully.

The study indicated that the teacher reacted mainly to the students' ideas but gave some remarks on the students' grammatical errors in endnotes along with some in-text underlining of the errors. This is an example of one of the most successful commentary which led to positive changes. The majority of the teacher's comments and the students' revisions have handled ideas rather than grammar and therefore these revisions were effectively made.

It is clear from the study that the largest number of comments the teacher made were text-specific and that they seemed to be more effective than the general comments. Nevertheless, it was sometimes difficult to process the text-specific comments and there were many positive general comments which were not ranked as being text-specific. Therefore, teachers should make the general comments more
effective rather than avoiding them. There is a reason for giving general comments in endnotes. They can give guidelines to the next essay assignment.

There are also some implications for further research, along with the pedagogical suggestions explained above. There should be further analyses that examine the differences across instructors as this study has examined the comments of only one teacher. Another point which should be raised is that there may be students whose English and writing abilities are not as good as those in the study and are not used to U.S. composition classes. They are probably supposed to give different responses and show large differences in their revision strategies. There should also be an analysis which contrasts groups of L1 and L2 students so as to find out the extent to which L2 students differ in their cultural, rhetorical, and linguistic schemata. Such an analysis should be considered by teachers so that they can give their feedback.

However, Ferris’ (1997) study has examined the influence of teacher feedback on student revision, but there was another study by Zamel (1985) which tried to examine the teacher responses. More specifically, it attempted to examine the comments, reactions, and markings made by teachers on compositions in University - Level ESL writing classes. She analysed the responding behaviours of 15 teachers examining their responses to three or more students for whom there were at least two different papers for each. She completely studied 105 student texts not involving revisions of the same text.

The findings indicated that ESL writing teachers misinterpreted student texts and that their reactions were not matching a set of standards and tend to change. Their correction seemed to be not based on a plan and unfair. They wrote comments that lacked an agreement, provided insufficient suggestions, and imposed abstract rules and standards.
They also dealt with texts as final products not to be changed and scarcely gave comments related to content and precise strategies for revising a text. It was noticeable that ESL teachers were completely language teachers not writing teachers. They paid their attention to the surface features of writing and dealt with the text as separate sentences not as a unified text. They corrected the problems related to language not to meaning.

Zamel’s study, however, has some implications. There is a need to use text-specific strategies, instructions, guidelines, and suggestions instead of the unclear comments which do not carry enough information and references to rules. Such responses give the writer an idea about the confusion that may be encountered by the reader and make it clear how to overcome these problems. Providing text-specific comments rather than concentrating on language form for assessing a text suggests a standard which suits the conditions and considers the restrictions of the tasks. Thus, the comments raised in response to a text can deal directly with important parts of composing: the writer’s aim and the readers.

In addition, using a flexible standard rather than a restricted one helps remember that the mental needs of a task decides what students should do on paper. Therefore, there is no point in exposing the students to writing tasks which are mentally difficult and which require a lot of effort so as not to end the writing task in failure. This kind of constraint may make, if not considering the writing context, the students’ effort to write less effective. And reacting to this failure in such a way may give an indication that composing should be an imitation of the model texts given by teacher or textbook. This may discourage the students to take risks which are essential for developing their writing.
It should be taken into account that students do not only need to react to the flexible criteria but they also need to be given time and the possibility to use these criteria as well as the need to include the responses in their texts. Students should understand that texts develop and that revision is an essential and recurrent part of writing. Thus, students should be given a help before the meaning is expressed to make the process of writing easier and the idea of continuous explanation and examination more essential and effective.

Moreover, teachers' responses should pay the students' attention to particular matters rather than others. They should help students understand that meaning should be expressed first so long as students are obsessed by the idea that the state of being exact and correct is more important. Therefore, teacher and student should work together and exchange views that help the teacher know the meaning intended by the student and what is wrong about it and thereby give instructions to the students to change, adapt, and convert the text. Teachers, at last, should react as real readers not as an authority.

Students do not only need to know how to write but there are also other factors which should be taken into account. These factors are the kind of topic and its relevance to the students' cultural background and the purpose of writing a particular type of text. If a teacher, for example, in a Yemeni class, asks the students to write a topic: The military service in the world. The students may have no an idea about the military service, for example, in the United States and the United Kingdom or Europe and thereby will not be able to write about it since the topic has nothing to do with the military service in their country; is it compulsory in these countries or optional? How long does it take to serve in these countries? And so on.
Hyland (2003) explains that L2 students will be deprived from classroom if they are not familiar with the topics or the text types they are to write. It is the job of teachers, as he explains, to help students gain information about the topics and the vocabulary they may use in writing the target text. He adds that content orientation can be included in the process courses or in the courses which concentrate on structures and functions.

Accordingly, it is beneficial to include the process approach in the syllabuses of Aden University but it is not enough to achieve better academic writing for its students. There is a need of including another orientation along with it. This orientation should give an importance to the context, rhetorical structure of a text, and the linguistic knowledge of genres. It is the genre approach that will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

**Academic Genres**

Swales (1990) defines genre as consisting of a group of "communicative events" (p. 58) that "share set of communicative purposes" (p. 58) which are thought of as very important by experts in the present discourse community. He explains that these purposes are the reasons that shape its rhetorical structure and decide the choice of its content and style.

For EAP, genres are of importance since knowledge of genre, as Johns (1997) makes it clear, provides a quicker and shorter way to understanding and producing texts. Carkin (2005) explains that academic success relies, to the greatest possible degree, on nonnative speakers' negotiation of three main genres: text books, lectures, and research articles which are used in undergraduate and graduate levels and across all disciplines.
Academic Textbooks

Carkin (2005) defines textbooks as the main informational genres used in the context of all formal education. They are used, as she explains, in tertiary contexts: undergraduate and graduate levels and they are specialised as they constitute the most important topics of a discipline. Hyland (1999) contends that introductory textbooks have a main role to play "in the learners' experience and understanding of a subject" (p. 3). This is because, he clarifies, they provide a logical and well-organised "epistemological" plan "of the disciplinary landscape" and that the practices of the text can impart "norms, values, and ideological assumptions of a particular academic culture" (p. 3).

Nonetheless, Raimes (1988) explains that it is always confusing to choose materials for a course since there are many books in the market and many methods which are advised to be used. The main problem, Raimes clarifies, for many teachers is with finding good materials to be used.

Hyland (1999), however, conducted a study which tried to examine the role of university textbooks in students' acquisition of a specialised disciplinary literacy. He focused on the use of metadiscourse in introductory textbooks. He compared features in extracts from 21 textbooks in microbiology, marketing, and applied linguistics with a similar corpus of research articles.

The corpus comprised extracts from 21 introductory coursebooks in three academic disciplines: microbiology, marketing, and applied linguistics, consisting of nearly 124000 words. The average length of the extracts was 5900 words (range 3305–10678) consisting of complete chapters of important sections of chapters starting with the introductory matter and consisting of whole sub-sections.
The textbooks were selected from a reading list for introductory undergraduate courses and the selected extracts were selected as suggested by teachers since they contained the central reading matter. A parallel corpus of 21 research articles consisting of 121000 words and average length of 5771 words were compiled for comparison from the current issues of respected journals.

The findings showed that textbook authors were "unable to invoke community knowledge as the novice lacks experience of the linguistic forms which give coherence and life to that knowledge" (p. 6). They also showed that authors in the two corpora differed in the ways they "represent themselves, organise their arguments, and signal attitudes to their statements and readers" (p. 3).

In addition, the quantitative analysis revealed the significance of "metadiscourse" in these textbooks "with an average of 405 examples per text; about one every 15 words" (p. 9). Compared to published research articles, textbooks used over twice as many textual as interpersonal forms of metadiscourse to arrange the text. Textbooks showed a more frequent use of textual forms (connectives, code glosses, endophoric markers) to help comprehension, whereas research articles showed more frequent use of interpersonal forms (hedges and person markers) to help persuasion. Generally, textbooks showed limited examples of interpersonal and textual metadiscourse, with some disciplinary variation. They did not deal with forms of argument, uses of citation, and relational markers related to students’ disciplines.

However, this study has some implications for teaching/learning. Students need to be moved away from using textbooks as models. Textbook authors should provide undergraduates with ways of communicating effectively with other members of their community. Students should be given appropriate models of argument to practise writing within the socio-rhetorical structure of a particular discipline. The
language used in the textbooks for argument and the background knowledge should address the cultures and the context of the audience.

This study, however, is similar to my study in respect to dealing with genres. What one can learn is that genres are very central issues to students' learning of a particular language. The core issue that one can come up with is that texts provided for textbooks should be examined carefully and should be related to the students' cultural context. There must be a close relation between texts and context since what is appropriate in one environment may not be appropriate in another one.

Another point which seems very important is that students should be provided with knowledge about genres. They should be given a lot of practice with different genres so that they can come to grips with their structures and therefore they can be able to write texts. Halliday and Hasan (1989) explain that the inability to write good essay on a particular topic does not mean that it is difficult to write that particular type of text but it is because one may have not got an experience of that particular genre.

**Academic Lectures**

Carkin (2005) defines lectures as "a time-honored method of information transmission from experts to learners and a primary informational genre for EAP study" (p.92). She explains that Flowerdew (1994) in his volume on academic lectures examined research on academic lectures and has come to an end that the largest number of work puts more questions than giving answers. He called, as she explains, for more research related to lectures.

Irrespective to what has been mentioned above, Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995) conducted a study which tried to examine the effect of discourse markers on second language lecture comprehension. They took 63 electronic engineering students in the first year of a 3-years degree programme at the City University of Hong Kong.
The students were divided into control group and experimental group. The authentic lecture was used with the control group whereas the same lecture but with the markers deleted was used with the experimental group.

The subjects were all L1 Cantonese speakers and the correlations between their Hong Kong Certificate of Education English examination results and the TOEFL showed that 56 of the subjects would score between 500 and 560 on the TOEFL and that the remaining 7 would score between 450 and 500 (Hong Kong Examination Authority undated).

The subjects were informed that their next class, a tutorial, would comprise 'an introduction to recursion' displayed on video. Six tutorial sessions were organised and between 5 and 13 different subjects attended each session. Thirty one subjects looked at the original lecture excerpt, whereas thirty two looked at the deleted version. The subjects in the two groups, original and deleted, were matched in terms of language proficiency.

The results of one lower proficiency subject were not included in further analysis in order to control the lower proficiency of the subjects in the two groups. This subject was randomly chosen from the lower proficiency subjects in the deleted group. This omission resulted in three subjects in each group who scored between 450 and 500 on the TOEFL and 28 subjects in each group who scored between 500 and 560.

At the beginning of each session, the subjects were told that a lecture on an introduction of recursion, which no one had already studied, would be displayed on a video and the same information was also given on their papers on which they are going to write their notes. The lecturer gave the lecture on tape and did not repeat the same information. Besides, the subjects were warned that the lecturer would talk in
the first 40 seconds about his students' assignments which have nothing to do with their lecture so as to get them familiarised with the lecturer's voice.

After the lecture excerpt was displayed the subjects were asked to evaluate how much they understood the lecture in percentage from 0% to 100% and to take down the value on the handout. Then, they were given another handout which required them to imagine a situation in which they have met a friend of theirs who was absent from the lecture they have seen and who wanted to know what was said in the lecture in order to get himself ready for the examination. They were asked to write the points at the back of their sheet either in English or Chinese or in both languages using their notes they have made while watching the lecture to sum up the main points to their friends.

The subjects' responses were gathered in ten minutes and the subjects were given another handout of short answer and true or false questions representing the ideas of the contents of the lecture. The contents of the lecture comprised 18 main idea units and the subjects were marked 1 point for each idea unit they reported. The subjects were not asked to write the exact words and phrases.

They were asked to write the equivalent meanings in English or their first language on condition their meanings represent the relevant idea unit. It is worth noting that the sequence of the ideas did not affect the scoring and to avoid the marker's prejudice, an assistant who had no idea about the hypothesis marked the summaries.

The findings showed that the discourse markers played an important role in comprehension and that the subjects comprehended the lecture better when the discourse markers were included than when they were deleted.
One may understand, from what has been explained above, that paying attention to particular markers is very important and that these markers only take care of comprehension. But this may give the students the indication that certain vocabulary or phrases are very important than others. Moreover, the students may pay their attention to words rather to meaning. It is not always necessarily that when discourse markers are absent from any particular text will mean that the students will concentrate on each word or other words being said and lose track of the meaning.

The students may pay attention to each word being said but they may be following meaning shaped by these words. However, this does not mean that discourse markers are not very important but giving the importance to them rather than paying attention to other words in the text may hinder comprehension in another situation or in other texts where no discourse markers are included.

This study, however, is similar to my study since it recommends an attention to be paid to what should be included in EAP texts. It recommends the inclusion of discourse markers used in lecturing to be included in EAP texts. My study, however, suggests the importance of genre approaches which are similar to the product ones in analysing the building components (i.e. words and phrases) of a text and the importance of the use of these components such as discourse markers and herein lies the relevance and importance of Salager-Meyer's study to mine.

Nevertheless, the study has some pedagogical and research implications. For pedagogical implication, the markers that are used in conversational style lectures should be included in EAP listening texts and not those which associated with written texts. This means that pedagogic texts should be examined in order to help EAP teachers use courses which contain appropriate types of markers.
In addition, learners do not need to follow the lecture speech to learn, use, or make use of markers since they have no time to do so and this may distract them from following the propositional content of the lecture and lose track of meaning. Learners should be able to exploit markers automatically while listening. Thus, this can be done through investigation and through further research.

There are other aspects which one can work on and which rise from this kind of investigation. The first aspect is that this work should be replicated so as to prove its validity and to present an evidence for the value of markers in second language lecture comprehension. The second is that there should be an experimental test to find out about how discourse markers help comprehension.

It has not also been tested the possibility of markers to act as filling pauses and thereby allowing more processing time. Thus, there should be tests which make a comparison between the role of filled pauses and markers. The final aspect is that there must be an examination of whether the macro-markers help comprehension or they have no importance to play in comprehension.

**Research Articles**

Swales (1990) gives an “overview of the textual studies of the English RA” (pp. 131-132) from 1972 to 1988. He observed that there was a difference among the papers which examined research articles on different aspects “in the scale of research, in the level of analysis..., and in the methodological and linguistic approaches devised or drawn upon” (p. 130).

In EAP, research articles were examined, Carkin (2005) explains, for pedagogical reasons so as to help graduate students know how this type of genres conveys information which is related to disciplines and how they are constructed by
experts. Therefore, there were some studies, for example, which examined historical accounts of a development of a discipline's research articles.

Swales (1990) explained that the scientific research articles appeared with the setting up of the first scientific periodical, "The Philosophical, Transactions of the Royal Society, in 1665" (p. 110). He clarified that the only important study he was familiar with was the study of Bazerman (1984a) which traced the textual development of the research article in the recent century. He revealed that Bazerman examined "a selection of spectroscopic articles in the Physical Review from its founding in 1893 to 1980" (p. 114) since this period had witnessed the development of the American physics.

Other studies concentrated on specific components of research articles. Salager-Meyer (1992), for example, conducted a genre-specific discourse study and more analysis of 84 well—structured medical English (ME) abstracts so as to explain the use of finite verb tense and modality in ME and to investigate how meaning expressed through the different tenses and modal verbs has something to do with both the communicative function of the different rhetorical divisions of abstracts and each ME text type.

Three main ME texts types were considered: 49 research papers (RP), 21 reviews (RV), and 14 case reports (CR) from four different types of medical research: clinical, basic, epidemiological, and operative research. The journals and abstracts were sorted according to research and text type with the help of a specialist informant, a Spanish speaking medical researcher fluent in English.

The frequency of occurrence of the finite verb tenses with their voice in each compulsory and optional move was recorded and the models were classified separately. Chi-square tests were used for the observations. Finally, the
communicative function of each ME abstract move and ME text type has been expanded from and on the basis of the "Notes for Contributors" (p. 96) and "Instructions for Authors" (p. 96) sections of four leading medical periodicals (The New England Journal of Medicine, JAMA, Annals of Internal Medicine, and the British Medical Journal), and from two books on scientific writing (Trelease, 1982; Woodford, 1983).

The findings of this study showed that there was a close relationship between the rhetorical function of each abstract move and the use of verb tenses and modality. The present perfect (used for stating a problem) was mainly used to tell the topic of discourse and to include the authors' disagreement with earlier researchers' findings, whereas the past was not used so much to express the previous research but the purpose, methods, results and case presentation of a new investigation.

They also showed that the present tense was used for the comment type of discourse to state the relation of the study and the generalisation of specific findings: its conclusion, recommendation and data synthesis. It was also used to refer to established information which should be internalised by the reader. This tense was noticed to be used with reviews: the analytical and critical art articles.

They revealed that the communicative function of each ME text type decided the use of verb tenses. The variation among texts was the most noticeable use of the present tense in RV papers which expressed generalisation of their knowledge claims in order to give themselves the state of law or universal principle.

The study also emphasised the relationship between suggestive discourse and the use of modality which showed a limit of statements and helped writers to come up with findings from a factual situation. However, the results of this study cannot be generalised since they were based on a corpus which cannot be judged to be large
enough. Besides, the study was limited to a particular discipline and therefore the use of tense may differ when dealing with different disciplines since there are different functions for the different tenses.

Irrespective of what has been said above, this study has some implications for teaching. Verb tense choice should not be taught in relation to time lines. It is also important to, when teaching tenses to scientists for reading or writing reasons, explain their communicative purposes in relation to the different rhetorical divisions of ME abstracts and in the different types of ME texts. However, the following section will give a brief description of the topics and issues done in writing research.

2.2 Topics and Issues Done in Writing Research

Much research has been done in the field of second language writing. Hyland (2003) clarifies that different topics and issues have been researched in writing such as "researching writers, researching texts, and researching readers" (p. 275). Writer's research, for example, Hyland (2003) states, investigated issues such as the strategies writers use when writing or revising "a specific writing task" (p. 275), the way they decide about planning, drafting, editing, etc. and the influence of the teacher's written comments on students' writing.

Researching texts examined issues such as the characteristics of a particular text-its vocabulary, grammar, use of a language to convey meaning, the way texts vary from other texts and their relevance to L1 restrictions.

Readers research, Hyland (2003) concludes, entailed issues of readers' interests of the given genre- things they pay attention to in it and the way they read it. It also entailed issues such as the text characteristics which attract the target readers and the ways which help students learn the way of writing to their readers.
Nevertheless, the next section will try to explain the theoretical background which underpins the study. It will discuss the relationship between language proficiency and academic performance. It will also discuss the history of the composing process. Further, it will try to show the importance of learning strategies in improving the writing skills. The section will conclude with showing the teacher's role in the composing process and therefore his role in fostering the improvement of writing.

2.3 The Theoretical Background to the Study

This section will attempt to discuss the basic theoretical background to the study. It will first discuss the relationship between language proficiency and academic performance. It will then discuss the history of the composing process. After this, it will show the importance of learning strategies in improving the writing skills. It will finally explain the teachers' role in the composing process and articulate their role in fostering the improvement of writing.

The Relationship between Language Proficiency and Academic Performance

Cummins (1984) noticed that many debates in the fields of psycholinguistics and educational psychology have stressed the issue of how 'language proficiency' is related to academic achievements. He explains that in the domain of bilingual education, second language pedagogy and testing there has been a lot of discussion on what constitutes language proficiency. There was a belief in the direct relationship between proficiency and academic performance. That is, proficiency in the language needed for face to face communication would well help a student to carry out cognitive / academic tasks as well.
However, to have a fluency in face to face does not reveal the overall proficiency in English. Cummins clarifies such an issue by referring to the survey conducted in the Toronto Board of Education which suggested that a high degree of proficiency in face to face communication does not mean having an overall proficiency in English. A good proficiency in face to face communication can be achieved within two years of exposure to English – speaking peers, television and schooling. Nonetheless, such proficiency may not help in good cognitive or academic performance.

Cummins (1984) makes it more clear that the minority language students’ poor academic performance in the U.S.A. in the bilingual educational context is not due to poor proficiency in English but because they lack either the cognitive abilities or motivation. He concludes that being having low cognitive or personality traits are the rationale behind poor academic performance within minority language students.

Nevertheless, Cummins (1984) developed a theoretical framework for language proficiency. He confesses that Skutnabb – Kangas and Toukamaa (1976) are the first to make the distinction between “Surface fluency in a language and academically-related aspects of language proficiency” (p. 136). He clarifies that another distinction has been made but between “surface fluency and conceptual-linguistic knowledge” (p. 136).

This distinction, he also clarifies, was later conceptualised in terms of basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP). BICS denotes the language proficiency in everyday communicative situations and CALP denotes the language proficiency in cognitive / academic performance.
The major points embodied in the BICS/CALP are that some heretofore-neglected aspects of language proficiency are considerably more relevant for students' cognitive and academic progress than are the surface manifestations of proficiency frequently focused on by educators, and that educators' failure to appreciate these differences can have particularly unfortunate consequences for minority students". (Cummins, 1984, p. 38)

Cummins (1984) expounds language proficiency by means of a framework. He formalizes two continuums in the framework. The extremes of the continuums are referred to as 'context-embedded' and 'context-reduced' situations. The 'context-embedded' situations are the ones in which the students understand language and communicate with each other because of the clues that exist in the situation not due to proficiency in the language. The 'context-reduced' situations are those in which communication relies primarily on comprehending and having knowledge of the language itself. 'Context-embedded' situations are the everyday situations, whereas 'context-reduced' situations are the academic tasks in classroom settings.

Nevertheless, Cummins believes that 'context-embedded' situations need little cognitive involvement. This is because of the language used in such situations is mastered, whereas 'context-reduced' situation needs active cognitive involvement since the language needed for such tasks is to be developed.

Furthermore, Cummins contends that the difference between BICS and CALP could be represented in terms of the 'iceberg' metaphor adapted from Roger Shuy (1978; 1981). He explains that Shuy used the iceberg metaphor to single out the distinction between the 'visible' quantifiable formal aspects of language (e.g. pronunciation, basic vocabulary, grammar) and the less visible and less easily measured aspect dealing with semantic and functional meaning.
Cummins says that Shuy makes it clear that language teaching (whether L1 or L2) generally gives importance to functional or communicative proficiency and help students develop such proficiency by giving attention to the surface forms, disregarding the fact that language acquisition is from deeper communicative functions of language to the surface forms.

According to Cummins' (1984) theory "first and second language academic skills are interdependent, that is manifestations of a common underlying proficiency" (p. 142). The common underlying proficiency (CUP) implies that if there is proficiency in one particular language then those language skills could be transferred to other languages as well. Therefore, based on the CUP, the transfer of cognitive / academic or literacy related skills across languages is possible.

In view of the above the theoretical principles, it can be assumed that, in the present study, since the college undergraduate students have high proficiency in L1, a transfer of skills from L1 to L2 can take place if the common underlying proficiency is well developed. But if surface proficiency in L1 is high and the common underlying proficiency is not developed, then the transfer of skills is not likely to take place to L2 and thus poor academic performance results. Nevertheless, the results of students' interview showed that the students were not good at L2 writing because of problems with grammar, vocabulary etc. and also showed that they were not good at L1 writing because of the same problems in L2, though they were proficient in L1 (i.e. speaking).

Nevertheless, one can conclude that if students have high proficiency in a particular language, this does not mean that they have all the skills needed for effective communication, especially the productive skill of writing and speaking. The high proficiency may be at the surface level. This implies that college students can improve the cognitive/academic proficiency if they have reached the threshold level
in English though they may not be proficient in English. This, however, supports the researcher's suggestion to include the process approach in the curriculum of the Colleges of Aden University since, as it was understood from the analysis of the data collected by means of classroom observation, students' and teachers' questionnaires and interviews, the cognitive skills (e.g. planning, organizing, composing, revising, editing, and redrafting) were not often practised and developed in class. Therefore, the students should be taught such processes (i.e. the cognitive skills) because they do not only lack the underlying proficiency in L1 and L2 but also the proficiency in language at the surface level as it was clear from their interviews. With this perspective in mind the following lines will explicate the process of writing reflecting its history.

The History of the Composing Process

The history of writing process approach can be classified into four stages starting from 1960s to the present: the expressive, cognitive, social, and discourse Community stages.

Lester Faigley (1986) in his article Competing theories of process: A critique and proposal, has put forward three views of the composing process: the expressive, the cognitive, and the social views. He clarifies that the writing experts view the process of composing as consisting of two main perspectives; the expressive and cognitive views. He states that the expressive view is represented by the work of proponents such as Peter Elbow, Ken Macrorie and Donald Stewart whereas the cognitive view is represented by the work of Linda Flower, Barry Kroll and Andrea Lunsford.

Faigley also clarifies that a third perspective has appeared, which views the processes of writing as social not as existing within the individual writers. This perspective has emerged from the work of Patrica Bizzel, Kenneth Bruffee, Marilyn
Cooper, Shirley Brice Heath, James Reither and the authors of several essays collected in 'Writing in non academic settings' edited by Lee Odell and Dixe Goswamy. These perspectives on composing will be clarified as follows:

**The Expressive Perspective**

The expressive period of the writing process can be traced back to the 1960s. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) contend that the arguments by Elbow (1973, 1981); and Murray (1980) and others indicate that the writers in this stage were able to express themselves freely. They depended on the views of Berlin (1987) and Faigley (1986) to explicate the expressive approach. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) make it clear that “writers should say what they really thought” (p. 117). Moreover, they “should be creative and take chances” and “let their natural voices speak out” (p. 117).

Raimes (1979) states that the accuracy and the rhetorical structure will not make a piece of writing more effective, if it is not reflecting clearly the writer's ideas and imagination. Thus, second language learners, Raimes advises, should be provided with tasks which offer them the opportunity to express their ideas clearly to real and responsive audience.

**The Cognitive Perspective**

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) say that in the early 1970s psychologically-based process to writing has come out of research in cognitive psychology. They stated that Emig's (1971, 1983) effort in case study research and protocol led to a development in writing research. The research which was more scientific to the study of the writing processes, they assert, helps in understanding what is happening when composing. Grabe and Kaplan mention that Emig views writing as a recursive activity rather than a linear one emphasising the importance of on-going activities such as pre-planning and editing.
Hairston (1982) clarifies that the appearance of such paradigm shift has, for the first time in the history of teaching writing, resulted in controlled and directed research on writers' composing processes. She further clarifies that researchers such as Sandra Perl, Linda Flower and John Hayes have tape recorded students' oral reports of the thoughts as they wrote. Such researchers have called their investigative strategy as 'protocol analysis', which was supplied with interviews and questionnaires. These techniques used have given them an understanding of what is happening in the writers' mind as they write.

Flower and Hayes (1981), for example, introduced the theory of cognitive process involved in composing based on their work on protocol analysis. They explained four main points which underlie this theory. They clarified that the process of writing consists of a set of distinctive thinking processes that writers organize when composing. These processes are organised in a hierarchy in a way any process can be embedded within any other process. They made it clear that the process of composing itself is a good directed thinking process, guided by the writer's own growing network of goals. These goals are created in two ways: by generating both high levels and supporting sub-goals or creating entirely new ones on the basis of what they have learned in the process of writing.

**The Social Context Perspective**

Faigley (1986) identifies four trends of research which represent the social view of writing. Such trends represent the tradition from which they emerged: (1) Post structuralist theories of language, (2) The sociology of science, (3) Ethnography, and (4) Marxism.

**The Post Structuralist Theory of Language** Faigley (1986) explains that writing researchers who were influenced by this theory have discussed the process of
composing depending on the idea that came out of discourse communities. He argues that social view of writing moves beyond the expressionist contention that the individual discovers the self through language and beyond the cognitivist view that an individual constructs reality through language. In a social view, "any effort to write about the self or reality always comes in relation to previous texts" (p. 536).

**The Sociology of Science** Research in the sociology of science, Faigley (1986) states clearly, is the one which investigates the social processes of writing in an academic discourse community. He clarifies that when the scientific literature is taken as a whole it challenges the assumption that scientific texts contain "autonomous presentation of facts" (p. 536).

**Ethnography** This trend, which has a social view of writing, has grown, Faigley states, from the tradition of ethnography. Faigley (1986) clarified that ethnography as methodology in the seventies and eighties was used to "examine the immediate communities in which writers learn to write-the family and the classroom" (p. 536). The trend of research which uses the ethnographic methodology looks into writing in the workplace, interpreting the act of writing and reading within the culture of the workplace.

**Marxism** Faigley (1986) explains that the vital principle of belief of the Marxism is that "any act of writing must be understood within a structure of power related to modes of production" (p. 537). Thus, the theories of Marxism help teachers of writing understand the different processes and aspects which involve students' writing.

Besides, Cooper (1986) puts forward an ecological model of writing "whose fundamental tenet is that writing is an activity through which a person is continually engaged with a variety of socially constituted systems" (p. 376). She explains that
writing is an activity which relates us to the social world and makes us "become human" (p. 27). She emphasises that writing as an activity should be looked at "ecologically" (p. 27) to help us realise its importance and difficulty when it is taught.

**The Discourse Community Stage**

Geoffrey Chase (1988) contends that a shift of emphasis from product to process has been noticed in composition studies. Many studies viewed writing as a cognitive activity. But there is another shift which has attracted attention and this shift was to discourse communities.

Chase (1988) observed that "many scholars" call for the need to clearly realise 'the conventions of discourse communities" and "to teach those conventions" to students (p. 13). He approves such shift towards discourse communities attending to writing as a form of production in relationship with the processes of self and social control. Nevertheless, he recommends that two important issues to writing should be investigated when writing is viewed as a form of cultural production. The first issue, Chase (1988) explains, is that:

- discourse communities are organised around the production and legitimisation of particular forms of knowledge and social practices at the expense of others, and they are not ideologically innocent. They introduce students to particular ways of life through specific discourse. (p. 13)

He also explains that a particular ideological expression is gained by any discourse on composition by the inclusion and/or absence of particular cultural values, processes and dynamics and that this ideological expression may not serve any emancipatory interests.

The second issue, Chase says clearly, is that students' way of learning the conventions of a discourse community should be investigated since these conventions are not fixed or static and they are constituted because of human interaction. He
suggests a serious consideration of the implications of teaching the conventions of any discourse community from a pedagogical perspective.

When we focus on teaching students discourse conventions, whether in expressive writing or in academic discourse, we need to do so in a way that allows them to problematize their existence and to place themselves in a social and historical context through which they can come to better understand themselves and the world around them. (Chase, 1988, p. 21)

Chase (1988) believes that teachers are required to create environments in which students are encouraged to see themselves acting as humans, making a difference in the world. They must be motivated to realise and analyse their own experiences and backgrounds as the first step for connecting with the "wider culture and society" (p. 21). He finally recommends that writing should be viewed as an "ideological process" (p. 21) and the aim of teaching writing should involve students to write as a part of a larger project so that they can state firmly their opinions and learn to use their skills of crucial questioning and have the bravery to "act in the interests of improving the quality of human life" (p. 21). Nonetheless, the following lines will try to reflect the importance of learning strategies in improving the writing skills.

*The Importance of Learning Strategies in Improving the Writing Skills*

It is clear from the results of this study that the college students at Aden University have difficulties in writing. These difficulties could, however, with the use of appropriate strategies, be overcome and writing can be improved as well. Therefore, this study has looked into the students' difficulties and tried to investigate the students' strategies which are used when writing. Strategies, however, are the procedures that students use to help in learning.

Chamot and O'Malley (1993) examined research on learners and learning strategies to explore the explicit nature of second language learning. They observed
that the first description of the characteristics of good language learners began to emerge in the last half of 1970s.

Chamot and O’Malley examined the classification of learner strategies done in studies carried out by different researchers. They stated that many researchers have been involved recently in the classification of learning strategies and the examination of different types of strategies used with various tasks in L2 based on interviews, observation, and questionnaire. They presented the classification of Rubin (1981) who carried out interviews with second language students and put forward a classification scheme.

The scheme comprises strategies that directly influence learning (e.g. monitoring, memorising, deductive reasoning, and practice) and processes that contribute directly to learning (creating opportunities for practice and production tricks).

They observed that the best classification system depended on the distinction in cognitive psychology between metacognitive and cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. Chamot and O’Malley (1993) presented examples of strategies for each of these categories:

metacognitive strategies for planning, monitoring and evaluating a learning task, cognitive strategies for elaboration, grouping, inferencing and summarising the information to be understood and learned and social/affective strategies for questioning, co-operating and self-task to assist in the learning process. (p. 374)

Chamot and O’Malley’s findings showed that good language learners were capable of describing in some detail their mental processes used while trying to learn a second or foreign language. There was some conscious awareness of language learning process taking place that did not agree with the view that language acquisition is a completely subconscious or implicit process.
Furthermore, the findings also showed that learners were mentally active during the learning process as they chose information from their environment, organised it, related it to their prior knowledge, decided what needs to be remembered, used the information appropriately and reflected on their level of success of their learning efforts.

Chamot and O'Malley (1993) examined carefully the strategic differences of the effective and less effective learners and have said that the most descriptive studies of language learning strategies focused on the strategies of good language learners and that a few studies investigated the strategies of less effective language learners.

Further, they have observed that unsuccessful language learners who have a limited number of strategies were aware of the strategies but were not able to judge about the strategy to be used for a particular task. More effective students used a greater variety of strategies and were able to use them correctly for particular purposes than the strategies used by less effective students.

Chamot and O'Malley stipulated the findings of the study of successful and unsuccessful ESL students in a university intensive English programme, that showed that unsuccessful learners certainly used strategies but differently from the successful learners. The good language learners were good at matching strategies to task demands. It was also noted that the unsuccessful language learners used the same type and number of strategies used by the successful learners but they were not able to compose well.

The findings of the study also showed that tasks were dealt with differently by the successful and unsuccessful learners depending on learner characteristics such as the level of risk taking, concern with accuracy or meaning. The conclusion reached by the study was that:
unsuccessful language learners are not inactive as had often been assumed, but seemed to lack the metacognitive knowledge of the task that would allow them to select more appropriate strategies for the task. (Chamot & O'Malley, 1993, p. 381)

Thus, Chamot and O'Malley (1993) conclude that explicit "metacognitive knowledge" (p. 381) about task characteristics and appropriate strategies for solving the task is a major factor of language learning effectiveness. The less effective learners often use their habitual or preferred strategies since they are not capable of becoming aware of the "task demands" and the metacognitive knowledge which influences the kinds of learning strategies learners choose (p. 381).

Michael Carter (1990) makes it clear that skilled writers develop the writing techniques that enable them to write well in a variety of writing domains. The competent writers have general writing strategies with a great flexibility, for example, to overcome writers' block, determining and writing for audience etc. Besides, all these strategies, he continues to clarify, enable a writer to be skilled in writing in a domain without having extensive experience in that domain.

Cohen (1990) has also discussed some strategies used by skilled writers. They are as follows:

1. "Going back to go forward" (p. 107). The successful writers read what was written to go forward and this recursive activity is done by such writers throughout the writing process.

2. "Repeating key words and phrases" (p. 107). Effective writers make sure that their ideas in the text are clearly linked to each other and this explains why such writers reread what was written.

3. "Using advanced or emergent planning" (p. 108). Good writers start composing a text according to a plan prepared "in advance" (p. 108) that tells them how to yield the particular text. They also create feasible plans as they compose.
4. “Postponing major revision until the ideas are written down” (p. 108). Expert writers arrange for the main process of revision to take place later until the ideas are expressed in words.

5. “Making decisions by assessing different aspects of writing in conjunction” (p. 108). Successful writers are capable of judging more than one aspect of their writing in combination.

6. “Searching extensively for the right words” (p. 108). Good writers recourse to memory to find out about correct words. They engage themselves in an analysis of the material they are trying to bring back from memory.

7. “Distancing self from text” (p. 108). Good writers leave their text for days or weeks to think about its situation calmly as if they are not involved in it themselves. But they “keep their ideas and their expression of them separate” (p. 108).

8. “Keeping in mind the goals and the audience” (p. 108). Effective writers keep the purpose of writing in mind while writing and revising. This is done throughout the process of writing to make sure that their writing is in agreement with their goals for writing. They also think about the audience as they write and revise.

9. “Writing multiple drafts” (p. 109). Good writers make many drafts of what they are writing. They rewrite a number of drafts and within this activity they revise, edit and come up with the final draft.

The L2 unskilled writers encounter many difficulties in writing and such difficulties can be overcome by using the strategies explained above. But the awareness that such strategies could improve the writing skill must be brought about among the unskilled writers. It is the role of teacher to help students both to be aware
of them and to use them according to their needs. The following lines will reveal the teacher's role in the composing process and in improving the skill of writing.

**The Teacher's Role in the Composing Process and in Fostering the Improvement of Writing**

Chamot and O'Malley (1990) have reviewed research in first and second language settings that provide an understanding of both whether the less effective writers can improve their skills by using writing strategies and whether strategy instruction can improve the less affective writers.

They have mentioned, based on the findings of the research, that strategy instruction has a positive effect on second language learning and that learning strategies for first language skills can be applied to second language learning as many of the tasks and strategies are similar. Moreover, they stressed the importance of students' awareness of the metacognitive processes for understanding the strategies required for a task.

Therefore, Chamot and O'Malley conclude from examining strategy research that strategy instruction can improve the less effective L2 writers and that the effective use of strategies can improve the writing of the less effective writers. Besides, the students should be given an opportunity to use the strategies early in composition learning. This early practice of strategies use would help them later do tasks using such strategies effectively.

Barbara Kroll (1990) recommends those who are involved in teaching writing to second language learners not only to know the theoretical issues but also to have an understanding of the pedagogical issues which would help them in effective writing classroom instructions. She adds that teachers should know that writing for L2 learners is difficult to learn. This is due to the problems associated with learning a
second language and the way in which L1 skills may transfer or prevent from acquiring L2 skills.

Carter (1990) also recommends that, in four years of graduate course, teachers of composition should have the goal of helping students gain the local knowledge. This is because the students' writing becomes domain-specific as the students become members of the community of knowledge within their academic majors. This local knowledge, he clarifies, would help them write effectively in their academic major and enable them to have full knowledge in their fields after they graduate.

Zamel (1987) explains that researchers have done a classroom project using the ethnographic method to know the relationship between the act of writing and writing pedagogy. They showed, she continues to explain, with evidence that there was a possibility of alternatives to teacher-centered approach.

Zamel has commented that such research has helped us to realise the way in which contextual factors influence the development of students' writing. She further says that recent research recommends teachers themselves in classrooms to study and examine the link between teaching and writing.

Teachers, however, can play an essential role in the process of composing through their intervention throughout the whole process to offer help in the form of feedback and therefore contribute to students' writing development.

Cohen (1990), for example, discusses different kinds of feedback on written work whether from teacher, peer or the self as an important factor in learning to write in the target language. He discusses conferencing and defines it as one-to-one consultation between the teacher and the student during the gradual development of the writing process.
Cohen clarifies that such technique helps the students understand that which cannot be understood by written feedback. But this technique benefits the students only when it is conducted appropriately. That is, it is more effective when continuous attention is paid to the students' understanding of the processes of planning, evaluating, etc. that go on in the writing classroom conference.

The other kind of feedback discussed by Cohen is the teacher's comments on the writing in the dialogue journals. He says that the dialogue journal is a way of making a dialogue between the teacher and the student. The student enquires about any doubts that come up during composing in a journal. They are given the courage to write in the target language and the teacher also comments in the target language.

Such act would help the students have exposure to the target language and would help them understand the language at their level. The teacher responds to the students' query individually and therefore the teacher and the student become involved in an on-going dialogue. Thus, Cohen contends that the journal produces closer ties between the learner and the teacher and helps learners intensify the importance of learning strategies.

Cohen (1990) also talked about the technique of reformulation which, he clarifies, helps in improving the writing skills. Reformulation is a re-writing of what has already been written to gain a native-like style of writing. Reformulation, Cohen makes it clear, is a process of a change for improvement in which nonnative writers try to copy the native writer's style of writing since they use words and phrases that are used by the native writers. Such kind of feedback would help the students understand the style of native writing in the target language.

Further, Cohen wrote about the technique of note-taking for improving the writing skills. Taking notes of lectures or programmes while listening would help
learners write in the target language. It helps them practise L2 writing and be able to write effectively.

Nevertheless, the present study focuses on academic writing since it, as Jordan (1997) justifies, takes up much of the students’ time when studying and is associated with difficulties. And because of the importance of academic writing for students, Jordan mentions a variety of approaches and types of practices for academic writing. He clarifies that such approaches are sometimes based on purpose and type of writing and sometimes on personal preference.

Jordan (1997) contends that a large amount of EAP writing is extremely product in orientation. This is because the ways in which ideas are arranged and expressed are not great in amount. He advises that learners should completely understand such ways and learn to use them. Therefore, the present study will try to make the best use of the major approaches to writing, discussing their advantages and disadvantages and come up with a new approach which subsumes their strengths.

2.4 The Major Different Approaches to the Teaching of Writing

EFL teachers now have many approaches to the teaching of writing to choose from. Earlier, the product and process approaches had influenced most of the teaching in the EFL classroom. Today, genre approaches have emerged and have influenced the teaching of writing in a big way.

Nevertheless, this section will try to provide some insights into these approaches and review them, highlighting their strengths and weaknesses. It will conclude with some suggestions from each of them to achieve a better and more synthetic approach to the teaching of writing.
The Product Approaches

The Distinctive Features

Many researchers have discussed the product approach and showed its characteristics. Pincas (1982), for example, contends that product approaches see writing as being primarily about linguistic knowledge, paying attention to the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices.

Here is an example taken from Jordan (1989) which shows the product approach focus when teaching writing:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GRAMMAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Some areas of language consistently cause difficulty. Some of the main ones have been selected for practice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. In the sentences below there are a number of errors: they have been underlined. On the lines beneath each sentence write the whole sentence correctly.

   1. Table 3 is showing that most of this accidents occurs to young children.

   2. Each worker pay a small money which is taken from their salary.

   3. Specialist doctors in hospitals can divide into surgeons which operate the body and another specialists which act as consultants.

   4. The number of schools grewed gradually till 1965 and then ___ number rised suddenly.

   5. When a country apply for foreign aids ____ is because it has no enough resources of its own.

(Jordan, 1989, p. 14)
The example above helps the students practise and strengthen writing at the sentence level paying attention to certain areas in grammar. But such practice may give the students the impression that writing is a mastery of grammar rules and that writing can be taught separately from context, audience, and purpose.

Hedge (1988) defines this approach as an approach to writing which examines "the features of written texts" (p. 8). She explains that this approach may include the skills of "getting the grammar right, having a range of vocabulary, punctuating meaningfully, using the conventions of layout correctly, e.g. in letters, spelling accurately, using a range of sentence structures, linking ideas and information across sentences to develop a topic, developing and organising the content clearly and convincingly" (p. 8).

Hedge (1988) states that there is a possibility that this approach may include a list of the forms such as letters and essays, and the functions such as narrative and description of written texts as well as the practice of different features and organisation of these different written texts but with focusing on one or a set of general skills "within the context of a whole text" (p. 8). Hyland (2003) indicates that writing, in this approach, may be looked upon as a logical and well-organised placement of words, clauses, and sentences according to rules of a language. He says that this view of writing regards writing as a product of writers’ control over grammar and vocabulary. The way of developing one’s skill of writing, Hyland (2003) explains, is through manipulating and imitating a given text through exercises such as filling the blanks, completing of sentences, transforming of tenses or personal pronouns and other activities.

Jordan (1997) also indicates that in the product approach the learner is provided with a model and different exercises are given to show its "important
features" (p. 165). The students are then asked to write "a similar or parallel text" (p. 165). Tickoo (2003) makes it clear that the product approach gives attention to the product of a student's writing without helping the learner to know "the processes" which "successful writers use" (p. 63). In this approach, he explains, the learner learns the rules of grammar and how to use them.

**Levels of Teaching Writing**

In this approach, Pincas (1982) clarifies, learning how to write has four phases: familiarisation; controlled writing; guided writing, and free writing. In the familiarisation phase, learners are familiarised with certain features of a particular text. In the controlled and guided writing phases, the learners practise the skills with reducing control preparing them for the free writing phase in which the learners practise real writing activities such as writing a letter and an essay. Similarly, Hyland (2003) holds that this approach has a four-stage process: familiarisation in which learners are given "certain grammar and vocabulary through a text" (p. 3), controlled writing in which learners often control or use in a skillful way "fixed patterns from substitution tables" (p. 4), guided writing in which learners imitate given texts, and the free writing where learners use "the patterns" (p. 4) they have practised in writing an essay, letter, etc.

**Focus**

To put it into a few words, product-based approaches view writing as chiefly being about knowledge of the structure of language, and the writing development as chiefly being the result of the imitation of the stimulus (i.e. texts) provided by the teacher. (Badger & White, 2000; Hyland, 2003)
Weaknesses

From what has been said, the product approach seems to create some problems for the students. The first problem is that it gives an indication that the improvement of writing is based on mastering the rules of grammar and vocabulary and teaching through grammar method may be the best criterion for teaching good writing. Hyland (2003) explains four weaknesses for the product approach. First, he maintains that the structural orientation stresses that writing is an act of joining “lexical and syntactic forms” (p. 4) and that good writing is proved through knowledge of these forms and of the rules used to construct texts.

The second problem, Hyland clarifies, is that “formal patterns” (p. 4) which are presented to the students are based on the subjective judgment of course-writers and are not based on an analysis of authentic texts. This may result in confusion for the students especially when they decide to write about a topic of different situations. Hyland (2003) explains that written texts are always the reaction of a particular interactive context and that there is no “universal” (p. 5) standard by which good writing is judged since good writing is connected with a changing context.

The third problem has something to do with meaning. What is important in the product approach is accuracy and usage but not the communicative content. The communicative content is thought of later. The fourth problem is that the student cannot think about a topic and say what he wishes to say and how to say it. He is not recognised as an individual. Tickoo (2003) says that “In most cases such classroom writing denies the learner an opportunity for self-expression” (p. 63).
The Process Approaches

The Distinctive Features

It is evident from what has been discussed that the product approach focuses on producing different kinds of written products, i.e., it focuses only on the end-product of specific different types of genres and does not take into account the act of writing itself. The product approach, however, emphasises the imitation of different types of model genres, letters, etc. Zamal (1982) contends that the methods that stress on "form and correctness" disregarding the manner ideas are being "explored through writing" will fail to teach the students that the act of writing is mainly "a process of discovery" (p. 195).

Richards et al. (1992) defines the process approach briefly and clearly as the one which stresses "the composing processes of planning, drafting, and revising" (p. 290) that help writers while writing. The approach aims to develop the students' writing skills through the practice of these composing processes.

Here is an example of a task which requires the students to make drafts before they come up with the final text.

2. Culture shock happens when a person has to operate within a new set of cultural rules and value. Write a text, for American travellers to your country, alerting them to the existence of "culture shocks" and giving them some advice on how to cope with it. Before you begin planning your essay, discuss the following texts with two or three other students (text omitted).


It is obvious from the task above that the students will go through several drafts and revisions. However, the task would be more effective or of great use to students when teachers intervene during the ongoing process of composing and offer their students with effective comments or feedback. This is because such intervention
may motivate the students to revise, edit and therefore reorganise their ideas in more effective ways.

Thus, the product approach is apparently different from the process approach, since the process approach emphasises the cognitive processes writers use when writing such as planning, composing, and revising. The process, overall, Liebman – Kleine (1986) says is not a belief or a set of beliefs which others are expected to accept without argument but “a concept” which allows people to understand writing “in a new way and thereby ask questions” which “were not asked” since people understood writing as a finished product (p. 785).

Notwithstanding, Hyland (2003) states that process theories have strongly influenced the development of L2 writing instruction. He clarifies that their proponents have taken and used “the techniques and theories of cognitive psychology and L1 composition” (p. 17) in response to the formal views of writing to improve the ways of understanding and teaching writing.

**The Leading Proponents of the Approach and their Theory**

Flower and Hayes (1981) were the first to study and develop the application of the composing processes. They tried to identify the organisation of the cognitive processes in writing through their theory—the cognitive process theory of writing. The cognitive process theory, Flower and Hayes (1981) explain, is based on four points:

**The First Point of the Theory** The first point of the theory claims that the process of writing is, to the greatest extent, realised as a series of distinctive thinking processes arranged by writers during the composing process. This point, Flower and Hayes state, is the stage process model which describes the composing process as a series of stages that are described by the gradual development of the written product.
The writing process, Flower and Hayes (1981) clarify, consists of three important elements:

- The Task Environment

The environment is that which subsumes all things starting with the “rhetorical problem or assignment” and ending with “the growing text itself” (p. 369).

At the beginning of composing, the rhetorical problem, Flower and Hayes (1981) made it clear, is very complicated; it includes the “rhetorical situation and audience” which motivate a writer to write as well as “the writer’s own goals in writing” (p. 369). All these demands can be dealt with by a writer. As composing goes on, the growing text demands both the writer’s time and attention during composing. These two demands will compete with other two facts which guide the composing process: “the writer’s knowledge in the long-term memory” and “the writer’s plans” for coping with “the rhetorical problem” (p. 371).

For example, Flowers and Hayes (1981) clarify, it is not difficult to see the disagreement between the writer’s knowledge about a topic and what he is willing to say to a particular audience, or between a phrase that complements a sentence and the more difficult idea the writer wants to express. They also clarify that one of the important event of writing is to see the way writers organise and combine the “multiple constraints of their knowledge, plans and text into the process of constructing each new sentence” (p. 371).

- The Writer’s long-term Memory

The second element, Flower and Hayes (1981) explain, is the writer’s long-term memory where the writer’s knowledge of the topic and of the audience as well as knowledge of various writing plans and problem representation are stored. The problem with long-term memory, however, is “the cue” (p. 371) which will help in
getting the wanted knowledge out of it. The second problem for a writer is the way of “reorganising that information to match the demands of the rhetorical problem” (p. 371).

- The Writing Process

The third element consists of the basic writing processes of planning, translating, and reviewing controlled by a monitor:

1. Planning

The first process of the third element of the writing process is planning in which writers make an “internal” and “abstract representation of the knowledge” which “will be used in writing” (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 372). Planning, they clarify, has a number of sub-processes: the process of generating ideas and the process of organising. The process of generating ideas involves bringing the relevant information back from the long-term memory. This information is sometimes organised in the memory which in turn helps the writer generate standard written English. The process of organising plays a crucial role in grouping ideas and forming new concepts. That is, it helps the writer discover categories, look for both subordinate ideas which improve a current topic and the superordinate ideas which include the current topic. The process of organising, is influenced by all rhetorical decisions and the plans used to reach the audience since it is directed by the main goals formed in the process of goal setting which may be “procedural” such as “Now let’s see-a- I want to start out with ‘energy’” (p. 372) or “substantive” such as “I have to relate this [engineering project] to the economics [of energy] to show why I’m improving it and why the steam turbine needs to be more efficient” (pp. 372-373).

In addition, goal – setting, Flower and Hayes (1981) make clear, is a main part of the planning process. The writer’s goals are both procedural and substantive. What
is important about writing goals is that they are set out by the writer. These goals help a writer generate ideas and those ideas therefore produce a new, more complicated goal which integrates content and purpose. However, goals can be improved and changed not only in pre-writing stage but also in the continuing process of composing so long as writers revise the main goals on the basis of the knowledge they have gained during the process of writing. (372 – 373).

2. Translating

The second process of the writing process is the process of translating. Flower and Hayes (1981) define it as “the process of putting ideas into visible language” (p. 373). The writer’s task is to translate a meaning into a series of syntactical and lexical pieces of written English, which is arranged in a complicated network of relationships. Thus, the writer is required to deal with all the demands of written English: the syntactic and the lexical, which may overload the capacity of short-term memory.

Flower and Hayes (1981) clarify that paying attention to the spelling and grammar may influence the process of planning and produce poor planning and that if they are to be ignored, this will also produce errors and in both cases the writer will be affected. Alternatively, as a way out, they mention the result of the set of studies conducted by Bereiter and Scardamala which says that children deal with the translation process through modifying and at the end of the process they leave “the discourse conventions of conversation” (p. 374).

3. Reviewing

The third process which is under the control of a monitor is reviewing. Reviewing is a “conscious process” (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 374) where writers read what they have written as a help for further translation or a systematic evaluation
and revision of the text. It relies, Flower and Hayes contend, on "two sub-processes: evaluating and revising" (p. 374). Planned reviewing often results in new "cycles of planning and translating" (p. 374). Nevertheless, the process of reviewing, they clarify, can also take place as an unplanned action caused by evaluating either the text or one's own planning. The sub-processes of "revising, evaluating, and generating" (p. 374) have the ability to interrupt any other process and take place at any time in the process of writing.

As mentioned earlier, the above processes are controlled by a monitor. Monitoring, Flower and Hayes explain, occurs when writers start composing. They monitor the process of writing and their progress. The function of the monitor is to decide when the writer moves from one process to the next. It determines the process of generating ideas before a writer starts writing a prose. This choice, Flower and Hayes (1981) observed, depends on both "the writer's goals" and "individual writing habits or styles" (p. 374). An example of the different composing styles, Flower and Hayes clarify, is that there are writers who try to reach the finished product on the one hand, but on the other hand there are others who decide to plan the entire text before beginning to write a word.

Thus, the model here recognizes three main processes: planning, translating, and reviewing as well as a set of sub-processes. However, people do not go through these processes one way direction, Flower and Hayes indicate. Planning is not only restricted to the beginning of the composing stage but can be used in all the levels of composing. Thus, the process of writing is not an ordered stages but a series of optional actions. (375)
As it is clear above, the diagram describes the cognitive process model which involves different processes. It shows that the process of writing is not one-way direction. For example, as it is obvious from the diagram above, knowledge about the writing topic or knowledge from memory can be used in the planning stage and information from 'planning' can flow back the other way. This, however, provides evidence that writing is a recursive activity in which writers go backwards and forwards between drafting and revising.

The main point this diagram is trying to show, which underlies the cognitive process theory, is that writers go repeatedly through a number of cognitive processes as they plan, remember, write, and reread. Nevertheless, the diagram above may give the wrong idea or impression that the writing process is an easy task since it exemplifies the process of writing simply and clearly. This is not true as the process
of writing is a complicated task which cannot be organized and displayed easily when it is in process.

**The Second Point of the Theory** The second point of the cognitive theory says that the processes of writing are organised in a hierarchical system. A particular process may be repeated at any time and embedded in another process or within another example of the process itself. For example, when a writer constructs or forms a sentence in the translating stage, he may encounter a problem and have a look again at the version of the entire written process to overcome this problem. The writer may then generate and organise new ideas, translate them into standard writing English and review this new option to expand her/his current goal of translating. This kind of embedding where “an entire process is embedded within a larger instance of itself” is termed in linguistics as “recursion” (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 375).

Moreover, a process with a hierarchical system which involves many embedded sub-processes is very effective since it allows a writer to do a lot with the few simple main processes: planning, translating, and reviewing. Therefore, reviewing should not be defined as the only stage in the process of composing but as “a thinking process” (p. 376) that can take place whenever a writer decides “to evaluate or revise” (p. 376) their text or plans. This may result in “new planning or a revision” of what a writer wants to express (p. 376).

**The Third Point of the Theory** The third point, Flower and Hayes explain, is that which directs the writer to decide, choose, and present the overall purposeful structure of composing. This point claims that “writing is a goal-directed process” (p. 377). In the process of composing, writers formulate a hierarchical network of goals which guide the writing process. Goals are the most important part of the cognitive
process theory. People view writing as “a purposeful act” but they do not know when they will finish this act (p. 377).

Therefore, Flower and Hayes (1981) raise a question: how does the writing process gain control over “its coherence, direction, or purpose?” (p. 377). One answer, they say, to this question can be explained in the fact that people forget a number of their goals once these goals are agreed about. The second answer to this question is that the goals themselves are of two kinds: “process and content” (p. 377). Process goals are mainly “the instructions” (p. 377) writers give to themselves which tell about the way the process of writing should be done, whereas content goals and plans determine all things that the writer wants to convey to the audience. Moreover, there are some goals which have something to do with organisation which can also determine both process and content goals.

What is important about the content goals, Flower and Hayes try to make it clear, is that they become part of an expanded “network of goals and sub-goals as the writer composes” (p. 377). Flower and Hayes (1981) explain that these networks have three features. The first feature is that they are produced as soon as the writers start composing. They are not created at the stage of pre-writing but in “close interaction with ongoing exploration and the growing text” (p. 378). The second is that the goal-directed thinking, which makes these networks, has a number of “forms” (p. 378). Goal-directed thinking often includes defining the writer’s starting point, designing a plan for achieving a goal or assessing the one’s success, which are linked with discovery. However, the writer’s goals, regardless of being “abstract or detailed, simple, or sophisticated” (p. 379) give a sensible reason for moving ahead the composing process.
The third and last feature is that writers along with creating a hierarchical network of goals, they, as they compose, call back at their higher-level goals which in turn direct their next step and makes it coherent. Even though there is little understanding of this network and how it is used by writers, one can know the important difference between good and poor writers. Poor writers rely on only surface level goals such as completing a sentence or correcting the spelling of a word. Nevertheless, the third point in the cognitive process theory, Flower and Hayes conclude, concentrates on “the role of the writer’s own goals” (p. 381) which help in explaining the purpose of writing. In brief, in the process of writing, writers, “regenerate or recreate their own goals” on the basis of “what they learn” (p. 381). This leads to the last point of the theory.

**The Fourth Point of the Theory** The fourth and last point of the cognitive process theory says that “writers create their own goals by generating goals and supporting sub-goals” (p. 381) which represent a purpose and sometimes by recreating their own deep-level goals on the basis of what they have learned by writing. Writing is thought of as a process where knowledge develops as writers write but writers must create the guiding goals for their process. They should also develop an expanded network of feasible “sub-goals” as they write which direct to “more abstract top-level goals such as ‘interest the reader’ or ‘describe my job’” (p. 381). Writers sometimes have the ability to change or replace the directing goals for writing and planning depending on “what they learned through writing” (pp. 381-382).

These two main processes - generating sub-goals and regenerating of goals, Flower and Hayes (1981) explain, are of three patterns of goals which are: “explore and consolidate, state and develop, and write and regenerative” (p. 382). The explore and consolidate pattern takes place at the beginning of composing or anywhere. The
writers often work with high-level goal or plan to explore, i.e. "thinking the topic over" (p. 382), writing the ideas quickly, or starting to write to get grips with what they have say. The writer goes back to top-level goal and reviews the information that has been generated. Then the writer consolidates it and produces "a more new complex idea" by producing new concepts (p. 382). In the process of consolidating, a new goal is formulated replacing the goal of exploring, directing the subsequent event in composing. In addition, if the topic is unknown demanding creative thinking, the act of exploring, consolidating and regenerating goals will be a critical skill for the writer.

In the state and develop pattern, the writer starts with "a relatively general high-level goal" (p. 384) that he continues to produce or adds to the sub-goals. As the goals are completely determined, the writer starts translating them into actual text. The write and regenerate pattern is similar in some way to the explore and consolidate pattern but instead of planning, the writer is creating prose. A very small example of this is when the writer, in his planning, tries to compose the first sentence of his article. He had done the act of planning before producing this sentence and this sentence is a detailed representation of what he planned to say. After writing a sentence, the writer may see that the sentence is not only inadequate but that his goals could be expanded.

The situation or period between writing and planning, Flower and Hayes (1981) clarify, allows the writer to learn from "a failure" (p. 385) and to create a new goal. Thus, they conclude, this process of formulating and developing sub-goals, and sometimes regenerating those goals is an effective creative process. Giving special importance to the creative writer means placing the important part of creativity "in the hands of the working, thinking writer" (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 386).
**Weaknesses**

Hyland (2003) sees that the process approach has some weaknesses from the social perspective. The first weakness is that this approach view writing as "a decontextualised skill" (p. 18) by considering the individual as an isolated writer expressing personal meanings. What is needed from the writer is to rely on general principles of thinking and composing to set out and communicate their ideas. This, however, Hyland explains, would give the learner an access to be an active in processing the information but ignoring the real processes of language use. Thus, Hyland clarifies, the process approach tells how some writers write but not why certain linguistic and rhetorical choices are made by them.

The second weakness is that in the process model the teacher's role is reduced as s/he makes the students themselves respond to their writing. The third weakness is that the students in the process classroom are not provided with conscious teaching "in the structure of the target text types" (p. 19). They are expected to rewrite, or write a 'second draft' based on the marginal comments given by their teacher.

**The Genre Approaches**

**The Distinctive Features**

In spite of the dominance of the process models, Hyland (2003) states, they have, for some time, come "under siege from more socially-oriented views of writing" that do not accept "their individualism" (p. 17). Process approaches, he clarifies, have showed greater respect for individual writers and for the writing process itself, but there is little evidence to show their influence on the development of better writing in L2 contexts. The chief reason, Hyland explains, is that process approaches do not address how socially meanings are constructed and do not look beyond the confines of the individual where purposes are guided, relationships are established and where
writing is shaped. Genre-based pedagogies, Hyland made it more clear, take advantage of this deficiency giving clear and systematic explanations about how language functions in a social context are conventionalised.

Scholars in the field of genre, Hyon (1996) says, have pictured genres as “oral and written text types” described by “formal qualities and communicative purposes in a social context” (p. 695). Nevertheless, a lot of discussions of genre, as explained by Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998), use “the definitions given by Swales (1990) or Martin (1984)” (p. 308). For Martin and his colleagues, for example Martin and Rose (2003), genre is “a staged, goal-oriented social process” (p. 7). “Social”, they explain, since people take part in genres with other people; “goal-oriented” since genres are used to have things done; “staged” since it consumes a few steps to achieve the goals wanted (pp. 7-8). For Swales (1990), genre is viewed in terms of the ‘moves’ that stand for the writer’s social purpose, and comprise ‘steps’ that are optional textual parts:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. (p. 58)

For both, Swales and Martin, it is the communicative purpose which brings any genre into existence, shaping the “schematic”, or “beginning-middle-end” structure of the discourse and influencing choices of content and style (Swales, 1990, p. 58; Martin, 1985, p. 86). Moreover, the idea of genre, Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) clarify, tells about the linguistic work students should do, the kind of discourses that they should understand and bring into existence. It also helps, they explain, to understand the reason for the shape of a discourse through examining its social context and purpose.
1. Look at this letter of complaint to a shop manager. The words in the boxes describe the different parts of the letter. Put them in the correct place on the right. The first one is done for you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADDRESS OF THE PERSON YOU ARE WRITING TO</th>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>YOUR NAME</th>
<th>DEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>48 Hill Road</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design Shop</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Abbay Gate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London NWS 5AP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 November 1981</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dear Sir / Madam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am writing to complain about a hair drier bought in your shop last Saturday and about the treatment I received when I tried to return it a few days later.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I bought the hair drier – a RAV隆 405-on Wednesday 22nd November. The first time I tried to use it the handle became extremely hot and within a few minutes part of the plastic casing began to melt. I turned it off immediately and returned it with the receipt to your shop on Saturday.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I explained the situation to one of the assistant and asked for my money back but was told I had to speak to you.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfortunately you were not available that day so I am writing instead.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enclose the hair drier and a copy of the original receipt. Please send me a full refund as soon as possible.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yours faithfully</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sabrina Sari (Ms)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Hopkins, 1989, p. 26)
The task above would be of great help to the students since it provides a model for a particular genre and states the context of writing. The context includes the purpose of writing such genre (i.e. a complaint) and the audience to whom such complaint is written (i.e. a shop manager). This would not only help students write effectively but also be aware of what constitutes a particular genre.

Having pondered the task above, the task seems to mainly pay attention to the rhetorical structure of a ‘complaint’ genre and the language used to achieve this particular genre. This, however, would not help the students go through the process of writing, namely, the process of exploring which is really an aspect needed for students’ writing improvement.

Nevertheless, genre theory, as explained by Hyland (2003), tries to get grips with both ways individuals use language so as to orient to and explain given communicative situations, and use “this knowledge for literacy education” (p. 22). To explain this theory, three schools have emerged which tried to explain what genre theory means.

**The Three Schools of Genre Theory**

Hyon (1996), however, clarifies that there are three broad, overlapping schools of genre theory that can be identified. The first one is the “New rhetoric approach”, which explains “a body of North American scholarship” depending on different “disciplines concerned with L1 teaching” such as “rhetoric”, first language “composition studies”, and “professional writing” (p. 696).

The genre scholars of these areas mentioned above, Hyon (1996) clarifies, are different from those in “ESP” since they concentrated mainly on “the situational contexts” (p. 696) of the genres rather than forms and focused on “the social purposes” (p. 696), or actions, which are achieved by these genres within these
situations (Devitt, 1993; Schryer, 1993). Thus, a number of scholars in the ‘New Rhetoric approach’ used “ethnographic” methods rather than “linguistic” ones “for analyzing texts” (p. 696). They focused chiefly on “the rhetorical contexts” in which genres are used rather than “detailed analyses of text elements” (Schryer, 1993, p. 201).

The second approach, as indicated by Hyon (1993), pays attention to the “linguistic features of different genres” (p. 697). This approach, Hyland (2003) says, is “linguistic” (p. 21) since it views genre as “a class of structured communicative events used by the members of discourse communities who share social purposes” (Swales, 1990, pp. 45-47). These purposes, according to Swales 1990:58 definition, are the reasons behind a genre and help in shaping its structure and in choosing its content and style.

The third approach, Hyon (1993: 696) continues to explain, is known as “Systematic functional linguistics” (p. 696). Hyland (2003) makes it clear, based on Christie and Martin 1997, that this approach puts emphasis on “the purposeful, interactive, and sequential” (p. 21) features of varied genres and how language has a systematic relationship with context through examples of “lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features” (p. 22). Thus, there are different approaches which define and analyse the spoken and written genres. But what do we know about the cultural aspect of genres? The following lines will try to give a brief illustration about such an issue.

**The Analysis of Genres and the Cultural Aspect**

Johns (1997) stressed the importance of the cultural aspect of genres when they are examined. Examining texts as samples of genres, Johns (1997) holds, encourages the examination of “the structure and content of written discourses” as well as the way “these internal textual elements” get affected by other texts and
“social and cultural” (p. 38) aspects in a given context. She also holds that help should be given to students in conceptualising the texts in everyday life as genre samples and therefore “socially constructed” which in turn would help them in conceptualising academic discourses as “socially constructed” genres as well (pp. 38-39).

Nevertheless, Johns (1997) says that when genres are examined, more than one text should be attempted so as to help students speculate both the similarity with other texts and the other thing which has been changed for a given context. She examined the genre of “wedding invitations” (p. 39) in two different languages: English and Spanish. The texts were exhibited to the audiences to name the genre. The audience were then asked about the reason which got them know that these are wedding invitations and the clues which caused them to put them into the same category.

The audiences, Johns (1997) explains, used two aspects of genre knowledge which gave them the clues: “content and form” (p. 39). The content involves lexis such as “wedding or marriage, and the names of the bride and groom, and the time and place of the ceremony” (p. 39). The forms entail the appearance of each element of invitation separately and are conventionalised. These features, she clarifies, help experienced readers and writers in distinguishing texts from the genres. The other element of genre knowledge, she also explains, is that which audiences gave to these texts — it is the “communicative purpose” (p. 39). These wedding invitations are sent to ask others to take part in marriage celebrations. Thus, experienced readers and writers across the world, Johns holds, have produced the idea of “a wedding invitation schema” (p. 39) and thereby they have acknowledged a genre pattern.

Johns (1997), then, identifies the difference that had existed between the two invitations. The English text, she makes it clear, deletes the names of the parents, an issue that was talked over between the bride and groom and their families. On the
contrary, the Spanish text exposes the names of both sets of parents, as well as the names of people taking part in the ceremony who are very important to the weddings in this culture.

However, the wedding genre of invitation in my country, Yemen, is similar to the Spanish one as it states the names of both sets of parents. But it is dissimilar from both wedding genres of invitation – the English and the Spanish since it neither deletes the names of the parents nor includes the names of the people taking part in the ceremony. It is also different from both texts as it mentions only the names of the male parents whose family members are to take part in the ceremony.

In addition, the Yemeni text mentions the name of the bridegroom and deletes the bride’s name which is referred to by ‘the daughter of (They mention her father’s name). Thus, in spite of some repeated elements from text to text in this and other genres, John (1997) concludes, every text is subjected to be revised on the basis of “the social forces in its particular context” (p. 41).

**Genre Awareness and Analysis**

Morgan (2007) enquires whether a “linguistic” (p. 12) knowledge or having something to say make a good writer. Nevertheless, she confesses that the two features have their effect on improving writing but they are not the most important ones. She asserts that “knowledge of genre” (p. 12) - the way we examine the “communicative purpose and use knowledge of previous texts” (p. 12) is the most important factor in writing effective texts.

Morgan puts forward that raising awareness of genre properties should have a room in the domain of teaching writing as well. She, therefore, believes that ‘appropriacy’ and ‘accuracy’ can contribute to yielding effective texts. She acknowledges that grammatical errors may not be serious and thereby not rendering
the text incoherent. But, grammatical errors, she confesses, sometimes, prevent understanding of a text. Similarly, genres awareness, Morgan makes it clear, is also important since genres are connected with "the communicative purpose, roles and the culture in which they are found" (2007, p. 12).

Therefore, Morgan (2007) suggests that students in class should be aware of the ways genres are constructed through the teacher providing them with "language-awareness activities" (p. 12). Taking the perspective in mind, Morgan (2007) proposes that such activities should be ended with "a more systematic" (p. 14) analysis of texts.

Morgan (2007) clarifies that in the awareness-raising stage students should know that a text can have two or more purposes. She suggests that, before starting a deep analysis of a genre, students should be able, in the initial stages, to say the probable purposes of different genres. Then, they can deeply study the genres paying attention to the lexis and grammar of the target text.

In genre analysis, Morgan (2007) explains, the students will not only analyse the "linguistic and non-linguistic" (p. 14) characteristics of the texts but also their socially-constructed reasons. She also clarifies that students may study authentic genres having similar purpose and understand the way they are different from each other relying on the reason of constructing such genres and the knowledge of audience as well as the mode of transferring these genres.

Morgan (2007) asserts the fact that awareness-raising phase is the basis of any genre writing since it views writing as a socially-constructed task where the context of writing judges what to include in the target genre and the way it should be shaped. Morgan (2007) recommends that students in class should be supplied with the target genres and that they should be helped to attend to the rhetorical and grammatical
characteristics in order to help them gain an awareness which would help them later write effectively.

**Levels of Teaching Writing**

What is an important point here to refer to after all, is to expose the similarity genre approaches have with the product approaches. Callaghan, knapp, and Noble (1993), Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) explain, describe three stages in genre approach. In the first stage, a model of a particular genre is given stressing the text's social purpose and the way it is achieved using its schematic structure and its linguistic features. The second stage is the stage of constructing a text of the genre by the teacher and students. The final stage is the independent construction of texts by students.

This structure, however, parallels the stages in the product approaches. Thus, learning writing using genre approaches is similar to that in product approaches in using modeling texts, imitating them and in consciously understanding the grammatical structures. Genre approaches, Badger and White (2000) state, are "an extension of product approaches" (p. 155) as they are mainly concerned with linguistic knowledge. But they are unlike product approaches since they stress the fact that writing differs according to the social contexts where they are produced and thereby the existence of different kinds of writing that are tied to different situations such as "research article" and "sales letter" (Flower & Hayes, 1993, p. 307).

**Weaknesses**

Nonetheless, the merits and demerits of the genre approach can clearly be explicated through the results of the workshop done by Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998). They have conducted a workshop where their participants have put genre into practice in different L2 teaching learning contexts. Their participants, they explain,
viewed the genre approach as useful at beginner or intermediate levels of proficiency in a second language since it makes them confident and capable of producing a text that fulfils its purpose. Genre-based approaches, Kay and Dudley-Evans also explain, make students feel safe in writing through providing them with useful models. Nevertheless, participants also expressed their fears of the approach to be prescriptive rather than descriptive through telling them the way certain texts should be written and thereby the absence of creative and motivated learners.

Comparing Product, Process, and Genre Approaches

Hyland (2003) clarifies that the different perspectives: process, purpose, and context supply teachers with “curriculum options or complementary alternatives” (p. 22) for course designers, which have implications for pedagogy and learning. He also clarifies that “the strengths of one might complement the weaknesses of the other” (p. 23).

Badger and White (2000) explain that the weaknesses of product approaches are that the cognitive skills such as “planning a text” are of minor roles, and that the learners’ “knowledge and skills” are underestimated (p. 157). But their strengths are that they admit the learners’ need for linguistic knowledge about texts and that imitation is a method through which people can learn.

The weaknesses of process approaches, Badger and White expound, are that they take into granted that writing is produced by certain processes, giving less importance to the other kind of texts writers produce and the reason for producing such texts. Besides, they do not provide learners with sufficient linguistic input to help them write effectively. The strengths of these approaches are that they know the importance of the writing skills and the learners’ skills they bring with them - their role in developing “the writing ability” (P. 157).
According to Badger and White, the weakness of genre approaches is that they underestimate the skills used for producing a text and view learners' role as highly "passive" (p. 157). But their strength is represented in acknowledging that writing is tied to "a social situation", showing "a particular purpose", and can take place through conscious "imitation and analysis" (p. 157).

What one can come up with, however, is that there is a need to include the insights of product, process, and genre approaches through, for example, dealing with one approach and adapt it. In addition, there is still a need for an approach, which combine the three approaches that can be named as a process-genre approach.

The Act of Combining: Writing in the Process-Genre Approach

In combining the different orientations, Hyland (2003) says, the most appropriate of the available approaches should be used to help learners "understand writing and learning to write" (p. 26). Therefore, teachers in the classroom should familiarise students with texts and "reader expectations" as well as help them understand the "writing processes, language forms and genres" (p. 26). In addition, there is a need, he concludes, for showing a deep understanding and awareness of the students' practices and perceptions of writing they bring to the class. These practices and perceptions should be the basis to rely on so that students see writing as relevant to "particular groups and contexts" (p. 26).

Genre analysis, Badger and White (2000) explain, concentrates on the language contained in a given text and what is needed is to include the processes writers use when producing a text showing them "under the term 'Process genre'" (p. 158). Moreover, teachers, in the writing classroom, must produce the situation and learners should find and discover the purpose and other elements of the social context. The teacher, they clarify, does not, in large cases, know what learners know or can do.
before the class. Therefore, learners should try to produce a text in a process genre and should be compared with probably the teacher’s one. Then, the teacher, based on this comparison, can find out whether they want more input or skills.

Thus, when learners have little knowledge, Badger and White (2000) make it clear, "the teacher, other learners", and instances of the "target genre" should be used as a source of knowledge (p. 159). Teachers can offer the wanted input through instructing learners and other learners can do the same in a related context of group work but more probably the key source of input about contextual and linguistic knowledge in a genre process approach is the activities devoted to "language awareness" (p. 159).

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed L2 literature that offered extensive discussion of and guidelines for, the practices and processes of teaching L2 writing. It has provided brief definitions about English for academic purposes (EAP), its history of development and some specific earlier studies in EAP as well as the teaching of EAP. It threw lights on needs analysis and assessments in EAP. This was followed by EAP writing and three specific studies related to the process approach. It then attempted to discuss the academic genres such as academic textbooks, lectures and research articles. This was followed by topics and issues done in writing research.

The chapter has also articulated the theoretical aspects to the study. It has discussed the relationship between language proficiency and academic performance. It has surveyed the four views on writing processes and therefore provided the different aspects involved in the process of writing. The expressive approach views writing as a means of expressing genuine feelings and thoughts of the writer.
The cognitive approach views the process of writing as various processes of planning, organising, composing, revising etc. These processes are recursive in a way a writer goes through the different stages backward and forward several times.

The social context approach looks at writing within a social environment, whereas the discourse looks at writing as a part of any particular discourse. These different orientations of writing would give the teachers an insight into the process of writing and would help them understand the writing of the students and therefore teach them how to write better.

It has also discussed the writing strategies. This discussion would help the teacher develop a methodology for strategy instruction and training in the use of strategies which in turn would help the students improve their writing skills.

It has further discussed the role of teacher in the process of composing and the different kinds of feedback through which a teacher can contribute to improving students' L2 writing. It has finally discussed the major different approaches to the teaching of writing highlighting their strengths and weaknesses, suggesting their combination to achieve a better and more synthetic approach to the teaching of writing.

The next chapter, however, will explore the use of genre analysis in all the writing coursebooks used in the Departments of English/Colleges of Education at Aden University. It will then discuss the impact of genre analysis on the teaching of writing for academic purposes.

The chapter will also highlight the place of context in semantics and pragmatics as well as its importance. It will conclude with a clarification of the place of context in the writing coursebooks used in the Departments of English/Colleges of Education at Aden University.