CHAPTER III

STUDENT'S NEEDS

A description of students' needs in writing was undertaken initially with a view to discovering the different types of writing students were required to attempt at the undergraduate level both in and out of the classroom. This survey, at first, took the form of an inquiry which depended on students responses to written questionnaires and interviews with teachers. But such a study presented only external information about various types of writing which students listed as being required in their academic and social milieu and did not provide information about what students were required to learn in order to be able to write adequately. Therefore a far more detailed analysis of the writing of individual performers was undertaken.

The following description therefore presents students' needs on three planes:

PART ONE A DESCRIPTION OF STUDENTS' REQUIREMENTS IN TERMS OF THE WRITING ACTIVITIES WHICH THEY PERFORM/OR WISH TO PERFORM IN ENGLISH.

PART TWO A DESCRIPTION OF STUDENTS' WRITING AS PERCEIVED BY THE TEACHER OR GROUPS OF TEACHERS IN ORDER TO DETERMINE HOW IMPROVEMENTS IN STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE CAN BE BROUGHT ABOUT.
PART ONE

A DESCRIPTION OF STUDENTS' NEEDS IN TERMS OF WHAT THEY REQUIRE THE LANGUAGE FOR:

This was attempted through student opinion surveys in classrooms to determine what speaking and writing tasks students themselves needed to perform in their study of English. A rudimentary format was given to a batch of 75 students of a I PUC class who had opted for Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Mathematics as their major or special subjects. They were required to note exercises they would like introduced/taught in the classroom and mark their preferences in the types of written activities they wanted to learn. They had to indicate the exercises they wanted taught in the classroom and add to a given list any they individually wanted help in. The following information was received from the 75 students, whose subjects of study included English and a regional language of their choice, besides Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Mathematics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activities/Exercises/Tasks/Items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. To introduce a speaker or chairman at a meeting = 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To make a vote of thanks = 37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. To speak at an interview = 65
4. To fill a questionnaire form = 56
5. To write a letter of application = 56
6. To reply to any advertisement = 59

Items added by individual students:

TABLE II

Learning items requested by individual students:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of the exercise</th>
<th>No. of students who mentioned it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To take part in a group discussion</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To speak when one has been introduced for the first time</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Public speaking</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Speaking to highly educated people</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Speaking to relatives</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Debates, quizzes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. To listen to and understand English programmes, debates</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Long essay writing</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Letters of all kinds</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Grammar</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Dictionary work</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Tackling written entrance exams for various careers</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Reading magazines, newspaper editorials and newspapers</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Another survey required students to state the areas of knowledge in which they wished to improve their vocabulary. This was formulated with a view to perceiving areas in which students personal interests and reading habits lay. Some categories were given and students were asked to add their own.

**TABLE III**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas in which students wished to improve their vocabulary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Language of Science = 71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Language of best sellers = 61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Language of sports = 56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Language of politics = 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Language of Economics = 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Language of textbooks = 31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Specific subjects which individual students mentioned**

(Personal/Individual preferences)

<p>| |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Architecture = 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Foreign words in English = 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Legal language = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sports = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Accountancy = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Music = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philately = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aironics = 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. Ships = 1
11. Arts = 1
12. Botany, Zoology = 1
13. Religion = 1
14. General Knowledge texts = 1

Observations on the classroom survey

1. Students express a need for spoken and written activities rather than reading and listening ones. This observation is confirmed by Shaw who undertook a survey amongst 342 final year bachelor degree students, in six colleges in Hyderabad, belonging to three departments: English, Engineering and Commerce - a study undertaken jointly by the CIEFL and the Institute of East-West Centre, Hawaii. Shaw notes that the majority of the students in the Engineering, Commerce and English classes stated that they wanted their speaking and writing skills to be their best, and he interprets it thus: "The students are saying that their receptive skills of reading and listening are generally much better than their active skills of writing and speaking" and goes on to expand this as "it could also mean that they felt that the educational system was not giving them the skills that they desired". This pointed to the need for more productive, as contrasted to receptive, activities in the classroom.

2. Students wished to learn how to perform written tasks more than spoken ones. Amongst the six items listed in TABLE I students revealed a high preference for all the three writing activities while they accorded this same high rating to only one of the spoken ones. As noted in the table 78% of the class wished to learn how to reply to an advertisement, 74% to fill in a questionnaire and letters of application while only 47% required exercises on how to introduce a speaker or chairman and how to make a vote of thanks. If writing is the students priority, an indepth study of the area is necessary for the teacher.

3. The questionnaire also reveals that students' needs are related to their careers, academic and social requirements as well as their personal requirements. This demonstrates the necessity of familiarizing the learner with a spectrum of types of exercises. Some of the types of writing students would have to attempt during and after they leave college would be questionnaires, letters of various types involving different readerships, such as applications, requests, demands, complaints, letters to the editor, and friendly letters. More pertinent academic study would be the ability to take notes at a lecture or demonstration - for science as well as subjects, together with the writing of project reports subjects of study. Reports of students activities, as union activities, the college magazine, sports and college functions, would be important too.
4. The areas in which students wish to improve their vocabulary indicate their areas of interest. Science takes the highest preference amongst these students followed by best sellers, sports, politics, economics and textbooks. Interest in science can be ascribed to the fact that students have opted for it in their course of study as well as to the difficulty they experience in keeping up with the terminology being constantly generated in these new and advancing areas of study. There appears to be a vast desire to widen knowledge and since English (rather than the Indian languages) is an international language in which information is disseminated widely students wish to procure this first hand information in English rather than wait for it to be translated into the mother tongues. This attitude towards English is collaborated by Shaw's report where, given a list of twenty-five reasons for studying English, the Engineering, Commerce and English students recorded the highest response to the following motives.

(Reasons and percentages of respondents selecting or rejecting the following statements as personal reasons for studying English)

"a. I studied English because I will need it for my work.

   English: 93/4   Engineering: 95/3   Commerce: 94/4
b. I studied English primarily because it is required in our system.

English: 85/10 Engineering: 78/16 Commerce: 79/10

There is, as noticed, the great desire expressed by the students in Shaw's survey to learn English for reasons of career and academic development.

But besides purely academic pursuits, the students in the survey undertaken here reveal an interest in areas not closely connected with their area of science, and demand vocabulary in areas such as philately, religion, accountancy, arts and a knowledge of foreign words in English. It would be difficult to fulfil all these needs but the teacher would have to consider motivating the learner by catering to his interest in these areas as far as possible - in devising reading, writing, listening activities or visuals he can respond to.

5. It was also noted that students who were not efficient performers in the language were not able to define further areas which they would require help in, while those who were more efficient performers and had little difficulty with classroom texts went on to enumerate other areas such as architecture, music, philately, electronics, legal language and accountancy. Such students were able to define their needs more clearly.

Inadequate performers, on the other hand, restricted their further needs to such items as textbooks, dictionary work, letter writing, essay writing and grammar-reiterating activities already being dealt with in the class, and thus expressing their inability to cope with language work in the class. The better performers could design their requirements according to the personal - academic - social scale they chose to formulate for themselves while the latter expressed their inability to come to terms with class activities themselves, by refraining from going on to define further needs.

6. It was also realized that such delineation of needs could be a useful tactic in promoting self-learning activities. The teacher can help the learner to focus on his learning requirements as well as gain useful feedback regarding the learner, his frame of reference, pursuits, interest and motivations. Teaching would then begin from the learner's starting point and not the teacher's commencing stage. However, some of the problems that can arise, also noted by Allwright, are that (i) students are often not clear about their requirements (ii) it would be necessary for teachers to enable them to perceive such needs (iii) even perception of their needs does not always result in students pursuing such wants. (iv) Teachers would have to devise ways in which to enable

students to progress in follow-up studies taking far more responsibility - deeper, insightful - into students learning. It is observed, from what has been stated, that there are items in learning which learners think they require, as well as essentials that teachers decide learners' require. In pedagogic practice, learners perceptions regarding their requirements should be taken into consideration in course design but, as Allwright advocates, it is necessary for teachers to help learners to think more carefully about their demands so that they understand their intrinsic requirements.

PART TWO

A DESCRIPTION OF STUDENTS WRITING AS PERCEIVED BY THE TEACHER OR GROUPS OF TEACHERS

A. STUDENTS' WRITING NEEDS - AS STATED BY TEACHERS' OF CO-CURRICULAR SUBJECTS

In order to perceive students' needs from the teacher's point of view a survey of subject teachers' opinion was sought. A number of teachers for science and arts subjects were interviewed and the following information was compiled.

1. It was stated that students who were poor performers in their mother tongue were also poor performers in English. In the case of Arts students such poor performance was noticed in their major subjects - History, Economics,
etc. - even if they were required to write in their mother tongue. This indicated a need for providing different learning strategies in reading and writing for such students independently of the language involved.

2. Science teachers expressed two different viewpoints, regarding the same aspect of student performance. They were unsure whether remediation or measures towards it should begin with the teacher or the learner.

a) Teachers teaching subjects where greater description was involved, such as Botany, Zoology (taught in English), stated that one of the main defects of their students writing was that they did not present their content/facts in a logical form and that it was the duty of the English language teachers to teach such organization. One Zoology teacher commented that if subject teachers presented their material in a logical fashion they would receive answers in like form. This not only revealed teachers attitudes towards their own subject teaching - but also directed the researcher to students needs in writing.

b) Those who dealt with subjects like Physics, Mathematics and Chemistry said that the wide use of symbols in their subjects made syntax less of a hurdle for those who could not express themselves in words, using correct grammatical structures and vocabulary. Such students conveyed their meaning in symbols and diagrams pertaining
to Chemistry, Physics etc. One Chemistry teacher presented
the written attempt of a student with very little language
at his command putting his knowledge across—somehow
or the other—in the Chemistry symbols he knew. The
student had had no English language training at the school
level.

The general outcome of these interviews was:
i) At the lowest level, it was necessary to teach
learners enough English to express themselves correctly—as
noted by the Physics, Mathematics and Chemistry teachers.
ii) On the other hand, it was necessary to teach organi-
zation to learners who did not have sufficient ability
with the language, as requested by the Botany and Zoology
teachers.
iii) It was also realised that the nature of the tasks
these teachers were dealing with brought about different
viewpoints, and therefore enlarged the responsibility
of the teacher regarding the type of tasks he could
introduce in the language classroom if he wanted to increase
his learner’s repertoire.

While the interviews with teachers introduced
important perspectives, the students’ survey of required
writing activities appeared to provide insufficient infor-
mation on deeper writing requirements. What was obtained
were lists of writing tasks which indicated students’
priorities in terms of the end products in which they
wished to gain proficiency. But these lists, pertinent and relevant because they indicated students writing concerns in the educational and social milieu, did not suggest to the teacher the means whereby the student could be guided into performing such written tasks efficiently. Thus the survey of student opinion regarding 'needs and 'wants' revealed the distinction between "what the learner has to do with the language once he has learned it" and "what the learner has to do in order to learn". The former, according to Widdowson, can be regarded as "aims", the latter as "objectives". Widdowson (1983) goes on to state that needs analyses have in the past concerned themselves more with "aims" than with "objectives". He advocates greater attention being paid to "objectives" though he concedes that "aims" are the first step towards defining "objectives". Widdowson aligns himself with Bloom (1956/72) in his educational objectives:

"'By educational objectives, we mean explicit formulations of the ways in which students are expected to be changed by the educative process. (Bloom 1972: 12,26)'." Educational objectives according to Bloom are determined by examining the students' level of development, their interests and the demands which are made on young

5. Ibid., p. 21.
people and adults, provision for work and extension of self. Another area in which objectives can be determined is from the nature of the subject matter itself - the areas of learning that can evolve, the manner in which one subject is related to other subjects and educational psychology. Bloom insists that educational goals must be time and situation bound - should be realistic and be determined by the students to be involved and the time available by them to achieve such goals.

Widdowson also mentions the needs analysis developed by Richterich which takes into consideration learner variables and the inadequacy of specifications which identify objectives of target behaviour. A needs analysis would have to include also other influences: partners in learning such as teachers, other learners, textbook writers, as well as other considerations such as career expectations, learner type, teacher type etc. The variables are many and indeterminate and therefore students' requirements cannot be pre-determined.

An analysis of students needs in terms of what they require the language for will only provide part of the information regarding students wants. A more insightful understanding of students requirements when they write can be obtained only through a deeper analysis of their actual writing.
B. STUDENTS' WRITING NEEDS - AS STATED BY COLLEGE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS

In furtherance of the distinction made earlier with regard to needs - that it can refer to the learner's situational requirements on the one hand, and what the learner has actually to do in order to learn, on the other, Widdowson states that in order to comply with the first type of needs, it may be necessary "to delimit initially the language to be included in a course" but that the second type of prerequisite involves a knowledge of "learning needs". He states that it is necessary to determine needs and purposes in more educational terms - not as "a matter of developing a restricted competence to cope with a specified set of tasks, but of developing a general capacity for language use." This movement away from frameworks which takes into account the language of the target situation and subject specific skills is reiterated by Mountford who states that

"Needs is a very ambiguous term and while sponsors' views are undeniably important, needs as felt by the learner i.e. their wants or wishes, may well be in conflict. Teacher's needs and learning needs - as well as teaching needs and learning needs (which are not the same thing) must also be considered. The concept is inherently rich and complex". 9

7. Ibid.
8. Ibid., p.6.
With these views in mind it became necessary in this study to gain a perspective of students' writing needs from English language teachers - with the focus being directed on the learner. This was obtained through:

a. A questionnaire and activity study based on pre-designed materials which English language teachers used in undergraduate classes to teach composition and writing.

b. A worksheet on tasks and activities which teachers advocated for the teaching of writing.

c. An examination of the criteria which teachers used in evaluating students' writing.

d. Problems in undergraduate students' writing as perceived by a group of teachers.

Teachers' views in questionnaires provided insights into learning needs and the factors that contribute to a satisfactory teaching - learning environment. But the concept of 'learning needs' appears complex even if one considers only the learner (and not the teacher). Individual differences of age, experience, motivation and perception have to be taken into account as well as the social context of adult learning including abilities, motives, values, career and educational aspirations, and past learning
experience. The practising teachers who responded to these questionnaires were taking these various aspects of learning into account, in the preferences they expressed, and thus providing integrated statements of the factors that should be considered for the construction of learning materials in the classroom. Their answers suggested aspects that they held would encourage the writing process. The factors suggested by the teachers would be valuable in constructing stimulus materials that would provoke writing rather than predetermine it. On the other hand, teachers' evaluation of students writing offered views on deeper performance requirements. Therefore the examination of 'learning needs' in this study has concerned itself with:

I. The factors that influence the development of learning materials as observed by teachers.

II. Performance requirements in students writing — as expressed by teachers.

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE CONSTRUCTION OF LEARNING MATERIALS

The studies conducted here provided information on the type of materials teachers selected as teaching aids, and their reasons for such selection.

A. A questionnaire survey concerned with predesigned materials which English language college teachers themselves used with their undergraduate classes to teach composition and writing.
1. Description of the questionnaire.

A questionnaire was administered to a group of 25 teachers at a two day seminar entitled Workshop on ELT in India: The Dynamics of Change, held in Bangalore, in July 1985. Fifteen of these teachers, whose views are quoted in this study, taught at undergraduate colleges where courses in arts, science and commerce subjects were offered. Co-curricular education - in science, arts and commerce subjects - in these colleges was also in English. Thus the experiential background of these teachers - with regard to English language teaching - was similar. They also formed a homogeneous group with regard to age (late 20's to early 40's) length of teaching experience (5 - 10 years), and exposure to ELT seminars besides displaying a very positive approach to teaching.

The questionnaire was a section of an elicitation-presentation - response programme (developed with a study group of three other teachers). It sought to elicit from undergraduate college teachers the learning needs of their students - more specifically, the type of materials they found suitable for the linguistic requirements of their learners. This was followed by the presentation and activity session.

The questionnaire comprised seven questions some of which required simple affirmation or negation, others offered choices which could be marked easily with a cross
or tick, and the remaining allowed for more extended teacher response and degree of detail the individual teacher wished to employ.

2. Teachers' responses

The first question required that the teachers mark which of a list of four textbooks designed on the basis of current linguistic theory — many of which have been examined in the previous chapter — they had used in their classrooms. Out of the 15 respondents, three teachers had used Tickoo and Sasikumar's *Writing with a Purpose*, two had used Freeman's *Written Communication* and two had used *Strengthen Your Writing*.

The second question required the teachers to mention which of the texts they had used more than others and to provide reasons for their answer. Eleven out of the fifteen teachers offered no response to this question, one stated that she had used Tickoo and Sasikumar's *Writing with a Purpose* more than the others because she had "come upon it first" and that she had used the "sections on paragraph writing in PUC classes". She had used Sarah Freeman's *Written Communication in English* "for tasks in problem-solving and study skills in the Bridge Course" (*The Bridge Course* is a remedial course which individual colleges arranged for students who were weak in English in order to improve their skills). Another stated that she had used Tickoo and Sasikumar's *Writing with a Purpose*
because she had found "the information on letter writing and paragraphing useful for my purpose - that is teaching PUC's". A third stated that she employed Written Communication for this reason: "I had come across the book before Narayanswamy's. However, I find Narayanswamy's book more useful for teaching at degree level and plan to use it for my teaching now". Another teacher reiterated the use of Strengthen Your Writing "for more realistic written exercises".

The third question required the teachers to mention the titles of other coursebooks they had found helpful. Seven out of the fifteen did not respond to this question, one stated she had not found any other coursebook useful, while two stated they prepared their own material. The texts the other teachers said they used were:

1. Stannard Allen - *Living English Structure*
2. Thomson, A.J. and Martinet, A.V. - *A Practical English Grammar*
3. Heaton, J.B. - *Studying in English*
4. Jupp & Milne - *English Sentence Structure*
5. Forrester, J - *Teaching without Lecturing*

The fourth question required the teachers to mark, in their order of preference, what they looked for in a new language textbook. The choices they were offered were:
i) Exercises which make it necessary for students to think out the answers themselves.

ii) Reading passages which have new information for the students.

iii) Exercises which help the student to practice what the examination requires.

All fifteen teachers, marked the first choice as their highest preference. Amongst the other two choices the second was marked by seven teachers, of whom four accorded it second preference, and three the third position. The last was marked by eight teachers with an equal number giving it a second or third choice.

The fifth question required teachers to state what they wanted language course books to include. Here it was discovered that though many of the fifteen teachers had not answered the questions on the textbooks they were using, twelve out of the fifteen teachers answered this question. What was indicated will be presented later.

The sixth question enquired how teachers taught writing, if materials were found unsuitable. They were asked to state whether they devised materials themselves or managed without materials using chalk and blackboard only. It was found that thirteen out of the fifteen teachers depended on chalk and blackboard to teach writing while eight out of the fifteen devised materials.
The final question required teachers to state how they devised such materials. Five teachers offered no response to this question, two mentioned that they had not devised materials and another two mentioned that they had devised materials "sometimes" but did not illustrate or expand the methods they had employed. Amongst the seven who did plan materials for their classes, some of the criteria they employed appeared to be - "on the basis of the lessons" prescribed which were content-based texts (mentioned by one teacher); according to the "demands of the exam" (mentioned by two teachers); "depending on the situation" (mentioned again by two teachers) - where one referred to "the constraints of time and the kind of class I'm teaching"; "from my own experience" expressed another, and based "on the use of models" stated two others. They also mentioned their resources. One stated that she had "used the materials I've found useful in a variety of books and made......exercises for my students" while the other who had stated earlier that she had depended on experience to devise certain tasks reported devising other tasks, business and application letters by "briefly checking......in books on letter writing".

Since a dissatisfaction with existing materials was expressed, and it was seen that teachers spent much time collecting exercises and materials from various sources, it was decided to make a further study of the nature of exercises which had special use for teachers.
With this in view a presentation was made of the existing course books mentioned in Chapter II in terms of the explicit approach (linguistic or functional) and methodology (teacher or learner centred). This served as a context and background for the activity that followed.

Two sets of exercises A and B were taken from the coursebooks mentioned above. Both exercises required the student to write a description - in Exercise A, a description of the heart lung machine (given a diagram) and in Exercise B a recipe (given some written guidelines). The teacher participants working in small groups of five were asked to state how these exercises could be taught in the classroom and secondly, to list the advantages and disadvantages of using each.

I. Exercise A - All fifteen teachers maintained that this exercise could be used in the classroom and went on to list different written activities - involving verbal forms, sequential organization, formation of a description and exercises involving transfer of information (for example, a set of instructions from a description) which they could construct from it. Some also added oral and written question-answer strategies and others group work. Two out of the fifteen teachers objected to the content of exercise A being scientific but stated that they would have little objection if it was non-scientific. One teacher held that a description of a heart lung machine
constituted a difficult written exercise and when asked what he would himself suggest answered "a simpler machine". It was observed that some teachers maintained that Exercise A was different from Exercise B while two teachers held the view that they were essentially the same.

2. **Exercise B** - Once again there was unanimity. All the teachers maintained that this exercise was totally unsuitable for teaching. They stated that it involved more reading than writing and that it was too wordy and long.

When asked to state what advantages could be derived from using Exercises A and B, the teachers maintained that Exercise A offered more advantages and went on to state that it provided scope for the teacher and scope for learner activity, while Exercise B provided very little scope for the teacher.

In conclusion it could be stated that materials that serve as an impetus for written activity and are more malleable (that is materials that can be more easily shaped by the teacher to the classroom requirements) would be more acceptable to the teaching community than those that are not.

B. **Worksheet**

As the previous activities had provided an overview of the types of materials teachers required in their work setting, a worksheet-out-um-questionnaire was designed
to provide some models and materials in order to pinpoint the exact types of exercises teachers found relevant, and the reasons why. The worksheet was a preface to an oral evaluation activity where teachers were presented with the answers of two undergraduate learners to a writing task which involved description and comparison of two historical monuments.

The first exercise on the worksheet-cum-questionnaire called for students' ability to abbreviate lexical items according to standard or personal norms. When questioned, the younger teachers with two to five years' experience wrote that the skill involved was "precision: sense of notetaking", "the ability to abbreviate intelligibly", "knowledge of abbreviations" and "vocabulary". When required to state why such knowledge would be necessary for students, some teachers looked upon it as a time-saving device in writing, one mentioned that it was useful for science students while others looked upon it as an exercise that "facilitates better writing". They stated that the task would be useful in notetaking, lecture notes, reports, journalism, official writing and diary keeping.

The second activity involved examining a passage (a report on a bank robbery) given for reading comprehension where students were expected to supply facts from the reading passage under the nominal headings given. The teachers stated that this exercise taught students
"comprehension and note taking skills", "editing", "specific comprehension of an unseen text", "investigative report writing".

The third exercise involved reading comprehension of two newspaper reports on the same topic followed by questions on the two passages leading to paragraph writing. Some teachers maintained that the exercise was "partly" or "to a large extent" similar to the previous exercise while the other half maintained that they were dissimilar. They all maintained that the three exercises described so far dealt with "note making", "note taking" or "comprehension and writing". They stated that the second exercise, where facts had to be supplied under certain headings, and the cloze type writing task provided the student with more support and guidance than the third exercise where students were required to select facts, write them in sentence form in response to comprehension questions and reorder the whole when writing a paragraph.

The fourth exercise required the students to read short excerpts and say where they would find such pieces of writing - options being provided for the latter. The teachers, depending on their ELT awareness, said such an exercise demanded that students make use of "their previous experience", "general knowledge", "exposure and knowledge of registers", and "contextualisation, logic and reasoning". They all maintained that students
needed to be made aware of this aspect of writing and offered the following reasons: it brings home to the learner "the differences in the mode of writing", "exposes them to different dimensions of written materials", helps to "bring to their individual writing their knowledge of men and matters", assists them to "identify things and makes learning writing easier". Besides they maintained that students "would have to encounter some or all of them (such aspects of writing) at some time or other".

The fifth exercise required the student to select generalisations and examples from short excerpts where controlled writing had been employed. The teachers stated that such writing was useful as it directed the students' attention to the need for "details" in writing, mentioned that "this awareness might encourage awareness of a very specific nature", focus on "close reading of the passage, logic, reasoning", "logical delineation of ideas", "argumentation" and "the nature of paragraph writing". They stated that the written activities in which such knowledge would prove useful were "reports", "precis", "investigative journalism", "articles for newspapers and magazines", "analysis and essay writing" and "general creative writing for debatable topics".

The sixth exercise encouraged the student to use the information provided in the earlier exercise to select a generalization from a given passage (where less controlled writing had been employed) and to supply an example.
The final exercise presented two facts each of which was written in two or three different ways to show changes of meaning. Students were required to select the fact that was the most general and the one that was most specific, as well as the type of specific information involved. Interestingly, half the teachers who correctly delineated the skill involved did not think that such detailed and specific practice in studying writing was necessary for learners though they stated that such exercises would aid in "language ability tests", making up "surveys" and "writing scientific reports".

It was then pointed out that the earlier exercises, in the worksheet, highlighted certain areas in which students writing could improve. The teachers were asked to list out other areas. The following were mentioned: "skill in understanding, writing briefly to the point and making notes", "organization of ideas", "argumentative writing - presenting a convincing point of view using "data analysis", "essays, reports, notes-making", "creative writing".

What was derived from this study was data on types of exercises that teachers believed were necessary for their undergraduate students and reasons for their approval. It was interesting to note that though all the teachers approved of written activities, which involved active processing, control in writing and organization, they
also required that such exercises be at certain levels of generality, and not too detailed or specific, thus allowing greater freedom to the learner.

**Implications with regard to learning needs:**

These two activities, the questionnaire and the worksheet, highlighted features of learning materials which teachers stated were necessary for their undergraduate learners.

1. The first activity showed that about half the teachers used materials based on current linguistic approaches in which writing was taught from a holistic point of view. This was shown in the answer to the first query in the questionnaire. (Many of these teachers had had exposure to ELT seminars). This revealed that teachers were in favour of *integrated holistic approaches* as opposed to discrete item ones or part by part learning. Lovell, citing the work of Pask, states that there are

"two major categories of mental competence which reflect the individual's cognitive style and which lead him, in a situation where he has a choice, to prefer one kind of learning strategy to another." 10

Individuals fitting these two categories are 'serialists' and 'holists'.

"The serialist approaches the study of new material by stringing a sequence of cognitive structures together. The typical serialist will assimilate lengthy sequences of information in this way and as a result is very intolerant

of redundant information because of the extra burden it imposes on memory. The holist in contrast learns, remembers and recalls materials as a whole. The serialist will prefer to build up a total picture by stringing the detail together. The holist's approach, on the other hand, is to attempt to gain an overview of an area of study so that the detail can fall into place. The holist has a high order of relations between the details he is learning whilst the serialist has a low order of relations." 11

Much work has been done in the area of part/whole teaching methodology in the second language situation. McDonough cites the work done by Welford to state that learning a whole task at once with slow presentation is suitable for activities that are highly coordinated. On the other hand, breaking a task down into its components is preferable for actions that have to be performed in an ordered sequence. The problem in this is to find out to what extent language points can be isolated without destroying the coordination of the system. McDonough states that

"If the complexity of the task is relatively high, the evidence from perceptuo-motor skill learning implies that breaking it down will hinder development of the smooth integrated functioning of the whole. If it is low, or if the task is easily separated into a series of relatively independent subtasks, integration is aided by the division of training." 12

The part versus whole problem in language learning involves the distinction between the teaching and learning

11. Lovell, Adult Learning p. 106.
of discrete items and component parts as against integrated learning. In the former language items are treated as molecular units and component parts while in the latter language is treated as being indivisible and performance involves using all relevant knowledge and skills. Teaching methods, as a result of these two views, can be divided into (a) synthetic methods (small, independent units) and (b) analytic methods which take large heterogeneous teaching units. McDonough states that analytic, holist approaches are many and following Wilkins can be listed as those organised around (i) rich chunks of language (ii) situations where the teaching-learning unit employs some representative sample (iii) notions where the principle of the unit is based on a semantic intention.

The answers to the second question revealed reasons why the teachers used these texts, or other texts they employed. Some of the reasons they offered for employing particular texts appeared to be for the "problem solving" and "realistic" tasks offered (a factor that will be referred to later). Exposure to ELT developments also appeared to influence their choice. Teachers unfamiliar with present thinking in methodology used discrete item grammar based coursebooks only. Two teachers very clearly stated that they used the texts they had mentioned because they had "come upon it first".

2. Another factor that appeared to influence teachers' choices of material was the type of cognitive processes
involved in the tasks and exercises. The fact that all the teachers stated that they wanted writing exercises where "students have to think out the answers themselves" would indicate that they considered writing an active process involving psychomotor skills, and thinking activity. Lovell \(^{13}\) reports the work carried out by Gagne who offers a hierarchical model to show how the different forms of learning relate to each other. The eight forms of processing he describes are signal learning, S-R learning, motor and verbal learning, chain learning, multiple discrimination, concept learning, rule learning and problem solving. Except for signal learning the others are ordered hierarchically (i) Signal learning takes place when a conditioned stimulus (the signal) is followed by an unconditioned stimulus which produces an unconditioned reflexive emotional response. After much repetition, the signal itself can bring about the emotional response. (ii) Stimulus response is at the lowest level of the hierarchy. It entails voluntary response to a stimulus and for learning to ensue reinforcement, repetition and shaping measures are used (iii) Motor and verbal chain learning follow. With motor chaining, muscular responses are involved and the development of the chain depends on kinaesthetic feedback from the muscles (An example of a typical motor chain occurs when writing an address on an envelope) (vi) Verbal chain learning or verbal

\(^{13}\) Lovell, Adult Learning.
association takes place when learning phrases, or when learning one's part in a play. Each link of the chain has to be learnt and these serve as verbal, visual or auditory cues. (v) Multiple discrimination involves the learner in making discriminations between one stimulus and the next. These can be taught with the differences or details of each set being exaggerated till the learner has mastered them, after which the exaggerated details are faded out. (vi) Concept learning is at the next level of the hierarchy. This involves not so much the ability to distinguish as the ability to put qualities of one class together.

"Learning a new concept normally involves acquiring a word which comes to stand for the concept (eg. 'force' in physics or 'capital' in economics) and then acquiring the sense or meaning of the concept from encounters with positive and negative instances of concept" 24 and finally being able to formulate a verbal definition of the concept. (vii) The next level is the acquisition of rules. Gagne proves that human response to various situations and types of stimulation results in intrinsic organizing capability. "The existence of a rule can be inferred when an individual responds to a class of stimulus situations with a class of performances". 15 Gagne is concerned with how rules are learnt

15. Ibid.
through use and not with the learning of their definition. The learning of the most complex rules is dependent on the learning of simpler rules and these are again dependent on the learning of earlier concepts. (viii) Problem solving is at the top of Gagne's hierarchy. Projecting Gagne's views Lovell states that it is "the process through which the learner draws upon his repertoire of previously learned rules in order to find a solution to a new problem". Lovell cites Maier (1945) who makes a distinction between reproductive and productive thinking. Reproductive thinking is similar to the transfer of training involving skills while productive thinking states how past knowledge and experience helps in facing a new situation. Gagne views the learning process in problem solving as that of brick building while Miller, Galanter and Pribram, cited by Lovell, use the term 'plan'. 'Plan is "any hierarchical process that can control the order in which a sequence of operations is to be performed", Performance of 'plans' like the 'problem solving processes' are dependent on earlier learning. Once these 'plans' have been used they are stored in long term memory for future reference. The process of problem solving involves recognition and identification of a problem. This might entail either passive review or active exploration of causes or the combination of previous experiences in a

16. Lovell, Adult Learning, p. 49.
17. Ibid., p. 66.
new way. But previous learning can prove a disadvantage also and then it is termed a 'set'. This 'set' can interfere with problem solving as it acts as a barrier to originality not providing a new approach. "The flexible thinker is one who can approach a new problem with his existing repertoire of plans available, but who can develop a new and more efficient way to solve the problem if it is possible." 18

However, McDonough, basing his views on the work done by Gestalt psychology, points out that various factors have to be considered in problem solving approaches. Some of these are 1) that there is considerable individual variation in problem-solving ability. 2) Problems were solved in a discontinuous fashion involving false starts till the moment of insight or 'aha' experience was met. This involved a transformation from an earlier view of a situation to a new one and was described as 'recentring' or 'cognitive restructuring'. The new way of looking at a situation could not be explained by reward or S.R. bonds. Later work on problem solving has tried to make the learner's processes more explicit. Dakin, cited by McDonough, states that when the learner encounters new language he has to apply puzzle solving routines to understand it. These complex rules are referred to as 'the creation of the interim hypothesis' and 'hypothesis

18. Lovell, Adult Learning. p.68.
testing'. Some of the factors that affect problem-solving behaviour concern memory overload, risk and maximisation of information. The problem solver must keep in mind much information received from earlier solutions and with each problem constantly review it, besides being careful of the element of risk involved in selecting the information he wishes to use. Dakin states that in order to understand and produce answers to problems learners should be set devices and traps - not to give learners a sense of insecurity but create conditions for negative feedback which learners otherwise do not seek. He states that some of the ways used to guide students problem solving ability are: through the provision of discrete item exercises and practice with comments to provide guidance. Another method, stated by McDonough, is stating rules and providing examples. The drawbacks noted are that rule learning by rote does not ensure correct use, and that it imposes rule formation. The latter approach is based on the theory that language has to be broken down into discrete units and that the learning process is based on the discovery and formulation of rules. Teaching could also be attempted through modelling. As McDonough states,

"This is a case where information is not presented as a consequence of action, but as a guide or prompt for action ............ With more complicated tasks there is a problem of transfer between the performance of what
has been modelled and the use of that knowledge in other situations. Thus modelling a language structure is unlikely to lead to appropriate use of the structure in free conversation, whereas guided discovery of the underlying principle might, since it manages the kind and timing of information given to the student carefully and leaves the student a certain amount of control over the process." 19

But the use of problem solving strategies does not cater to all aspects of learning, for as McDonough points out,

"we need to decide whether the problems given to the students encourage the development of language proficiency or merely make further problems of the same type easier to solve. In the examples given..............the pupil's solutions appear to lead to further success in similar problems but not necessarily to language proficiency". 20

3. The teachers stressed the importance of reading in developing the writing ability. However, they accorded it a lower importance when compared to problem solving activities. The part played by reading in the development of writing is noted by many. Frank Smith who has done much work in the area of reading goes on to stress its importance in writing development. Reading, he states, seems to be -


"the essential fundamental source of knowledge about writing, from the conventions of transcription to the subtle differences of register and discourse structures in various genres." 21

Widdowson brings forward the same view when he says that

"reading is seen not as a separate ability which can be investigated and taught in disassociation from other aspects of language behaviour (as it often tends to be), but as the realization of a general interpretative process which underlies all communicative activity. Furthermore, this process is seen as operating at two different levels of mental activity, the first dealing with the immediate apprehension of information and the second with the discrimination of this information into patterns of conceptual significance." 22

The view that reading and writing are mutually reinforcing activities is supported by Meyer and Smith who state that

"Reading is not simply information retrieval but a forming process. Just as writers must, in the process of composing, question their own texts (thereby becoming readers) readers must engage in a dialogue with someone else's text. The same analytical and synthetic acts of mind are required for reading as for writing. Not surprisingly, then, failure in writing is often accompanied by failure in reading, and improvement in one activity leads to improvement in the other." 23

Meyer and Smith go on to enumerate some of the reading problems college-level writers have - being unable to summarize accurately and interpret what they have read correctly. Some of the other problems listed by them


appear to be - inability to recognize connections causal, comparative, chronological, classificatory or illustrative between ideas or paragraphs; also to correctly understand the significance of a passage or a statement in the context of a complete work. Meyer and Smith also report that some of the problems perceived by inefficient readers of other disciplines appear to be their inability to extract important details or conceptualize large chunks of information. Krashen quoting a study taken up by him with Kimberling, Wingate, Rosser and DiChara in 1978 in which sixty six USC freshmen were given a questionnaire and required to write an essay which was then evaluated, states:

"We found very clear differences between good writers and poor writers - good writers reported more pleasure reading at all ages, and especially during the high school years. In fact, not one poor writer reported 'a lot' of pleasure reading during high school." 24

Krashen goes on to cite the work done by Woodward and Philips (1967), and states that good writers reported more reading of the daily newspaper than poor writers. The work of Applebee, on 48 good high school writers adds further evidence of the contribution made by the reading ability. Krashen quotes Applebee's statement that the successful writers were also regular readers who reported reading 14 books over the summer vacation

and another 4 books in the first 8 to 10 weeks of their senior year. He also quotes work carried out by Donalson, Ryan and McNeil which reveals the greater frequency and more varied reading that effective writers undertook. Krashen says that McNeil reported that the

"'readers' showed significantly greater writing fluency and wrote with greater complexity than did control subjects. The readers also gained in self-esteem as compared to controls, were less anxious about school, improved in attitudes about reading and writing, and were superior in reading comprehension." 25

Krashen formulates a table to delineate the work done in this area which is quoted below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kimberling et al</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>good writers report more pleasure reading when younger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodward &amp; Philips</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>good writers read the newspaper more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applebee</td>
<td>high school</td>
<td>NCTE winners do a great deal of pleasure reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donalson</td>
<td>high school</td>
<td>effective writers read more, own more books, report magazines in the home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ryan</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>good writers had more books in the home, were read to more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McNeil</td>
<td>age 12 to 17</td>
<td>boys who get &quot;hooked on books&quot; improve more in writing attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illo</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>&quot;weak and uncertain&quot; correlations between outside reading and writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. The teachers all appeared to stress the importance of writing practice in the methodology used. They referred to the desirability of "a lot of material which the student can work through" and "a lot of exercise work". This insistence on practice would point to the view that writing is taught through frequent performance by the student and not, on the other hand, only through the teacher speaking about it. This is a sound pedagogic approach because, as Smith states, ....

"there is very little that can be taught, at least in the sense of explicit rules and exercises that will transform non-writers into writers. There are few "facts" of writing that children might be usefully required to memorize, in the way that they might be taught aspects of geography or geology, nor do there appear to be relevant exercises that learners might be required to practice, in the way that they might rehearse mathematical skills". 27

Smith goes on to explain that

"writing is learned by writing, by reading and by perceiving oneself as a writer. The practice of writing develops interest and with the help of a more able collaborator provides opportunity for discovering conventions relevant to what is being written.......And the perception of oneself as a writer - as the kind of person who knows or will learn conventions of written language - underlies the sensitivity to written language that every writer must have." 28

Krashen provides another tabulation of studies in the area of writing practice, as follows :-

27. Smith, Writing and the Writer, p.199.
28. Ibid.
## Research on Writing and Writing Frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Finding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bamberg</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>better writers did more expository writing in high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McQueen et al</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>better writers' high schools required more writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodward &amp; Phillips</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>more poor writers did no writing in high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stallard</td>
<td>high school</td>
<td>good writers write more outside school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donalson</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>good writers write more outside of school; do more letter writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wall &amp; Petrovsky</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>good writers do a greater variety of outside writing and took more composition courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lokke &amp; Wykoff</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>two themes per week slightly better than one theme per week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dressel et al</td>
<td>college freshmen</td>
<td>frequent writers and infrequent writers show similar gains (writing outside composition class)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arnold</td>
<td>high school</td>
<td>no difference between frequent writers and infrequent writers (in English class)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practice in writing helps writers develop an efficient composing process. It also helps writers to understand the necessity of planning, rereading and revision and helps in sound planning and revision strategies.

5. When teachers were required to state what they wanted language coursebooks to include, they expressed the need for interest and variety in the teaching materials presented to the learner. This was revealed in the demand for exercises that involved "interesting field work" and the statement that" the language coursebooks should not be...............uninteresting". Theoretical considerations were thus not the main criteria in their view but rather a practical attempt to cater to learning needs. Hutchinson in "Making Materials work in the ESP Classroom" presents the view that a more integral approach which takes into account both the cognitive and affective aspects of the learner be adopted. He states

"In order to learn something, the learner must think about it, but in order to think about it, the learner must first WANT to think about it. The cognitive engagement which is so important to learning is dependent on the primary emotional reaction to the thing to be learnt. It is this link that demonstrates the power of motivation both to generate and to inhibit learning. Motivation, which can be regarded as the willingness or unwillingness to engage in learning, indicates the separability of the cognitive and affective sides of the learner". 30

But psychologists warn against any simplistic use of the term. McDonough states that when dealing with the idea

of motivation in the educational setting one should distinguish between

"a) energy  b) willingness to learn  c) perseverance
d) interest  e) enjoyment of lessons  f) incentives  
g) benefits of knowing the language" 31

He goes on to state that though "Interest is often regarded as being a major element in the teacher's store of motivational tactics" 32 discussion on this aspect of teaching brings out the following problems:— that the term is associated with distinct concepts, that the sources of motivation may or may not be present in the classroom, that only a few types of motivation are related to the product while others are related to the process of learning and that the potency of any method is dependent on the students own values.

6. Another aspect regarding the formal materials and methodology used was the manner in which such materials were arranged. The teachers' demand for "graded materials", "organised economical materials" pointed to teachers' views and approaches to teaching. Some of the principles involved in bringing about and facilitating new learning into the memory structures of the student are as follows:—

31. McDonough, Psychology in Foreign Language Teaching p.149.
32. Ibid.
a) The first is the principle of progressive differentiation which states that the most general and inclusive ideas of a discipline should be presented first. This organises the content in the form of a hierarchical structure.

b) The second principle involves the integration of new ideas with previous subject matter. One of the assumptions on which language syllabuses are based is a gradation from easy to difficult. This principle if adhered to in language teaching requires the formation of criteria for the language forms - structures, skills, situations and functions - being presented.

c) A third principle on which presentation is based is graduation from the concrete to the abstract. However, studies in this area show that such presentation is not beneficial in short term study. Research by Welford shows that

"if subjects have to learn two tasks differing in difficulty, it is usually more efficient to learn the more difficult one first, as the greater care and attention demanded will benefit the learning of the easy task more than having an easy run will help the difficult task."

Welford also states that if two or more tasks have to be learnt, it is most beneficial to begin with the one that elicits the higher standard of performance first. Such a procedure brings about greater comprehension and the learning to be gained from the second task is lost. McDonough advocates the use of the latter principle for short-term courses or smaller sections of a syllabus but not for a long course. McDonough quotes work by Tongue et al (1977) to state that teaching composition should progress from "controlled" through 'guided' to 'free' expression which has been attempted in S.E. Asia. However, McDonough argues that writing skills might be acquired more efficiently if such a course were interrupted at different points for the students to attempt assignments of a more difficult level than their current stage of progress. These would act as a stimulus and a challenge to raise performance on subsequent easier tasks when the normal sequence was resumed. This would naturally be subject to the conditions that the language of the more difficult tasks was itself within the capacity of the students. The principle of sequencing of language items, which is a constant pre-occupation of the teacher, is intricately woven into the process of second language acquisition and theories connected with the same which are not discussed here. At the same time rigid gradation is counter-educational in its approach and all responses from teachers reveal that they approve of flexibility in materials used in the classroom.
7. The next quality of flexibility in the type of learning materials designed was noted in the activity study as well as the worksheet. Teachers expressed a preference for materials that provided greater scope for varied written activities allowing the instructor to arrange, rearrange or invent tasks according to the requirements of the group. This of course was a teacher focussed value and not a learner focussed one.

8. Disapproval of rigid frameworks was also noted in the fact that many of the teachers did not perceive any use for exercises that demanded over-specific labelling. What they were expressing therefore was a need for tasks which allowed free expression - and not slotted structures and functions. As Mountford says, "the point is not that such procedures are not justified - in certain circumstances they are - but they have become superficially highly emulatable and have taken over the teacher, as it were, in dangerously limited and misleading ways. A new kind of structural drilling - ways of expressing definitions, or classifications, or deductions - has become common. The applied linguists' analytical view of language as communication has come to dominate a situation which calls for the teacher's synthesizing view of language learning for communication."34

Mountford in this presentation at the International Conference on English for Specific Purposes at Colombo, in April 1985, emphasised the need for "pragmatic factors" in the construction of classroom materials (referring to ESP). The first set of factors he mentions are institutional factors\(^{35}\) which are comprised of the time allotted to learning English on the timetable, classroom learning conditions and attitudes to English language teaching by institutional heads and staff. The second set of factors are teacher factors and are made up of the teachers' own competence in the use of the language, their training as ELT or ESP teachers and their attitudes to language and learning. The third set of factors are termed learner factors and include learners perceptions of English language learning, what is valued by language learners about language learning and anxieties about learning and learning styles. He goes on to state that the quality the ESP materials lack at the present time is "compatibility" which he explains as the need to come to terms with the above factors. Besides, the materials lack "creativity" because the scope of the exercises is limited and the students content knowledge is not utilised. This would mean that teaching materials would need to be relevant and appropriate and cater to difficult teaching learning situations.

The factors that the teachers demanded of the learning materials they used in college General English classrooms appeared to point to the following requirements:

i) Materials that concentrated on teaching writing in an integrated manner, holistically rather than atomistically.

ii) Exercises and tasks that allowed for concept formation, complex reasoning and decision making rather than the use of repetitive drills and pattern practice. This showed teachers preferences for cognitive rather than behaviorist based approaches in the teaching of writing.

iii) Copious exercise materials for frequent practice. Writing is regarded as an activity that developed with practice and thus the psychomotor processes as well as thinking processes involved were recognised.

iv) Motivating materials that provided variety and interest to the learner.

v) Work material that was organised in ways that would promote learning - not into rigid patterns and networks which are definitive statements of predetermined syllabii but more flexible work routines.

vi) Pliability and malleability of materials so as to allow varied use by the teacher.

vii) Tasks that did not determine performance so much as encourage writing.

It appeared from this part of our study that the factors teachers denoted could not be regarded as 'institutional factors' or 'teacher factors' but could be labelled 'learner factors' which tried to integrate pedagogically appropriate and learner motivating elements in classroom teaching.
PERFORMANCE REQUIREMENTS IN STUDENTS WRITING

This study was attempted through :-

C. An examination of the criteria teachers used to evaluate students' writing:

In order to list the expectations of teachers with regard to students' writing, three teachers were requested to assess 25 scripts of a I PUC science class, using any norms which they wished to follow. They all chose to use numerical values to indicate their assessment. After they had completed their evaluation, two of them were requested to state in detail the criteria they had employed while the third was required to offer reasons why she had accorded a high rating to some samples.

This multiple marking activity was attempted, on the one hand, in order to form an accurate criterion measure of the students' writing ability as high correlations of validity have been noted in such assessments and, on the other, to discover the features of writing expected and approved by a community of teachers and to describe teacher/rater values of those features.

Since the exercise involved general impression marking of a given piece of writing, a holistic evaluation was obtained. Criteria had not been explicitly predetermined. Holistic evaluation, unlike atomistic evaluation, assumes that the features of writing ability are related and
interdependent. It is more advantageous for teachers because it is flexible, not mechanistic, allows value judgements and is subjective. Besides it is based on the assumption that written discourse attempts to communicate a complete message to an audience for a particular purpose in which success is dependent on the cohesion and coherence features of writing which unite to produce the desired overall effect.

The teachers were asked to list the components which made up their evaluation system. The first teacher, aged 53, who had 24 years' experience as an evaluator and little ELT exposure stated that the students' limitations lay in their inability "to incorporate all the points required for a good essay at the same time" and found a high incidence of "spelling mistakes" and "sentence construction errors". His criteria in assessment rested on the features of "Manner (the way the essay is begun), Matter (content), Vocabulary (command over words), Grammar and Spelling" with each of five aspects receiving a 20% weightage. The second teacher, aged 27, with three years' college teaching experience and a little ELT exposure in the way of one or two workshops listed "Substance, Style and Organization" which were accorded 40%, 40% and 20% weightage respectively. He explained that "substance" referred to content - the use of information. Style - "the effective use of language" and "organization",
the order of points - "development of thought". The third teacher, who was asked to comment on aspects of writing that marked the work of better performers, mentioned that she individually rated "students who reveal an ability to communicate a point of view convincingly higher than those who have used the content exhaustively." She stated that projection of "a point of view" revealed that the student had "reflected" on the topic. Students who had used the content "unimaginatively - without setting priorities" were marked lower than those who had been more adventurous or individualistic.

The individual frameworks employed by this group of teachers who worked in the department of a local undergraduate institution seemed to correlate well with the format offered by Lukmani. (This comparison is validated by studies in groups of bilingual raters and comparisons made amongst raters of different cultures which show that 'national styles' in writing exist). Takala, Purves and Buckmaster, who have carried out much research in cross cultural comparisons, state that "Defining national styles through ratings, however, bears with it the problem that one is dealing with perceptions or judgements of styles not with actual styles. Nonetheless, the use of ratings by teachers and experts (if they are consistent in a country) could give one an idea of what aspects of a national style are approved by the educational establishment - if not approved, at least
Lukmani suggests that there are four major aspects of the writing skill.

1. **Intelligibility**, including coherence.
2. **Fluency**.
3. **Appropriateness**.
4. **Correctness**.

She goes on to state that **intelligibility** is composed of three components.

1. **Appropriate lexical items**.
2. **Cohesion** or the relationship between sentences that is signalled by words.
3. **Coherence** or the organisation of ideas.

**Fluency** is the aspect wherein the writing activity is accomplished in reasonably good time. The activity of "making appropriate sense" should not take disproportionately long, states Lukmani. **Appropriateness** is the quality that affects the reader and therefore involves ability to initiate "a dialogic exchange between the writer and a potential reader."

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38. Ibid., p. 11.

39. Ibid.
"signals" in writing and "level of abstraction at which statements are made" which are important in certain types of writing - such as academic writing. **Correctness** "is concerned with the production of grammatically correct sentences"[40].

These criteria presented by Lukmani would seem to incorporate the interrelated features of writing expected by the group of teachers who were involved in this part of our study.

D. **Problems in undergraduate students' writing as perceived by a group of teachers**

A more indepth description of students' writing needs in long answers was obtained from a group of college teachers of undergraduate students who, over a year, had devised test papers for their students through collaborative effort and conferencing. They designed term papers for groups of students after discussing the dimensions of the task and their expectations from students. They had also worked together on norms for evaluating students' answers.

This group was given a questionnaire when they were in the process of evaluating term papers. This questionnaire

[40] Lukmani, "Writing skills and strategies for tackling error," p. 9.
sought to elicit their expectations in the tasks set at the term exam, the extent to which these expectations were fulfilled and the writing needs they perceived for their learners. The writing tasks had been set on literary texts according to the specifications of the prescribed examination. The teachers were able to state very clearly their requirements in each case. When asked to state in what way the students' answers were different from what the teacher expected, many observations were received. These were typed out and given to the same teachers. As all their replies referred to the limitations they perceived in their learners' answers, they were asked in the course of the next departmental conferencing session how they would attend to these aspects of their students' writing. They maintained that they could not attend to them in any discrete manner, but only holistically. The list given below by one of the teachers represents students deficiencies in writing as perceived by the teachers:–

1. Fragmentary understanding of questions.
2. Inability to select details relevant to the question.
4. No comparison and contrasts. Unable to use language to express similarity and difference.
5. Unable to elucidate and substantiate one's personal interpretation or basic premise using the literary work given.
6. No deeper probing. Inability to analyse content.

Since this study again, provided a diagnosis of only some of the aspects of students writing, it was decided that a deeper understanding of undergraduate writing would be obtained only through a more comprehensive and detailed study of actual samples.

PART THREE

RESEARCHER'S PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS' NEEDS IN WRITING

This analysis was made following the survey undertaken amongst students, interviews with subject teachers and questionnaire surveys with English language teachers. The student survey, as noted earlier in the chapter, provided lists of students' situational requirements but did not suggest ways in which this could be achieved. Thus what was derived from students were schedules of end products in writing - writing tasks, exercises and items they wished to learn because they experienced a constant demand for proficiency in such tasks in their daily academic and social life. These could be termed their language-use needs. But what had to be investigated were ways in which these could be satisfactorily performed by students and the means which had to be employed by teacher and student to attain these ends. These latter essentials could be termed language learning needs. While lists of end products and language use needs were
exhaustive, far deeper study was required to gain insights into language learning needs.

The interviews with subject teachers had highlighted a few specific subject based writing problems while the questionnaire surveys conducted amongst English language teachers brought out more wide ranging learning requirements. The latter, carried out with groups of English language teachers, highlighted specific lacks and problems in general proficiency English writing on the one hand, and more importantly revealed teachers' perceptions of learning needs with regard to writing.

This investigation thus sought to make a deeper study of students actual writing in order to:

i) characterise students' writing in terms of the features perceived thereby throwing light on specific linguistic aspects of learners writing that were effective or ineffective.

ii) provide accounts and descriptions of individual students' writing in ways that would be valuable in the teaching learning situation thereby illuminating the learning needs of students.

iii) categorise insights in the individual learner's writing process which would be relevant to the teacher in formulating a methodology to teach writing.
It was believed that such procedures would enable the teacher to devise awareness raising strategies to aid the individual learner to acquire a deeper understanding of the nature of writing.

Some general observations on students writing are offered first followed by more specific analysis.

INITIAL OBSERVATIONS

These were formed through a surface review of the types of writing which students offered at examinations:-

1. Over years of teaching it was noted that the explicit teaching of formal grammar did not prevent recurrence of the same grammatical error. Besides, it did not contribute to total writing activity or enable students to attempt more continuous writing. The teaching of grammar only provided the teacher with concrete reasonable explanations regarding the workings of some aspects of language - but no more. This view that grammar instruction in itself does not aid writing is also supported by Krashen who states that "The research strongly suggests that grammar instruction is not effective in helping students to write." Krashen cites the work of Elley et al who compared three groups of high school students in New Zealand - one group which studied traditional grammar, the second transformational grammar and the third no

grammar at all. No appreciable difference, the research states, was noted in their performance over a period of three years.

2. Another observation was that students erred to a lesser extent in their writing based on their reading texts than in their free compositions. But the composing procedures manifest in their answers based on the reading texts were not revealed in their free compositions.

Comparison of different types of writing by the same learner in the examination hall in a situation closely comparable to the real time situation of speech events threw light on the above mentioned behaviour. One writing activity the learner had attempted was the letter in which addresser, addressee, message, channel, situation, topic—using Hymes' terms — were implicit in the nature of the task and the learner was only required to decide on the facts he wished to express and degree of formality he would use. The other exercise involved organisation of views on a familiar, much debated topic — the dowry system — where no clues had been provided and where the frame of reference had to be devised by the writer. It was observed that the same learner performed far more satisfactorily in the letter where the writing task was more inherently and explicitly structured than in free composition. Often a lack of knowledge regarding addressor, addressee and inability to organise ideas in real time
led to further error at the level of sentence grammar. The decision to look closer at writing samples emerged as a result.

3. From the teacher's point of view it was realised that holistic writing exercises were more satisfactory performance indicators of the learner's writing ability than diagnostic discrete-item tests. Language proficiency tests given at the beginning of the academic year to new entrants to the college were based on the following skills:

i) Selection of correct spelling items.

ii) Selection of correct syntactical items.

iii) Selection of correct lexical items.

iv) Comprehension of a passage of 200 words.

v) Composition - paragraph writing.

It was found that discrete item test answers did not provide as much information to the teacher evaluator of student's writing behaviour as the free composition activity involving integrated skills.

AN ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' WRITTEN SAMPLES

It was decided that the student's writing would be examined from:

A. The student-writer's point of view.

B. The teacher's reading assessment viewpoint.
It was decided here to view writing as a monologue because monologue studies analyse long utterances by the individual speaker which, in many ways, is similar to the extended writing the student is required to perform in examination halls, under constraints of time. In spoken exchanges in the classroom, students often insisted that they did not need to list out points and form frameworks. They stated that their ideas "flowed" as they wrote and maintained that they found such frameworks constricting. Some of these students - not all - also produced reasonably satisfactory work. These views expressed by students regarding writing seem to be corroborated by Vivian Zamel who in a study of eight proficient ESL students - 1 Japanese, 1 Hispanic, 2 Arabic, 2 Italian and 2 Greek - discovered that only one student prepared an outline and used it in writing. Zamel says,

"This student indicated a still-felt insecurity with English and didn't feel confident enough to compose without resorting to a fairly complex outline. While the use of this outline gave him a sense of control, he did admit that once the outline was completed, he found the actual writing both boring and mechanical. One cannot help but speculate, since his writing was fairly accomplished, as to whether he really needed the outline or whether he had learned his English teacher's lessons too well. One other student reported writing an outline, but not necessarily using it: 'Very often the paper I wind up with is different from the outline. I don't see the missing pieces when I write the outline. I can't anticipate what's going to go wrong in my logic when I do the outline'. The other students never wrote outlines, although two recalled
courses in which they wrote outlines after they wrote
the papers in order to comply with their teachers
assignments. One student asked, "How can I write an
outline when my ideas are flying back and forth? While
another indicated that only "when the material falls
together, I discover my outline"." 42

Relating a spoken description to a written one
was justified by the view that writing was an activity
that presumed a reader. This is maintained by Hoey who
states:

"Interestingly the written discourse relates to the exchange
in the same way that the written word relates to phonology-
through the process of being read. The reader in reacting
to the discourse creates and completes the exchange much
in the way that he/she creates and completes the
phonological realisation when the discourse is read aloud,
and just as spelling (in alphabetic languages) reflects
indirectly the phonology of the language so also a written
monologue will retain signs of its ultimate place in
an exchange". 43

42. V. Zamel, "Writing. The Process of discovering
p.200.

43. M. Hoey, "A Tentative Map of Discourse Studies
and their place in Linguistics", Analysis 1:1,
ANALYSIS I

USE OF THE FRAME WORK PROVIDED BY COULTHARD AND MONTGOMERY IN "THE STRUCTURE OF THE MONOLOGUE"

Coulthard and Montgomery chose extracts of a radio interview - on the topic of unions and industrial disputes - to describe the features of a monologue. They described it as a "highly structured utterance"\(^44\) by "a fluent speaker" where the speaker had decided on the composition of his speech with his remarks.

"Several major areas"
"There's first the question............"
"Now the second big area........"
"Two fundamental principles......."
"First of all........"
"Secondly.........."\(^45\)

It was akin to the lecture mode in speech, which did not take into consideration the turn-taking machinery but they strove to show that the discourse was "interactively"\(^46\) designed, and that it was 'shaped' or 'structured' with interactive purposes in mind.


\(^45\). Ibid.

\(^46\). Ibid, p.39.
The units proposed by Coulthard and Montgomery are: Transaction, Sequence, Member. The first two were existing labels from the work in classroom interaction structure and doctor-patient interviews while the third was borrowed from Winter (1977).

**Transactions** are units marked by "the focussing activity that occurs at its boundaries." They appear to be co-terminous with topic boundaries. Coulthard and Montgomery list two types of focus - "those which open transactions and those which close them". The former is "a prospective focus," the latter "a retrospective focus." They state that the ideal example of discourse transaction takes the form of: "Prospective focus, informing member(s), retrospective focus."

**Sequences** are characterised by them as "smaller-scale topic units"

**Members** are functional units which consist of a free clause or a free clause with a bound clause. The latter occurs when there is, between the clauses, "a close relationship of the branched type in which the same necessary element of structure is ellipted from the second." Some members are directed towards the subject

47. Coulthard and Montgomery *Studies in Discourse Analysis* p. 33.
48. Ibid., p. 34.
49. Ibid.
50. Ibid.
51. Ibid.
52. Ibid.
53. Ibid.
matter of the discourse and others towards the manner in which this subject matter is received. So while the discourse continues on the one hand, "monitoring" which consists of reflections and comments, reformulations and qualifications on the ongoing discourse goes on too. The discourse proceeds on two planes - 'Main' discourse and 'Subsidiary' discourse.

Characteristics of Main Discourse:

i) It develops through a succession of informing members or informatives.

ii) These members are linked to each other by different conjunctives - 'and', 'so', 'because', 'but', 'or', 'however' - displaying various relationships:
   a) additive - 'and'
   b) adversative - 'but'
   c) causal - 'so'

Characteristics of Subsidiary Discourse:

1) Glosses - of three main types -
   a) 'restate' - This repeats or reformulates the matter of the member and is noted in such terms as 'in other words', 'that is', 'for example'.
   b) 'qualify' - This makes a qualification on an earlier member and is noted by such expressions as 'actually', 'in reality', 'at least'.
c) 'comment' - evaluates stretches of discourse. Comments are attempts by the speaker to anticipate and predict audience reaction. Glossing members reflect back on the main discourse - expanding, modifying and evaluating it.

2. Asides: These members are "exophoric, functioning to contextualise the discourse."\(^{54}\) It links abstract description to usual presentation such as blackboard drawing or graph or relates the discourse to an activity to be taken up by the audience. This "paradiscourse" or "subtext"\(^{55}\) helps to contextualise discourse. Paradiscourse is connected to discourse through procedural asides - some of which are embedded in the members and others become digressions. Recalls are also a form of aside.

**Reasons why this framework proved suitable:**

1) It provided evidence that the monologue was innately and holistically organised and invalidated the view that language production effected in real time was built up in discrete units.

2) The monologue was analysed by itself without elicitations being recorded and with the paralinguistic


\(^{55}\) Ibid.
features of spoken discourse being omitted. It consisted of a long utterance by a single speaker. Though he composes as he speaks, he has projected for himself a lengthy utterance. This provided comparisons with the extended writing the individual student is required to perform. Control was thus in the hands of the single speaker as it is with the single writer.

3) It was a long 'inform', accomplished in real time and, being a radio interview, would have been performed with the added constraints of limited time and covert or overt assessment. These circumstances are comparable to the constraints the student has to operate with in the examination hall.

4) As the monologue was the speech of a very efficient adult performer it was highly structured. It presented main and subsidiary discourse and its explicit structure was signalled through expressions such as, "several major areas", "there's the first question. Now the second big area ............ Two fundamental principles..... first of all ........secondly". This corresponded to the well formedness in writing expected in the classroom. Some efficient performers, as stated earlier, who did not make written plans before writing long answers also manifested such writing behaviour. And such symmetry in writing-explicit or implicit-is a constant preoccupation with teachers.
5) The description was not co-terminous with orthographic patterns but with speaker intentions.

6) The interactive quality of writing was highlighted in the workings of subsidiary discourse. Coulthard and Montgomery had noted the absence of the unit exchange-found in multiparty talk - but had argued that extended monologues were nevertheless designed with reciprocity in mind. So in postulating the feature of subsidiary discourse in the monologue they had suggested the categories of restate, qualify and comment. In this way they had suitably provided evidence to show that a long utterance was not composed of a series of informing members. Reformulations and qualifications not only pointed to the interactive nature of discourse but revealed a monitoring activity.

A written task in which some framework and support was provided was given to a group of science students. The topic was one that had been spoken about frequently in newspapers and magazines and so student's views on the topic would have been activated. The writing of two students - Ranjit Shetty and Bhatia - were examined.

They were both I Pre University Science students. Ranjit's mother tongue was Tulu and Bhatia's was Hindi. They had both done their schooling with English as their medium of instruction - which in Ranjit's case was 13 years and Bhatia's 14 years.
Exercise:

A few readers have been publishing their views on the subject - The Evils of the Dowry System - in the 'Letters to the Editor' column in the local newspaper. According to them these are some of the causes and results of this custom:

Causes

1. Desire to help one's children financially at the start of married life.
2. Fear of marrying without a dowry and going against custom.
3. Low status of unmarried women.
4. Greed of men who want to raise their standard of living.

Results

1. Financial suffering of those who cannot afford it.
2. Wastage of money in ostentatious marriages.
4. Marriage for money not affection.

Can you incorporate this information into a discussion of the problem, looking at all these different opinions? Write two paragraphs - one discussing the causes and the other results.
Main Discourse

1. Dowry system is one of the evils eating to the roots of human society.

Transaction: Prospective Focus

2. There are many causes for the dowry system to be prevalent in the Indian society.

Sequence -

3. Firstly the parents of the bride would wish

Member - Additive

Explicit signalling

4. (They would wish) that her married life was financially secure.

Member - Additive

Subsidiary Discourse

5. The parents hope

Gloss - restate

6. (They hope that) their daughter will not have to face hardships on account of lack of money.

Gloss - restate
Main Discourse

7. Secondly, a marriage without dowry may be considered to be against the customs.

Member — Additive

Explicit signalling

8. This is why the parents of the bride agree to pay dowry.

Gloss — Restate

9. So that their daughter is not victimized by society.

Gloss — Restate

10. Thirdly, unmarried women in India hold a low position in society.

Member — Additive

Explicit signalling

11. They are harassed by society.

Gloss — Qualify

12. This is why women in India have to get married.

Member — Causal
Main discourse

14. Finally, the main cause of the dowry system is that the men make use of their marriage to raise their financial situation.

Transaction - Retrospective Focus

15. They extract money and other articles and raise their standard of living.

Gloss - Comment

16. The results of the dowry system are horrible.

Transaction

17. People who cannot afford to pay dowry

18. (They) are made of suffer

Member - Additive

19. The bride and her family are harassed by the bridegrooms family.

Member - Additive

Subsidiary Discourse

13. (They have to get married) even if it means paying a dowry.

Gloss - Comment
Main Discourse

21. If the bride's people are poor

Member - Additive

22. They will have to undergo numerous hardships to pay the dowry.

Member - Additive

23. People who are poor

Gloss - Restate.

24. (They) are made to spend a lot of money

Gloss - Restate.

25. (The money) which they cannot afford.

Gloss - Restate.

Subsidiary Discourse

26. The birth of girl children is regretted.

Member - Causal

27. This leads to marriages for wealth not love.

Transaction -

Retrospective Focus
A few readers have been publishing their views on the subject - The Evils of the Dowry System - in the 'Letters to the Editor' column in the local newspaper. According to them these are some of the causes and results of this custom:

Causes

1. Desire to help one's children financially at the start of married life.
2. Fear of marrying without a dowry and going against custom.
3. Low status of unmarried women.
4. Greed of men who want to raise their standard of living.

Results

1. Financial suffering of those who cannot afford it.
2. Wastage of money in ostentatious marriages.
4. Marriage for money not affection.

Can you incorporate this information into a discussion of the problem, looking at all these different opinions? Write two paragraphs - one discussing the causes and the other results.
Main Discourse

1. So many dowry deaths occur every year.
   
   Transaction - Prospective Focussing

2. Many make substance for screaming headlines.
   Gloss - Qualify

3. Yet this is an ever growing custom.
   Gloss - Comment

4. The whole system of dowry is embedded in our culture
   
   Transaction - Prospective Focussing

5. Our society is the root cause
   Member - Additive

6. It is the dominance of man and the weakness of a woman which give rise to this system
   Member Causal

7. In earlier days a woman was thought off as a burden
   Member - Additive
Main Discourse

8. An unproductive creature who feeds on the earning of man

Gloss - Restate

9. But, today, the system is very much persistent albeit in a modern facade.

Member - Adversative

10. The custom persists though it has been proved to the contrary that a woman is unproductive.

Gloss - Restate

11. The new face aims at satiating the greedy desire of the Man

Transaction - Retrospective Focus

12. Which this system has donned

Gloss - Comment

13. This system on the whole has a detrimental effect on our society

Transaction - Prospective Focus

14. The result is broken marriages, bride burning, death etc.

Member - Causal
Perhaps its meanest effect is that it brings Man at par with cattle and sheep - being saleable commodities each demanding a price of his own.

Comparison between Ranjith and Bhatia's writing

i) While Ranjith had a number of units - especially additive members - in his writing, Bhatia employed a greater variety of members in conveying meaning.

ii) Ranjith's writing was overtly structured and in his writing, the transactions marking the main discourse were clearly identified - "Dowry system is one of the evils ....... There are many causes.... The results". The informing members were clearly signalled by "many causes............. Firstly, Secondly, Thirdly, Finally." The main discourse had obvious structure. In Bhatia's writing, on the other hand, there was not the same marked focussing activity.

iii) Ranjith's writing had as many restates and additive members and this contributed to the explicitness of his writing.

iv) There was also, in Ranjith's writing, adequate monitoring provided by the subsidiary discourse
in the glossing members. For example, "The parents hope that their daughter will not have to face hardships on account of lack of money" reflected that the writer was predicting the reader's need to have "financially secure" in the earlier member completely understood.

Some Advantages of this framework noted after application

1. It was non-evaluatory. It provided a chain-like set of categories that helped to describe and provide an explanation for what the student writer was trying to achieve with regard to the discourse at any point in the writing. It enabled the teacher to view writing through the student's viewpoint and therefore accounted, in some terms, for student writing behaviour.

2. The functional categories of additive, adversative and causal in main discourse, and restate, qualify and comment in subsidiary discourse, helped to explain the actions and intentions of the student writer. If viewed in this way students, in revision exercises, could be encouraged to review their writing in terms of what they wish to effect.

3. It did not prescribe patterning of any type and therefore suggested that the writer-performer be
allowed choice and freedom in performance.

4. Labels were purely functional. There was no attempt to maintain correlation between language structure and discourse function, and therefore rigidity in the analytical framework was avoided.

Some inadequacies of the framework

1. It appeared to provide only a minimum description—only a macrostructure.

2. It employed only broad categories. The relationships brought out by this analysis did not account in detail for all the associations between functional entities in a piece of writing and would be insufficient to those teachers who would search for more definitions in order to encourage learners to examine their own written discourse.

3. What counted for one or the other functional categories remained large unspecified. It was noted that while additives, adversatives and causals were signalled by words such as 'and', 'but' and 'so' in speech, according to Coulthard and Montgomery, in writing, in the samples analysed, these were not similarly replicable. The additive function was signalled by 'Firstly', 'Secondly', 'Thirdly',
and 'Finally' following "many causes". The causal function was signalled by "this is why", "is regretted" and "leads to".

4. As only one monologue was described it did not suggest ways in which discourse more ideally or less ideally progressed.

5. It did not state which members aided progression or which did not.

6. It did not reveal how different members followed each other in different environments.

7. The initiating moves and terminating moves used in different environments were not made manifest through examples of various types. Prospective and retrospective focussing members - those which began and terminated transactions - did not sufficiently account for beginnings and endings in written discourse.

8. Lexical signalling was not referred to.

9. The analysis referred to some aspects of structure, "the most obvious structure", as Coulthard and Montgomery see it. It did not provide samples of more implicit writing behaviour.
10. Though the framework aided in providing an explanation of the individual writer's performance, it did not help the teacher to characterise the writing of different groups of learners, which is often necessary in the teaching situation. The teacher requires an actual description of the learner in some explicit terms in order to devise further teaching procedures.

11. Besides, the analysis, did not reveal information on what was written but how it was written.

12. It accounted only for one or two forms of linear structure.

RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS :-

What constitutes effectiveness in writing - as decided upon by teachers.

Three teachers of different age groups and experience had evaluated a sample of 25 scripts which included Bhatia's and Ranjit's responses to the task given. This multiple marking system revealed that these teachers had rated Bhatia's writing more highly than Ranjit's. The differences between the two samples according to this analysis appeared to be :-
1. Ranjit's writing had 14 Main Discourse members as compared with Bhatia's ten. This showed that Ranjit's writing had a greater number of informing members but it appeared, according to the teachers evaluation, that it was not just the number of informatives or facts offered in writing but how they were expressed that was important.

2. Bhatia's Main Discourse comprised various members—additive, causal and adversative in more or less equal proportion while Ranjit's Main Discourse had mainly additive members. This showed that Ranjit's discourse was informative while Bhatia's was not only informative (providing facts) but also analytical (evaluating such information) — and this quality was what the teaching community approved of more highly.

3. Subsidiary discourse, the main function of which is its monitoring function, is made up in Bhatia's discourse of qualifications, comments and restates while Ranjit's discourse has a predominance of restates. It appeared, according to teacher evaluation, that variety in the nature of the functional members that brought about monitoring was highly regarded.
4. Implicit direction as in Bhatia's writing appeared to be valued more highly than explicit focussing and signalling as in Ranjit Shetty's discourse.

**Teaching implications**

1. This analytical framework by Coulthard and Montgomery offered the teacher freedom to guide and reshape the learner's discourse according to the meaning and intentions the learner wished to convey rather than prescribed structures and patterns.

2. The criteria focussed altogether on the augmentative function in writing, not the curtailing or reducing function, enabled the teacher to view discourse from the writer's point of view - not the reader's, and therefore provided functional criteria for describing the student's ongoing actions. Using such criteria the teacher will be able to help the individual student-writer to extend his or her personal choice of action in an actual writing situation. This the teacher could do by interpreting student intention and providing environments, whereby students discover how such intentions could be fulfilled.
What is maintained here is that it is insufficient for the student to be taught definite patterns of action related to a particular type of discourse—explaining, arguing, describing, etc— as fixed designs of communicative behaviour with rigid frames and plotted sequential actions. The writer's discourse should be allowed to progress more according to his/her personal intentions, projecting more individual expression within the social framework the written activity prescribes.

**ANALYSIS II**

**USE OF THE FRAMEWORK PROVIDED BY HOEY "ON THE SURFACE OF DISCOURSE"**

Hoey's discoursal framework is analytic, beginning with a whole piece of writing that is examined—rather than synthetic, an approach that begins with the smallest units.

Discourse organisation, Hoey states, can be identified through lexical signalling and narrative and elaborating interrogation techniques. Lexical signalling directs attention to linkages and connections in discourse which depend on anaphoric devices, repetitions and the use of subordinators and conjuncts. The questioning techniques elicit discourse structure and helps in
discourse arrangements. Sequencing is also instrumental in signifying discourse structure where Hoey points out that a cline from "totally acceptable to totally unacceptable" is noticeable. Citing the example of four sentences devised by Winter, Hoey shows how they can be sequenced in 24 different ways, and goes on to categorize sequences into "normal (unmarked)", "unusual but meaningful (marked)" and "unacceptable and meaningless." Hoey provides two views on discourse structure - a relational network design and a dialogue pattern.

Basing his work on that of Winter he goes on to reveal various discourse patterns and relationships. He divides these into Logical Sequence Relations and Matching Relations. The Logical Sequence Relations include Time Sequences, Cause-Consequence, Condition-Consequence, Instrument-Achievement, Instrument-Purpose, Problem-Solution. The matching relations are Contrast and Compatibility.

Reasons why the framework proved suitable

1. The starting point of Hoey's analysis was the monologue written or spoken. As such the analysis

57. Ibid., p.35.
58. Ibid., p. 36.
presented the writer's point of view. In the teaching situation, where it is of pre-eminent importance to begin from the learner's take off point and not the teacher's putative starting point, Hoey's approach appeared relevant for it offered a writer's perspective. Candlin and Saedi viewing discourse from the two complementary perspectives of writer and reader characterise the different processes involved in each activity thus—

"The discourse process of the Writer we see as an elaborative process, resulting in text, that of the Reader as a reductive process working upon text. The process of the Writer has a producing perspective while that of the Reader has a comprehending perspective. In other words, the Writer elaborates a topic for the purpose of imparting his message, and the Reader, reducing the elaborations, negotiates a message."59

It was Hoey's concern with the "elaborative process", 60 as opposed to the "reductive process", 61 that appeared relevant in this study. It provided for explanation and description from the writer's standpoint.

2. Closely connected with this augmentative aspect is the elaborational and narrative interrogation proposed by Hoey which lay stress on interpersonal features in writing. This takes precedence in this analytical plan over the cognitive and informative aspects. The interrogation technique also stresses the aspect of


60. Ibid.

61. Ibid.
awareness of the reader in the writer which directs attention to the progressive feature of negotiation in writing.

3. In assigning an important position to lexical signalling, Hoey's frame of reference recognises an essential component of writing ability. Hoey distinguishes between two types of lexical signals - 'organising' words and 'evaluative' words whose functions can appear separate or coalesce. As he states, there is a need to distinguish between "'organising words' which are also evaluative from 'evaluative words' which happen to assist in organising."\(^62\)

Lexical indicators can also be 'anticipatory',\(^63\) - that is those that take place before the event and 'retrospective',\(^64\) - those that take place after an event. The inclusion of lexical indicators in Hoey's framework stresses the feature of direction in discourse - a distinction that marks discourse from other linguistic analysis. The importance of providing direction is noted by Sinclair who states -

63. Ibid., p.23.
64. Ibid.
"The priorities of multiple-source construction oblige us to elevate a distinction which, although available in single-source linguistics is not normally considered of great importance. This is a distinction in directionality and the terms are prospective and retrospective. It is a fundamental distinction in discourse simply because the forward, or prospective, control of discourse construction is by negotiation of participants, whereas each participant in a turn has an opportunity to develop his personal messages out of what has gone before, through the creation of retrospective patterns." 65

Sinclair stresses that one of the chief differences between speech and writing is in signals of 'directionality'.

"The spoken and written forms of the language exhibit a major difference in directionality. In general, spoken language shows prominent prospective patterns with subsidiary retrospective ones and the written language shows the opposite. A writer has no great need to struggle for attention on a minute-by-minute basis. His prospections concern matters like clarity and interest and there is no likelihood, in most writing, of anything preventing him fulfilling the expectations that he arouses. He is not overtly competitive. The speaker, on the other hand, may not have time to tie in what he wants to say with what has gone before; if he does not give priority to prospections, he may not get a chance to say anything at all.

These are generalisations. Formal lectures will show similar patterns to writing and informal correspondence can be very like conversation, and there will be many in-between types" 66

Hoey, depending on the work done by Winter, also goes on to show how lexical signalling signifies organisation and facilitates the decoding of discourse. Patterns are indicated which, as Ghadessy points out,


66. Ibid., p.256-57.
signify "the degree of involvement of the writer." 67
Ghadessey, basing his work on that of Winter, distinguishes

two sentence types

"evaluative (involved) and non-evaluative (uninvolved). The
former establishing the Evaluation category and the
latter the Situation. Problem and Solution are two
optional subcategories established interpretively and
mainly on the basis of lexical evidence. Thus, the category
of Evaluation include Problem, Solution and Evaluation
proper. The information about the Situation is derived
both from the non-evaluative sentences as well as the
propositions included in the evaluative ones." 68
These major categories, as Ghadessey points out, suggests
'objectivity' as opposed to 'subjectivity' in a piece
of writing.

4. Hoey's framework provides explanations for inter-
relatedness in discourse which did not depend on adjacency
clauses and linear organization. On the one hand it
accounts for a fair percentage of the patterning to be
noticed in students writing and on the other it serves
to suggest a way of moving away from static conformist
rhetorical approaches in the teaching of writing to suggest
ways in which students could develop their writing on
more individual lines. It allows writer choice in
organization and signalling. On the subject of discourse
structure two views are put forward by Hoey -

67. M. Ghadessey, "Going beyond the sentence: Implications
of Discourse Analysis for the teaching of the writing
skill" IRAL XXII/3 (August 1984), p.216.

68. Ibid.
"on the one hand, we have a view of the discourse as a collection of multifariously related sentences, in which potentially any sentence, part of a sentence or group of sentences may be in a relation with any other, and on the other, we have a view of the discourse as interpreted as a dialogue in which the reader matches his or her expectations against the answers received." 69 

These aspects of the interrelatedness of discourse have important effects for both writers and readers. As Hoey says, 

"The two views reflect to some extent the perspectives of writer and reader. Writers are capable of revising what they write many times; each revision may introduce greater complexity of interrelatedness. They also may well write in a non-linear way, returning to earlier passages to insert extra material or indeed writing later passages before the earlier parts were even roughed out." 70 

This view of discourse provides choice to the writer and offers a less constrictive frame for the teacher to create teaching procedures for writing courses. Hoey states "it is possible that we are capable of building an indefinite number of patterns out of a strikingly finite number of resources".71 This view allows for variation. Exact frameworks need not be adhered to and the learner's elected patterning in discourse can be encouraged. Rigid rhetoric based approaches can be sidelined in favour of writing approaches that accomodate the learner's propensities and allow them to discover forms to suit 

70. Ibid. 
71. Ibid., p.33.
their individual expressive requirements. Hoey maintains this view again when he states that

"first... discourses, like sentences, can be analysed in terms of multiple layers, each layer providing detail about the unanalysed units of the layer above, and secondly, that the number of discourse patterns that can be built out of a finite set of relations signalled in a finite number of ways is indefinitely large." 72

Thus Hoey shows that rigid patterning with definite frameworks is contrary to actual performance. In actual performance the reader/analyst has to deal with unpredictability in discourse development, and non-conformist structure patterns, which makes the teaching of single linear discourse structure a limited approach. This also suggests variability of meaning. He states,

"In other words the sub-categories of relation do not represent discrete choices but are interconnected in the most complex fashion... it is quite possible for a pair of clauses to be semantically related in a number of different ways... it follows from all this that we have to analyse discourses with the greatest care as we are ever liable to oversimplify the relationship holding between any two clauses." 73

Hoey's framework also provided for unpredictability in discourse. Hoey goes on to describe how this feature of the unexpected is noticed in Kafka's short story "The Burrow" where a Situation-Problem-Response is followed by a negative evaluation instead of a positive evaluation,

72. Hoey, On the Surface of Discourse, p.34.
73. Ibid., p.20.
and explains this saying "There is a case for arguing that many of Kafka's effects are achieved by sabotaging discourse expectations." He also allows for discourse that has not been anticipated when he states that writers (or speakers) can sometimes alter the tree pattern they are developing as they proceed.

Analysis of Ranjit Shetty's and S. Bhatia's scripts using Hoey's framework

The students, it will be recalled, had been given a writing task. They were informed that readers of a local newspaper had been voicing their opinions on The Evils of The Dowry System in 'the letters to the editor' column of the local newspaper. These views of the readers were offered to students under the two headings Causes and Results and the children were required to incorporate the information into a discussion of the problem.

The aim of this analysis was
A. To categorise some of the differences observed in students written responses to the task.
B. To note some of the characteristics of effective writing as decided upon by a group of teachers.
C. To discover to what extent the nature of the task controlled the writing activity.

74. Hoey, On the Surface of Discourse, p.82.
D. To investigate how awareness-raising strategies with regard to the teaching of writing could be developed.

As the task that had been set was based explicitly on a Cause-Result relationship it was decided to analyse the discourse according to the Cause-Consequence relationship offered by Hoey. The Cause-Consequence relationship, Hoey states, is subsumed under the heading of Logical Sequence Relations (the complementary relation as stated earlier, being the Matching Relation in Hoey's framework). Winter, on whose work Hoey bases many of his statements, provides a perspective to these two relations when he states:—

"I have proposed two main kinds of predictable relation which I see as complementary to one another and as forming part of a larger semantic whole (Winter 74). The first is the Logical Sequence Relation whose sequence meaning is time/space orientation and deductive reasons; the second is The Matching Relation, one of whose important sequence meanings is the matching or comparing of detail, lexical and grammatical, and whose defining feature can be the systematic repetition of the clause". 75

Hoey providing a basis for the Cause-Consequence relationship states that it is governed by a still more fundamental relation, that of Situation-Evaluation, representing the two facets of world perception 'knowing' and 'thinking'. Hoey states that Situation-Evaluation forms "the fundamental units of discourse analysis

75. E. Winter, "A look at the role of certain words in information structure," (Hatfield Polytechnic) p.86.
corresponding roughly to the questions "what are the facts?" and "What do you think of the facts?" He goes on to extend this to:

"Situation - Evaluation of Situation as Non-Problem
Situation - Evaluation of Situation as Problem
Situation - Evaluation of Situation as Response
Situation - Evaluation of New Situation as Result
Evaluation (Fig 3.11. Hoey: 1983: 55)

Following the stages used by Hoey, the discourse is first presented, followed by a general analysis and then the justification of the analysis.

Written discourse of Ranjit Shetty (With the sentences numbered)

"1. Dowry system is one of the evils eating to the roots of human society. 2. There are many causes for the dowry system to be prevalent in the Indian society.

77. Ibid., p.55-56.
Firstly, the parents of the bride would wish that her married life is financially secure. The parents hope that their daughter will not have to face any hardships on account of lack of money. Secondly, a marriage without dowry may be considered to be against the customs. This is why the parents of the bride agree to pay dowry so that their daughter is not victimized by society. Thirdly, unmarried women in India hold a low position in society. They are harassed by the society. This is why women in India have to get married even if it means paying a dowry. Finally, the main cause of the dowry system is that the men make use of their marriage to raise their financial situation. They extract money and other articles and raise their standard of living. The results of the dowry system are horrible. People who cannot afford to pay dowry are made to suffer. The bride and her family are harassed by the bridegrooms family. If the bride's parents are poor they will have to undergo numerous hardships to pay the dowry. People who are poor are made to spend a lot of money which they cannot afford. The birth of girl children is regretted. This leads to marriages for wealth and not love."
General Analysis

Situation

1. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Problem
2. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Problem
3. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Response
4. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Response
5. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Problem
6. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Response
7. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Problem
8. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Problem
9. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Response
10. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Problem
11. Situation – Evaluation of Situation as Problem

Evaluation

12. Evaluation – Result accompanied by Evaluation
13. Evaluation – Evaluation accompanied by Basis
15. Evaluation – Evaluation accompanied by Basis
16. Evaluation – Evaluation accompanied by Basis
17. Evaluation – Evaluation accompanied by Basis
18. Evaluation – Result

Justification of the analysis

Sentence 1 begins with a situation clause in which the lexical signals - 'evils', 'eating to the roots'- are predominantly evaluative words rather than organizing
words or phrases and point to the evaluation aspect. The clue phrase 'many causes' in Sentence two predicts the listing and enumeration that follows. This phrase is an 'anticipatory' signal and the lexical realisation of this signal follows in sentences 3, 5, 7 and 10 which begins with "Firstly", "Secondly", "Thirdly" and "Finally". Thus 'many causes' serves as a signal indicator for the organisation of the paragraph. The direction provided by the explicit signalling here realizes a Preview-Detail pattern marked by a relationship of Compatibility.

Some of the characteristics of the Preview-Detail relationship appear to include :-

1) The presence of a signalling sentence which anticipates a clarification of meaning and reason for the clarification.

2) Definition as a type of detail.

3) Discourse that answers the question "Give me more details" in order to clarify the meaning of the Preview sentence.

4) A cline from a more general level of detail to a less general level.

The discourse appears to follow the Preview-Detail pattern because the signalling sentence which is one of its features is noted in the second sentence with "many causes". The first sentence with the clause "Dowry
system is one of the evils" serves as a definition and a generalisation. Sentences 3, 5, 7 and 10 provide details in this Preview-Detail structure with each providing an example or detail phrase to support the Preview phrase "many causes". Hoey states that the Preview-Detail relationship is based on the more fundamental relationship of General - Particular. He goes on to state that "The Generalisation-Example relation is, as has already been said, a sub-type of the General-Particular. It occurs whenever a passage can be projected into dialogue in such a way as to include the reader's broad request 'Give me an example or examples' 78 ".

As each sentence serves as an illustration for the Preview sentence, Ranjit Shetty's discourse could be described as following the Preview-Detail pattern.

The next feature in his discourse was the Matching Compatibility relation. This is realized through grammatical and lexical parallelism. It is also realised, as Hoey states, when all the parts are "Examples to sentence 1's Generalisation. In other words, their compatibility, arises out of their sharing the same function within the larger organisation." 79 The matching relationship in Ranjit Shetty's discourse is noted in the words "Firstly", "Secondly", "Thirdly", and "Finally"

79. Ibid.
which suggest lexical parallelism. Hoey states that in the absence of lexical repetition "the matching compatibility relation is instead conveyed by paraphrases, syntactic repetition (that is, by the retention of the same grammatical shape for each sentence) and by the constants underlying the differences." This "same grammatical shape" is observed in Ranjit Shetty's discourse where much symmetry in form is noted. Again, the Matching Relationship is noted by similarity in the nature of the questions answered in the discourse. Each of the sentences 3, 5, 7, 10 answers the question "What are the Causes?"

Again the Results/Consequence section of the Discourse has the Preview-Detail relationship with the Sentence 12 ("the results......are horrible") providing the Preview clause and Sentence 13, 14, 16, 17 & 18 forming the Detail relationship.

\[
\text{Generalisation} \\
\text{Preview (S.1)} \\
\text{(S.2 There are many causes) (S. 12 Results......horrible)} \\
\text{D - C - D - C - D - C - D - C} \\
\text{(S.3) (S.5) (S.7) (S.13) (S.13) (S.14) (S.16) (S.17) (S.18)} \\
\text{D = Detail C = Compatibility}
\]

Sentence 12 - 18 deal with the Results section of the discourse which can be paralleled with evaluation. "Evaluation" states Hoey, "may take one of three forms - Evaluation accompanied by Basis, Result accompanied by Evaluation or combined Result/Evaluation optionally accompanied by Basis."\(^{81}\) The questions that are used to elicit evaluation, according to the narrative interrogation technique, according to Hoey are:

"How successful is this response?"
"What is your evaluation of this response?"
"What is the result of this response?"
"Does it work?"
"What makes you say that?"\(^{82}\)

Shetty's discourse in this latter section appears to answer the questions "What is your evaluation of this response?" and "What makes you say that?"

Shetty's discourse was then examined from the point of view of the part played by Repetition. In this discourse, repetition would fall under Hoey's category of simple repetition which he defines as "straight forward repeating of a lexical item that has appeared earlier in a discourse with no more alteration than is explicable by reference to grammatical paradigms."\(^{83}\) Thus Shetty used the term "dowry system" in Sentence 1 which he repeats in Sentence 2

82. Ibid.
83. Ibid., p. 108.
and 10 with references to dowry in Sentence 5, 6 and 9. What is involved is simple reoccurrence.

Bhatia's writing

1A So many dowry deaths occur every year.
1B many make substance for screaming headlines.
1C yet this is an evergrowing custom.
2A The whole system of dowry is embedded in our culture.
2B our society which is the root cause.
3 It is the dominance of man and the weakness of woman which gave rise to this system.
4 In earlier days, a woman was thought of as a burden, an unproductive creature who feeds on the earning of man.
5 But today the system is very much persistent albeit in a modern facade.
6 The custom persists though it has been proved to the contrary that a woman is unproductive.
7 The new face which this system has donned aims at satiating the greedy desire of the MAN.
8 This system, on the whole, has a detrimental effect on our society.
9 The result is broken marriages, bride burning, deaths, etc.
10 Perhaps its meanest effect is that it brings MAN at par with cattle and sheep - being saleable commodities, each demanding a price of his own.
General Analysis

Situation

1A Situation - Evaluation of Situation as Problem
1B Situation - Evaluation of Situation as Response
1C Situation - Evaluation of New Situation as Result
2A Situation - Evaluation of Situation as Problem
2B Situation - Evaluation of Situation as Problem
3 Situation - Evaluation of Situation as Problem
4 Situation - Evaluation of Situation as Problem
5 Situation - Evaluation of New Situation as Result
6 Situation - Evaluation of New Situation as Result
7 Situation - Evaluation of New Situation as Result/Problem

Result

8 Evaluation - Result accompanied by Evaluation
9 Evaluation - Evaluation accompanied by Basis
10 Evaluation - Evaluation accompanied by Basis

Justification for the Analysis

Keeping in mind the Cause-Result framework on which the task was based, it was again decided to analyse Bhatia's discourse according to Hoey's Cause-Consequence pattern. As was stated earlier this relationship is subsumed in the Situation-Evaluation pattern.

In Sentence 1 the signalling phrase 'so many' signifies 'Evaluation of Situation as Problem'. The term
Problem according to Hoey is interchangeable with 'Aspect of Situation requiring a Response'. He states

"it is convenient to replace the cumbersome phrase Aspect of Situation requiring a Response with the label Problem, since many real-world situations requiring a response are so called. The change of label involves no change in our description, however. The element of the pattern is defined in terms of the discourse as a whole and not in terms of real-world knowledge". 84

The lexical phrase "screaming headlines" in sentence 1B offers a negative evaluation which emphasizes the Problem and the signalling phrase 'an ever growing custom' in IC goes on to offer an expression of dimension to the Problem. The phrase "root cause" in Sentence 2B signifies the Evaluation of Situation as Problem. The signalling verb 'gave rise to' in sentence 3, the negative evaluation signals 'burden', 'unproductive creature', 'feeds on' in sentence 4 point to Evaluation of the Situation as Problem. In sentences 5, 6, 7 the lexical signals "modern facade", "persists", "new face" and "donned" points to Evaluation of New Situation as Result. Sentence 8 provides a negative evaluation which is noted in the phrase "detrimental effect". The relationship of Evaluation accompanied by Basis is signalled in "result" in sentence 9 and "meanest effect" in Sentence 10.

Bhatia's discourse like Ranjit's is an example of the General-Particular/Preview-Detail pattern. However,

the signalling here is implicit rather than explicit as in Shetty's. The characteristics of the Preview-Detail relation, it will be recalled, were the presence of a signalling sentence which requires explanation, then definition as a type of detail, discourse that answers the question "Give me more details" and a movement from general to particular in the nature of details. Sentence IC "this is an evergrowing custom" signifies the generalisation status because it is illustrated in the discourse that follows. (Unfortunately, there is the ambiguity - to whether 'this' refers to 'dowry' or 'deaths' in sentence 1A). It can also be regarded as a Preview clause with detail clauses to be found in sentence 2A and 2B. The verb 'embedded' can be described as a 'verb of position',85 and 'is' as a 'verb of equivalence',86 - verbs which Hoey explains are typically used to describe states and are identified by him as 'Structure Detail',87 (The Detail tree, according to Hoey, is made up of "composition Detail, structure Detail and function Detail"88). Sentence 2B provides a further detail at a lower level of the particular when the sociolinguistic signal 'society' is compared with 'culture'. The presence of Detail tree structure is seen

86. Ibid.
87. Ibid.
88. Ibid., p. 146-7.
in the patterning here but in a more tacit form. Hoey states

"The Detail Tree exists wherever a discourse or passage is made up of more than one level of detail, each level being connected to the one above by some form of General-Particular relation". 89

Again the lexical signalling phrases "In earlier days" and "was thought of" act as time signals providing details of the Problem with reference to past time while 'today' and 'modern facade' signify present time. This lexical signalling would have suggested change of situation if it were not for the words 'persists' and 'is' which are 'verbs of position' describing states and thus continuance of a situation. The present time signal is again offered in Sentence 7 with the verb 'aims'. Sentence 8 has the lexical indicator "on the whole" which is a retrospective signal that effectively summarizes the facts that have gone before. Sentence 8 also provides a negative evaluation which is noted in the phrase "detrimental effect". This phrase also signals a Preview - Detail relationship. It is an anticipatory lexical signal that directs attention to the details - "broken marriages, bride burning death" in Sentence 9. A lower level of detail is explicitly signalled with the phrase "its meanest effect" and this anticipates the concluding clauses "brings MAN at par with cattle and sheep, "being saleable commodities"

"each demanding a price of his own". Thus the cline in detail is prepared for and expressed.

While in Shetty's discourse a "Matching Compatibility" relation had been noticed, in Bhatia's discourse a Matching Contrast relation is noted. Hoey states,

"There are a number of means available for demonstrating the existence of a Matching Contrast relation. These include, as has already been mentioned, the presence or potential presence of an appropriate conjunct (for example, however, by contrast, on the other hand) the presence of antonyms or appropriate negation, and the presence of signalling in the immediate context". 90.

In Bhatia's writing the Matching Contrast is noted in sentences 5 and 6, signalled by the conjunct 'but' and 'albeit' in Sentence 5, 'though' in Sentence 6.

The part played by Repetition in Bhatia's writing was then observed. Besides connecting and linking sentences and being an important factor in organisation repetition, states Hoey, "is a way of 'opening out' a sentence" to provide more information. It contributes to meaning because "it is what is changed that receives attention by the reader." Hoey distinguishes between various repetition devices, and categorizes the following - simple repetition, complex repetition, substitution, ellipsis, paraphrase.

In Bhatia's writing repetition is used in various ways. The first signalling phrase "so many dowry deaths", in sentence IA, is reiterated through the device of ellipsis where we read "many make ........ headlines" in 1B. Hoey states that "Ellipsis (or deletion) occurs when the structure of one sentence is incomplete and the missing element(s) can be recovered from a previous sentence unambiguously".

Then the signalling phrase 'the dowry system' is expressed in what Hoey terms 'simple repetition' (explained earlier

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92. Ibid.
93. Ibid., p.110.
with reference to Shetty's writing) in "the whole system of dowry" (Sentence A) "this system" (Sentences 3, 7 and 8) "the system" (Sentence 5). Repetition here is thus regarded by Hoey as a "constant without variable."94 On the other hand replacement "is made up of a constant (what it shares with the information it replaces) and a variable (where it differs from the information it replaces)."95 A change of meaning is brought about when "a modern facade" (Sentence 5) and "The new face" (Sentence 7) replace "an evergrowing custom" (Sentence IC) and "the custom" (Sentence 6).

Paraphrase relations, a form of repetition, are noted elsewhere in Bhatia's discourse. Hoey states that "simple paraphrase can be said to occur whenever one or two items can substitute for another in a particular context with no discernible change in meaning"96 while complex paraphrase occurs "Whenever one of the items can be paraphrased within the context in such a way as to include the other".97 This paraphrase relation is noticed in Sentence 4 where the phrase "a woman" appears to have a complex paraphrase relationship with the following phrases - "a burden" -

95. Ibid.
96. Ibid., p.110.
97. Ibid.
"an unproductive creature", "(one) who feeds on the earnings of man".

**ANALYSIS III**

**USE OF THE FRAMEWORK PROVIDED BY WIDDOWSON**

Reasons why the framework proved suitable:

While the framework provided by Coulthard and Montgomery provided a chain of functional categories for describing the learner's discourse and that of Hoey offered lexical signalling and sequencing patterns, it was decided to use the categories offered by Widdowson for further elucidation of the learner's discourse. In Widdowson's framework, emphasis is given to the facts, informing acts and propositions to be found in discourse. This is relevant in the teaching situation. It is often observed that when teachers of English approach students' written work they emphasize the importance of "content" and "style" in their holistic evaluation system - in other terms, the "what" and "how" of writing.

Widdowson's emphasis on propositional development caters to the teacher's demand for factual organisation in acceptable modes and patterns. Propositional development, Widdowson points out, is brought about by "cohesion".

---

and "coherence". Widdowson states that

"where we can establish a propositional relationship across sentences, without regard to what illocutionary acts are being performed, by reference to formal syntactic and semantic signals, then we recognize coherence". And he goes on to state that

"where we recognize that there is a relationship between the illocutionary acts which propositions, not always overtly linked, are being used to perform, then we are perceiving the coherence of the discourse."

He elucidates this stating that people "express a proposition of one kind or another and at the same time in expressing that proposition they perform some kind of illocutionary act". In other terms, while the facts of the utterance signify the propositions the manner in which the facts are presented constitute the illocutionary feature of the utterance. This illocutionary aspect is dependent on the circumstances and context in which the utterance is stated, what precedes the propositions and the reader writer relationship. Widdowson enlarges on the distinction between 'cohesion' and 'coherence' when he observes that discourse analysis concerns itself with two types of procedures: cohesion procedures and coherence procedure. He states:

"By cohesion procedures I mean the way the language user traces propositional development in discourse by, for example, realizing the appropriate value of anaphoric

100. Ibid., p.28.
101. Ibid.
102. Ibid., p.22.
elements, the way in which a sequence of units of information encapsulated in linguistic units is provided with a conceptual unity". 103

Thematization and grammatical cohesion therefore, can be described by rules of usage. "Coherence procedures" on the other hand refer to

"the way in which the language user realizes what communicative act is being performed in the expression of particular propositions and how different acts are related to each other in linear and hierarchical arrangements. Thus the recognition that a particular expression counts as an invitation rather than an order is a matter of realizing that the context provides for the fulfilment of one set of conditions rather than another". 104

Since propositional development is a holistic process wherein meaningfulness is brought about through cohesion and coherence procedures, Widdowson suggests that the discoursal activity can, in one type of approach, be regarded as a large illocutionary act comprised of smaller acts. In a second type of approach, Widdowson suggests that the emphasis is not on the type of communication but how it is effected. In this latter approach different communicative acts are described according to the functions performed by the smaller units. These he terms "interactive acts" 105 and examples of such acts are agreement, disagreement, initiation, response, elicitation etc.

104. Ibid.
105. Ibid., p.147.
He brings out the difference between the two procedures by saying:— "We might say, in fact, that in the case of illocutionary acts of the Searlean kind the proposition is ancillary to the act, whereas in the case of these interactive acts the act is ancillary to the proposition".\(^{106}\)

Later Widdowson goes on to extend this distinction between cohesion and coherence to the area of writing where he posits two main types of act that the writer performs:

"The first type which I will call **focal acts**, have as their purpose the expression of facts, ideas, views, and so on which the writer wishes to convey and which represent his initial purpose in writing. The second type, which I will call **enabling acts** serve to facilitate this conveyance. The focal acts relate to the writer's role as addresser: their function is to express his message. The enabling acts relate to his role as addressee: their function is to anticipate reactions from the prospective reader which might interfere with the transmission of the message." \(^{107}\)

The proposition-illocution distinction and focal-enabling act categories offered by Widdowson are classifications that are useful to the teacher:—

1. They enable the teacher to account for what is written and how it is written.


2. Widdowson provides a framework that gives importance to information units, their structure and relationships and not just functional units. The attention paid to given and new elements in each proposition point to the separate information units available in written discourse.

3. The teacher, following the methodology detailed here, does not focus attention on individual words and sentences but aided by this holistic approach goes on to teach the student to create a tentative referential orbit in which to work. The emphasis is thus on conceptual structure and on what referential act is being performed and why. In such an approach concurrent factors that are psychological and sociological in nature assume an important place. Emphasis is thus on the information units, the writing environment and the composing procedures involved.

4. Illocutionary development, as detailed by Widdowson, challenges the view that writing is a linear process.

It was decided to employ this analytic framework on the two written discourses of Shetty and Bhatia in order to bring out the proposition and illocutions perceived, and the focal acts and enabling acts to be identified.
For the purpose of this analysis the relationships considered were consequence, qualification, exemplification, clarification and elaboration. The relationship of consequence, according to Widdowson, is maintained when the succeeding statement in a discourse "follows from the truth of the generality expressed in the first statement".\(^{108}\) It is noted by markers such as "therefore". A qualification is a statement "which corrects any false impression which might have arisen from the first statement".\(^{109}\) It is noted by markers such as 'however'. An exemplification is often explicitly demarcated by a marker such as, 'for example'. A clarification is "a restatement" - "it repeats the proposition of the first (statement) in more simple or more explicit terms".\(^{110}\) An elaboration or extension of what has been said before provides additive information and is noted by markers such as 'furthermore' or 'moreover'. A formulation, which is being included in the types of acts, is "a summary or recapitulation".\(^{111}\) It leads "to a reduction of the message to its basic essentials".\(^{112}\)


109. Ibid.

110. Ibid., p. 135.


112. Ibid.
Widdowson realizes that discourse often cannot be represented "simply as a linear sequence of acts, each having equal status"\(^\text{113}\). He maintains that "we need some kind of hierarchical arrangement which shows that the link between the generalization and the elaboration represents the main propositional development or theme whereas the other acts play a supporting role"\(^\text{114}\) and so he develops a simple hierarchical model of:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Theme} \\
\text{Generalization} \\
\text{elaboration} \\
\text{Support} \\
\text{Clarification} \\
\text{exemplification}
\end{array}
\]

(Widdowson: 1978: 136)

This model shows the linear sequence of propositions as well as the thematic development of discourse thus bringing to light the main theme acts and support acts.

\(^{113}\) Widdowson, *Teaching Language as Communication*, p. 135.

\(^{114}\) Ibid.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>No. of Propositions</th>
<th>Focal Act</th>
<th>Enabling Act</th>
<th>Cohesive devices</th>
<th>Type of Illocution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Dowry system is one of the evils eating to the roots of human society.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>X *</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Thematic Heading Generalization &quot;Preparatory utterance&quot;115 which engages interest and establishes the frame of reference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. There are many causes for the dowry system to be prevalent in the Indian society.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>Elaboration presupposes the propositional content of S1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Firstly the parents of the bride would wish that her married life was financially secure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>Elaboration Supporting statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The parents hope that their daughter will not have to face any hardship on account of lack of money</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>Clari-fication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Secondly, a marriage without dowry may be considered to be against the customs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>Elaboration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Signifies presence of the Act

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>No. of Focal Enabling Propositional Act ling &amp; Coherence devices</th>
<th>Type of Illocution</th>
<th>Syntax</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. This is why the parents of the bride agree to pay dowry so that their daughter is not victimised by society.</td>
<td>2 ( \text{x} )</td>
<td>Clausal relationship providing a reason 'so that'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Thirdly unmarried women in India hold a low position in society.</td>
<td>1 ( \text{x} )</td>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. They are harassed by society.</td>
<td>1 ( \text{x} )</td>
<td>Exemplification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. This is why women in India have to get married even if it means paying a dowry</td>
<td>1 ( \text{x} )</td>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Finally, the main cause of the dowry system is that the men make use of their marriage to raise their financial situation.</td>
<td>2 ( \text{x} )</td>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. They extract money and other articles and raise their standard of living</td>
<td>2 ( \text{x} )</td>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. The results of the dowry system are horrible</td>
<td>1 ( \text{x} )</td>
<td>Generalization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. People who cannot afford to pay dowry are made to suffer</td>
<td>2 ( \text{x} )</td>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td>No. of Focal Propositions</td>
<td>Focal Act</td>
<td>Enabling Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. The bride and her family are harassed by the bridegroom's family</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. If the bride's parents are poor they will have to undergo numerous hardships to pay the dowry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. People who are poor are made to spend a lot of money which they cannot afford</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. The birth of girl children is regretted</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. This leads to marriages for wealth and not love</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This can be also represented as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Generalization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Elaboration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Elaboration</td>
<td>4. Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Elaboration</td>
<td>6. Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Elaboration</td>
<td>8. Exemplification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Elaboration</td>
<td>11. Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16. Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Elaboration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Elaboration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Formulation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
BHATIA'S DISCOURSE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>No. of Focal Enabling Acts</th>
<th>Type of Illocution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. So many dowry deaths occur every year many make substance for screaming headlines Yet this is an evergrowing custom</td>
<td>3 X*</td>
<td>Thematic Heading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Generalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>preparatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Utterance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. It is the dominance of man and the weakness of a woman which gave rise to this system</td>
<td>2 X</td>
<td>Repetition Clausal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>'this relation-system' ship &quot;which&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. In earlier days, a woman was thought off as a burden, an unproductive creature who feeds on the earning of man</td>
<td>2 X</td>
<td>Exemplification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. But today the system is very much persistent albeit in a modern facade</td>
<td>1 X</td>
<td>Elaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>albeit -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Qualification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The custom persists though it has been proved to the contrary, that a woman is unproductive</td>
<td>2 X</td>
<td>Elaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>though</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Concessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Qualification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The new face which this system has donned aims at satiating the greedy desire of the MAN.</td>
<td>2 X</td>
<td>Clausal Formulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. This system, on the whole, has a detrimental affect on our society.</td>
<td>1 X</td>
<td>Generalization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Signifies presence of the Act
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>No. of Focal Propositions</th>
<th>Acts</th>
<th>Cohesive Acts</th>
<th>Type of Illocution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. The result is broken marriages, bride burning, death etc.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Perhaps its meanest effect is that it brings MAN AT PAR WITH cattle and sheep being saleable commodities each demanding a price of his own</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Formulation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This can also be represented as:

<table>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Formulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Generalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Formulation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Features of Shetty's and Bhatia's discourse:-

1. Shetty's discourse manifested greater "cohesion procedures" with the use of "firstly", "secondly", "thirdly" and "finally". Halliday and Hasan term these "cataphoric conjunctives"\textsuperscript{116} or "internal temporal conjunction"\textsuperscript{117} as they refer to a spatial dimension within the communication taking place. Bhatia's discourse, on the other hand, manifested functional development across sentences and propositions.

2. Shetty's discourse has a greater number of propositions when compared to Bhatia's. However, comparative evaluation revealed that the teachers attached greater importance to the illocutions effected in the discourse than to the informational content.

3. In Bhatia's discourse we notice the use of connectives - 'yet', 'albeit', 'though' which express the logical relationship between two sections of a fragment of discourse. They are contrastive in nature and as they are used to express discourse in which views expressed in one section are countered by views in the other they are referred to as "concessives". The use of such connectives often leads to the illocutionary act termed a "qualification".


\textsuperscript{117} Ibid.
which Widdowson defines as a second statement "which corrects any false impression which might have arisen from the first statement". Shetty's discourse does not reveal the use of such concessives and equivalences.

4. It was also noted that Shetty employed all the informational content provided in the task, often repeating given propositions or elaborating them. On the other hand, Bhatia's discourse while keeping to the main discoursal framework, showed little dependency on the propositional content given. His use of different propositional content derived from knowledge of the world and experience may have been one of the reasons for the group of teachers marking his written work higher than Shetty's.

The three analyses attempted here thus provided the following:

i) It offered the teacher a means of interpreting the learner's language, allowing identification of the writer's meaning from different analytical viewpoints.

ii) It also provided linguistic explanations of students' writing plans and behaviours. Examination of the undergraduate students writing provides evidence

of some of the planning devices used by the learner and thus some understanding of the strategies the learner employs in developing discourse.

iii) This observation of the manner in which individual writers had built up written responses also brought into focus variables in writing performance. This description of the uncertainties and constraints student writers experience, as well as the possibilities suggests, to the teacher, directions in the teaching methodology that can be employed.

iv) It made possible an insightful classification of some of the characteristic features of the writing of different groups of performers.

Thus the system of analysis by Coulthard and Montgomery provided functional categories, that by Hoey lexical signalling functions, and that by Widdowson proposition and illocution description. All three helped to provide an explanation of what actions the writer performs while writing. Analysis by these frameworks, as stated earlier, is descriptive and non-evaluative. It shows what support acts student writers chose when elaborating a theme. Linguistically, it offered explanations for the strong or tenuous relationship between "main discourse" and "subsidiary discourse" (Coulthard and Montgomery, 1981) or "Preview-Detail"
connections (Hoey 1983) and drew attention to insufficient "cohesion" or reduced "coherence" (Widdowson, 1978).

Functional categorisation, however, can be insufficient to the teacher who has to decide not just what the student writer tends to do in his writing but also what he can be usefully led to do in order to increase or reduce particular tendencies.

Scardamalia, Bereiter and Goelman (1986) who discuss young writers work in terms of "coherence" (Widdowson 1978) and "cohesion" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976) state that there is a general expectation that where cohesion in writing exists coherence is also present. However they provide excerpts of a fourth grader's composition in which they show that there are ample cohesive links between the two sentences, "but the concatenations of ideas is incoherent". They suggest, from this, that "it is the network of ideas and not the use of cohesive devices that determines coherence. Cohesion provides help in discovering the network if one exists". Besides, they maintain that "with


120. Ibid., p.198.

121. Ibid.
unsophisticated writers coherence can exist even with marked failures of cohesion."\textsuperscript{122}

At the undergraduate level also the work of poor performers reveals weak cohesion and reduced coherence. Another characteristic of ineffective writers was their use of repetition and insufficient illocutionary acts, such as elaboration and exemplification, as well as a lack of variety in the illocutionary acts they used. It was therefore decided to investigate further some of the apparent reasons for poor performance. A comparative study was then made into the response students offered in two writing tasks.

Comparative study:-

Written tasks were given to two groups of learners with the same experiential background in language learning-in terms of learning environments and length of exposure to English language teaching. The task involved explanatory writing on a topic of social concern. One group of students (group A) were given the topic, required to write about its causes and results, and provided some information and propositional content which they could use. The other group of students (Group B) were given the same topic, without propositional support.

\textsuperscript{122} Scardamalia, Bereiter and Goelman, "The role of production factors in writing ability", p.198.
and were required to complete the writing in the exigency conditions of an examination hall environment where various other written tasks had to be completed within a given time limit.

Observations:

1. Group A students who were provided with discourse structure and some propositional content produced written discourse which had greater "coherence" (Widdowson 1978). The use of a defined task with a definite framework could thus be regarded as one implicit way of strengthening discourse structure in students' writing. Here the framework of the task directs the type of writing that results. But in this research, it is being suggested that methodologies that prescribe definite patterns of action in writing behaviour are less desirable than those that encourage the learner to progress according to his/her personal intents or objectives.

2. Many of the Group B writers manifested difficulty in developing what Coulthard and Montgomery refer to as 'Main Discourse' and Widdowson 'Theme'. Their writing revealed weak and uncoordinated 'Subsidiary Discourse' and 'Support' which led to reduced 'coherence' for the reader.
Group B students, as has been pointed out, produced writing with reduced 'coherence', poor 'theme' structure or 'main discourse'. It was then thought necessary to investigate some of the apparent reasons for such reduced 'coherence'. Here the work of Witte and Cherry\textsuperscript{123} threw light on the framing strategies employed by student writers. Witte and Cherry, following the work done by Flower and Hayes, state that one of the difficulties many writers face is "'finding a focus'."\textsuperscript{124} They investigate the writing of student writers in grades 4, 8, 12 and 15 in a task that required informative and descriptive writing. The respondents were required to describe an acquaintance, place or landmark. Witte and Cherry, as a result of their investigations, posit four framing strategies that the writers employ. These framing strategies suggest the manner in which the student writers appeared to conceptualize the writing assignment which resulted in different choices about specific content. The four strategies they enumerate are i) narrative framing strategy ii) the sequence framing strategy iii) the locative framing strategy iv) the descriptive framing strategy.


\textsuperscript{124} Ibid., p.130.
This research by Witte and Cherry provided some explanation for describing the manner in which student writers' conceptualized a task - and accounted for their various approaches in a free writing composition task in which no explicit propositional support had been provided. Witte and Cherry show how writers offer "different conceptualizations of an identical writing situation and, perhaps, different choices about specific content."\(^{125}\) Illustrating from the work of four young writers they show how each one's written work is different from that of the others and state that the differences cannot be explained only in terms of content or syntactic structure. "Rather, the principal distinguishing characteristic seems to be the choices the various writers made during composing about what to topicalize in their discourse."\(^{126}\) In order to investigate how writers represent writing tasks to themselves the researchers used think-aloud protocols to show, in some part, how writers composed. They offer two excerpts from transcriptions of tape recordings. The first protocol shows the writer experiencing difficulty at framing at both the global and focal levels. The second writer has few problems with these processes. Witte and Cherry state

\(^{125}\) Witte and Cherry, "Writing Processes and Written Products in Composition Research," p.131.

\(^{126}\) Ibid., p.135.
that these framing procedures are closely related to what Flower and Hayes call "'finding a focus' " and "'forming for use'" - two content specific plans that are closely linked to the process of "translating" (Flower and Hayes). 127 Difficulties in framing, Witte and Cherry ascribe to "an inadequate representation of the rhetorical situation and the rhetorical problem.......In part, the difficulty the writer appears to have with framing seems to be a product of the writer's having trouble entering imaginatively into the rhetorical context posited by the writing assignment". 128 An example of such difficulties in framing strategies is observed in the writing of many undergraduate writers and is one of the main reasons for reduced 'coherence'. The work of this I PUC student given below reveals the problems the writer is experiencing in framing at the global and local levels.

(This writing was done during a term examination—where there was high motivation to perform well and at the same time limited time available to the student-writer.)


Difficulties in framing also resulted in writers offering lengthier discourses with propositions which explicitly revealed their search for a main focus.

Another constraint that was observed in student's writing appeared to be problems with role creation. Witte and Cherry state that difficulties with role relationship occur because the writer has problems in "conceptualizing the relationship between writer and audience .......... More precisely, the writer is unable to cast propositions
in forms that will address the requirements of the audience in this imaginary rhetorical situation.129 The writer displays uncertainty of purpose and problems which results in an improper conceptual framework for the argument. An example of the writing that ensues as a result of incorrect representation of writer-reader relationship is given below. These examples have been taken from the work of another student at the same examination mentioned earlier).

The Cinema:

Oh! Cinema that you entertained me for so long! You saved me from the restlessness, busy-ness and so on. Have you got any program today? Yes! Cinema, morning show, don't come joining with us? No one can be free from cinema. Some people gain good knowledge from it but some copy it commit certain disasters. It is a great education for the uneducated people as well as educated people. We see so everything in the Cinema even we do not see in cinema. As a most important entertainment to people like don't time it release people from staff.

The different ways in which students represent the writing task to themselves leads the teacher to agree with the tenets proffered by Scardamalia, Bereiter and Goelman on writing research in which they maintain:-

1. "There is not one single mental representation of a text". They explain that there are a number of possible representations which refer to the different types of text processing the writer could be engaging in. This planning, they state, is dependent on goals, central ideas and gist units.

2. In general, these representations are not automatically framed and stored, ready for immediate recall. Instead, they have to be constructed or reconstructed every time they are needed. The researchers here assume "a multilevel interacting model of composing", and examine different views on mental representation.

3. "Constructive mental effort is required in going from lower to higher levels of text representation"

131. Ibid.
132. Ibid.
133. Ibid., p.204.
'High' and 'Low', the researchers explain, refer to "levels of inclusiveness" and a greater amount of constructive activity is required if the writer attending to a low level of text representation is to reach a higher level.

4. "Mental representations of text may vary from vague and fragmentary to sharply delineated and detailed". This depends on various factors a) "levels of sophistication of the writer" which is dependent on the repertoire of plans and genre schemes the writer has had experience with b) "how frequently the writer has previously reconstructed this representation" and c) "the needs of the moment". According to the view provided by Scardamalia, Bereiter and Goelman the composing process is viewed as an activity in which "mental representations are continually being reconstituted". In their view frequent practice in the construction of gist units and higher level text representations leads to sharper and more detailed representation of text.

134. Scardamalia, Bereiter and Goelman, "The role of production factors in writing ability," p.204.

135. Ibid.

136. Ibid.

137. Ibid., p.207.
This chapter on an investigation of students' needs begun with learners' explicit expression of 'wants', teachers perceptions of students requirements in writing and finally the researcher's analysis of writing, affords some understanding of required writing activities, that is, students' social and occupational writing requirements, on the one hand - and their deeper writing needs as realized in their writing behaviour, on the other.