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**The Effectiveness of Using a Program based
on Individualized Instruction in Developing
Ninth Grade Pupil's Writing skills**

**A Thesis Submitted for Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree Master
Of Language and Linguistics**

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المخلص

أجريت هذه الدراسة للتحقق من مدى فاعلية برنامج يعتمد على التعليم التفردي في تطوير مهارات الكتابة لدى طلبة الصف التاسع. العينة تكونت من خمسة و عشرون طالبة ليبية من مدرسة النهضة للتعليم الأساسي و الإعدادي بمدينة اجدابيا. البرنامج تمحور حول تعديل التوجيه و التدريس طبقا لسيطرة الطالب المبدئية على أهداف التعليم المستخدمة. البرنامج تكون من ثلاثة مراحل:

المرحلة الأولى: **التشخيص:** تقييم الطالبة لمعرفة ما الذي تحتاج إتقانه؛ و لفعل ذلك قامت الباحثة بأجراء امتحان تشخيصي.

المرحلة الثانية: **الوصف:** وفقا لنتائج الامتحان التشخيصي؛ قامت الباحثة بتصميم خطط لما تحتاج الطالبات لتعلمه و إعفائهن مما يعرفن مسبقا. تمارين البرنامج تمحورت حول احتياجات طلبة الصف التاسع في ثلاثة مهارات " مهارات نحوية؛ مهارات تعبيرية؛ و أخيرا مهارات بصرية". المرحلة الثالثة: **التقييم:** أعطيت الطالبات امتحان بعدي لتقييم مدى تقدمهن. للإجابة عن سؤال الدراسة؛ الباحثة جمعت درجات الامتحان البعدي للعام الدراسي (2011-2012) و حللت البيانات بواسطة استخدام "t".

بناء على هذه البيانات؛ يمكننا الاستنتاج أن البرنامج المستخدم قد اثر ايجابيا على مستوى العينة. هذه الدراسة قدمت توصيات يمكن أن يستخدمها المعلم لتطوير برامج الكتابة مما يسمح للطلبة بتحقيق التقدم الأكاديمي.

ABSTRACT

This study was carried out to investigate the effectiveness of a program based on individualized instruction in developing ninth grade pupils' writing skills on English. The sample consisted of 26 Libyan Students at AL-Nahda Public School in Ajdabya city, Libya . A program based around the process of adjusting instruction for prior student's mastery of learning objectives was used. The program involved a three-steps process: **Phase One: Diagnosis:** assessing the student to determine her level of knowledge on what she still needs to master. In order to do so, the researcher conducted a diagnostic test. **Phase Two: Prescription:** according to the results of the test, the researcher designed plans for what the students need to know, and excuse them from studying what they already know. The program activities are based around the ninth grade pupils' needs, in three groups of writing skills" Grammatical skills, Expressive skills, and visual or graphical skills. **Phase Three Evaluation:** students were given a post test in order to assess their progress. The test consisted of the same elements of the diagnostic test.

In order to answer the researcher questions, data were collected through preparing a post-test for students in the academic year 2011/2012. . In order to answer the researcher questions, data were collected through preparing a post-test for students in the academic year 2011/2012. Paired "*t*" tests were used to analyze the pre-test and post-test changes. Based on data, it is reasonable to conclude that the designed program positively impacted the writing achievement of the sample. This study also provides recommendations teachers can use to develop writing programs that allow students to achieve academic success.

DEDICATION

To My Beloved Father Idrees A'mer, And Mother Najat Ahmed,

My Brothers, And My Sister,

My Deer Husband,

And My Lovely Son Offy.

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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Writing is a fundamental skill that facilitates communication among individuals. As children proceed in formal education, writing is employed as a form of communication which demonstrates knowledge and creativity. Over time, the ability to effectively write becomes increasingly important. In fact, writing has been identified as a threshold skill for employment and promotion (National Commission on Writing [NCW], 2004). Thus, it is critical that educators supply students with the necessary writing skills and strategies to succeed throughout their educational and professional experiences (Schnee, 2010; 10).

According to Raimes (1983;3) writing helps students to learn because:

1. It reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms and vocabulary we teach.
2. When students write, they get involved with the new language, the efforts to express ideas and the constant use of the eye, hand and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning.
3. It allows students to go beyond what they have learned.

Seliem (2008; 2) pointed out that writing has been studied by various researchers with different academic background experience, psychologists, linguists, etc. Each studied writing from different aspects; yet, they are all concerned centrally with understanding writing processes. Data on composing process have been organized and synthesized as follows:

1. A Cognitive activity.
2. A Particular form of language use.
3. A Communicative process.
4. A Contextualized, purposive activity.

In spite of its great importance, writing is one of the most difficult language skills to Master. Heaton(1994; 7) noted that writing skills are complex and sometimes difficult to teach, requiring mastery not only of grammatical and rhetorical devices but also of conceptual and judgmental element. E F L leaner is in a bad need to develop his writing skills as tool to faster the understanding of other language skills.

According to Gonye, et., al. (2012; 73) the specific skills attached writing can be analyzed under five headings:

1. Graphical or visual skills.
 - Writing graphemes (letters of the alphabet)
 - Spelling.
 - Punctuation and capitalization.
 - Format (such as the layout of a letter or a shopping list)2.
2. Grammatical skills: These refer to the students' ability to use successfully a variety of sentence patterns and constructions.
3. Expressive or stylistic skills: The students' ability to express precise meaning through various styles.
4. Rhetorical skills: The students ability to use linguistic cohesion devices – connectives, reference words, ellipsis ...
5. Organizational skills: The organization of places of information into paragraphs and texts. This involves the sequencing as ideas and avoidance of irrelevant information.

Clark (1975; 69) stated that:

Writing, it seems to me, cannot be " learned" in the same sense as one can learn square roots or punctuation or typewriting. One never really completes the process of learning to write. The technical skill is intimately tied up with one's self-confidence, self-image, and self-growth. Somewhere in the school experience, every student needs to have the chance to experience that kind of growth. This need to give learners some control over their learning leads us to the issue of adaptive learning from which individualized instruction.

The 'traditional' classroom tends to treat students as a homogeneous group, with the teacher presenting the same exercises to all students at the same time, and

expecting the same answers to be produced within similar time limits. Students are expected to absorb the knowledge presented by the teacher with a strong emphasis on the use of language and logical-mathematical analysis. Most academic knowledge is presented for learning by means of an extremely limited (or limiting) methodology and the

acquisition of that knowledge is evaluated by means of rote tests, whereby the best grades are assigned to students who demonstrate the greatest ability for memorization. Teachers should be well aware of the fact that every classroom is full of students who are different from each other in many different ways. Each student comes from a different social, economic and cultural background, each one has different areas of interest, different ways of expressing themselves, different strengths and weaknesses, and now the teacher is being asked to be aware of the fact that each student also has their own individual intelligence profile. (Currie, 2003;1).

According to Spector (2008; 470) a central and constant issue in education the planning and provision of instructional environments and conditions that fit and support individually different educational goals and learning abilities. In general, instructional approaches and techniques that are devised to meet the needs of individually different students in developing knowledge and skills required to learn a task are called adaptive instruction. Therefore any form of instruction is adaptive, whether it is delivered by teachers or in a technology-based format, if it accommodates different student learning needs and abilities. Adaptive instruction has a long history and has been applied in a variety of forms and settings, from group-based, classroom instruction to Web-based, open space instruction.

Lake& Gross (2011; 2) noted that in an individualized class, learning occurs wherever needed, at whatever pace is needed. Learning day is extended if necessary; Standards are tied to global expectations and requirements for college success. Curriculum is personalized to meet diverse learning needs. Assessments are used that adapt and measure progress toward mastery of standards. Teacher roles are flexible to support. According to Webster (2012; 2) a classroom for individualized instruction creates space for individual instruction, independent work, learning centers and small and large group instruction. This classroom may be a self-contained special education classroom or a resource room. In both classrooms, a wide range of abilities will be represented. Both classrooms will

have children with a variety of individualized goals that need to be addressed by their teacher.

Using an individualized education program, teachers must determine the student's unique characteristics or needs to which the special attention will be directed. One helpful way to learn to think in terms of these essential characteristics is to imagine that you are describing the student to a volunteer who has never met the student and is going to take him or her camping for a week. The individualized instruction is required to address only the portions or aspects of the student's education that need to be individualized. The student should be visible. The primary focus of the individualized instruction is going to be the specification of services. This initial step is to determine what is necessitating the services (Bateman, 1995; 3).

Whole-class, one-size-fits-all approaches to writing instruction will never be congenial to the needs of individual, struggling writers, whose needs are widely varied. The key to meeting the instructional needs of struggling writers—in fact, of meeting the particular needs of even the most successful students—is individualized support and direction, informed by appropriate, ongoing assessment. To support struggling writers, teachers must be able to organize their classroom with structures that permit them to collect routine, in-depth assessment data and to work with students individually and in small groups (Marling & Paugh 2009;3).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

According to the pilot study conducted by the researcher some Libyan ninth grade students have not achieved good writing skills of English. They also are not provided with the sufficient opportunities to practice writing because of the time limitation and the students' numbers in the class. Therefore, this study is seeks investigate the effectiveness of applying a program based on individualized instruction in developing ninth grade pupils' writing skills in English. The pilot study was conducted on 30 of Al-Nahda preparatory public school's students at Ajdabya city. The test consisted of the following questions:

Q.1: Complete the following table

Verb	Noun	Adjective
.....	Cooking
Achieve
.....	Processed

Table 1 question item

Q.2 Write a paragraph about industry in Libya using the following words:

growing – attractions – unique – tourism – Mediterranean.

Q.3 Write three words for each category:

1. Things that are made in Libya.

2- Things that are made in factories.

Q.4 Rewrite the following paragraph using punctuation marks.

when edmund hillary was a young boy he was very thin and was not good at ball games he studied hard at school then went to college however he dropped out after two years and worked with his father a bee-keeper

Q.5 Write a paragraph about your personal achievements.

Student's performance on each question of this test is illustrated in Table 1:

Question No.	Question's Point Value	Student's No.	Student's Performance on each question
Q.1	out of 6	2 out of thirty	3
		1	2.5
		3	2
		2	1.5
		2	1
		20	0
Q.2	out of 10	1	6
		1	2
		3	1
		1	0.5
		24	0
Q.3	out of 4	1	4
		4	3.5
		2	3
		2	2.5
		15	2
		4	1.5
		2	1
Q.4	out of 6	7	0.5
		23	0
Q.5	out of 5	1	5
		1	3.5
		1	3.25
		3	2.50
		6	2
		3	1.75
		1	1.50
		1	1.25
		3	1
		1	0.75
		3	0.50
		6	0

Table 2 students' performances

As a result of this pilot study we can see that most subjects have problems in writing.

1.3 Aims of the Study

This study aims at:

1. Determining ninth grade Libyan pupils' needs and points of weakness in writing skills.
2. Preparing a program based on individualized instruction to develop ninth grade pupils' writing skills.
3. Investigating the effectiveness of the suggested program in developing ninth grade pupil's writing skills.

1.4 Scope and Limitation of the study

This study is limited to Al-Nahda preparatory public school students.

1.5 Research Question and Hypothesis

The research question this study addressed is:

Is there a significant difference between the pre-test scores and the post-test scores of the students after receiving a program based on the individualized instruction.

The question led to the following hypotheses:

1. There is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-administration and the post-administration writing test.
2. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-administration and the post-administration writing test.

1.6 Methodology

This study was conducted on a sample of 26 ninth grade Libyan pupils at Al-Nahda preparatory public school during the academic year 2012/2013. A pre-test was used to measure pupils basic writing skills and determine their points of weakness and needs . A program based around a variety of activities and options

through which students exhibit what they have learned was used. The content area of the program lessons and assignments was mainly prepared according to the students' previous knowledge and what they need to master to write a very simple paragraph. . The program lasted seven weeks, three periods a week .This program involved a three-steps process:

Phase one: Diagnosis:

Assessing the students to determine first, their present level of learning and previous knowledge and second, what they still need to master. In order to do so, the researcher conducted a diagnostic test.

Phase Two: Prescription

According to the results of the test, the researcher prepared a program for what the students need to know. The program activities are based around the ninth grade pupils' needs, in three groups of writing skills: grammatical skills, expressive skills, and visual or graphical skills.

Phase Three: Evaluation

Students were given a post test in order to assess their progress. The test consisted of the same elements of the diagnostic test.

Data were collected from the post-test sheets. Paired *t* test were used to analyze the data collected.

2.1 The Nature of Writing

Byne (1979; 8) states "when we write we use graphic symbols that are letters or combinations of letters which relate the sounds we make when we speak." But these graphic symbols which are used need to be arranged properly to form words and then to form the sentences with a view to communicating our ideas in an organized way, so it can be said that writing is the encoding of a message of some kind, it represents our thoughts and ideas. What one' thinks leads to one's writing in the form of sentences and by organizing the sentences into a cohesive text where we are able to communicate with our readers successfully (Bachani, 2003; 1). Ruane (1983; 94) defines writing as " a private express act aimed at generating

autonomous text for an absent audience. She also considers text autonomy as taken for granted. Writing is also defined as a method of representing language in visual or tactile forms (<http://www.omniglot.com/writing/definition.htm>).

Writing is a learned skill that can be taught in a school setting as a thinking-learning activity in which the emphasis is on the process of writing. As a cognitive process, writing requires both backward and forward thinking. Good writers do not simply sit down and produce a text; rather they go through several stages of the writing process_ prewriting, writing (or drafting), revising, and sharing with an audience (Graves, 1983; 219-229).

According to Emig (1977; 123) writing is a secondary language process. An individual must learn to write through instruction, as opposed to learning to listen and speak, which happen more naturally with little or no instruction. Emig also states "writing is originating and creating a unique verbal construction that is graphically recorded," and writing is product driven, often mysterious, and highly regarded in most cultures. In the same sense, Myles (2002; 1)suggested that good writing ability is not a naturally acquired skill; it is usually learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments. Writing skills must be practiced and learned through experience. Hadley further suggested that writing involves composing, which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information in the form of narrative or descriptions, or to transform information into new texts, as in expository or argumentative writing. Perhaps it is best viewed as a continuum of activity that ranges from the most mechanical or formal aspects of "writing down" on the one end, to the more complex act of composing on the other end.

Writing is an interpretation of what writers find or see around them .writing is something highly influenced by history , conventions ,and culture . Writing is also an act in which writers construct their own consciousness as they create a dialectical interface with themselves (Ketter & Pool, 2001; 79). McVey (2008; 289-294) defined all writings as creative writing. Originally the term creative writing was used to delineate writing as an author's artistic expression and not as a subject for literacy criticism. McVey further stated that all writings from the most basic set of instruction to the most abstract poetry are creative writing because of their common elements like voice, tone, and their manipulation of language.

Writing is believed to be cognitively challenging, Acquisition of vocabulary and discourse style is exceptionally difficult. From a cognitive point of view, communicating orally or in writing is an active process of skill development and progress elimination of errors as the learner internalizes the language. In fact, acquisition is a result of the complex interaction between the linguistic environment and the learner's internal mechanisms. With practice there is a constant reconstructing as learners shift these internal representations in order to achieve increasing degrees of proficiency in L2 (McLaughlin,1988; 8).

Writing complexity compared with oral language can be characterized in the following statement:

"the writer is seldom faced with the reader and so is not able to rely on the situation as context , on head nods as signals to move ahead, or on quizzical expression as demands for clarification or detailed support. While the same implicit contact of cooperation applies in both modes of communication , in the writing mode the writer must anticipate the reader's understanding at any given point in the discourse and despite the lack of any immediate interchange, fulfill the reader's expectations (Ruane, 1983; 94)".

The writer must take total control of the discourse and create what is called an "autonomous text", a text that ensures comprehension by giving the reader all the necessary information exactly when it is needed (as cited in Ruane, Ibid; 94).

In written language there is a greater expectation of accuracy in grammar, vocabulary and spelling, writers need to think about what they are going to write and how they are going to write before they begin the process of writing, and they often never find out what readers think of their text. Paragraphing, layout, punctuation are used in written language to make the message clearer (<http://www.languages.ac.az>).

Weigle (2002; 16-18) pointed out a number of characteristics that differentiate written language from spoken language can be listed as follows:

1. **Permanency:** Oral language is transitory and must be processed in real time, while written language is permanent and can be read and reread as often as one likes;

2. **Production time:** Writers have much more time to plan, review, and revise their words before they are finalized, while speakers must plan, and deliver their utterances within a few moments in the conversation;
3. **Distance:** between the reader and the writer in both time and space which eliminates much of the shared context that is presented between speakers and listeners in ordinary face-to-face contact and thus necessitates greater explicitness on the part of the writing;
4. **Orthography:** Which conveys a limited amount of information compared to the bounty of devices available to speakers to enhance a message (e.g. stress, intonation, pitch, volume, pausing, etc);
5. **Complexity:** Written language tends to be characterized by longer clauses and more subordinator, while spoken language tends to be shorter; clauses connected by coordinators, as well as more redundancy (e.g. repetition of nouns and verbs);
6. **Formality:** Because of the social uses of which writing is ordinarily put, writing tends to be more formal than speaking;
7. **Vocabulary:** Written texts tend to contain a wider variety of words and more lower-frequency words, than oral texts.

All the differences between written and spoken language arise from two fundamental differences which are (permanence and production time) in the sense that writing leaves physical trace by the writer or by the reader, while speaking; unless it is recorded; does not, and the physical act of writing takes longer than the physical act of speaking. Even though features such as vocabulary and formality do frequently differ across speaking and writing, it may ultimately be more important to consider the wider social and cultural context in which speaking and writing are used. Writing in this regard, is highly valued in educational settings, and the standardization of writing means that accuracy in writing is more important than accuracy in speaking. The physical act of writing is sometimes thought to be the result of cognitive effort on the part of an individual writer. However, it is important to view writing not solely as the product of an individual, but also as social and cultural act. Writing is both a social and a cultural activity; these acts of writing cannot be isolated but must be seen within their social and cultural context. To some extent, the ability to write indicates the ability to function as a literate

member of a particular segment of society or discourse community, or to use language to demonstrate one's membership in that community (Weigle, 2002; 18).

Compared with speech, effective writing requires a number of things: a high degree of organization in the development of ideas and information; a high degree of accuracy so that there is no ambiguity of meaning; the use of complex grammar devices for focus and emphasis; and a careful choice of vocabulary, grammatical patterns, and sentence structures to create a style which is appropriate to the subject matter and the prospective readers. Students are aware of their own problems in writing, and they have attitudes and feelings about the writing process (Radulescu, 2010; 507).

In a similar attitude, Hamp-Lyons & Kroll (1997; 8) viewed writing as " an act that takes place within a context, that accomplishes a particular purpose, and that is appropriately shaped for its intended audience". Sperling (1996; 55) noted that" writing, like language in general, is a meaning making activity that is socially and culturally shaped, and individually and socially purposeful". According to Wang & Odell (2003; 147) writing is also viewed as an important skill for effective performance in social settings. It is also a means by which students express themselves, generate new knowledge and transform the social settings in which they live.

2.2 Importance of writing

Many educationalists agree that writing has been neglected skill as many linguists from De Saussure through to Chomsky paid more attention to speaking skills (Selim ,2008; 17). But the attention to writing has increased due to the growing awareness of the important role of writing in the process of language learning in general. If a teacher considers why he asks students to write, he will find a variety of reasons among which: as a means of assessment; as an aid to critical thinking; to extend student's learning beyond lectures and other formal meetings; to improve students communication skills; and try to train students as future professionals in specific disciplines (Coffin. et., al, 2003; 20).

Some of writing's importance can be listed as follows:

1. *Writing is a way of learning* (Bertch, 1987; 95). Students achieve more when their classroom activities and homework assignments include writing. They learn more as writing demands their active involvement in finding meaning in content material and gives them a greater understanding of it, they retain their learning better, as writing imprints it more thoroughly in their minds; and they learn it differently, as they gain a personal connection to what they are learning and make their own sense of it in ways that go beyond recognition or recall of facts into application and creativity (Bertch, 1987; 15). Cross (1999; 11) echoes these sentiments: "students need time to talk, write, reflect, and otherwise engage in activities that make material their own". Writing is not simply a way of learning, it is a unique one, because it is an active form of learning, compared to the more passive listening and reading that occupy much of student's time. It can thus help students to act, rather than to accept uncritically whatever is given to them (Emig, 1977; 122-128). Active learning, however, requires writing assignments which ask students to create, explore, and analyze, rather than just repeat information they have read. Writing involves students because they use their eyes, hands, and brains (as cited in Ghaith, 2010; 3-5).
2. *Writing is a primary basis upon which job competence is judged* (<http://www.Mquete.edu/.../whatmakeswritingsoimportant.shtm/>): when the U.S. Department of Labor published the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) Executive Summary in 1992; it included writing as "a foundation skill" necessary for "competent" workers in the high-performance workplace". Thus students who learn the skill of communicating their thoughts in written form are acquiring a prized business skill (Coley; 2000; 4).
3. *Writing shapes and filters our ideas* (Raimes, 1983; 3): In this sense, Langer & Applebee (2007; 41-42) found that writing shapes thinking because it serves three general pedagogical functions which are: (a) relying on relevant

knowledge and experience in preparing for writing. (b) combining and review new information and experiences; and (c) reformulating and extending knowledge.

4. *Writing is a means of self-assessment and getting feedback from the teacher* (Seliem, 2008; 28): writing ideas down helps students to evaluate the adequacy of their argument, it preserves thoughts so that students can reflect upon them later. Hyland (1996; 177) suggests that students usually intend their text to be read, and in the classroom feedback from readers (teacher and classmates) yields opportunities for them to see how others respond to their work and to learn from these responses. This type of formative feedback seeks to encourage the progress of students' writing and is considered as critical in improving and consolidating learning.

2.3 Types of Writing:

Generally there are four main types of writing: Descriptive, Expository, Persuasive, and Narrative. To guide students understanding and self-talk Chapmand & King (2009; 37-44) suggested teaching students to use the sentence in the heading for each type:

2.3.1 Descriptive Writing: *Let me create a picture in your mind!* (Chapmand & King, Ibid; 37).

This type of writing utilizes words to initiate images or impressions of a person, place, concept, object, or event. The student trigger words to promote the mind's eye. This ability to use descriptive language develops over time through extensive practice and purposeful instruction within units of study. It is easier to apply this skill to personal experience, because student's memories create the mental images. Examples of this type are: character analysis, play script, poetic descriptions, and comparisons/contrasts.

2.3.2 Expository Writing: *Let me Explain it to You!* (Chapmand & King, Ibid; 38).

Expository or Transactional writing is used for analysis and abstraction. It is concerned with writing to get things done (Zamelman; 1977;52-54). The writer is writing for audience and needs to argue, explain, summarize or answer questions. It may also involve giving a step-by-step account or how to produce or reveal the causes of an event. Key words used in some expository writing include first,

second, then, next, and finally. Examples of this type are: book report, directions, research paper, how to guide, news story, recounting of an event, information text, training manual, procedure, factual response, and scientific .

2.3.3 Persuasive Writing: *Let me Convince You!* (Chapmand & King, 2009; 38).

Persuasive writing is the writer's attempt to change the beliefs or behaviors of an individual or group of people. By stating an opinion and providing factors and details that explain, prove, or support it, the writer uses words and phrases to persuade the reader or audience to adopt new ideas, behaviors, or other changes. Examples of this: book review, brochure, commercial, business letter, editorial, movie review, poster letter to the editor, position statement, camping speech, critique and advertisement.

2.3.4 Narrative Writing: *Let me Tell You What Happened!*(Chapmand & King, Ibid; 40).

Narrative or poetic writing involves primary concern for the form and act of telling, in itself. It uses artistic or literary aspects of language to create different genres (Zamelman; 1977, pp.54). It may be about an event in the present, past, or future. It may be fiction or non-fiction. Examples of this type are: biography, mystery, diary, fantasy, fable, historical fiction, legend, myth, novel, current event, tall tale, ply, story, sitcom, and science fiction. Even though that the main types of writing have typical features, nevertheless; there are many examples of mixed type, for example; advertisements are often descriptive followed by persuasive, or a mixture of the tow, as the product is described in persuasive terms. A biography can also be descriptive. The notion of type includes " purpose and features of layout as separated things i.e. a letter may be written in very similar format for very different purpose (description, recount, persuasion, even instruction -if the reader is given directions to reach some place), and the language used will reflect these different purposes (Bentley, 2008; 1-6).

Another way to categorize the type of writing is from a target audience, purposive view point:

1. Academic writing: involves essays, research papers, reports, etc...
2. Professional writing: writing of scientific or academic journals, business reports positions papers, policy statement, and likes, since these have to follow a standardized form.

3. Business writing: contains technical writing, business plan writing, resume writing, letter writing, etc....
4. Copywriting: writing marketing text, grant writing.
5. Journalists: columnists, article writers (staff of feedback), writers whom write for newspapers and magazines either news articles, commentary or articles which are concerned with certain subject.
6. Non-fiction writers.
7. Fiction: novelists, scriptwriters, playwright, short story writers (<http://www.blogspot.com/...../kinds-of-writing.htm/>).

2.4 Teaching writing

Good writing is not only a hard work; it is also an extremely complex and challenging mental task. Many children experience difficulty mastering this complex task (Saddler et., al. ,2004; 4). Whatever the reason, teachers need to help such students building the writing habit so that they perceive writing as being a normal part of classroom practice and they come to writing activities with as much excitement as they do other tasks. Teachers must make sure, however; that they give them enough information to do what they have asked. Teachers will also want to make sure that students have enough of the right kind of language to do the task. Building the writing habit can be done with a range of activities which get students to write for the fun and practice of it, rather than have them write as a skill (Harmer, 2007; 329-331).

In order to do so, a teacher first must know what skills are implied in the ability to write and second understand the nature of difficulties students seem to have with the writing class. The following list is a move in that direction:

1. Teachers can play a valuable part in raising awareness of the process of composition by talking explicitly about the stages of writing as well as by structuring tasks to take account of this.
2. Teachers can be supportive during the early stages of the composition process by helping students to get their ideas together. This can be done by talking about things to generate ideas, by, for instance, interviewing other

students, pooling information, ideas, or opinions in the class, or by reading texts of various kinds.

3. The teacher may also offer good models for writing, indirectly, by encouraging good reading habits but also directly, when appropriate, by analyzing textual structure, particularly with some types of more formal academic writing. Planning activities structured by the teacher can help students to develop a sense of direction in their writing, though they should always be encouraged to regard a plan as an enabling device or support rather than as a rigid control.
4. Teachers can encourage the drafting process by creating a workshop atmosphere in their classrooms, to the extent of providing rough paper, scissors, paste, erasers, etc. And while monitoring writing in progress, they can suggest that these are used for chopping and changing the structure of the text.
5. Teachers can support the drafting process in various ways. They can intervene quietly, questioning and advising, in order to help writers get their ideas down on paper in English. Or they can encourage students to read each other's work and suggest restructurings and revisions. Giving help during writing proves far more effective than giving it afterwards (Radulescu, 2010; 507-510).

Lerner (2002, pp448) suggests that a teacher must also plan instruction for the writing process by applying the following principles:

1. **During the prewriting stage, the writer process requires much time, input, and attention.** Writers need sufficient prior experiences to create and stimulate ideas for a good written production. Asking student to write without first supplying a prewriting build-up will not produce a rich written product. Teachers can supply input experiences through activities such as trips, stories, discussion, and oral language activities. As much time should be spent in prewriting as in writing.
2. **The writing process frees students from excessive concentration on the mechanics of writing** .spelling and grammar in the first draft. The student should focus on the content during the drafting stage and then later " clean up" the work through editing.

3. **The writing process helps students revise their work.** Students should realize that they must go through the revising stage before their work is complete, so they begin to think of writing as a process instead of a product. A teacher can illustrate the imperfection of a first draft by demonstrating his or her first own writing draft to show the students that all writing needs to be edited.
4. **Avoid undue corrections of students' written work.** Students can be discouraged from trying if their attempts to express ideas are met by having their papers back full of grammatical, spelling, punctuation, and handwriting corrected in red ink with heavy penalties.

According to Bachani (2003; 3) when we teach writing, we should consider some "thumb rules" of teaching writing:

1. Take into consideration the needs of the learners.
2. Make the teaching of writing functional and communicative.
3. Expose them to how to write different types of texts.
4. Expose them to functioning of writing as a system of communication.
5. Use the tasks which are realistic, functional and communicative.
6. Expose them to the process of writing by actually going through it, including the sub skills of writing.
7. Motivate them to think and express their ideas.
8. Teach them grammar and vocabulary inclusively in the writing tasks.
9. Try to accept their ideas and also compositions.

Other points that can be useful when considering how to teach English writing skills:

1. Acquiring speech is an unconscious act, whereas learning to write takes a conscious effort on the part of the learner. One reason why many individuals find it difficult or impossible to write is because of the necessity of learning a mapping skill in order to use written language.
2. Written language must be filtered through some sort of system, this system can be phonemic, structural or representative, etc. The individual must not only learn to recognize the meaning of words orally, but also go through a process of transcribing these sounds.

3. The process of transcribing sounds requires the learning of other rules and structures thereby cognizing a previously unconscious process (http://esl.about.com/od/esleflteachingtechnique/a/difference_speaking_writing.htm).

2.4.1 Approaches to Teaching Writing

Approaches to teaching writing vary according to the area on which they focus. These approaches fall into the following categories (Selim , 2008; 26).

2.4.1.1 Approaches Which Focus on Fluency and Content

The free writing approach

This approach emphasizes writing quantity rather than quality. Teachers who use this approach assign vast amount of free writing on given topics with only minimal correction. The focus in this approach is on content and fluency rather than on accuracy and form. Once ideas are there, grammatical accuracy and organization follow. Thus teachers might begin their classes by asking students to write on any topic freely without worrying about grammar and spelling. The teacher does not correct these pieces of free writing. They simply read them and might comment on the ideas the students express. Some students may volunteer to read their own writing aloud to the class. Attention to "audience" and " content" are seen as important in this approach (Raimes; 1983; 8).

The Content-based Approach:

Content-based approaches to writing differ from the other traditional approaches in at least four ways (Shih; 1986; 624):

1. In such approaches emphasis is on writing from sources (reading, lectures, discussions, etc...), on combinations and interpretations of information begin deeply studied so writing from personal experience and observation of immediate surroundings is de-emphasized. Writing is related to ongoing study of specific subject matter in one or more academic disciplines and is viewed as a means stimulate students to think and learn.

2. The focus is on what is said more than on how it is said, in preparing students for writing (Krashen; 1982; 168). The instructor who guides and responds to writing must know the subject matter well enough to explain it, field questions, respond to content and
3. reasoning in papers. Treatments of matters of form (organization, grammar, and mechanics) and style do not dictate the composition course, syllabus, but rather follow from writers' needs.
4. Skills are integrated as in university course work; students listen, discuss, and read about a topic before writing about it- as contrasted to the traditional belief that in writing course, students should only write.
5. Extended study of a topic (some class treatment of core material and some independent and/or collaboration study/research) precedes writing, so that there is "an active control of ideas" and "extensive processing of new information" before students begin to write (Antony; 1985; 4). A longer incubation period is permitted, with more input from external sources, than in traditional composition classes, in which students rely solely and write on a new topic for each composition. Writing assignments can on one another with "situational sequence".

2.4.1.2 Approaches Which Focus on Accuracy and Pattern-centered Approaches

These approaches hold the assumption that once student writers assimilate the rhetorical frame work, they will be able to use the same patterns appropriately in future writing for university courses. In these approaches students are asked to analyze and practice a variety of rhetorical or organizational patterns commonly found in academic discourses: process analysis, partition and classification, composition/contrast, cause-and-effect analysis, pro-and-con argument, and so on. The rhetorical patterns used in the process of teaching vary among cultures. Nonnative students need to learn specific principles for developing evidence in inductive and deductive patterns of arrangement (Shih, 1986; 622).

The Product-based Approaches

The product-based approaches have been called by several names: the controlled-to-free approach, the text-based approach, and the guided composition. Writing in the product-based approach has served to reinforce writing in terms of grammatical and syntactical forms. The product-based is sequential: students are

given sentence exercises as a start, then paragraphs to copy or manipulate grammatically by changing questions to statements, present to past, or plural to singular. They may also change words to clauses or combine sentences. Students are allowed to try some free composition after they have reached an intermediate level of proficiency. As such, this approach stresses grammar, syntax, and mechanics. It emphasizes accuracy rather than fluency or originality. Writing in the product-centered approach is a simple linear model of the writing process which proceeds systematically from prewriting to composition (Tangpermpoon, 2008; 2), however; the product-based approach can in no way be described as linear or as neat as is generally believed. For while a writer's product-the finished essay, story or novel is presented in lines, the process that produces it is not linear at all". Instead, it is recursive (Raimes; 1985; 229).

The Paragraph-pattern Approach

This approach is built on the principle that in different cultures people construction and organize communication with each other in different ways. It emphasized the organization instead of accuracy of grammar and fluency of content. Students copy paragraphs and imitate model passage. They put scrambled sentences into paragraph order. They identify general and specific statements and choose to invent an appropriate topic sentence or insert or delete sentences.

The Grammar-syntax-organization Approach

Teachers who follow this approach believe that writing cannot be seen as composed of separated skills which are learned sequentially. Thus, students should be trained to pay attention to organization while they work on the necessary grammar and syntax. This approach stresses on simultaneous work on more than one composition feature. It links the purpose of writing to the forms that are needed to convey message (Raimes, 1985; 7-8).

2.4.1.3 Approaches Which Focus on Purpose (Functional Approaches):

Functional approaches hold that in real writing, purpose, content, and audience determine rhetorical patterns. Normal writing process starts from giving patterns and asking students find topics and produce essays to fit them. In functional approaches students are asked to start with a specified purpose and audience. Unlike pattern-centered approaches in which organizational problems are solved by using models after students have started writing (Dawe and Doranan, 1981; 622). In functional approaches students should not be asked "to fit their ideas into preexisting organizational models (implying that there is a limited number of correct ways to organize)", rather; they should see that "organization grows out of meaning and ideas"(Taylor; 1981; 8).

The Communicative Approach

This approach emphasizes the purpose of writing and the audience for it. Students are motivated to think like writers in real life and ask themselves the critical questions about purpose and audience:

Why am I writing this?

Who will read it?

Usually, the teacher alone has been the audience for the student writing. But some feel like writers do better when writing is truly a communicative act, with a writer writing for a real reader. So the readership may be extended to classmate and pen pals (Raimes, 1985; 8).

The Genre-based Approach

The genre-based approach can be called differently such as the "English for academic purposes approach" (Tribble; 1990; 7-8) or the "English for specific purposes approach" (Dudley-Evans & John, 1998; 151-152). This approach stresses the importance of various types of writing which are tied closely to social purposes. The focus of writing in this approach aims at integrating the knowledge of a particular genre and its communicative purpose which help the students to

produce their written products to communicate others in the same discourse community successfully. Writing in the genre-based approach is regarded as an extension of the product-oriented approach since learners have an opportunity to study a wide variety of writing patterns (Seliem; 2008; 1-9). According to Wang & Odell (2003; 147) genre-based approach focuses on the functions of texts in social settings and the ways in which texts realize their social functions in writing instruction. By using this approach, students are exposed to ideal texts and engaged in discussing the function, forms, and features of these texts. Then students cooperate, develop, negotiate, and construct text by using similar forms and features. At last, teacher and peers and critically evaluate and rewrite the text publication.

2.4.1.4 Approaches Which Focus on Process

Process-centered approaches enable students to understand strategies for prewriting (gathering, exploring, and organizing raw material, drafting: structuring ideas into a piece of linear discourse), and rewriting (revising, editing, and proofreading). Tasks may be defined around rhetorical patterns or rhetorical purposes, but the central focus of instruction is in the sufficient time to write and rewrite, to discover what students want to say, and to consider interviewing feedback from instructor and peers as they attempt to bring expression closer to intention in successive drafts. Process-centered approaches which are students centered take student's writing (rather than textbook models) as the central course material and requires no strict, predetermined syllabus, rather; problems are treated as they emerge. Revision becomes central, and the instructor interviews throughout the composing process, rather than reacting only to the final product. Individual conferences and/or class workshops dealing with problems arising from writing in progress are regular features of process-centered instruction (Shih ,1986; 623). Zamel (1983; 182) states "by studying what our students do in their writing, we can learn more from them what they still need to be taught."

In terms of writing models for the teaching and learning of writing, a discussion of the writing process approaches would be incomplete without mentioning the following models (Wilson, 2009; 28-38):

Conference-centered Approach:

This approach has two underlying assumptions and one behavioral aim (Garrison, 1974; 62). The first assumption that writing is learned by writing and the majority of classroom efforts should be directed to that end. Traditional writing-related activities such as reading model essays, discussing their content and rhetorical forms, highlighting stylistic devices and warning against potential grammatical pitfalls not only cannot replace actual writing, but also may reduce the already limited time available for writing. The second assumption maintains that learning how to write succession should combine the most sufficient method with the least complicated support materials. This mainly argues for making productively in the classroom a stimulating task. Advocators of this approach stress that student conferences provide clearer feedback on written work than written comments, while also increasing the rewording aspects of personal contact with students. Focused and concentrated discussion with students also provides more feedback per minute can be given on paper. This feedback is of a different quality kind than typically occurs with written comments, this kind responds to the content as well as to the form. The nature of written comments as time-consuming too often forces teachers to neglect the positive aspects of written texts and may only enable them to suggest organizational changes that would enhance not only the correctness but also the communicative purposes of written pieces. To accomplish the teaching of writing a primary behavioral aim of the conference approach is the development of self-directed learning habit. The elimination of written criticism on students' papers places a greater responsibility on students to participate in the evaluation process. Guided questions by teachers lead students to recognize points of weakness as well as to note strengths in papers (Dawe and Dornan, 1981; 486-484).

The 6+1 Traits for Writing

In many states in the U.S.A, it is the 6+1 method or a variation of it that appears in state curricula and as criteria for quality in state assessment. The 6+1 traits for writing were developed by teachers at the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (NREL) (Wilson, 2009; 28). According to Coe et al. (2011; ix) writing instruction in which teachers and students evaluate writing using a set of characteristics, or “traits,” of written work: ideas, organization, voice, word choice, sentence fluency, conventions, and presentation is stressed. The Ideas trait consists of the main content and message, as well as supporting details. Organization refers to the structure and logical flow of the writing. Voice contains the perspective and style of the individual writer and his or her orientation toward the audience. Word Choice deals with the diversity, accuracy, and evocativeness of the language. Sentence Fluency contains the rhythm, flow, and sound patterns in the construction of sentences that may make them pleasant and interesting to read. The Conventions trait, sometimes called mechanics, contains spelling, punctuation, grammar, capitalization, and other rule-based language forms. The trait of Presentation (the “+1” of the 6+1 Trait Writing model), which is centered around page layout and formatting issues, is correlated to the visual parts of publishing writing. This trait might not be applied unless the writing project is carried through to publication or public forum. Presentation is not typically considered in large-scale assessments of student achievement, which involve students to use particular formatting.

Peer Editing Approach

Peer editing is a technique often used in composition and other writing-intensive courses. Students engaged in peer editing trade drafts of material they have written and provide each other with suggestions for improvement. This technique can be used at any point in the writing process--idea formation, outlining, draft revision, or copy editing a final draft (Phillipson, 2007; 1). Peer editing gives students an opportunity to engage in important conversations about how a piece of writing for an assignment in any subject area has been constructed and whether it achieves its purpose, considering the audience. By reading each other's work, asking questions about it, and identifying areas of concern, students learn a great deal about how to put information together and express ideas effectively. It encourages students to look at their own and others' writing with a more knowledgeable, critical eye, develop skills in editing and proofreading, receive

peer input about possible errors and areas of concern, in a “low-risk” process and provides positive, small-group discussions <http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/studentsuccess/thinkliteracy/files/Writing.pdf>.

The Five Paragraph Essay

Is a way of organizing ideas into an introduction with a main argument, three body paragraphs that develop that argument, and a conclusion that advances the argument a step further by way of application or tantalizing suggestion (Smith, 2006; 16). Although the five paragraph format is a very effective organizational tool, nevertheless, it has been criticized for many reasons from which: (a) the format is entirely artificial, (b) it depends on a categorical theme that merely divides any topic into three sections, and (c) it stifles the writing process and encourages poor writing habits http://eslbee.com/five_paragraph_essay.htm.

Interactive Writing Approach

Interactive writing is a cooperative experience in which both teacher and children create and write text. Not only do they share the decision about what they are going to write, they also share the responsibilities of scribe. Interactive writing can be used to exhibit concepts about print, develop strategies, and learn how words work. It supplies

children with opportunities to hear sounds in words and connect those sounds with corresponding letters. Students are connected in the encoding process of writing and the decoding process of reading, all within the same piece of text. Interactive writing is a unique opportunity to help children see the relationship between reading and writing (Swartz, 1976; 1).

2.5 Second Language Writing

According to Kroll (2003; 16) writing was ignored in the early years of the audio-lingual approach in the mid twentieth century. The view of language teaching as a form of the scientific descriptive linguistics with a strong stress on the spoken language became prominent in many parts in the world. For this reason writing did not become a significant constituent of L2 teaching until recently. This neglect of written language was most obvious in the United States between the 1940s and the 1960s, when the view of language as speech was institutionalized through the work of Leonard Bloomfield and Charles C. Fries. But the rise of historical consciousness in the early 1990s seems to indicate that nature of second language writing studies began to change around that time. Kroll adds that "The neglect of writing in second language studies goes even further back, namely, to the rise of applied linguistics in the late nineteenth century. Early applied linguists of that era sought to apply, quite literally the findings of scientific linguistics in the realm of language teaching" .

In an L2 writing class, in particular, learners come with different writing experiences, different aptitudes and levels of motivation; they have various metacognitive knowledge of their L1 and experience of using it. They have different characteristics in terms of age, sex, and socioeconomic status, these individual differences or factors potentially influence L2 acquisition (Hyland, 1996; 32). These factors are summarized as follows:

Altman (1980)	Shehan (1989)	Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991)
Age	Language aptitude	Age
Motivation and attitude	Motivation	Motivation and attitude
Personality factors	Cognitive and affective factors	Personality factors
Previous language	a. Extraversion	a. Self-esteem
- Learning experience		
Proficiency in the L1	b. Willingness to take risks	b. Extraversion
Language aptitude	c. Intelligence	c. Anxiety
General intelligence IQ	d. Anxiety	d. Willingness to take risks
Gender	e. Analytic versus experiential	e. Sensitivity to rejection
Learning style Preferences	Language learning strategies	f. Empathy
		g. Inhibition
		h. Tolerance and ambiguity
		Cognitive style
		a. Analytic/Gestalt
		b. Reflexivity/Impulsivity
		c. Oral/visual
		Gender
		Learning strategies

Table 3: Individual factors potentially influencing L2 acquisition (adapted from Ellis, 1994; 472).

Writing in a second language is a complex process involving the capability to communicate in L2 (learner's output) and the capability to build up a text in order to convey one's ideas effectively. Therefore, L2 students generally need more teacher involvement and guidance. Accordingly, in sequence to provide effective pedagogy, L2 writing instructors need to understand the social and cognitive factors as well as the individual learners' differences involved in the process of second language acquisition and error in writing, because these factors have a prominent effect on L2 development (Myles;2002; 1-8).

According to Paltridge (2004; 5) the social factors influence the rate of L2 learning proficiency and the quality of contact with the target language that learners will experience. Learners may continue to make errors in their writing for the following:

1. Negative attitudes towards the target language.
2. Continued lack of progress in the L2.
3. A wide social and psychological distance between them and the target culture.
4. A lack of integrative and instructional motivation for learning.

Emotional influences can also account for achievement and proficiency in L2 writing. Language transfer is an important cognitive factor related to writing error. Even though that L1 is not the only predictor or cause of error at the structural level, a writer's first language plays a problematic and important role in L2 acquisition. For instance, when learners write under pressure, they may enjoin systematic resources from their native language for the achievement and combination of meaning. Another error source in L2 writing is overgeneralization of the rules for stylistic features when acquiring new discourse structure, learners are also confused about what they really want to express, which would cause them make mistakes in any language. L2 writers may also lack familiarity with new rhetorical structures and organization of ideas (Myles, 2002; 6-8).

6.2 Relevant Research in Writing

Dealing effectively with L2 writers requires a clear understanding of the nature of L2 writing (Silva, 1993; 656). In an attempt to develop such understanding, Nelson & Murphy (1992) run a study to examine two aspects of L2 writing groups: task dimension and social dimension. Researchers used a case-study methodology, and videotaped each L2 writing group for six consecutive weeks. The data collected included: (a) the videotapes, (b) students' compositions, (c) transcripts, (d) students' dialogue journals, and (e) students' interviews. Results indicated that the percentage of utterances related to study of language ranged from 70% to 80% and increased slightly across the sessions. These findings suggest that students stayed on task by discussing each other's texts. To examine the groups' social dimension (i.e., group dynamics), all data were examined. The literature on writing groups tends to idealize writing group interactions as writers constructively helping each other.

Silva (1993) examined 72 reports of empirical research comparing L1 and L2 writing. The findings of this research indicated a number of salient differences between L1 and L2 writing with regard to both composing processes (and sub processes: planning, transcribing, and reviewing) and features of written texts (fluency, accuracy, quality, and structure, i.e., discursal, morph syntactic, and lexicosemantic). Implications of the findings for L1 and L2 writing theory; future comparative writing research; and practical concerns of assessment, placement, staffing, and instruction are discussed.

Combining quantitative and qualitative analyses, Hedgcock & Lefkowitz (1996) profiled students' awareness of functions and influences of expert input in their L2 writing. Data include results of a survey of foreign language and English as a second language writer's beliefs about feedback behaviors known to interact with revision processes. Factor analytic results showed that, whereas writers in both groups share certain beliefs about feedback and revision, each group perceives expert response as serving distinct functions. Interview data reveal that

instructional practices largely shape students' expectations concerning the pedagogical goals of written feedback. Although tentative, evidence from these complementary studies supports the claim that insights in foreign and second writing research can be enhanced by a reasoned pairing of methodologies and, that such tools supply teachers with meaningful information .

Vzawa (1996) compared second language students' L1 writing, L2 writing, and translation from L1 into L2, focusing on writing and translating processes, attention patterns, and quality of language use. Thinking aloud, 22 Japanese ESL students studying at a Canadian college performed 3 tasks individually. These thinking aloud protocols were analyzed supplemented by observational notes and interviews, and the writing samples were evaluated. The data were analyzed with attention to theories of composing processes (Berteiter & Scardamalia, 1987), Schmid's "conscious attention" (1990), and Swain's "i+1 output" hypothesis (1985). It was found that: a-most students used a " what next" approach both in the L1 and L2 writing tasks and a " sentence-by-sentence" approach in the translation task, b- attention patterns in the L1 and L2 writing tasks were very similar, but quite different in the translation task. Attention to language use in the translation task was significantly higher than in the L1 and L2 writing task; and c- scores on language use in the L1 and L2 writing tasks were similar, but scores on language use in the translation tasks were significantly better than in the L2 writing task.

MaGuanghai & Quifang (1999) investigated the relationship of L2 students' linguistic variables to L2 writing ability. The L2 students' linguistic variables include L1 writing ability and variables of L2 proficiency. The results were that L1 writing ability, L2 speaking ability and L2 productive vocabulary together could explain 73% of the variance of L2 ability. L2 comprehension variables had no direct effect on L2 writing ability. Besides, different groups of L2 proficiency showed different models concerning the relationship among L1 writing ability, L2 proficiency and L2 ability.

El- bouri (2003) conducted a case study on students at Benghazi University during the academic year 2000/2001. A random sample of 35 essays was collected. They were selected both from mid-term and a separate writing assignment administered by the researcher. The study shows that students encountered organizational and language structure problems. Moreover, some students lack analytic and organizational skills. The study also shows that students were more concerned with getting ideas written than with writing without errors. This case study emphasizes the clear need to re-examine and identify approaches used in writing, and process approaches are more effective as tools for motivating students to practice writing.

Yoon & Hirvela (2004) studied the use of corpus in two ESL academic writing courses. Specifically, the study examined students' corpus use behavior and their perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of corpora as a second language writing tool. The study's qualitative and quantitative data indicated that, overall, the students perceived the corpus approach as beneficial to the development of L2 writing skill and increased confidence towards L2 writing.

Radwan (2008) investigated the problematic writing encountered by fifth year Libyan medical students who are studying through the medium of English. Radwan adopted the sampling method in which students write essays and reports. Samples were also taken from their written works like notes and exams in order to reveal the writing problems students face. Interview was adopted as subcomponent of the sampling method.

Swied (2008) attempted to investigate the degree of difficulty that students face when writing essay. The subjects of the study are 46 third year students at Benghazi University enrolled in the Essay Writing Course during the academic year 2006/2007. Forty six samples were selected by the researcher. The data for this study included a pilot study, a test and a questionnaire. The findings of this study concluded that students had huge problems with the simplest forms of grammar. The study also showed that even when the students were constant with

their ideas, they were expressing those ideas using wrong grammatical rules and inappropriate vocabulary and jargons. It was recommended that students should be provided by instructions that deal with structures and forms to enable them to express their ideas thoroughly.

El-fadil (2009) gave a test to the participants, third year students of English Department at the University of Benghazi, the participants are asked to write ten thesis statements for ten topics one for each. The study found that nearly all the students involved were committing a lot of errors whether Interlingual or Intralingual. Moreover, there were errors that are due to overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules, false concepts hypothesized, false analogy, misanalysis, system simplification, or exploiting redundancy.

With detailed interview data, in this study Xinghua (2010) investigated 25 Chinese university EFL student writers' knowledge about writing, namely knowledge of audience, knowledge of discourse conventions and knowledge of writing plans which have been proved to play an important role in writing success (Flower and Hayes, 1980a; Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987). The study found that these student writers showed awareness of their readers, valued the quality of content in argumentative writing and made plans before writing. Genre-approach writing instruction and metacognition training are advocated for an efficient L2 writing pedagogy. More studies are suggested to investigate the knowledge about writing of writers with varied language abilities from different educational backgrounds.

Schoonen, Gelderen, Stoel, Hulstijn, & Glopper (2011) conducted a longitudinal study investigated the development of writing proficiency in English as a foreign language (ELF), in contrast to the development of L1 writing proficiency in Dutch L1, in a sample of almost 400 secondary school students in the Netherlands. Students performed several writing tasks in both languages in three consecutive years. Furthermore, data were collected about students' metacognitive and linguistic knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, and spelling) and their fluency on lexical retrieval and sentence building (reaction times). Analyses, using structural equation modeling, showed that EFL writing was more strongly correlated to linguistic knowledge and linguistic fluency than L1 writing was and that, over the course of the two years investigated, students' EFL writing proficiency improved to

a greater extent than did in their L1 writing proficiency. Furthermore, through the modeling of L1 and EFL writing proficiency, a strong relation between the two constructs could be established, with metacognitive knowledge and general fluency mediating this relation.

Beuningen, Jong, & Kuiken (2011) investigated the effect of direct and indirect comprehensive corrective feedback (CF) on second language (L2) learners' written accuracy. The study set out to explore the value of CF as a revising tool as well as its capacity to support long-term accuracy development. In addition, it tested Truscott's (2001,2007) claims that (a) correction may have value for nongrammatical errors but not for errors in grammar; (b) students are inclined to avoid more complex constructions due to error correction; and (c) the time spent on CF may more wisely spent on additional writing practice. Results showed both direct and indirect comprehensive CF led to improve accuracy. Furthermore, a separate analysis of grammatical and nongrammatical error types revealed that only direct CF resulted in grammatical accuracy gains in new writing and that pupils' nongrammatical accuracy benefited most from indirect CF. the results suggest that comprehensive CF is a useful educational tool that teachers can use to help L2 learners improve their written accuracy over time.

CHAPTER THREE

INDIVIDUALIZED PROGRAM

3.1 Introduction

It is important for the teacher to understand the innate strengths the child brings into the classroom, such as verbal/linguistic or bodily/kinesthetic. A student's cultural background brings into the classroom behaviors, actions, and customs that may be very different from those of the teacher so students are understood and not punished for certain actions or behaviors from the upbringing. By understanding the diversity within a classroom and how cultural differences may impact learning, a teacher can complement his or her instruction to a student's preferred way of learning (Koeze, 2007; 32).

Many teachers are faced with the complexity of teaching academically different learners grouped together in the same classroom. The heterogeneous classroom, a class filled with learners from different socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds and learning styles, can be overwhelming and depressing for both the learner and the expert teacher by creating an overwhelming feeling of doubt as to how to reach all learners. Providing each learner with the opportunity to learn the subject material in ways that deal with each student individually, by using a combination of methodologies and strategies, a setting can be constructed that accommodates each individual learner. Teachers should create a student-centered classroom that is supportive of each student by providing choice and immediate feedback in a wide variety of activities and assessments (Beach, 2010; 2).

Individualized instruction has been used most commonly to describe a style of teaching in which self-paced worksheets or modules are emphasized and whole-class instruction is deemphasized (Anderson & Butts, 1970; 1). Baker (1970; 775) identified the individualized learning system as a very adaptable system of multiple materials and measurements, in which learners are given real and tangible responsibility for designing their own organized program of studies with the

evaluation of their teachers, and in which their achievement is determined mainly according to those plans.

Hunter (1970; 53) explained that individualized instruction is not just one way of educating, nor any one special program. It is the process of custom-adapting instruction so it fits a particular learner. An individualized program is not necessarily different for each learner, but must be appropriate for each.

According to Niedzielski (1975; 361) individualized instruction is "holistic" and "teleological", which means that it realizes that each individual has unique intrinsic potentials which combine in a unique entity moving towards specific aims of self realization mainly under the extrinsic influence of environment and the innate impulse of inner motivation.

American teachers in the 1970s defined individualization as " an attitude of teaching students as individual persons" . The scope of this concept includes goals for each learner, method, and individual pacing of instruction. The most important idea in individualized instruction is that the entire philosophy is built around learning, not teaching, and that, at the outcome/ learners learn how to learn (Henry, 1975; 32). According to Seliem (2008; 51) there are three views of defining individualized instruction:

1. Situations where learners are provided with specially prepared materials into which are built many of the management usually operated by the teachers.
2. Situations that can be defined as self-directed learning.
3. Situations that can be defined as autonomous learning .

Individualized instruction is also defined as a method in which instructional media, instructional material, and learning-pace are based upon the abilities and interests of each learner individually ([www.answer.com/... /individualized-instruction](http://www.answer.com/.../individualized-instruction)).

Bown (2009; 1) suggested that individualized and personalized instruction addresses the specific deficiencies of every student. It is a form of materials-centered self-instruction in which students follow a planned curriculum but learn at their own pace. Individualized instruction attained popularity in the 1970s and 1980s and remains significant as a tool of delivering specialized language

instruction. The content of this instruction requires learners to regulate their own learning processes, containing their emotional responses to learning .

Varner (2010; 15) pointed out that the framework for individualized instruction is based on the principles of adult learning by Malcolm Knowles (1980), emphasizing that adults are self directed and capable of taking charge of their own individualized learning goals. Knowles' (1990) theory of andragogy supports the tenets that adults need to have the opportunity to reflect on learning concepts, and have learning climate that is respectful, collaborative, and informal.

In an individualized classroom the teacher's role has changes, he becomes a manager, diagnostician, counselor, consultant, and scholar of the learning process (Henry, 1975; 32). The teacher sets the stage and provides an environment for activities based on learners needs; he is a learning facilitator with a wide knowledge of the curriculum, rather than being mainly involved in transmitting information. Learners' exercise of initiative and responsibility is also fundamental. They must report into the teacher at scheduled and regular timing; they may learn at their own rate, but that rate cannot be zero (Womeck, 1989; 208).

As a part of the individualized classroom, learners must acquire an interest and competence in instructional technology so that they become effective part of designing and applying effective curriculum especially that they play a critical role in managing the system (Goldschmid & Goldschmid, 1973; 19).

It is important that the teacher educate children to high levels and teach them to analyze, produce, invent, and understand learning while meeting the needs of learners. According to Amor (2008; 13), teachers should help students realize their individual strengths, identifying the areas they need to develop further, and begin to value the different strengths and skills that others bring to the classroom.

3.2 Characteristics and Importance of Individualized Instruction

In his article "characteristics of Individualized Instruction" Coppedge (1974; 272-277) listed six essential characteristics for an instruction to be individualized, which are:

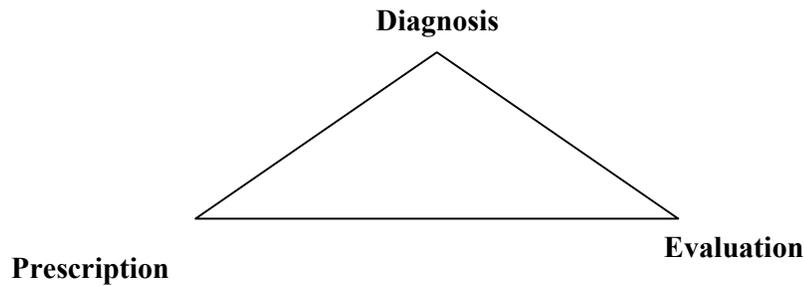
1. **Learners are expected to perform commensurate with their abilities and previous learning (Coppedge, Ibid; 273).**An objective of individualized instruction is to encourage each learner to perform at a level that nearly matches his potentials as determined by intellectual ability and previous learning, so that a talented learner, for instance, is challenged to work to his potentials. Excellence must be judged on an individual basis. When a learner, who previously spent the most of his time disturbing a class or cheat on exams, is motivated to perform to his ability and earn average or better grades than low marks, a degree of excellence has been achieved.

2. **Evaluation of student effort is based primarily on individual ability (Coppedge, Ibid; 273).** It is a must that each learner put forth an honest effort at or near capacity. When this happens it can be expected that his achievement will improve significantly and evaluation standards will be raised not lowered. But this concept does not eliminate the practice of comparing a given learner to others in the class. On the contrary, it is often necessary to compare the progress of one learner to others of like ability to determine whether or not he is working to capacity.

3. **There is more contact between teacher and student on a one-to-one basis (Coppedge, Ibid; 274).** The very essence of individualization is to construct a close working relationship between the teacher and learner as they react to content. The appropriate methodology must be employed so as to lead the learner more steadily towards his learning goal.

4. **The learner must become a full partner in learning process (Coppedge, Ibid; 274).** Individual effort or independent study is crucial in individualization. Because it is that portion of learning when learner becomes personally preoccupied by the learning task, for instance, practicing an instrument, writing a poem, completing a math assignment, etc. The teacher does not dominate this time, but remains available to help learners individually or in small groups. During independent study, the learner dominates, during lecture the teacher dominates, but both remain involved in each instance.

5. **The teaching-learning process is a cycle of diagnosis, prescription, and evaluation (Coppedge, 1974; 275).**



1. **Diagnosis:** the process of using standardized tests, pervious grades, classroom performance, unit pretests, etc, to determine the present level of learning and ability.

2. **Prescription:** the process of the learner and teacher reaching an agreement about entry of the student in learning sequence to account for the differences that will exist in student population served. Prescription requires some judgment to be made regarding the nature of the course requirements and the learner for which the requirements are appropriate. Prescription further requires the use of behavioral objectives to give specificity to the learning expected or required.

3. **Evaluation:** the process of judging how well the learner has progressed. In addition, evaluation provides information which is used in diagnostic phase for next learning sequence or for the recycling process, in the event, such that is necessary.

6. **Instructional planning is designed to promote learner learning through continuous progress (Coppedge, Ibid; 276).** Learning packages, learning plans, or teaching-learning units need to be written so that the learner may read and follow them to advance in a learning sequence suitable for him. The teacher should be explicit as to the learning objects and ways to achieve the objectives. As a result, learners will be able to evaluate their progress at any given time. This type of planning makes it possible for the teacher to provide continuous progress education. This process means that each learner begins learning at the level of his capacity, and under the teacher's guidance, moves towards higher achievement.

According to Dunn & Dunn (1975; 12-19), the fundamental characteristics of individualized instruction consist of:

1. Teacher and learner diagnosis;
2. Teacher and learner prescription;
3. Learner selection of goals, learning materials, activities and instructional techniques;
4. Self-pacing;
5. Self-leveling;
6. Self-assessment followed by cooperative assessment;
7. Self selection of learning process determined by learning style(s);
8. Objectives and prescription based on learner interest and;
9. Learner creativity incorporated into self-selecting .

Jernstedt (1976; 211) argued that individualized instruction could be said to have five principle characteristics:

1. behavioral objectives, by which the learner is told in clear behavioral terms what is expected of him throughout the course;
2. the unit approach, in which the course content is divided into small, easily managed units of study;
3. unit mastery, according to which the learner does not proceed to study a new unit until he has mastered the one currently worked on;
4. self-pacing, by which the learner proceeds through the units of the course at his own rate; and
5. positive motivation, by which the features of the course are designed to encourage the learner to perform well rather than discourage him from performing poorly.

With regard to the importance of individualized instruction, professionals in an education seem to agree that "individualized instruction" is a desirable quality of educational program. A reason for this far-reaching agreement may be that individualization as a concept has almost as many meanings as there are educators,

which enable every teacher to provide individualized instruction in the sense that he assesses the needs of learners formally or informally, and makes "allowance" for learners who learn much faster or slower than the main body of class (Anderson & Butts, 1980; 145).

The Alliance for Excellence in Education (2004; 17) documented that addressing learners' needs and acquired knowledge are the foundations to their future. They stated that "Beginning teachers must learn how to use their knowledge to adapt their teaching to individual learning needs and help learners use their strengths as the basis for growth".

3.3 The Transition to Individualized Instruction

According to Seliem (2008; 62) many educationalists warn of the sudden transition to individualized instruction. It is difficult to transfer learners to more self-paced educational program in a system based on spoon-feeding and rote learning, but this will happen gradually. There are some steps towards a more self-paced style of instruction:

1. The teacher starts the semester with absolute control to meet learners' expectations and prevent discipline issues and misconception.
2. Gradually, the teacher gives the learner more responsibility to do tasks.
3. The teacher takes into account the learner's pace, the location of activity, the learner's movement in the classroom, interaction and record keeping.

In a foreign language classroom, Niedzielski (1975; 362-364) suggested some steps in order to move towards a truly individualized system:

1. **Identifying broad goals (Niedzielski, Ibid; 361):** although it is generally neglected, the purpose of all areas of education should be similar: to help learners become a better member of every social group he belongs to. When the language profession realizes and implements the concept of treating language as a social activity and, as such, it gets meaning from the context in which is used; so a foreign learner who wants to communicate with foreign people, he must understand their values, their attitude, their clichés, and their taboos. International cooperation will become generally enhanced and

learning will be about learning a new language instead of learning a particular learning.

2. **Defining specific operational objectives (Niedzielski, Ibid; 362):** although that probable operational objectives may be clear for some language tasks such as greetings; compliment making or even reading aloud, yet it is difficult to determine how useful, practical and measurable performance objectives. When the specific operational objectives is impossible to define, instead of rejecting the concept of objectives as not applicable to a given broad goals, one must first try to discover the various elements of that goal and see how they combine to form a total, which is greater than sum of all its parts .
3. **Developing performance testing devices (Niedzielski, 1975; 362):** the reason for developing performance testing devices a head of time, is that the learner will know exactly what linguistic and cultural or situational behavior is the must reach and master and how his achievement will be measure. This is particularly essential when learners acquire their knowledge outside the class through self-instruction.
4. **Discovering each learner's particular psychological aptitudes (Niedzielski, Ibid; 362):** in individualized instruction, one must know how one's learners are able to learn and how they learn. Many attempts have been made to answer such questions but they have generally remained either inconclusive or impractical, because they did not seek the particular gifts or aptitudes, each individual is endowed. This gap should be remedied; and, already some pedagogues collected information on various qualities exhibited by language learners successful in their instructional systems.
5. **Recognizing each learner's physiological and cultural characteristics (Niedzielski, Ibid; 363):** it is well perceived fact that age is a significant factor in language learning. On the one hand, younger persons are physiologically more flexible, which gives them a distinct advantage in acquired new sounds and adjusting to new situations; on the other hand, they are less mature which limits their cognitive ranking and their attention extent. Cultural differences in learning styles are another important fact in language learning. Depending on their socio-economic background and the values or attitudes common in their culture, or subculture, learners perform better in a large group situation or in an individualized setting. In some societies,

listening until the entire code is absorbed and then speaking is the preferred form of learning; in others, successive approximation to native speech works well, while in still others, rote learning is the most efficient strategy.

6. **Acknowledging and identifying psychosocial uniqueness of language (Niedzielski, Ibid; 363):** the paralinguistic relationship among lexical categories may be universal, but their structural representations depend on particular cultural logics and thus vary from one language to another, sometimes from one situation to another. Each language is a result of many geographical, historical other sociocultural forces which have determined the special logic and lifestyle of the community using that particular language. Explaining such sociolinguistic differences makes it easier to understand grammatical distinctive features and to accept cultural reaction.
7. **Offering each learner goals objectives, and tests (Niedzielski,1975; 364):** the teacher may suggest to the learner a choice out of several fields or careers, which he should be able to learn with greater facility. The ideal might be to show him exactly on a video tape what he will be to do at the end of this journey and certain stages. Therefore, he should be encouraged to choose long-range educational goals, which will help him to develop a well-rounded personality.
8. **Remaining flexible (Niedzielski, Ibid; 364):** the teacher must practice the same qualities of flexibility and continuous independent learning, which are found necessary for the learner. Thus, it is important to remain flexible at all stages and, together with learners and administration, involve in a continuous process of self-evaluation.

3.4 Methods of Individualized Instruction

3.4.1 Programmed Instruction (PI)

Traditional programmed instruction is based on a carefully ordered series of statements or "frames" all designed to clarify the facts and concepts to be learned. Test-questions are implanted in the program and immediate feedback as to correctness of student response is provided. It is believed that exposure to certain number of these frames will shape the desired learner behavior. Usually, PI is

presented in printed form although audio-visual programs as well as programs using the computer have also been produced. Programmed instruction's basic principles have been adopted by originators of most of the individualized instruction methods (Goldschmid & Goldschmid, 1973; 2).

According to Brazas (2010; 8-9) the different types of programmed instructional systems can be divided into two schools; Linear Programmed Instruction (LPI) and Intrinsic Programmed Instruction (IPI), also known as the branching programming. An LPI program is based on a set of principles outlined by Skinner (1954, 1958). It contains a sequence of small units of information presented sequentially to the learner. In each unit, called a frame, the learner must response to some prompting stimuli, which are typically in the form of a question, or blank spots in a sentence that must be filled in. LPI has the following characteristics :

- 1.All instruction is goal oriented. Each program step should help the learner to acquire the specific knowledge or skills outlined in the terminal behaviors list and to avoid superfluous material.
- 2.Instructional items should be ordered into an effective sequence. Skinner believed that an LPI program should be designed to essentially eliminate the probability of the learner making errors (errorless learning). Skinner designed programs using text only to shape verbal behavior. Graphic material was presented in supplementary materials.
- 3.Present only one point at a time. The presentation of small, self-contained units of information focuses the student's attention. The learner proceeds through the program one frame at a time.
- 4.Overt responding. The learner overtly responds to each frame of the program. In LPI, the learner must type in the answer to a question or the word that completes a sentence (a constructed response).
- 5.Immediate reinforcement. The learner is given knowledge of the accuracy of every response in order to strengthen the stimulus-response bond.

Molenda (2008; 52) noted that Intrinsic Programmed Instruction (IPI) or Branching programming was developed by Crowder (1962) in a book format of IP in which lessons are divided into short instructional entities ("frames") succeeded by a question, with the correct answer at the bottom of the page or on the next page. It was labeled branching programming because a graphic outline of the program resembled a tree trunk with multiple branches (the prime path and the remedial sequences). Molenda also suggested that PI was introduced to make teaching-learning process more effective and customized to individual differences, but it had some serious limitation. Nevertheless, methods such as programmed tutoring, direct instruction, and personalized system of instruction were driven from it. They paved the way for computer-based instruction and distance learning.

The advantages of PI include:

1. The controlled step by which the learner advances;
2. The immediate feedback he receives allowing for easy diagnosis of learner difficulties, as well as pitfalls of the program itself;
3. Active involvement of the learner; and
4. Individual pacing which assures certain degree of individualization.

On the other hand, several disadvantages of PI are probably the reason of the gradual decline of its application. Programs are often lengthy and boring and except for self-pacing, they do not allow for individualization, because the learner is "locked in" and has to follow predetermined path (Goldschmid & Goldschmid, 1970; 3).

In this sense, Kulik et al. (1982; 137) stated that:

General programmed instruction did not improve the effectiveness of secondary school teaching. In the typical study, programmed instruction failed to raise student achievement on final examinations. It did not make students feel more positively about the subject matter they were studying or about the quality of teaching at their schools. Nor did it reduce the role that aptitude plays in determining how much students learn in secondary school classes.

3.4.2 Computer-assisted Instruction (CAI)

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) and the technology for learning languages on computers began to appear in the late 1950s (Chapelle, 2001; 3). The principles of technology-enhanced language learning were highly influenced by the work of the behaviorist, B. F. Skinner. In 1954, Skinner advocated the use of teaching machines for individualized instruction which would be responsive to the preferred pace of the learner (as cited in Chartrand, 2005; 5). Race (1998; 9) defined CAI as a form of flexible learning in which computers or multimedia hardware are used. CAI is also identified as computer programs that allow learners to progress at their own pace by finishing a series of complex assignments, each of which receives immediate feedback (Moosavi, 2009; 10). Newberry (2010; 7) described CAI instructional systems as that is concerned with the delivery of basic skills and acquisition of knowledge. Software exercises include drill and practice, tutorial, simulation, and basic problem solving.

Coulson (1970; 4-5) stated, "A modern computer has characteristics that closely parallel to those needed in any educational system that wishes to provide highly individualized instruction." He also recognized the particular benefits that computers can offer:

- 1. it has a very large memory capacity that can be used to store instructional content material or....to generate such material.*
- 2. the computer can perform complex analysis of learner's response*
- 3. the computer can make decisions based on the assessments of learner performance, matching resource to individual learner needs.*

Computer-assisted instructional programs are a successful technique of individualized instruction especially for at-risk students. An increasing number of interactive computer-assisted instructional programs have proven remarkable effective in this effort (Murphy, 2010; 45). During the 1980s and early 1990s, CAI became the forerunner in individualized instruction as the home computer became more powerful and less expensive. With the proliferation of the internet in the late 1990s, online education became increasingly popular and eventually began to supplant CAI as the predominant form of individualized instruction (Betrus, 2010; 3).

Although there are many benefits of using computers to deliver instruction, in practice, CAI has been heavily criticized for its side-effects, Olds (1985; 9) stated:

“Learning is in control of some unknown source that determines almost all aspects of interactive process. To learn one must suspend all normal forms of interaction and engage only in those called for by the program. Learning is an isolated activity to be carried on in one-to-one interaction with the computer. Normal inter-human dialogue is to be suspended while learning with computer. Learning involves understanding how the program expects one to behave and adapting one's behavior accordingly. Learning (even in highly sophisticated, branching programs) is a linear, step-by-step process. In learning from the computer, one must suspend creative insights, intuitions, cognitive leaps, and other nonlinear mental phenomena.”

Theoretically, CAI is meant to improve learning according to well-known principles of behaviorism and constructivism. In reality, studies of learning outcomes using CAI report varied results about whether the use of CAI actually provides educational benefit beyond that of traditional instruction (Moosavi, 2009; ii).

3.4.3 Computer-based Instruction Management Systems (CBIMS)

Management is one aspect of individualized instruction, which has created problems. A large number of learners, each working on different tasks, going at their own rate, and simultaneously taking different diagnostic tests, make the task of management difficult. For this reason CBIMS were introduced (Baker, 1970; 778). Baker also explained that the CBIMS' main functions are score tests, diagnose learners' deficiencies, prescribe learning activities, and report learning outcomes. The results of all these can be incorporated at various points into the curriculum. The printed reports the instructor receives from the computer may list the name of learner, what he is working on, the objectives of that particular work and the test scores. They may also show how many learners are working on a given unit and the proportion of learners who successfully passed particular tests.

3.4.4 The Audio-tutorial Approach

This method was first introduced by N. Postlethwait in 1960 at Purdue University. Fundamental to the system is the guideline that learning is an activity done by an

individual and not something done to an individual. Postlethwait recognized that the construction of an educational system should be done on the basis that the program must engage the learner, with the role of the teacher being to supply a situation conducive to

learning by providing the direction, facilities and motivation to the learner. Postlethwait suggested the necessary components for such an approach:

1. repetition
2. concentration
3. association, in the form of a coherently structured system
4. the use of units which adapt to the individual student needs
5. provision of appropriate experiences, which are relevant to the course objectives
6. multiplicity of approaches to accommodate the different degrees of receptivity of students.
7. the use of an integration-experience approach, with each activity supplementing previous experiences, resulting in greater total achievement (Kozma & William, 1978; 1).

A central point to the application of this approach is the individual audio-tutorial booth (or self-instructional learning carrel) equipped with programmed audiotapes designed to direct the learner on various types of learning activities, visual aids and presentations. The study carrels are generally open most of the day, an instructor is available for consultation, and learners are permitted to proceed at their own rate. At Purdue University, for example, instruction and independent study in the booths include general and small assemblage sittings and other activities. The major benefit of audio-tutorial is that it enables learners to adapt the study pace to their ability to absorb the information; exposure to difficult subjects is repeated as often as necessary for any learner (as cited in Goldschmid & Goldschmid, 1973; 7).

The distinctive element of this approach is a tutorial-like instruction using audiotapes, along with other media as texts, slides, and models. This approach was effective in teaching college science courses (Postlethwait, 1981; 446).

However, this approach offers only a limited degree of individualization. Thus, other approaches have been developed from which the ATP, Audio-Tutorial Packages. A course in the ATP format includes a number of packages; each one is based on a single concept and –integrating a rationale, a primary idea, a secondary idea, instructional objectives, instructional activities, depth studies, and optional readings as well as bibliography (McDonald and Dodge, 1971; 52).

3.4.5 Personalized System of Instruction (PSI) or Keller Plan

Fred Keller and his colleagues at Brasilia University first introduced PSI for college students in 1960. Keller believed that, "a fresh application of reinforcement thinking to the teaching process" was possible. PSI is featured by, learner self-pacing, a mastery requirements to move forward to a new material, utilizing lectures and illustrations as vehicles of motivation rather than information. The written word in teacher/learner communication and the use of proctors to assist testing, tutoring, and social interaction are emphasized (Keller, 1968; 79).

From a psychological point of view, PSI is based on certain principles of Skinner's reinforcement theory. Among of which, punishment of behavior decreases its frequency of recurrence, stimuli in the presence of certain reinforcers may themselves become the reward or aversion, and the respond to a stimulus may be different even when the stimulus environment is unchanged in any way (Shpritz, 1983; 19).

From an educational point of view, PSI is based on ten accepted principles, 1-active responding; 2-positive conditions and consequences; 3-specification of objectives; 4-organization of material; 5-master before advancement; 6-evaluation/objectives congruence; 7-frequent evaluation; 8-immediate feedback; 9-self-pacing; and 10-presonalization (McGaw, 1975; 4).

Keefe (2007; 220) defined PSI as an attempt to obtain balance between the characteristics of the learner and those of the learning atmosphere, between what is requiring and productive and what is further than learners' abilities. It is a systematic school program considers the learners characteristics and effective instructional applications. PSI is an old idea; it has been around for at least 40 years. It has developed in reputation and influence over the past decade. A personalized system provides a program closely appropriate for each learner as is educationally and financially reasonable.

Proponents of this method have cited many advantages, among these, better retention and increased motivation for further learning. However, others with criticisms of the Keller plan argued that it offers limited instructional methods, high dropout rates, and decrease human interaction (Betrus, 2010; 2).

3.4.6 Individualized Prescribed Instruction (IPI)

The IPI was originally developed at the Learning Research and Development Center of the University of Piusburgh. Field-testing, field development, and dissemination have been conducted by Research for Research for Better Schools, Inc (RBS) (Yetter, 1972; 491). According to Scanlon (1968; 946) of RBS, IPI is not a new set of thoughts but a reexamination and reassembly of many curriculum developments. It is a vehicle by which teachers monitor each learner's progress, but more important it allows each learner to monitor his own behavior in a particular subject.

The core of IPI is an individual prescription of instructional activities by which the learner's work is guided. IPI is based on a set of specified objectives correlated with diagnostic instruments, curriculum materials, teaching techniques, and management capabilities. These objectives are:

1. To allow learner mastery of instructional content at individual learning rates.
2. To guarantee active learner's involvement in the learning process.

3. To motivate learner to involve in self-directed and self-initiated activities.
4. To encourage learner evaluation of progress towards mastery.
5. To present instructional materials and techniques based on individual needs and styles (as cited in Yetter, 1972; 491).

Hosticka (1972; 20-23) stated that to use the IPI effectively, a teacher should be able to state; 1-exactly what it is he wants the learner to learn; 2-how he will know when the learner learned it; 3-what the learner already knows about the subject to be learned; and 4-what the learner needs to know.

To this end, there are four necessary measures: (a) placement instruments, (b) pre-tests to be administered before each unit of work, (c) post-tests to determine mastery, and curriculum-embedded tests to measure progress. The curriculum materials themselves are often of a programmed nature. It is very important in IPI to carefully determine the learner's present competence in a given subject and frequent evaluation on a present basis in order to reinforce both learner and teacher regarding progress made as well as to correct weaknesses of the instructional activities prescribed (Goldschmid & Goldschmid, 1973; 16).

Park & Lee (2003; 653) illustrated that in the IPI, the learner is assigned to an instructional unit in a course, according to the learner's performance on a placement test given before instruction. Within the unit, a pretest is given to determine which objectives the learner needs to study. After studying each unit, learners take a posttest to evaluate the mastery of the unit. The learners have to master particular objectives for the instructional unit before moving to the next unit.

Despite of its many advantages, IPI still far from matching the intended system, individualization of instruction is provided mainly by self-pacing, while diagnosis of learner entering behavior and the appropriate matching instructional activities and modes still have to be further developed. IPI needs greater efficiency with regard to propose a modified system with emphasis on the various processes of individual inquiry (Goldschmid & Goldschmid, 1973; 17).

3.4.7 Modular Instruction (MI)

Modular Instruction (MI) is an individualized system that integrates many advantages of other instructional innovation like performance goals, self-pacing and regular feedback. MI is also defined as an instruction which is either partly or completely based on modules that are self-contained units of a planned sequence of learning activities. These modules may consist of various instructional exercises, such as reading textbooks and articles, examining photographs. Along with allowing learners to work and proceed at their rate, MI provides a choice among a great number of topics within any given course or program; to diagnosis the learner's strengths and weakness; and to provide remedial modules or even change the in learning style if necessary (Goldschmid and Goldschmid,1973; 8). The term “modular” describes standardized units for easy assembly or flexible arrangement. Modules offer a format that brings theory into practice (Masterson, 2001; 24).

Kandau (2001; 30-33) pointed out that in order to provide curriculum that aims at all learning styles, flexibility is vital. She also listed a number of reasons a modular approach is effective delivery method:

1. They provide concentrated learning with immediate application. Each module concentrates on the technology it represents. They provide the ability to “integrate and immediately and effectively apply.”
2. They provide learning reinforcement. The activities build on previous student knowledge and provide a steady improvement of that knowledge over time.
3. Organizational control is part of the modular experience. Because of the content flexibility, the instructor maintains greater control over what is being taught. Modules can be altered to fit current student needs.
4. Programs are easily modified. Traditional programs are rigid and inflexible, but the modular approach can be tailored to a schools specific need.
5. They cover a wide variety of technologies. Rather than having an instructor teach about many different technologies and attempting to provide

activities that cover those technologies, modules fill that bill more effectively and thoroughly.

3.4.8 Differentiated Instruction

Differentiated instruction is defined as a teaching philosophy based on the basis that teachers should adapt instruction to student differences. Rather than demonstrate students through the curriculum in lockstep, teachers should modify their instruction to meet students' varying readiness levels, learning preferences, and interests (Willis & Mann, 2000, pp.1). It emerged out of a need to provide students with a more individualized educational program (Mulroy and Eddinger, 2003; 2).

A differentiated classroom presents a range of learning choices proposed to tap into different readiness levels, interests, and learning descriptions. In a differentiated setting, the teacher uses (a) a variety of ways for learners to discover curriculum content, (b) a variety of sense-making activities or processes through which learners can come to understand and "own" information and ideas, and (c) a variety of options through which learners can express or exhibit what they have learned. In a differentiated class, assignments are not the same for all learners and the modifications contain a variety of level difficulty of questions learners, grading some learners harder than others, or allowing learners who finish early play games for enrichment. It is inappropriate to have more advanced learners do extra math problems, extra book reports, or after completing their "regular" work be given additional assignments. Asking learners to do more of what they already know is depressing. Asking them to do "the regular work, plus" certainly seems punitive to them (Tomlinson, 1995; 1-2).

Using differentiated instructional strategies provides more access to learning by more learners, more effective employment of time, and more indication of motivated learners. In order to set up for differentiation, a pre-test or a questionnaire can be utilized to test out the prior knowledge of the content, learner reflective achievements can be examined to test out previous challenges, precedent

grades can be utilized to establish progress and readiness levels, a multiple intelligences checklist can be directed to test out diverse learning profiles, or an inventory can be used to determine interests. To improve learning for all learners, the objectives of differentiated instruction include: creating a balance between a student-centered and teacher-facilitated classroom, offering opportunities for learners to work in a range of formats, enhancing instruction around the principles and the “big picture” concept of the unit, planning challenging and respectful assignments for all, and meeting syllabus standards and requirements while maximizing learner development and individual success. Differentiation is based on sound research. It sets the learning needs of learners at the center of instructional design (Preszler, 2006;4).

Differentiation is a successful technique for teachers to present evocative instruction delivered around challenging content and designed to meet the needs of learners at their suitable levels and to help them accomplish maximum growth (Center for Advanced Student Learning, 2001). Differentiated instruction is also defined as an attitude of teaching and learning which realizes that each learner is unique. Accurate, appropriate, complex and flexible, differentiated instruction is a reaction to that uniqueness. Therefore, in a differentiated classroom, not every learner is working on the same thing in exactly the same way at exactly the same time. Nevertheless, differentiated instruction is not only a set of programs and activities that tests the learner in a variety of ways, but rather a system that asserts that learners—with all their variety—come to our classes with probable ready to be tapped (as cited in Theisen ,2002, pp. 2)

Differentiated instruction came out of a need to supply all learners with a more individualized educational system. The basis for the differentiated method is related to recent tendency in education that focuses on individual learning styles and preferences. In designing successful instruction teachers do not expected to lecture and examine every learner in the same manner, rather they must reflect on personal learning methods and how they can construct a personalized learning setting within their classroom(Mulroy and Eddinger, 2003; 1).

According to Beach (2010; 2), differentiated instruction permits a teacher to deal with the multiple intelligences that influence learners’ learning manners. This is obtained by putting forward a range of activities that provide all learning styles with

options for learners to learn the standards being taught. Differentiating instruction may be difficult, but it is the choice for teachers who will not accept classrooms where growing numbers of students are increasingly less successful. The use of differentiated instruction, combined with multiple methodologies in teaching and learning, motivates students of varying student-learning styles and reflects a democracy that works in the classroom. Styles are often confused with abilities, so students are thought to be incompetent, not because they are lacking in abilities, but because their styles of thinking do not match the styles of the people creating the assessments.

Scalise (2007; 4) suggested that approaches can be combined to produce five general strategies for differentiated instruction, which are:

1. “Diffuse” approaches to differentiation, in which students receive the same content but have multiple opportunities for learning and are provided with different approaches for making sense of ideas plan fully “diffused” throughout the content.
2. Self-directed approaches, in which students receive different content by a mechanism of self-selection, built in the content. This introduces differentiation through student choice.
3. Naive differentiation, in which the computer is determining the course of differentiation, not the user, but no specific plan or overall strategy, is in place in the e-learning content for why differentiation is happening, or what it is intended to mean in the learning context.
4. Boolean differentiation, in which software uses types of Boolean logic, such as rule-based frameworks or decision trees, to determine how to adjust content for different students.
5. Model-based differentiation, in which expert opinion is combined with a variety of data mining techniques to generate ideas for how content might be appropriately differentiated.
- 6.

3.6 Individualize Writing Instruction:

According to Clark (1975; 66-69) to start a writing program, a teacher should take each learner where he is according to learner's perspective not to teacher's perspective. Thus, the emphasis should be on the significance of the uniqueness of individual learner and the willingness and determination of the teacher to accept it. Faced with many papers teachers may tend to grade (Good and Bad; A, B, or C), compared with some standers, such mental subsets do not consider the uniqueness of each learners vision. The emphasis should not be on quality but on finding the learner's own voice, finding out what he wants to say.

There are several ways to individualize writing instruction, from which, Computer Assisted Language Teaching (CALL) programs. Computer conferences maintain the growth of an "internally persuasive discourse", and this permits learners to use writing as a way of "thinking against" traditional academic discourses. Writing and images, pictures and photographs produce a complete text that make sense and involves learners to be successful participants in writing settings(Lea & Stierer, 2000; 71).

CALL writing programs provide learners with different learning experience. They represent motivating and multimedia settings for learning finite language fields at the learners' pace and with control over the instructions they take, the material they aim at, and the time they dedicate to it. CALL software has a number of forms that reliving teachers of grammar and vocabulary drill and apply assignments such as mind game by which learners answer a language question each time they understand a part of their challenge, with repeated questions frequently for strengthening. Such forms present interesting diversity of structure tasks. Another specialized writing program is report writer, used to help advanced learners with organization, style, and grammar of specialized professional genres. In this form learner are guided through each step as they begin to write a specific type of report or letter, following online immediate support by explanatory on key language, style and purpose. The teacher can design his own sample texts and advice on grammar and style as teacher authoring (Hyland, 1996; 161-166).

Another way to individualize writing instruction is to integrate differentiated assignments into writing tasks by which the teacher can use "choice". Examples of how this is effectively accomplished in class could consist of learners choosing their own spelling words, vocabulary words, or type of writing. Another means to differentiated/modified writing instruction is connected with self-evaluation. The following are characteristics associated with effective differentiated writing instruction:

1. Focus on meaning, not grammar or spelling
2. Allow students to have choices about what they write
3. Incorporate self-evaluation throughout the writing process
4. Focus on writing as a process rather than a single task
5. Teach the writing process (pre-writing, organize, first draft, revise)
6. Teachers are trained in best practices associated with differentiated instruction and writing. It is critical that the student improve his/her ability to evaluate their own writing and identify personal strengths and weaknesses that can be used to set personal writing goals (The Reading Tutor's Handbook, 2001; 85-96).

Chapman and King (2009; 78) suggested that to set up an effective lesson, teachers should depend on the learner's prior knowledge and experience. They also suggested some sequential techniques to initiate a writing class; before a lesson is introduced,

learners are asked to share what they know about the subject. A pre-assessment writing activity is used. Then writing activities are given to learners to practice, process, and understand the new information throughout the lesson. At last, teachers give writing assessments and evaluations to examine learner's understanding. The pre-assessment also shows how learners process the new learning. Across the content areas, learners are given daily tasks that require writing interpretations, explanations, opinions, or responses to questions about the subject.

3.7 Relevant Research in Individualized Instruction

Jernstedt (1967) divided 195 students into two sections in an undergraduate course. One of the sections received instruction under traditional lecture-examination format. The two other received individualized instruction which included behavioral objectives, a unit approach, unit mastery requirements, and self-pacing. The unit completion activities for the individualized group involved the writing of short papers. The instructor, class meetings, readings, and examinations were identical in both groups. The performance of the two groups was compared through the use of multiple-choice, short answers, and essay examinations. The results revealed that the individualized group performed better on the essay exam and traditional group performed better on the multiple-choice exams. Students in the individualized group reported the course to produce more learning, to be more work, more flexible, equal on difficulty, and more accurate in grading than students in the traditional section reported it to be. However, individualized instruction produced superior performance to traditional instruction only when the unit completion activities of the individualized section were similar to the behaviors required on the examination instruments.

Shimron (1976) examined whether or not distinctive patterns of behavior exist for students of different learning characteristics (e.g. learning rate), and whether or not and the degree to which the Individually Prescribed Instruction (IPI) system succeeded in adapting its instructional procedures to these behavior patterns. The researcher observed the rates of progress and mastery than compared the academic achievement produced by IPI to that produced by other systems. The subjects for this study were 8 second-grade students, four of them had mastered the largest number of curricular units and were thus classified as "fast". The other four had master the least

number of units and were designated as "slow". Results showed that there were two distinct patterns of behavior for slow and fast students, much of this variance in patterns attributed to the fact that slow students spent less time of their time in on-task activities.

Shpritz (1993) carried out a quasiexperimental study to assess the effectiveness of Personalized System of Instruction (PSI) as a teaching strategy in a leadership

and management course, as reflected in midterm and final examination scores in a course taught to senior baccalaureate nursing students. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of five sections of course. One section received the experimental intervention, PSI, only; during the first half. The other four sections were taught traditionally throughout the semester. Instrumentation involved the use of: 1) a pretest, 2) a common multiple choice midterm examination, 3) a common, non-cumulative final examination, 4) a two-part questionnaire, and 5) a faculty time log. Findings indicated that the main effects of teaching method (PSI vs. non-PSI) and time of exam (midterm vs. final) were significant. As a result of an extensive literature search into specific learning strategies that can improve performance in learner-controlled- instruction, Hemphill (2001) developed a learning profile instrument prototype consisted of a self-reported survey and individualized learning profiles. This prototype was tested at three colleges. All subjects were given the learner profile survey, a pretest, the training course, a posttest, and an exit survey. Treatment groups received individualized learning strategy profiles. Results exhibited significant differences between achievement gains in the subject who followed the suggested strategies and the subject who either were not given the strategies or did not use the strategies.

Chartrand (2004) examined the history and the current state of computer-assisted language teaching and learning (CALL) to provide a context for the present study. A discussion of teaching English using computer-mediated communication in Japan is also described along with an explanation of the courseware used. The study involved one hundred eighty-six high school students learning Oral Communication 1 in a traditional classroom environment and in a computer classroom environment using Dynamic English 1 courseware. The participants were assessed quantitatively and qualitatively before and after five lessons to determine their progress and attitudes towards CALL. The students' results were analyzed and compared. The major

conclusion of the study is that CALL was most effective for those students who had a lower ability and the CALL lessons were interesting. Those students who had a higher ability found the courseware too easy for them and were likely to have lost

interest, contributing to the unexpected results. A clear majority of the students would have liked to continue the CALL lessons for longer.

Allsopp, Minskoff & Bolt (2005) conducted a 3-year Model Demonstration Project involved the development and field testing of an individualized course-specific strategy instruction model with college students with learning disabilities and Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Forty six participants received an individualized semester-long strategy instruction by graduate students in special education. A variety of data sources were used to evaluate the implementation of the model as well as the academic success of students who received individualized strategy instruction. Quantitative analyses indicated that the group as a whole as well as the subset of students on probation and suspension significantly improved their grades and sustained this improvement over time. Qualitative analysis identified two factors related to improvement: independent use of strategies and the supportive nature of the strategy instructor–student relationship. Qualitative analysis also identified two factors related to no improvement: academic/cognitive skill deficits and emotional/medication-related issues.

Brazas (2005) designed a study to test a programmed instructional system based on the intrinsic programmed instructional technology of Crowder (1961) but incorporating design elements derived from cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1988). Specifically, this study tested a multimedia programmed instructional system (CLT-PI) based on work by Mayer (2001) against a text based system (TXT), a traditional linear programmed instructional system based on Skinner (1954, 1958)(LPI), and an intrinsic programmed instructional system based on the work of Crowder (1960, 1961)(IPI). 115 undergraduate university students were randomly assigned to one of four conditions where they studied a chapter on human sleep. Each condition was presented on a computer with a test following study. A long-term test was given 4 weeks later. Both short- and long-term tests contained retention and transfer questions. Analyses were conducted using repeated measures MANOVA. A series of ANOVA tests were conducted to determine specific effects and interactions. Tests found that: 1. CLT-PI and IPI produced higher long-term retention scores than TXT. LPI, however, did not, 2. IPI better than LPI, but only for long-term

retention, and 3. CLT-PI produced higher long-term retention scores than TXT or LPI. Long term retention scores for the two intrinsically based programs, CLT-PI and IPI, were equivalent. No significant differences long-term transfer effects were seen. The retention tests support past research on multimedia instruction but the lack of significant differences for transfer do not.

Geeta & Palat (2006) investigated the effectiveness of an individualized education program for children with scholastic backwardness. Independent assessors evaluated the academic functioning of 18 children attending a Child Guidance Clinic, 12 of them were diagnosed as slow learners and 6 children having mild mental retardation were given individualized education for a period of two months. The results indicated that the children had significant improvement in their academic functioning and self esteem after training.

Koeze (2007) sought to answer two research questions “Does differentiated instruction have an impact on student achievement?” and “Are there components of differentiated instruction that have a greater impact on student achievement than others?” The study followed a mixed method design and consisted of two parts. First, a quantitative analysis of test scores from the Michigan Education Assessment Program (MEAP) and teacher and student survey results were analyzed as a means to outline broad relationships from the data. Results from the quantitative findings directed the researcher on how to frame the qualitative design. Second, a qualitative analysis of classroom observations and interviews with teachers was conducted. Findings suggested that teachers just beginning differentiation should first administer a learning styles inventory to their students. The administration of this inventory will provide the teacher with the necessary information to differentiate for choice and interest, two manageable techniques with which to begin differentiation.

Chen (2007) explored the applicability of differentiated instruction in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environment, this case study investigated Taiwanese college students’ perspectives on tiered performance tasks and educational implications of the perspectives with regard to EFL learning and teaching at the tertiary level. Data gathering techniques employed included observations, interviews, videotaping, and artifact collection, while data analysis procedures followed a three-step process: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing

and verification. A total of 12 participants demonstrated generally positive responses to tiered performance tasks offered in a final examination for a freshmen English listening and speaking class. An overall acceptance of the assessment strategy was generated through recognition and appreciation of choices of leveled tasks, heightened motivation, increased efforts, improved English skills, and greater confidence. Affirmative results were particularly evident in low-ranking students. The acceptance of tiered performance tasks indicated that differentiated instruction is promising in supporting English language learning of college EFL learners in Taiwan. Implications pointed to the needs of an authentic assessment to link teaching and learning, as well as an equitable relationship between the educator and the learner. Suggestions for future research were offered.

Bown (2009) provided a qualitative description of learners' effort to regulate their own language learning in a particular self-instructional program. This study took a situated approach to examine the process of self-regulation, recognizing how contextual cues influence the self-regulatory process. Twenty students (13 women and 7 men), ranging from 18 to 45, participated in the study. The findings pointed out that participants exhibited a number of self-regulatory behaviors aimed at creating environments that would meet their learning needs and preferences.

Moosavi (2009) conducted a comparative study using an *ex-post-facto* design to compare achievement among remedial college algebra students in classes where predominantly computer-aided instruction was used to that of students in classes using traditional lecture instruction. The researcher aimed at identifying key aspects that may translate into student success and achievement in remedial college algebra classes. This study was. Class sections were randomly assigned to instructional methods. Students, although not randomly assigned to sections, were blind to instructional methods when registering for classes. The study evaluated student performance using scores on individual semester tests, a comprehensive final exam, and overall course grade. Regardless of whether achievement is measured in terms of single semester test, comprehensive final exam, course average, or test performance across the semester the results presented here indicate that students perform better in traditional classes than in CAI classes regardless of the CAI curriculum used. Moreover, despite instructional method, students perform better on tests at earlier and later points in the semester than in the middle. Comparison of the two CAI curricula used in this study indicated that student test performance is better for students using Thinkwell CAI than those receiving the MyMathLab CAI

curriculum. These results have implications for math educators considering how best to use CAI to teach remedial college algebra.

Newberry (2010) investigated the effect of implementing cooperative learning versus individual learning activities during a computer-based instruction program, and whether cooperative learning techniques used in conjunction with computer-based instruction are viable learning strategies to use with “non-traditional” adult learners to increase their understanding of computers, improve their socialization with other students, and to help them develop better teamwork skills. There were 65 fifth-grade students in one selected elementary school located in a small city in the upper Midwest. This study used a two-group posttest-only design to determine achievement differences. One of the three intact fifth-grade classes was randomly selected to be the individual class, leaving the other two intact classes to be cooperative. After completion of the pretest, students in the two cooperative classes were formed into randomly selected dyads. The individual class had 21 students. Students worked on the computer math lessons one time a week for 50 minutes each session. During the final week of the study, all students were asked to complete a questionnaire dealing with their attitudes towards mathematics, the computer math lessons, and working in cooperative groups. This research suggested that integrating cooperative learning with Integrated Learning System (ILS) delivered instruction is an effective instructional strategy. Cooperative learning may enrich the value of computer assisted instruction by expanding the perspectives of individuals to include a range of alternatives and opinions not provided during the lesson.

Varner (2010) run a quantitative causal comparative study to examine the effects of Individualized Group Instruction (IGI) and of facilitated, participatory group programs (SPOKES) on the achievement of Adult Basic Education (ABE) students in reading and mathematics. A sample of 360 participants was drawn from a population of 6,266 English speaking ABE students, with the sample proportionally divided into IGI and SPOKES groups. Paired tests were used to analyze pretest and posttest changes within groups by subject area. Results indicated statistically significant gains for both groups from pretest to posttest. However, independent tests for reading and mathematics between groups did not support the alternative

hypotheses that there was a significant difference in the mathematics or reading scores of adult learners who attended individualized group instruction adult literacy programs as compared to adult learners who attended facilitated, participatory group designed programs. Based on the data, it is reasonable to conclude that both types of instructional design (IGI and SPOKES) positively impacted the reading and mathematics achievement of adult ABE student, with neither instructional design emerging as superior. This study has implications for social change because it provides information program planners and designers can use to develop ABE programs that allow adult learners to achieve academic success.

Falkenberg (2010) studied the effects of self-monitoring on the homework completion and accuracy rates of four, fourth-grade students with disabilities in an inclusive general education classroom. A multiple baseline across subjects design was utilized to examine four dependent variables: completion of spelling homework, accuracy of spelling homework, completion of math homework, accuracy of math homework. Data were collected and analyzed during baseline, three phases of intervention, and maintenance. Throughout baseline and all phases, participants followed typical classroom procedures, brought their homework to school each day and gave it to the general education teacher. Results of this study demonstrated self-monitoring substantially improved spelling and math homework completion and accuracy rates of students with disabilities in an inclusive, general education classroom. Therefore, results suggested self-monitoring leads to short-term maintenance in spelling and math homework completion and accuracy.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The research was carried out over a seven week period during the first term in the academic year 2012-2013. Each week, students participated in three periods . The sample was a normal class, this class consisted of 26 female ninth grade Libyan pupils at Al-Nahda preparatory public school. The sample age ranges from 14 to 16. A pre-test was used to measure students basic writing skills and determine their points of weakness and needs . A program based around a variety of activities and options through which students exhibit what they have learned was used. The content area of the program lessons and assignments was mainly prepared according to the students' previous knowledge and what they need to master to write a very simple paragraph .This program was introduced to the students by the researcher in addition to the normal curriculum. The program consisted of three steps, these steps were adopted from Coppedge (1974).

Phase one: Diagnosis:

Assessing the students to determine first, their present level of learning and previous knowledge and second, what she still needs to master. In order to do so, the researcher conducted a diagnostic test.

Phase Two: Prescription

According to the results of the test, the researcher prepared a program for what the students need to know. The program activities are based around the ninth grade pupils' needs, in three groups of writing skills: grammatical skills, expressive skills, and visual or graphical skills.

Phase Three: Evaluation

Students were given a post test in order to assess their progress. The test consisted of the same elements of the diagnostic test.

Data were collected from the post-test sheets. Paired *t* test were used to analyze the data collected.

4.2 Organization of the Program

Phase One: Diagnosis

Assessing the students to determine first, their present level of learning and previous knowledge and second, what they still need to master to write. In order to do so, the researcher conducted a diagnostic test. This test consisted of three questions as follows:

Q1. Complete the following sentences

a. I usually ----- to school at 7am.

(go, goes, went).

b. Ali----- to play football with ----- friends.

(like, likes, liked) (her, their, his).

c. Asma ----- ----- new shirt yesterday.

(wear, wore, worn) (her, their, his).

d. My first class starts at 8 am, ----- I have to go to school at 7 am.

(so, and, but).

e. I like swimming ----- shopping.

(so, and, but).

f. He is ----- doctor.

(a, an , none).

Q2. Complete the following table:

Coordinating Conjunctions	Example
<i>And</i> joins sentences that are alike.	We ate lunch, and then we went home.
<i>But</i> joins sentences that are opposite or show contrast.	We went shopping, but we didn't buy anything.

Table 4

house- see- work- quickly- nice- home- build- beautiful- hardly- dish- easy- get up- well.

Q3. Write a short paragraph about your every day routine.

Phase Two: Prescription

According to the results of the test, the researcher prepared plans for what the students need, to know how to write. The researcher used "Diffuse" approaches, in which students receive the same content but have multiple opportunities for learning (Scalise, 2007; 4). Students are allowed to learn at their pace which in this case is very slow. These plans were based around the following individualized instruction characteristics:

1. break the writing assignments and materials into smaller portions.
2. use simpler or more complex content as needed.
3. vary the genres in activities.
4. use a variety of writing activities with diverse topics and subjects.

5. plan the content area writing assignments according to the students' needs (Chapman & King, 2009; 2-3).
6. a variety of sense making activities or processes through which learners can come to understand and "own" information and ideas.
7. a variety of options through which learners exhibit what they have learned (Tomlinson, 1995; 1).

Kandua (2001; 33) suggested that in a modular individualized instruction , activities are build on previous student knowledge. He also noted that organizational control is part of the individualized program experience. Because of the content flexibility, the instructor maintains greater control over what is being taught.

Lessons in this program were adopted from Butlers' book " *Fundamentals of Academic Writing*" and Oshima & Hogue book " *Introduction to Academic Writing*" but they were adjusted according to the students' academic level .The program activities are based around the ninth grade pupils' needs, in three groups of writing skills: grammatical skills, expressive skills, and visual or graphical skills.

Grammatical skills	Expressive skills	Graphical skills
1-Adjectives 2-Adverbs 3-Nouns -agreement 4-Pronouns -agreement -proper use 5-Verbs -agreement -form -tense	1-Structural Relationships -comparison -coordination -correlation -negation -parallelism -subordination 2-Word Choice -idiomatic expressions -commonly confused words -wrong word choice -redundancy	1-Mechanics -capitalization -punctuation -commas -semicolons -apostrophes 2-Organize and develop ideas logically, making clear connections between them 3-In writing essays: -Provide and sustain a clear focus or thesis -Use supporting reasons, examples, and details to develop clearly and logically the ideas presented in the essay. -Demonstrate facility in the use of language and ability to use a variety of sentence structure -Construct effective sentences

Table 5 Writing Skills (Adapted from Educational Testing Service, 2010;2).

The program was planned as follows

Lesson One

What is a sentence?

A sentence is a group of words that (a) contains at least one subject and one verb and (b) expresses a complete idea.

He loves music.

Ali plays football.

There are four kinds of sentences in English. Simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound-complex sentences. We will only have the first two in detail.

First, simple sentences

A simple sentence has one subject-verb pair. The subject tells who or what did something. The verb tells the action.

He is my friend.

My brother and I went to visit my grandfather.

Class Activities

Work in pairs

Underline the subject and circle the verb

1. My name is Roberto Sanchez.
2. I was born in the city of San Juan, Puerto Rico.
3. I am a student at Greenhill College.
4. Some of my classes are difficult.

5. A lot of my classes are in Dante Hall.
6. Some of my home work is boring.
7. A lot of my time is spent in the student lounge.
8. My father works in an office.
9. None of my brothers are married.
10. My youngest brother and sister are still in high school.

Home Work

Q1. Identify the subject and the verb for each sentence:

Chocolate tastes good.

Fish swim in the ocean.

A photographer takes pictures.

Q2. Find out whether these sentences are complete or not, if not, why?

	complete	Incomplete	What's the problem?
1- The capital of Libya is Tripoli.			
2-Tripoli a beautiful city.			
3-Tripoli has many attractions.			
4-Is cool in summer.			
5-many tourists travel to Tripoli.			
6-visit the Red Castle.			
7-the beach of Tripoli nice, too.			

Table 6

Lesson Two

Subject verb Agreement

Subjects and verbs must agree in number

Singular	
Subject	Verb
She	is + was
he	
It	

Table 7

Singular	
Subject	Verb
I	Am
You	Are

Table 8

She is my friend.

The meeting is in an office in the city.

Plural	
Subject	Verb
we	are+ were
you	
They	

Table 9

We are friends.

The meetings are in an office in the city.

Class Activities

Work in pairs:

Choose the right verb form:

- 1- Each of the gifts (is, are) carefully wrapped.
- 2- One of the words on the test (was, were) misspelled.
- 3- A lot of my classes (was, were) canceled last week.
- 4- A lot of my time (is, are) spent in the library.
- 5- There (is, are) several kinds of flowers in the bouquet.
- 6- The noise from the firecrackers (was, were) loud.

Pronoun Agreement

Object pronoun must also agree with subject pronoun.

Subject pronoun	Object pronoun
He	Him
She	Her
They	Their
I	My
You	Your

Table 10

He invited his friends.

She invited her friends.

They invited their friends.

I invited my friends.

You invited your friends.

Lesson Three

The simple present of *Be*

Singular	
Subject	Be
I	Am
You	Are
He	is
She	
It	
Ali	

Table11

plural	
Subject	Be
You	Are
They	
Ahmed and Ali	

Table12

The simple present of *Main verbs*

Subject	Main verb
She	Verb + s
He	
It	
We	
You	

Table 13

She works at the hospital.

He plays football.

It looks nice.

I watch TV. every night.

You need to see the doctor.

We like the Zoo.

They usually go to school at 7 o'clock a.m.

Lesson Four

Second: *Compound sentences with and, and but :-*

A compound sentence is composed of at least two simple sentences joined by a comma and a coordinating conjunction. Example: It became very dark, and I was afraid.

Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating Conjunctions	Example
<i>And</i> joins sentences that are alike.	We ate lunch, and then we went home.
<i>But</i> joins sentences that are opposite or show contrast.	We went shopping, but we didn't buy anything.

Table 14

Class Activities

Work in pairs

Q1. Use the coordinating conjunction *and*, or *but* to join the sentences.

1. She walked for a long time. She couldn't find the road.
2. Suddenly, a wolf appeared. The wolf looked at her hungrily.
3. She shouted for help. No one heard her.
4. The wolf ate Blanchette. The poor old man never saw his little goat again.
5. Blanchette wanted to be free. Freedom can be dangerous when we disobey.

Home work

Write two compound sentences by using *but*, and *and*.

Lesson Five

Parts of Speech

First, Nouns

A noun is a word for a person, a place, a thing, or an idea.

I love my brother.

Do you know Ahmed?

What time is it?

They live in Libya.

That shirt is expensive.

He drives a car.

Education is important.

Home work

Q1. What does the noun name?

The noun	A person	A place	A thing	An idea
Door				
Cell phone				
Computer				
Student				
Fish				
Horse				
Bus				
Music				
Movie				
Pen				
Bell				
Love				
Orange				
Picture				
Shoes				
Happiness				
Glass				

Table 15

Q2- Write down all the nouns you could identify in chapter one in your course book.

Second, *Adjectives*

An adjective describes a noun or a subject pronoun. Examples:

new- beautiful- small- long- huge- old- nice- short- big- tall- hot- cold- fantastic-
handsome- dark- fresh.

You can use adjectives in several ways from which:

Subject+ verb to be+ an adjective.

She is beautiful.

He is handsome.

Home Work

Make five sentences by using the formal form.

Third, *Verbs*

Many verbs are words for actions, such as, *builds, drives, or plays*, other verbs do not express actions, such as, *is, likes, or has*.

Homework

Work alone. Write down the main verbs you may find in chapters 1 and 2 at your course book.

Fourth, *Adverbs*

An adverb describes the verb. It tells us how somebody does something. Many adverbs are made from adjectives + ly.

Adjective	Adverb
Careful	Carefully
Quick	Quickly
Heavy	Heavily
Easy	Easily
Difficult	Difficultly
Sad	Sadly

Table 16

He drives carefully.

He drive quickly.

Please, speak quietly.

He looked at me sadly.

It rained heavily.

Drive safely.

Lesson Six

Letters

Words

Sentences

Paragraph

A paragraph is a group of sentences about one topic(subject).

The topic, examples: daily routine, smoking.

What does a paragraph look like?

1. Leave a space at the beginning of the first line in the paragraph " indent".
2. Start each new sentence with a capital letter.
3. Put a dot at the end of each sentence.
4. Capitalize peoples names and titles.
5. Capitalize place names, nationalities, and languages.

model paragraph 1

The topic is "Introducing Yourself"

I would like to introduce my self. My name is Shaukat Matin. My nickname is Salim. I am from Pakistan. I speak Bengali. I am married.

I live with my wife and son. I want to study computers.

Class Activity

Rewrite the preceding paragraph using information about your selves.

Homework

Choose one topic to write a paragraph about:

Your favorite day, Your Saturday, or Your best friend

Model paragraph 2

My Friday

Friday is a very busy day for me. I get up early. Then I work from 6:00 am to 2:00 pm. After work, I go home. I play with my little boy in the afternoon. Sometimes I go shopping with my family. We usually have dinner at home. In the evening, I put my son to bed. Then I finally have free time to watch TV.

Homework

Write about your Friday.

Model paragraph 3

Ali's Favorite Day

Saturday is Ali's favorite day. He always sleeps late in the morning. He sometimes gets up at noon. Then he usually meets his friend in the dining hall. In the afternoon, they spend time outside. It depends on the weather. On Saturday evening, he likes to dress up and go out. He and his friends often go to the movies or to a party. Ali loves Saturday.

Homework

Write about your favorite day.

Phase Three: Evaluation

Students were given a post test in order to assess their progress. The test consisted of the same elements of the diagnostic test. The test was made as follows:-

Q1. Complete the following sentences with the right choice:-

a. I ----- fresh food.

(like, likes).

b. Ahmed likes traveling with ----- friends.

(her, his).

c. My father ----- in an office.

(work, works).

d. It rained -----.

(heavy, heavily).

e. I bought a new scarf, ----- I didn't wear it.

(and, but).

f. Ameena ----- my best friend.

(is , are).

g. I have two brothers ----- two sisters.

(and, but).

h. They played football with ----- friends.

(her, their).

Q2. Complete the following table

Noun	Adjective	Verb	Adverb

Table 17

damage- late- sleep- quietly- long- jar- fruit- beautifully- move- hot-sadly - apple-leaves.

Q3. Write a short paragraph about your family.

4.4 Tools of Data Collection

The researcher conducted a diagnostic pretest, the diagnostic test of the current research was assembled according to a range of different writing skills as referred to by Educational Testing Service in the United States (2010). The test consists of three questions; in the second question students are asked to classify 12 words according to their parts of speech, in the first question students are asked to complete four sentences within the right word, and finally, in the third question students are asked to write a paragraph. These questions were chosen according to skills suggested to be fundamental to compose a piece of writing. It tests the ability of ninth grade Al-Nahdha School students to write. A posttest was administered to

assess students achievement after seven weeks of receiving an individualized writing program. A paired sample t test

was used to compare differences of scores from pretest to posttest within the sample.

4.5 Analysis of the Research Data

This study depends on quantitative results, thus it is considered to be a quantitative study which includes a descriptive analysis of participants outcomes. The Statistical Program of Social Science (SPSS) was used first to analyze the pretest and posttest changes within the group. All participants took both a pretest and a posttest in the subject area so Paired t tests were conducted to determine mean scores at pretest and posttest and differences between them.

Tables (18) and (19) display the mean scores for pretest and posttest.

Table 18 Writing Pre-Test

No.	Mean	S.D
25	7.58	3.61

Maximum Score is 25. Table 18

As indicated in the table above, the mean score of the sample in the pre-administration of the Writing Test is 7.58 , the Standard Deviation is 3.61 .

Table 19 Writing Post-Test

No.	Mean	S.D
25	13.38	5.62

Table 19

In Table 19 the mean score of the sample in the post-administration of the Writing Test is 13.38, the Standard Deviation is 5.62.

An independent *t* test was utilized to compare the means of the pretest and posttest to address the hypotheses and the research question of this study.

The pre-post test	mean	Std.D	Std. Error mean	<i>t</i>	D f	Sig.
	-5.70	4.56	0.91	-6.257	24	0.000

Table 20

The Paired *t* test showed results that indicate a statistically significant increase in posttest scores, *T* test value is -6.257 which is a statistical function at level of significance ,Sig. (0.000), (df) is (24). In other words, results of the *t* test for the

pretest and posttest means reached the significance level $p < .05$ and supported a difference, that the posttest scores demonstrated higher entry levels scores than the pretest scores, as indicated in the Tables (15, 16, 17). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Based on these results, the program based on individualized instruction is successful in increasing grade level gains. In other words, these results show that the program was effective and helped the students to write more, since they were interested in writing and expressed their selves at their pace.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

1.5 CONCLUSION

This study was carried out to investigate the effectiveness of a program based on individualized instruction in developing ninth grade pupils' writing skills on English by Libyan Students, Al-Nahdha preparatory public school. A pre / post-test were conducted to measure pupils writing skills and determine their points of weakness in writing. A program based on individualized instruction was available for the class. The program instruction was based on around the pupils' needs identified by the analysis of the pre-test. The program provided various activities for each student so that they can have more than choice. A post-test was administered to assess the progress students made after seven weeks of receiving the program. The findings indicate that those students have poor writing skills since they are supposed to develop much better writing skills after two years of studying English. One of the reasons behind this was lack of sufficient opportunities to practice writing mostly because of class time limitation. Another important reason is that in a mixed-ability class, content, materials and pace of learning are the same for all students. By not distinguishing the distinctive learning needs of students, these students do not have the opportunity to achieve their potential and often see themselves, as do their teachers, as failures.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

1. Libyan teachers should consider the needs of the students by adapting instruction to individual needs within the group; the students would control the pace at which they progress through instruction.
2. Libyan teachers should make or mark the student as individual or distinctive in character to consider or treat individually; particularize to make or modify so as to meet the special requirements of him/her.
3. The class instruction should consist of student-based activities, lessons and tests. That is, the teacher forms teachings around individual students' strengths, passions and interests.
4. Libyan teachers should vary teaching and learning techniques and procedures in order to keep learners motivated to learn.
5. Libyan teachers should integrate writing approaches in their teaching and practices. The strengths and weaknesses of each writing approach show that they complement each other.
6. Libyan teachers should integrate language skills in order to expose students to authentic language , challenge them to interact naturally in the language.

2.5 SUGGESIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1. Using individualized instruction programs to develop learners' skills in other skills beside writing and investigating the effectiveness of these programs.
2. Designing textbooks' activities according to the principles of individualized instruction and investigating the effectiveness of these activities in developing the target skills.
3. Doing more studies and considering different educational and economic conditions in different places when designing formal courses.

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