ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

SENTENCE COMBINING TECHNIQUE TO ENHANCE THE SYNTACTIC

MATURITY, SYNTACTIC FLUENCY AND OVERALL

WRITING QUALITY IN EFL CLASSES

IN TURKEY

125322

GÜLDEN TÜM

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. F. Özden EKMEKCI

125322

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the subject of
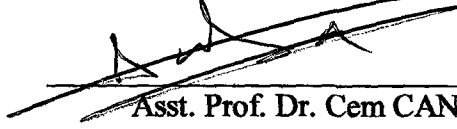
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

2002

We certify that this dissertation is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.
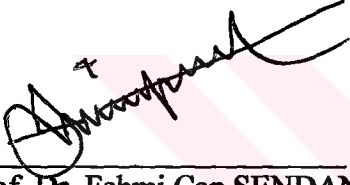
Prof. Dr. F. Özden EKMEKCI
(Supervisor)

Prof. Dr. Hüsnü ENGINARLAR
(Member of Examining Committee)

Asst. Prof. Dr. Cem CAN
(Member of Examining Committee)

Asst. Prof. Dr. Fehmi Can SENDAN
(Member of Examining Committee)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ahmet DOGANAY
(Member of Examining Committee)

I certify that this dissertation conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social Sciences.

Prof. Dr. Mahir FISUNOGLU
(Director of the Institute)

To my family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Prof. Dr. F. Özden EKMEKCI, the supervisor of my doctoral dissertation, for her encouragement and expertise in the area.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude and appreciation to Prof. Dr. Hüsnü ENGINARLAR for his constant suggestions, encouragements, and guidance that have made my Ph.D. study worthwhile. I am grateful to him for providing me with excellent professional guidance and accepting my personal visit whenever I had questions, and occasionally felt helpless; despite his very busy schedule, he responded to all my e-mails as soon as he received them. Both the research and my ideas have been enhanced by the collaborative relationship that I have enjoyed. Without his constructive criticism and invaluable advice from the beginning, this dissertation never has been completed. With his time, energy, wisdom, smile, and pure kindness of heart, he made me feel I should finish this research.

I deeply appreciate Mrs. Kari SMITH, IATEFL TEA SIG Coordinator, and my dear friend for her understanding, continuous encouragement, and patience through e-mails from the earliest stages of this research. She was always willing to give comments and her time. She listened to my ideas, and helped me to design my study. Without her guidance, this dissertation would never have been completed.

I owe special thanks to Mrs. Nalha Nola BACHA, Lebanese American University, for her friendship, invaluable support and help she offered during the beginning of this study.

She helped me greatly through her numerous comments on the content of the thesis and proofreading of this dissertation.

I would like to thank Asst. Prof. Dr. Fehmi Can SENDAN for his constructive criticism, sensitivity, and readiness to answer for any question I have in mind. Asst. Prof. Dr. Sema TUNCEL whose endless support and help encouraged me at the beginning of this study is also my dear colleague I should thank deeply. Without her smiling face and professional help, I would get no energy to conclude this study.

My special thanks should also go to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Birsen TÜTÜNIS who encouraged me all the time with her understanding, and constructive criticism through frequent e-mails.

I am also grateful to Prof. Max MORENBERG, Dean of Miami University in Ohio and Mr. Andrew KEREK for their encouragement and helpful suggestions by sending e-mails at the early phases of this research. As renowned leaders in SC research and text publishing, I have benefited a lot from my personal contacts with them.

I particularly wish to thank Dr. David NAWROCKI, who gave 100 percent of his support—both intellectual and practical—for his careful editing and proofreading within an unending patience during my visits.

I really appreciate the help of Susan-Lane and Greg GERENZA whose endless friendship, understanding, and smiling faces encouraged me all the time throughout the phases of this research to conclude this study.

CÜMLE BİRLEŞİRME TEKNİĞİ
ÖĞRENCİLERİN SÖZDİZİMSEL BECERİLERİNİ
GELİŞTİRMEK İÇİN BİR YÖNTEM

GÜLDEN TÜM

Doktora Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı

Danışman: Prof. Dr. F. Özden EKMEKÇİ

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı yabancı dile olarak İngilizce eğitim gören öğrencilerin yazma dersinde sözdizimsel akıcılık ve sözdizimsel olgunluk düzeyine ulaşabilmeleri için cümle birleştirme tekniğini kullanabilmelerini sağlamaktır. Yazma becerilerinde görülen en büyük eksiklik öğrencilerin genellikle kompozisyon yazarken cümleler arası akıcılığı ve bütünlüğü yeterince kullanamamalarıdır. Bu çalışmada cümle birleştirme tekniğinin kullanılmasıyla öğrencilerde görülen bu eksikliğin giderilebileceği varsayılmaktadır. Bu tekniğin öğrencilere kazandırıldığında, yazma becerilerinde bir ilerleme olacağına, ve kompozisyonlarda anlam ve içerik acısından bir bütünlük oluşabileceğine inanıyoruz. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmada aşağıdaki araştırma sorularına cevap bulunmaya çalışılmıştır: Basit cümleleri birleştirme öğrencilerin sözdizimsel akıcılığını geliştiriyor mu? Basit cümleleri birleştirerek bileşik kompleks cümle yapma öğrencilerin sözdizimsel gelişimini hızlandırıyor mu? Cümle birleştirme tekniği öğrencilerin sözdizimsel akıcılığını ve olgunluğunu kompozisyona aktarmalarına yardımcı oluyor mu?

On bir hafta süren eğitim boyunca öğrencilerin ileri düzeyde yazma becerilerini geliştirebilmek amacıyla cümle birleştirme modeli kullanıldı. Bu tekniğin yazma becerilerini nasıl geliştirdiği öğrencilere verilen kompozisyonların değerlendirilmesiyle bulunmaya çalışıldı. Öğrenciler tarafından yazılan kompozisyonlar bilgisayar metin analizi Concordance 3.0.0 programı kullanılarak yapıldı. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin ileri düzeyde kompozisyon yazıp yazmadıklarını değerlendirmek için analitik değerlendirme (Jacobs, 1986) yapıldı.

Araştırma sonuçları, cümle birleştirme tekniği ile yazma becerileri arasında yakın bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ayrıca, deney grubundaki öğrencilerin kontrol grubundakilere göre yazma dersinde daha kompleks ve bileşik cümle kullandıkları ve cümle birleştirme tekniğiyle daha basarili anlatım biçimi kazandıkları gözlenmiştir. Yazma becerileriyle ilgili olumlu sonuçlar kompozisyonların analizlerini değerlendiren kişiler tarafından da desteklenmiştir. Sonuç olarak, cümle birleştirme tekniğinin yazma ders kitaplarına kazandırılmasıyla öğrencilerin yazma alanında yaşadıkları problemin belirli oranda ortadan kalkacağına inanmaktayız.

ANAHTAR KELİMELER:

Cümle birleştirme tekniği, Sözdizimsel akıcılık ve olgunluk düzeyi, Sözdizimsel tutarlık, Sözdizimsel bütünlük, Gelişme çizelgesi

ABSTRACT

SENTENCE COMBINING TECHNIQUE TO ENHANCE THE SYNTACTIC MATURITY, SYNTACTIC FLUENCY, AND OVERALL WRITING QUALITY IN EFL CLASSES IN TURKEY

GÜLDEN TÜM

Ph. D. Dissertation, English Language Teaching Department
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. F. Özden EKMEKCI
December, 2002, 264 pages

The basic premise of this study is that students usually lack the ability to express their ideas and thoughts clearly in writing compositions. In order to make them aware of writing skills, the following two questions should be taken into account:

How does a sentence function?,

How are simple sentences clustered into larger syntactic units to create complex sentences?, and

How do these clusters or paragraphs logically communicate thoughts in order to influence the reader in some way?

It is assumed that as a result of giving them the SC technique, students can present their ideas and improve their skills by paying attention to a variety of choices. Therefore, the purpose for this study is to investigate the effectiveness of the SC technique in raising awareness in students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) regarding their improvement in writing. Since the SC has a motivating influence on writing for higher level thinking

process for students, they were given an eleven-week training on sentence constructions (sentences, clauses, and phrases) focusing on sentence formation and combination of these syntactic units within paragraphs. The reason for studying on sentences, clauses, and phrases stems from the units of grammar in the grammatical hierarchy: sentences, clauses, phrases, words, and morphemes. Since the nature of the study was based on sentence-combining technique, only sentences, clauses, and phrases were taken into consideration for the analysis, not words, and morphemes—based on minimum unit of form. The evaluation of the effectiveness of the SC technique on writing was based on the data gathered from the participating students' writing samples in two tests, namely Pre-test and Post-test.

In this study, the results of the analysis of these tests, namely the Pre-tests and the Post-tests were observed from the point of the contribution of SC technique on the development of students' writing skills. The data analyzed demonstrated that a programmed instruction on the SC technique would enhance syntactic maturity and fluency in writing. In other words, it was observed that students developed a questioning, testing, and transforming emphasis based on critical thinking theory, and raised an awareness of the flowing style and unity in a composition.

KEY WORDS

Sentence Combining Technique, Syntactic Fluency, Syntactic Maturity, Overall Writing Quality, Coherence, Progress Sheet

TABLE OF CONTENT

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

E_1 Experimental Group Pre-test 1
C_1 Control Group Pre-test 1
E_2 Experimental Group Pre-test 2
C_2 Control Group Pre-test 2
E_3 Experimental Group Pre-test 3
C_3 Control Group Pre-test 3
E_1' Experimental Group Post-test 1
C_1' Control Group Post-test 1
E_2' Experimental Group Post-test 2
C_2' Control Group Post-test 2
E_3' Experimental Group Post-test 3
C_3' Control Group Post-test 3

E_1 Experimental Group Pre-test 1   xi
C_1 Control Group Pre-test 1
E_2 Experimental Group Pre-test 2
C_2 Control Group Pre-test 2
E_3 Experimental Group Pre-test 3
C_3 Control Group Pre-test 3
E_1' Experimental Group Post-test 1
C_1' Control Group Post-test 1
E_2' Experimental Group Post-test 2
C_2' Control Group Post-test 2
E_3' Experimental Group Post-test 3
C_3' Control Group Post-test 3

E_1 Experimental Group Pre-test 1
C_1 Control Group Pre-test 1
E_2 Experimental Group Pre-test 2
C_2 Control Group Pre-test 2
E_3 Experimental Group Pre-test 3
C_3 Control Group Pre-test 3
E_1' Experimental Group Post-test 1
C_1' Control Group Post-test 1
E_2' Experimental Group Post-test 2
C_2' Control Group Post-test 2
E_3' Experimental Group Post-test 3
C_3' Control Group Post-test 3

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

There have been many changes in approaches to teaching writing due to the fact that

both researchers and educators have been seeking better methods to improve students'

writing. Initially, formal English grammar instruction was considered as a means to improve

the written compositions of students because of the teacher's intuitive sense that somehow

and somewhere there was a relationship between mastery of grammar and effective writing

(O'Hare cited in Laframboise, 1989, p. 24). A theoretical basis for understanding this

relationship has been provided in previous versions of Chomsky's principles on parameters

theory, in which he describes the production of language as transformations that connect deep

structures to surface structures in written form (Chomsky, 1965). Deep structure of a

sentence contains concepts and ideas, while surface structure is the language that is actually

spoken or written. The writer conveys deep structures by making choices about the surface

structures used to communicate the ideas (Laframboise, 1989, p. 178).

Writing, within this traditional approach, is viewed as a reinforcement of language

principles through grammatical instructions; therefore, it receives a great deal of criticism

since it leads to artificial sentence constructions that are not commonly used by native

speakers (Watson-Reekie, cited in Laframboise, 1989). Hence, different techniques have

been recommended to avoid such artificial constructions because of the fact that teaching

composition requires both acquisition of language and writing skills (Baljevic, 1978).

Writing based upon the process approach, on the other hand, is considered a mental activity, which promotes more complex sentences to express ideas and experiences. In other words, writing is required to demonstrate knowledge, independent thinking, research, and learning. When students learn to gather and interpret data, they bring an increasing knowledge to bear upon their interpretation; thereby, they write in more complex forms (Tütünis, 2000). As a result of giving an emphasis to form and structure, Tütünis (2000) claims that students become aware of their potential for critical thinking, creative expression, and new language use while writing compositions. In other words, students are simultaneously involved in generating and arranging their ideas into well-organized word sequences. Of various techniques that have been used, one of the most important of these is 'Sentence Combining' (Elder, 1981; and Lawlor, 1983). Additionally, Tütünis (2000) emphasizes that once the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students master this technique, they are likely to incorporate Sentence Combining technique (SC) in their free writing.

SC is a technique in which sets of simple clustered sentences are condensed into sets of complex sentences; it has been applied by many researchers in English as a Second Language (ESL) to investigate its impact on composition classes (Enginarlar, 1994). It is believed that with this technique students find a better opportunity to express their ideas in a single-complicated sentence. The basic format of SC technique is a very simple step, namely, giving students a series of short "kernel" sentences and asking them to combine these sentences into more elaborate ones (Lawlor, 1983). This technique is based on critical thinking theory that one's writing skill will be enhanced by imitating sentences in special exercises which one uses before starting to write his own composition. According to Baljevic (1978), the SC technique helps students to become aware of different sentence patterns as they condense these sets of clusters. As a result of condensing these clusters, students

understand the concept of a composition and can write with fewer errors regarding usage, structure, and mechanics. In line with Baljevic, Lawlor states that the important information from each short sentence must be retained in the longer sentence. This necessitates students to transform and manipulate the structure of the original sentences (p. 54). Hence, through this approach, students become aware of the writing process instead of the final product (Enginarlar, 1994).

O'Hare (in Kameen, 1978) and Vitale, King, Shontz, and Huntley (1971) have found that intensive practice with SC exercises produces a significant growth toward syntactic maturity, which refers to coherence of ideas among sentences of any topic in a composition. SC practice helps students write free compositions because the syntactic direction in this practice helps students see how a sentence formulates according to different functions; moreover, it helps to organize their ideas so that readers can follow them more easily. It is also claimed by Klassen (1977) that a systematic, comprehensive SC program given to ESL students in an eight-week intensive course enhances a growth toward syntactic maturity, and also this growth is retained after a period without SC practice. Baljevic (1978) and Voss (1981) explain this growth in the way that SC has its roots in syntax and semantics and emphasizes sentence structure; hence, this technique introduces students to think about content as much as structure and style in sentences. According to these scholars, SC technique, at the initial stages, stresses several different phrase combinations syntactically. When certain suggestions for combination are given, students may write or combine sentences more successfully at every academic level at the final stages (Lawlor, 1983).

As a result of satisfactory outcomes of this technique, in the last decades, research on the effects of SC practice on students' writing abilities have accelerated the developments in this field. Some researchers (e.g., Brewer, 1986; Clanchy & Ballard, 1992; Jenkinson, 1999; Kanellas, 1997; Kroll, 1991; Morenberg et al., 1999; Phillips, 1996; Rice, 1984; Strong, 1994;

and Taki El Din, 1987) have acknowledged the effect of SC technique in writing and observed that when students are involved with this technique, they might discover the model themselves by restating content, constructing meaning, and planning both controlled and open sentence combining exercises. According to these researchers, this technique makes systematic use of the structure of thought within a text. They also claim that paragraphs, as small units, contribute to the logical continuity of the whole composition. Since the SC technique may motivate their thinking about context and meaning in a unity at any level, students combine their linguistic and rhetorical competency in writing.

In the SC research done in recent decades, sentence combining has been frequently applied as a writing process technique in education; notably, linguists have been interested in the outcomes of students, but have paid little attention to incorporating the SC technique into the curricula. In other words, it has not been specially gained in writing curricula (First, 1995). We—Prof. Ekmekci and I—believe, as Gairns and Redman (1986) also state, this is an extremely important area in teaching a foreign language (FL), and unless this kind of technique is integrated, contextual establishment of text may become almost impossible (p.71). Therefore, in this study, after seeking the efficacy of the SC technique for improving the writing quality of students, we tend to integrate this technique in the curricula in order to help students overcome their writing problems and to help them write efficient compositions.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

For over two decades, there has been a great concern over teaching writing due to the changes in the FL curriculum. Writing appears to be a very difficult skill for students to acquire because these students usually lack the ability to express their opinions in productive tasks. Due to this difficulty, they do not give a high priority to the tasks requiring writing skills. The receptive skills gain more importance to students in attaining information in the

target language. As listening and reading comprehension form the first stages in the acquisition of a FL, students do not feel the need for writing, and they initially attempt to improve their reading and listening comprehension (Bear, cited in Özoğlu, 1994). Although reading and listening skills are sufficient for getting information, students need to develop their writing and speaking skills and reflect back what they mean in the target language. For that reason, the primary goal of FL education should be to help students think and reflect their thoughts effectively (Costa cited in Eilen and Earl, 1987). The problem in achieving this goal is to find a good instructional technique to improve students' skills.

There have been many different attempts in coping with the problems in EFL. For years, teachers have provided direct instruction and practice on various forms in different skills associated with writing. Teachers have generally emphasized the concept of structure by applying instructions that resemble mechanical rote learning. Students also consider the instructions as grammatical learning. This results in teachers' corrections and students' revisions exclusively seeming to deal with surface features, says Thomas (2000). Lawlor (1983), for example, states that, "just applying drills in a mechanical way seems to be a solution but does not fulfill the students' writing needs" (p. 29). Cotton (2000), and Devine, Railey and Boshoff (1993) agree on this statement, and claim that grammatical correctness is the major concern in a traditional teaching approach; hence, writing process abides with grammar rules to conform the correct syntactical formulae, and to master the formal conventions and modes of expression. Consequently, when the concept of structural patterns in a paragraph is emphasized more than the content in writing process, the composing process will be 'routine' without stimulating higher-level composing tasks and going beyond sentence level understanding.

In relation to the study, in Turkey, "FL teachers are generally trained to focus on students' written products to detect errors at syntactical level rather than at discourse level"

(Özoğlu, 1994, p. 1). Most of the time, teachers have the tendency of attempting to use manipulative and structural drilling (Cotton, 2000; Klassen, 1977; Tarnopolsky, 2000; and Thomas, 2000). In other words, the activities applied in writing classes within this framework are usually in the form of grammar drills such as substitution and transformation; otherwise, teachers involve students with free writing, which requires no guidance at all.

Writing, nevertheless, is a thinking process and a highly complex act that demands the analysis and synthesis of many levels of thinking (Graves cited in Cotton, 2000). At this level of writing composition, writing is undeniably based on thought and organizing it into a coherent and logical form. Students usually think, but they do not know how to organize and express their thoughts in an analytical writing. Therefore, their compositions generally seem illogical, long, unfocused, and insufficient (Paulston & Bruder, 1976). Under these circumstances, students' written products do not meet the desired requirement. Students, in other words, become aware of the structure of the language but they are not conscious of the language patterns they should be manipulating in order to achieve the desired aim. As a result, teachers encounter problems such as *irrelevance, illogicality,* and *incoherence* in their students' writing rather than syntactic fluency and maturity among sentences (Allison, 1995; Amiran, 1982; Ballard & Clanchy, 1991; Freedman, 1987; and Paulston & Bruder, 1976).

There might be several reasons for students' inefficient writing:

(1)   Unawareness of the relation form (structure of a sentence) and meaning (intention) in a composition;

(2)   Unawareness of the unity both between sentences and among sentences constituting a composition; and

(3)   Unawareness of the assessment of their own sentences in a composition.

One of the reasons for students' inefficient writing is their unawareness of the relation form (structure of a sentence) and meaning (intention) in a composition. It has been observed that students only focus on the correctness of the sentences they formulate and neglect the process of formulation of sentences in order to yield the intended meanings. In other words, the same two sentences can be combined in a different way to express different meaning. Johns (1986), in her study, points out the fact that when students study grammar, they seem to be unable to transfer their thoughts into an essay form, and mostly continue to revise their work at sentence level. The inefficiency of students' writing composition is likely to result from the fact that most students are even unaware of the following two questions that constitute the major part of this study:

- How does a sentence function?

- How are simple sentences clustered into larger syntactic units to create complex sentences?

- How do these clusters or paragraphs logically communicate thoughts in order to influence the reader in some way?

As a result of not being aware of these three questions, students usually lack the ability to arrange their ideas in a flowing style; they cannot put sentences into effective paragraphs to give the context of the composition in a relevant, logical, and coherent manner. They are unaware of how to express sentences in a unified form. Furthermore, the patterns of language are not likely to be moved up to the level of native speaker performance (Klasses, 1977). On this point, as Strong (1994) puts forward, the clustered sentences in the form of a SC practice might help students to understand the structure of paragraphs—the way sentences are "hung together" (p. 5) and to achieve a significant improvement by familiarizing them with notions of using language patterns (Enginarlar, 1994; and Kameen, 1978).

The second reason might be that students are unaware of the *unity between sentences* and also *unity among sentences* constituting a composition. In the researcher's informal interview, teachers also expressed that students mostly wrote repetitious sentences rather than fluent and varied sentences in a composition, and this caused lack of variety. Teachers also stated that the sentences students produced were also stunted sentences rather than long and complex sentences that indicate maturity and fluency in a composition.

The third and last reason might be that students are also unaware of the assessment of their composition as a whole. As teachers, we feel that it is our duty to do the assessment and we do not give them any opportunity to evaluate their own products. When students are trained to assess their written products, they will become more aware of their weaknesses and try to work on them in their following trials. This process will lead to better performance. In fact, some can even achieve the level of a native speaker.

Accordingly, students cannot write an effective composition when they are not aware of the form and the function of sentences constituting a composition and when they do not comprehend what they are doing in writing courses. No amount of mechanical writing is going to teach a productive generating of sentences, and students need to work with the relaxed controls within very simple patterns. For the more advanced levels, diminishing controls of structural instructions once students gain confidence should be considered to enhance writing more freely (Paulston & Bruder, 1976, p. 208). Composition should be emphasized as writing beyond the sentence level, putting clusters together in an acceptable form, which is gained through the SC technique, and ordering the resultant sentences in an appropriate way. In doing so, teachers can help students to eliminate their basic problems, which are making sentences and paragraphs stick together, and relating their thoughts in an orderly and logical manner.

1.3 Aim and Scope of the Study

The aim of this study is

(1) to investigate the role of the SC technique to improve students' syntactic fluency, syntactic maturity, and overall writing quality in their writing skills,

(2) to find out whether or not students utilize specific constructions in their writing skills that they gained through the SC technique, and demonstrate statistically significant superiority over the control group,

(3) to find out

a.) if the Progress Sheet (PS), one way of providing students to assess their written products on their own in terms of Grammar, Connectors, Punctuation, Vocabulary and Spelling, Complex Sentences, and Paragraphs helps students to become aware of their own strengths and weaknesses in their writing, and

b.) if this PS helps them learn to critically evaluate writing on their own and become critical writers (see Appendix 1).

It is assumed that students have inability to express their ideas fluently in their written language. Therefore, after investigating the difficulties the students have in their writing samples, and categorizing lack of constructions (see Appendix 16) within their composition, the researcher has used the SC technique to improve students' writing power and their syntactic maturity. It is believed that by means of the emphasis on constructions, which are considered to be the main problem in sentence complexity, students are supposed to overcome their weaknesses and gain an overall quality in their writing skills.

Briefly, we believe that the SC technique should be put into action through the exercises in which students are involved in the process of writing instruction. The simple

truth is that no one learns anything, including writing, without going through a trial and error process. As also confirmed by Sharon and Sharon (1994), encouraging students and opening ways for them to use their special abilities will make them become high-level creators and problem solvers even when they make mistakes during the learning period.

1.4 Operational Definitions

For the purpose of this study, the following terms that appear in the research questions and hypotheses should be considered in their meanings below for the benefit of the reader.

Sentence Combining Technique: It refers to instructional activities in which kernel sentences are combined into longer and more complex sentences (Neville & Searls, 1985).

Syntactic Growth: It is the improvement in students' overall writing quality, in terms of grammatical correctness, sentence variety, organization, and cohesion in a composition (Kameen, 1978).

Syntactic Fluency: It is considered as indices of production including number of words, number of clauses, number of sentences, and length of sentences in a text (Gajar, 1989). In other words, it is indices quantified by T-Unit measures per text.

Syntactic Maturity: It is characterized by a greater number and variety of transformations, provided with adjectives, adverbs, and phrases (Gajar, 1989; and Sotillo, 2000). In other words, it emboldens students to manipulate various sentence patterns as the degree of complexity of sentence structures that are used by the subject (Melvin, 1980). Briefly, it is the amount of informational components conveyed in a unit of writing to ensure communication between writer and reader in a composition (Hunt, 1970; and Gajar, 1989).

Overall Writing Quality: It refers to grammatical correctness, sentence variety, organization, vocabulary and cohesion in a composition (Kameen, 1978). In this study, Kameen's

definition is taken into consideration since Jacobs' Analytic Scoring, which was used for the evaluation and assessment of written products, included these items for evaluation of students' written products.

T-unit: It is the minimal terminable unit (T-unit). It is an independent clause and any dependent clauses attached to or embedded in it, and it is considered as the smallest unit of written language that can stand alone grammatically (Hunt, cited in Laframboise, 1989; & Sotillo, 2000). When students learn to use more words in one T-unit, this is considered as an index of development in written language (Larsen-Freeman and Strom, 1977), (see Appendix 8 for the detailed examples of T-Unit).

Proficiency Test: It is a kind of evaluation of attainment tests usually set by examination boards to measure the language proficiency of the examinees in addition to their overall knowledge about the language, their capabilities in applying this knowledge in society, together with their mastery over various skills in that language. In other words, it aims to describe the learner's ability to use a language in a real-situation regardless of the way the language is learned (Birjandi, Mosallanejad, & Bagheridoust, 2001; Farhady, Jafarpur, & Birjandi, 2000; Harris & McCann, 1994; and Richards, 1998).

Progress Sheet: It is a kind of assessment, which is considered as one of the most valuable sources of information about what is happening in a learning environment (Harris & McCann, 1994; and Wiener, 1992). It is also believed as an integral part of learning, providing useful information about students' needs and problems. It is also called a comprehensive diagnostic test, carried out by students themselves to find out what areas of language they are weak on.

Multiple sentence: It contains one or more clauses as its immediate constituents. Multiple sentences are either *compound* or *complex*. In a compound sentence, the immediate constituents are two or more coordinate clauses. In other words, it consists of two or more coordinated main clauses. In a complex sentence, on the other hand, one or more of its

elements, such as direct object or adverbial, are realized by a subordinate clause (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 719).

Embedding: It is characterized by putting parts of two or more base sentences together without the use of "and" (Reutzel & Merrill, 1985). It is the occurrence of one unit as a constituent of another at the same rank in the grammatical hierarchy (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 44).

Coordination: It is the joining of two equally important base sentences together using one of four grammatical elements: coordinating conjunctions, a semicolon, a semicolon with a conjunctive adverb, or a correlative conjunction (Reutzel & Merrill, 1985).

Subordination: It is combining two or more base sentences to emphasize a dependence of one upon the other, by using a subordinating conjunction, relative connectors, or preposition (Reutzel & Merrill, 1985).

Cohesion: It is the set of linguistic resources that every language has (as part of the textual metafunction) or linking one part of a text to another (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). It is the act or state of sticking together tightly as parts of the same mass (Webster's Ninth New Collegrate Dictionary, 1988). Briefly, cohesion is how we join sentences together to form 'grammatical units' (Johnson & Morrow, 1981).

Coherence: The quality or state of cohering as a systematic or logical connection or consistency (Webster's Ninth New Collegrate Dictionary, 1988). It means how we organize our sentences to form 'sense units', a meaningful flow of ideas (Johnson & Morrow, 1981).

Deep Structure: The deep structure of a sentence is the level of concepts or ideas. The writer conveys it by making choices of the surface structures that will be used to communicate the ideas (Laframboise, 1989).

Surface Structure: It is the form of language that is actually spoken or written (Laframboise, 1989).

1.5 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study tries to answer the following three research questions in order to contribute to writing courses, which are generally considered as difficult parts of learning language.

Research Questions

1. Does the manipulation of the SC technique, in which clustered-sentences are combined into single complex sentences, accelerate students' syntactic fluency in their writing?

2. Does combining sets of simple clustered sentences into a single meaningful complex sentence enhance students' syntactic maturity in writing a composition?

3. Does the SC technique enhance the overall writing quality of students?

Hypotheses

1. The manipulation of the SC technique in which the clustered-sentences are combined accelerates students' syntactic fluency in their writing skills.

This hypothesis posits that when students are instructed to use sentence-combining technique in their writing courses, they will improve their writing skills. They may start linking sentences in a cohesive manner; in other words, they produce sentences in a longer and a more fluent way. As a result, they achieve the desired effects on their readers through the power of words, transitions, and structures they use in their writing.

2. Combining groups of simple clustered-sentences into a meaningful complex sentence enhances students' syntactic maturity in writing an essay.

   This hypothesis posits that the use of the SC technique in writing courses will enhance the students' writing complexity and sophistication at the sentence level. Eventually, they may use these skills in combining their own ideas in a complex and more meaningful way, which ideally would create an intense bond with their readers in transferring information at a level beyond the surface structure. It further posits that their written sentences will have coherence in between.

3. The SC technique enhances the overall writing quality of students.

   This hypothesis posits that the use of the SC technique provides students with a set of linguistic structures which allow conceptual framework to be embedded in sentences within paragraphs. Eventually, covering all grammatical correctness, sentence variety, organization, vocabulary, and cohesion in a composition, their written products will have coherence, and the quality that makes a text conform. In other words, while syntactic fluency and syntactic maturity are based upon sentence base in a composition, the overall writing quality emboldens all linguistic features in a unity in a composition.

4. It is hypothesized that the experimental group exposed to the SC technique might not display a significant discrepancy in syntactic fluency and syntactic maturity when compared to the control group.

   This hypothesis, Null Hypothesis, posits that as a result of data analysis, we anticipate no significant difference between the writing performances of the experimental group versa the control group. In other words, the SC technique

might make no contribution to the writing skills of our subjects regarding syntactic fluency and syntactic maturity.

1.6 Assumptions and Limitations

Williams and Burden (1997) state that learners bring to the task of learning various characteristics such as age, gender, personality, motivation, self-concept, life experience, and cultural background, all of which influence the way they learn. They claim that individuals construct their own meaning from their own learning. However, these extraneous variables are not taken into account in this study since they do not constitute the main focus of this study.

An important limitation of this study is that only certain grammatical constructions such as phrases, clauses or embedded sentences are taken into consideration to be analyzed in writing, not all the grammatical constituents in English (see Appendix 16).

The students' previous writing experiences are not taken into account. On the basis of the interviews the researcher carried out with the participating students, information about their previous education was obtained. According to this, it is observed that writing courses in both their NL and FL in the previous education had generally been ignored, and they had mostly been involved in mechanical exercises as part of the syllabus. The purpose of giving these exercises is that they could become successful in the University Entrance Examination rather than gaining other skills like writing and speaking in their previous education.

The following section reviews the research findings related to the definition of sentence combining technique, the history of sentence combining, the influence of sentence combining on writing skills, the improvement of syntactic fluency and maturity through sentence combining technique, sentence combining technique in action, types in sentence combining technique, and steps in the sentence-combining technique.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

The virtues of sentence combining (SC) as an instructional technique in the field of composition have long been the focus of theoretical and pedagogical debate (Johnson, 1992, p. 61). "Especially, the period between the 1960s and the 1980s witnessed a lot of research on sentence combining exercises on writing ability" and the greater part of this kind of research has been conducted in the field of L1 compositions, involving learners of various age levels (Enginarlar, 1994, pp. 214-215).

The application of SC exercises in writing classes of non-native learners in L2 has also been done by researchers like Reesink in Dutch of American students, (1971); Monroe in French, (1973); Cooper, (1973) and Akin, (1975) in German (cited in Klassen, 1977); Abdan in English of Saudi students (1984), Taki El Din in English of Arab students (1987), Enginarlar in English of Turkish students (1994), and Kim in English of a Russian student (1996).

In this section, an attempt will be made to look into the definition of SC technique, the history of sentence combining, the influence of SC on writing skills, the improvement of syntactic fluency and maturity through SC technique, and finally the types and steps of this technique.

2.1 Definition of Sentence Combining Technique

> Sentence combining is the combining of "base" or "kernel" sentences into one longer compound or complex sentence. As a technique to help students with their writing, it has been of interest to teachers for many years. Researchers on writing... have found that sentence-combining exercises improve students' sentence structure, length of sentence and sentence variety. For ESL students, it is certainly a very good way of introducing new language structures without going into complicated explanations and employing specialized terminology.
>
> (Raimes, 1983, p. 107)

Kameen (1978), one of the prononents of SC, defines this technique as a set of exercises that enhances syntactic growth and brings about statistically significant improvement in students' overall writing quality, in terms of grammatical correctness, sentence variety, even organization and cohesion. Rose (1983), as a researcher, notes SC as a bridge between grammar and rhetoric, and grants the use of SC as an accelerator of syntactic maturity in her study. To many researchers, SC is a technique to put sentence clusters together in a variety of ways so that completed sentences possess greater syntactic maturity, characterized as developed and varied sentences (Frasher, 1995; and Phillips, 1996). Thus, it is believed that SC is a method offering much promise in the field of teaching writing a composition.

There have been similar definitions of SC, one of which is proposed by Enginarlar (1994) as "SC is a technique frequently used in grammar and composition instruction". By this definition, he believes that "this technique, basically, involves the materials developer breaking down selected complex sentences into sets of simple sentences, and also student combining and condensing each of the sets into one sentence" (p. 214).

In line with these researchers' ideas, Elder (1981), Laframboise (1989), Melvin (1983), and Savage (cited in Phillips, 1996) state that SC is "an instructional technique to provide students with practice in the manipulation of various sentence patterns". According to these researchers, kernel sentences that contain single concepts or relationships are combined or embedded to produce more complex sentences. In other words, SC is "one way of practicing how to revise students' prose" (Morenberg, Sommers, Daiker, & Kerek, 1999, p. 20). For them, revising involves an evaluation of the text, and it is the primary activity in rewriting. Thus, SC is considered as a powerful tool for students to compile structure and information by the use of the linguistic cues and connectives that signal the logical relationships of ideas—clear, overt, expressive, and demonstrative—to the reader (Nugent, 1983; and Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999). At this stage, as demonstrated by Hunt (cited in Yearwood, 1979), SC practice helps students write longer sentences, which can be an indicator for linguistic maturity.

When all these definitions are taken into consideration, the SC is seen as a teaching writing technique to foster the development of students' writing skills. In the application of SC, instruction plays a great role in helping students learn some ways to embed one sentence or idea into another to create longer and more complex sentences. This is achieved by demonstrating students a variety of syntactic patterns (Voss,

1981). Consequently, 'producing various language patterns actually raises the level of

syntactic fluency and increases the ability to comprehend various surface structures'

by stressing several different syntactical forms in usage (Stotsky cited in Laframboise,

1989, p. 4).

2.2 The History of Sentence Combining Technique

SC has been traced back to the ancient times both as a native language (NL) and a

foreign language (FL) developmental technique. Before the Middle Ages, for example,

'historians and philosophers drew the attention in prose style because they felt that poetry had

failed to communicate events and concepts accurately' (Kinneavy in Phillips, 1996, p. 5). In

that period, the sophists and scholars had developed "rhetorical prose, a more emotional and

subjective and ornamental kind of writing" to express their ideas and thoughts more clearly.

Scholars especially consulted Cicero's De Inventione, an issue rhetoric, and the Rhetorica ad

Herrenium, a figurist rhetoric, says Phillips (1996). During the Renaissance, rhetoricians

tented to bring up elaborating sentence structures of Ciceroan rhetoric and favoring a simpler

style of prose prescribed by the Royal Academy (Phillips, 1996, p. 5).

Many ancient rhetoricians such as Isocrates, Aristotle, Cicero valued the periodic

sentence as a long, sustained and syntactically complex structure. Phillips (1996) claims that

this periodic sentence resembles SC practice as a technique based on a single sentence to

which other sentences are syntactically embedded (Reutzel & Merrill, 1985). In other words,

a portion of one sentence becomes a part of another in an economical and artistic style so that

in the final form one complex sentence is formulated out of several short simple sentences.

During the eighteenth century, the writing of English gradually established itself and

writing instruction was governed by assumptions and methods drawn from the system of

rhetoric (Halloran, 1990, p. 155). In that period, students wrote compositions of various kinds by following the models of English prose in addition to learning the art of rhetoric. According to Halloran, the main point seemed to have fallen into imitation as a compositional exercise but he cautioned against devoting too much time to the imitation of only text. To many researchers, imitation attempt meant copying some model sentences to constitute new composition; thus, this attempt resembled the SC technique as well. However, Connor (2000) strongly emphasizes the importance of imitation exercises in making students' writing similar to that of a superior writer; hence, imitation promotes not of content, but of form (pp. 100-101). Consequently, the essential emphasis of the eighteenth-century invention was on *correctness of grammar* and *usage of the language*. This invention became current in the closing decades of the nineteenth century particularly in the views of many researchers, who supported on aesthetic grounds in the compositions.

As a result of following aesthetic grounds in compositions, an expected improvement in writing proficiency scores in the 1980s failed to materialize because composition teachers continued to emphasize grammar and structure at the expense of developing writing skills (Connor, 2000; and Walsh, 1991). Many teachers unfortunately adopted this process because it freed them to a certain extent of traditional grammar teaching, which was generally associated with instruction in composition. These teachers believed that the SC practice possibility could never show an improvement in students' writing skills (Morenberg, 1992). All of the writing attempts were on exercises and practice. Even though students were asked to create sentences, the focus was on structural patterns rather than productive ones.

In the following years, grammar received increasingly less attention in writing pedagogy. Much of the justification for this was that an overemphasis on grammar fostered a mechanical approach to teaching writing, encouraging artificial syntax and expression. The study of grammar in writing classes also gave students less time to improve their abilities to

focus, develop, and organize their essays. Nevertheless, there were also efforts to appropriate classical rhetoric for use in the same period (Halloran, 1990, p. 166).

Throughout the early years of the twentieth century, on the other hand, empirical research show that isolated, formal grammar instruction is detrimental to writing abilities and is less effective than other kinds of instruction. The focus is observed on inquiry/critical thinking, teaching of explicit criteria/ 'scales' for good writing, sentence combining, use of models, and free writing, all of which improve students' writing. In other words, sophisticated studies confirm the legitimacy of sentence combining as a means of developing writing skills. Additionally, the most influential point on writing is demonstrated as not only communicative but also 'state-of-the-art' by many researchers (Berlin, 1990; Janangelo, 1998; and Tarnopolsky, 2000). The art of writing represents the writer's ability to carefully recompose existing texts in thoughtful and persuasive ways. This art is also improved with the application of the SC technique as it also enhances the effective composition by means of pattern practice. In this exercise, students are given single sentences to use as patterns after which they design sentences of their own style and present it to the reader (Connor, 2000, p 101). This means that students can discover the values of writing discourse through their attempts to produce it. Specifically, when doing SC exercises, students could present their own ideas by introducing some systematic changes, and they could improve their skills by paying attention to the variety of choices they make for the simple clustered sentences. With the application of SC technique, writing might become *writing for fun* in a playful nature that brings creativity to students (Byrne, 1988). As a consequence of this attitude, writing might enhance students' pleasure in all types of writing, encouraging an enjoyment of composing regardless of its purpose' in both their native and second language (Berlin, 1990, p. 199).

2.2.1. Sentence Combining Technique in English as a Native Language

Active research involving native language development began in the 1930s with the contribution of pioneers such as LaBrant, Davis, and Bear (cited in Klasses, 1977). Since then, significant progress has been made in the development of language through sentence combining. One of the most important researchers who contributed extensively in this field was Kellogg Hunt whose study was on written grammatical structures, and he provided a method of procedure for the quantitative study of grammatical structures (Klassen, 1977). As a result, he developed a new index of language maturity by introducing his T-Unit (minimal terminable unit), which means one main clause plus any subordinate clause or non-clausal structure that is attached or embedded in it. To Hunt's claim, the T-Unit has been established as a valid means of measuring syntactic fluency through written grammatical structures (cited in Laframboise, 1989). Rousseau et al. (1994) gives an example of a T-unit as:

E.g. *After eating dinner, Gary rode his bike.*

"After eating dinner" is a dependent clause and "Gary rode his bike" is an independent clause. Together, they comprise one T-Unit (p. 20). The length of T-Units and the number and type of clauses within a T-unit appear to be the most significant features to include in scoring (see Appendix 8 for a sample of the T-Units). When students use several words in a T-Unit, or several words in any dependent or independent clause, this performance is considered as a syntactic fluency. Therefore, Hunt's T-Unit opened the door to the studies of written language, and since its establishment as a valid instrument, it has served as the starting point for many studies on writing in terms of syntactic features.

Larsen-Freeman and Strom (1977), in their study, also suggested two objective measures, "the average length of the T-Unit and the total number of error-free T-Units per

composition" might serve as an *index of development* (p. 123). They claimed that such an index would cover the full range of language acquisition, from the lowest to the highest.

As the consequence of this measurement, many research on writing for native speakers have indicated that SC exercises could improve the sentence structure, length of sentences, and sentence variety in the native language (Connor, 2000; Elder, 1981; and Raimes, 1983). Within these improvements, students possess innate linguistic competencies, which guide the correct use of their ability to speak, understand, and write sentences within the language. When learning how to write, students create new sentences using this inborn linguistic capacity related to their use of language.

2.2.2. Sentence-Combining Technique in English as a Foreign Language

Many studies are conducted on writing in EFL and ESL throughout the early years of the twentieth century because literacy education was based on the solid understanding of grammar. Yet as early as 1923, empirical data indicated that the link between knowledge of grammar and correct use of language was inadequate. Despite formidable evidence, some educators still advocated the use of grammar as a principal form of English language instruction. However, Chomsky's (1965) experiments in transformational grammar served as the stimulus for research in contemporary times, and challenged supporters of traditional grammar instruction by advancing an alternative explanation of language development (Phillips, 1996; and Walsh, 1991).

A review of the research on writing in a FL indicates that one of the classroom practices continuing to show positive results is the SC technique. The importance of this technique in a FL is emphasized as an effective way of introducing various language structures to give students an opportunity to formulate ideas and communicate them

meaningfully to a reader (Haynes, 1978; and Raimes, 1983). This technique is believed to provide practice with the syntactic structures in writing, and give students a chance to use grammatical knowledge within the choices of structure.

Regarding to the same issue, Laframboise (1989) and Voss (1981) claim that the SC technique resembles the cognitive processes in writing, providing students with a series of short sentences, and having them combine these sentences into more complex single sentence using whatever deletions, connections, or transformations are necessary. In other words, the SC technique helps learners to develop *a questioning* and *testing emphasis* and *transforming emphasis* that contribute richness and complexity to a composition (Allison, 1995, p. 3). Sledge (1983) supports Allison's view adding that SC accelerates the memory of function and develops the ability to synthesize, and it teaches readers that word groups must be treated as meaningful units to be manipulated successfully. As a result of using this technique, the researchers believe that there would be growth in both syntactic fluency and syntactic maturity. Syntactic fluency includes the number of words, sentences and length of text, whereas syntactic maturity refers to coherence that makes a text conform a complexity of structures in an essay (Enkvist, 1990; and Williams, 1984).

Concentrating on the classroom application of SC technique, Enginarlar (1994) points out that teachers should try this SC technique out before getting involved in free writing tasks in order to develop students' writing skill. He strongly suggests, "this technique contains skill-building and bridging activities that play a supporting role within the larger framework of a comprehensive writing curriculum" (p. 223). As a result of their classroom observations, Cumming and Riazi (1999) also add that there have been many conceptualizations as follows:

(a) texts written in second languages,

(b) students' writing processes and characteristics, and

(c) ways of evaluating second-language writing.

Supporting their findings, Lawlor (1983) and Raimes (1991) indicate that most second-language writing instruction follows certain traditions such as focusing on students' processes of composing, the rhetoric or grammar of their written products rather than focusing on the content and meaning. Nevertheless, when the SC model practice is included in a curriculum, it could accelerate the free writing tasks of students and the focus will be directed on the message more than on the form.

There are some researchers, on the other hand, who claim that the SC technique itself may not be capable of building the whole context and rhetorical competency; however, the theory may relate to the process of making, assessing, and revising transformational choices to the pragmatic and semantic aspects of writing (Clanchy & Ballard, 1992; Johnson, 1992; Olson, 1981; Devine, 1993; and Winterowd, 1970). These researchers argue that the theory shows a transformational choice in writing—or any linguistic choice, and it is neither motivated by context and meaning, nor it does motivate thinking about context and meaning. Thus, the theory explains why sentence-level research and pedagogy based solely on texts is inadequate.

Pointing out this crucial issue, there are no materials presenting a systematic, all-inclusive SC technique design to provide intermediate and advanced ESL students with a wide range of syntactic and stylistic options at their writing process even though various research reveal and confirm that the SC exercises greatly increase the writing quality. Therefore, this technique would be questionable or difficult to understand. Zamel (1985) claims this difficulty for nonnative students results from combining a group of clustered sentences if they have no background about the writing skill in L2 and/or FL. In other words, when students have limited linguistic ability, the SC practice cannot help them improve the writing skills. To Rousseau (1994), if reinforcement alone would help students write coherent

compositions, there is no need for SC technique. Consequently, it is not clear yet how this technique affects the thought processes of students, nor is it clear if the increases in syntactic maturity will be maintained over a long period, and then there remain some questions on the effect of the SC technique as follows:

- What is this technique?

- How does it improve students' writing skills?

- Is this technique beneficial in teaching writing EFL or not?

- What benefits can the teachers get from SC in a writing program (Strong (1994, p. 7)?

No matter how many questions remain unanswered as above, when these questions are taken into account, the goal of combining is clearly seen so as not simply to make long sentences; on the contrary, the goal is to make understandable but complex sentences and to choose the best sentence for the situation at any level. Since the SC exercises are usually ranged from easy to difficult, concerning the structures taught throughout the syllabus, the instructions about combining the sentences can be given in well-articulated programs by the teachers according to the levels of the students (Strong, 1994).

As suggested by the research in this field, SC is an instructional tool with great potential for the teaching writing to students who are more aware of an audience and of the need of communicating their ideas clearly to that audience (Baljevic, 1978). Therefore, by the use of the SC technique, students tend to acquire a kind of skill to develop both their syntactic fluency and syntactic maturity. The former is considered as indices of production including the number of words and length of sentences, and the latter is an effective maintenance to ensure communication between writer and reader in a composition (Gajar, 1989; and Reid, 1996). Thus, due to the provision of such an experience, the SC technique when used at the initial stage will be beneficial to guide students in writing free compositions at the final stage of their development.

As a result of experiences obtained by the SC technique to write free composition,

better concepts of sentence length, clause length, and T-units in EFL are developed.

Therefore, students who are asked to combine sentences start giving their content in their

style. Thus, their final decision in writing composition is not one of *what* to say but of *how* to

say their content in a freedom of choosing which structure to use.

2.3 Influence of Sentence Combining Technique on Development of Writing Skills

> As teachers and as former students who had to learn to
> write, we all realize that an important part of learning to
> write is developing a style--learning to make conscious
> and effective decisions about syntax and arrangement. In
> freshman writing courses, style is now taught in a number
> of ways one of which is the use of linguistic models like
> sentence--combining. Similarly, in advanced writing
> courses, instructors rely heavily on professional prose
> models..... usually done by students in the class.
> (Spigelmire, 1980, p. 1)

Writing is a process of "exploring one's thoughts and learning from the act of writing

itself what these thoughts are" (Zamel cited in Boughey, 1997). Zamel verifies this theory by

stating that this process also succeeds in giving thoughts a permanence, and the act of writing

allows students to reconsider, clarify and revise those thoughts. The process of organizing

and ordering these thoughts means that the writer has to examine and manipulate those

thoughts thoroughly, which are the principles of the SC technique and critical thinking.

Zamel's main point supports other researchers' claim (e.g. Enginarlar, 1994; Gajar, 1989; Johnson, 1992; Kameen, 1978; Klassen, 1977; and Ramanathan & Kaplan, 1996) that writing skills can be systematically accelerated through the use of SC technique because it consists of building syntactic maturity in students' composition, which is characterized by a great number and variety of transformations such as embeddings of modifiers, phrases and dependent clauses into an independent clause (Hunt, 1970). These researchers also agree on the benefits of the SC exercises and state that writing quality gained through SC may enhance the syntactic maturity of students. They argue that in the involvement of this practice, students might understand the structure of modeling paragraphs better, and they become aware of the conscious manipulation of language patterns and syntactic fluency within an essay. As a result, their creativity is fostered as they explore their inner capacities (Edwards, 2002; and Williams, 1984).

The underlying notion of SC is that students may develop their ability to build longer, more meaningful and complex sentences with the clustered sentences in both their native and foreign language (Pelton, 1983). Therefore, the SC technique for teaching writing should be emphasized for revision and editing to write effective compositions. Johnson (1992) and Wilkinson (1993), for instance, claim that SC exercises act as "language enriching puzzles that focus L2 writers' attention on aspects of cohesion that influence structural and stylistic variation in English" (Wilkinson & Del, 1993, p. 63).

Some SC researchers such as Mellon, Safran and Strong (cited in Phillips, 1996) have attributed SC research to the work of Noam Chomsky and also acknowledged his contribution that sentence combining derives from Chomsky's (1965) theory. According to his theory, "the basis of grammar is the irreducible sentence (the kernel) and the structure of grammar is the syntactic operations 'the transformations' we perform on the clusters to form new sentences! (Phillips, 1996, p. 6). Phillips claims that Chomsky's work on transformational

grammar paved the way to use of SC and other approaches in the teaching of writing. In other words, Chomsky revolutionized grammatical theory with his book *Syntactic Structures,* that the theoretical base was established on modern sentence-combining pedagogies (Connor, 2000; and Walsh, 1991).

When taken into consideration, the theory of SC is proposed to be an argument that focuses on the existence of an internal reader (or 'monitor') within the writer to assess and change the short sentences, by pondering on relations between the structure and the meaning to be conveyed (Harris, 1990; Harris in Ramanathan & Kaplan, 1996; Kleine, 1983; and Ramanathan-Abbott, 1993). Thus, the growth of form and structure in the writing process is seen to transform the writer's 'interior text', which is located in the mind of the writer as a natural part of the writing process (Kleine, 1983, p. 23). Briefly, this theory emphasizes the process of writing not only as a form of communication with an audience, but also as a process of cognitive change, an outcome of this one sided communication.

Instead of *internal reader* or *interior text,* in line with Kleine and others, Strong (1990) uses another term 'inner game' for intention and strategy, and an 'outer game' for actual performance since he believes that any linguistic act is simultaneously two games. According to his formulation, all language events are intentional, purposeful, and social—a way of constructing the word and communicating it. He also claims that increased attention towards the inner game can result in better outer game performance. Hence, if writing is thinking, any kind of transformation is seen to occur as a natural part of the writing process, more planning may lead to better writing (Harris, 1990). Eventually, students are involved in writing without conscious effort or awareness since SC technique engages students in the interplay of intentions and strategy with 'sentence-level decisions' (Strong, 1990). As the result of getting involved in this technique, not only do students have to *discover* what they want to say, but

they also have to say it in a form that meets the discourse expectations of the reader (Ramanathan-Abbott, 1993).

Consequently, many of the research on the writing process examine the overall writing process from beginning to end because writing is a 'recursive process' (Polio & Glew, 1996). According to Polio and Glew, during the writing process, writers think of new ideas and rework what they have written. Similarly, during a writing effort, when students face sentence clusters, they choose the appropriate choice before continuing their composition. As Flower (1985), Raimes (1983) and Willing (1985) emphasize, SC provides plenty of practice related to the syntactic structures for students in writing, giving them the chance of using the grammatical knowledge to make choices about the structure.

In line with the view of these researchers, Biggs (1988), Hillocks and Smith (1991), and Woodworth (1983) believe that systematic practice in combining and expanding sentences can increase students' repertoire of syntactic structures, and can also improve the quality of their sentences when stylistic effects are discussed as well. According to Schuster (1981), the combining of sentences is one revision strategy that students both ought to know how to do and also how to consider as an option each time they revise. He claims, even more than that, practicing SC as one part of revising opens a path for more fruitful composition on papers.

2.3.1. Improvement of Syntactic Fluency Through Sentence Combining

Syntactic fluency is defined as a means to facilitate the process of translating one's thoughts into written words (Gajar, 1989). Gajar exposes syntax as the inclusive rules of language, grammar, capitalization, punctuation, usage, spelling, and paragraphing, which are called conventions; and these are the most influential items

used in a composition. In other words, the writer demonstrates a good grasp of standard writing conventions and uses them effectively to enhance readability. Errors tend to be so few and so minor that the reader can easily overlook them. As a result, during writing process, students are aware of the followings:

- Paragraphing tends to be sound and to reinforce the organizational structure.

- Grammar and usage are correct and contribute to clarity and style.

- Punctuation is accurate and guides the reader through the text.

- Spelling is generally correct, even on more difficult words.

- The writer may manipulate conventions--especially grammar and spelling--for stylistic effect.

- The writing is sufficiently long and complex to allow the writer to show skill in using a wide range of conventions.

http://www.nwrel.org/eval/toolkit98/traits/#Sentence

When students are given sentences to construct and combine using the SC technique, they explore and develop new language patterns; therefore, they can transfer their ideas fluently. The SC exercises help students to see how each single sentence relates to and builds upon one another; as a result, the students become more proficient at writing down words, sentences, and paragraphs into compositions by gradually increasing sentence length as well as structure.

In order to constitute an effective composition, words are primarily important because they convey the intended message in a precise, interesting, and natural way.

Within a right choice, it is easy to understand just what the writer means. *Specific* and *accurate,* words energize the writing and create pictures in the reader's mind; and *Striking words and phrases* often catch the reader's eye--and linger in the reader's mind (Booth and Gregory, 1987). Booth and Gregory (1987) disclose the importance of the words in a context as follows:

> If writers picked the words that embody their ambitions and insights at random, they could never achieve concentrated focused effects. Not all words nor just any words will do: The words we wick must be the *best* ones. (p. 219)

Many researchers believe that picking the best words allows for rich choices in a context and helps for the fluency of the text as well. Worthy and Broaddus (2002) also emphasize the importance of fluency and state that students with fluency develop automatic word identification; hence, there is a gradual transition from word-by-word writing to writing in meaningful phrases. This writing skill is supported by the combination of phrases into clauses and sentences forming a paragraph through the use of SC technique as a helpful effect for constituting paragraphs of composition (Nash, 1980; and Strong, 1994). As a result of using SC technique, easy flow and rhythm are observed clearly in students' writing because sentences are well built, with strong and varied words that invite expressive reading. Consequently, by the help of word choice, students realize the importance of the fluency, and improve their writing skills with well-built sentences in a text.

In general, a sentence is any structured unit, which hangs together to form a text. As an act of creation, a sentence is an intricate, ingenious, endlessly variable thing, adapted to rules and conditions of discourse, which go beyond the limits of the sentence itself (Nash & Stacey, 1997, p. 83). All grammatical units in well-built sentence--words, and clauses are means of expressing texture (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). According to Phelps (1987), sentences are constructed in a way that helps make meaning clear as follows:

- The writing has *cadence*, as if the writer has thought about the sound of the words as well as the meaning.

- The order, structure, or presentation of information is *compelling* and moves the reader through the text.

- Details seem to fit where they're placed; *sequencing is logical* and *effective*.

- Organization *flows so smoothly* the reader hardly thinks about it.

(http://www.nwrel.org/eval/toolkit98/traits/#Sentence)

When students are familiar with the items given above, their writing skills improve. With this progressive improvement, they feel that the forms of sentences are boundless, and there are no limitations on creative possibility in their writing. They are also aware of the fact that sentences can be typified in accordance with their function in a text (Nash & Stacey, 1997). Through working with sentences, they get familiar with not only the form such as grammar, organization, and mechanics but also with function, which is beyond the sentence level in a composition (Paulston & Bruder, 1976; and Phelps, 1987).

As a consequence of the application of the SC technique, they start using longer T-Units, lengthened by SC transformation in their writing (Gajar, 1989). Therefore, they employ their various sentence types; short, long, simple, or multiple sentences in their compositions.

During writing process, it is usually easy to write short sentences, but it becomes difficult when the task is to formulate these sentences with a sensitivity in a composition. One difficulty results from that short sentences expose a theme boldly and mercilessly; as a result, it may be less convincing for the readers since qualifications cannot be conveniently recessed as in the subordinations of more sophisticated text (Nash, 1980). Another difficulty is that a textual sequence of short sentences with one or two clauses leaves small room for variations of tempo that give a suppleness to a composition (p. 96). However, the example given below shows how short sentences make the text move stiffly:

The garden party was a success. The sun blazed on a green campus. Champagne came and went. Strawberries disappeared down a hundred throats. Gowns fluttered. Girls giggled. A porter fell into the chocolate mousse. Gaiety reigned supreme.

(Nash, 1980, p. 11)

As indicated, the sequence of sentences seems to be the recurrence of identical sentence structures. All these short sentences are subject-headed, and the theme is flatly exposed to the eye of the reader. Furthermore, the tempo of the text is not a flowing discursive line.

When simple sentences are considered in a text, they consist of an independent clause that does not have another clause functioning as one of its elements. It is considered as the most central part of grammar (Quirk et al., 1985). The example given below shows simple sentences:

> Once there was a man. He was old. He lived alone. He became lonely. Someone gave a hen to him. She became his companion. Each morning the hen laid an egg. The man fried the egg. He ate it for breakfast. He liked the eggs. He wanted more eggs. He decided something. He would try an experiment. Perhaps he could get more eggs. He would feed the hen more grain. Perhaps she would lay more eggs. He could eat two eggs each day. He doubled the feed. The hen became fat. She became lazy. She laid no eggs at all. The mane was disappointed. He became angry. He killed the hen. He was lonely again. He was also hungry. He had no companion. He had no eggs.

> (Hunt & O'Donnell cited in Laframboise, 1989, p. 174)

As illustrated in the above example, simple sentences often contain several basic concepts. When left in the form of simple sentences, they would lead to tedious and choppy writing. In order to appeal the reader, sentence length can be more informative for him to catch the text.

Long sentences, on the other hand, store more information because they contain a large number of words. According to Nash (1980), long sentences could prove to be more appropriate as the words are presented in segments that are easily assimilated in the structure.

Within this structure, these segments eliminate confusion and give signal to the reader to move forward as in the example given below (Nash, 1980, p. 113):

Robin Hood's popularity among the common people, his ability to slip away quietly into Sherwood, his pursuers' ignorance of the terrain, their failure to adapt to the conditions of querrilla warfare-all these considerations persuaded the sheriff to take no immediate action.

In order to put short sentences into long sentences as illustrated in the given example, students should be introduced the SC technique. When applied this technique, students start using more words by making long and complicated sentences more easily as follows:

Examples:
1. Thomas raked the leaves.
   His brother raked leaves, too.
   They also weeded the garden.

Suggested combination:

Thomas and his brother raked the leaves and weeded the garden.

2. Julie is wearing a necklace.
   The necklace was a birthday gift.
   The gift was from Rachel.

Suggested combination:

Julie is wearing a necklace that was a birthday gift from Rachel.

(Laframboise, 1989, p. 177-178)

As illustrated in the above examples, a long sentence may evoke a scene, a sensation, or a state of mind by constructing an aesthetic relationship between subject-matter and sentence-length, which is the index of syntactic fluency. In order to make the text more attractive for readers, some of these sentences can be combined in a multiple sentence, which contains one or more clauses as its immediate constituents.

Multiple sentences, on the other hand, are either *compound* or *complex* sentences. A compound sentence consists of two or more coordinated main clauses. In other words, it has at least two units of thought within the sentence, each of which can stand by itself as its own sentence. The clauses of a compound sentence are either separated by a semicolon or connected by a coordinating conjunction, which is the simplest technique for combining ideas.

In a complex sentence, however, one or more of its elements, such as direct object or adverbial, are realized by a subordinate clause (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 719). One clause is subordinated to another establishing a more complex relationship between ideas, showing that one idea depends on another in some way (e.g., a chronological development, a cause-and-effect relationship, and a conditional relationship, etc).

The following figure shows the example of a complex sentence with one subordinate clause:
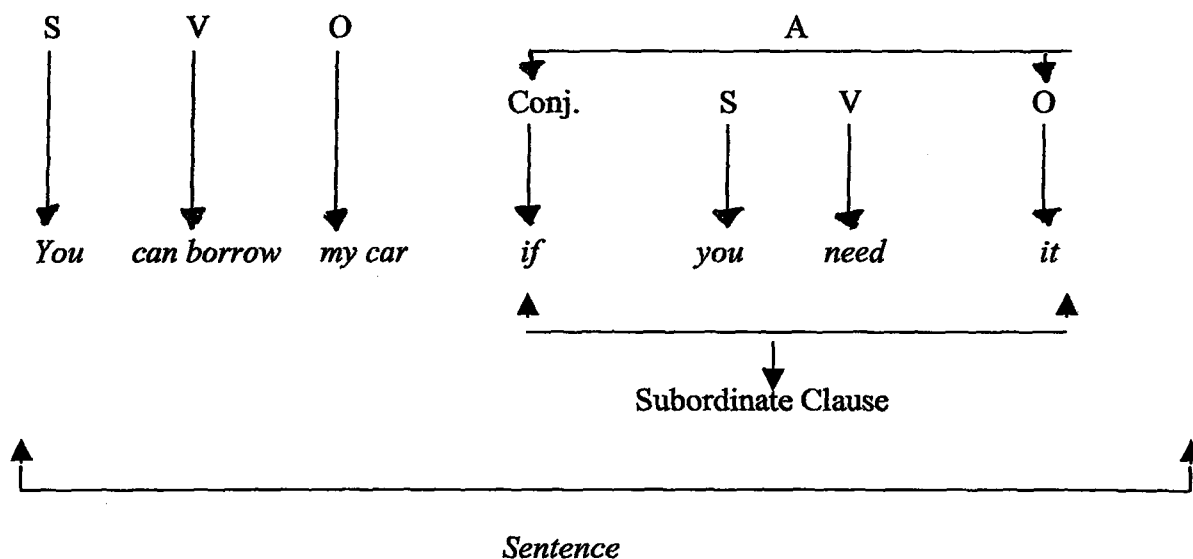
Figure 2.1 Sentence and clause elements

As illustrated in the Figure 2.1, simple sentences can be combined to make more meaningful and complex sentences. This can be achieved by the writing activities related to the SC technique. As a result of this attempt, the texts look more mature and involve readers more in the context. Through this technique, students can be aware of combining simple sentences, depending on the meaning to be conveyed. Accordingly, they try to combine the groups of simple sentences into various complex sentences as follows:

Short and Simple Sentences
- A fax can be more expensive.
- The message is very long.
- It is one of the quickest forms of communication.
- The communication is written.

Various Forms of the Long and Multiple Sentences

- Although a fax is one of the quickest form of written communication, it can be expensive to send if the message is very long. (not so much in favor)

- A fax can be expensive to send if the message is very long but it is one of the quickest forms of written communication. (in favor)

- A fax, which is one of the quickest forms of written communication, can be expensive when the message is very long. (much in favor)

As seen in the example, the theory emphasizes the process of writing not only as a form of communication between the writer and the reader, but also the process of cognitive change as an outcome of this one sided communication (Gajar, 1989). Consequently, the SC technique used at the initial stage will be beneficial to lead students to form paragraphs, which constitute the composition.

Paragraph is 'a group of sentences forming a complete unit of thought' (Lanckstrom, Selinker & Trimble cited in Simpson, 2000, p. 297). In other words, it is a piece of text standing complete in a defined space, answering to the notion in its context. The concept of a paragraph is considered as *aesthetic, stylistic,* and *text-functional.* The aesthetic of the paragraph is its appearance on the page, or its 'visual impact'. This means how to put things into words. The stylistic of the paragraph is in its internal pattern of connections and transitions from sentence to sentence, and in its management of variations in sentence-length and sentence-type. The functional value of the paragraph is 'its role as a frame for a certain content, as a phase in an argument, an account of a step in a procedure' (Nash & Stacey, 1997, p. 41).

In the growth of paragraphs, as claimed by Nash and Stacey (1997), students resort to certain rhetorical patterns by putting sentences together, analyzing them in order to put

appropriate places in a sentence, and making connections to present a content in an organization in their writing. At this stage, the importance of working with sentence patterns cannot be overemphasized. Through this stage, students can see how these patterns function to form a unified paragraph. In order to help students see the organization of a paragraph, Paulston and Bruder (1976) give the four basic steps as follows:

- Presentation of the model and the rule, i.e., a linguistic explanation,

- Analyzing the model in linguistic terms,

- Doing more exercises based on the model, and

- Writing paragraphs and/or composition based on the model.

At the level of free composition, the major emphasis is on the organization of the sentences within the paragraph as well as the organization of paragraphs within essay. Therefore, students should learn the principles regarding the organization and the development of ideas. However, in order to achieve this goal, they need to acquire language skills: first at the sentence level: the order, structure or presentation of information through the application of SC exercises, and then at the paragraph level: function of sentences to form unity among the sentences constituting the all text in order to compel for the reader while reading the text.

2.3.2.   Improvement of Syntactic Maturity Through Sentence Combining

Syntactic maturity is characterized by a great number and variety of transformations such as embeddings of modifiers, phrases, and dependent clauses into an independent clause (Barnitz, 1998; and Hunt, 1970). It is the ability to produce writing that uses subordination and embedded subordinate clauses (Sotillo, 2000). In other words, syntactic maturity is

characterized by adjectives, adverbs, phrases, and appositives (Enkvist, 1990; and Gajar, 1989). These exercises reinforce many aspects of grammar, and they help develop a sense of coordination and subordination that are necessary to develop syntactic maturity.

In line with Enkvist's idea, Halliday and Hasan (1989) also emphasize the importance of coherence included in the main functional components in the linguistic system, and they classify these components in three categories as *ideational, interpersonal,* and *textual.* By ideational, they put the components into experiential and logical parts. They are expressed through the grammar, and can be categorized under five headings: clauses (transitivity), verbal group, nominal group, adverbial group, paratactic and hypotactic relations. It is assumed that when students are aware of these components, the quality of their written work will increase since they get familiar with using types of clauses in their writing. The rationale behind this assumption is that experiential and logical components help students see their function as linkage between the elements that are constitutive of a text. By the term of interpersonal, they emphasize the style of students in free writing such as mood, modality, attitude, and comment. Within this component, it is emphasized how individual differences are transferred into composition. By the textual component, Halliday and Hasan (1989) underline the importance of it as the text-forming component in the linguistic system for creating text. It is cohering within itself and the context because they believe that cohesion is closely related to information structure, and without it, the remainder of the semantic system cannot be effectively activated (p. 29).

Halliday and Hasan (1989) also emphasize the importance of the cohesion within a text defining it as "a set of linguistic resources in any language as a part of the textual metafunction or linking one part of a text to another" (p. 48). They categorize it as *text, texture, ties,* and *cohesion.* To them, *text* refers to any passage of various lengths that forms a unified whole as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning. *Texture* refers to function

as a unity with respect to its environment. The following example indicates how *texture*

contributes to the total unity in the text:

E.g. *Wash and core <u>six cooking apples</u>. Put <u>them</u> into a fireproof dish.*

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 2)

As seen in the example, the cohesive relation between *them* and *six* cooking apples provides

the texture. Halliday and Hasan (1976) explain the *ties* as a single instance of cohesion as the

relation between *them* and *six cooking apples* in the example. Lastly, they explain the

cohesion as a semantic link that refers to the semantic relations of lexical and syntactic item

within the text. They strongly emphasize that it is not a structural relation even though the

structure is a unifying relation. According to them, since cohesive relations are not concerned

with structure, they may be found within a sentence as well as between sentences. In other

words, cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other

elements to the interpretation of it. Consequently, cohesion, *a general text-forming relation*,

is unrestricted by sentence boundaries, and its most normal form (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.

9). In other words, cohesion does not concern what a text means; it is the term for overt links

on the textual surface concerning how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice with

transformations, coordinations, and subordinations in order to catch the rhythm in the text

(Enkvist, 1990; Janangelo, 1998; Witte & Faigley, 1981).

Another important factor that makes the written text rich is coordination and

subordination. Coordination is joining two equally important base sentences together;

whereas, subordination is combining two or more base sentences to emphasize a dependence

of one upon the other (Reutzel & Merrill, 1985). Both of them play an important role in

writing composition in a mature way. The following two examples show the difference

between coordination and subordination:

1. . He has quarreled with the chairman *and* has resigned.

2. *Since* he quarreled with the chairman, he has resigned.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 919)

The cause-result relationship between the two events is expressed by a coordinator in (1), and by a subordinator in (2). The combining requires joining the basic sentences in compound subjects and predicates. A compound sentence consists of two or more coordinated main clauses in an equivalent function as given in Figure 2.2:
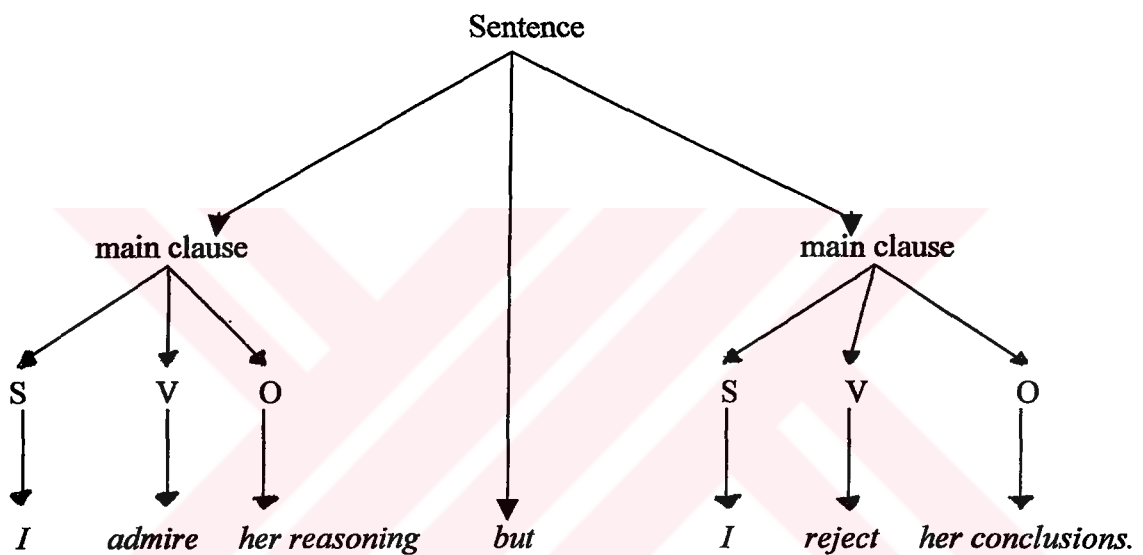
Figure 2.2 Compound sentence: coordination

Figure 2.2 indicates an uncomplicated example involving just two independent clauses. When a sentence is combined with another sentence, they each become main clauses. In other words, a compound sentence is made up of two or more main clauses joined as equals, as in "*Mary drove to work*, and *she had an accident*". Both "Mary drove to work" and "She had an accident" are simple sentences serving in the larger compound sentence as main clauses. Main clauses may be joined by conjunctions, such as *and, but, because, if*, and so on. This process is called *conjoining* or coordinating. This usage is also another way for students to produce longer sentences. The SC technique helps students use a variety of choices to

combine sentences to make more mature sentences. However, sometimes students reduce one simple sentence to a phrase or clause before embedding it in another sentences rather than combine two independent sentences by a coordinator. As a result, a clause may enter into more than one relationship becoming subordinate clauses. In other words, subordination is an asymmetrical relation: the sentence and its subordinate clauses are in a hypotactic relationship as diagrammed in Figure 2.3:
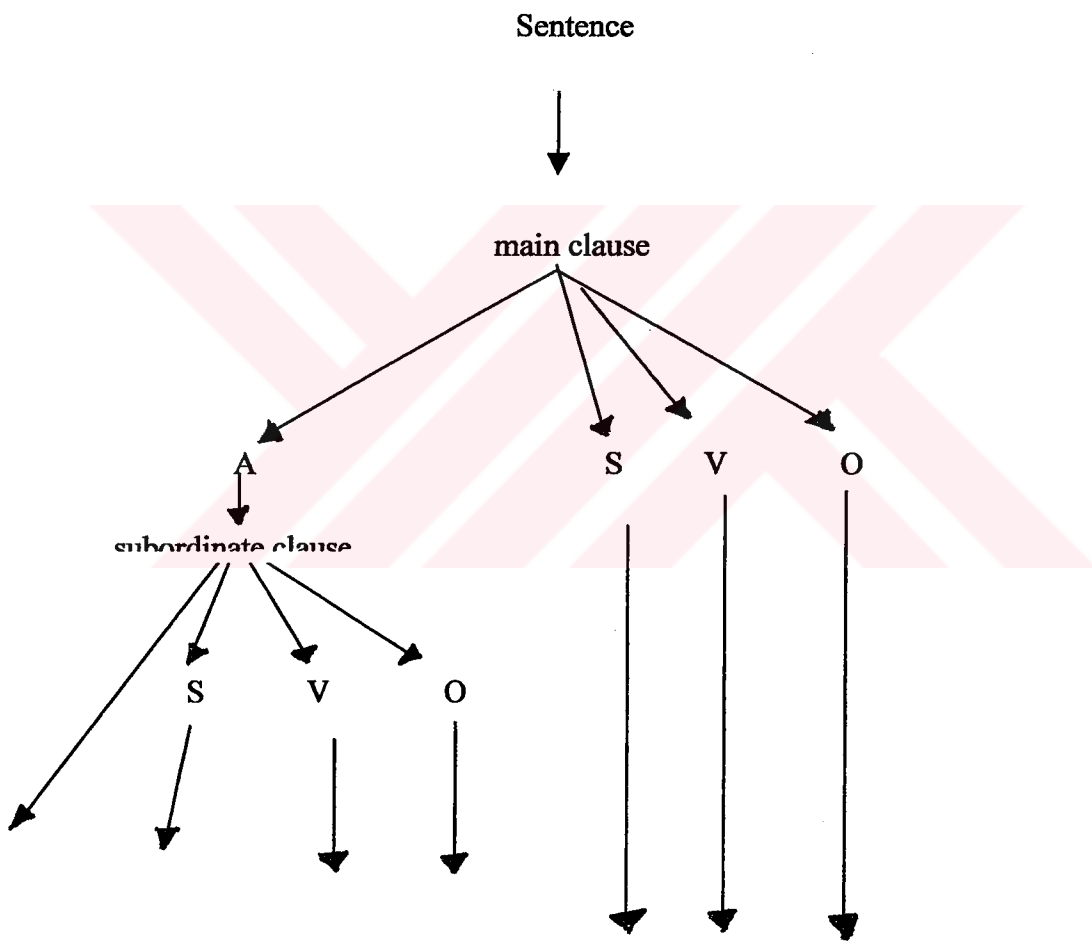
Although   I   admire   her reasoning,   I   reject   her conclusions.

Figure 2.3 Complex sentence: subordination

Figure 2.3 indicates that subordination includes more than one clause; therefore, they are also called *dependent, embedded, included, constituent,* and *syntactically bound*

clauses (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 988). Clauses, which cannot stand-alone even though they contain a subject and a predicate, are called subordinate clauses, and as seen in the Figure 2.3, they function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs in support of the main clause (Owens, 1992, p. 337). In general, subordinate clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunctions such as *after, although, before, until, while,* and *when,* or by relative pronouns, such as *who, which,* and *that* (pp. 336-337).

As illustrated in Figure 2.2 and Figure 2.3, students use multiple syntactic structure when introduced to the SC technique to produce longer and more complex sentences. Therefore, this technique provides students with various linguistic patterns such as transitions for the expression of ideas in their free writing.

Transitions are sometimes neglected in writing instruction because they do not make text *correct* or *incorrect.* However, they make a difference between mediocre and exceptional writing. Transitions help to produce the smooth, sophisticated text. In other words, they establish relationships between sentences and paragraphs, providing coherence and unity to the text.

Transitions can aid in the text's *flow* from one idea to another. They clarify the paragraph by establishing order and constituting the relationships among the sentences. SC exercises are helpful to teach students these relationships through transitions. Such exercises also reinforce many aspects of grammar, and they help develop a sense of coordination and subordination that are necessary for developing syntactic maturity. The following is the example of the paragraph, which lacks transitions:

> Burkert uses pen, brush, and colored inks to express her attunement
>
> with natural rhythms in a realistic style. She illustrated *Snow White*
>
> *and the Seven Dwarfs,* a book-length version of the traditional
>
> folktale. Burkert visited Germany's Black Forest and read books

about the Middle Ages. Burkert's Snow White walks through a

mysterious forest. The dwarf's house is historically authentic in

every detail. These illustrations create a setting and mood in which

magic spells and poisoned apples do not seem out of place.

This paragraph can be considered *correct* in the sense that there are no grammatical

errors. However, transitions provide a smooth *flow* from one idea to the other in the

paragraph as follows:

Burkert uses pen, brush, and colored inks to express her attunement

with natural rhythms in a realistic style. <u>Before illustrating</u> *Snow*

White and the Seven Dwarfs, a book-length version of the

traditional folktale, Burkert visited Germany's Black Forest and

read books about the Middle Ages. <u>Consequently</u>, Burkert's Snow

White walks through a mysterious forest. <u>Likewise</u>, the dwarf's

house is historically authentic in every detail. <u>Realistic as these</u>

<u>illustrations are</u>, they also create a setting and mood in which magic

spells and poisoned apples do not seem out of place.

<div align="center">http://www.valdosta.edu/vsu/dept/cas/eng/WebMan.htm</div>

The underlined transitions clarify the paragraph by establishing order of relationships

among the sentences. SC exercises are helpful in making learners aware of the importance of

transitions in reinforcing many aspects of grammar, and developing a sense of coordination

and subordination, necessary for syntactic maturity. Therefore, students who practice SC

technique on a regular basis write more syntactically mature texts. Many researchers believe

that the use of longer and more complex sentences is one characteristic of the competent

writer (Cartwright, 1964; Christensen, 1963; Gajar, 1989; Hunt, 1970; Klassen, 1977; and Melvin, 1983). Hence, if teachers want students to write more maturely, then increasing syntactic maturity will seem to be a worthwhile goal. "Syntactic maturity is important for the flow of information from the writer to the reader so that the reader acquaints himself with one section before he can properly understand the next" (Nash, 1980, p. 6). Therefore, if one goal of a writing program is syntactic maturity, then the SC technique might be the best approach.

Consequently, there are many clear benefits to using the SC technique. As stated by McCann (1984), SC exercises help students build a repertoire of ways to subordinate ideas. Moreover, students' syntactic abilities develop in a structured fashion. By using the SC technique, students will explore methods of combining ideas that they never thought of using before (e.g., appositives, absolute and prepositional phrases etc.) by constructing mature sentences. It is obvious that students form sentences easily upon given some principles of organization and development of ideas in writing; therefore, they might have no difficulty in combining more complicated and less controlled exercises whatever type is used.

2.4 Types in Sentence Combining Technique

Students' attempt at writing composition begins with single words, continues with word groups and sentences (Clay, 1993). At the initial stages, they often produce sentences that follow subject-verb (S-V) or subject-verb-object (S-V-O) pattern. However, at the advanced stages, students transform the sentence patterns and combine short S-V and S-V-O sentences into longer, more complex sentences, showing a considerable improvement. In other words, when the SC exercises are done through the stages, it plays a supporting role because the purpose of these exercises is to encourage students to write in a wide range of options in meaningful statements.

Therefore, the types of sentences used in the SC technique have gained importance to express thoughts in a foreign language.

Kameen (cited in Enginarlar, 1994) classifies and exemplifies the types of SC exercises to promote their use. According to this classification, there are three levels of quality, each of which concerns a less-controlled level within *mechanical, meaningful,* and *communicative exercises.* Kameen (1978) states that this classification also reflects an expansion on Strong's (1976) suggestion for the use of a combination of signaled and *unsignaled* SC exercises. This is done by decreasing signals and controls and by increasing the number of correct solutions at each stage (p. 396). These three types of exercises— *mechanical, meaningful,* and *communicative SC exercises*— start initially from the highly controlled mechanical exercises to the less-controlled or free-controlled communicative exercises from the beginning toward the last stage of writing compositions.

2.4.1 Mechanical SC Exercises

Mechanical SC exercises are the most highly controlled and least difficult exercises for students since they usually have only one correct solution. According to many researchers (e.g., Mellon & O'Hare, cited in Laframboise, 1989; Morenberg et al., 1999; and Strong, 1994), the mechanical exercises refer to a set of simple sentences to be combined into fewer sentences by means of embedding in clauses, phrases, or single words. Controlled writing tasks give students an opportunity to produce almost error-free writing and also to focus their attention on grammatical and syntactic feature because they provide only reinforcement and not a total writing program (Raimes, 1983). At the initial stages, the exercises can be very easy to help the students develop the level of self-confidence to compose freely because these easy sentences include some type of information how to combine sentences. This may be as simple as a word cue that is to be inserted, such as *and* or *if.* Otherwise, it may be a directive

such as, "Combine the following so that the new sentence contains an adverb clause" (see Appendix 5 for the example). The central feature of mechanical SC exercises is that only one specific sentence should be produced. In effect, these exercises can be very efficient to increase syntactic maturity or to teach students how to create a particular construction themselves. As soon as students develop their own sentence writing construction instead of following a pattern, they are ready to write a sequence of sentences, which comprises free writing. These outcomes are also supported by the studies of Hayes (1984), Lee (1998), Lewis (1996), and Spilton (1986). These researchers found students' grammatical fluency (run-ons, fragments, verb inflection errors) increased at significant level as this linguistic model helped students start writing better and more accurate sentences.

2.4.2 Meaningful SC Exercises

The meaningful SC exercises are considered to be less controlled with a few correct solutions instead of one. These less controlled exercises encourage students to insert and delete items according to their choice and use them in a wider range of structural and stylistic variants at reaching the solution. While combining sentences, students work more slowly like the pieces of a jigsaw puzzle in order to find the stylistic form of the sentences themselves. Raimes (1983) claims that through less controlled exercises, students learn not only how sentences are formed but also how paragraphs and longer pieces are constructed (See Appendix 6 for the example). This notion is also supported by Abdan (1984), Brewer (1985), and Whitt (1987). They have confirmed that SC is a useful technique in reducing the excessive use of coordination; hence, students have used longer T-units and high apprehensive in their compositions.

2.4.3   Communicative SC Exercises

The communicative SC exercises are characterized by the least controlled with a wide

range of correct solutions and they refer to groups of simple sentences to be embedded

without signals (Laframboise, 1989). Thus, this encourages students to explore structural and

stylistic variants, to arrange the given sentences as they choose, and to select whatever they

feel is the most effective expression. Students are given the sentences, and they may combine

them in the way they prefer. Since there is no best answer to these exercises, students should

be encouraged to present their different solutions (Strong, 1973). The outcomes, of course,

will vary since there is no single expected version as *right* or *wrong* but having different

versions. According to some researchers (e.g. Booth & Gregory, 1987; Nash, 1980; and

Raimes, 1983), the SC technique allows students to perceive the choices to meet the reader's

needs and to make meaning firmly in mind. These researchers also explain that this is a kind

of organizing the thoughts in writing as a process. It is a process of moving back and forth

from general statements to specific details to find appropriate and relevant details in order to

arrange them in the most effective order (see Appendix 7 for the relevant example). Briefly,

as supported by the studies of Pendleton (1986) and Taki El Din (1987), sentence combining

provides writers with a set of linguistic structures, which allow that conceptual framework to

be embedded in sentences and paragraphs.

Consequently, mechanical, meaningful, and communicative SC exercises allow

students to form an effective essay and give them a broad horizon to write their own

composition fluently (Kameen, 1978, p. 397-399). Moreover, students will overcome the

blank-page syndrome, from which they often suffer, and become less reluctant to express

themselves in writing in a FL. Even though the first two seem to be mechanical like parrot

repeating exercises as they are cued ones, the last one provides an opportunity to think deeply

to formulate or combine the embedded sentences. According to some researchers, these three

types of SC exercises—from the controlled stage to the free writing— help the students to be involved in a significant improvement in writing process easily since they ranged from easy to difficult and could be applied at any academic level (Alison, 1995; Kameen 1978; Laframboise, 1989; Lawler, 1983; and Strong, 1994). Hence, through the SC technique, students write sentences down, read them over, search for more detailed sentences discovering how they can organize their thoughts in a more meaningful way.

No matter what type of exercise students use (cued or uncued), the most benefit seems to be derived from the strategy they use during the process. It is not the sentence combining itself that helps students write longer sentences but rather the analysis of the sentences that causes the learning to occur. Giorgis and Johnson's (2001) supposition is that learning as exploration can be taught as the *doing* part of learning (p. 87). As a result of such a part of learning, as Jenkinsen (1999) states, practical SC activities make classroom teaching more interesting for the teacher and elicit more productive work from the students. According to her, students get benefit from discussing composing because cued exercises help them write sentences easily and uncued exercises help them share and compare a variety of sentences. The former exercises can easily be checked for correctness, but this probably is not enough since the students also need to discuss how they make the combination; when such a sentence would be most effective; why a combined sentence may be better than the original pair; and what is gained and lost by combination. The latter is accelerated by the help of uncued exercises. Through these techniques, students use steps to form unity easily and produce more meaningful and coherent sentences in a paragraph.

2.5 Steps in Sentence Combining Technique

As put forward by Morenberg et al. (1999), the SC technique is an instructional activity in which clustered sentences are combined into longer, and more complex sentences. The purpose of this technique is to improve students' writing skills by paying attention to the variety of choices to write compositions. Through a series of guided exercises, they are shown how several simple sentences are combined into longer ones.

In the book titled *Sentence Combining: A composing book* by Strong (1994), for example, sentences—mostly organized into clusters— were prepared with an aim to help students "strengthen their writing skills and understand stylistic choices" in written English (p.2). Morenberg et al. (1999) also support Strong and state that by playing with short sentences, students will learn how to use the structures and strategies effectively as in the example given below:

Example

1. It surprised me.

2. Jane arrived late.

The following list given by Morenberg et al. (1999) demonstrates the variety of SC exercises students combined in a writing class:

- *I was surprised when Jane arrived late.*

- *Because Jane arrived late, I was surprised.*

- *It surprised me that Jane arrived late.*

- *Jane arrived late, so I was surprised.*

- *Jane arrived late, surprising me.*

- *Jane's late arrival surprised me.*

- *What surprised me was the lateness of Jane's arrival.*

(p.19)

As seen in the examples above, there were lots of opportunities to play with sentences, and the basic principle behind the SC technique was to illustrate students lots of different ways to write sentences in larger units as paragraphs and essays. The initial SC exercises were simple so that they would come natural to students and might even prove to be fun. According to Morenberg, et al. (1999), there are no *right answers* and each of the single *output* sentences could be used effectively in certain situations. Students could play with different sentences, try out, and discuss them in class; consequently, they could learn which sentence or set of sentences would produce the effect they wanted in any given situation.

For many researchers, sentences, mostly organized in clusters, provide students with an idea on combining them and develop willingness to put those sentences into effective paragraphs as in the example given below:

1.1   Shadows filled the coach's office.
1.2   The coach bent over his metal desk.
1.3   He cleaned out the bulging files.

2.1   He was ready to dump an envelope.
2.2   A photo caught his attention.
2.3   The photo was fading.
2.4   The photo was from an earlier era.

3.1   The young man's face was thin.
3.2   The young man's face was determined.
3.3   His eyes hungered for a chance to play.

(Strong, 1994, p. 5)

As seen in the examples of clustered-sentences above, two numbers are used at the beginning of each sentence: the first number refers to the cluster, and the second to the sentence within that cluster. Each cluster represents a potential sentence in a paragraph. Given clusters can be split into two sentences, leaving or combining it with another. In this way, sentences can be adjusted so that it can meet expressions and give the best meaning within the context as follows:

VERSION 1.

(1) As shadows filled the coach's office, the coach bent over his metal desk and cleaned out the bulging files. (2) He was ready to dump an envelope when a photo caught his attention. (3) The photo was fading and from an earlier era. (4) The young man's face was thin and determined, and his eyes hungered for a chance to play.

VERSION 2 .

(1) With shadows filling his office, the coach bent over his metal desk, cleaning out the bulging files. (2) He was ready to dump an envelope, but fading a photo from an earlier era caught his attention. (3) The young man's face was thin and determined; his eyes hungered for a chance to play.

VERSION 3.

(1) In a shadow-filled office, the coach bent over his metal desk to

clean out bulging files. (2) He was ready to dump an envelope when

fading photo from an earlier era caught his attention. (3) The young

man's face was, thin and determined, hungered for a chance to play.

(Strong, 1994, p. 7)

As seen in the Version 1, 2, and 3 above, students may represent their potential

sentences differently for each paragraph. They follow these steps while combining the

sentences given in the clusters: first, they scan the sentences so that they can sense the context

of the paragraph. Second, they try different combinations with phrasing, rearranging ideas or

experimenting with different connectors. Third, they write out the sentence or sentences in a

coherent manner; in other words, the formulation of the sentences that seem to fit best within

the given context. Then, students put these short clustered sentences into a complex sentence

and consequently into a paragraph. As a result, they start developing a sense of a written

paragraph, and raising the awareness of the flowing style in an essay because sentences are

linked together in a paragraph context (Hirvela & Belcher, 2001).

Consequently, it is observed that SC practice helps students understand the structure of

paragraphs—the way sentences are hung together—by making them aware of the flow of the

idea given within the sentences. Furthermore, by means of this technique, students can be

aware of the unity formulating the paragraph. A further aim of combining sentences is to

develop students' critical thinking and creative expression regarding to the intended meaning

given in the clusters. While applying this technique, the students' compositions may be

different from one another related to their own style in writing. However, this does not mean

that their own version is *wrong* or *unacceptable.* The reason for such an outcome is that students may have a different style and perspective to reflect. This fact is illustrated briefly by the three different versions given below:

VERSION 1.

This paragraph might be analyzed as the least effective of the three. All the sentences are observed to have the same rhythm. That's why; the paragraph seems to lack variety. It is written in a monotonous style as most writing teachers complain about their students written products. The connector 'and' is used more frequently throughout the paragraph than the other two versions.

VERSION 2.

This paragraph might be analyzed as an *excellent* one. It has variety and uses pronouns in a skilled way. The sentences seem more constructed and clear to understand. They make nice use of variety in structure. The writer's skill in relating one sentence to another is making the comprehension more fluent for the reader.

VERSION 3.

This paragraph might be analyzed, as the most preferred one. It has the use of sophisticated phrasing at the beginning which makes it look skilled and controlled. It also has a variety in the text and a style.

(Strong, 1994, p. 9)

As seen in the example given versions 1, 2, and 3 above, the SC technique helps students produce various styles in their compositions. Therefore, through their own style and type they choose, they have the chance of intimating themselves. Consequently, the main point in doing the SC exercises is that they have a number of right answers, and students rearrange these clustered sentences according to their preferences (Morenberg et al., 1999). By working with sentences in such creative ways, students can be encouraged to use their own skills and to transfer them to real writing without hesitating to make mistakes structurally. This lets them write freely and create variety of sentences in their writing.

Consequently, as emphasized by Holdzkom (1982), Kresovich (1989), Laase (1998), and Towns (1984), in order to make students involved in the SC technique through the model writing from the initial to the free writing stages, some of the steps should be considered while combining sentences as follows:

- trying to combine different choices of the clustered-sentences,

- rewriting a group of clustered sentences in a better way,

- reading the sentence in the context of previous sentence choices,

- omitting unnecessary content or words, and adding needed information,

- using connecting words, relative clauses, and prepositional phrases to join sentences fluently,

- making revisions if necessary to appeal the reader,

- checking for stylistic patterns in the sentences in a flow,

- looking over these sentences,

- changing if there is another variety to apply,

- constructing a well-ordered paragraph from given sentences, deleting information as needed and comparing, contrasting, and giving reasons and examples, and

- combining sentences provided into a smooth paragraph.

While following these steps, students become aware of how a unified paragraph is formed, by creating richness. As observed in these steps, SC plays an effective role for improving writing compositions (Horowitz, 1986; Kameen, 1978; Morenberg, 1992; Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Phillips, 1996; and Singleton, 1983).

The exercises seek to replicate the use of grammar during the composing process and to aid students in developing their own style. As stated by Enginarlar (1994), "although exercises are mechanical and limited in scope, they can be used to familiarize students with notions of using subordination" (p. 215). Therefore, such activities are highly recommended in writing classes to create the syntactic maturity in compositions.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overall design of the study including the pilot study. First, it gives detailed information about the subjects involved in this study, and then the treatment done in both experimental and the control group. The purpose of this study is

(1) to investigate the role of the SC technique in the improvement of students' writing skills on the syntactic maturity, fluency and overall quality in their writing skills;

(2) to point out whether or not the students reflect the abilities they gained through awareness raising and demonstrate superiority at a significant level over the control group;

(3) to find out if the Progress Sheet, namely, assessment of *Grammar, Connectors, Punctuation, Vocabulary & Spelling, Complex Sentences*, and *Paragraphs* helps students in the experimental group become aware of their own strengths and weaknesses in their writing (see Appendix 1);

(4) to demonstrate whether or not there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental and the control group when their syntactic performance is taken into consideration; and

(5) to be able to integrate the model practice, namely SC technique, in the future syllabus for writing teachers to apply in order to help students overcome their writing problems and help them write efficient compositions.

In order to bring out the students' writing skills, the instruments comprise of nine different types of tasks:

1. The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP),

2. The Proficiency Exam administered by the ELT Department of Cukurova University,

3. Concordance 3.0 Text Analysis Program,

4. The students' interview upon writing,

5. The students' field notes,

6. The students' diaries,

7. The progress sheet to evaluate their written products,

8. The pre-test, and

9. The post-test.

It is assumed that students have difficulty in expressing their ideas clearly in their written language. Therefore, after investigating the difficulties the students had in their writing samples, and categorizing lack of constructions (see Appendix 16) within their compositions, we used the SC technique to improve students' writing skills. It was believed that by means of the emphasis on constructions, which were considered to be the main problem in writing compositions, students would overcome their weaknesses and gain syntactic fluency, maturity, and overall quality in their writing skills.

3.2 Pilot Study

Prior to the study, a pilot study on the SC technique was carried out with the two teachers of writing in four classes of preparatory students, enrolled in the ELT Department, Faculty of Education, Çukurova University in the 1999-2000 Spring term, for the duration of eleven weeks. The teachers in this study were teachers of ten year of experience in the same

department. The researcher held meetings with those teachers once a week throughout the eleven-week treatment. During the meetings with the teachers in the experimental groups, the researcher explained the requirements of the study, the theoretical background and the procedures of sentence-combining. The main purpose of this phase in the pilot study was to make adjustments for the appropriateness of the SC exercises in the experimental groups according to their syllabus, and if necessary, to develop classroom procedure to help the teachers to carry out the study in the experimental groups. However, the teachers in the control groups were informed not to use the SC technique in the classroom or not to give any assignment concerning this technique. The purpose of this phase was to figure out the impact of the SC exercises upon students' syntactic performance. The researcher scheduled the meetings during the treatment so that any potential problems with the materials or techniques could be discussed and reviewed.

The subjects of this study consisted of four classes of preparatory students attending the English Language Teaching Department of Education Faculty, Çukurova University. These subjects (72 students in four groups) came from different schools, all of whom were exposed to intensive English courses and prepared for ELT Department in their high schools and/or private courses. Before taking undergraduate courses at the department in the beginning of the academic year, the students are required to take a *Proficiency Test*, prepared, and administered by the preparatory class teachers at the ELT Department of the Education Faculty. The students, who fail to get 60 in the proficiency test, are assigned to attend the Preparatory program including grammar and four basic language skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

These students were grouped heterogeneously into four classes according to their scores in the proficiency test. Randomly, two of these four groups were chosen as the control groups and the other two as experimental groups. All the students had already taken 6 hours

of writing per week during the Fall Semester; therefore, they were considered as intermediate level students when the treatment started. The experimental groups were given an eleven-week systematic instruction on SC constructions (sentences, clauses, and phrases) focusing on sentence formation and combination of these syntactic units within paragraphs while the control groups were not exposed to any SC exercises in order to compare these groups.

Both experimental and the control groups were trained by two different teachers since they were selected randomly, but interestingly enough one of the experimental and the control groups were taught by the same teacher. In other words, there were four preparatory classes and two writing teachers, both of whom taught writing in one control and one experimental group. This coincidence was an opportunity since it would eliminate the teacher effect on students. The other opportunity was that skill teachers at the preparatory classes also followed the same syllabus, and these teachers had weekly meetings in order to discuss about the syllabus. Therefore, it was assumed that the data collector threat was eliminated.

Before starting the treatment, the writing results of second mid-term examination were taken into consideration as the pre-test in order to see with which writing constructions (phrases, clauses, and/or embedded sentences) they had difficulties, and to observe differences in terms of improvement of these constructions at the post-test between the experimental and the control groups at the end of the treatment. The study involved application of the SC exercises and the process writing instructions in the experimental groups and only the process writing instructions in the control groups at the beginning of the Spring term. During the training, the students in the experimental groups were encouraged to write sentences according to the model clustered-sentences in Strong's (1994) composing book because it was believed that it would evoke enthusiasm to combine these sentences.

After being trained how to do SC exercises for six hours in the first week, the students expressed their ideas on these exercises as an enjoyable task like jigsaw puzzle. The way

teachers went through the structures and strategies involved the SC exercises from the easy to the difficult stage; therefore, students naturally explained these activities to be enjoyable.

The treatment was conducted at the beginning of the spring term, and continued for eleven weeks. However, there was a natural drawback as there usually used to be in most of the studies. Even though it was also aimed at separating the complete sentences of a unified paragraph into clusters, the students because of the time limitation and their misperceptions at the beginning of the treatment could not carry out these exercises. The purpose of this activity was to consider their individual differences in writing composition. During the treatment, there were also some intervals because of special events such as religious festivals interrupting the flow of regularly scheduled instruction.

In the middle of the treatment, the students in the experimental groups were also given the progress sheet as it was hypothesized to be an important step affecting their awareness for the overall writing quality. By analyzing and evaluating their own written products, the students were expected to become aware of their syntactic performance in terms of grammar, connectors, punctuation, spelling & vocabulary, and sentence types that they have previously learned.

At the end of the treatment, the writing results of the fourth mid-term examination were taken into consideration as the post-test in order to see with which writing constructions (phrases, clause, and/or embedded sentences) the students had acquired, and also if they had coped with the difficulties they had at the beginning of the treatment.

The samples of students' writing were analytically scored according to the writing criteria by Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Warmouth, Hartfiel, & Hughey' (1981) in terms of content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics (see Appendix 2). They were also analyzed on the factors of syntactic fluency—number of words, number of T-Units, number of sentences per text; and of syntactic maturity—number of subordinated clauses per T-Unit,

number of simple and complex sentences, number of error-free, erroneous sentences and fragments, transitions, and conjunctions. The findings revealed that the experimental groups exposed to the SC practice scored significantly higher than the control groups on the syntactic fluency. This means that the experimental groups produced fewer sentences but these sentences include more words than the ones of the control groups who produced a lot of simple sentences with fewer words per T-Unit. The experimental groups revealed significantly high syntactic maturity in the T-Unit length and subordinations when compared to the control groups in the post-test. In other words, practicing the SC technique, the experimental groups showed remarkable improvement, whereas the control groups improved only slightly. The results in this study have also been highly correlated with the studies by Kanellas (1997) and Laframboise (1989). Although the results of this pilot study were analyzed, they were excluded in the analysis part.

In the pilot study, it had been aimed at separating the complete sentences of a unified paragraph into clusters, but unfortunately, the students could not carry out these exercises because of both time limitation and their misperceptions at the beginning of the treatment. Since the purpose of this activity was to consider their individual differences in writing composition, it would be emphasized in the main study more as explained in the following sections.

3.3 Subjects

The subjects of the study consisted of two preparatory class students attending the English Language Teaching Department of Education Faculty, Çukurova University. The subjects were two groups, 42 students, all of whom were exposed to intensive English courses of ELT Department in their previous education. Before taking undergraduate courses at the

department, the students were required to take a proficiency test at the beginning of the academic year. As a result of evaluations of this test, the ones whose scores were under 60 were supposed to have received an intensive preparatory program in grammar and four basic language skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Nevertheless, the students participated in this study were given two proficiency tests after one week of interval; first, Form Q of the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency, MTELP; and then the *Proficiency Test* prepared and administered by the ELT Department of the Education Faculty. Both proficiency tests were given to the students in order to find out if similar results would be gained from the sections of these tests as explained in the following part.

3.3.1 Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency

The *Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency* (MTELP) is a standardized test, prepared by the division of testing and certification, English Language Institute, University of Michigan. This test is designed as part of a battery to be used in estimating whether a student whose native language is not English is able to pursue academic study in an English language college or university, and how much study he might be able to undertake at his present level of proficiency in English.

MTELP is a 100 item objectively scored test of English grammatical usage, vocabulary and reading comprehension given within approximately 1 ½ hours of administration time; grammar section is composed of written instructions, one example question and forty multiple-choice items; vocabulary section is composed as two types-a substitution type and a selection type- in forty multiple-choice items. The items in vocabulary represents requirements for a student in order to use words so that he would not be handicapped by need for excessive dictionary work; and reading comprehension section is composed of four reading passages which range from 100 to 350 words in length. Five

multiple-choice items follow each passage. The passages have been selected to provide a variety in genre and all of the questions represent the expectations of teachers who might be using these passages as text for the courses (as it is a commercial test, we did not include it in the Appendices).

3.3.2 The Proficiency Exam of ELT Department

The *Proficiency Exam* administered by the ELT Department at Cukurova University is designed to evaluate the foreign language level of a student whose native language is not English for pursuing academic study in ELT Department of the university of Çukurova.

The *Proficiency Exam of ELT Department* is a test of English on the grammatical usage of English language, and four basic language skills, namely, listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The administration time allotted is approximately 3 hours of which are allowed to the students for taking the examination, and for instructions by the examiners. Grammar section is composed of multiple-choice items, paraphrasing, and filling in blanks with appropriate words; Listening section is composed of ten multiple-choice items and fifteen fill in the chart or table items, Reading section is composed of three reading passages which range from 150 to 350 words in length. Each passage is followed by multiple-choice items, true and false statements, vocabulary part, and cloze test. Writing section includes five assigned topics. The primary reason for offering students a choice of prompts is the belief that students should be allowed to choose a prompt that will enable them to display their best writing. It is assumed that such prompts are in the realm of the kind of writing being tested. It is a fact that students come from a wide range of backgrounds, and they should not be unfairly penalized by being forced to write on one particular topic. As a result of this fact, only one of the topics is chosen by students according to their preference to write an essay on.

The purpose of the written composition is to show whether a student is capable of handling English well enough to indicate his knowledge of subject-matter; and Speaking (interview by two raters-- speaking teachers of the ELT Department) is done to estimate a student's ability to comprehend basic English structures orally presented on five basic criteria: pronunciation, fluency, accuracy, vocabulary, and overall.

The reason of giving these two tests were to determine whether there would be any correlation between the results of the Proficiency Test and the MTELP, which is highly recognized as a standardized test all over the world. Correlation was carried out in the overlapping parts of these two tests in order to fulfill the consistency. Thus, a close correlation would mean that the Proficiency Test prepared and administered by the ELT Department could be accepted as a standard test and given to the other institutions as well. Table 3.1 presents the correlation between the MTELP and the Proficiency Test.

Table 3.1 Correlations Between the MTELP and the Proficiency Test.

	MTELP		Proficiency Test of C.U.		
N	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	r
84	38.53	7.39	42.63	8.71	,465**

**Significant difference at .01 level

As indicated in Table 3.1, the scores of all students in the four preparatory classes were analyzed, and correlation between MTELP and Proficiency Test of Cukurova University was found significant at 0.01 p level. The data in Table 3.1 above are based upon the results of the Pearson Correlation analysis available in the SPSS program.

As a result of the basis of their scores in the Proficiency Test and the MTELP, four preparatory classes were grouped heterogeneously. Then, two out of these classes, each including 21 students, were selected randomly as the experimental group and the control group who were taught by the same teacher.

3.4 The treatment

The total treatment time period was determined to be eleven weeks. Prior to the treatment process, the results of the second mid-term were assessed as the pre-test in order to see which constructions (phrases, clauses, and/or embedded sentences) the students had difficulties with. In the light of these findings, the treatment was carried out by following the instructions for sentence-based exercises in the writing textbook entitled "Paragraph Development: A guide for students of English" (Arnaudet & Barrett, 1990). This textbook also focused on process writing; therefore, both sentence-based exercises and process writing activities were applied to the experimental and the control group.

For the nature of this study, only the experimental group utilized the sentence-combining exercises to focus on how sentences are formed and combined to build paragraphs. On the other hand, the control group followed their writing textbook in which SC exercises were not covered.

Total time for both types of the exercises, namely sentence-based and process writing, done in the writing courses was approximately 16-18 hours, divided into periods of about one and a half hours per week for each assignment. The present syllabus in use at the department also adopted this time range for both feasibility and validity purposes.

3.4.1 Treatment Given to the Experimental and the Control Group

During the treatment, as mentioned in Section 3.4, the textbook entitled "Paragraph Development: A guide for students of English" was utilized for both experimental and the control group. This book focused on the two components: sentence-based exercises, and process writing. The students in both groups were required to follow their syllabus to do

these exercises according to their course syllabus. In order to enhance the students' writing skills in these groups, the teacher devoted the whole class time to doing exercises with the belief that writing, as with other language skills, would be improved by practice and repetition. Furthermore, as noted above, in the case of the experimental group, the teacher devoted some part of class time to explaining SC exercises, followed by a supplementary material. The purpose of this implementation was to observe if the SC technique would enhance the students' writing skills to a certain extent as well.

In the light of the purpose of the study, the description of an eleven-week period is presented as follows: each week was scheduled to produce a logical progression of exercises at sentence level, followed by the more comprehensive, and critical thinking skills required in process writing. Both groups utilized the same complementary curriculum. However, each week, while the control group was assigned to follow the exercises in their writing book, the experimental group was exposed to the application of SC module. Since this module was provided to the experimental group in supplementary to their syllabus, it was referred to as SM for the Supplementary Material provided for this group as follows:

Week 1. The students in both groups followed the instructions in their writing course book. Exercises included writing sentences with *listing signals* (e.g., first, second, and next) and *connectors* (e.g., afterwards, then, and meanwhile) at the sentence level; showing organization of model paragraphs; and rewriting the paragraph. The students of both groups were supposed to paraphrase the sentences using sentence connectors and time clues, namely time phrases or clauses. Their textbook included two model paragraphs for each chapter, instructions about reconstructing these paragraphs, and filling in the given blanks with appropriate words already given. The students also placed scrambled sentences in correct chronological order. By arranging the order of the sentences

depending on time adverbials (e.g., for, since, and on) and clauses (e.g., when, while, and until), they learned how to write a well-established chronological paragraph. The purpose of this activity, for both groups, was to become familiar with the logical chronology of events and coherence among sentences. However, the control group was introduced to write a chronological paragraph freely while the experimental group was introduced to the SC technique (as described in the next section).

SM Prior to the actual SC treatment, short sentence clusters were given by the teacher to the students in the experimental group to familiarize them with the technique of combining sentences, which includes to read the clusters, discuss, monitor, analyze, and combine. To ensure consistency of presentation, both transparencies and worksheets were used in the classroom. It was believed that this approach would strengthen their writing abilities because during the group discussions they would discover a greater number of ways to combine the same set of sentences. Especially at the initial stage, the teacher played an essential role to guide the students to fully appreciate variations in syntax. Focus during this week was on individual sentence structures and their context in order to form simple two- or three-sentence paragraphs. The students were given sets of sentences with instructions telling which transformations to use for combining them. They discussed clustered sentences, which they combined into various syntactic structures. They produced their own sentences under the guidance of the teacher. Interestingly, even with only one week of training, the experimental group wrote in a more complex manner.

Week 2. In the second week, both groups continued to analyze the model paragraphs illustrating the chronological order in their textbook. They tried to detect the time phrases and clauses within the scrambled sentences. Consequently, they were able to put these sentences in correct order under the guidance of the teacher. Learning this activity focusing

on the chronological order reinforced their sense of paragraph unity and coherence by means of dates, time expression, and cited events. After analyzing these model paragraphs, the experimental group was asked to do SC exercises to form a paragraph whereas the control group was assigned to write a paragraph on a topic given in their textbook (*Write a paragraph about the life of your favorite family member or country hero*).

SM The experimental group did additional SC exercises designed by the teacher; however, it was found that the assigned text was deficient. As the control group did sentence-based exercises in their textbook, the experimental group did exercises given by the teacher; therefore, there was a need to supply more exercises based on the SC technique in order to fulfill the equal amount of exercises between these two group. Thus, a book entitled "Sentence Combining: A composing book" (Strong, 1994) was utilized as a supplementary text. This supplementary book contained appropriate exercises to constitute a paragraph as in the example given below:

Exercise 1. Combining simple sentences into complex sentences that illustrate chronology.

Beethoven

1.1 Beethoven was born.
1.2 He had a world.
1.3 His world was a world of music.
1.4 He was one of the world's greatest musicians.

2.1 He was very young.
2.2 His talent was obvious.
2.3 His father wanted him to be a child wonder.
2.4 His father wanted him to be a money-maker.
2.5 Money maker is like Mozart.

3.1 He suffered a great deal.
3.2 He wrote music.
3.3 His music was filled with emotion.

4.1 In his thirties he lost his hearing.

4.2 Beethoven became ill in 1826.

4.3 He died in 1827.

As one of the world's greatest musicians, Beethoven's world

was a world of music from the moment he was born. He was very

young with his obvious talent. So, his father wanted him to be a

child wonder and moneymaker like Mozart. He suffered a great

deal writing music filled with emotion. However, in 1826, just in

his thirties he lost his hearing becoming ill, and died in 1827.

As seen in the Example 1, the experimental group read the clusters, discussed on them, monitored, analyzed, combined, and reread these clustered sentences. The purpose of this was trying to see what combination would work best in conveying the intended message within paragraph while the control group wrote a paragraph on a given topic (*Write a chronology of your first few years at school*).

After working on the SC exercises in the first two weeks, the students comprehended the gist of the SC exercises, and they became more motivated in doing these puzzle-like exercises at the very beginning of the treatment period. In fact, they even expressed how a challenging and enjoyable task they had by these exercises. We also believed it helped them to sort out the onrush of new ideas and at the same time to express their own ideas with some coherence.

Week 3. The students in both groups during the third and the following weeks were introduced paragraphs in cause and effect relations. They became aware of a cause-effect concept, and they started to support their sentences by *listing signals* (e.g., the first effect.., the final effect), *enumeration* (e.g., step, and stage), and *sentence connectors* (e.g., because of this, and hence) to form cause-effect paragraphs. In other words, they did

sentence-based exercises on what a certain situation resulted in or why it happened the way it did. Both groups studied on the model paragraphs highlighting listing signals, enumerations, or connectors. After analyzing these model paragraphs, the experimental group did SC exercises to form a paragraph whereas the control group was assigned to write a paragraph on a topic given in the textbook (*Using cause-effect development, write a paragraph in which you describe the effects—negative or positive—that a teacher has had on your personality or your approach to life in general*).

SM Since the SC process had already been introduced to the experimental group, these students were aware that each activity included the following steps: reading the clusters, discussing, monitoring, analyzing, combining, reducing some items in the sentences if necessary, and editing. Therefore, the students were able to use their individual linguistic knowledge while doing these exercises and share this experience with their peers. At this stage, they could demonstrate their creativity to combine sentences and get feedback from their writing teacher. Because of the nature of the supplementary book, the teacher put the model paragraphs in the textbook into clustered-sentences as in the SC technique, and she offered the students the clustered version of the model paragraphs while the control group analyzed on the original model paragraphs in their text book (see Appendix 11). The purpose of this activity was to provide equality to do the same amount of exercises for both groups.

Week 4. They learned to use the structural signals on cause-effect development by practicing sentence connectors (e.g., since, as a result, and therefore) in their paragraphs. They tried to detect these connectors within the sentences. The control group analyzed the model paragraphs while the experimental group did the clustered version of the model paragraph. Both exercises were believed to help them become aware of unity and concepts of coherence in a paragraph. Then the control group was assigned to write a

paragraph on a given topic (*using cause and effect development, explain why you decided to study at this school*) in their text book while the experimental group was asked to write a paragraph through their supplementary book on SC.

SM The experimental group was asked to write the SC exercises on cause and effect development outside the classroom. The main purpose of this activity was to make them feel comfortable while constituting their mental process, creativity, and self expression in writing composition since each student had his own personal voice to use through writing. The other purpose was also to keep them away from the pressure of classroom setting during application of cognitive task in the SC technique. The experimental group wrote a paragraph on cause and effect, which is parallel to their text book through the SC exercises presented in their supplementary book.

Week 5. The students of both groups continued to study the exercises about the sentence connectors of cause and effect development. In developing their cause and effect relationship, they were able to demonstrate their writing ability and they also realized that the effect of one situation became the cause of the next in a relationship, which is called *chain reaction*. Both groups arranged the list of causes and effects on a particular paragraph in the textbook. As a result, they analyzed the model paragraphs, and then they wrote a cause-effect paragraph in which they described the effects in their writing text book. The control group was assigned to develop a paragraph on the given topic in this chapter (*Give your reasons why people learn a foreign language, or effects of education on an individual*).

SM The experimental group did the exercises on sentence connectors in cause and effect development. While the control group analyzed the model paragraph, the experimental group combined the clustered-sentences of the model paragraph, which was designed by the writing teacher. Students were given SC model to work on since well-written patterns

motivate them to write more complex sentences in this writing process. When writing paragraphs, students saw the unity of sentences within a composition and understand how to do it themselves (Laase, 1998). They formed a paragraph through the exercises in the supplementary book because the regular writing activity, such as free writing, was not allowed to ensure equality to both groups. Consequently, the experimental group was able to present their writing ability developed through SC exercises. In this way, they adjusted these exercises so that it could meet their feelings and work best in a context. In other words, they felt free to add for the clarification purposes in writing paragraphs. To support the purpose of the study this group expressed that they really liked the SC exercises because of the intellectual challenges they could present as these exercises apparently transferred to real writing even at the initial stages.

Week 6. The students in both groups during the sixth and the following weeks were introduced paragraphs on *comparison* and *contrast*. They became aware of supporting sentences according to either similarities or differences between two aspects of one thing. They were initially introduced how comparative paragraphs are formed by analyzing the model paragraph in their textbook. The students of both groups studied on the model paragraph including *listing signals* and *enumerator similarities* (e.g., adjective, and prepositions), *attached statements* (e.g., and, too,so, neither, nor), *correlative conjunctions* (e.g., both and/ neither no/ just as-so), *sentence connectors* (e.g., similarly, likewise etc.), and *punctuation* (e.g., /; / ,). So, they did sentence-based exercises concerning comparison. **SM** In the midway of the treatment process, the experimental group was also introduced the *Progress Sheet* (PS) to evaluate written samples of the different students in the previous years. The researcher delivered anonymous writing samples that belonged to the previous years' students (see Appendix 12). The purpose of delivering those written samples was to give students an opportunity to analyze the compositions objectively

without being affected by any name. In accord with the PS, they were also given the analytic scoring by Jacobs et al (1981), which was modified for the criteria of the PS in order to analyze written samples accordingly (see Appendix 15). The purpose of giving this scoring guide was to make them aware of reliable assessment for each written sample.

After training the experimental group based on the PS assessment criteria, the researcher allotted 10 minutes each week for the students to assess these writing samples in the classroom. The nature of this assessment treatment comprised grammatical items such as *connectors, punctuation, spelling & vocabulary, sentence types*, and *paragraphs*. These criteria were also included in writing curriculum. Consequently, the researcher demonstrated the experimental group to assess some written samples on the transparencies in the classroom in terms of items on PS and the analytic scoring by Jacobs. In order to see if they could do the scoring based upon the analytic scoring of Jacobs (1981), she asked them to score alone at the initial stage, and then in pairs. Then they compared their scorings in groups in the classroom. Finally, they uttered their final decisions aloud in groups for each category.

Week 7. After analyzing the models in their book, and following the instructions for sentence-based exercises, both groups rewrote the given exercises in different ways, by using *sentence connectors* (e.g., similarly, and in the same way), or *the words* (e.g., exactly, rather, and almost) used in paragraph of comparison. Then the control group was assigned to write a comparative paragraph on a topic given in their text book (*Compare two people you know who are very similar*). The experimental group, however, was asked to build a paragraph on comparison in their supplementary book.

SM After the seventh week (around the middle of the Spring term), the experimental group started to make decisions as to what parts of the given clustered sentences to delete and which parts to retain while writing compositions. They were observed that they liked doing the SC exercises since they accelerated their intellectual challenges in transforming

their ideas easily. Upon doing these exercises and becoming aware of how sentences are formulated in a more complicated way, these students were at the same time instructed to split the complex sentences into clusters in a top to bottom process (see the example illustrated below) with the purpose of giving them an awareness of the embeddings within the complex sentences. De-combining, Splitting, or taking apart challenging syntax are believed to be able to help learners sort out meanings and navigate the complex structures in any difficult text as in the example given below.

Exercise 2. Splitting complex sentences into the clustered-sentences:

THE FAMOUS TOWER OF LONDON

The famous tower of London was built as a fortress by William the Conqueror. Early in the Middle Ages the kings used it as a palace; later on it was turned into a prison...

1.1 The tower of London is famous.

1.2 The tower of London was built.

1.3 It was a fortress.

1.4 William the Conqueror built it.

2.1 It was early in the Middle Ages.

2.2 The kings used it.

2.3 It was a palace for the kings.

2.4 And then they turned it into a prison.

(Aybaz-Tataroğlu, 1994, p. 304)

As seen in the example above, the main purpose of this activity was to raise the students' awareness on how a sentence functions in the body of a paragraph, how clustered sentences are formed into a paragraph, and how the embedded ideas are identified within the complex sentences that constitute a paragraph. Besides these activities, they also assessed the

written samples using the PS and analytic scoring by Jacobs and they made group decisions in the classroom.

Week 8. The students of both groups worked on the contrastive model paragraphs indicating differences between two items with the use of *dissimilarities* (e.g., -er than, more than), *prepositions* (e.g., unlike, contrary to), *adverbial clauses* (e.g., although, whereas, while), *sentence connectors* (e.g., however, on the other hand), and *punctuation* (e.g., /; / ,). After indicating and underlying contrastive items in these paragraphs of that week, they continued to do sentence–based exercises to implement connectors in order to formulate a coherent paragraph. Then, the control group was assigned to write a contrastive paragraph on a given topic in their book (*Write a paragraph in which you contrast two people you know who are very different*).

SM The experimental group was expected to become aware of various syntactic formulations in building up contrastive paragraphs by doing the SC exercises. They were able to demonstrate their writing ability through these exercises. They were also able to detect the embeddings within the sentences as a part of their treatment. Assessment of their peers' written works and their own works with PS also reinforced their awareness of the importance of syntactic features in a language. The researcher checked out the scores of writing samples of the students in the classroom. As a consequence of guidance of the researcher, the experimental group learnt how to analyze the written samples reliably. At the next stage, these students were assigned to split the sentences of the given model paragraph the same as their writing teacher had already done (see Appendix 19).

Week 9. The students of both groups were introduced definition to explain what any given term means. Their textbook included some terms in three items: the term to be defined, the class to which it belongs, and the features which distinguish it from the others. In order to do sentence-based exercises, a chart for each of the term is given in *term, general*

class and *distinguishing features.* They worked on these exercises for defining either in a *formal definition,* as found in a dictionary entry, or in a *stipulated definition,* which explains how particular term is used within a specific context. Both groups were assigned to make a list of words, to define them as they know, and then to look up in a dictionary to find their definitions, and finally compare both definitions of the same term. They were assigned to write a definition paragraph on a given term in their textbook *(Choose two of the words below and write a paragraph of definition for each one. Remember that you will be stipulating your personal interpretation of the meanings of the words: Success, Humor, Friendship, and Intelligence).*

SM The experimental group wrote a definition paragraph utilizing their supplementary book including the SC technique. Besides these activities, they also assessed their own definition paragraphs as assignment using the criteria on the PS, and they discussed their own definition with their peers in the classroom. They exchanged their peers' paragraphs to assess in the classroom and discuss about the differences on the scores of the samples. They also had improvements in syntactic fluency and could transfer their writing skills to real writing.

Week 10-11. Both groups learnt how to from a paragraph on any topic. They covered the rhetorical patterns most commonly found in expository writing (chronology, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, and definition) during the treatment period. As a result, the students were let free on writing any free compositions since they finished their text book. They were suggested writing as many compositions as they could in different topics. In case they could not find any topic, the teacher supplied them various topics based upon the chapters in their text book.

SM After training the students either to combine or split the sentences into clusters, the researcher asked them to work on writing free composition according to the topics in their

text book. With the help of the PS, the students also analyzed their own written products, and hence, they were expected to become aware of variety in their compositions. As they had already been suggested keeping all their written samples as files, in these last two weeks, they were asked to reanalyze their old samples utilizing the PS. The purpose of having them redo the scoring was to figure out if there would be any significant superiority between their pre- and post-scoring. They were asked to compare these two scores on the same composition and wrote their opinions in their diaries (see Appendix 9).

In the pilot study, we could not emphasize the splitting sentences into clusters and self-assessing their written products through the PS. The main reason of this attitude resulted from the time limitation and the students' not showing an intensive tendency towards self-assessment. However, even with little attention, we had realized there was a difference in linguistic performance between two groups. Therefore, in the main study, we asked students to split any text into clusters and also assess their own written products continuously. As a consequence of providing them to make choices among the options and then transfer what they learned to their own writing, we believed that they would become better writers; therefore, they could use SC technique more confidently in a recursive action.

3.5 Data Collection

In this study, data were collected from the written exam papers and classroom works of the experimental and the control group. The results of these samples were analyzed by the identical written test given as the pre-test at the beginning, and the post-test at the end of the treatment.

3.5.1 Instrumentation

In this study, in order to single out the problem concerning writing longer and more mature sentences in a composition, the seven instruments used to collect data are:

(1) Concordance 3.0 Text Analysis Program,

(2) Students' Interview,

(3) Students' Field Samples,

(4) Students' Diaries,

(5) The Pre-test,

(6) The Progress Sheet, and

(7) The Post-test.

Table 3.2 illustrates the questions coming from the ELT field and the rationale behind them.

Table 3.2 The instruments to be utilized in the study

INSTRUMENT	RESEARCH QUESTION	RATIONALE
Concordance 3.0 Hunt's T-Unit	Does the manipulation of the SC technique, in which clustered-sentences are combined into single complex sentences, accelerate students' syntactic fluency in their writing?	To see what sorts of weaknesses (Grammatical usage, vocabulary, and constructions) students (SS) have in their writing.
Concordance 3.0 Hunt's T-Unit	Does combining sets of simple clustered sentences into a single meaningful complex sentence enhance students' syntactic maturity in writing a composition?	To find out if the SC technique increases SS' writing skills in terms of cohesion, coherence, and unity between and among sentences in their composition.
Analytic Scoring by Jacobs (1981)	Does the SC technique enhance the overall writing quality of students?	To determine if SS reflect the writing skills in their written products in terms of grammatical correctness, sentences variety, organization, and coherence in their composition.
	QUESTION	
Interview	What do SS know about writing courses? What kind of difficulties do SS have in writing?	To clarify the points that are unclear to the researcher, and To find out if there is a consistency between SS' thoughts and written products.
Field samples	How do SS write compositions? Are they aware of their weaknesses and strengths?	To find out if there is a consistency between their thoughts and written products. To see what difficulties they have in their writing.

Diaries	What are students' beliefs about writing course and composition?	To clarify if there is a correlation on the students' weaknesses and strength in writing through a reliable text analysis program. In addition, to compare their written products with those obtained through Pre- Post-test.
Progress Sheet	Do students assess their compositions? Does this self-assessment help them to yield meaningful and complex sentences in their writing?	To investigate if PS raises their awareness toward developing well-established compositions.

3.5.1.1 Concordance 3.0

Concordance 3.0 is a text analysis program, which provides to make word frequency lists with percentages, and yields full concordances showing every word in its context. In other words, this analysis program, invented by Rob Watt, uses texts of any size to make fast concordances to pick the selection of words from text, and use multiple input files. For example, browsing through the original text and clicking on any word, every occurrence of that word in its context can easily be observed. That means Concordance 3.0 gives an opportunity to edit and re-arrange a wordlist by drag and drop, and lemmatize any words chosen. Briefly, it is very easy to search, select, and sort words in very flexible ways such as word length chart, statistics on the text (see Appendix 18 for further details).

Concordance 3.0 was taken into account in this study, the main purpose of using this program was to figure out what sorts of weaknesses such as grammatical usage, vocabulary, and constructions (sentences, clauses, and phrases) they had in their writing.

3.5.1.2 Students' Interview

One of the methods of collecting information about students' backgrounds, and their learning processes are interviews between the learners and the teachers. These interviews consist of a set of questions or statements that students are expected to respond on certain points. The advantage of interviews is that "they permit the interviewer to probe students for additional information in response to interesting or important answers that arise unexpectedly from the planned questions" (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p. 133). Genesee and Upshur (1996) claim that this method is useful primarily for collecting information about students' linguistic and educational backgrounds and experiences; their attitudes, and goals; and also other qualitative information. It is also believed that interviews provide the most revealing information about how they feel about writing skills (Polio & Glew, 1996).

In this study, since the primary concern was to document the students' language achievement in writing, their linguistic and educational backgrounds, experiences, and attitudes towards writing courses, they were interviewed by asking questions as follows:

- *Have you ever had writing courses in English in your previous education?*

- *If so, what kind of writing course did you have? and*

- *If yes, was the writing course separated one or was it included in your course book?*

The rationale behind using students' interview was that data facilitated the elicitation of the constructions they had difficulties during writing process, and the purpose of interviewing the students was to find out what they thought about writing courses, and also to identify what difficulties they had while writing compositions in English.

3.5.1.3 Students' Field Samples

The students in the experimental and the control groups were asked to express their ideas on what difficulties they had while writing compositions before the treatment. It was written either in the students' native language (Turkish) or in English so that they could clearly express their feelings and difficulties they experienced while writing composition. Students' thoughts about writing were taken into account as data. Therefore, by the help of these samples, it was also possible for the researcher to get data from their notes concerning if they had writing courses in their previous education, and if they did, what sorts of weaknesses such as grammatical usage, vocabulary, and constructions (sentences, clauses and phrases) they had in their writing.

3.5.1.4 Students' Diaries

Many writing teachers require that students should keep diaries, which combine the objective observations of a class notebook. Diaries are not just for writing, but also for working through thoughts and feelings. Briefly, as defined by Giorgis and Johnson (2001), diaries are self-reflections giving inspiration to teachers to see the same event from differing perspectives. Learners' diaries are detailed records including a lot of information about what has been dealt with in class, what students have learned, what problems they have had, and what they are going to do to overcome them (Harris & McCann, 1994).

With the same belief adopted by these scholars, the students in the experimental and the control group were asked to keep diaries reflecting the events that took place in their writing course. They were advised to write their diaries in English in order to get information about their attitude toward writing and how much improvement they had from the initial to

the final stages. Students' diaries were considered as an important step to establish a real picture about the happenings in class (see Appendix 9). It was also believed that having students write down their thoughts could be a key in order to notice the specific skills they might need in writing.

In this way, the students were given a rough record of the week's classes that they could refer to when thinking about their own progress. They were asked to keep diaries about the activities they enjoyed and problems they had. At continuous intervals they were asked to observe their dairies. The purpose of this task was to make them aware of two important points: syntactic formulation they used, and improvement of their writing skills. Since they considered this activity as a playful activity rather than an instruction in learning a language, they could easily reflect these features in their diaries. Even though they were not aware of form or function at the initial stages, they started to realize these concepts in the following stages. The two diaries of the same student, for example, could give a picture about how students started keeping their diaries in the beginning of the term (Time 1) and progressed to write in the middle of the treatment (Time 2):

(Time 1) Today, we met out writing teacher. I am writing you because her desire. She wanted us a short composition about ourselves. Then, she talked about topic sentences. At first I was afraid of her. Because she wanted a lot of things from us...

(Time 2) Today, we had a quiz which really made me happy. Frankly, I was afraid of writing a passage at first, but then I got relaxed and wrote a passage that is the longest passage (that) I have written so far...

As seen in the diary examples above and confirmed by many researchers (e.g., Genesee & Upshur, 1996; Hamp-Lyons, 1991; Oster, 2001; Short, 1993; and Tighe, 1987), the diaries assist students to reflect their strengths or weaknesses in these daily activities they

have encountered. Briefly, such records serve as an indicator of improvement for students and also they facilitate the assessment of individual development.

3.5.1.5 Pre-test

The pre-test was administered before the treatment to both experimental and the control group to clarify what sorts of weaknesses and strengths they had in their writing. After discussing with different test administrators in the ELT Department to insure test uniformity and reliability, the pre-test was given to both experimental and control groups in three ways as Pre-test (1), Pre-test (2) and Pre-test (3) as follows:

(1) *A Sit-Down Exam,* which required students to evaluate what they could write and how well they could form sentence structures into paragraphs under exam conditions;

(2) *An Untimed Composition,* which required students to write on one out of ten writing topics, but without classroom pressure; and

(3) *A Timed Composition,* which required students to write on a sequence of pictures in a limited time in the classroom.

The reason for analyzing the second and third type of compositions derives from the claim made by Horowitz (1986), who states that "in-class tests do not constitute 'real writing'; that is, they are simply artificial classroom tasks" (p. 36). On the other hand, one source of criticism comes from researchers Caudery (1990), Hamp-Lyons and Mathias (1994), and Raimes (1983), who argue that timed-writing tests still exist, and will most likely continue to be used by ESL students. Their argument is that time is a crucial element of the writing process. Students should have time to make decisions, time to play around with ideas, time to construct sentences, and above all, time to chance their minds. For these reasons, before the treatment, the sit-down exam was assigned by the ELT department. At the beginning of the

treatment, two different compositions--timed and untimed-- were assigned sequentially one week period in between in greater detail as follows:

Test (1): For the second *mid-term examination*, the students in both groups were administered this exam by the ELT department at the end of the first term. In this examination, the students were asked to choose one of five topics given and to write a composition on the topic. After giving the exam on the same day, the writing teachers in the same department evaluated their exam papers.

Test (2): For *the untimed composition*, ten writing topics were chosen from the TOEFL booklet (see Appendix 17 for the list of topics) based upon the students' writing level and topical preferences (e.g., sports, the arts, health, and education). The topic the students in both groups would write about was chosen among the topics that would require a *cause* and *effect* organization.

Moreover an attempt to write about is made for the students in both groups to write on a topic, which would maximize their motivation and reflect the greatest possible shared interest. To accomplish this task, all ten topics were listed on the white board. In sequence, row-by-row, each student selected the top three topics of interest to him or her. After all the students had noted their interest in this manner, the top three topics were again listed, and this process was repeated. The topic with the largest number of votes became the one all students selected in the Type (3) pre-test (see item 7, Appendix 17). The main purposes of selecting the topic in this manner were mainly to give them a topic that most of students could write easily and then to form a unity in order to analyze at the end of the treatment.

Test (3): For *the timed-composition* writing activity, the students in both groups were demonstrated the same three sets of sequenced-pictures from the textbook, entitled "Writing Through Pictures" by Heaton (1988). They were asked to choose one of these three sets of pictures in order to write on the same set of sequenced-pictures in both classes. After they

had chosen one out of three, the researcher asked them to write a composition on this given page (see Appendix 13). These 15 sequences of pictures served as prompts in forming a paragraph. In particular, they were asked to write one or two sentences for each picture; therefore, 15 minute-time were required to write a paragraph in this exercise.

This type of writing strategy was chosen because it would allow the students to concentrate on the production of language rather than on creation of ideas. This notion was also supported by Flaherty (1985), Ishikawa (1995), and Laframboise (1989). To them, this type of test requires students to focus on discrete points and intensive interaction leading to a greater improvement in production of a text. Flaherty used verbal input or reading texts in the classroom while Laframboise used wordless cartoon film as a prompt to determine if the SC technique would affect the students' oral and written language, especially concerning appropriateness and ability in their second language. Both of these researchers agreed on the positive outcomes of the SC technique on students when given as visual prompts.

In SC studies done in recent decades, there has been a considerable debate on the positive impact of the SC technique upon writing since this technique focuses on the assessment of the written products. In other words, students with other techniques have not been given any chance to assess their own writing products with the help of the criteria (in the progress sheet) provided by the teacher. Only teachers, raters, or researchers have evaluated the written samples, but not students. It is believed that if students were engaged in evaluating their own written products and progress through a progress sheet, this would originally contribute to this field.

The rationale behind using a progress sheet is that meaningful self-evaluation demands a deeper understanding of language use versus passive participation. Therefore, a *Progress Sheet* (PS) is devised with the intent of increasing students' awareness toward structure and content in their writing. Since this progress sheet includes criteria emphasized in their

textbook, they will become "critical and persuasive writers and thinkers" (Booth & Gregory, 1987, p. 241).

3.5.1.6 Progress Sheet

One of the ways to provide students with assessment of their writing is simply to tell them what their problems are and how to find a remedy to those problems. Thus, assessment of written products by students has gained importance recently because it is one of the most valuable sources of information about what is happening in a learning environment (Harris & McCann, 1994; Heaton, 1988; and Madsen, 1983). To many researchers and scholars, as also mentioned in Section 3.5.1.5, it has been only teachers who evaluated the writing samples for a few decades. The main reason of teacher assessment of writing process generally comes from the requirements of institutions, or administrations of education system. Accordingly, many researchers put assessments into three common categories as shown in Figure 1:

The Types of Assessment
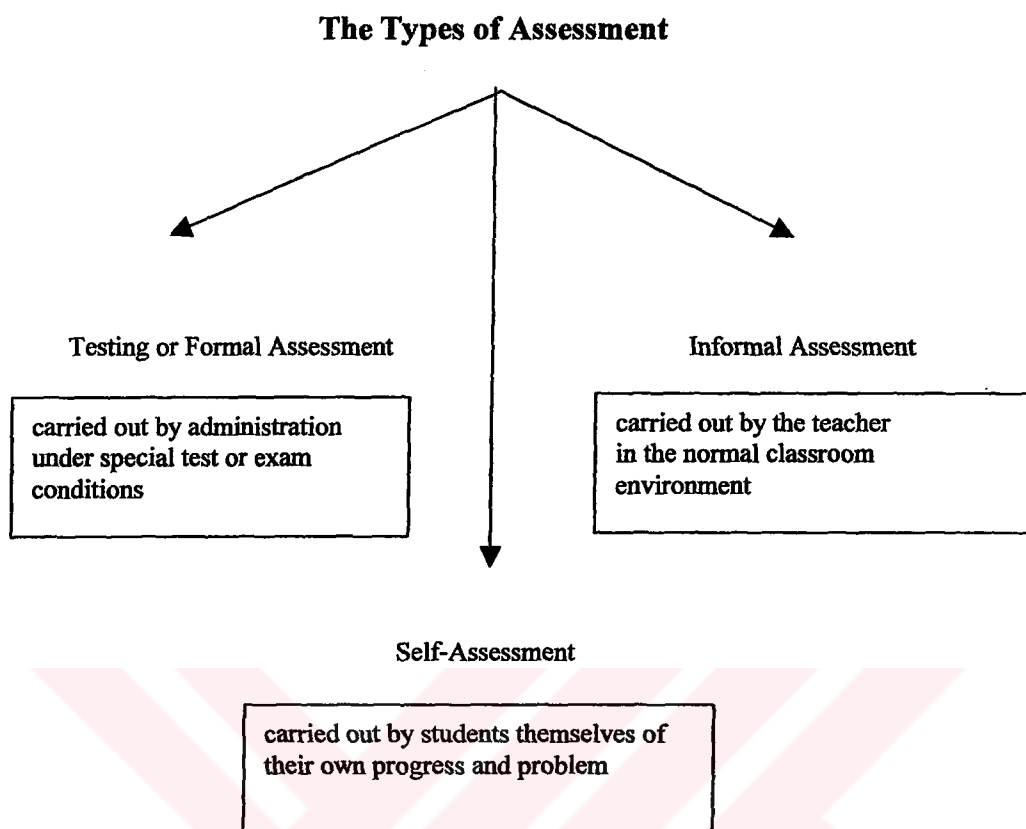
Figure 3.1 The types of assessment

As illustrated in Figure 3.1, the *formal assessment* is a way of establishing test or exam conditions by the teacher; the *informal assessment* is a way of collecting information about students' performance in normal classroom conditions without establishing test atmosphere; and the *self-assessment* is a way of providing useful information about students' expectation and needs, their problems and worries about the course in general.

The main purposes of the first two assessments derive from teachers' identifying strengths and weaknesses of students in their compositions; planning instruction to fit diagnosed needs; evaluating instructional activities; giving feedback; monitoring performance; and reporting progress (e.g., Airasian, 1996; Beach, 1989; Genesee & Upshur, 1996; Goodrich, 1996; Goodrich-Andrade, 2000; Isaacson, 1996; Isaacson, 1984; Silva et al., 1994; and Sweedler-Brown, 1993).

The main purposes of self-assessment such as Progress Sheet, on the other hand, derive from students' identifying their problems; and thus getting feedback from their teachers accordingly; monitoring their own compositions and performance; overviewing their own strengths and weaknesses in their compositions; and finally finding themselves in a position to evaluate their own compositions. In this respect, PS requires a long-range response from students to gain a confidence on five productive factors of writing namely, *fluency, content, conventions, syntax,* and *vocabulary* so that students can express their communicative intent through logic and coherence. In other words, they start writing more matured sentences since the PS is a recursive process in making judgments on their conception of the context. Especially, having students assess their own writing process through the PS is vital for the following reasons:

- First, the PS allows students an opportunity to observe and reflect on their own approach, drawing attention to important steps to be overlooked (Airasian, 1996).

- Second, the PS allows opportunities for students to mentally rehearse the strategy steps that become more sophisticated as they become critical writers, and they accommodate their style to specific text structures and purposes of writing.

- Third, the PS makes teachers' expectations very clear.

- Next, the PS provides students with more informative feedback about their strengths and areas in need of improvement.

- Then, in giving students control over the initiation of feedback, the PS is a valuable way of increasing the element of autonomy in the learning of writing (Isaacson, 1996).

- Finally, the PS supports the development of skills, understanding, and good thinking (Isaacson, 1996).

As mentioned above and confirmed by many researchers (e.g., Airasian, 1996; Beach, 1989; Booth & Gregory, 1987; Callahan, 2001; Clanchy & Ballard, 1992; Connor, 1987; Creswell, 2000; Goodrich-Andrade, 2000; Hughes & Bailey, 2002; Isaacson, 1996; Popham, 2000; and Popham, 2001), when teachers help students develop an awareness of these items mentioned, students can be considerably effective at monitoring and judging their own written products. Consequently, when students are involved in their own assessment through the PS, they have a very clear idea of how a paragraph is written in a well-established form. Thus, the use of the PS will be able to support and enhance students' effectiveness on the syntactic fluency and syntactic maturity in their writing.

In line with these researchers, in this study, we gave the students in the experimental group guidance about the constructions such as sentences, clauses, phrases, and embeddings used in writing compositions. At the next stage, we distributed the PS to these students to self-assess by analyzing their own compositions. At the beginning of the treatment, we devoted two classroom hours to help students apply the PS as a self-assessment tool to become aware of their constant performance. During these hours, they went through all the criteria on the PS, regarding the assessment of *Grammar, Connectors, Punctuation, Vocabulary and Spelling, Complex Sentences,* and *Paragraphs.* All these criteria were emphasized item by item until the desired objective results were received from most of the students' writing performances. Later, these criteria were taken as a base for the students to evaluate their own compositions every week throughout the study. The criteria ranged from five, the highest score to one, the lowest (see Appendix 2).

The main purpose of helping students assess their work as a continuous process was to provide constant feedback, which helped them to become aware of the learning process and the factors that enable syntactic fluency in their own written performances (see Appendix 12). We also believed self-assessment needed to be done at regular intervals so that learners could

be given an opportunity to think about what progress they were making and what their problems were. Since the PS included the criteria emphasized in their writing textbook, it would help students become critical and persuasive writers and thinkers. As a result of this continuous assessment, students were expected to show daily difference as also confirmed by the studies of Nabors (2000) and Young (2000).

3.5.1.7 Post-Test

In order to clarify if the students in both the experimental and the control group would overcome the lack of constructions they had at the initial stage, the researcher gave the three types of pre-tests as the post-tests to these students after the eleven-week treatment. The post-test was given in three ways the same as the pre-tests 1, 2, and 3 as follows:

(1) *A Sit-Down Exam,* which required students to write composition on the same topic of the pre-test 1 under exam conditions;

(2) *An Untimed Composition,* which required students to write on one out of ten writing topics, but without classroom pressure; and

(3) *A Timed Composition,* which required students to write on a sequence of pictures in a limited time in the classroom.

The reason for these types of compositions is to determine whether or not the students could cope with their weaknesses they had at the beginning of the treatment. The post-test was also designed in the view of knowledge, application, comprehension, and evaluation levels concerning the constructions they lacked in their compositions.

3.6 Data Analysis

3.6.1 Procedure Before the Analysis

The data for this study came from two different sources. The first one is the results of compositions, which were the requirements of the three pre-tests and post-tests given to the experimental and the control group. The results of the pre-tests were held unevaluated until the end of the spring term, which was also the end of the treatment when the students were given the post-tests.

Before evaluating the pre- and the post-tests, the following precautions were taken: first, students' pre-tests and post-tests were coded by two experienced writing instructors and the researcher. Second, these tests were mixed together for the raters to score. The three raters scored each composition without knowing whether it was written at the beginning or the end of the treatment. Third, after all the papers had been blind-scored in this situation, the hidden codes were consulted. Then the papers were resorted into pre-tests and post-tests compositions, and finally, the results were compared in order to see whether or not students demonstrated any discrepancy in their writing. An inter-rater reliability coefficient of .89 was obtained, and for any disagreement, consensus was reached until the three raters came to 100% agreement.

3.6.2 Instruments Utilized in the Study

In the analysis of the written compositions of the students, both Hunt's T-Unit and the Concordance 3.0 Text Analysis Program were used in order to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data. The rationale behind using Hunt's T-Unit was that data needed to be

elicited, and Hunt described T-Unit as "one main clause plus whatever subordinate clauses happen to be attached to or embedded within it" (Connor, 2000, p. 104). To Hunt's claim, the T-Unit was established as a valid means of measuring syntactic fluency through written grammatical structures (cited in Laframboise, 1989). Its validity was also supported by Rousseau (1994, p. 20) as "the length of T-Units and the number and type of clauses within a T-unit appear to be the most significant features to include in scoring" (see Appendix 8 for a sample of the T-Units). In order to illustrate its significance, Hunt determined the three best indices: the average number of words per T-Unit, the average number of clauses per T-Unit, and the average number of words per clause. Therefore, in this study, these three indices were taken into consideration with the addition of the average number of words per text, the average number of error-free sentences, erroneous sentences and fragments per text.

Hunt's T-Unit is done manually by two raters considering that only Concordance 3.0 may not detect or conduct a thorough investigation of the complex composition-occurrence patterns of linguistic features in different registers coming from the writers' style in writing a composition. This view is supported by Biber (1998) that identifying *that*-clauses and *to*-clauses or *reductions* can be a tricky business, and hand–editing is necessary since these words are multiply ambiguous. It is also claimed that although a concordance checker can read students' texts and identify trouble spots, it cannot fix all errors for them. The following example indicates the ambiguity in analyzing the phrases or clauses (Biber et al., 1998, p.71) only by computer program:

E.g. a. I hope <u>that I can</u> go.

   b. I hope to go.

In this example, concordancing program shows that the actual use of these two structures is quite different. Therefore, evaluative decisions concerning semantics and logic

have to be made by also human writers (Barth, 1988; and Diaute, 1985). On the other hand,

the rationale behind using Concordance 3.0 Text Analysis Program is given by Biber (1998)

as follows:

> ......computer programs make it possible to identify and analyze
>
> complex patterns of language use, allowing the storage and analysis of
>
> a larger database of natural language than could be dealt with by hand.
>
> Furthermore, computers provide consistent, reliable analyses—they do
>
> not change their mind or become tired during an analysis. Computers
>
> can also be used interactively, allowing the human analyst to make
>
> difficult linguistic judgments while the computer takes care of record-
>
> keeping. Finally, it is important to note that it counts each individual
>
> nominalization and writes out concordance listings for each of them,
>
> at the same time that it calculates an overall count for all
>
> nominalizations ..... it is therefore easy to further investigate each
>
> type ..... in its context. (pp. 4 -5 and 60)

The second source of data is the results of analytic scoring of the PS the students did

during the treatment. SPSS was used to see if there would be any statistical significance

between the pre- and the post- evaluations of the writing samples assessed by the students in

the experimental group.

By this evaluation, it was expected that Hypothesis 3 would be supported in the

improvement of students' writing skills. As a consequence of these analyses, the data

collected from these instruments were analyzed and presented in the form of graphs and tables

in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The major purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of the SC exercises to EFL students at the intermediate level of a one-year program. It is hypothesized that (1) the manipulation of the SC technique in which the clustered-sentences are combined accelerates students' syntactic fluency in their writing skills, (2) combining groups of simple clustered-sentences into a meaningful complex sentence enhances students' syntactic maturity in writing a composition, (3) the experimental treatment will enhance the students' overall writing quality in writing a composition, (4) and the students with the abilities they have gained through the SC technique will be able to demonstrate superiority at a statistically significant level over the control group.

This chapter aims at presenting the analysis of the data in five sections:

(1)   The analysis and discussion of students' interview carried out with the students in the experimental and the control group,

(2)   The analysis and discussion of students' field notes given to these groups,

(3)   The analysis and discussion of students' diaries taken from the both groups,

(4)   The analysis of the written samples as pre-test and post-test for the both groups, and

(5)   The analysis of the Progress Sheet results given only to the experimental

group to evaluate their own progress during the treatment.

All statistical analyses have been done with the utilization of Concordance 3.0, a Text Analysis Program, Hunt's T-Unit, and statistical software called Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows, Release 6.0 on an IBM compatible computer in close consultation with a statistician.

4.2 Results of the Students' Interview

The students in the preparatory classes of the ELT Department (84 students in four classes) were interviewed on their background knowledge concerning writing at the beginning of their education. The data collected from the students' interview were analyzed (1) to obtain an idea about students' linguistic and educational backgrounds, experiences, and their attitudes towards writing courses, and (2) to see what they thought about writing courses of their previous education and future expectation.

During the interview, the researcher asked the following questions:

1. *Have you ever had writing courses in English in your previous education?*

2. *If so, what kind of writing course did you have?*

3. *If yes, was the writing course a separate one or integrated in your course book?*

4. *If not, what is your opinion of a writing course? and*

5. *What are your expectations for the writing course to be given here?*

The large number of specific individual problems seemed to emerge from the tribulations encountered in the process of writing. Most of the students expressed their thoughts about writing courses of their previous education in their NL, Turkish, stating that, *"I did not have any writing lessons in my previous education". " We had a course book and our teacher followed this book, but we generally did grammar". " Sometimes our teacher gave us a topic and asked us to write a paragraph in five minutes". "Writing was usually at the end of the lesson, but they did not teach us how to write a paragraph. So, I have no idea about a writing course".* The answers of these questions were recorded during the interview with another instructor. The transcripts of the interviews were read and examined in search of themes related to the process writing discourse. Table 4.1 displays the percentage of the statements uttered during the interview held with the students on writing courses in their previous English Language (EL) education.

Table 4.1. Results of the students' interview

Item	Answers of questions given by the students	f	%
1	We took writing course in our previous education	8	9.54
2	We were given a topic to write a paragraph, but not shown how to do	20	23.80
3	We did not take any writing course	56	66.66

n=84

As indicated in Table 4.1 above, most students (90.46 %) said they had not taken any writing course in their previous EL education, but from time to time their teacher asked them to write a paragraph, usually in the end of lesson (see Item 1 and 2 above). Nevertheless, these students constituting majority of all were not given any instructions on how to write a paragraph or a composition in detail. The percentage of the students who said *"we did not take writing course but sometimes we were asked to write a paragraph"* is 23.80 % while it is 9.54 % for those who had writing courses in their previous EL education.

These observations are particularly helpful in learning about students' backgrounds on writing. The findings of this interview bring us to the conclusion that majority of the students had no writing courses in their previous EL education or they had no idea about what a writing course in English was, and how it was carried out by a language teacher. These findings seem to support the necessity of helping students enhance their writing skills through the SC technique. In this way, these students can be provided with knowledge on writing compositions. Moreover, they start producing more various and matured sentences in their written products to convey their message to their readers in a more fluent way.

4.3   Results of the Students' Field Samples

Another set of data, obtained from the 84 students in the preparatory classes, were the students' field samples used as a source of additional information on writing. In these samples, all the students were asked to write whatever they thought on writing any text. It was written either in the students' native language (Turkish) or in English so that they could clearly express their weaknesses and difficulties they had while writing. These samples were observed mostly to be written in English and were analyzed (1) to elicit what constructions in their compositions they could include or exclude, and (2) to identify what complications they had during the writing process. Therefore, by the help of these samples, the researcher would get information from their notes concerning what sorts of weaknesses such as grammatical usage, vocabulary, and constructions (sentences, clauses, and phrases) they had in their writing. Most of the students wrote,

"I can not write sentences easily in a composition."

"My sentences are usually very simple".

"I do not know if my sentences are correct or not".

"I hope I will learn everything about writing here".

The majority of the students had difficulties in writing compositions and their weaknesses were on how to write compositions in a more mature way. Table 4.2 below indicates the percentage of the students who had difficulties with writing a composition.

Table 4.2. Results of the students' field samples

Item	Sentences written by the students in four prep. classes	f	%
1	I cannot write sentences easily in a composition.	28	33.3
2	I usually write very simple sentences in my composition.	39	46.4
3	I do not know how to write a good composition.	14	16.6
4	I hope I will learn about writing in this department.	3	3.5

n=84

As illustrated in Table 4.2, almost half of the students (46 %) stated that they wrote simple sentences while writing a composition. Twenty-eight students, that are 33.3% of all, explained that they could not produce a composition easily when they were asked to write any text. Fourteen students, 16.6%, said that they were not aware of writing a good composition, which referred to the syntactic fluency and maturity in a composition. Only 3 out of 84 students, that is 3.5%, stated they hoped to learn necessary information to be able to write a composition in the ELT department. The findings of the students' field samples indicated that majority of the students, 96.3% of all, had some weaknesses in writing composition, especially, using various structures such as grammatical usage, vocabulary, constructions (sentences, clauses, and phrases), and mechanics in writing compositions.

Analyzing the writing section of the Proficiency Test administered by the ELT department at the beginning of the academic year, the researcher has also found the correlation between what kind of constructions the students lacked in the writing section of their exam papers and how they wrote down their thoughts in writing. As a result, the findings in the students' field samples (see Table 4.2) also support our hypotheses that students should be thought writing skills through the SC technique to purify their syntactic fluency and increase syntactic maturity in their writing.

4.4 Results of Students' Diaries

The students in both experimental and the control group were asked to keep diaries about their writing experiences in the course of the treatment. They were also required to write in English. The purpose was to determine their affective concerns in terms of their feelings and attitude toward writing as well as how much improvement had been made from the initial to the final stages. Thus, the data obtained from students' diaries were used to determine what specific skills they had acquired.

It was observed that the students in both experimental and the control group started keeping diaries with simple and short sentences in the beginning. However, towards the middle of the term, with the application of the SC exercises, the students in the experimental group started writing longer and more complex sentences. The following two excerpts from one student's diary of the experimental group illustrate how students began their diaries in the beginning (E Time 1) and progressed in complexity by the middle of the treatment (E Time 2)

(E Time 1) Today, we had a writing lesson. At first, we did some exercises from our book. Our teacher wanted some sentences to us. I did not like this. Because, we didn't have a writing lesson at high school. And I wondered. I asked myself "What will I do?", "Will I achieve this lesson?" But...

(E Time 2) Today has been very tiring. First, we learnt what an irrelevant sentence is and how to recognize it in the paragraph. Then what happens if there is an irrelevant sentence? I began seeing my mistakes about getting low grades in the exam. I think this is because we are not sure about the unity in a paragraph.

The following two excerpts from one student's diary of the control group, for example, can give an idea how students began their diaries in the beginning (C Time 1) and progressed in writing by the middle of the treatment (C Time 2):

(C Time 1) Hello, my diary,

Today, we met with our writing teacher. We did some exercises. We learned a new subject. It is chronological order. Time sequence is important for a paragraph. I did not do this. Because I did not know...

(C Time 2) Today, I finished all my homework. First I wrote four paragraphs about different topics. Our teacher checked our homework. She wanted us look at them. After a tiring day, I went to the dormitory and I met my friends at a restaurant for lunch. Then...(see Appendix 9 for further examples of both groups).

As seen in the examples, students in both groups have different usage of language. That is, while the control group uses several short and simple sentences even in their diaries, the experimental group uses more complex sentences with the help of the combination of short sentences. Therefore, these findings in students' diaries also support our hypotheses that the SC technique would enhance their writing skills.

4.5 Results of Pre-test and Post-test

In order to find out if there was any statistically significant difference between the experimental and the control group, the writing test designed by the researcher was given as Pre-test and Post-test in three ways: Pre-test 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), Pre-test 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and Pre-test 3 (*Timed Composition*), and correspondingly, Post-test 1, 2, and 3 (see Section 3.5.1.5 and Section 3.5.1.7 in Chapter 3).

The results were analyzed in the SPSS statistical program using both Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed Rank Test and Mann-Whitney U-Wilcoxon Rank Sum Writing Test. The former was used to analyze Intra-group data, for example, the Pre- and Post-test of the experimental group, whereas the latter to analyze the Inter-group data obtained from the

experimental and the control group. Figure 4.1 presents explanation to assist the reader in the subsequent discussion:

	Control Group (Ci)		Experimental Group (Ei)	
Pre-test 1	C_1	⟷	E_1	
Pre-test 2	C_2	⟷	E_2	
Pre-test 3	C_3	⟷	E_3	
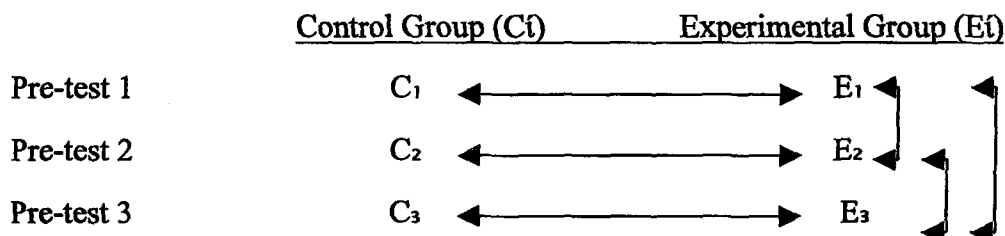
Figure 4.1 The relationship between Pre-test 1, 2, and 3 in the experimental and control group

In Figure 4.1 above, Ci refers to Pre-test control group and Ei refers to a corresponding the experimental group where index $i=1, 2, 3$ denotes Pre-test 1, 2 and 3 respectively. The two-tailed arrows refer to possible statistical associations between groups. It is noteworthy from the figure that two types of statistical associations have been sought: *Inter-group* (shown horizontally) for possible statistical significance between separate groups; and *Intra-group* (shown vertically) for possible statistical significance between the same group.

Similarly, data obtained from the experimental and control group at Post-test stage were analyzed. As shown in Figure 4.2 below, three horizontal and three vertical associations were sought:

	Control Group (Ci)		Experimental Group (Ei)
Post-test 1	C_1'	⟷	E_1'
Post-test 2	C_2'	⟷	E_2'
Post-test 3	C_3'	⟷	E_3'
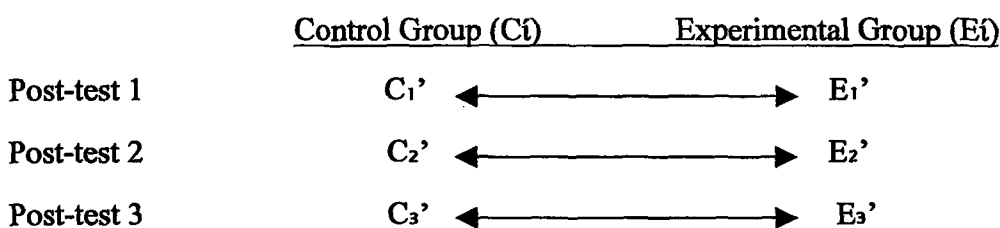
Figure 4.2 The relationship between Post-test 1, 2, and 3 in the experimental and control group

Finally, intra-group associations were sought within the experimental group during

Pre-test and Post-test phases since these particular associations were of critical importance in

confirming our hypotheses. This is shown as follows:

$E_1 \longleftrightarrow E_1'$

$E_2 \longleftrightarrow E_2'$

$E_3 \longleftrightarrow E_3'$
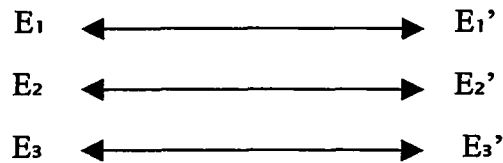
Figure 4.3 The relationship between Pre-test and Post-test phases in the experimental group

The data, comprised of the writing samples elicited from the students in the

experimental and the control group at Pre-test 1, 2, and 3, and Post-test 1, 2, and 3, were also

analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative measurement, namely the overall

writing quality, was also employed, and the three raters (2 experienced writing teachers and

the researcher) used the analytic instrument of Jacobs (1981) to determine whether students

would convey their thoughts in a more linguistically matured manner in five criteria: content,

organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics.

Quantitative measurements were made based upon the syntactic fluency and the

syntactic maturity: both Concordance 3.0, a Text Analysis Program, and Hunt's T-Unit were

used to determine whether there would be any statistically significant discrepancies between

the experimental and the control group. Concordance 3.0 involved entering each composition

into a computer file in its original format with no editing or doing other mechanical

corrections. This program analyzed each composition on a number of language variables

such as word counts in an alphabetical order and word counts given phrases and sentences in

context (see Appendix 18 for more details). Compositions were tagged word by word for

their linguistic features (e.g., noun, adjective, and adverb). In addition, the program

performed calculations of all type/token ratios. That is, Concordance 3.0 enables us to

describe what is present in the composition; but it makes no subjective judgments as to what is appropriate or inappropriate.

The primary reason for utilizing Hunt's T-Unit was to allow the comparison of changes among students regardless of the length of their compositions. Thus, it provided some measure of standardization. To Hunt, a student growth in syntactic maturity is best measured by the growth of length, or number of words per T-Unit measurement, which incorporates various types of complex subordination or embedding that would not necessarily be reflected in a simple sentence (cited in Voss, 1981). The other reason for T-unit was that it was easily identifiable (low-level inference categories) and provided an objective means of assessing sentence-level complexity in written texts. T-Unit was particularly appropriate because it did not depend on complete sentences for accurate measure of grammatical units. In other words, it was a measurement of sentence base not all the composition. The other reason to use T-Unit was that it was well exemplified and described for a rater to achieve a high degree of accuracy and conformations with other raters, which helped for the inter-rater reliability. Ekmekci (1990), Larsen-Freeman and Strom (1977) and Sotillo (2000), in their study, also suggested two objective measures, "the average length of the T-Unit and the total number of error-free T-Units per composition" might serve as an "index of development" (Larsen-Freeman & Strom cited in Ishikawa, 1995, p.65). It was believed that such a precise index would cover the full range of language acquisition, from the lowest to the highest. Therefore, both analyses were completed for the purpose of this study. While doing the text analysis quantitatively, the focus was on the following:

Syntactic

Fluency	*Maturity*
• The average number of T-units, clauses and words per text • The average number of words per T-units • The average number of words per clauses	• The average number of clauses per text • The average number of reduced clauses per text • The average number of phrases per text • The average number of error-free sentences per text • The average number of erroneous sentences, and fragments • The average number of transitions and conjunctions per text

Figure 4.4 Differences of Syntactic Fluency and Syntactic Maturity

4.5.1 Results of the Overall Writing Quality

The nature of overall writing quality requires compositions to incorporate grammatical correctness, sentence variety, logical organization, appropriate vocabulary, and cohesion. In other words, students are expected to become aware of these criteria so that their use leads to more mature sentences. In order to assess the same level of this maturity, the three raters used analytic instrument of Jacobs (1981) whose criteria included *content, organization, vocabulary, language use,* and *mechanics.* These raters--one of whom had a Ph.D. on writing and the other two had completed their M.A on writing--had each been teaching writing for over ten years. One of the raters was a writing teacher for ninth grade American students.

First of all, these raters were instructed about the purpose of the study, and then given the three types of compositions (Sit-down, Untimed, and Timed) under Pre-test and post-test

conditions. They were also supplied with the analytic scoring sheets with five mentioned criteria (see Appendix 15 for further details). The total scores included in the criteria were distributed as follows:

Content   15 – 7   (Excellent to very poor)

Organization   10 – 3   (Excellent to very poor)

Vocabulary   10 – 3   (Excellent to very poor)

Language Use   12 – 3   (Excellent to very poor)

Mechanics   3 - 0   (Excellent to very poor)

The raters judged all mentioned three types of compositions in the pre-tests and post-tests (252 papers including *Sit-down Exam,*--C_1 E_1 C_1' E_1', *Untimed Composition*-- C_2 E_2 C_2' E_2', and *Timed Composition*-- C_3 E_3 C_3' E_3') independently and individually considering all the criteria above. The scores were recorded on a separate paper and recorded by the researcher. As the final stage, all the scores were checked, and if there was any significant difference between the two scores, the raters discussed it until a consensus was reached. The raters reported that syntactic gains by SC exercises correlated with improved writing quality.

Table 4.3 presents correlation revealing a significance of all compositions scored by the three raters in the experimental and the control group.

Table 4.3 Correlation of Analytic Scores of Compositions of the Experimental and the Control Group

Score	N	Rater 1		Rater 2		Rater 3		r
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Content	252	11.28	1.52	11.39	1.56	11.31	1.66	.837
Organization	252	7.03	0.68	7.03	0.50 ·	7.05	0.86	.980
Vocabulary	252	6.80	1.07	6.71	1.08	6.47	0.90	.820
Language Use	252	8.24	1.29	8.23	1.30	8.15	1.30	.661
Mechanics	252	1.51	0.50	2.47	0.56	2.63	0.49	.490

N=252 Compositions in three pre-tests and post-tests

As demonstrated in Table 4.3, three of the raters have scored all the compositions (252 of three pre-tests and post-tests) independently and individually. The results of the scores obtained by the three moderators seem to be very similar, which indicates the objectivity of the scores in five criteria (content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics).

4.5.2   Results of the Syntactic Fluency

Syntactic fluency means production of languages including the number of sentences, clauses, and words in any text as well as the length of sentences in terms of T-Units, which is an independent clause and any dependent clauses attached or embedded in it (see Appendix 8). In this study, for the syntactic fluency, attention is only directed to the student's skill in translating thoughts into words since students are required to follow rules, conform to formulae, and achieve technical mastery of formal modes in a physical form of a paragraph. We believe that the physical analysis of paragraphs shows some predictable differences between the experimental and the control group. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, total number of sentences, and words per text were used in judging the students' progress, and comparing their performance with their previous fluency. Poor word choice, misspellings, and faulty punctuation are excluded within the syntactic fluency, but included within the syntactic maturity (see Section 4.5.3.6). In the analysis of fluency, clauses are considered to be groups of words that include both a subject and a verb, including dependent and independent clauses.

The conclusion drawn from the data obtained through the students' written products has indicated that short sentences in their compositions appear to be the most common type in the early stages of writing composition. This means that students usually express their thoughts within short and simple sentences. We believe this style of writing can be overcome

by introducing the SC technique in writing courses. Since this technique enhances writing skills to elaborate linguistic patterns, students can start writing long and complex sentences. Therefore, we gave a training on the SC technique to the students in the experimental group. As a consequence of applying this technique, first of all, the students' compositions were analyzed in terms of the average number of sentences, clauses, and words per text. And then all sentences were taken into consideration within T-Unit aspect, which means the smallest unit of language that can stand alone grammatically. Finally, the average number of words per T-Unit, and the average number of words per clause were analyzed in the whole text. By the analysis it was believed that there would be discrepancy in the use of linguistic features in the written language before and after the treatment. This means that students would use the SC technique and produce long and complex sentences since they learnt how to combine several simple and short sentences into matured ones. In other words, their number of sentences per text would decrease while their production of words would increase per T-Unit. Since students would use dependent and independent sentences in the same T-Unit, their average number of clauses per text would also decrease. In other words, as it is hypothesized in this study, when students learnt how to apply the SC technique, their language production would appear more economical since they would delete unnecessary repetitive words in their sentences (see the sentences produced in the post-test by students from both groups in Section 4.5.3.3.2).

Table 4.4 presents the nonparametric results of the average number of sentences, clauses and words performed by the experimental and the control group in Pre-test 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), Pre-test 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and Pre-test 3 (*Timed Composition*), and Post-test 1, 2, and 3 respectively.

Table 4.4 The average number of sentences, clauses and words per text

GROUPS		Sentences		Clauses		Words	
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
1 **Sit-down** **Exam** **(Exp. Gr.)**	Mean S.D Median Range	11.19 2.36 11.00 11	14.19 4.43 17.00 19^f	21.76 6.24 21.00 25	27.00 8.03 27.00 32^f	161.90 36.27 165.00 153	196.38 64.97 189.00 216^{ff}
1 **Sit-down** **Exam** **(Cont. Gr.)**	Mean S.D Median Range	12.71 3.55 13.00 12	17.90 4.85 19.00 22^{fff}	22.38 5.63 22.00 22	35.90 9.18 37.00 33	180.90 44.46 182.00 162^{**}	288.24 68.04 294.00 249
TEST 2							
Untimed **Composition** **(Exp. Gr.)**	Mean S.D Median Range	12.62 3.26 12.00 13	15.09 3.73 17.00 19	23.10 6.91 24.00 28	28.79 8.61 28.00 33	179.57 37.55 196.00 168	205.14 67.86 189.00 $216^{\#\#\#}$
Untimed **Composition** **(Cont. Gr.)**	Mean S.D Median Range	11.62 3.49 12.00 16	17.90 4.85 19.00 $22^{\#\#\#}$	21.00 5.68 21.00 24	35.90 9.18 37.00 $33^{\#\#\#}$	169.48 47.25 167.00 221	285.24 68.04 294.00 249
TEST 3							
Timed **Composition** **(Exp. Gr.)**	Mean S.D Median Range	12.28 0.84 13 16	14.19 0.74 13 16	21.61 4.08 16 31	31.85 7.45 16 32ε	134.52 28.42 85 186	192.23 23.81 109 $224\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon$
Timed **Composition** **(Cont. Gr.)**	Mean S.D Median Range	14.33 0.76 13 16	17.95 1.59 15 $21¤¤¤$	21.47 4 16 31	34.71 7.65 20 $45¤¤¤$	134.90 27.50 94 185	217.09 19.60 180 $252¤¤¤$

f p<0.05, *ff* p<0.01, *fff* p<0.001   Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) -Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)
* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001   Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)
# p<0.05, ## p<0.01, ### p<0.001   Between Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)
ε p<0.05, εε p<0.01, εεε p<0.001   Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)
¤ p<0.05, ¤¤ p<0.01, ¤¤¤ p<0.001   Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)

As displayed in Table 4.4, the average number of sentences, clauses, and words produced per text seem to be parallel in the composition produced by both experimental and the control group in Pre-test 1. That is, the average number of sentences is 11.19 in the experimental group, and 12.71 in the control group. Similarly, the average number of clauses in the experimental group is 21.76; it is 22.38 in the control group. Upon the analysis of the text length; however, we see a considerable difference between these two groups. In other words, while the average number of words per text is 180.90 in the control group, it is 161.90 in the experimental group in Pre-test 1.

Considering Pre-test 2 results, the average number of sentences is seen 12.62 in the experimental group, and 11.62 in the control group. With a slight increase, the average number of clauses in the experimental group (23.10) is higher than of the control group (21.00). When the text length is observed, however, there is a different tendency between the experimental group (179.57) and the control (169.48) in the production of words per text.

Based upon the analysis of Pre-test 3, which includes a sequence of pictures illustrating the daily activities of a family, the average number of sentences is 12.28 in the experimental group and 14.33 in the control group. The average number of clauses in the experimental group (21.61) displays similarity in the control group (21.47). In other words, there occurs no difference in Pre-test 3 results (see Table 4.4). Due to the nature of the Pre-test 3, almost the same amount of words per text was produced by both the experimental group (134.52) and the control group (134.90).

When Post-test results are taken into consideration in terms of the average number of sentences, on the other hand, the experimental group has revealed an increase from 11.19 to 14.19 whereas the control group has performed from 12.71 to 17.90 in Post-test 1, which is found as a significant difference. Similarly, the experimental group has increased their number of sentences per text from 12.62 to 15.09 while the control group has increased from 11.62 to 17.90 in Post-test 2. Figure 4.5 presents the results of the average number of sentences per text in both the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
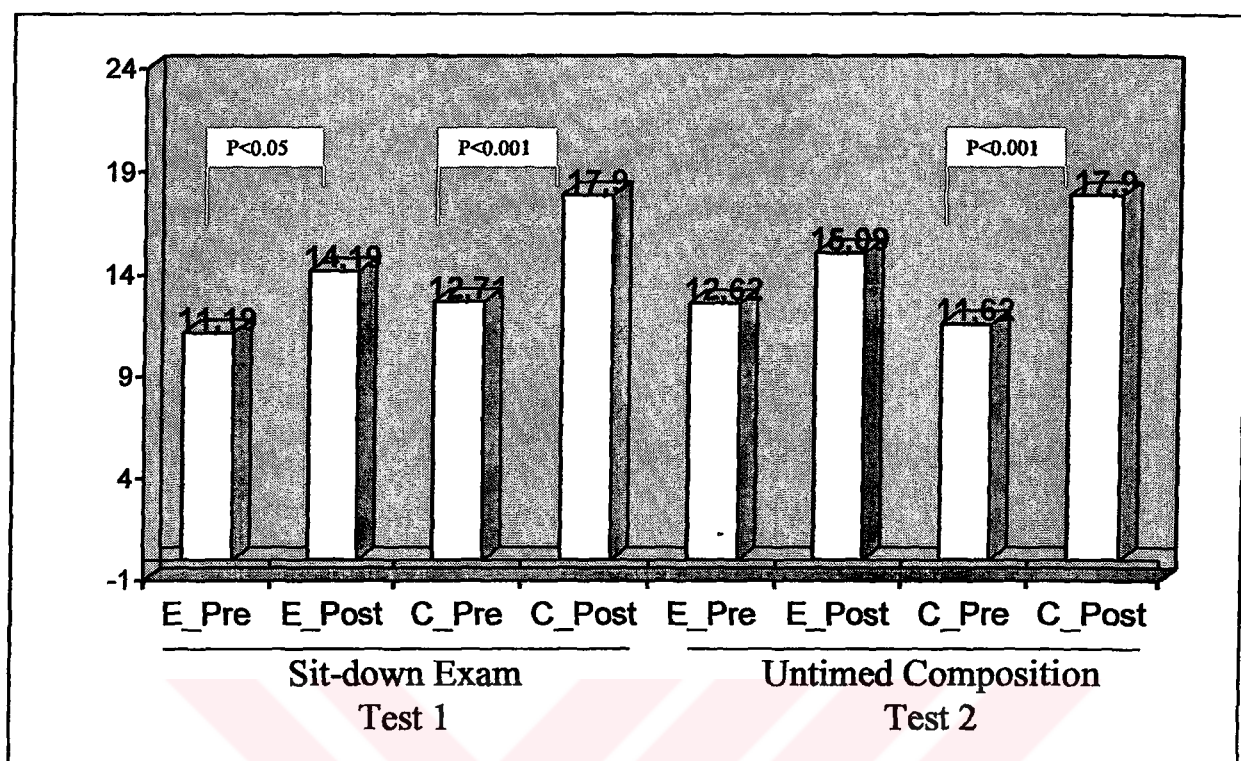
Figure 4.5 Sentences performed by the experimental and the control group in Test 1 and 2

As it can be observed in Figure 4.5, both groups have performed an improvement in expressing their ideas in composition. The control group, however, seems to have revealed more statistically significant achievement in producing sentences per text than the experimental group. This significant difference can be explained by the fact that the control group produced more simple and short sentences per text than the experimental group who applied the SC technique to reduce short sentences into long ones in their writing. As a result, the experimental group produced fewer sentences per text than the control group (see the sentences produced in the post-test by students in both groups in Section 4.5.3.3.2). Therefore, the statistically significant difference for the control group supports our Hypothesis 2 that posits to increase the syntactic maturity in writing. For Pre-test 3, there occurs a similar significant difference between two groups. While the experimental group has increased their number of sentences from 12.28 to 14.19, the control group has increased to 17.95, which is considered as a high improvement at a significant level. Figure 4.6 demonstrates the results

of the average number of sentences per text in both the Sit-down Exam and the Timed
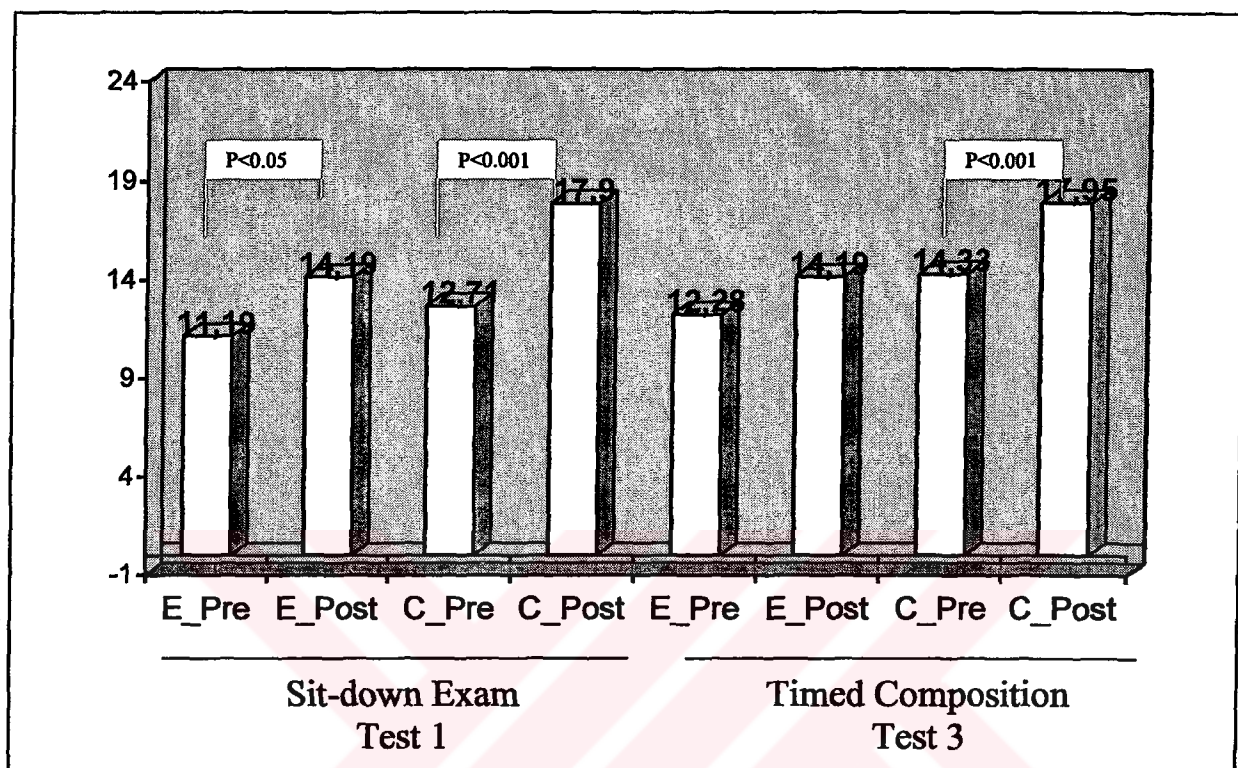
Composition.

Figure 4.6 Sentences performed by the experimental and the control group in tests 1 and 3

As displayed in Figure 4.6, the average number of sentences in the Timed

Composition is 12.28 in the experimental group, and 14.33 in the control group in Pre-test 3.

This indicates that, after the treatment, while the experimental group seems to have managed

to express their ideas in fewer complex sentences (14.19), the control group has performed a

statistically significant difference (17.95). This result supports our Hypothesis 1, which posits

that the SC technique helps students combine simple and short sentences into long and more

complex ones; therefore, the experimental group can be claimed to produce fewer sentences

to.express their thoughts in writing than the control group because they are trained to reduce

unnecessary words in their sentences through revision and reduction.

After analyzing the average number of sentences per text, it is necessary to determine if the average number of clauses per text demonstrates a discrepancy between the experimental and the control group since clauses are considered to illustrate the linguistic maturity. Therefore, the average number of clauses has also been analyzed in this study. As a result of these analyses in Post-tests, it has been seen that the experimental group has increased from 21.76 to 27.00 and the control group from 22.38 to 35.90 in Post-test 1; 23.10 28.79 in the experimental and from 21.10 to 35.90 in the control group in Post-test 2. For Post-test 3, similarly, the experimental group has increased the number of clauses from 21.61 to 28.85; whereas, the control group has increased them from 21.47 to 34.71, which is a striking improvement within a writing process. Figure 4.7 demonstrates the results of the average number of clauses per text in both the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
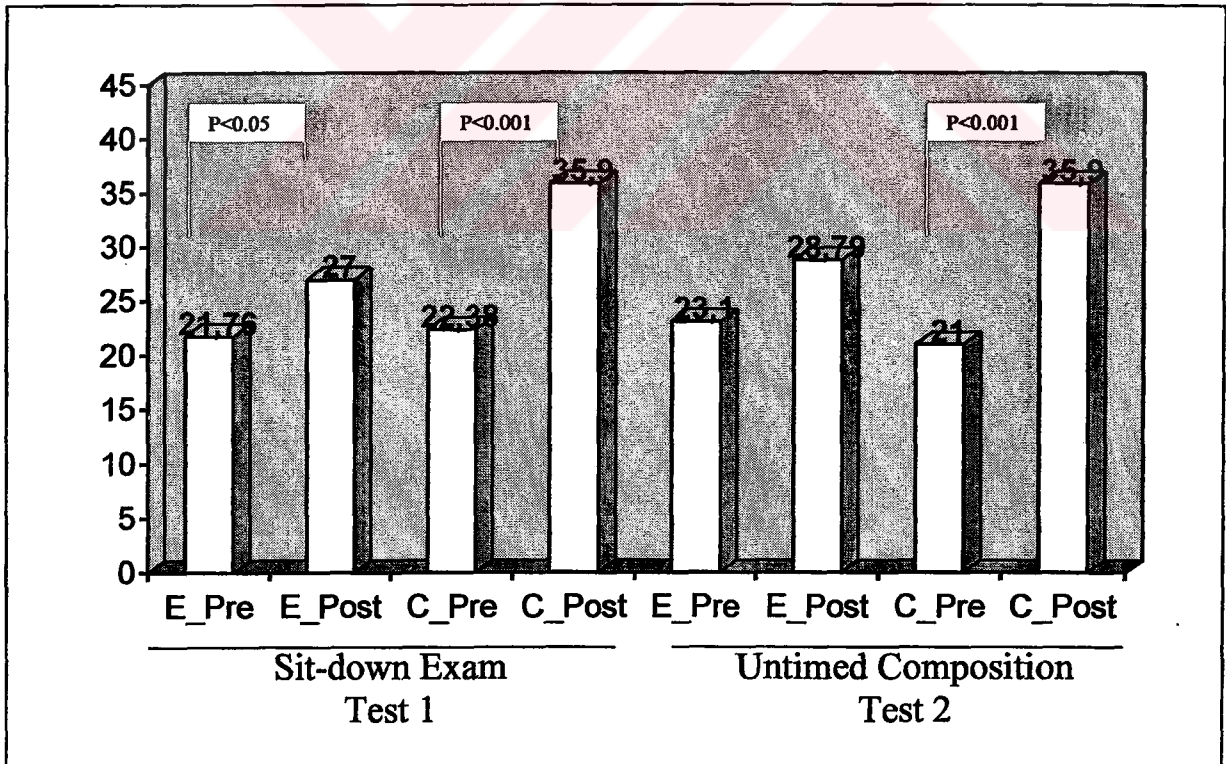
Figure 4.7 Clauses performed by the experimental and the control group

As can be observed in Figure 4.7, both groups have demonstrated a considerable increase in producing clauses. As a result, our Hypothesis 1 (see Chapter 1 Section 1.3)

cannot be supported by the obtained results since we claim that when students are trained by the SC technique the average number of clauses decreases. The reason of this claim results from the fact that students exposed to the SC technique use fewer clauses in their compositions. However, the average number of clauses performed by the control group is higher than the experimental group when compared. Consequently, these findings may lead us to conclude that the experimental group has produced fewer sentences as an indicator of applying the SC technique. Figure 4.8 demonstrates the results of the average number of clauses per text in both the Sit-down Exam and the Timed Composition.
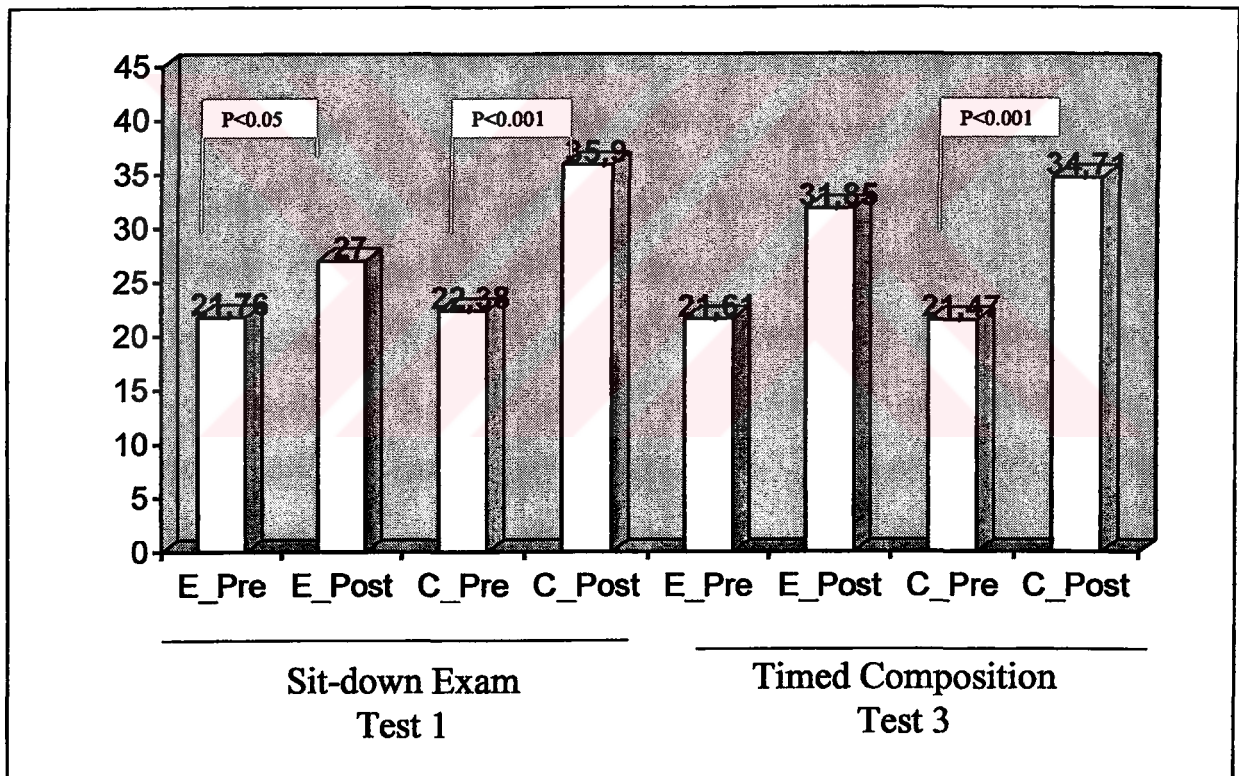
Figure 4.8 Clauses performed by the experimental and the control group

When the text length is observed, however, there is a considerable difference between the control (169.48) and the experimental group (199.57) in Pre-test 2 (see Table 4.4). From this result, it can be concluded that the experimental group has applied the SC technique and reduced their number of clauses while the control group has applied a number of sentences in

their compositions. Fewer numbers of the clauses performed by the experimental group indicate that this results from using embeddings in their sentences in compositions. As seen in Figure 4.8, SC would help students discover the range of choices within the structure of the language, and it increases their self-confidence in writing. Therefore, through this technique, students might combine a group of sentences into one sentence in a mental activity, and then create an effective paragraph in which the sentences can be structured in a certain flowing style. Figure 4.9 demonstrates the results of the average number of words per text in both the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
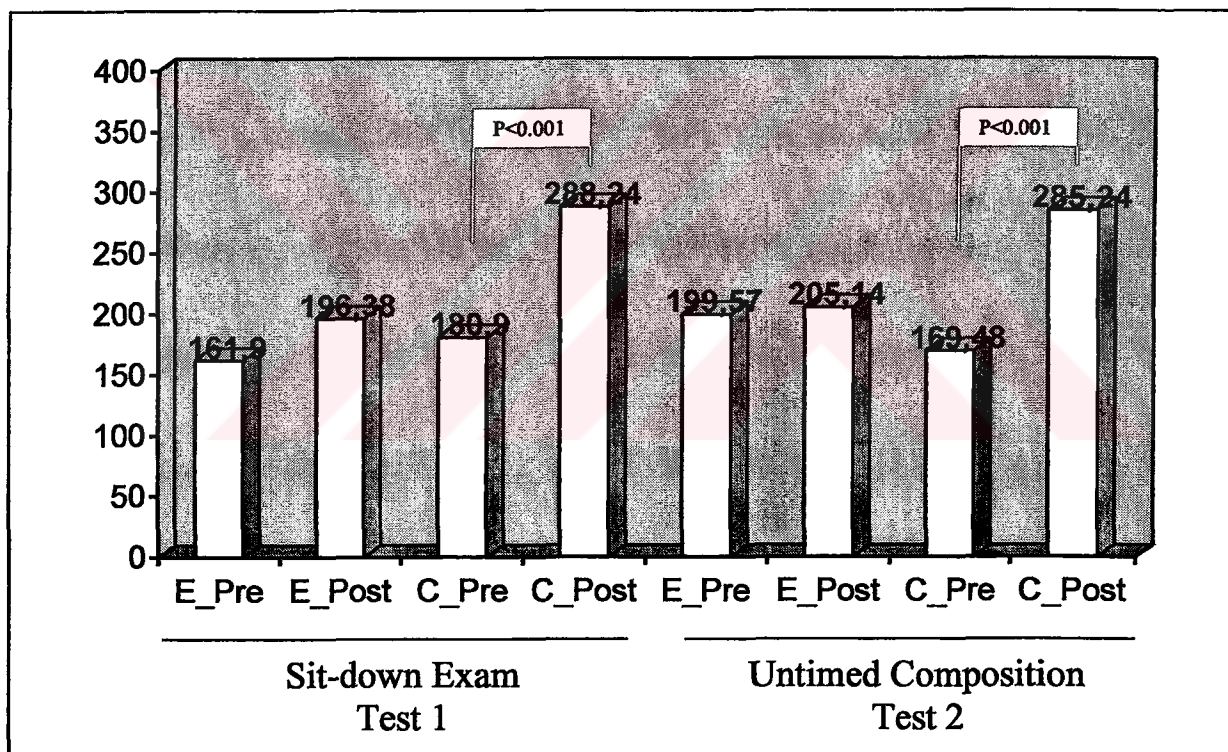
Figure 4.9 Words performed by the experimental and the control group

When considering the results of Post-tests 1 (*Sit-down Exam*) and 2 (*Untimed Composition*) of both groups in terms of the average number of words per text, there is statistically significant difference between these groups (see Figure 4.9). From this result, it can be concluded that the experimental group has applied the SC technique and reduced their number of sentences and also words per text while the control group has applied different

techniques and written a great number of sentences in generally simple forms in their compositions. For the text length, before the treatment, a considerable change has been observed in words per text for both groups (161.90 for experimental group, and 180.90 for the control group in Pre-test 1; 179.57 and 169.48 in Pre-test 2). After the treatment, on the other hand, as can be seen in Table 4.4, the average number of words has been 196.38 for experimental group, and 288.24 for the control group in Post-test 1; 205.14 and 285.24 in Post-test 2. The increase in the text length of the control group is found significantly high in comparison with the experimental group. Even though these findings are significantly different in the control group, it supports our Hypothesis 1, which emphasizes the syntactic fluency. In other words, this result demonstrates that the control group has a tendency of using more independent sentences in compound sentences while the experimental group has been familiarized with notions of utilizing more subordination in their writing. As a consequence of applying this technique, the students in the experimental group have produced sentences including more embeddings. Thus, their each T-Unit consists of more words when compared with the one in the control group (see the example given below in C_1' and E_1').

Regarding the results of Pre-test 3, before the treatment, no change has been observed in words per text for both groups (134.52 for experimental group, and 134.90 for the control group). After the treatment, on the other hand, as can be seen in Table 4.4, the average number of words has been 192.23 for the experimental group and 217.09 for the control group. Figure 4.10 summarizes the results of the average number of words per text in the Sit-down exam and the Timed Composition.
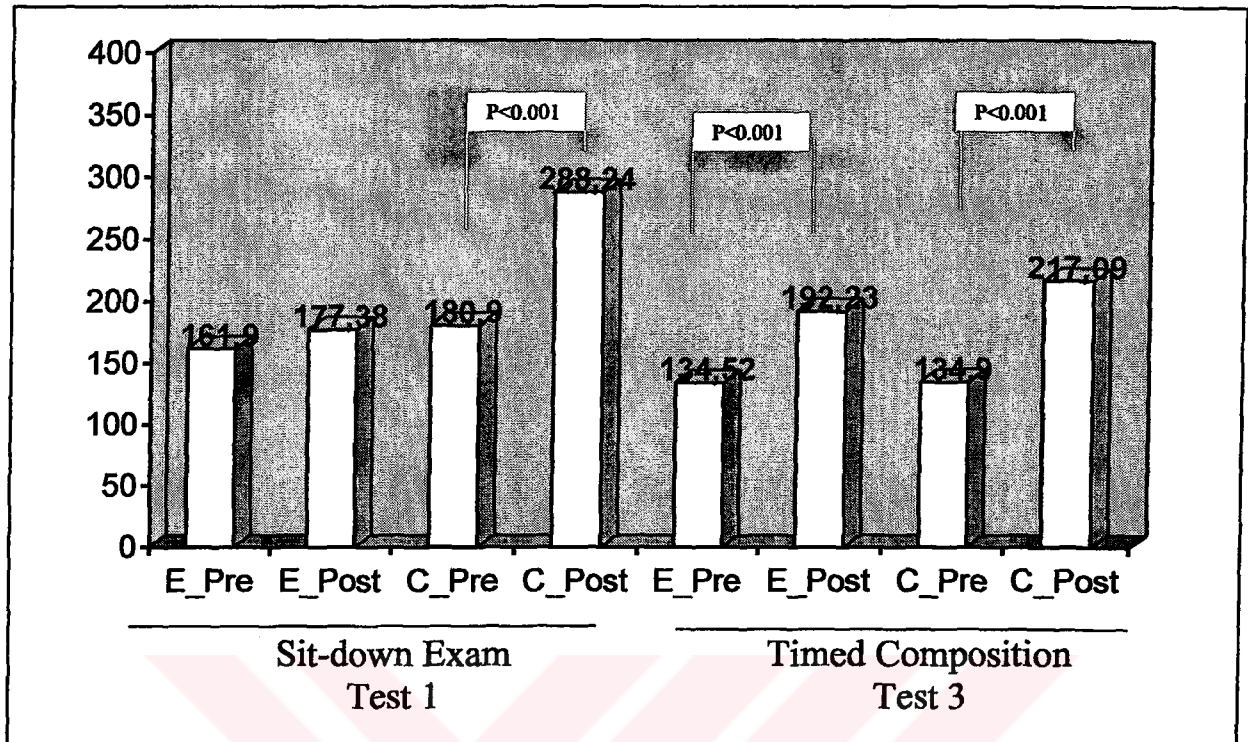
Figure 4.10 Words performed by the experimental and the control group

As indicated in Figure 4.10, both groups have increased their production of words per text in Post-test 3, demonstrating the statistically significant results. However, the decrease in the number of words the experimental group performed may lead us to conclude that this result might be an indicator of applying the SC technique. The following two paragraphs performed by the control (C_1') and the experimental group (E_1') in Post-test can be a good example for the text length and the contribution of the SC technique in reducing the number of the words per text while holding the power of the content.

(C_1') There are some ways to break a bad habit such as smoking, overeating or excess drinking. Firstly, people must begin to reduce the level of smoke or they must drink that they use. For example, if they drink a bottle of wine or smoke a packet of cigarettes in a day, they must begin to use half of them. The second way is exercise. A lot of people try this way and they take positive results. While they

are exercising, they get tired and when they have finished exercising, they don't

think about doing anything else. Another way is to go to hospital. (103 words)

(E₁') Bad habits which affect people badly can be given up in several different

processes. Actually, this varies according to the necessities of person. Firstly,

people who complain about being fat can go to doctor in order to be able to break

overeating. Unless they go to a doctor, they cannot lose weight properly. The

diet, which is made unconsciously, may cause indispensable illnesses. Then, they

can use drugs which handicap overeating. (70 words)

After analyzing the average number of sentences, clauses and words per text, we have

also analyzed the average words per T-unit, and words per clause performed by the

experimental and the control group in order to determine whether there would be a correlation

between these constituents. Table 4.5 summarizes the average words per T-unit, words per

clause performed by the experimental and the control group.

Table 4.5 The average number of words per T-Unit and clauses per text

GROUPS		Words per T-Unit		Words per Clause	
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
1 Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	11.61	15.77	7.36	9.77
	S.D	2.44	4.06	1.54	2.04
	Median	11.00	15.00	9.00	9.00
	Range	11	17*f*	9	14
1 Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	11.12	12.92	7.80	8.40
	S.D	2.33	2.71	1.33	1.76
	Median	11.00	12.00	8.00	7.00
	Range	12	12	8	8
TEST 2					
Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	12.62	16.19	8.35	11.00
	S.D	2.65	3.40	1.74	3.14
	Median	12.00	16.00	8.00	11.00
	Range	13	17#	8	11#
Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	12.32	13.90	7.92	9.90
	S.D	2.58	2.92	1.65	3.28
	Median	12.00	19.00	21.00	37.00
	Range	12	12	7	10
TEST 3					
Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	11.12	16.90	7.92	9.50
	S.D	2.48	2.72	1.35	2.28
	Median	11.00	19.00	9.00	7.00
	Range	12	12	8	8
Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	11.02	13.90	7.92	8.50
	S.D	2.42	2.72	1.35	2.28
	Median	11.00	19.00	9.00	7.00
	Range	12	12	8	8

f $p<0.05$, *ff* $p<0.01$, *fff* $p<0.001$ Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) -Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)
* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$ Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)
\# $p<0.05$, \#\# $p<0.01$, \#\#\# $p<0.001$ Between Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)

As can be observed from the results (see Table 4.5) above, the students in both groups have displayed a similarity in producing words per T-Unit and per clause in Pre-test 1, 2 and 3. After the treatment, the results of both groups in Post-tests 1, 2, and 3 have revealed an increase in the production of the words per T-Unit. This outcome is considered as a natural learning progress since these students are in an ongoing progress and the average length of T-Unit is considered as an index of development (Larsen-Freeman & Strom, 1977, p.123). We believe such an index will cover the full range of language acquisition. Thus, the students in both groups have increased their number of words per T-Unit. However, when the number of words per T-Unit in the experimental group was taken into consideration, their

formulation for words in compositions is seen at a statistically significant level whereas the control group has achieved no significant difference in words per T-Unit and per clause.

Under the light of the above-presented data, it might be claimed that there is much evidence supporting Hypothesis 1 (see Section 1.5) in the sense that students in both experimental and the control group wrote short and simple sentences before the treatment began. After the treatment, however, the students in the experimental group are observed to start producing longer sentences per text, more words per T-Unit, and more words per clause when compared to the ones in the control group. Even though there is no significant difference between these groups with respect to the average number of words per T-units at the beginning, there seems to be an increase at the end of the treatment. These findings suggest that mean T-Unit length is a good tool to measure the progress in the syntactic fluency of students' writing. In other words, increase in a T-Unit means to use more words even for a clause. Therefore, there seems to be a correlation between words per T-Unit and per clause respectively. As a result, such an increase supports our Hypothesis 1 that the SC technique enhances the syntactic fluency in writing.

4.5.3 Results of the Syntactic Maturity

As mentioned earlier, the main goal of the study is to determine whether or not the SC technique enhances students' various structures in their compositions; in other words, whether this technique helps students gain an ability to provide text with transformations providing maturity in a composition. In order to arrive at a sounder conclusion regarding the types of sentences produced by the students, we first have looked at simple and multiple sentences in both the experimental and control group's written samples, and then we have looked through the subdivisions such as clauses (*adjective, adverbial,* and *noun clauses; and reduced form of adjective, adverbial,* and *noun clauses*) and phrases (*infinitive and participial*) constituting

sentences, *transitions* and *conjunctions*, and finally *error-free sentences, erroneous sentences, and fragments* per text. The results of these findings will be analyzed in the following sections.

4.5.3.1 Analysis of Simple and Multiple Sentences

Being able to use various types of sentences, students show their language level of proficiency and also syntactic maturity in writing. For instance, they are observed to write short and simple sentences at the beginning of the treatment, which is considered as a natural process at the initial stages of learning process. However, in the later stages, they start using more complex language structures (e.g., subordinated clauses, phrases, and embeddings) to express themselves in a more effective manner. In other words, during the treatment, students learn to formulate long and complex sentences and thus they develop the consciousness to judge the syntactic features in their sentences. As a consequence of their linguistic maturity, they apply the attained knowledge in their written products. Table 4.6 displays the nonparametric results of the average number of simple and multiple sentences performed by the experimental and the control group before (Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3) and after the treatment (Post-tests 1, 2, and 3) respectively.

Table 4.6 The average number of constructions (simple and multiple sentences) per text

GROUPS		Simple Sentences		Multiple Sentences	
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
1 Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	4,48	4,24	8,10	16,14
	S.D	2,27	2,17	1,97	4,49
	Median	5,00	4,00	8,00	16,00
	Range	8	9	8	18^{fff}
1 Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	3,48	4,90	7,38	11,38
	S.D	1,94	2,88	1,99	3,02
	Median	3,00	4,00	7,00	11,00
	Range	6	8	8	11
TEST 2					
Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	4,48	4,43	8,10	15,67
	S.D	2,27	2,94	1,97	4,78
	Median	5,00	4,00	8,00	16,00
	Range	8	11	8	17$^{\#\#\#}$
Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	4,48	6,38	8,00	12,67
	S.D	2,34	2,01	4,30	3,88
	Median	4,00	6,00	7,00	12,00
	Range	8	9$^{\#\#}$	8	13
TEST 3					
Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	5,47	5,42	7,09	13,66
	S.D	2,27	3,04	1,97	4,77
	Median	,00	2	4	5
	Range	8	12	12	22$εεε$
Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	6,38	7,71	7,38	9,09
	S.D	2,01	1,76	2,01	1,97
	Median	2	5	4	4
	Range	11	11	12	12

f p<0.05, ff p<0.01, fff p<0.001   Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) -Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)

# p<0.05, ## p<0.01, ### p<0.001   Between Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)

ε p<0.05, εε p<0.01, εεε p<0.001   Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)

As observed from the figures in Table 4.6, the production of simple and multiple sentences produced by the students in both experimental and the control group for Pre-test 1 and Pre-test 2 yield quite comparable results. Regarding simple sentences, the control group has produced slightly fewer sentences (3.48) than the experimental group (4.48) in their compositions in Pre-test 1. However, in Pre-test 2, both of the groups have produced the same result (4.48) while the control group has produced more (6.38) than the experimental group (5.47) in Pre-test 3.

When we look at the analysis of the multiple sentences, we see that the experimental group has improved the utility of multiple sentences (8.10) in comparison with the control group (7.38). Similarly, in Pre-test 2 and 3, both of the groups have produced almost the

same result (8.10 for the experimental group and 8.00 for the control group in Pre-test 1 whereas it is 7.09 and 7.38 in Pre-test 2). Neither the experimental nor the control group has revealed a considerable difference in using simple sentences in Pre-test 1, 2, and 3.

Regarding the results of Post-tests 1, 2, and 3, there is a statistically significant difference between these groups. The use of the simple sentences in the control group is statistically higher in comparison with the results obtained from the experimental group. This implies that while the control group maintains the use of the same writing strategies, the experimental group has started applying the SC technique and combining short sentences into long and complex ones in their writing. This is the result of the SC exercises--a complex, recursive, and dynamic nonlinear process. As depicted in Table 4.6, due to the treatment, the number of single sentences in the production in Post-test 2 of the experimental group has decreased while this number, in fact, increased in the control group.

Figure 4.11 and Figure 4.12 present the results of simple sentences per text in the Sit-down Exam, the Untimed Composition, and Timed Composition in pre-tests and post-tests.
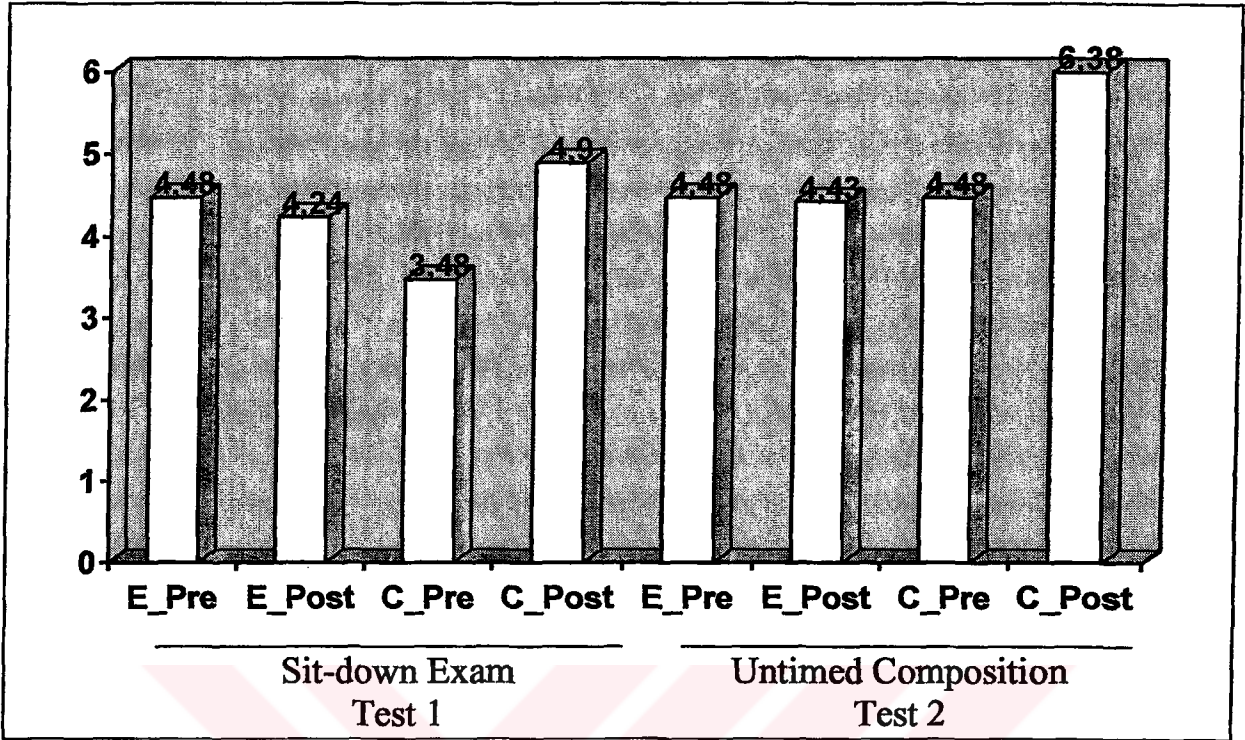
Figure 4.11 Simple sentences performed by the experimental and the control group
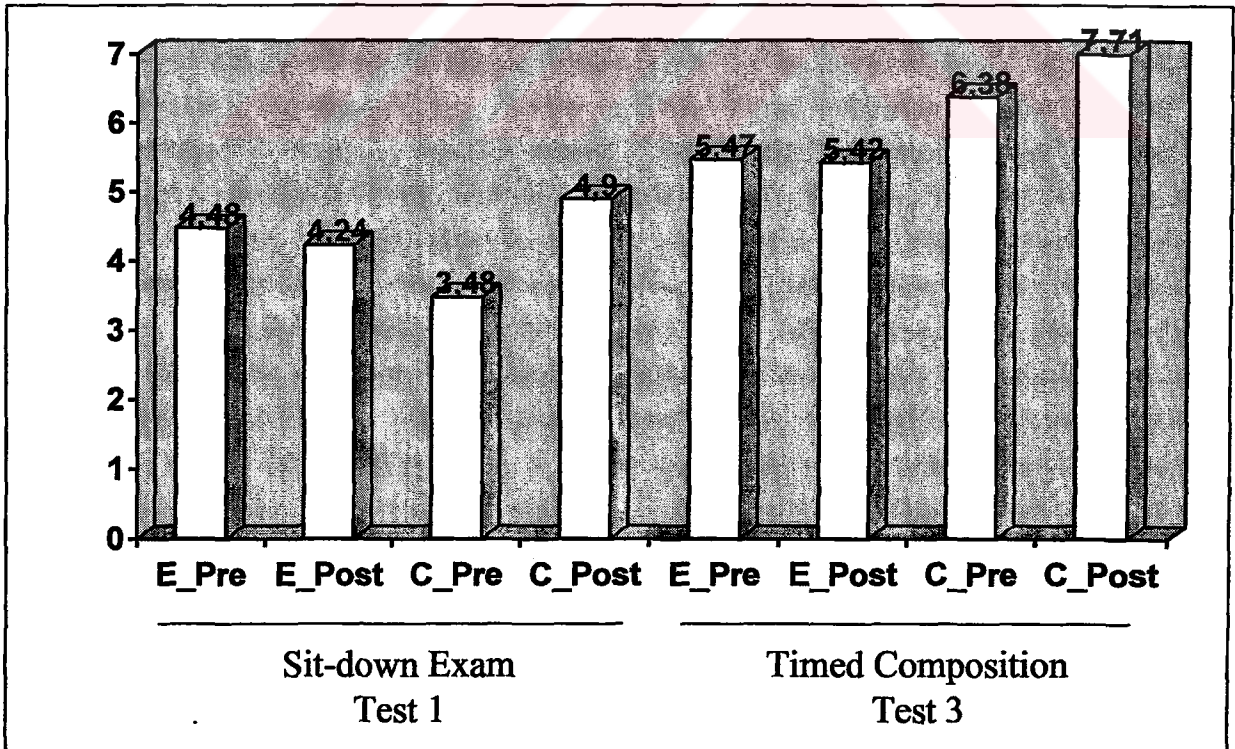
Figure 4.12 Simple sentences performed by the experimental and the control group

When we look at the analysis of multiple sentences, we see that the experimental group has improved in the utilization of multiple sentences in comparison to the control group. This indicates that students, as a result of the treatment, have learned to revise, monitor, analyze, and edit to produce a more unified and complex text. All these processes involve additions and deletions resulting in changes in syntax and sentence structure as to be explained in the section 4.5.3.2. Figures 4.13 and Figure 4.14 below present the results of multiple sentences per text in the Sit-down Exam, the Untimed Composition, and Timed Composition.
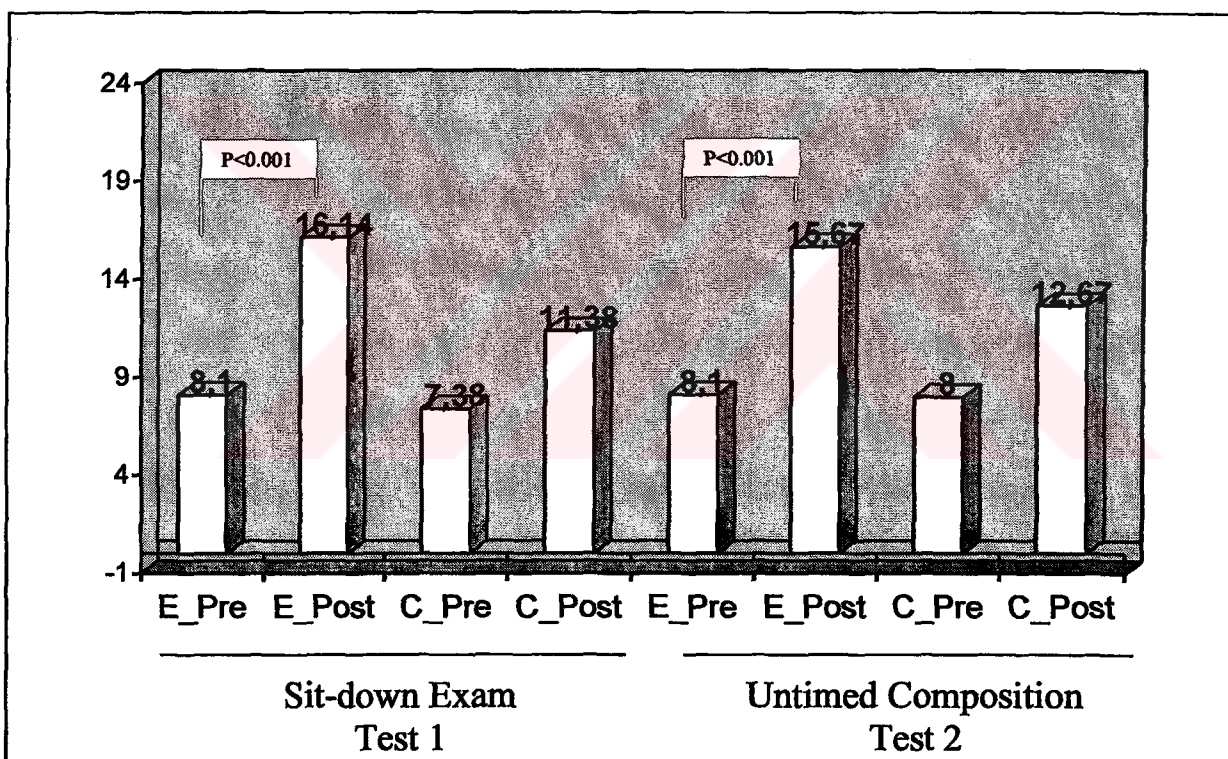
Figure 4.13 Multiple sentences performed by the experimental and the control group
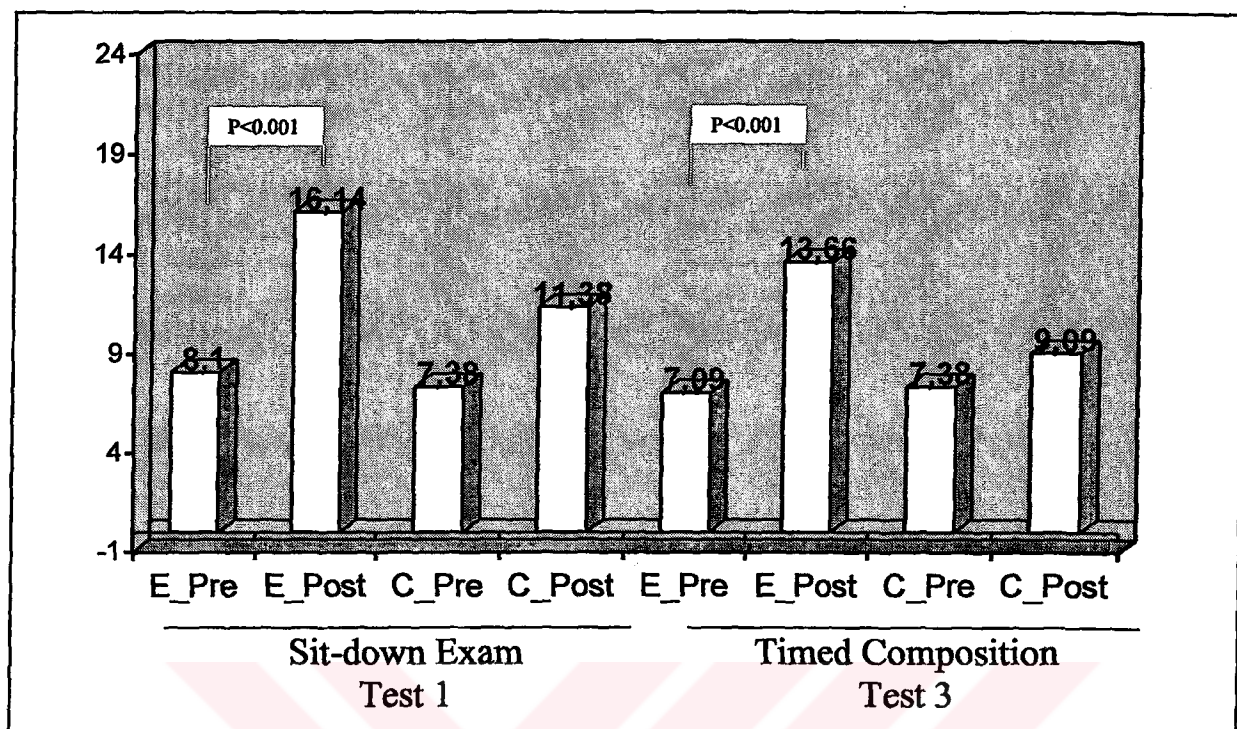
Figure 4.14 Multiple sentences performed by the experimental and the control group

4.5.3.2 Analysis of Clauses in Students' Written Products

Writing is a process of exploring one's thoughts, shaping them in line with the content, and presenting them to the reader. Thus, students pay attention to the act of writing that would appeal to the reader. The length and the type of clauses within a text play especially a significant role in appealing to the reader. We believe, with experiences gained through the SC technique, students develop better concepts of sentences and clauses. The application of these concepts raises the quality of writing and thus the utilization of strong and varied clauses (e.g., *adjective clauses, adverbial clauses, and noun clauses*) initiates expressive reading. As students explore their inner capacities, they become aware of the conscious manipulation of language patterns, and revise their writing first embedding simple sentences

into the main sentences in the form of subordinate clauses, and reducing some of these clauses into phrases as observed in Table 4.7 and Table 4.9 below.

In this study, we have analyzed the utilization of adjective clauses, adverbial clauses, and noun clauses performed by the students in order to see any the linguistic maturity is gained by the application of the SC technique. The reason why we have analyzed these three clause types in our study stems from the fact that these clauses comprise the main corpus of the syllabus in the EFL department. Therefore, we will present the analysis of sentences in terms of these three clauses in the following sections.

Table 4.7 presents the nonparametric results of the average number of adjective clauses, adverbial clauses, and noun clauses performed by the experimental and the control group.

Table 4.7 The average number of clauses per text

GROUPS		Adjective Clauses Pre-test	Post-test	Adverbial Clauses Pre-test	Post-test	Noun Clauses Pre-test	Post-test
TEST 1							
Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	1,52	2,19	4,14	5,10	1,10	2,57
	S.D	1,08	1,60	2,26	2,74	1,61	2,46
	Median	2,00	2,00	4,00	4,00	,00	2,00
	Range	3	6	9	9	6	8^{ff}
Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	2,43	4,29	3,29	5,00	1,00	1,48
	S.D	1,91	2,28	1,38	2,21	1,14	1,91
	Median	2,00	4,00	3,00	5,00	1,00	1,00
	Range	8	9^{ff}	6	8^{ff}	4	6
TEST 2							
Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	1,05	2,33	3,24	5,16	0,90	3,14
	S.D	1,53	1,88	1,73	3,66	0,70	2,54
	Median	,00	2,00	3,00	5,00	1,00	3,00
	Range	5	6	6	13	2	10$^{\#\#\#}$
Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	1,81	4,05	2,57	5,76	1,00	1,81
	S.D	1,78	2,36	1,66	2,61	0,95	1,83
	Median	1,00	4,00	2,00	6,00	1,00	1,00
	Range	6	10$^{\#\#}$	6	10$^{\#\#\#}$	3	6
TEST 3							
Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	0,52	0,90	1,66	2,38	0,14	1,71
	S.D	0,67	0,83	1,01	1,24	0,35	2,17
	Median	,00	,00	,00	,00	,00	,00
	Range	2	2	4	5	1	10εεε
Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	1,80	4,04	3,24	5,76	1,00	1,80
	S.D	1,77	2,35	1,72	2,60	0,94	1,83
	Median	,00	1	1	1	,00	,00
	Range	6	11¤¤	7	11¤	3	6

f p<0.05, ff p<0.01, fff p<0.001 Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) -Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)

# p<0.05, ## p<0.01, ### p<0.001 Between Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)

ε p<0.05, εε p<0.01, εεε p<0.001 Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)

¤ p<0.05, ¤¤ p<0.01, ¤¤¤ p<0.001   Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)

The analysis of sentences in terms of adjective, adverbial, and noun clauses will be presented in the following sections as three types of tests in the pre- and post-forms:

- Test 1 (*Sit-down Exam*),
- Test 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and
- Test 3 (*Timed Composition*).

4.5.3.2.1 Analysis of Adjective Clauses in a Text

The use of adjective clauses, which refer to dependent clauses to modify, describe, identify, or give further information about a noun, indicates how students apply various sentences to demonstrate their ability of using more mature sentences in their compositions as in the example given below:

E.g.   I saw the man. He closed the door.

   I saw the man who closed the door.

(Azar, 1989, pp. 238-239)

Since adjective clauses demonstrate the syntactic maturity, we have looked at the degree of use of these adjective clauses in three different tests: Test 1, Test 2, and Test 3 in the form of pre- and post-test. Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3, which are given before the treatment, are presented in terms of adjective clauses performed by the experimental group and the control group below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	1.52	1.05	0.52
Cont. Gr.	2.43	1.81	1.80

Considering the results of Pre-tests 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and 3 (*Timed Composition*), both groups seem to have performed more adjective clauses in the Sit-down Exam than the other two ones due to the nature of this formal test. In other words, students seem to be producing more clauses in Pre-test 1 in which they are graded for their performance in writing. In the Untimed Composition, they have had no pressure of being graded thus performed certain amount of adjective clauses when compared to the Timed

Composition, which includes a sequence of 15-frame picture story of a family on a regular day. This test is given to the students without providing a topic or a text to manipulate and thus students have created their own text based on pictures.

Upon the comparison among these tests--Test 1, Test 2, and Test 3, we see a different trend for the production of language. In other words, the students in both groups are generally observed to have performed fewer sentences for the Timed Composition as opposed to the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition. The reason for not producing as much as these two tests is due to the restricted number of pictures presented (see Appendix 13). This means students generally produce more syntactic patterns for Test 1 as opposed to Test 2, and more language for Test 2 apposed to Test 3.

In all Post-tests 1, 2, and 3, the use of adjective clauses seems to have increased in number in both groups. In fact, while the experimental group has increased their production (1.52 to 2.19) in Post-test 1, the control group has increased it to a statistically significant level (2.43 to 4.29). Similarly, in Post-test 2, the experimental group has performed an increase from 1.05 to 2.33; whereas, the control group has increased it from 1.81 to 4.05 revealing a significant success. In Post-test 3, there is almost no increase in the production of adjective clauses in the experimental group (0.52 to 0.90) when compared with the control group (1.80 to 4.04), which reveals a statistical significance (see Figure 4.15 below).

Therefore, at this point, these results related to the use of adjective clauses do not support our Hypotheses 2 and 3, which posit that the SC technique enhances the syntactic maturity and quality in writing. Figure 4.15 and Figure 4.16 below present the results of adjective clauses per text in the Sit-down Exam, the Untimed Composition, and the Timed Composition.

Figure 4.15 presents the results of adjective clauses per text in the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
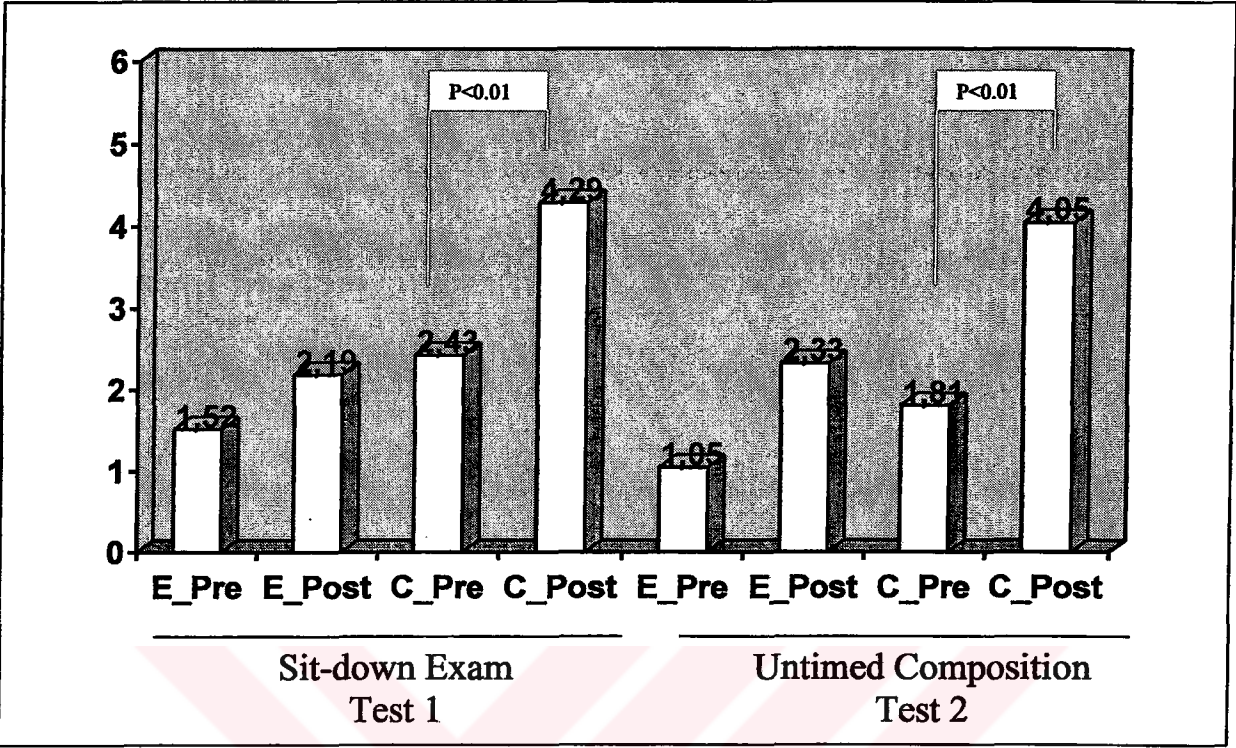
Figure 4.15 Adjective clauses performed in the experimental and the control group

Figure 4.16 Adjective clauses performed in the experimental and the control group

Our assumption was that the experimental group might have used adjective clauses more than the control group. Regarding the results given in Figure 4.15 and Figure 4.16, the control group seems to have superiority over the experimental group. The reason of the increase in the control group might stem from the fact that they have produced their various syntactic patterns without applying highly complex acts that demand analysis of many levels of thinking. However, the significant increase of adjective clauses in the control group led us to search the use of other embedding processes (reduced form of the clauses and also phrases) applied in both groups. Accordingly, when we have observed the written products of these students in terms of content and style, we have seen that there is a discrepancy in the use of the language for both groups. Therefore, in order to reach a sound conclusion in this respect, we have decided to analyze the reduced form of these clauses since they are considered as a higher level of linguistic maturity (see Section 4.5.3.3.1).

Following are two sentences presented in order to demonstrate how the style and the other embedding processes are performed by the student of the experimental (E_1') and the control group (C_1') in Post-test 1:

(E_1') Even though the person who want to break his habit, he cannot do it himself; hence, he has to go to phsiciatrists and wants them to help him. (28 words)

(C_1') If the person who want to break his bad habit, he has to go to a doctor and he helps him. (21 words)

In order to demonstrate how many clauses are embedded in each sentence, these sentences have been split into clusters as follows:

(**E₁'**) 1.1 The person wants to do something.

1.2 This is breaking habit.

1.3 This habit is bad.

1.4 This is his habit.

2.1 This person can not do something.

2.2 This is breaking his habit.

3.1 This person has to go to psychiatrist.

3.2 This person wants them to do something.

3.3 This person wants help from them.

3.4 They are psychiatrists.

(**C₁'**) 1.1 The person wants to do something.

1.2 This is breaking habit.

1.3 This is bad habit.

1.4 This is his habit.

2.1 This person has to go to a doctor.

3.1 This person helps him.

As seen in the examples above, the student in the experimental group has included

more clauses (ten clusters) within the same sentence to express his thoughts than the student

in the control group (six clusters). In other words, the discrepancy in the use of embedding

processes between these groups is clearly observed. Therefore, it is also necessary to analyze

the results of the reduced form of adjective clauses (see Section 4.5.3.3 below) and also

phrases (see Section 4.5.3.4 below) since these constituents are considered as a stage ahead to

produce more complex sentences in a written language.

4.5.3.2.2 Analysis of Adverbial Clauses in a Text

After analyzing adjective clauses in the written products of the students, we have also taken the use of adverbial clauses into consideration in three different tests: Test 1, (*Sit-down Exam*), Test 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and Test 3 (*Timed Composition*) as demonstrated below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	4.14	3.24	1.66
Cont. Gr.	3.29	2.57	3.24

When the results of these pre-tests regarding the adverbial clauses are considered, both groups seem to have utilized adverbial clauses in their written products. However, the experimental groups' mean score is observed higher than the control group in Pre-test 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), and Pre-test 2 (*Untimed Composition*) opposite to Pre-test 3 (*Timed Composition*), in which the experimental group seem to have produced less adverbial clauses than the control group.

After the treatment, when the productivity of adverbial clauses has been analyzed in Post-tests 1, 2, and 3, an increase has been observed in both of the groups. In Post-test 1, for instance, the use of adverbial clauses has displayed an increase in the experimental group (4.14 to 5.10), and in the control group (3.29 to 5.00). In Post-test 2, there has been a similar trend in the experimental (3.24 to 5.76) and the control group (2.57 to 5.16). In Post-test 3 *(Timed Composition)*, the use of adverbial clauses is found significant only for the control group (3.23 to 5.76) but not for the experimental group (1.66 to 2.38). From these findings, we observe that both groups have performed more clauses in Test 1, 2, and 3. Figure 4.17

demonstrates the amount of adverbial clauses per text in the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed
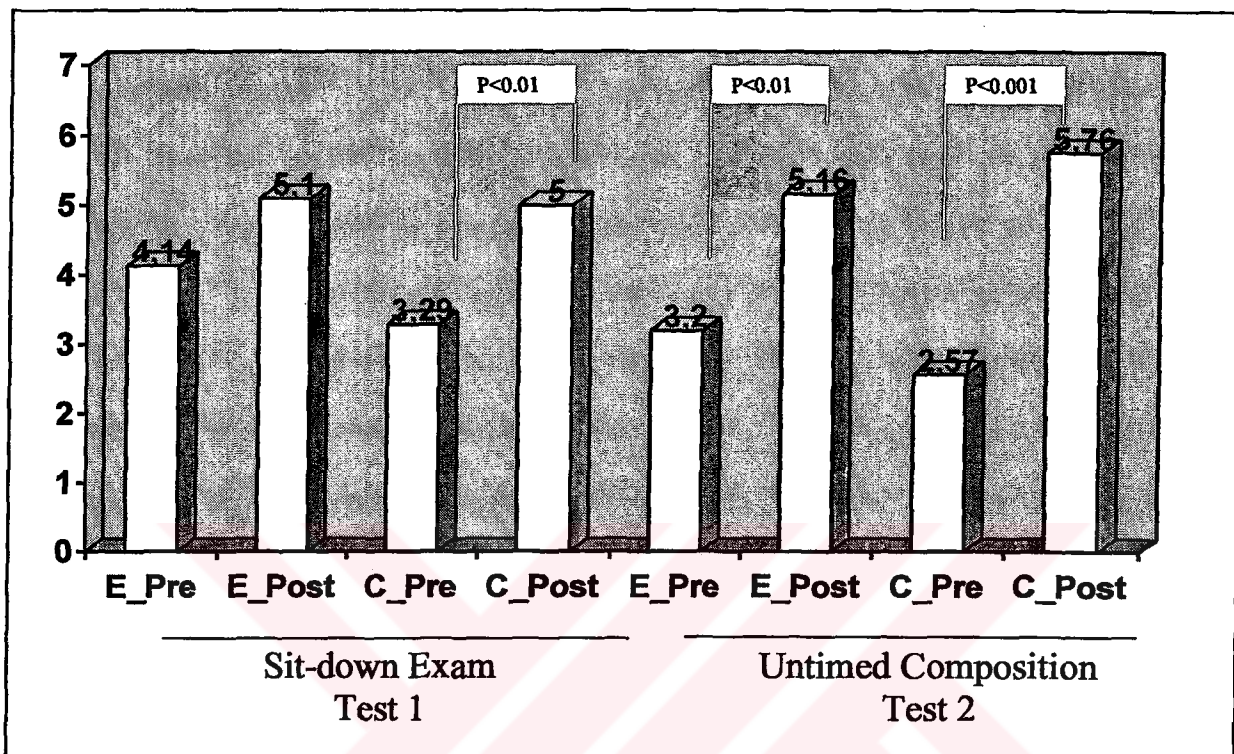
Composition.

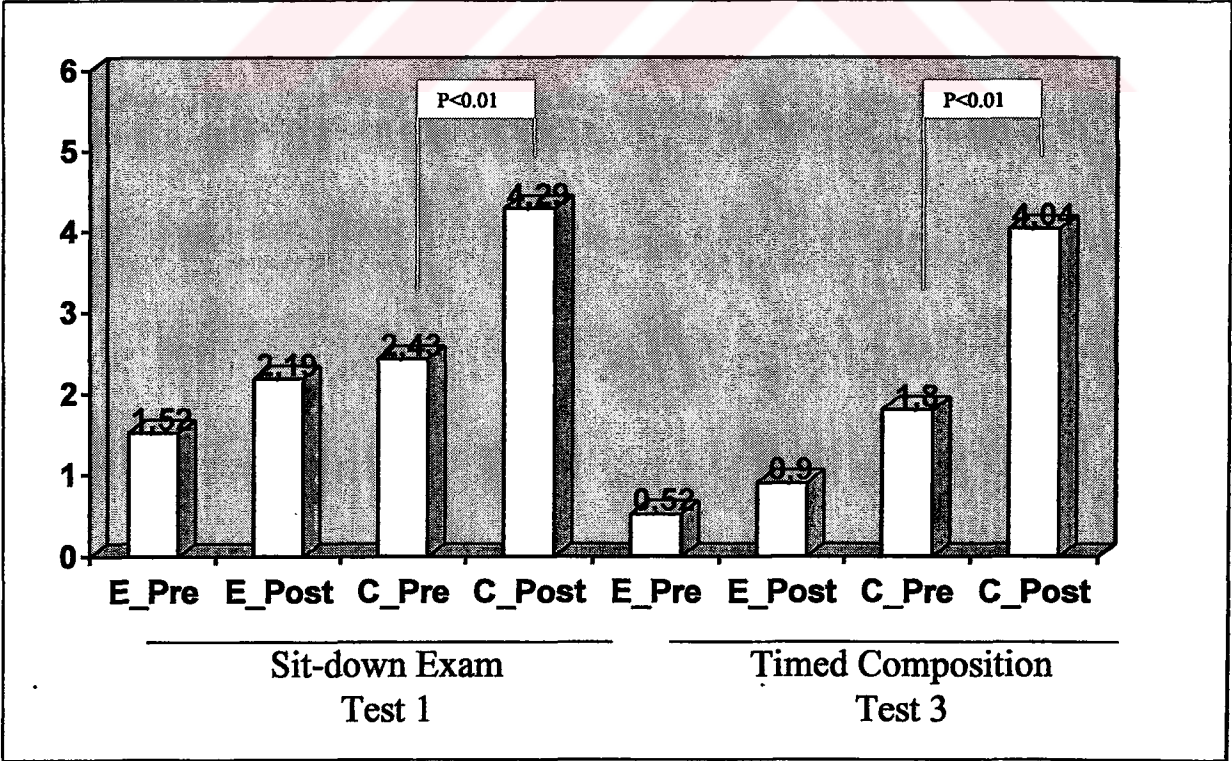Figure 4.17 Adverbial clauses performed in the experimental and in the control group

Figure 4.18 demonstrates the amount of adverbial clauses per text in the Sit-down

Exam and theTimed Composition.
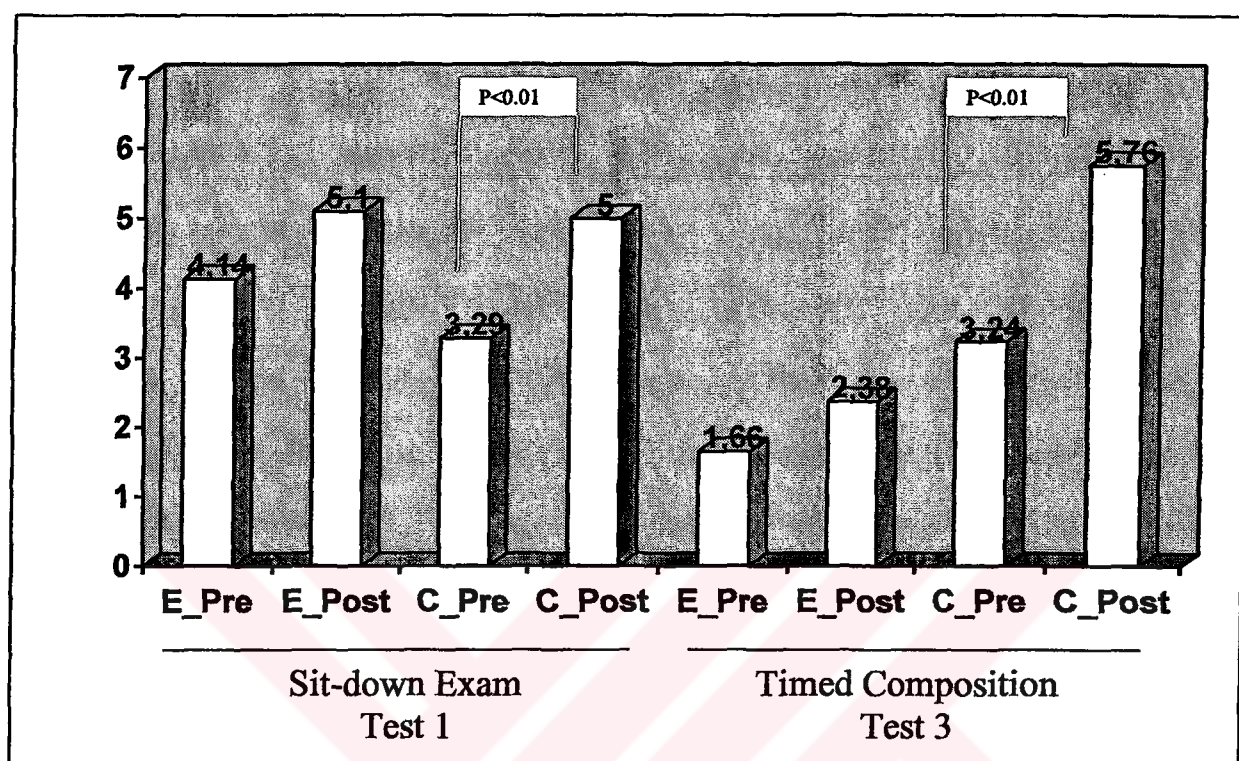
Figure 4.18 Adverbial clauses performed in the experimental and the control group

It can be inferred from the findings indicated in Figure 4.17 and Figure 4.18 that both

groups have completed their progress and achieved linguistic maturity. Especially, the

control group has demonstrated superiority over the experimental group. This may be due to

students' conjoining or coordinating simple sentences into the larger compound sentences.

On the other hand, it is seen that the experimental group has also increased their use of

adverbial clauses slightly. Therefore, these statistically significant differences do not support

our Hypotheses 2 and 3 referring to enhance syntactic maturity and writing quality through

the SC technique. The reason for these results might result from their becoming familiar with

adverbial clauses in their English language course-- Grammar in which their textbook

includes more adverbial clauses (three chapters out of ten) than the others (one chapter for

adjective clauses and one for noun clauses). The other reason for not obtaining the significant

success in the experimental group may lie in their usage of reduced forms of these clauses.

As we previously observed for the adjective clauses, we have had the similar observation for

the use of language in this group. Therefore, we have also analyzed the reduced form of

adverbial clauses to be able to reflect the syntactic maturity. Nevertheless, the following two

sentences performed by the experimental and the control group in Post-test illustrate the

difference of structures used in this respect.

(E_1') *After you finish the packet, you can pretend not to have money to buy another.*

    (15 words)

(C_1') *When you finish the packet, you can open the other one, it is a good way.* *(16 words)*

In order to demonstrate how many clauses are embedded in each sentence, these sentences

have been split into the clusters as illustrated below:

(E_1') 1.1 You finish the packet.

      1.2 Then, you pretend something.

      1.3 This is not having money.

      1.4 Money is for buying another packet.

(C_1') 1.1 You finish the packet.

      1.2 You can open the other packet.

      2.1 This is a good way.

As seen in these two examples, there is no grammatical error in the use of sentences.

Both students have produced the adverbial clauses correctly. However, when the sentences

are considered in terms of content and style, it is obvious that the student in the experimental

group has completed the progress of syntactic maturity by reducing the adverbial clauses into

phrases as a result of application of the SC technique. In other words, the student in the

experimental group has embedded more simple sentences as compared to the student in the

control group. The number of words in each sentence also indicates that the student in the experimental group has performed fewer T-Units than the one in the control group. Therefore, the reduced forms of adverbial clauses have also been considered in terms of manipulation of various sentence patterns such as embeddings--a stage ahead for subordinate clauses-- as the degree of complexity in language usage (see Section 4.5.3.3).

4.5.3.2.3   Analysis of Noun Clauses in a Text

Noun clauses are considered to reflect maturity in language production. Hence, we have also looked at the degree of use of noun clauses in the Test 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), Test 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and Test 3 (*Timed Composition*). The results of noun clauses are analyzed in Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3 in order to see if students could perform their linguistic ability at a certain level as presented below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	1.10	0.90	0.64
Cont. Gr.	1.00	1.00	1.00

As indicated in Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3 above, both groups seem to be incapable of producing noun clauses in all the written products. It can be inferred from these results that the students in both groups have uncompleted their mental process of utilizing matured sentences in their compositions. When the results of these tests are considered with one another, there occurs an increase in the Sit-down Exam as opposed to the results of Untimed Composition. The results of Pre-test 2 also illustrate an increase in number as opposed to the results of Pre-test 3.

Based upon the analysis of Post-tests 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), 2 (*Untimed Composition*),

and 3 (*Timed Composition*), an increase in the use of noun clauses has been observed in both

groups. The experimental group has outperformed their noun clauses in Pre-test 1, revealing

statistically higher difference (1.10 to 2.57) than the control group (1.00 to 1.48). In Post-test

2, similarly, there is a significant increase in the experimental group (0.90 to 3.14) when

compared with the control group (1.00 to 1.81). Similarly, in Post-test 3, the results of the use

of noun clauses reveal statistically significant difference in the experimental group (0.64 to

1.71) and it is 1.00 to 1.80 in the control group. Figure 4.19 demonstrates the results of noun

clauses per text in the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
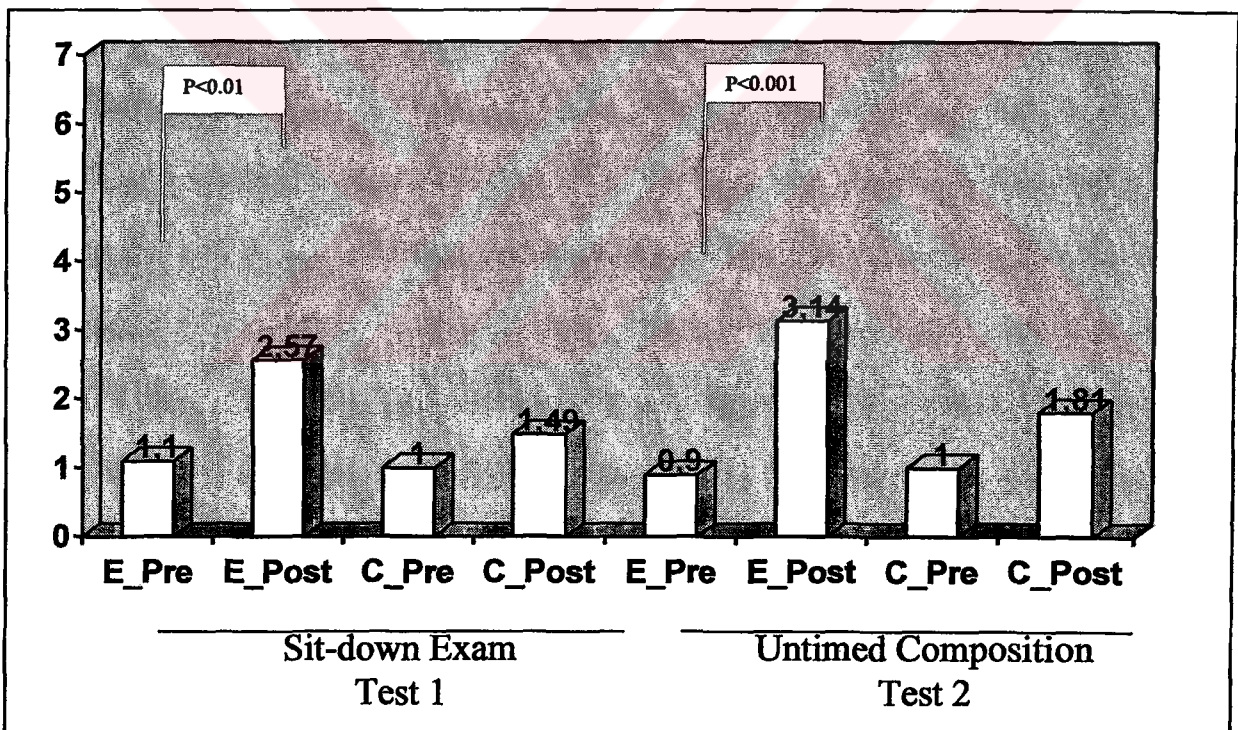
Figure 4.19 Noun clauses performed in the experimental and the control group

Figure 4.20 also summarizes the differences on noun clauses between the experimental

and the control group in Test 1 and Test 3.
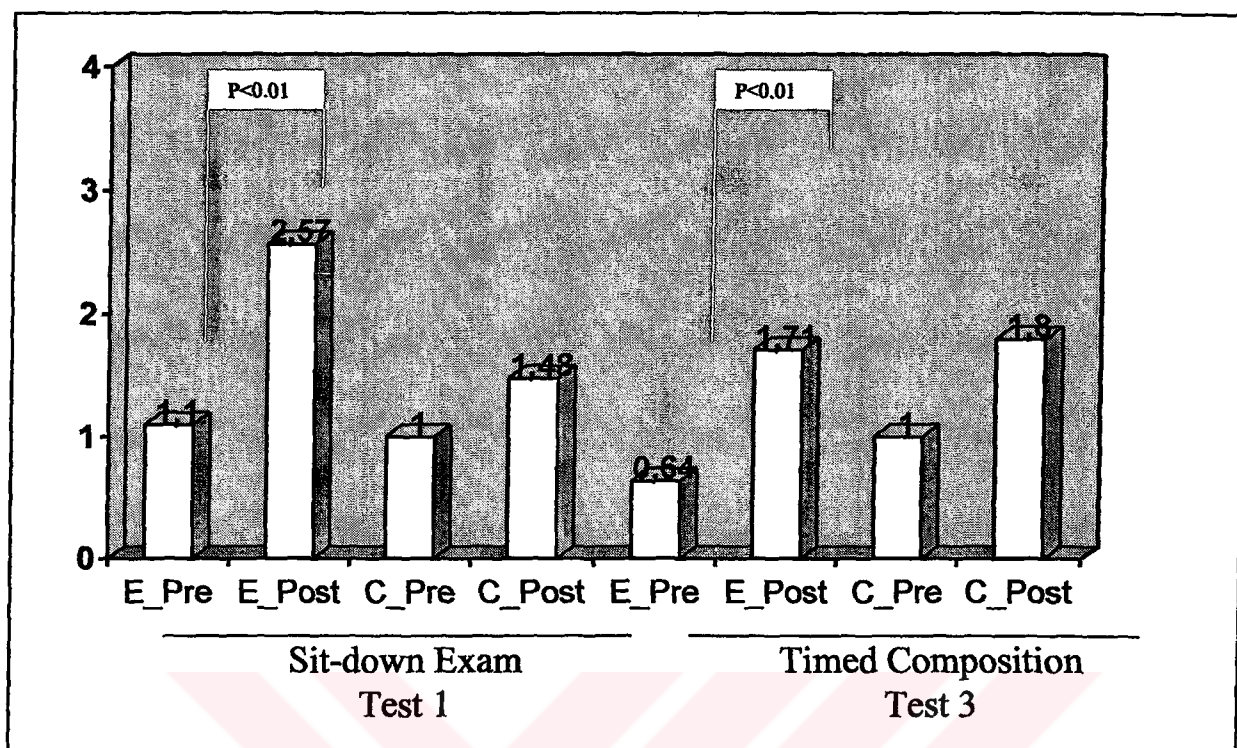
Figure 4.20 Noun clauses performed in the experimental and the control group

As a result of the findings in Figure 4.19 and Figure 4.20 above, we can conclude that

as writing is matured, the average number of clauses increases in learning process as also

observable in Table 4.7. The students in both groups have developed their linguistic maturity

in producing their sentences in an ongoing process by applying noun clauses in their writing.

Thus, we cannot claim that these significant results support our Hypotheses 2 and 3. The

reason of this increase may result from the fact that the SC instruction involves guiding

students ways to embed one sentence or idea into another sentence to create more varied and

matured syntactic patterns. However, when judging the syntactic features in their sentences,

we see a clear discrepancy in the usage of the language in both groups. In other words, we

observe that the experimental group uses their linguistic knowledge consciously at

formulating embeddings; whereas, the control group has a tendency of producing more

individual independent clauses. The following two sentences performed by the experimental

and the control group in Post-test illustrate the difference of structures used by these groups.

(E₁') It is found that the given examples are helpful for the people; therefore, many psychiatrists suggest this method to their patients. (21 words)

(C₁') When a person says that he doesn't want to smoking, it finishes at that point. But this is only main point. (21 words)

In order to demonstrate how many clauses are embedded in each sentence, these sentences have been split into the clusters as illustrated below:

(E₁')   1.1 We have found something.

      1.2 The exercises are given.

      1.3 These exercises are helpful.

      1.4 These exercises are for people.

      2.1 Many of psychiatrists suggest a method.

      2.2 This method is for patients.

      2.3 They are their patients.

(C₁')   1.1 A person says something.

      1.2 He does not want to smoke.

      1.3 Smoking finishes at that point.

      2.1 This is only main point.

As illustrated in the examples given above, there is a striking discrepancy between these groups in content and style. While the student in the experimental group has performed 21-word sentence in two T-Units including two noun clauses (one is the reduced form), the student in the control group has produced the same amount of words in two sentences while

the first sentence contains two T-Units, one of which is a noun clause and the other one is only a fragment. The student in the control group, however, is still in progress.

Additionally, regarding the language courses offered in ELT Department of Cukurova University, the other instructors in this department were interviewed informally about the exercises provided in their textbooks, and these textbooks were also scrutinized in terms of percentage in presenting these items. It has been observed that the exercises are mostly based on adverbial clauses (approximately %13), and adjective clauses (approximately %9) rather than noun clauses (approximately %4) when compared with the other grammatical constituents such as articles, pronouns, and passives. Thus, the students might tend not to use noun clauses as much as other clauses they use in their productive skills. Nevertheless, in order to see if our Hypotheses 2 and 3 are supported by the results of the written products, the reduced form of noun clauses or phrases have also been analyzed (see Section 4.5.3.3.3 and Section 4.5.3.4).

4.5.3.3 Analysis of Reduced Clauses in Students' Written Products

Reduction is regarded as a means of avoiding redundancy of expression in order to appeal to the reader. The application of reduction is higher level of production in the progress of writing. Thus, applying the deduced forms of clauses, students demonstrate their advanced knowledge in writing. We believe that students exposed to the SC technique gain this advanced knowledge and; as a result, they produce more matured sentences in their composition. While producing long and complex sentences, this technique provides students with the experience and knowledge necessary for expressing their thoughts effectively. As students progress in learning language and get matured in writing, they start formulating clauses which function as elements of sentences instead of isolated sentences. Going one step

beyond reducing one of sentences to a subordinate clause, they can also formulate these clauses into the reduced forms; *reduced adjective clauses, reduced adverbial clauses,* and *reduced noun clauses* (see Appendix 16).

As a consequence of improvement in use of clauses, students can get linguistically coherent in putting these clauses into the reduced forms, which show the linguistic maturity of students. The following two examples illustrate how students formulate sentences and then reduce the same sentences applying the SC technique:

E.g. *"The man who was running after the thief could not catch him." (12 words)*
This sentence may be reduced to a shorter formulation as in the example below:

E.g. *"The man running after the thief could not catch him." (10 words)*

As seen in the example given above, students gain the ability to revise writing for greater power and economy in their own composition. While revising and monitoring sentences as the dynamics of natural syntactic development, they learn how to include combining, embedding, permuting, and substituting with accompanying deletion in formulating composition.

In line with this data, Table 4.8 presents the nonparametric results of the average number of reduced form of adjective, adverbial, noun clauses performed per text by the experimental and the control group in the three forms of tests in Pre-test 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), Pre-test 2 (*Untimed Composition*) and Pre-test 3 (*Timed Composition*) and Post-tests 1, 2, and 3 respectively.

Table 4.8 The average number of reduced clauses per text

GROUPS		Reduced Adjective Clauses		Reduced Adverbial Clauses		Reduced Noun Clauses	
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
TEST 1							
Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	0,41	2,76	0,38	0,78	0,57	1,62
	S.D	1,15	1,87	0,59	0,99	0,81	1,60
	Median	0,00	3,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	1,00
	Range	4	6^{fff}	2	2^{f}	2	7^{f}
Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	0,33	0,76	0,24	0,33	0,57	0,95
	S.D	0,66	0,94	0,54	0,58	1,12	1,20
	Median	0,00	1,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	1,00
	Range	2	3^{**}	2	2	4^{**}	5^{*}
TEST 2							
Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	0,24	5,33	0,09	0,86	0,00	0,76
	S.D	0,44	3,23	0,30	1,06	0,00	1,09
	Median	0,00	6,00	0,00	1,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	$1^{##}$	$9^{###}$	1	$4^{###}$	0	$4^{##}$
Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	0,00	0,81	0,00	0,38	0,00	0,28
	S.D	0,00	0,81	0,00	0,59	0,00	0,49
	Median	0,00	1,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	0,0	2	0	2	0	2
TEST 3							
Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	0,23	2,02	0,14	0,76	0,00	0,96
	S.D	0,43	0,99	0,35	0,88	0,00	1,17
	Median	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	1	$4^{\epsilon\epsilon\epsilon}$	1	$3^{\epsilon\epsilon\epsilon}$	0	$4^{\epsilon\epsilon}$
Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	0,33	0,80	0,19	0,38	0,13	0,37
	S.D	0,48	0,81	0,40	0,58	0,30	0,46
	Median	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	1	2	1	2	1	1

f $p<0.05$, ff $p<0.01$, fff $p<0.001$ Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) -Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)
$*$ $p<0.05$, $**$ $p<0.01$, $***$ $p<0.001$ Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)
$\#$ $p<0.05$, $\#\#$ $p<0.01$, $\#\#\#$ $p<0.001$ Between Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)
ϵ $p<0.05$, $\epsilon\epsilon$ $p<0.01$, $\epsilon\epsilon\epsilon$ $p<0.001$ Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)

As observed from the figures in Table 4.8, the analysis of the reduced syntactic features such as adjective, adverbial, and noun clauses has been done in order to demonstrate if the SC technique would increase the ability of producing reduced clauses in written products. The data in this table is important to have presented that students could go a stage further in using their linguistic capacity. The following sections will present the data obtained from the tests given to the both groups in terms of reduced adjective, adverbial, and noun clauses performed.

4.5.3.3.1 Analysis of Reduced Adjective Clauses in a Text

Using the reduced form of adjective clauses is regarded as a linguistic maturity in semantic and pragmatic terms; and the application of reduced form illustrates the ability to express thoughts in a more sophisticated way in writing. Therefore, we will present the results of the reduced adjective clauses in order to demonstrate if there would be any attempt in using more mature sentences in written products. Accordingly, the written products are analyzed in terms of reduced adjective clauses in Pre-tests (*Sit-down Exam, Untimed Composition,* and *Timed Composition*) as illustrated below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	0.41	0.24	0.23
Cont. Gr.	0.33	0.00	0.33

The figures given above reveal that the students in both groups have been found incapable of producing this type of sentences indicating similar results in Pre-tests, 1, 2, and 3. Additionally, the students in both groups have performed almost similar results in the Sit-down Exam, Untimed Composition and the Timed Composition.

Regarding Post-tests 1, 2, and 3, however, the use of reduced adjective clauses has demonstrated an increase (from 0.41 to 2.76 in Post-test 1; 0.24 to 5.33 in Post-test 2; and 0.23 to 2.02 in Post-test 3) in the experimental group revealing a statistically significant difference when compared with the control group who has slightly increased their use of reduced adjective clauses (0.33 to 0.76 in Post-test 1; 0.00 to 0.81 in Post-test 2; and 0.33 to 0.80 in Post-test 3). From these findings, it is obvious that the experimental group has outperformed their use of reduced adjective clauses to a significant level since they are trained

to use reductions, deletion, permutation, or embeddings through the SC technique. This significant difference is also observed between Post-test 1 (*Sit-down Exam*) and Post-test 2 (*Untimed Composition*) within the same group (see Table 4.8). Figure 4.21 presents the results of reduced adjective clauses per text in the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
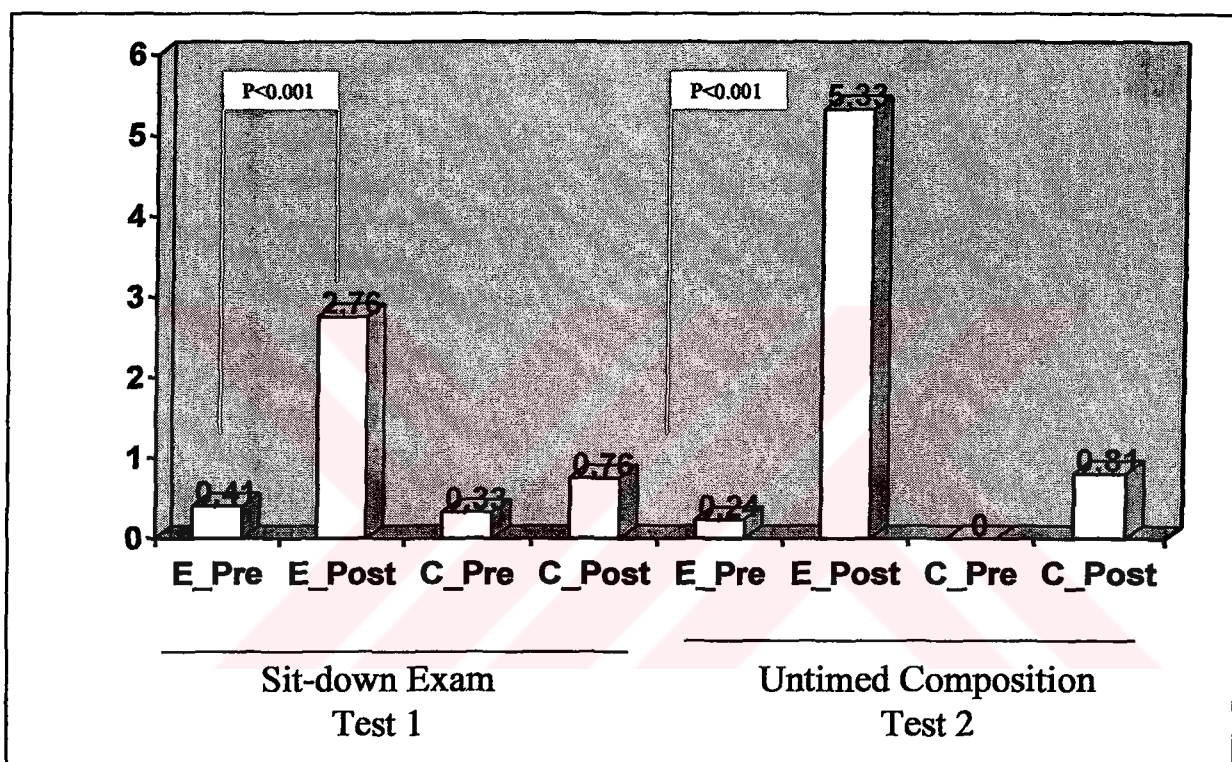
Figure 4.21 Reduced adjective clauses performed by the experimental and the control group

Figure 4.22 presents the results of reduced adjective clauses per text in the Sit-down Exam and the Timed Composition.
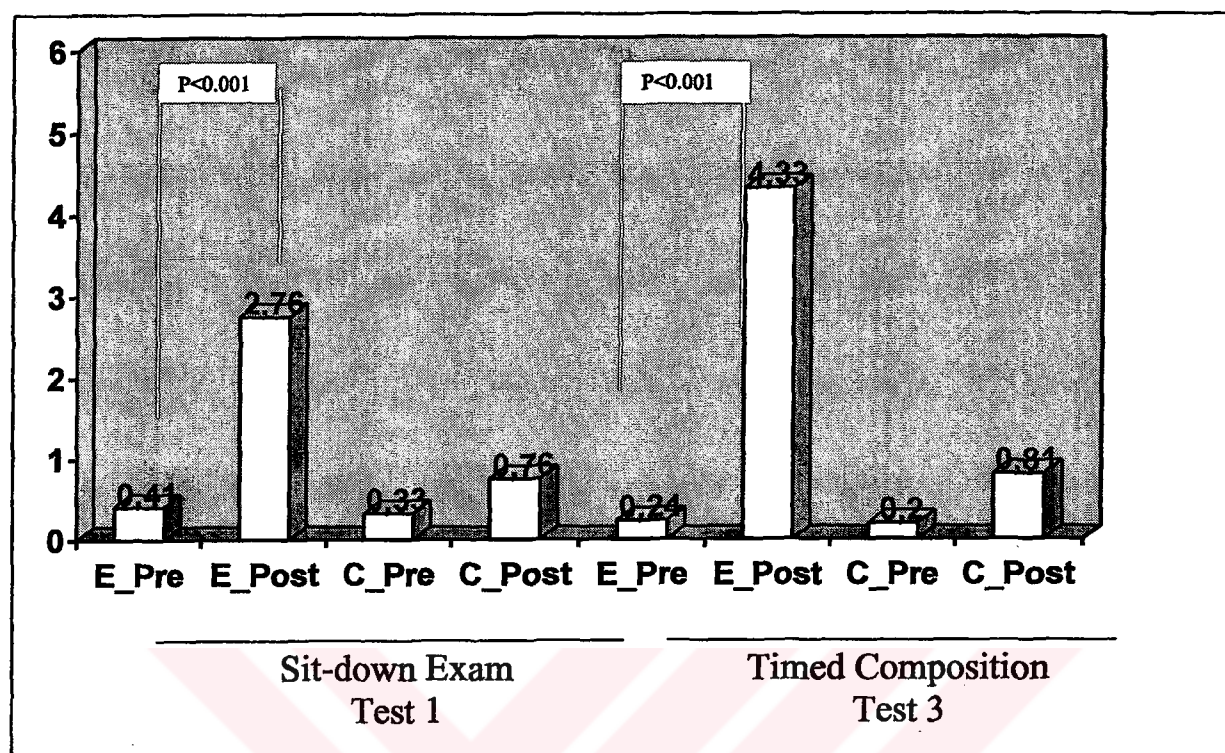
Figure 4.22 Reduced adjective clauses performed in the experimental and the control group

As displayed in Figure 4.21 and Figure 4.22 above, the statistical significance of these

clauses in the experimental group might stem from the fact that these students have almost

completed combining process for reduced forms of sentences. As a consequence of the

sentence-combining technique, the experimental group seems to have decreased their number

of adjective clauses to embeddings, deletion, or permutation in producing long and complex

sentences. Therefore, we can claim these results in all Post-tests support our Hypothesis 2,

and 3, which posit that the SC technique both accelerates the use of linguistically matured

sentences and emboldens students with the quality in writing. Additionally, the following two

sentences performed by the students in both groups illustrate how they apply syntactic

features in a different style and structure.

(*E₁'*) *You must take help from someone—an expert in this branch, then, you should do all*

advice given by the doctor till you feel not abuse anything you want to quit. *(31 words)*

(C₁') *You must take help from someone who is an expert in this branch, then, he gives you*

advice. You take this advice until you feel comfortable. Then, you want to stop it. (33 words)

In order to demonstrate how students embed each sentence into reduced form of adjective

clauses, these sentences have been split into clusters as follows:

(E₁') 1.1 You must take help from someone.
   1.2 This person is an expert.
   1.3 This person is in this branch.

   2.1 The doctor gives you all the advice.
   2.2 You should do all this advice.
   2.3 You feel something.
   2.4 It is not abuse.
   2.5 You want to quit this abuse.

(C₁') 1.1 You must take help from someone.
   1.2 This person is an expert.
   1.3 This person is in this branch.

   2.1 He gives you advice.

   3.1 You take this advice.
   3.2 You feel comfortable.

   4.1 You want to do something.
   4.2 This is to stop it.

As can be seen in the examples above, while the student in the experimental group has

included more clauses within the same sentence, the student in the control group has

performed the same thoughts within four T-Units. Therefore, it can be claimed that when

students are exposed to apply the SC technique, they can produce more constituents in written language to express their thoughts in a unity and style.

4.5.3.3.2 Analysis of Reduced Adverbial Clauses in a Text

Reduced form of adverbial clauses demonstrates the ability of students to use more matured sentences in a composition. Therefore, we have looked at the use of reduced adverbial clauses in the written products of the students in both groups before and after the treatment. The results obtained from Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3 are presented below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	0.38	0.09	0.14
Cont. Gr.	0.24	0.00	0.19

As can be inferred from the results above, the production of the reduced clauses performed by both of the groups seems to be close in Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3. Especially, both groups seem to have performed more adverbial clauses in the Sit-down Exam than the other two tests as encountered in the previous sections (see Section 4.5.3.2 above). In the Untimed Composition, they have performed almost no reduced adverbial clauses and in the Timed Composition, both groups seem to have performed very little for the production of reduced adverbial clauses.

In Post-tests 1, 2, and 3, on the other hand, it is seen that the use of these clauses has demonstrated difference in both of the groups. For instance, while there has occurred a statistical significance in Post-test 1 (0.38 to 0.78), Post-test 2 (0.09 to 0.86), and Post-test 3 (0.14 to 0.76) in the experimental group, the control group seems to reveal no significant success in Post-test 1 (0.24 to 0.33), Post-test 2 (from 0.00 to 0.38), and Post-test 3 (0.19 to 0.38) as indicated Figure 4.23 and 4.24 below. Thus, it can be inferred from these results that

experimental group has gained benefit from the SC technique during writing process and performed reduced form, which is considered as a step beyond using the linguistic maturity in writing. However, it is also clear from the findings that the control group has produced adverbial clauses more safely rather than the reduced form while writing compositions. Therefore, the findings in all the three post-tests support our Hypotheses 2, and 3, which posit that the SC technique accelerates the use of linguistically--matured sentence-- and enhances writing quality. Figures 4.23 and Figure 4.24 also demonstrate the significant difference in terms of reduced adverbial clauses per text in the Sit-down Exam, the Untimed Composition, and the Timed Composition.
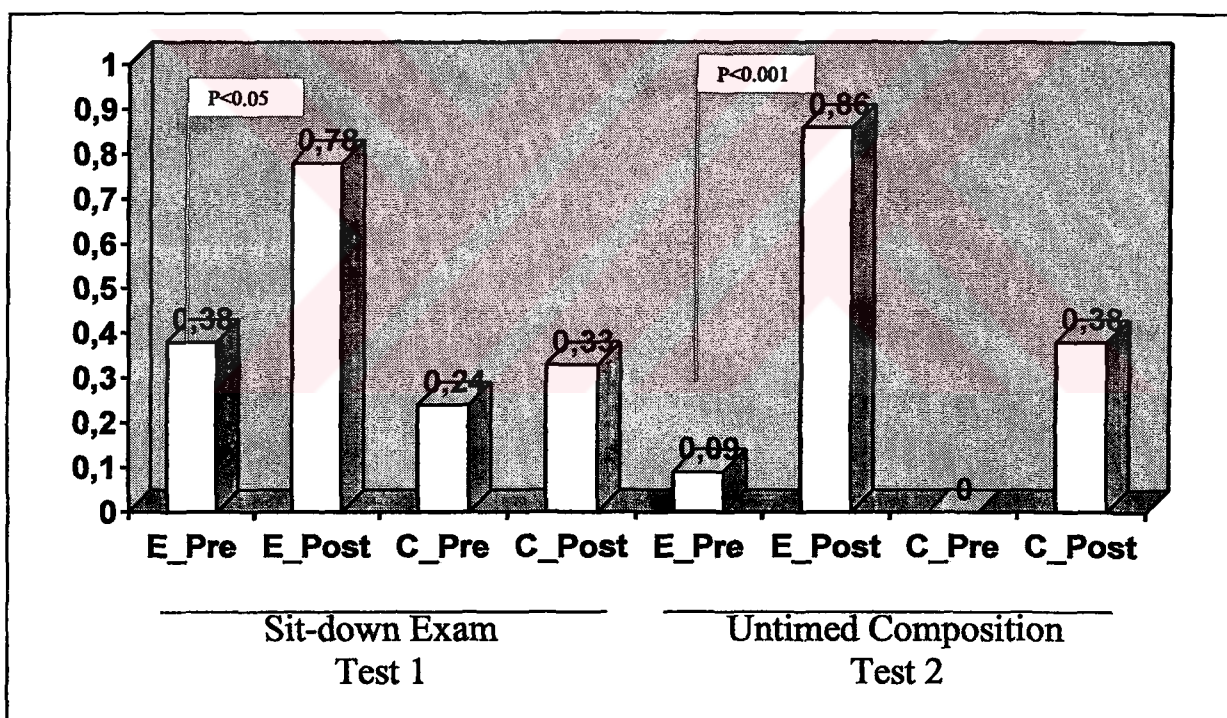
Figure 4.23 Reduced adverbial clauses performed in the experimental and the control group

Figure 4.24 below also demonstrates the significant difference in terms of reduced adverbial clauses per text in the Sit-down Exam, and the Timed Composition.
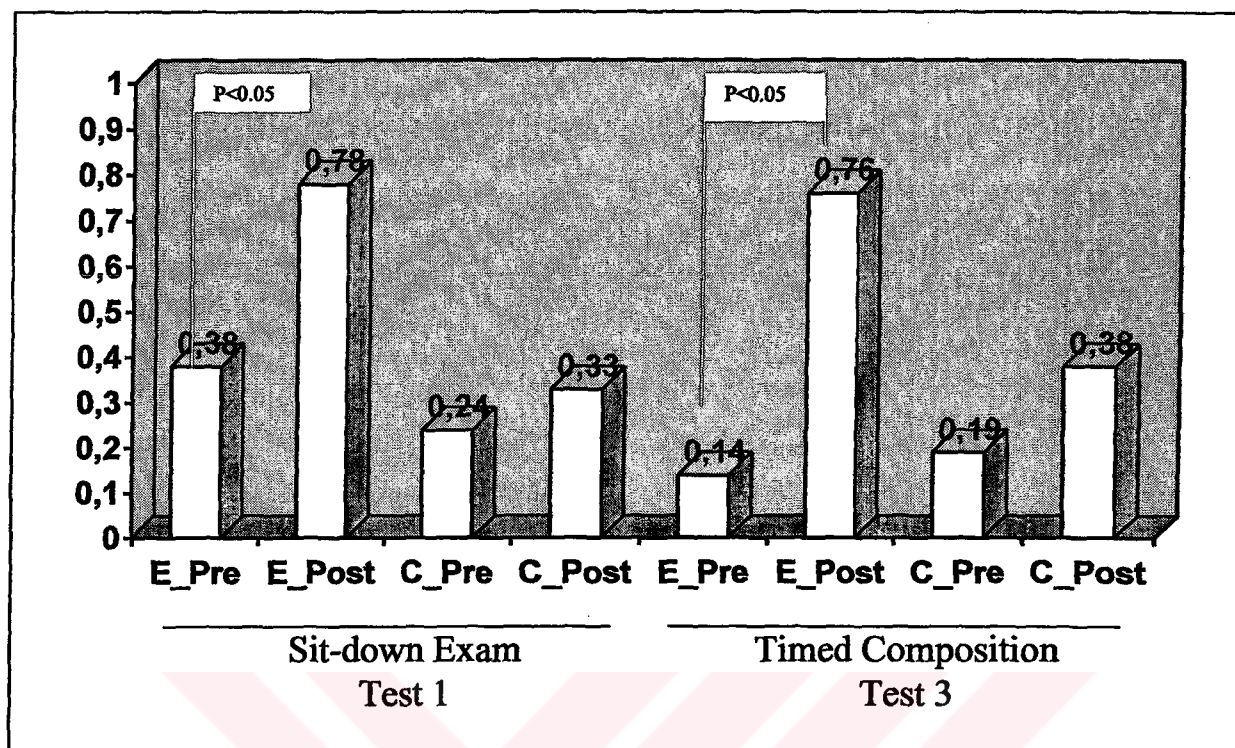
Figure 4.24 Reduced adverbial clauses performed in the experimental and the control group

Our observation through the end of the study has been that students in both groups

have performed sentences differently in style and structure. The results of reduced form also

clarify our observation in this respect. Respectively, the following two sentences performed

by the experimental and the control group in Post-test illustrate the different use of language.

(E₁') Instead of being with a person smoking, you should do something else-reading a book-

or going to a doctor to help you. (21 words)

(C₁') You may not want to be with someone who is smoking, then, you can do something else.

For example, you can read a book or you can go to a doctor, then he can help you (36words)

In order to demonstrate how these students embed the sentences into reduced form of

adverbial clauses, they have been split into simple sentences as illustrated below:

(*E_ɪ'*)   1.1 You can be with a person.

        1.2 This person is smoking.

        1.3 Or you can do something else.

        1.4 This is reading a book.

        1.5 Or this is going to a doctor.

        1.6 This doctor helps you.

(*C_ɪ'*)   1.1 You may not be with a person.

        1.2 This person is smoking.

        2.1 Or you can do something else.

        3.1 For example, you read a book.

        4.1 You go to a doctor.

        5.1 This doctor helps you.

As it can be observed in the examples above, the students in the experimental group and the control group have different tendency in using various clauses within the same sentence to express their thoughts. As a result of these findings, it can be claimed that students trained to use the SC technique can appeal to the reader producing varied language patterns such as reduced adverbial clauses more safely when compared with the other students.

4.5.3.3.3 Analysis of Reduced Noun Clauses in a Text

The use of reduced noun clauses illustrates that students become aware of maturity in producing a language. Therefore, before the treatment, the written products of both groups have been analyzed in order to see if they could use reduced form of noun clauses in a composition as presented below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	0.57	0.00	0.00
Cont. Gr.	0.57	0.00	0.13

As can be seen above, the productivity of the reduced noun clauses in both of the groups seems to be insufficient in Pre-tests 1 *(Sit-down Exam)*, 2 *(Untimed Composition)*, and 3 *(Timed Composition)*. In other words, while these groups have performed 0.57 reduced clauses in Pre-test 1, the experimental group has produced reduced noun clauses neither in Pre-test 2 nor in Pre-test 3. Similarly, the control group has produced no reduced noun clauses in Pre-test 2 but very few (0.13) in Pre-test 3. The reason of this outcome may be either they have uncompleted their learning process or they have found the given topic inappropriate to use noun clauses.

Regarding results of reduced noun clauses in post-tests, the mean scores for both groups are observed to increase slightly in all post-tests 1, 2, and 3. In Post-test 1, the experimental group has increased their productivity for reduced noun clauses (0.57 to 1.62) contrary to the control group (0.57 to 0.95). In Post-test 2, the experimental group has achieved superiority in the production (0.00 to 0.76) over the control group (0.00 to 0.28), and this statistical significance is also observed between Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 for the experimental group but not for the control group (see Table 4.8). Similarly, in Post-test 3, the

experimental group has revealed a significant success in the production (0.00 to 0.91) over the

control group (0.00 to 0.37). In other words, the results of the reduced form of noun clauses

illustrate that the SC technique seems also successful for the use of these clauses in both Post-

test 1 and Post-test 2. Therefore, it can be inferred that the SC technique seems to be

reinforcing for students to produce reduced noun clauses and also supporting our Hypotheses

2 and 3. Figure 4.25 presents the results of reduced noun clauses per text in the Sit-down

Exam and the Untimed Composition.
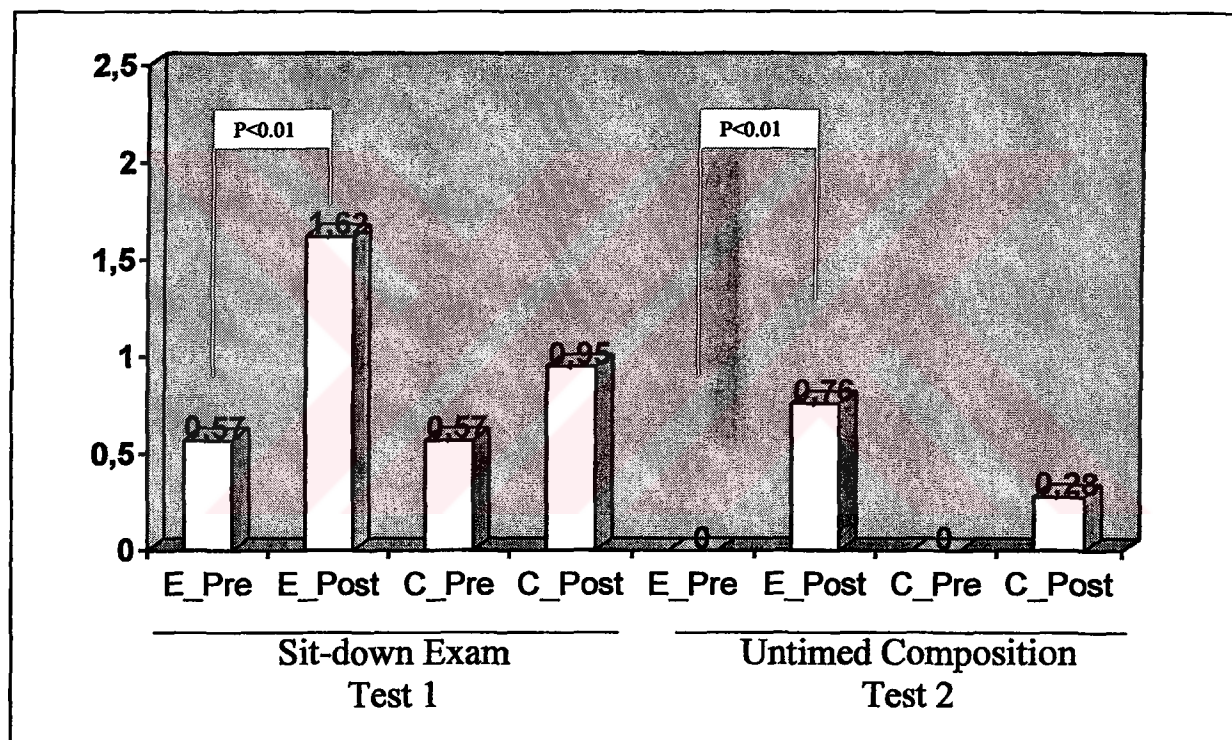
Figure 4.25 Reduced noun clauses performed by the experimental and the control group

Figure 4.26 presents the results of reduced noun clauses per text in the Sit-down Exam and the

Timed Composition.
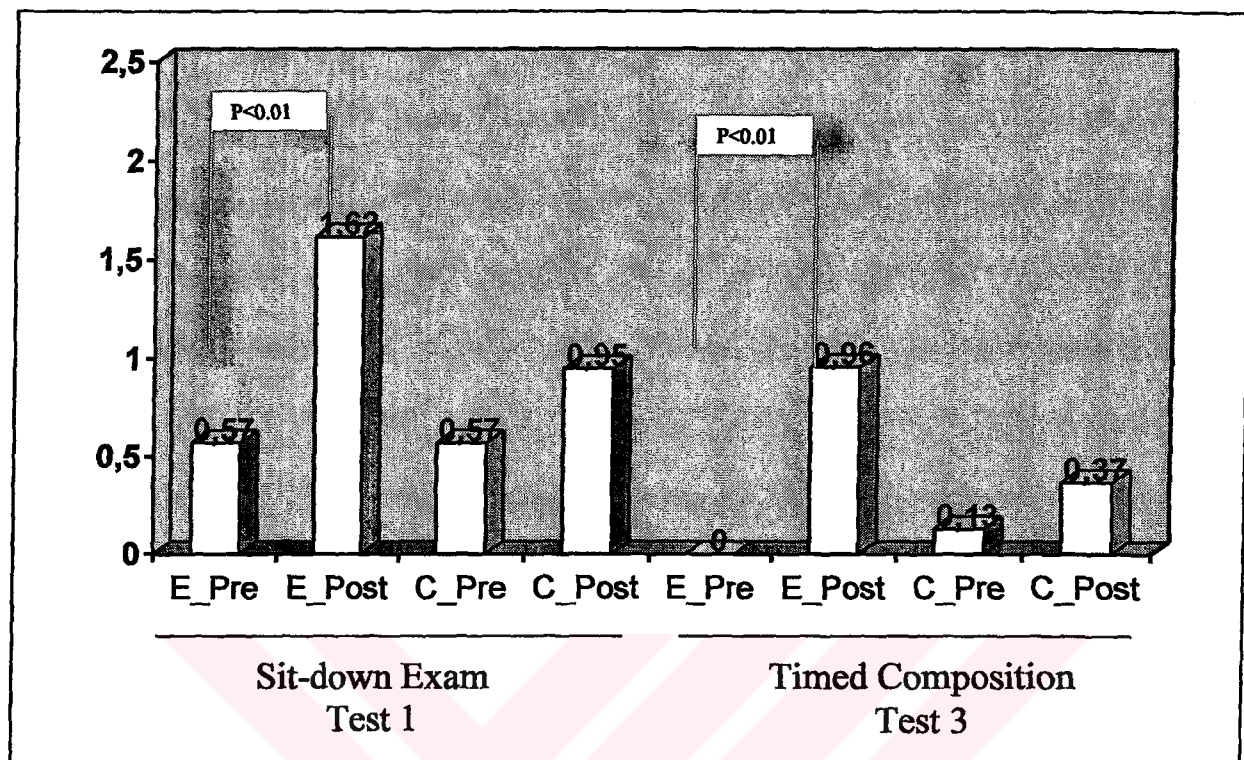
Figure 4.26 Reduced noun clauses performed by the experimental and the control group

Based on the results of the reduced noun clauses (see Table 4.8), it is seen that the

experimental group has produced a great number of reduced form of these clauses (see

Appendix 16 for examples of reduced clauses). We also believe that using reduced form of

clauses is a step beyond linguistic maturity. Therefore, students exposed to the SC technique

could use varied language patterns in their writing adding their own styles as well. As a

contribution of the impact of the SC technique, the following two sentences performed by the

experimental and the control group in Post-test can illustrate clearly the difference of

structures used by these groups.

(E₁') *Finally, you can quit bad habits by your self, this means you would prefer not to take*

external help as you may not want the people know you are doing something wrong.

(32 words)

(C₁') *For example, if you have vitamin deficiency, he will suggest the foods are taken*

because they provide both vitamins and calorie that you have to take. *(26 words)*

In order to demonstrate how students embed these sentences into reduced noun clauses, they

have been split into simple sentences as illustrated below:

(E₁')   1.1 Finally, you can quit bad habits.
        1.2 You can do it yourself.

        2.1 This means something.
        2.2 You prefer not to do something.
        2.3 This is to take help.
        2.4 This help is external.
        2.5 You may not want something.
        2.6 This is the people.
        2.7 The people know something.
        2.8 You are doing something wrong

(C₁')   1.1 For example, you have vitamin deficiency.
        1.2 This person will suggest the foods.
        1.3 The foods are taken.

        2.1 These foods provide vitamins.
        2.2 These foods provide calorie.
        2.3 You have to take these vitamins.
        2.4 You have to take these calorie.

As in the examples given above, while the student exposed to the SC technique has

included two reduced noun clauses within the same sentence, the student in the control group

who has performed one reduced noun clauses within two T-Units. These sentences bring us

to the conclusion that students utilizing the SC technique in their writing can produce more matured sentences in written language. The following section presents the data obtained from the results of phrases in the written products of students.

4.5.3.4 Analysis of Phrases in Students' Written Products

Phrases are considered to be "complex on the grounds of language" (Quirk et al., 1985, p.60). In other words, phrases are constituents of a clause(s) in writing. Thus, respectively, combination of clauses into phrases is constrained not only by grammatical but by lexical and semantic considerations. This means that reduced form takes account how a sentence is composed of smaller units and components including words within a whole sentence.

Accordingly, phrases are categorized into five as *verb phrases, noun phrases, adjective phrases, adverbial phrases,* and *prepositional phrases.* Of these phrases, we will exclude verb phrases, noun phrases, and prepositional phrases due to their syntactic function as given in the examples below:

Verb phrase ----- The ship was sank.

Noun phrase ---- I remember Peter.

Prepositional phrase ----- I met her at the corner of the street.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p.62)

As seen in the examples given above, these three phrases function more differently than the reduction or deletion in the syntactic features. However, in this study, the goal of analyzing phrases in written products is to determine whether or not the students would demonstrate their linguistic maturity by putting sentences into phrases as complex parts of a language. Therefore, we also aimed at finding their improvement in using more embeddings such as infinitive phrases (e.g., *She was excited to see the lion in the zoo. < She saw the lion*

in the zoo. She was excited.), participial phrases (*e.g., Being scared by the lion, the girl began*

to cry. < The girl was scared by the lion. The girl began to cry.) and deleting unnecessary

words, which mean the index of development in writing. Table 4.9 presents the

nonparametric results of the average number of infinitive and participle phrases performed by

the experimental and the control group.

Table 4.9 The average number of phrases per text

GROUPS		Infinitive Phrase		Participial Phrase	
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
1 Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	1,57	3,62	0,65	1,86
	S.D	1,66	1,91	0,67	1,82
	Median	1,00	4,00	1,00	1,00
	Range	7	8*ff*	2	6*ff*
1 Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	1,57	2,57	0,57	1,33
	S.D	1,40	2,82	0,93	2,27
	Median	1,00	2,00	0,00	1,00
	Range	5	12	3	10
TEST 2					
Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	1,57	3,59	0,43	1,29
	S.D	1,66	1,86	0,68	2,35
	Median	1,00	4,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	7	8##	2	10
Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	1,57	2,48	0,62	0,62
	S.D	1,40	1,66	0,74	0,92
	Median	1,00	2,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	5	6	2	3
TEST 3					
Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	0,61	2,04	0,19	1,09
	S.D	0,86	1,32	0,40	1,30
	Median	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	3	5εε	1	5ε
Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	0,71	0,90	0,28	0,23
	S.D	1,23	0,76	0,46	0,43
	Median	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	2	2	1	1

f p<0.05, *ff* p<0.01, *fff* p<0.001 Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) -Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)
# p<0.05, ## p<0.01, ### p<0.001 Between Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)
ε p<0.05, εε p<0.01, εεε p<0.001 Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)

As observed from the figures in Table 4.9, only infinitive and participial phrases have

been analyzed separately in this study. The reasons for presenting the analysis of these

phrases will be presented in the following sections.

4.5.3.4.1 Analysis of Infinitive Phrases in a Text

Infinitive phrases constituting linguistic maturity are derived from two clauses (*adverbial clauses* and *noun clauses*); therefore, in order to distinguish in which form they are performed by the students, it is necessary to give an explanation about the types of infinitive phrases and examples concerning them as follow:

Adverbial clause ⟶ Adverbial phrase ⟶ *Infinitive phrase*
⟶ Participials
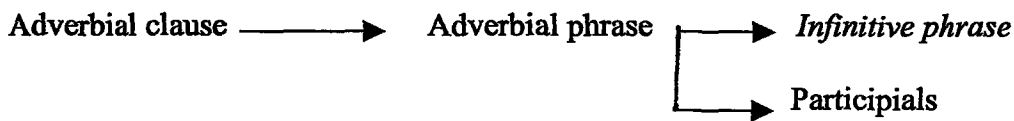
E.g. She works very hard so that she can be successful.

She works very hard to be successful.

Noun clause ⟶ Noun phrase ⟶ Abstract noun phrase
⟶ *Infinitive phrase*
⟶ Gerunds

E.g. I am happy that I am here.

I am happy to be here.

As seen in the examples given above, infinitive phrases can be reduced from both the noun clauses and adverbial clauses. Since they can be found in two different clauses, the data

obtained from the analysis are presented under the term of infinitive phrases, and the results

of Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3 are displayed below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	1.57	1.57	0.61
Cont. Gr.	1.57	1.57	0.71

As observed, both groups have performed the same results in the Sit-down Exam and

Untimed Composition whereas they have demonstrated very slight difference in the Timed

Composition. From these findings, it can be concluded that these students have transferred

the information they have perceived in the infinitive form of phrases since they are familiar to

use this structure in their other language courses (Grammar, Reading, and Writing).

When post-test results are taken into consideration, however, the experimental group

is observed to have achieved a significant difference at producing infinitive phrases (1.57 to

3.62) in Post-test 1, and in Post-test 2 (1.57 to 3.59) over the control group in Post-tests 1

(1.57 to 2.57) and 2 (1.57 to 2.48). In Post-test 3, it is seen that the experimental group has

achieved a significantly high success (0.61 to 2.04) whereas the control group has revealed

almost no difference in the production of these phrases in the same respect (0.71 to 0.90). In

other words, the usage of infinitive phrase has been found statistically significant in the

experimental group in the Tests 1, 2, and 3 whereas it has revealed no significant difference in

the control group who has produced slightly fewer infinitive phrases. This might lead us to

conclude that the experimental group has economically learned to convey the information

within phrases rather than clauses by the skills acquired through the SC technique. Figure

4.27 and Figure 4.28 below summarize the data obtained from these groups performing

infinitive phrases in the Sit-down Exam, the Untimed Composition, and Timed Composition.
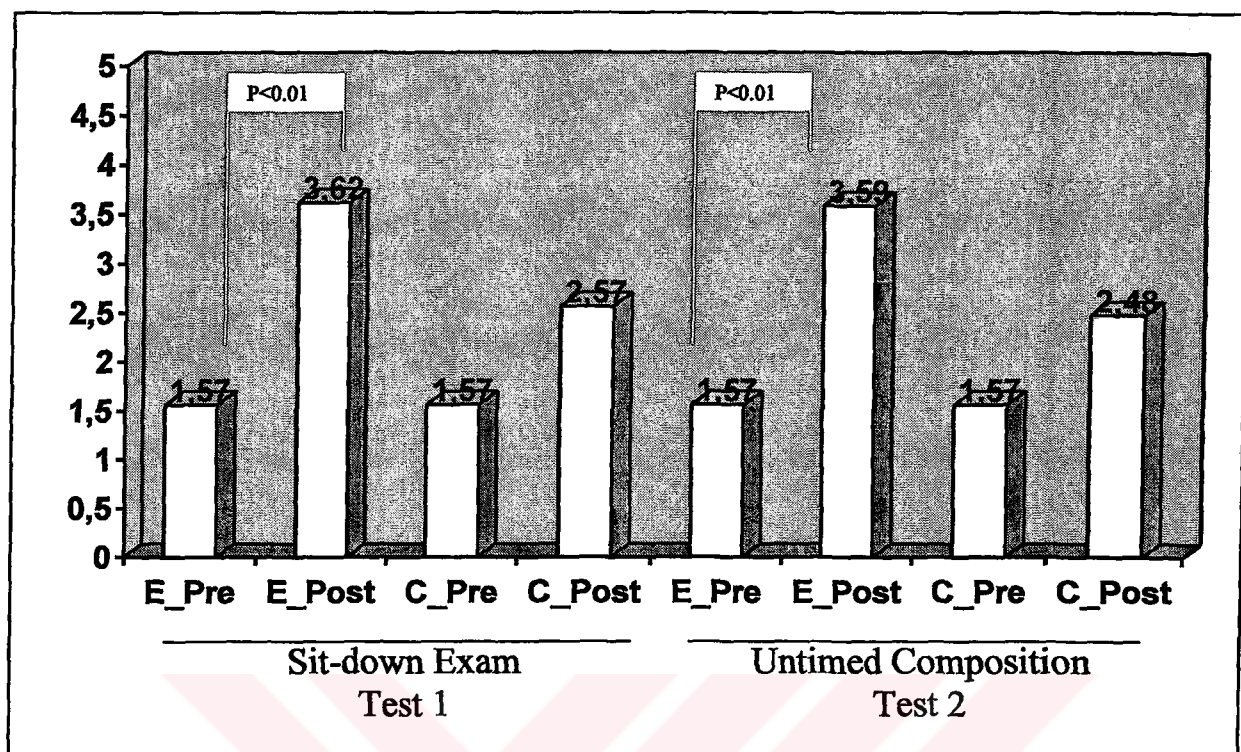
Figure 4.27 Infinitive phrases performed by the experimental and the control group

Figure 4.28 also summarizes the data on infinitive phrases in the Sit-down Exam and the

Timed Composition.
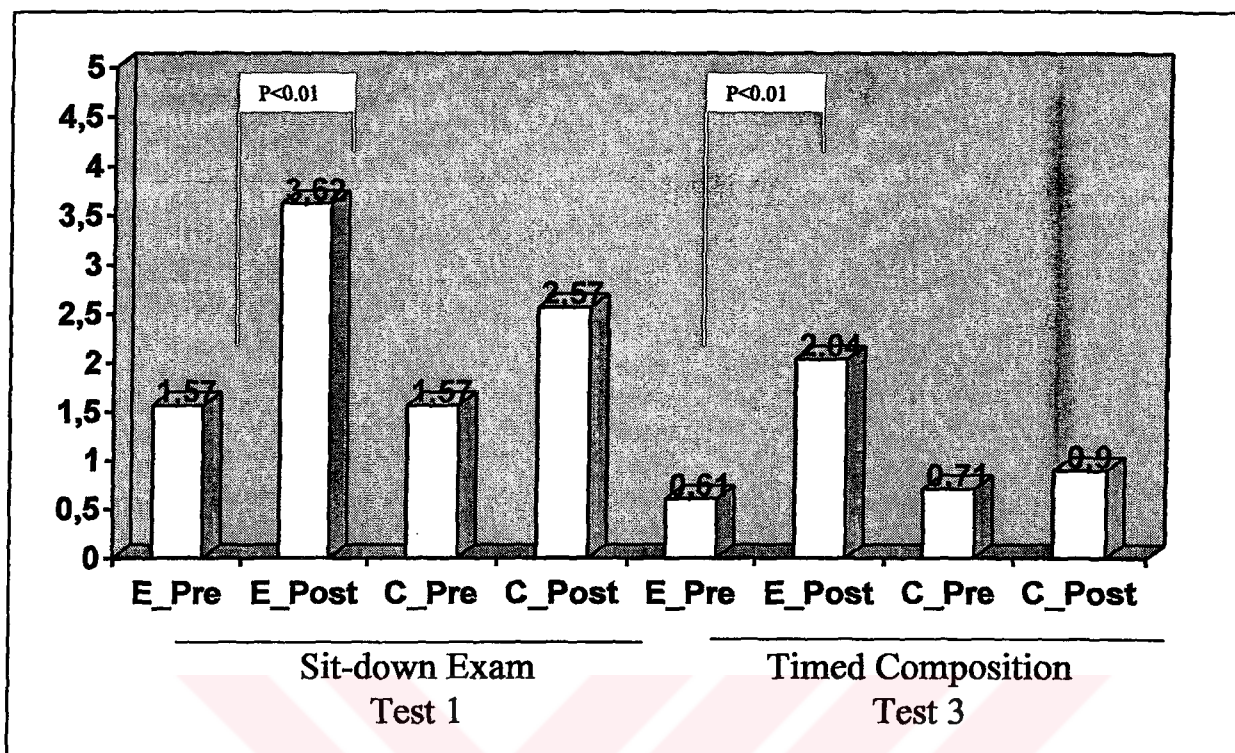
Figure 4.28 Infinitive phrases performed by the experimental and the control group

When the written products of the students in both groups are analyzed in terms of structure and style, we have observed that there is a difference in usage and style of the language these groups performed. This means the production of language used demonstrates a discrepancy between two groups; for example, we clearly observe that the infinitive phrases embedded in the multiple sentences have been accelerated in the group exposed to the SC technique. Additionally, the following two sentences performed by the experimental and the control group in Post-test support our Hypothesis 2 illustrating the difference in terms of language, content, and style.

(E₁') This system is so effective that it can be used in order to recover the other illnesses.

(17 words)

(C₁') Firstly, you should break it in your mind. Afterward, you can try to stop it physically.

(16 words)

In order to demonstrate how students put these sentences into embedded forms, they have been split into the clusters as follows:

(*E₁'*)   1.1   There is a system.

          1.2 This system is very effective.

          1.3 This system can be used

          1.4   This system is for recovery.

          1.5   This recovery is for other illnesses.

(C₁')   1.1 First, you break it.

          1.2 It is in your mind.

          2.1 Then, you can try to do something.

          2.2 This is to stop it.

          2.3 This is physical.

As seen in these two examples, while the student in the experimental group has used only one T-Unit, including five simple sentences, the student in the control group has used two T-Units two of which are simple sentences. When we consider the unity and coherence, the student exposed to the SC technique seems to perform superiority over the other student in this respect. Therefore, it can be claimed that these results support Hypotheses 2 and 3, which emphasizes the contribution of the SC technique on the syntactic maturity and quality in writing. Since these two items demonstrate the linguistic features in the production of language, we have also taken participial phrases into consideration as a stage beyond the language structure. Thus, the following section presents the data obtained from the results of conjunctions in the written products of students.

4.5.3.4.2 Analysis of Participial Phrases in a Text

Usage of participial phrases constitutes linguistic maturity; thus, we have also looked at the analysis of these phrases in written products in order to determine if there would be any significant difference in this respect. The reason of presenting the data on the participial phrases comes from the fact that these phrases are also reduced form two different clauses--adjective clauses and adverbial clauses-- as illustrated below:

Adjective clauses ————→ Adjective phrase ————→ Prepositional phrase

————→ *Participial phrase*

————→ *Past Participial*

————→ *Present Participial*
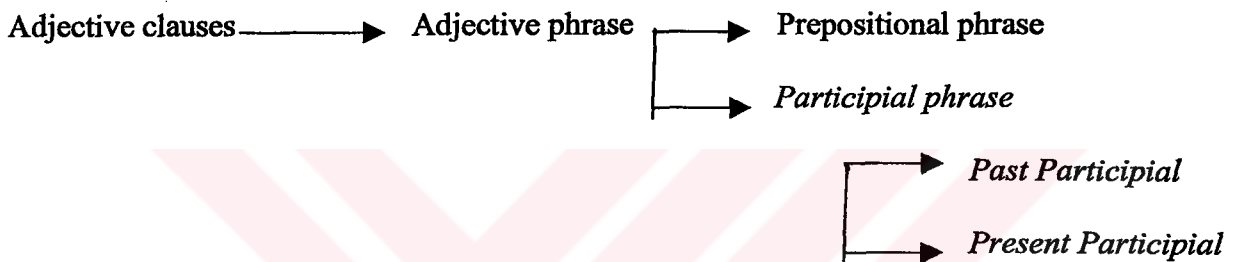
E.g. The girl who is sitting next to me is Mary.

The girl sitting next to me is Mary.

(Azar, 1989, p. 257)

Adverbial clause ————→ Adverbial phrase ————→ Infinitive phrase

————→ *Participials*

————→ *Past Participial*

————→ *Present Participial*
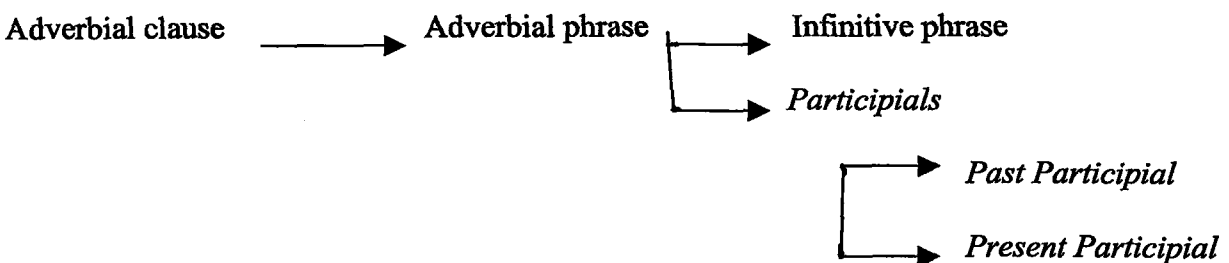
E.g. Because she needed some money to buy a book, Sue cashed a check.

Needing some money to buy a book, Sue cashed a check.

(Azar, 1989, p. 317)

Regarding participial phrases, at the beginning of the treatment, the production of these phrases between experimental and the control group is analyzed and the results of Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3 are presented below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	0.65	0.43	0.19
Cont. Gr.	0.57	0.62	0.28

As illustrated above, both groups seem to have performed similar results in the Sit-down Exam and Untimed Composition but they have produced fewer participials in the Timed Composition. Figure 4.29 summarizes the data obtained from the participial phrases in the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
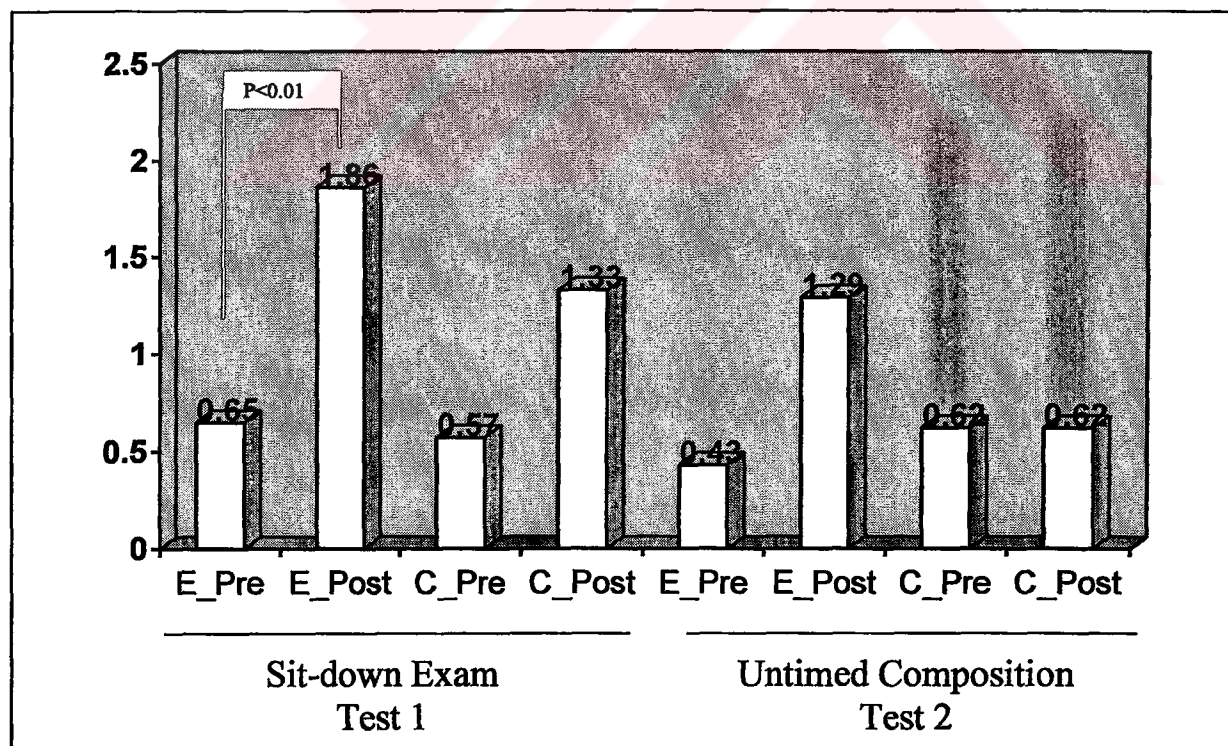
Figure 4.29 Participial phrases performed by the experimental and in the control group

Figure 4.30 summarizes the data on participial phrases in the Sit-down Exam and the Timed

Composition.
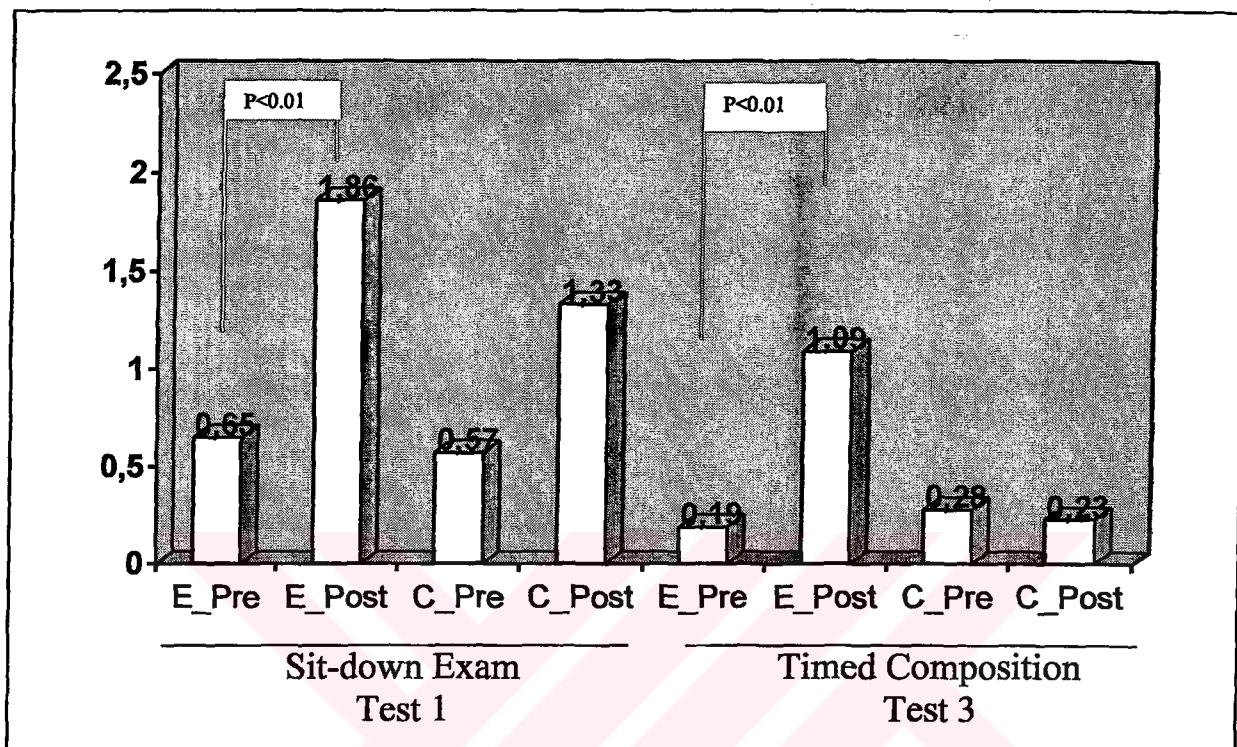
Figure 4.30 Participial phrases performed by the experimental and in the control group

As observed in Figure 4.29 and 4.30 above, in Post-tests 1, 2, and 3, analysis of

participle phrases displays that the experimental group has revealed a statistically significant

difference in Post-test 1 (0.65 to 1.86) whereas the control group has performed fewer

participials (0.57 to 1.33). The experimental group has performed more participial phrases

(0.43 to 1.29) than the control group (0.62 to 0.62) in Post-test 2. We observe that the

experimental group has achieved a significantly higher success in Post-test 3 (0.19 to 1.09)

over the control group (0.28 to 0.23) who revealed a decrease in the production of participial

phrases. From these results, it can be concluded that the experimental group has used the

production of these phrases more safely since they are trained to transform several sentences

into more matured way by the application of the SC technique. Consequently, these students

followed the instructions given to apply this technique. Briefly, the conclusions drawn from

the Figures 4.29 and 4.30 are that the SC technique followed in the treatment proves to be successful as it causes a statistically significant difference between both groups in using infinitive and participial phrases. In other words, we can claim that when students are exposed to the SC technique, they start writing more matured sentences including various syntactic patterns. Consequently, as seen in Table 4.8 sentence combining facilitates students' awareness of various transformation-related processes (e.g., embedding, permuting, coordinating, substituting, adding, and deleting) that are involved in producing and comprehending sentences in texts. These kinds of challenging exercises can help students sort out meanings and navigate the complex structures in any difficult texts. As a consequence of these findings, the following two sentences performed by both groups support our Hypotheses 2 and 3 illustrating these transformation-related processes below:

(E₁') By concerning about different types of sport activities such as a student trekking, cycling or running, the addicts can say "hello" to life once more and pass their lives more peacefully compared with their past. (35 words)

(C₁') Finally, you get some extra activities to spend a major of your time by doing it. (16 words).

In order to demonstrate how many clauses are embedded in each sentence, these sentences have been split into the clusters as illustrated below:

(E₁')   1.1 The addicts concern about types of activities.
    1.2 These activities are different.
    1.3 They are "a student trekking".
    1.4 They are "cycling".
    1.5 They are "running".
    1.6 The addicts say hello to.
    1.7 This is hello to life.

1.8 They pass lives.

1.9 This is their lives.

1.10 This is more peaceful.

1.11 This is better than their past.

(Cᵢ') 1.1 Finally, you get some activities u break it.

1.2 These activities are extra.

1.3 These activities are for spending time.

1.4 This is major of your time.

1.5 You do something.

As clearly demonstrated in these clustered-sentences above, the student in the experimental group has performed a significant superiority in producing T-Unit, including several simple sentences over the student in the control group. This production results from the application of the SC technique to reduce simple sentences into main clause revealing the statistically significant success in terms of participial phrases. As a result, we can claim that these findings also support Hypotheses 2 and 3. The result of the analysis of phrases has led us to consider the use of transitions and conjunction since they constitute the flow in a text. The results obtained from these constituents will be presented in the following section.

4.5.3.5 Analysis of Transitions and Conjunctions in Students' Written Products

Transitions and conjunctions constitute relationships between sentences and paragraphs, providing coherence and unity to the text. Moreover, they help the text's "flow" from one idea to another by establishing a logical order among the sentences, and this maintains clarity within the paragraph. In other words, it is the transitions and conjunctions, which facilitate students to compose a smooth and a sophisticated text. Therefore, in spite of the fact that transitions and conjunctions are sometimes neglected in writing instruction, we

believe the SC technique will be helpful for students to become aware of these constituents in

indicating the semantic and pragmatic relations within a text. Hence, in our analysis we tried

to investigate how students use the transitions and conjunctions effectively in written products

as a result of the application of the SC technique. Table 4.10 presents the nonparametric

results of the average number of transitions and conjunctions performed by the experimental

and the control group.

Table 4.10 The average number of transitions and conjunctions per text

GROUPS		Transitions		Conjunctions	
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
1	Mean	4,24	7,67	9,57	16,90
Sit-down	S.D	1,70	2,99	2,75	5,09
Exam	Median	4,00	7,00	10,00	16,00
(Exp. Gr.)	Range	6^f	10	11	20
1	Mean	3,62	6,10	8,76	17,48
Sit-down	S.D	1,77	3,46	3,88	5,09
Exam	Median	4,00	7,00	8,00	17,00
(Cont. Gr.)	Range	6^*	13^{***}	17	18^{***}
TEST 2					
	Mean	4,24	13,76	8,90	26,76
Untimed	S.D	1,70	5,83	2,05	12,28
Composition	Median	4,00	12,00	9,00	26,00
(Exp. Gr.)	Range	6	$21^{\#\#\#}$	8	$52^{\#\#\#}$
	Mean	4,29	6,52	8,86	15,48
Untimed	S.D	1,74	3,19	3,79	4,23
Composition	Median	5,00	6,00	8,00	16,00
(Cont. Gr.)	Range	6	10	17	15
TEST 3					
	Mean	1,76	5,42	1,76	7,04
Timed	S.D	0,76	1,20	1,22	1,82
Composition	Median	1	4	,00	4
(Exp. Gr.)	Range	3	$8\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon$	4	$10\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon$
	Mean	1,61	2,52	1,71	6,57
Timed	S.D	0,66	0,87	1,23	1,59
Composition	Median	1	1	,00	1
(Cont. Gr.)	Range	3	$4¤$	4	$9¤¤¤$

f p<0.05, ff p<0.01, fff p<0.001   Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) -Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)
$*$ p<0.05, $**$ p<0.01, $***$ p<0.001   Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)
# p<0.05, ## p<0.01, ### p<0.001   Between Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)
ε p<0.05, $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ p<0.01, $\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon$ p<0.001   Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)
$¤$ p<0.05, $¤¤$ p<0.01, $¤¤¤$ p<0.001   Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)

4.5.3.5.1   Analysis of Transitions

The reason why we have analyzed these constituents comes from the nature of the syllabus given to EFL students in their language courses. The analysis of sentences in terms of transitions have been presented in three types of tests in the pre- and post-forms: Test 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), Test 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and Test 3 (*Timed Composition*). The use of transitions in Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3, which are given before the treatment is observed and displayed as follows:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	4.24	4.24	1.76
Cont. Gr.	3.62	4.29	1.61

Considering the results of Pre-tests 1 (Sit-down Exam), and 2 (Untimed Composition), both groups seem to have used almost the same amount of transitions. When analyzing in which test they have performed better, it is observed that both groups have utilized more transitions in the Sit-down and in Untimed Composition than the Timed Composition.

The analyses of Post-tests 1, 2, and 3 highlight that both groups seemed to have an improvement for the production of transitions. Additionally, both control (3.62 to 6.10) and the experimental group (4.24 to 7.67) have achieved a statistical significance in Post-test 1. While the control group produced an increase in their use of transitions (4.29 to 6.52) in Post-test 2, the experimental group tripled their use of transitions (4.24 to 13.76) revealing a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$). Similarly, both the control (1.76 to 5.42) and the experimental group (1.61 to 2.52) have achieved a statistical significance in Post-test 3. The result of this increase lies in the fact that students are instructed in using transitions in the language courses (Grammar, Reading, Listening, Speaking, and Writing). Thus, students develop their ability linguistically in these conditions, and thus they start employing linguistic

constituents that make compositions alive. Figure 4.31 summarizes the data on transitions in the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
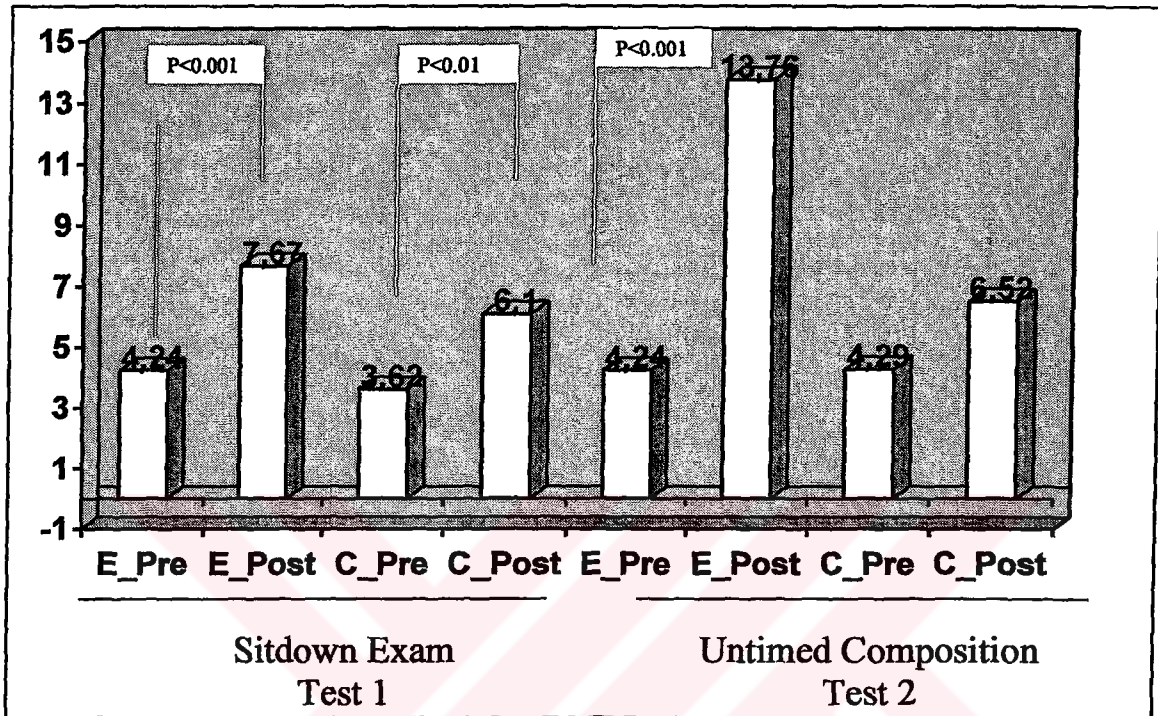
Figure 4.31 Transitions performed by the experimental and the control group

Figure 4.32 summarizes data obtained from the analysis of transitions performed by the experimental and control group in the Sit-down Exam and the Timed Composition.
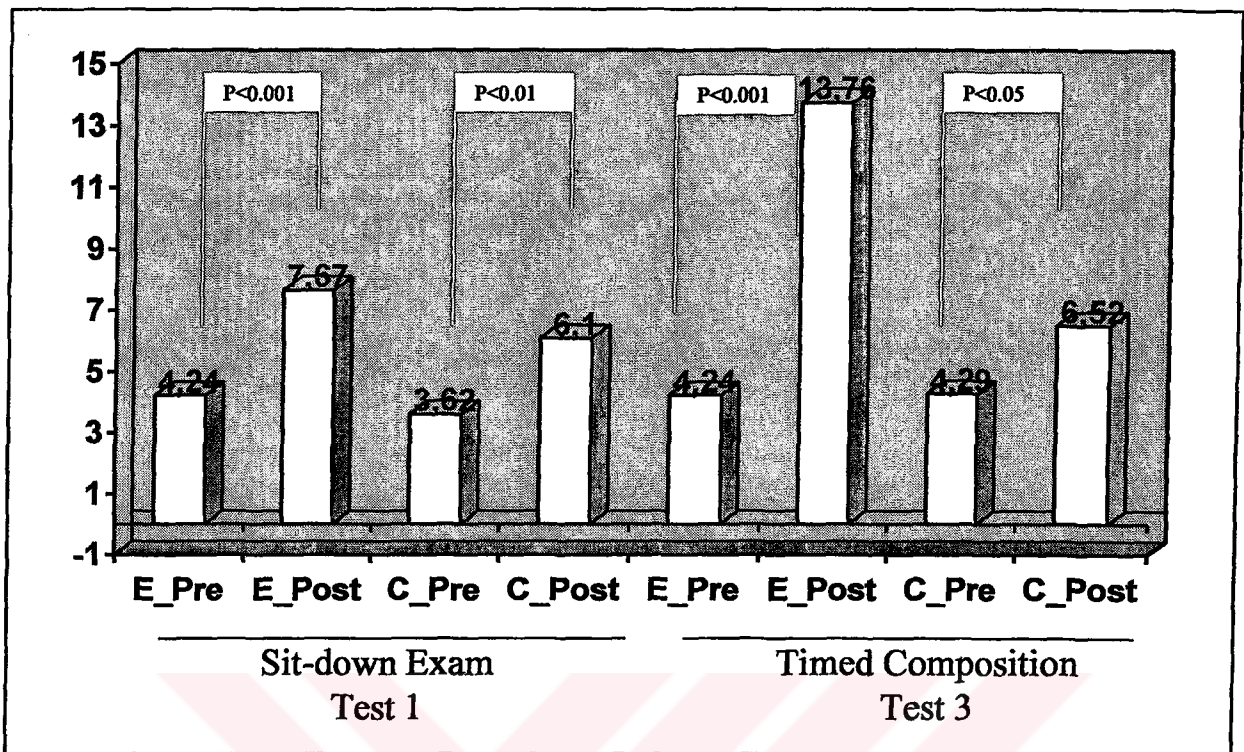
Figure 4.32 Transitions performed by the experimental and the control group

As indicated in Figure 4.32, the findings of the written products, especially in Test 2,

seem to support our Hypothesis 2 and 3 that the SC technique reinforces and develops a sense

of complex sentences and various transformations necessary for developing syntactic

maturity. In order to demonstrate the average use of transitions in the written products, the

following two compositions in Post-test are presented:

(*E₁'* 11* REYHAN I.)

Breaking a bad habit such as smoking, overeating or excess drinking is not as
easy as it looks; it requires many steps as everything is in your mind. **First of
all,** you should begin by eliminating the thoughts or desires of these habits.
While doing this action, you can consult a psychiatrist if you need a help. **Then,**
the psychiatrist will work with you to find the basic reasons that make you
smoke, overeat etc… After finding these, he will take those thins into
consideration to make you quit those habits. **The second step** is to take a

substitute instead of using these unhealthy things; **for example**, you can chew a chewing gum or take a candy when you want to smoke. It is found that the given examples are helpful for the people; **therefore**, many psychiatrists suggest this method to their patients. **Finally**, you can quit bad habits by your self, this means that you would prefer not to take external help as you may not want the people know that you are doing something wrong. **For instance**, an overdrinking person who is about to give up drinking may not tell this to a psychiatrist as it is his private life. **As a result**, breaking a bad habit with or without a help will be a good step for the person due to the fact that he knows how to start with.

(C₁' 11* MERAL H.)

Giving up smoking is one of the most common problem, which people always complain about. Some smokers claim its impossibility. If you follow these steps, you will be successful. **First step** is being decisive and promising to yourself. **Secondly**, you must decrease the number of cigarette, day by day. **For** decreasing, not litting the cigar is advisable but holding it in the mouth is advisable. **Next**, if you are a heavy smoker, don't buy more than one pocket in a day. After finishing the packet, you can pretend to not have money to buy another. Another step is chewing gum. When the mouth is busy with chewing, you don't think or want smoking. **Finally**, if you don't manage to stop it, you should consult an expert (see Appendices 3, 3A, and 3B for details on transitions).

---

* The number in the parentheses shows the students in both groups have been chosen randomly as the mid-student in the list of the class.

As indicated in the examples given above, the findings of the written products of the students in the experimental group and the control group seem to be startlingly different in the use of transitions even though both groups have performed transitions statistically significant in their writing. When the written products of the experimental group are observed in terms of transitions, it is seen that they add transitions more than the control group since they become aware of the difference between mediocre and exceptional writing rather than a group

of isolated sentences in a composition. The following section presents the data obtained from the results of conjunctions in the written products of students.

4.5.3.5.2 Analysis of Conjunctions

Conjunctions are included in any text because it presupposes a sequence and signals a relationship between segments of a text. In other words, conjunctions play an important role in creating a text; thus, students can certainly utilize these conjunctions in their composition to transfer information in a well-established structure to the reader. At this point, even though there are differences in their performances, students have a competence via the use of conjunctions since one of the major contributions of writing is to make written products have a flowing style. Hence, the written products of the students in this study have also been analyzed in terms of conjunctions in both pre-tests and post-tests. The results of pre-tests are illustrated below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	9.57	8.90	1.76
Cont. Gr.	8.76	8.86	1.71

When the results of Pre-tests 1(*Sit-down Exam*), 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and 3 (*Timed Composition*) are analyzed, it is observed that both groups have used similar amount of conjunctions in their written products. When Tests 1, 2, and 3 are considered, on the other hand, these groups seem to have produced more conjunctions in the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition than the Timed Composition due to the nature of these tests.

In order to attain information on the qualitative use of conjunctions as a result of the treatment, we have also analyzed the production of conjunctions in Post-tests 1, 2 and 3, and have seen that the results reveal statistical significance in all the tests for both groups. This means both experimental and the control group have performed conjunctions successfully. For example, while the experimental group has performed a high level of conjunctions (9.57 to 16.90), the control group has produced the same performance (8.76 to 17.48) in Post-test 1. The experimental group has also performed a significant success between the tests 1 and 2 (see Table 4.10). Regarding the results in Post-test 2, there is a similar trend in the use of conjunctions for both the experimental group who over tripled their conjunctions (8.90 to 26.76) and the control group (8.86 to 15.48). The results of Post-test 3 are the same for the experimental group (1.76 to 7.04) and the control group (1.71 to 6.57).

The reason why both groups have performed a significant increase in the production of conjunctions stems from the fact that conjunctions are dealt with separately in the syllabus of language courses (Grammar, Listening, Reading, and Writing) in the ELT department. In other words, students encounter conjunctions in their courses related to grammar and language skulls. Therefore, we cannot claim that the SC technique is the only factor to enhance the use of conjunctions in writing. Figure 4.33 summarizes data obtained from the analysis of conjunctions performed by the experimental and control group in the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
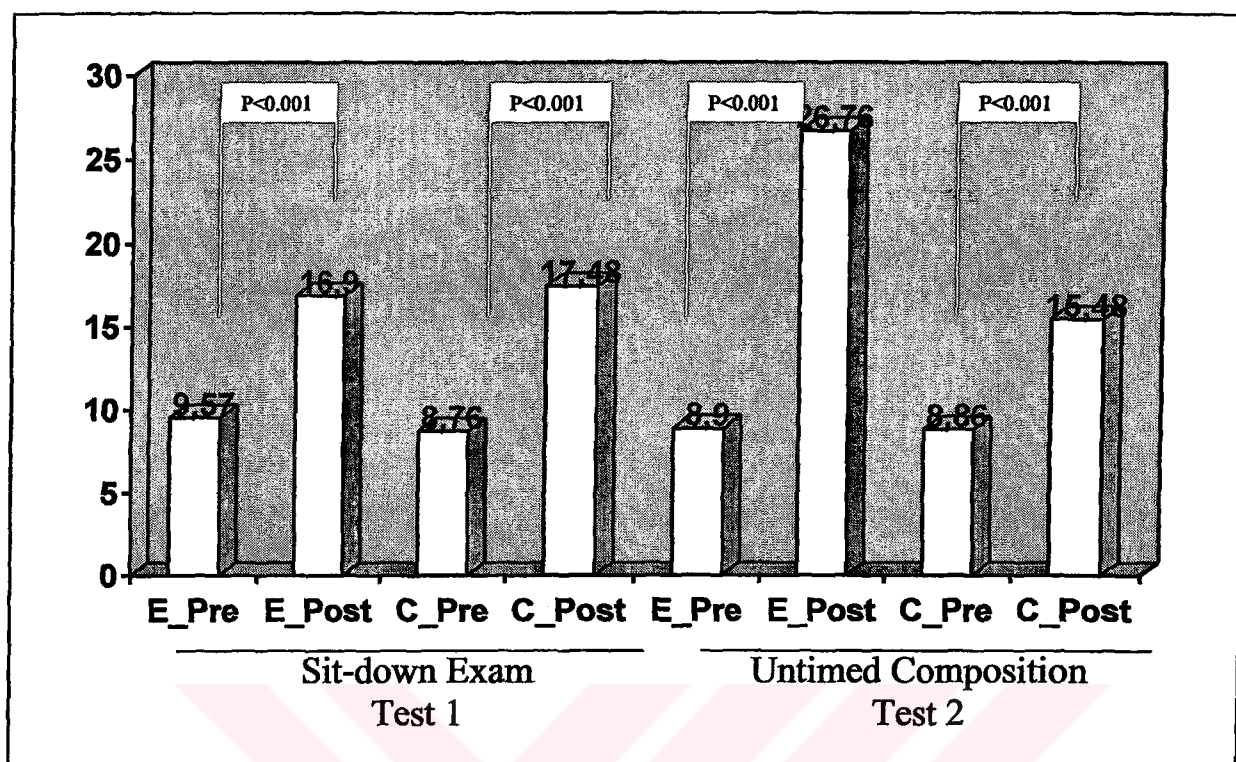
Figure 4.33 Conjunctions performed by the experimental and the control group

Based upon the findings given in Figure 4.33, it is particularly striking that their use of

conjunctions is considerably high for both groups with a statistically significant leap

(p<0.001). Thus, we believe that students have made a progress in the use of conjunctions

effectively. Therefore, having no statistical significance between the experimental and the

control group confirms our Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 (see Figure 4.34).
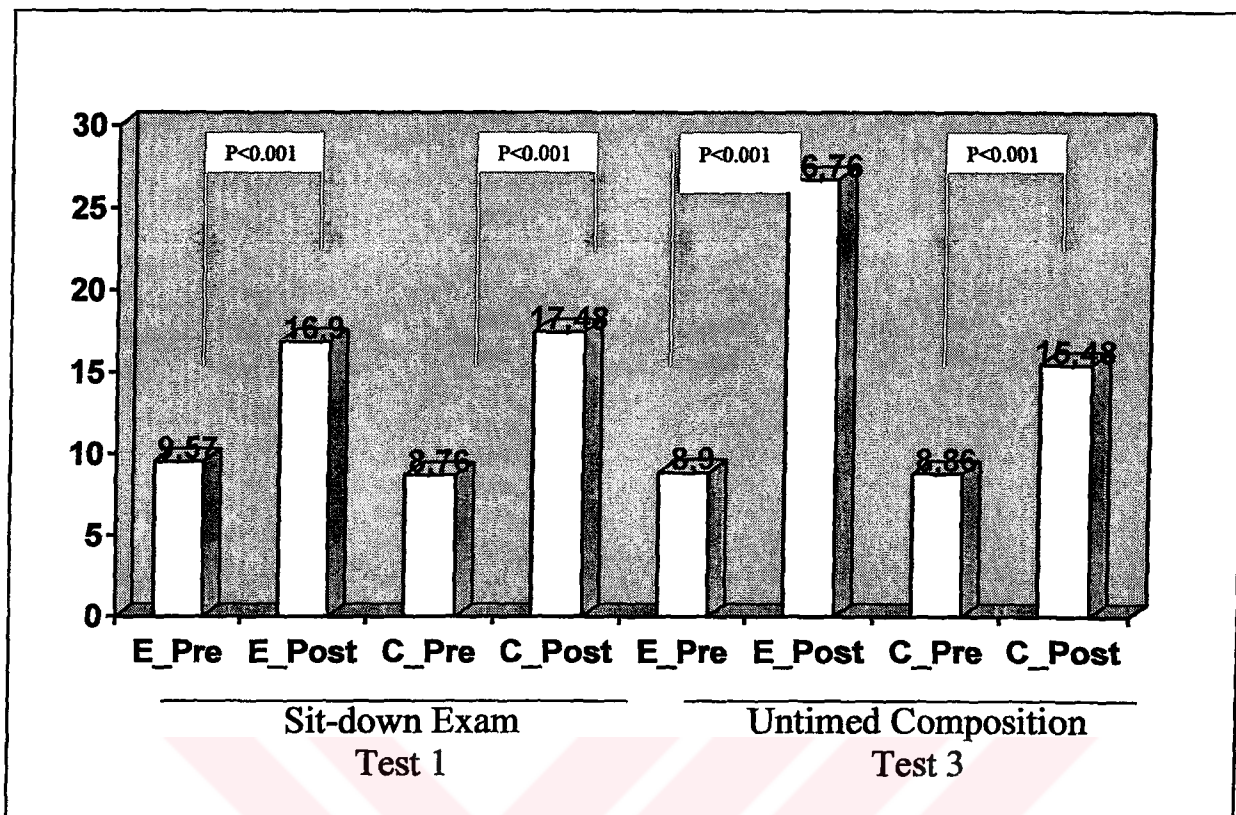
Figure 4.34 Conjunctions performed by the experimental and the control group

As illustrated in Figure 4.34, there occurs no specific significance between both groups confirming our Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. However, the following two compositions performed by the students in Post-test are presented in order to give information about the use of conjunctions in written products:

(E ı' 21* ÇİĞDEM S.)

Although people know the harms of bad habits such as smoking, overeating and excess drinking, they can't give up them easily. **However,** I think there are several solutions for those kind of people who try to do. First one is doing activities frequently in the daily life. **As long as** they spare their time with these activities, they don't have enough time to remember these habits. They, for example, feel relaxed **after** having done sport, **and so** they don't need to do other relaxitive things. **As** we know, some people belive smoking is the best solution during their bad times. In fact, it isn't seen so **when** we think logically.

Second one is taking a professional's help to fullfil your aim healthly. For instance, you can't stand without eating several times in a day. You put on weight day by day **and** this affects your health in a bad way. You try to get rid of this bad habit with your own techniques. You, for example, don' t eat for days **since** you believe you can lose weight more quickly. **Despite** all your efforts, you can't both success **and** even can cause health problems. That's why, you should go to an expert **and** take diet schedule that includes scientific suggestions. Another solution is attending alcohol courses to get rid of excess drinking problem until eternity. **Because of** the fact that there are many prople who have the same problem, you fell more confidently **and** don't think yourself as alianeted from the society. In addition, **as** you see their struggles, you want to success more willingly. You can find some people that have been successful on this problem, **and so** you can imitate their ways of escaping from the excess drinking. At last, perhaps you find the most suitable choice for yourself to implicate in your care.

Finally, there are many ways to break the bad habits **as long as** you really want to success some things. You should only be hopeful **and** shouldn't quit your aim **whatever** the problem is. You should think you will have a longer **and** healthier life without them.

(Cı' 21* GÜLER T.)

Begining to use a cigarette **or** alcohol doesn't seem to very important action at first sight; **but** on the other hand, **when** you become an addict to them, you will realize its importance. Then, there are some prescriptions to break them with effective ways. **When** you experience them, may be you will success **and** win the battle of stimulant.

First of all, smoking is the most widespread habit all over the world; **therefore,** the most common directions are developed about this field. You have a huge amount of alternatives to break smoking according to specialists. Firstly, you can apply to some courses which done by some cigaret experts **and** these courses make you as before in a short time, **but** you must be determined. Secondly, there are some other ways which can be done with yourself. **If** you

finish at least two pockets of cigaret in a day, you take step with buying only one pocket of cigaret.

Moreover, you can hide the pocket **and** you can be busy with something else. Eating fruit **or** vegetable is can be another way. Also, always think about its hazardous sides on body, maybe it will be a hinderance in front of you to prevent smoking. Next, many advertisements published on magazines, newspapers **or** television **because of** its enourmous effects on people. All of them are basic way to break, **but if** you want to prevent this dissemination, we must give enough importance to our education; **so** we don't have to do them. Second common addictive is drinking alchol. **However** it is thought it isn't **as** dangerous or widespread **as** smoking, it has nearly the same quality with smoking. In contrast, you are more lucky about breaking it, **because** maybe you can smoke **while** walking, you can't do same thing with alchol. **Nevertheless**, you have much time, with other words you are far away from alchol frequently. **When** we are aware of all these advantages, we will get more oriantations to put up it. Motivation is the most important factor. Also you can go some courses as smoking users.

To sum up, you can do countless ways to break smoking **or** drinking, **but** the chief way is your determining **and** self-confidence. **Furtermore**, you must be aware of the bad sides of those addicts, **and** try to put a great distance between you **and** them (see Appendices 4, 4A, and 4B for details on conjunctions).

* The number in the parentheses shows the last student in the list of each group has been chosen to show discrepancy in the use of conjunctions

As presented in the examples given above, the findings of the written products of the student in the experimental group and the control group seem to be almost the same in the production of conjunctions. Even though we have expected a statistically high performance in the use of conjunctions in the experimental group, we have observed that the performance of both groups were at the same level. Therefore, it can be stated that students' high performance of conjunctions is to their exposure of these linguistic units in their other language courses.

As a consequence of all these findings (clauses, reduced form of these clauses, transitions, and conjunctions mentioned above), we believe the SC technique emboldens students to manipulate various complex sentence patterns. Since the SC technique is a highly complex act that demands analysis and synthesis of many levels of thinking, students also become aware of using any linguistic feature, which enriches a composition respectively. The following section is devoted to the discussion of the accurate use of language in students' written products.

4.5.3.6 Analysis of Accuracy in a Text

Error-free sentences, erroneous sentences, and fragments are elements to be found in any student text. Clearly, their relative frequency of occurrence is robust indicators of how successfully or unsuccessfully, a given sample of students are writing. If the SC technique is efficacious in promoting sound language when compared with the control group, one should find a higher rate of error reduction and a lower rate of erroneous sentences and fragments in the experimental group. Although there is, admittedly, a subjective element in any text, this method of analysis provides at least quantitative bases from which statistical inferences can be drawn. Therefore, in order to be more certain about our findings relevant with above-mentioned issues, we have analyzed error-free sentences, erroneous sentences, and fragments in written products of the students in the experimental and the control group. Table 4.11 provides the data on the certain specified categories of possible errors in compositions.

Table 4.11 Categories of possible errors* sought in compositions

Verb
>	Auxiliary
>	Third Person Singular
>	Wrong Tense
>	Subject Verb Agreement
>	Missing Verb

Noun
>	Singular / Plural

Pronoun

Word Order

---

* These possible categories are emphasized in each chapter of the writing textbook used in writing course at ELT Dept.

As seen in Table 4.11, these errors directly contribute to the use of fragmented structures as well. Thus in our analysis, we have limited ourselves to these errors on sentences, clauses, and phrases. Even within this limited category, we have expected to find a correlation between the application of the SC technique and the correct language use in the written products. Thus, Table 4.12 presents the comparative nonparametric results of the average number of error-free sentences, erroneous sentences, and fragments performed by the experimental and the control group.

Table 4.12 The average number of error-free, erroneous sentences and fragments per text

GROUPS		Error-free Sentences		Erroneous Sentences		Fragments	
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
1 Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	9,39	13,71	0,90	1,05	0,90	0,43
	S.D	2,33	3,10	1,00	1,24	2,00	0,81
	Median	11	15	1	0	0	0
	Range	10	15^{ff}	3	3^{f}	8	3^{ff}
1 Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	10,85	17,17	1,10	3,67	0,76	1,43
	S.D	2,57	5,11	2,53	2,99	1,81	1,16
	Median	10	19	0	2	0	1
	Range	10	20	4*	11**	8**	3
TEST 2							
Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	5,72	14,29	4,76	2,62	2,14	0,43
	S.D	2,57	3,08	2,84	1,86	2,52	0,81
	Median	10,00	17,00	4,00	3,00	1,00	0,00
	Range	10	25	12	5	11	3
Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	5,90	12,62	3,86	3,76	1,86	1,05
	S.D	1,88	5,15	2,99	2,95	2,29	1,12
	Median	8,00	11,00	4,00	3,00	1,00	1,00
	Range	12	14	14	11	10	3
TEST 3							
Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)	Mean	6,39	12,38	3,85	1,61	2,04	0,28
	S.D	2,52	1,28	2,10	1,07	1,56	0,46
	Median	5	10,0	1	,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	13	14εεε	8	4εε	6	1εε
Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)	Mean	8,39	14,90	3,90	2,85	2,04	1,04
	S.D	2,50	3,33	2,11	2,32	1,49	1,11
	Median	5	8	1	0,00	0,00	0,00
	Range	13	17¤¤	8	9	6	3

f $p<0.05$, ff $p<0.01$, fff $p<0.001$ Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) -Sit-down Exam (Cont. Gr.)
$*$ $p<0.05$, $**$ $p<0.01$, $***$ $p<0.001$ Between Sit-down Exam (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.)
$\#$ $p<0.05$, $\#\#$ $p<0.01$, $\#\#\#$ $p<0.001$ Between Untimed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Untimed Composition (Cont. Gr.)
ε $p<0.05$, εε $p<0.01$, εεε $p<0.001$ Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.)
¤ $p<0.05$, ¤¤ $p<0.01$, ¤¤¤ $p<0.001$ Between Timed Composition (Exp. Gr.) - Timed Composition (Cont. Gr.)

4.5.3.6.1 Analysis of Error-free Sentences in a Text

In this part of the data analysis, we have analyzed error-free sentences to reveal improvements of the students in their written products in terms of accurate use of the language. This phase of investigation can be considered as a comparison of the degree of accurate structure used in Pre-tests and Post-tests. Therefore, the analysis of structures in terms of error-free sentences have been presented under the heading of Pre-tests 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and 3 (*Timed Composition*) below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	9.39	5.72	6.39
Cont. Gr.	10.85	5.90	8.39

As inferred from the figures above (see also Table 4.12), in Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3, there occur some differences in the use of error-free sentences for both groups. Especially in the Sit-down Exam, students have performed more accurate sentences than the other tests. However, in Test 2 we observe similar results. In order to see if there would be any development in their use of accurate structures, the written products have also been analyzed in Post-tests.

Focusing on Post-test results, however, there appears a clear difference. In other words, in Post-tests 1, 2, and 3, the number of error-free sentences in the control group is produced considerably higher (10.85 to 17.17) in Post-test 1 as compared to the one in the experimental group (9.39 to 13.71). Similarly in Post-test 3, the control group outperformed (8.39 to 14.90) the experimental group (6.39 to 12.38). It can be concluded that the control group pays attention to the use of language rather than unity, and consequently, there are more accurate sentences in their written products as compared to the experimental group. In Post-test 2, on the other hand, it is the experimental group who performed more error-free sentences (5.72 to 14.29) than the control group (8.29 to 11.62). The main reason for this success might stem from the nature of the syllabus of skill courses (Grammar, Reading, and Writing) in the ELT department. Therefore, the students in both groups focus on producing syntactically error-free sentences in their composition and ignore unity. Figure 4.35 summarizes data obtained from the analysis of error-free sentences performed by the experimental and the control group in the Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
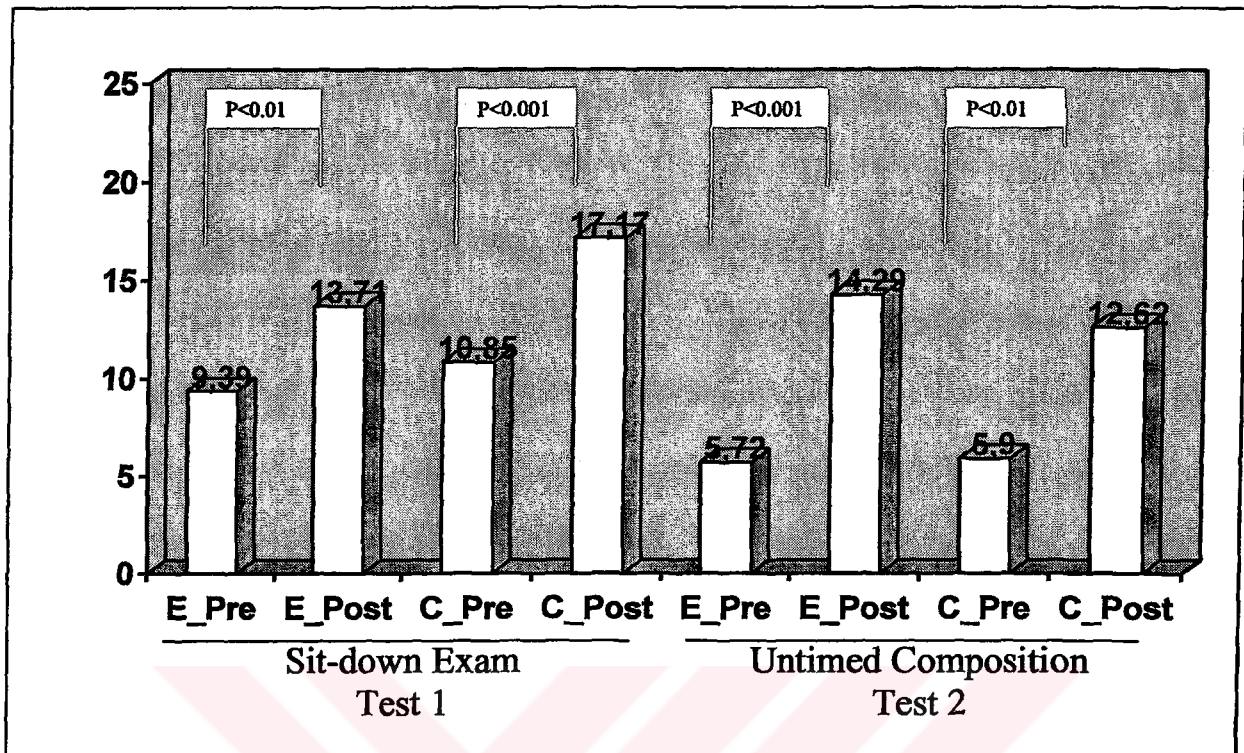
Figure 4.35 Error-free Sentences written by the students in the experimental and the control group

As the results in Figure 4.35 highlight, error-free sentences are found statistically significant for both groups in Post-test 1 and Post-test 2. In other words, there was an increase in the production of error-free sentences in both groups. Therefore, we cannot easily claim that students in the experimental group have benefited from the application of the SC technique. However, these findings might lead us to the conclusion that students might be using their general learning strategies in performing error-free sentences. Figure 4.36 summarizes data obtained from the analysis of error-free sentences performed by the experimental and control group in the Sit-down Exam and the Timed Composition.
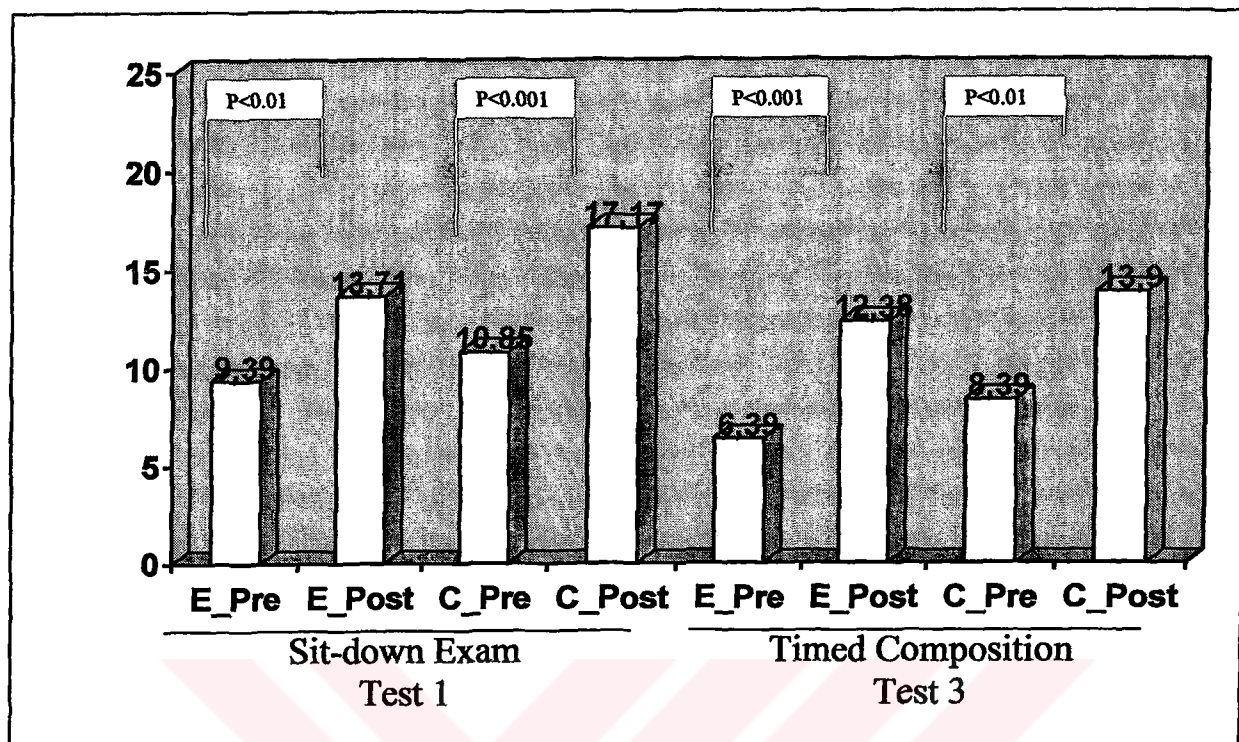
Figure 4 36 Error-free Sentences written by the students in the experimental and control group

As can be inferred from Figure 4.36, error-free sentences in Post-test 3 have shown the same results as Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 in this respect. This means all groups have developed to produce error-free sentences. Consequently, these results do not support our Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 based upon the significance of using SC exercises as far as the findings obtained from the analysis of error-free sentences in contrary to our preassumptions.

However, when compositions are analyzed in terms of unity, the experimental group, as previously mentioned, has been observed to have performed more linguistically matured sentences when compared to the control group, whose written products generally lack unity even though they maintain grammatical accuracy (see two sentences presented by the students in E_i' and C_i' in Section 4.5.3.2).

4.5.3.6.2 Analysis of Erroneous Sentences in Written Products

Erroneous sentences are analyzed to determine whether or not the students in the experimental group would achieve a lower degree of these sentences than the control group in their writing. In other words, this investigation is a comparison of errors made in Pre-tests and Post-tests administered in these forms: Test 1 (*Sit-down Exam*), Test 2 (*Untimed Composition*), and Test 3 (*Timed Composition*). In order to see whether there would be any discrepancy in the use of erroneous sentences, the results of Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3 for both groups are displayed below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	0.90	4.76	3.85
Cont. Gr.	1.10	3.86	3.90

Production of erroneous sentences in Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3 varies for both groups. For instance, erroneous sentences are the lowest in Pre-test 1 as opposed to Pre-test 2 and Pre-test 3. This means students in both groups have performed fewer erroneous sentences in their compositions due to the nature of Sit-down Exam in the Untimed Composition and the Timed Composition.

The number of erroneous sentences in Post-tests, however, has increased from 0.90 to 1.05 in the experimental group in Post-test 1, and from 1.10 to 3.67 in the control group. This indicates that the experimental group has also demonstrated a significant success both in Post-tests 1 and 2, which they have demonstrated a high performance (4.76 to 2.62) in Post-test 2 as compared to Pre-test 1. The results for the control group in Post-test 2 have revealed almost no change (3.86 to 3.76). In Post-test 3 as well, the experimental group has performed a significant success (3.85 to 1.61) when compared to the control group in the production of

the erroneous sentences (3.90 to 2.85). Figure 4.37 summarizes data obtained from the

analysis of erroneous sentences performed by the experimental and the control group in the

Sit-down Exam and the Untimed Composition.
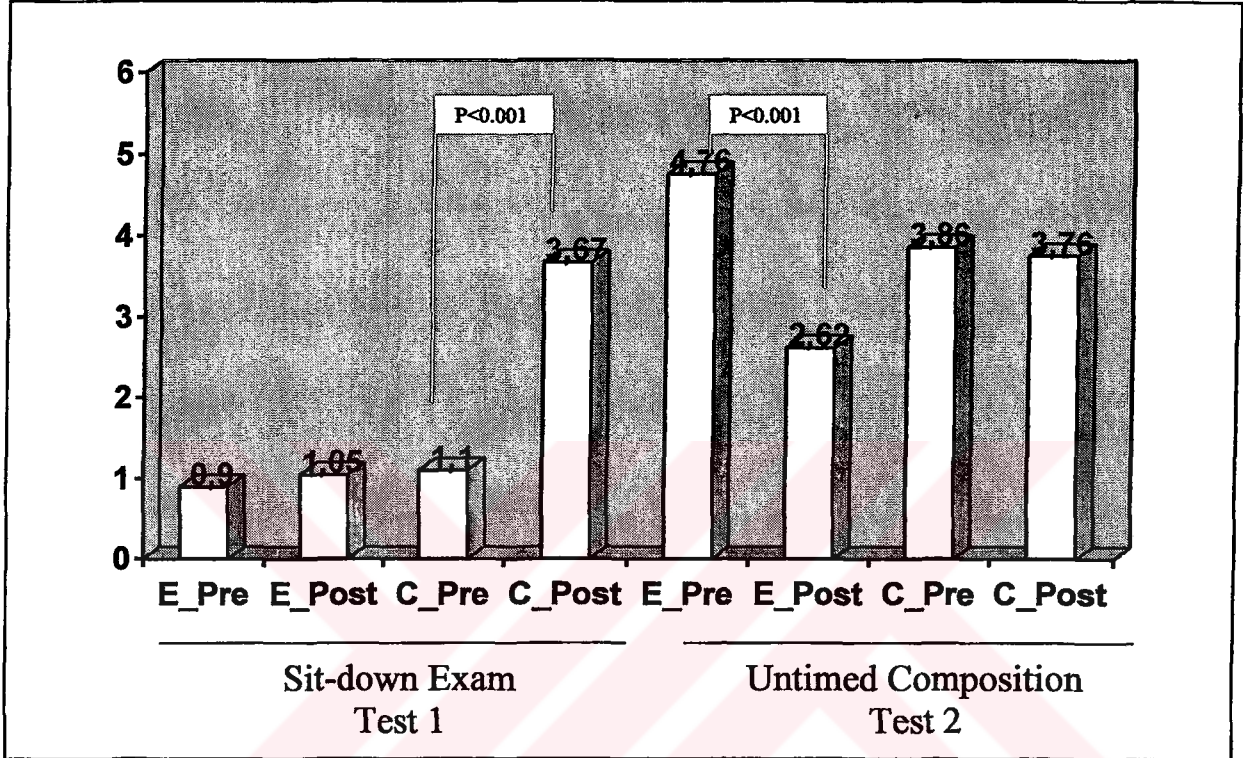
Figure 4.37 Erroneous sentences performed by the experimental and the control group

Figure 4.38 summarizes data obtained from the analysis of erroneous sentences performed by

the experimental and the control group in the Sit-down Exam and the Timed Composition.
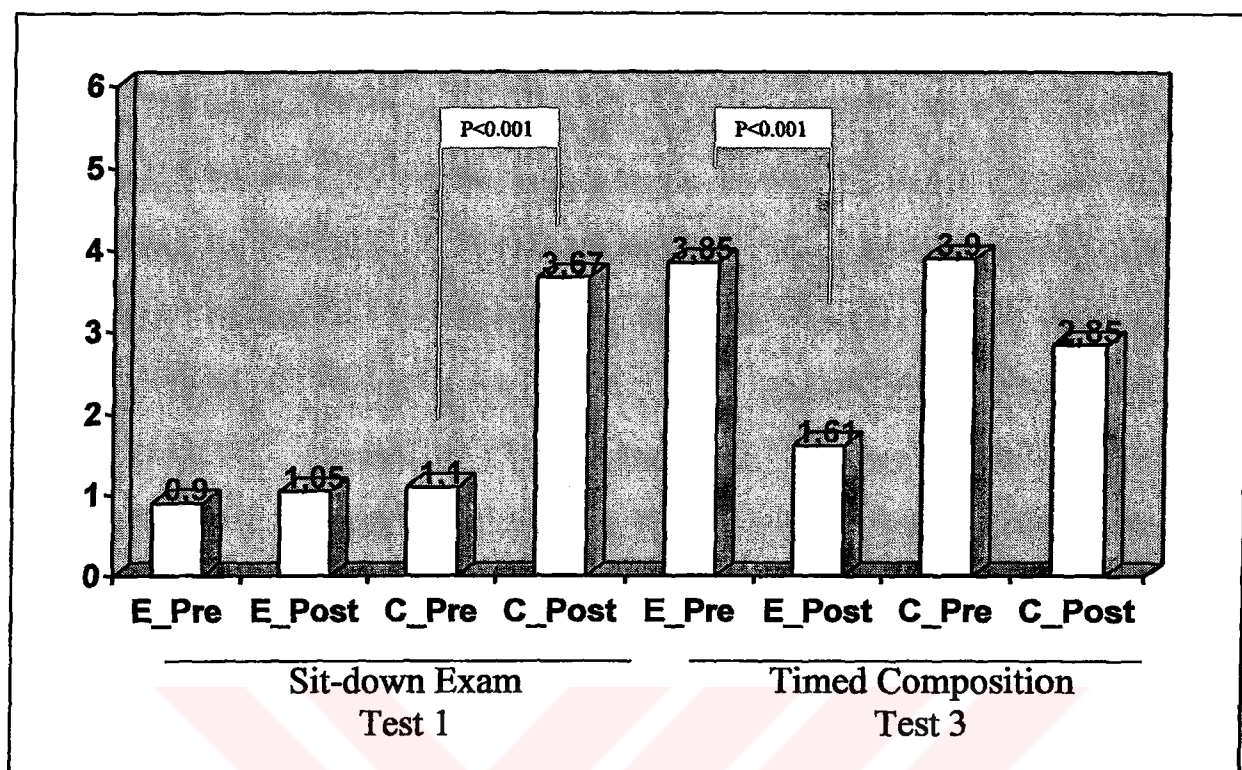
Figure 4.38 Erroneous Sentences written by the students in the experimental and the control group

Consequently, as observed in Figure 4.37 and Figure 4.38, in the performance of the experimental group, we observed a measurable decrease in the use of erroneous sentences because these students have learned to become aware of grammatical correctness by the skills they have acquired through the SC technique. However, it is a striking point that the control group has kept producing erroneous sentences in great number in Post-test 1. Additionally, in Post-test 2, no decrease is observed in using erroneous sentences in the compositions written by the control group. Therefore, we can claim that these results support our Hypothesis 3, which is emphasizing the importance of implementing SC exercises in writing courses (see Section 1.5 in Chapter 1). In the following section, we have presented the data obtained from the tests in terms of fragments.

4.5.3.6.2 Analysis of Fragments in Written Products

The use of fragments--uncompleted sentences-- has been analyzed in the pre- and post-tests in order to determine whether there would be any discrepancy in the usage between two groups, and the results of Pre-tests 1, 2, and 3 have been presented below:

	Pre-test 1	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 3
Exp. Gr.	0.90	2.14	2.04
Cont. Gr.	0.76	1.86	2.04

As demonstrated above, both groups have almost performed similar number of fragments in their written products in all Pre-tests. Expectedly as observed in the previous sections, both of the groups have performed the least of the fragments in their writing in the Sit-down Exam opposed to the other tests 2 and 3, in which they have produced the same amount of fragments.

According to Post-test results, it is seen that the average number of fragments in the experimental group has decreased more considerably (0.90 to 0.43) than the control group (0.76 to 1.43) in Post-test 1; similarly, the same group has demonstrated a superiority (2.14 to 0.43) over the control group (1.86 to 1.95) in Post-test 2; and the experimental group again has achieved a significant difference (2.04 to 0.28) over what the control group (2.04 to 1.04) has performed in Post-test 3. These findings reveal that the students exposed to the SC technique tend not to use fragments in their composition since they are trained to write more matured sentences. The feature gained through this technique increases their ability of transferring targeted syntactic knowledge to their writing, and also other linguistic and cognitive variables contribute to the readability of texts in terms of correctness of language in the written text when compared with the control group. Therefore, we can claim that our

Hypotheses 2 and 3 are supported by the results obtained from the use of erroneous sentences

and fragments. Figure 4.39 summarizes the data obtained on fragments in the Sit-down Exam

and the Untimed Composition.
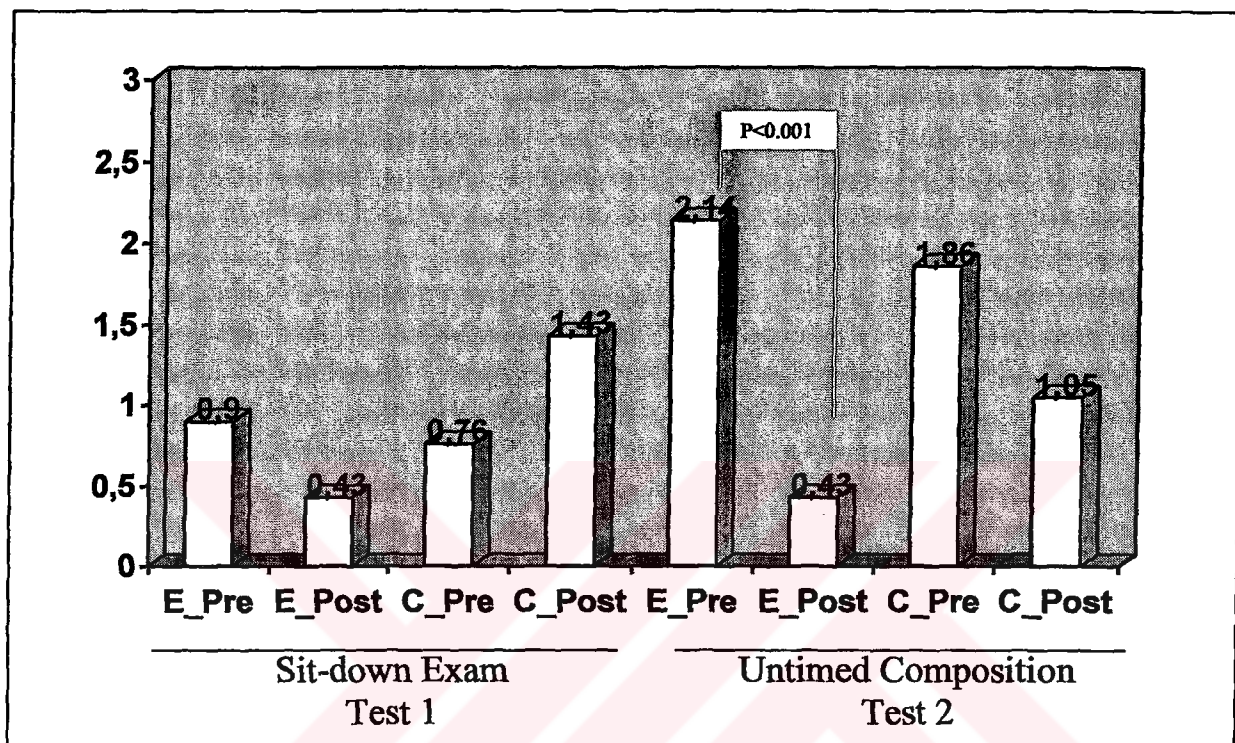
Figure 4.39 Fragments performed by the experimental and the control group

Figure 4.40 summarizes the data obtained on fragments in the Sit-down Exam and the Timed

Composition.
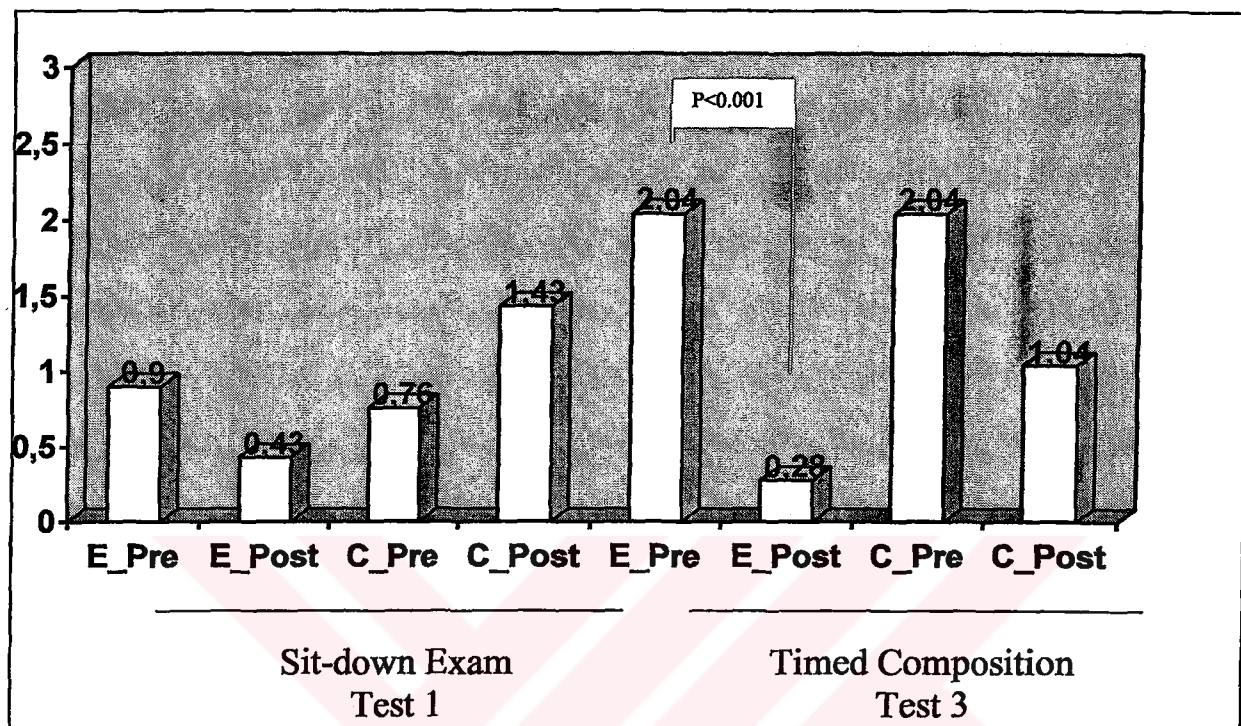
Figure 4.40 Fragments performed by the experimental and the control group

As depicted from Figure 4.39 and Figure 4.40, with progressive development, the

experimental group has decreased their use of erroneous sentences and fragments to a

statistically significant level when compared with the performance of the control group.

Especially, after the treatment, the students in the experimental group started producing more

subordinations (e.g., embeddings, reduced clauses, and phrases), and they gained writing

skills in terms of grammatical correctness when compared to the ones in the control group.

Consequently, these results support the importance of application of the SC technique in

writing as an enhancing factor as hypothesized in this study (see Section 1.5 in Chapter 1).

The next section presents the analysis and discussion of the results obtained from the Progress

Sheet, the self-assessment process carried out in the experimental group.

4.6 Results of the Progress Sheet

One of our purposes in this study is to enhance the writing quality in students' composition. One way of achieving this purpose is to embolden students in self-assessment process in order to make them familiar with what their problems are and how they can overcome these problems. Therefore, the Progress Sheet (PS) has also been given to the experimental group as a self-assessment because this sheet derives from students' identifying their problems, strengths, and weaknesses of their writing samples (see Appendix 2). This assessment is a natural part of practice, an informal exercise for students to assess their own written products and revise them accordingly. This is an easy, comfortable, and non-threatening part of the process of growth in written language.

The PS comprised seven sections of Grammar, Connectors, Punctuation, Vocabulary and Spelling, Complex Sentences, Paragraphs, and Composition, on which students are required to make assessment as follows:

1. **Grammar**. Becoming familiar with Verb, Subject Verb Agreement, Tense, and Plural & Singular form of components in sentences. Grammar and usage of language contribute to clarity and style.

2. **Connector**. Determining which connector is necessary to fulfill in a rhetorical pattern. Connector makes the text coherent and unified.

3. **Punctuation**. Using correct punctuation (, / . / ; / : / ? etc.) to give an emphasis on the meaning. Punctuation provides awareness for accuracy and guides the reader through the text (Lewis, 1996).

4. **Vocabulary & Spelling**. Becoming aware of appropriate words and correctness of their written form in a composition.

5. **Complex Sentences**. Applying various types of structure in a text. Students may manipulate conventions--especially grammar and spelling--for stylistic effect.

6. **Paragraph**. Employing a variety of rhetorical devices. The writing is sufficiently long and complex to allow the writer to show skill in using a wide range of conventions.

7. **Composition**. Organizing the patterns of paragraph into a full text.

The first six items (#1 to #6) presented above are intensively emphasized in each unit of the writing textbook entitled "Paragraph Development: A guide for students of English" (Arnaudet & Barrett, 1986). The last item (#7) is not emphasized until the end of the Spring Term since the textbook mostly includes paragraph development. These items are scored out of five in the Progress Sheet (PS). Five is considered as the highest score while one, the lowest. The scores given by the students themselves for each composition they have written during the seven-week treatment. The researcher recorded these scores together with her own to see if there is any difference between the score given by the student and the researcher (see Appendix 2). The Friedman Test available in the SPSS program was utilized to analyze the scores illustrated in the table below. Table 4.13 presents the results of self-assessment performed by the students in the experimental group from the middle (see Section 3.4.1 Week 6) through the end of the treatment.

Table 4.13 The results of Progress sheet self-assessed by the students in the experimental group

CRITERIA	TEACHER		STUDENT		Teacher	Student
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Asymp.Sig.	Asymp.Sig.
*GR	3,1429	,3586	3,7143	,8452		
*CON	2,8571	,7270	4,0000	,8367		
*PN	3,0952	,3008	3,9524	,9207	,000	,029
*VS	3,0952	,3008	3,0000	,8944		
*CX	2,8571	,5732	3,5714	,9783		
*PRF	3,0476	,2182	3,3810	,9735		
GR	2,8571	,4364	4,1905	,6796		
CON	2,8571	,7270	3,0476	1,0235		
PN	3,1429	,3586	3,6667	,5774	,000	,075
VS	3,0952	,3008	3,7143	,9024		
CX	2,8571	,5732	3,7619	,9952		
PRF	3,0476	,2182	4,0952	,7003		
GR	2,8571	,4976	3,4762	,8729		
CON	2,8095	,6796	3,8571	,9636		
PN	3,0476	,4976	3,4762	,8729	,000	,023
VS	3,0952	,3008	3,5238	1,0779		
CX	2,8571	,4364	3,7619	,9735		
PRF	3,2381	,5118	3,6190	1,0235		
GR	2,8095	,6690	3,5714	1,0282		
CON	3,0476	,5896	4,0000	,8367		
PN	3,0952	,3008	3,7143	,6437	,000	,106
VS	3,5238	,6016	3,4762	,9284		
CX	3,0952	,6547	3,5238	1,0779		
PRF	3,2085	,5891	3,8095	,8136		
GR	3,0476	,4976	4,0000	1,0954		
CON	3,1905	,4024	3,4762	3,4762		
PN	3,8571	,3586	3,8571	,9103	,000	,517
VS	3,7619	,4364	3,8095	,9284		
CX	3,1429	,7270	3,6667	,8303		
PRF	3,8095	,8891	3,7619	,9952		
GR	4,0476	,2182	3,7619	,7003		
CON	3,8571	,3586	3,6667	,8729		
PN	3,6667	1,0165	3,8571	,5732	,000	,014
VS	3,6190	,8646	3,8571	,7270		
CX	3,8571	,6547	3,5238	,8136		
PRF	3,7619	,8891	4,0476	,8047		
GR	3,7143	1,0071	3,7143	1,0071		
CON	3,7143	,8452	3,7143	,8563		
PN	3,4762	,8136	3,8571	,8136	,000	,071
VS	3,6667	,7303	3,6190	,8646		
CX	3,5238	,8136	3,8571	,6547		
PRF	3,7619	,8891	3,7619	,8891		

*GR   Grammar   (Number next to each abbreviation denotes the week for assessment)
*CON   Connectors
*PN   Punctuation
*VS   Vocabulary & Spelling
*CX   Complex Sentences
*PRF   Paragraph

With the help of the PS, as observed in Table 4.12, students have demonstrated a good grasp of standard writing conventions (e.g., grammar, capitalization, spelling, usage, punctuation, and paragraphing) and used them effectively. As a result of assessing their own written products, the students in the experimental group have demonstrated an improvement in establishing standard compositions. Even though they were not aware of criteria on writing compositions at the initial stages, they could produce sentences or paragraphs according to the desired criteria at final stages. At the beginning, before assessing their own written products, they graded their peers' compositions or other students' compositions; they assessed their own compositions throughout the treatment; accordingly, they valued both their peers' and teacher's recommendations related to their written products in terms of seven criteria in order to succeed a well-established composition.

Students in the experimental group were required to keep diaries not only for their writing courses but also for their self-assessment with the PS throughout the treatment. The purpose of keeping diaries was also to obtain information about their tendencies and attitudes toward writing and self-assessment. In their diaries, at initial stages the students reflected their unwillingness in assessing their paragraphs and unconsciousness in scoring. However, in the later stages, they were observed to begin assessing their written products more objectively. The reason of this was that they realized the contribution of the PS as it helps them monitor their own compositions and performance, and over view their own strengths and weaknesses toward analyzing their own samples as presented in Figure 4.41 below.
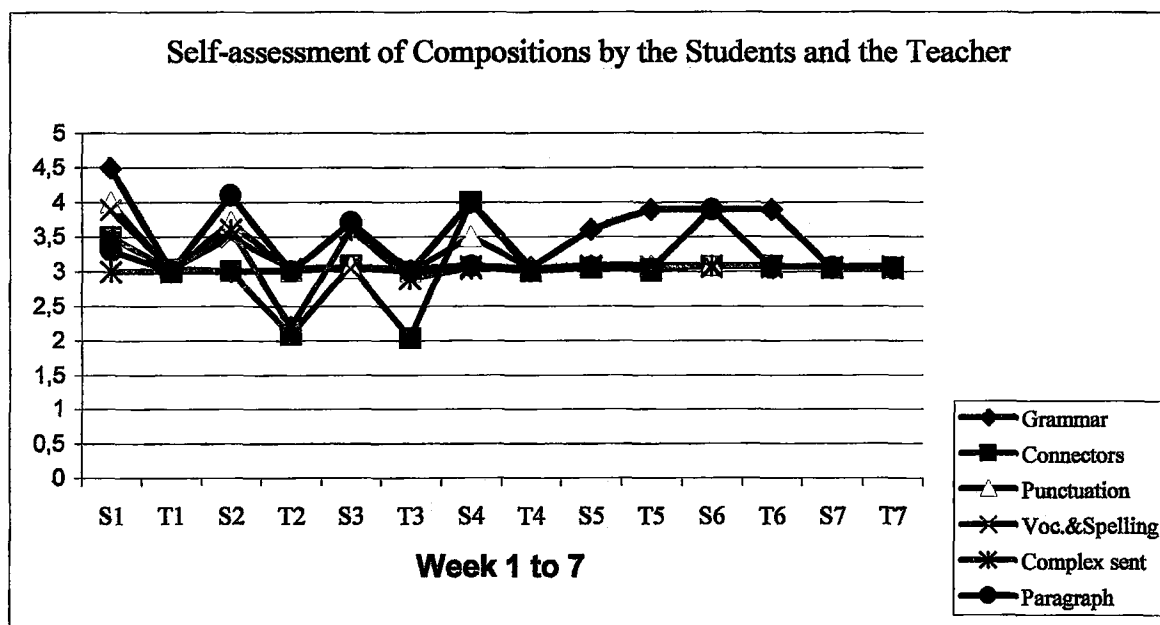
Figure 4.41 Self-assessment of compositions by the students and the teacher

As observed in Figure 4.41 above, students have started assessing their written products subjectively when compared with the assessment of the teacher; however, in final stages it is obvious that they began assessing their written products more objectively than of those they did in the initial stages. Students are observed to express their thoughts and feelings through logic and coherence. In other words, they start writing more matured sentences since the PS is a recursive process in making judgments on their conception of the context (see Appendix 13). Students develop an awareness of the seven previously mentioned sections; students can be considerably effective at monitoring and judging their own written products. Consequently, when students are involved in their own assessment through the PS, they have a very clear knowledge of how a paragraph is written in a well-established form. This means the PS is considered to provide students with more informative feedback about their strengths and areas to be improved in their writing skills than they learned from the grade they get from their teacher (Goodrich-Andrade, 2000). Thus, the use of the PS seems to

have supported to enhance students' effectiveness on the syntactic fluency, syntactic maturity, and overall quality in their writing.

In the next chapter, under the light of the data analyses conducted, the overall evaluation will be done considering the hypotheses (see Chapter 1) and the theoretical background (see Chapter 2). Implications of the study for English language teaching will also be presented along with the suggestions for further research in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary of the Study

The focal concern of this study emerges from the need to determine whether or not (1) the SC technique enhances students' syntactic fluency and accuracy in their writing skills and (2) the role the SC technique plays in developing a richness and complexity in their writing. The study hypothesizes that it is possible to improve students' writing skills, as a result, help them become more effective writers, and then obtain a higher comprehension and understanding of the language they are studying. In other words, if students are trained by the SC technique, they will practice a range of syntactic structures, and experience an overall improvement in the following:

- grammatical correctness,
- sentence fluency,
- sentence variety,
- organization of their writing, and
- cohesion between sentences and in paragraph.

For this purpose, 21 students, enrolled in the English Language Department of Education Faculty of Cukurova University, were randomly selected to participate in an eleven-week training based upon the SC technique. In addition to this experimental group, a control group was formed of another 21 students, resulting in a sample population of 42 students.

Furthermore, in order to assess the impact of the SC technique, students in both groups were administered the same Pre-test and Post-test. The students' compositions were then analyzed statistically (using the computer text analysis program, entitled Concordance 3.0 by Rob Watt) and manually (using Kellog Hunt's T-Unit analysis).

Before our students could successfully participate in the study, however, Prof. Ekmekci and I believed they had to become aware of the following questions:

1. How does a sentence function on syntactic and grammatical level?

2. How can a series of simple sentences be clustered into larger syntactic units to create complex sentences?

3. How should these clusters or paragraphs logically communicate thoughts in order to influence the reader in some way?

Based on the questions we inquired, this study has revealed that practicing the SC technique, making choices among various syntactic structures, and transferring them to the students' writing style will develop their "sense" of correctly written paragraphs, and that these prerequisite stages can dramatically improve their awareness and ability to write composition in a flowing style.

This study has also revealed that all students have at least a fair sense about the first question. However, we have wanted to go one step further: it is to convince them of how a sentence functions, and of the virtues of using the language critically to produce real effects on their readers. As a result, we have wanted them to discover that the goal of sentence combining is not simply to make long sentences; on the contrary, the goal is to make complex yet understandable sentences that influence the thoughts of the reader.

5.2 Research Questions

In this study, we have focused on the theory of the SC technique arguing that an internal reader or inner monitor enables the writer to assess and change not only the written text, but also his or her thinking about the context and meaning of the discourse. In other words, through the critical thinking theory, it enables the writer to assess and enhance simple sentences, by pondering the relationship between the structure and the meaning to be conveyed (Kleine, 1983). By including both the reader and the writer (inner monitor), the theory emphasizes why writing is not only a form of communication with an audience, but also a process of cognition in internalizing the FL for the writer. Based upon this critical thinking theory, the study sets out with the following research questions:

1. Does the manipulation of the SC technique, in which clustered-sentences are combined into single complex sentences, accelerate students' syntactic fluency in their writing?

2. Does combining sets of simple clustered sentences into a single meaningful complex sentence enhance students' syntactic maturity in writing a composition?

3. Does the SC technique enhance the overall writing quality of students?

We will present what answers we have found regarding our research questions in Section 5.3 where we discuss how our hypotheses are supported.

5.3 General Outcomes of the Study

In this study, four hypotheses concerning writing skills were proposed, namely that:

1. The manipulation of the SC technique, in which the clustered-sentences are combined into one single sentence, accelerates students' syntactic fluency;

2. Combining groups of simple clustered-sentences into a meaningful complex sentence enhances students' syntactic maturity;

3. The treatment carried out by the SC technique will enhance the students' overall writing quality in a composition, and

4. The experimental group exposed to the SC technique might not display a more significant performance in their writing skill in comparison to the control group.

The analysis of the data from students' written products have demonstrated that students in this study produced various types of structures in their compositions. In this sense, the data support our first hypothesis, which states that the manipulation of the SC technique in which the clustered-sentences are combined into one single sentence accelerates students' *sentence fluency*. In other words, the results of the study confirm that when students are instructed to use the SC technique in writing courses, they improve their writing skills in terms of fluency, which means producing a certain number of words, clauses, and sentences in a text. Regarding the results of the written products, the students in the experimental group were observed to have linked sentences in a cohesive manner performing their sentences in a longer but a more fluent way through the power of words, transitions, conjunctions, and various structures (see Table 4.4 and Table 4.5). However, the students in the control group were observed to have produced sentences in a mechanical way illustrating several simple sentences including fewer words per T-Unit. In other words, sentences produced by the control group were in compound and simple sentence forms while they were in embedded and complex forms in the experimental group. These results, therefore, demonstrate consistency with the findings of Kameen (1978), Klassen (1977), Lee (1998), and Morenberg (1990), in that SC technique also helped their students create a variety of sentences while minimizing the number of errors in usage, and improving sentence structure and mechanics. Similarly, as

in the study by Elder (1981), our students matured and tended to add more sentences to their writing, resulting in an increase in clause and T-unit length which was attributed to cognitive development (see Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6).

Hypothesis Two assumes that combining groups of simple clustered-sentences into a meaningful complex sentence enhances students' *syntactic maturity*. In this sense, students are expected to manipulate various sentence patterns as the degree of complexity of sentence structures in a coherent manner. This is confirmed by the results of the study because the use of the SC technique in writing courses enhanced students' writing complexity and sophistication by promoting higher level thinking processes. This process has been demonstrated by the analysis of data via the Concordance 3.0 software. As a consequence of analysis, the experimental group was observed to have combined their ideas in a more complex and meaningful way while the control group produced more independent sentences per text by producing compound and simple sentences. By transferring information at a level beyond the surface structure, the compositions in the experimental group produced better clarity. Understanding was often much easier to grasp, and words within sentences flowed more coherently. These results were amply demonstrated by analyzing pre- and post-test data. For example, before the treatment, students' written products were in the form of illogical and irrelevant fragments or in non-sequential passages; in other words, they were not aware of style and flow in a paragraph. After the treatment, however, the students' written products in the experimental group improved dramatically (see Table 4.6, Table 4.7, and Table 4.8). Considering the results obtained from the data in terms of complexity and coherence, the second hypothesis is also supported in this study. Accordingly, the results of this study were consistent with the findings of Hayes (1984), Nugent (1983), Pendleton

(1986), Rousseau et al (1994), and Sotillo (2000) in that the SC technique helped students develop a capacity to connect words and sentences that flow together into meaningful text.

Hypothesis Three assumes that the SC technique promotes students' overall writing quality in terms of *paragraph unity* and *overall writing quality*. It was confirmed by the results of our study that the SC technique improved overall writing quality. Since this study is based on the theory of bringing up the cognitive change and thinking in writing, as also emphasized by Thomas (2000), students can construct sentences that develop a logical sense of "paragraph" in that those individual sentences take on a new meaning when combined to form a paragraph. This means that students developed their own syntactic knowledge in free writing. Through the SC technique, in other words, students created an effective and smooth paragraph in which the sentences could be structured in a certain flowing style, and generated new thoughts and meaning in a unity. Consequently, these students were observed to have made improvements in expressing their ideas clearly in writing. Hence, it can be said that the data also support the third hypothesis. Our findings was also consistent with the studies by Abdan (1984), Brever (1986), Hayes (1984), Spilton (1986), and Taki El Din (1987) that students began to understand how a sentence functioned at various levels, and how they could manipulate and make choices, which enhanced meaning and purpose (see Table 4.10 and Table 4.12).

Hypothesis Four, "Null Hypothesis", assumes that the experimental group exposed to the SC technique might not display a more significant performance in their writing skill in comparison to the control group. This hypothesis was not supported by the study. That is, during the eleven-week period of this study, the pre- and post-test analyses demonstrated that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in performing higher

quality writing (see Table 4.6, Table 4.7, Table 4.8, Table 4.9, Table 4.10, and Table 4.11 in Chapter 4). This was especially true in certain aspects such as clauses, and phrases where students in the experimental group were observed to produce longer, richer, and more interesting sentences (see Section 4.5 for details of the data). In other words, the exercises given through the SC technique not only gave them practice in using a range of syntactic structures, but also led to the overall improvement in terms of sentence variety, organization, unity, and cohesion.

In summary, sentence combining has facilitated learners' awareness of various transformation-related processes (e.g., embedding, coordinating, substituting, adding, permuting, and deleting), which are involved in producing and comprehending sentences in texts. In other words, the SC technique has helped to develop the students' sense of what constitutes well-written paragraphs, by raising their cognitive awareness of essential elements in any text (e.g., fluency, maturity, cohesion, and coherence). In short, it had a significant motivating influence in mobilizing their intrinsic capacity for higher level thinking processes like critical thinking, and in incorporating this into their writing.

The outcome of this research is consistent with other ESL studies based in other countries, each having a different language and culture (German, French, Arabic, Russian, Dutch, and Japanese). In particular, at Cukurova University, we have demonstrated the efficacy of the SC technique in a population of 72 undergraduate students in a pilot study, and 42 undergraduate students in the present study. Of this total population of 114 students, 57 were introduced to the SC technique. We consider this sample size large enough, and the outcomes sufficiently significant to not only warrant further investigation, but also to introduce it into ELT curricula.

5.5 Implications of the Study and Recommendation for Further Research

In studies conducted for over two decades, there has been a great interest in the impact of SC upon both EFL and ESL. Although previous studies established that SC produces positive results; heretofore, very little consideration has been given to integrating this technique into the syllabus of ELT programs. In general, EFL and ESL writing textbooks have required that students combine phrases into no more than two sentences. That is, exercises have typically been sentence-based, not paragraph-based, as suggested in this research.

We, teachers are aware of the importance of critical thinking in writing compositions. We want our students to comprehend sentence structure well enough so that, unconsciously and through sufficient practice, they can intuit how to shape their thoughts in a variety of ways. Rather than drafting their thoughts in primitive or stunted fashion, we want them to have the capacity to edit, and thereby produce richer, and more meaningful text.

The key to successful integration of SC into ELT curricula is *variety*. That is, SC exercises need to be combined with other modalities such as model paragraphs and free-style writing. In this manner, SC can be applied at any level since the SC technique is a language-enriching puzzle, which demands attention to all aspects of cohesion, and it influences structural and stylistic variation. Therefore, in line with the results of the analyses in this study, we can claim that the application of the SC technique are to be used at any academic level ranging from easy to difficult depending upon the students' age and grade level. As a consequence of the application of this technique and its integration in the syllabus, the writing weakness many writing teachers encounter in writing courses will be overcome at a satisfying level. SC exercises should be put in any level for different purposes of teaching writing as a FL.

Further research is needed to 'fine tune' SC application in the classroom. For example, additional analysis is required to ferret out possible differences between students' ability to work within strict time limits as apposed to leisurely paces. Similarly, it would be interesting to explore SC applications with additional grammatical items (such as gerunds or passive and active tenses), which is not within the scope of this study. Finally, it would also be interesting to explore the variety and frequency of vocabulary performance of students who followed the SC applications in writing courses.

REFERENCES

Abdan, A. A. (1984). *The effect of sentence combining practice on the written syntactic maturity, overall writing quality, and reading comprehension of EFL Saudi students.* DAI-A 44/11 (May. 1984): AAC 8403603.

Airasian, P. W. (1996). *Assessment in the classroom.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Akmajian, A., & Heny, F. W. (1975). *An introduction to the principles of transformational syntax.* Cambridge: The MIT Press.

Allison, D. (1995). *Assertions and alternatives: Helping ESL undergraduates extend their choices in academic writing.* Journal of Second Language Writing. 4 (1), 1-15.

Amiran, E., and Mann, J. (1982). *Written composition, grades k-12: Literature synthesis and report.* Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

Arnaudet, M. L., & Barrett, M. E. (1990). *Paragraph development: A guide for students of English.* (2nd. Ed.). New Jersey: Regents/ Prentice Hall.

Ayvaz-Tataroğlu, N. (1994). *OYS NGILIZCE: Ingilizce Dil Sinavina Hazirlik.* Ankara : Engin Yayınevi.

Azar, B. S. (1989). *Understanding and using English grammar.*(2nd Ed.). New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs/ Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Baker, S. (1990). *The practical stylist.* (7th Ed.). Laguna: Harper Collings Publisher.

Baljevic, J. (1978). *Sequential curriculum for advanced writing workshop.* Retrieved November 19, 2000 from www: http://www.yale.edu/ynhti/curriculum/units/2978/1/78.01.03.x.html.

Ballard, B., & Clanchy, J. (1991). *Assessment by misconception*: Cultural influences and intellectual traditions. In L. Lamp-Lyons (Ed.), Assessing second language writing in academic contexts (pp. 19-35). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Barnitz, J. G. (1998). *Revising grammar instruction for authentic composing and comprehending*. The Reading Teacher. 51 (7), 608-611

Barth, M. (1988). *Strategies for Writing with the Computer*. New York: McGraw-Hill:

Beach, R. (1989). *Showing students how to assess*: Demonstrating techniques for response in the writing conference. (in Anson, C. M. Writing and responses: Theory, practice, and research). Urbana. Ill.: NCTE.

Berlin, J. A. (1990). Writing instruction in school and college English, 1890-1985. In Murphy, J. J. (Ed.), *A short history of writing instruction*. California: Hermagoras Press.

Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Reppen, R. (1998). *Corpus linguistics: Investigating language structure and use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Biggs, J. (1988). Approaches to learning and to essay writing. In Schmech (Ed.), *Learning strategies and learning styles*. New York: Plenum Press.

Birjandi, P., Mossallanejad, P., & Bagheridoust, E. (2001). *Language testing: An alternative resolution to the complications of language testing*. Tehran: Shanid Mahdavi Publications.

Booth, W. C., & Gregory, M. W. (1987). *The Harper & Row Rhetoric: Writing as thinking/ thinking as writing*. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.

Boughey, C. (1997). *Learning to write by writing to learn: a group-work approach.* ELT Journal Vol. 51(2), 126-134.

Brain, G. (1996). *ESL students in first-year writing courses: ESL versus mainstream classes.* Journal of Second Language Writing, 5 (2), 91-107.

Brewer, R. L. (1986). *Sentence combining and the writing workshop: Effects of a combination of methods on the writing quality and writing apprehension of college freshmen.* DAI-A 47/03 (Sep. 1986): AAC 8611723.

Byrne, D. (1988). *Teaching writing skills.* London: Longman.

Callahan, C. M. (2001). *Beyond the Gifted Stereotype.* Educational Leadership, 59 (3), 42-46.

Can, C. (2000). *The Accessibility of Universal Grammar in Turkish Adults Learning English as a Second Language:* Head-complement parameter resetting. Unpublished Ph.D dissertation, University of Cukurova.

Cartwright, G. P. (1964). *Dimensions of written Language of normal and retarded children.* American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 73, 631-635.

Caudery, T. (1990). *The validity of timed essay tests in the assessment of writing skills.* ELT Journal Vol. 44(2), 122-131.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax.* Cambridge: Mass: MIT Press.

Christensen, F. (1963). *A Generative Rhetoric of the Sentence.* Retrieved Sept. 08, 2001 from www: http://www.smpcollege.com/bb/comp3.html#240

Clanchy, J., & Ballard, B. (1992). *How to write essays: A practical guide for students.* Melbourne: Longman Cheshire Pty Limited.

Clay, M. M. (1993). *An observation survey of early literacy achievement.* Auckland New Zealand: Heinemann.

Combs, W. (1976). *Further effects of sentence-combining practice on writing ability.* Research in the Teaching of English , 10, 137-49.

Connor, U. (1987). *Research Frontiers in Writing Analysis.* TESOL Quarterly, 21 (4), 677-696. Cotton, K. (2000). *Teaching composition*: Research on effective practices. Retrieved May 15, 2000 from www: http://www.nwrel.org/scpd/sirs/2/topsyn2.html

Connor, R. J. (2000). *The erasure of the sentence.* CCC 52 (1), 96-125

Cotton, K. (2000). *Teaching composition: Research on effective practices.* Retrieved May, 15, 2000 from www: http://nwrel.org/scpd/sirs/2/topsyn2.html

Creswell, A. (2000). *Self-monitoring in student writing: developing learner responsibility.* ELT Journal, 54 (3), 235-244.

Cumming, A., & Riazi, A. (1999). *Building models of adult second-language writing instruction.* Learning and Instruction. Vol. (10), 1 pp.55-71.

Daiker, D., Kerek, A., & Morenberg, M. (1979). *The writer's options.* Harper and Row: New York.

Daiute, C. (1985). *Writing and Computers.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Devine, J., Railey, K., & Boshoff, P. (1993). *The implications of cognitive models in L1 and L2 writing.* Journal of Second Language Writing, 2 (3), 203-225.

Edwards, L. (2002). *Writing as a response.* A paper presented at the 6th Share and Care meeting of Q-ELTers. (June 2002): Adana, Cukurova University

Eilen, D., & Earl, W. (1987). *Research bulletin.* Florida Educational Research and Development Council, Florida.

Ekmekci, F. O. (1990). *Translation: Is it a testing technique.* TTR (TEFL Turkey Reporter). Vol (1), 2 pp. 4-7

Elder, W. J. (1981). *Sentence Combining.* Retrieved June 4, 2000 from www: http://www.yale.edu/ynhti/curriculum/guides/1981/4/81.04.06.x.html.

Enginarlar, H. (1994). *Sentence combining plus: A new use for an old technique.* ELT Journal. Vol. 48 (3), 214-24.

Enkvist, N. E. (1990). Seven problems in the study of coherence and interpretability. In Connor and Johns (Eds.), *Coherence in writing: Research and Pedagogical Perspectives.* pp. 11-28 Virginia: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Farhady, H., Jafarpur, A., & Birjandi, P. (2000). *Testing Language Skills:* From theory to practice. Tehran: Tehran University Press.

First, C. G. (1995). *The effects of sentence combining on the written expression skills of students with serious emotional disturbances.* DAI-A 55/11 (May. 1995): AAC 9504519.

Flaherty, G. P.(1985). *The speaking/reading/writing connection: interaction in a basic reading classroom (sentence combining, secondary)* DAI-A 45/08 (Feb 1985): AAC 8425379

Flower, L. (1985). *Problem-solving strategies for writing.* (2nd Ed.) San Diego: Harcourt Brace.

Frank, M. (1993). *Using sentence combining to teach sentence structure.* (Report No. FL 021 812). ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED366208.

Frasher, R. (1995). *Composition teachers criteria for good writing.* DAI-A 55/10 (Apr. 1997): AAC 9507431.

Freedman, S. W. (1987). *Response to student writing.* NTCE Research report No: 23 Urbana: Illinois.

Gairns, R., & Redman, S. (1986). *Working with words: A guide to teaching and learning vocabulary.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gajar, A. H. (1989). *A computer analysis of written language variables and a comparison of compositions written by university students with and without learning disabilities.* Journal of Learning Disabilities. Vol. 22 (2), 125-130.

Genesee, F., & Upshur, J. A. (1996). *Classroom-based evaluation in second language education.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Giorgis, C., & Johnson, N. J. (2001). *The learning process.* The Reading Teacher, 55 (1), 86-94.

Goodrich, H. (1996). *Student self-assessment: At the intersection of metacognition and authentic assessment.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.

Goodrich-Andrade, H. (2000). *Using rubrics to promote thinking and learning.* (The collection of articles in The best of Educational Leadership 1999-2000, 22-26.

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Suartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English Language.* London and New York: Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English.* London: Longman Group UK Limited.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1989). *Language, context, and text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Halloran, S. M. (1990). From rhetoric to composition: The teaching of writing in America to 1900. In Murphy, J. J. (Ed.), *A short history of writing instruction.* California: Hermagoras Press.

Hamp-Lyons, L. (1991). *Assessing second language writing in academic contexts.* Norwood, N.J.: Ablex.

Hamp-Lyons, L., & Mathias, S. P. (1994). *Examining expert judgments of task difficulty on essay test.* Journal of Second Language Writing, 3, 49-61.

Harris, J. (1990). *Expressive discourse.* Dallas, TX: Southern Methodist University Press.

Harris, M., & McCann, P. (1994). *Assessment.* Oxford: Heinemann.

Hayes, I. (1984). *An experimental study of sentence combining as a means of improving syntactic maturity, writing quality and grammatical fluency in the compositions of remedial high school students.* DAI-A 45/08 (Feb 1985): AAC 8424227

Haynes, E. F. (1978). *Using research in preparing to teach writing.* English Journal. Vol. 68 (3) pp. 82-88. Retrieved August, 2001 from www: http://corax.cwrl.utexas.edu/cac/archives/v1/1_3_html/1_3_1_Mccann.html.

Heaton, J. B. (1988). *Writing English language tests.* (3rd Ed.). New York: Longman Group UK Limited.

Hedgecock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1983). *Rating NES/ESL essays.* Journal of Second Language Writing. 5 (2), 173-183.

Hillocks, G., Jr., & Smith, M. W. (1991). Grammar and usage. In J. Flood, J. M. Jensen, D. Lapp, & J. R. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (pp. 591-603). New York: Macmillan.

Hirvela, A., and Belcher, D. (2001). *Coming back to voice: The multiple voices and identities of mature multilingual writers.* Journal of Second Language Writing, 10 (1) 83-106.

Horowitz, D. (1986). *Process not product: Less than meets the eye.* TESOL Quarterly, 20, 141-144.

Hughes, S., & Bailey, J. (2002). *What students think about high-stakes testing.* Educational Leadership. 59 (4). 74 –77.

Hunt, K. W. (1970). *Syntactic maturity in school children and adults.* Monographs of the society for research in child development, 134 (35), 1-44.

Isaacson, S. (1984). *Evaluating written expression: Issues of reliability, validity, and instructional utility.* Diagnostique, 9, 96-116.

Isaacson, S. L. (1996). *Simple Ways to Assess the Writing Skills of Students with Learning Disabilities.* The Volta Review, Vol. 98, No. 1, pp. 183-199. Retrieved August, 2001 from www: http://www.ldonline.org/ld_indepth/writing/isaacson_assessment.html.

Ishikawa, S. (1995). *Objective Measurement of Low-Proficiency EFL Narrative Writing.* Journal of Second Language Writing, 4 (1) 51-69.

Jacobs, H. L., Zinkgraf, S.A., Warmouth, D. R., Hartfiel, V. F., & Hughey, J.B. (1981). *Testing ESL composition: A practical approach.* Rowley, NA: Newburry House.

Janangelo, J. (1998). *Joseph Cornell and the artistry of composing persuasive hypertexts.* College Composition and Communication, 49, 1, 24-49.

Jenkinson, A. (1999). *Improve student reading and writing. Sentence combining activities for elementary and secondary teachers.* Working with language series (Report No. CS216739) ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED430256.

Johns, A. M. (1986). *Coherence and Academic Writing: Some definitions and suggestions for · teaching.* TESOL Quarterly, 20 (2), 247-266.

Johnson, K., & Morrow, K. (1981). Writing. In Johnson & Morrow (Eds.), *Communication in the classroom: Applications and methods for a communicative approach.* Essex: Longman Group Limited.

Johnson, K. E. (1992). *Cognitive strategies and second language writers: A re-evaluation of sentence combining.* Journal of Second Language Writing, 1 (1) 61-75.

Kameen, P. T. (1978). *A mechanical, meaningful, and communicative framework for ESL sentence combining exercises.* TESOL Quarterly, 12(4), 395-401.

Kanellas, R. J. *The effects of discourse-function sentence combining on the expository writing of ninth graders.* DAI-A 58/01 (Jul. 1997): AAC 9719099.

Klassen, B. R. (1977). *Sentence combining exercises as an aid to expediting syntactic fluency in learning English as a second language.* Unpublished Ph.D dissertation, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

Kleine, W. M.(1983). *Syntactic choice and a theory of discourse: Rethinking sentence-combining.* DAI 44 (Sept. 1983): 741A.

Kresovic, B. M. (1989). *Sentence combining activities for Japanese university students.* (Report No. FL 018 751) ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED322743.

Kroll, B. (1991). Teaching writing in the ESL context. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (2nd ed., pp. 245-263). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Laase, L. (1998). *Interesting models set a standard: Paragraph writing for children.* Instructor. Issue: May-June. Retrieved June 24, 2001 from www: http://www.findarticles.com/cf_0/m0STR/n8_v107/20816046/p1/article.jhtml.

Laframboise, K. L. (1989). *The effects of sentence-combining with and without word processing on the reading comprehension and writing fluency of low-achieving fourth grade students.* Unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of South Florida.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Strom, V. (1977). *The construction of a second language acquisition index of development.* Language Learning, 27, 123-134.

Lawlor, J. (1983). *Sentence combining: A sequence for instruction.* The Elementary School Journal. Vol. 84. 1 pp. 52-62.

Lee, K. (1998). *The interaction between learning style and grammar instruction for Korean students of English as a foreign language.* DAI-A 59/10 (Apr 1999): AAC 9908617

Lewis, J. S. (1996). *Sentence combining: a proposed inclusion strategy to improve high school writing.* DAI-A 57/07 (Jan 1997): AAC 9636891

Madsen, H. S. (1983). *Techniques in writing.* Oxford: OUP.

McCann, T. M. (1984). *Sentence Combining for the Microcomputer.* Retrieved May 21, 2001 from www: http://corax.cwrl.utexas.edu/cac/archives/v1/1_3_html/1_3_1_Mccann.html

McDonough, J. & Shaw, C. (1993). *Materials and Methods in ELT:A teacher's guide.* Blackwell Publishers: Oxford.

Melvin, M. P. (1983). *The implication of sentence combining for the language arts curriculum.* Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Morenberg, M. (1990). *Process/schmocess: Why not combine a sentence or two?* Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Morenberg, M. (1992). *"Come Back to the text ag'in, Huck Honey"* . (Report No. CS 213767) ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED355 557.

Morenberg, M., Sommers, J., Daiker, D. A., & Kerek, A. (1999). *The writers' options:* Lessons in style and arrangement. New York: Longman.

Nabors, D. K. (2000). *The effect of teacher-modeled assessment criteria on the self-assessment criteria of young writers.* DAI-A 61/03 (Sep. 2000): AAC 9965201.

Nash, W. (1980). *Designs in prose: A study of compositional problems and methods.* (4th Ed.). London: Longman.

Nash, W., & Stacey, D. (1997). *Creating texts: An introduction to the study of composition.* London: Longman.

Nugent, H. E. (1983). *Sentence combining and organizing principles.* Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Olson, G. A. (1981). *Incorporating sentence combining into the advanced composition class.* JAC 2.1-2. Retrieved from www: http://jac.gsu.edu/jac/2/Articles/12 htm.

O'hare, F., & Kline, E. A. (1996). *The modern writer's handbook.* (4th Ed.). Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon.

Oster, L. (2001). *Using the think-aloud for reading instruction.* The Reading Teacher, 55 (1), 64-69.

Owens, R. E. Jr. (1992). *Language Development: An introduction.* (3rd Ed.). NY: Maxwell Macmillan.

Özoğlu, S. (1994). *Cognitive strategies of Turkish EFL university students during sentence-combining tasks.* Unpublished master thesis, University of Bilkent.

Öztürk, C. (2001). *Fundamentals of academic English: KPDS, ÜDS, TOEFL ve Yeterlik Sinavlari icin kaynak kitap.* Ankara: Hacettepe-Tas.

Pack, A., & Henrichsen, L. (1980). *Sentence construction: writing and combining standard English sentences,* Book 1. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Paulston, C. B., & Bruder, M. N. (1976). *Teaching English as a second language: techniques and procedures.* Cambridge, Mass.: Winthrop.

Paulston, C.B., & Bruder, M. N. (1976). *Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures.* Boston: Little, Brown and Company (Inc.).

Pelton, C. L. (1983). *The teaching of writing: No time for bromides.* Teacher Education Quarterly, 10 (3), 1-8.

Pendleton, M. E. (1986). *The effect of sentence combining and rhetorical arrangement on the expository writing of tenth grade students.* DAI-A 46/12 (Jun 1986): AAC 8601370

Phelps, T. D. (1987). *A life sentence for student writing: The cumulative sentence.* Journal of Teaching Writing, 6 (2), 60-71.

Phillips,-Sylvia-E. (1996). *Sentence combining: A literature review*. (Report No. FL CS215440). ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED398589

Polio, C., & Glew, M. (1996). ESL writing assessment prompts: How students choose. Journal of Second Language Writing, 5 (1), 35-49.

Popham, W.J. (2000). *Testing! testing! what every parent should know about school tests*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Popham, W.J. (2001). *The truth about testing :An educator's call to action*. Virginia: ASCD Publications.

Rabkin, E. S., & Smith, M. (1990). *Teaching writing that works: A group approach to practical English*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Raimes, A. (1983). *Techniques in teaching writing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Raimes, A. (1991). *Out of the woods: Emerging traditions in the teaching of writing*. TESOL Quarterly 25, pp. 407-430.

Ramanathan-Abbott, V. (1993). *An examination of the relationship between social practices and the comprehension of narratives*. Text, 13, 117-141.

Ramanathan, V., & Atkinson, D. (1999). *Individualism, academic writing, and ESL writers*. Journal of Second Language Writing, 8 (1), 45-75.

Ramanathan, V., & Kaplan, R. B. (1996). *Audience and voice in current L1 composition text: Some implications for ESL student writers*. Journal of Second Language Writing, 5 (1), 21-34.

Rashtchi, M., & Keyvanfar, A. (1999). *ELT Quick'n'Easy*. Tehran: Khorsheed Printing Co.

Reid, J. (1993). *Teaching ESL writing*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Regents/ Prentice Hall.

Reid, J. (1996). U.S. *Academic readers, ESL writers, and second sentences*. Journal of Second Language Writing, 5 (2), 129-161.

Reid, J., & Kroll, B. (1995). *Designing and Assessing Effective Classroom Writing Assignments for NES and ESL Students*. Journal of Second Language Writing, 4 (1), 17-41.

Reutzel, D. R., & Merrill. J. D. (1985). *Writing with basals: A sentence combining approach to comprehension*. Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Rice, P. H. (1984). *A study of the effectiveness of sentence combining in increasing the syntactic maturity of student writing at grades 7 through 11*. DAI-A 44/08 (Feb. 1984): AAC 8323234.

Richards, C. J. (1998). *Beyond training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rose, S. K. (1983). *Down from the Haymow: One hundred years of sentence combining*. College English, 45 (5), 483-91

Rousseau, M. K., Krantz, P. J., Poulson, C. L., Kitson, M. E., & McClannahan, L. E. (1994). *Sentence combining as a technique for increasing adjective use in writing by students with autism*. Research in developmental disabilities. Vol. 15(1), 19-37.

Ruetten, M. K. (1994). *Evaluating ESL Students perpormance on Proficiency exams*. Journal of Second Language Writing, 3 (2), 85-96.

Schuster, E. (1981). *Sentence mastery A* and *Sentence mastery B*. NY: McGraw-Hill.

Sharon & Sharon (1994). Group investigation in the cooperative classroom. In Sharon (Ed.), *Handbook of cooperative learning methods*. Westport. CT: Greenwood.

Short, D. (1993). *Assessing integrated language and content*. TESOL Quarterly, 27 (3), 627-656.

Silva, T., Reichelt, M., & Lax-Farr, J. (1994). *Writing Instruction for ESL graduate Students: Examining issues and raising questions*. ELT Journal, Vol. 48 (3), 197-244.

Simpson, J. M. (2000). *Topical structure analysis of academic paragraphs in English and Spanis*. Journal of Second Language Writing 9, (3), 293-309.

Singleton, C. (1983). *Sentence combining for the intermediate ASL student*. Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Sledge, A. C. (1983). *Three methods of extending understanding and appreciation of literature: A review of research*. Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Sotillo, S. M. (2000). *Discourse functions and syntactic complexity in synchronous and asynchronous communication*. Language Learning & Technology, 4(1), 82-119. Retrieved May 29, 2000 from www: http://llt.msu.edu/vol4num1/sotillo/default.html#table2

Spigelmire, L. (1980). *The Best Stylists: A survey of editors and implications for the teaching of style*. Retrieved July 22, 2001 from www: http://jac.gsu.edu/jac/1.2/Articles/5.htm

Spilton, R. (1986). *The effects of individualized language arts, sentence-combining, and traditional grammar on the syntactic maturity and quality of writing of a select group of eighth graders (English, composition)*. DAI-A 47/11(May, 1987): AAC 8703964

Steffey, M. N. (1983). *'Paragraph building' as a teaching tool*. ABCA Bulletin, 46 (2), 23-26. Stoddard, E. P., & Renzulli, J. S. (1983). *Improving the writing skills of talent poor students*. Gifted Child Quarterly, 27, (1), 21-27.

Strong, W. (1986). *Creative approaches to sentence combining.* Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Strong, W. (1990). *Premises, premises. New ways to think about sentence combining.* A paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council o Teachers of English.

Strong, W. (1994). *Sentence combining: a composing book.* New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Sweedler-Brown, C. O. (1993). *ESL Essay Evaluation: The influence of sentence-level and rhetorical features.* Journal of Second Language Writing, 2 (1), 3-17.

Taki El Din, S. R. (1987). *The effectiveness of sentence combining practice on arab students' overall writing quality and syntactic maturity.* DAI-A 47/08 (Feb. 1987): AAC 8621576.

Tarnopolsky, O. (2000). *Writing English as a foreign language: A report from Ukraine.* Journal of Second Language Writing, 9 (3), 209-226.

Thomas, M. McCann. (1984). *Sentence Combining for the Microcomputer.* Computers and Composition 1(3). Retrieved Jun, 2001 from www: http://corax.cwrl.utexas.edu/cac/archives/v1/1_3_html/1_3_1_Mccann.html

Thomas, P.L. (2000). *The struggle itself: Teaching writing as we know we should.* English Journal, Vol. 90(1), 39-45.

Tighe, M. A. (1987). *Reducing writing apprehension in English classes.* Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Towns, S. N. (1984). *Techniques for integrating reading and writing instruction in secondary and post-secondary reading programs.* Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Tütünis-Tan, B. (2000). *Content Based Academic Writing.* The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. VI, No. 7. Retrieved July, 2000 from www: http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/Articles/Tutunis-ContentBased.html.

Van Houten, R. (1979). *Social validation: The evolution of standards of competence for target behaviors.* Journal Of Applied Behavior Analysis, 12, 581-591.

Vitale, M.R., King, R.J. Shontz, D.W., & Huntley, G.W. (1971). *Effects of sentence-combining exercises on several restricted written composition tasks.* Journal of Educational Psycholgy, 62, 521-25.

Voss, R. F. (1981). *Calculators and quality: A paradox for writing teachers.* JAC 2.1-2. Retrieved Nov 29, 2000 from www: http://jac.gsu.edu/jac/2/Articles/2.htm.

Walsh, S.M. (1991). *Breakthroughs in composition instruction methods without evidence of tangible improvements in students' composition: When will change come?* . (Report No. CS 213 007) ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED336744.

Webster, A. M. (1988). Webster's Ninth New Collegrate Dictionary. Massachusetts: Meriam-Webster INC., Publishers Springfield.

Wiener, H. S. (1992). *Creating compositions.* New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Williams, E. (1984). *Reading in the language classroom.* London: Macmillan Publishers Ltd.

Williams, J. D. (1989). *Preparing to teach writing.* Belmont, CL: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Williams, M. & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Willing, J. B. (1985). *Using instructions in sentence combining to improve syntactic maturity in student writing.* Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Wilkinson, A. (1986). *The writing of writing.* (Ed.). Buckingham: Open University Press.

Wilkinson, P. A., & Del, P. (1993). *The effects of sentence combining on the reading comprehension of fourth grade students.* Retrieved Jan 18, 2001 from www: www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/bks/improve.html.

Winterowd, W. R. (May 1970). *The Grammar of Coherence. CE* 31, 328-335.

Whitt, L. M. (1987). *The effects of sentence combining instruction on the growth of syntactic fluency in adult basic writers.* DAI-A 48/05 (Nov 1987): AAC 8715134

Witte, S.P., and Faigley, L. (1981). *Coherence, Cohesion, and Writing Quality.* Retrieved Sept. 08, 2001 from www: http://www.smpcollege.com/bb/comp3.html#240

Woodward, S. W. (1993). *Easing into summary writing.* TESOL Journal, 3 (2), 34.

Woodworth, M. K. (1983). *Beyond sentence combining: A consideration of motivational and developmental factors in college composition teaching.* DAI-A 43/12 (Jun. 1983): AAC 8310874.

Worthy, J. & Broaddus, K. (2002). *Fluency beyond the primary grades: From group performance to silent, independent reading.* The reading teacher. A journal of international Reading Association. 55 (4), 334-348.

Yearwood, B. (1979). *Sentence-Combining in Grade Eight.* Retrieved Jan 05, 2000 from www: http://www.yale.edu/cgi-bin/ynhti-cgi/count.pl?/comments.html

Young, E. A. (2000). *Enhancing student writing by teaching self-assessment strategies that incorporate the criteria of good writing.* DAI-A 61/04 (Oct. 2000): AAC 9970981.

Zamel, V. (1982). *Writing the process of discovering meaning.* TESOL Quarterly, 16 (7), 195-209.

Zamel, V. (1985). *Responding to Student Writing.* TESOL Quarterly, 19 (1), 79-101

Zamel, V. (1987). *Recent research on writing pedagogy.* TESOL Quarterly, 21 (4), 697-715.

PROGRESS SHEET

APPENDIX 1

Put ✓ in the boxes from **5** to **1** in each category listed in the chart. Study this sheet so that you know your errors and can avoid them in your writing.

5 : Very strong /   **4** Strong /   **3:** Average /   **2:** Weak   **1:** Very weak (see Appendix 2 for Analytic Scoring)

No	Title of composition	Grammar					Connectors					Punctuation					Spelling & vocabulary					Complex sentences					Paragraphs					Composition				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.																																				
2.																																				
3.																																				
4.																																				
5.																																				
6.																																				
7.																																				
8.																																				
9.																																				
10.																																				
11.																																				
12.																																				
13.																																				
14.																																				
15.																																				

Modified from Wiener, H. S. (1992). Creating Compositions

APPENDIX 2

ANALYTIC SCORING FOR THE PROGRESS SHEET

Grammar

5. Few (if any) noticeable errors of grammar or word order. Some errors of grammar or word order, which do not, however, interfere with comprehension.

4. Errors of grammar or word order fairly frequent; occasional re-reading necessary for full comprehension.

3. Errors of grammar or word order frequent; efforts of interpretation sometimes required on reader's part.

2. Errors of grammar or word order very frequent; reader often has to rely on own interpretation.

1. Errors of grammar or word order so severe as to make comprehension virtually impossible.

Connectors

5. Highly organized with appropriate connectors; like educated native writer.

4. Some lack of connections or transitions; re-reading required for clarification of ideas but communication not impaired.

3. Little or no attempt at connectivity, though reader can deduce some organization.

2. Individual ideas may be clear, but very difficult deduce connection between them.

1. Lack of organization so severe that communication seriously impaired.

Punctuation

5. Few (if any) noticeable lapses in punctuation which do not, however, interfere with comprehension.

4. Error in punctuation fairly frequent; occasional re-reading necessary for full comprehension.

3. Frequent errors in punctuation; lead sometimes to obscurity.

2. Errors in punctuation so frequent that reader must often rely on own interpretation.

1. Errors punctuation so severe as co make comprehension virtually impossible.

Spelling

5. Few (if any) noticeable lapses in spelling which do not, however, interfere with comprehension.

4. Error in spelling fairly frequent; occasional re-reading necessary for full comprehension.

3. Frequent errors in spelling; lead sometimes to obscurity.

ANALYTIC SCORING FOR THE PROGRESS SHEET

2. Errors in spelling so frequent that reader must often rely on own interpretation.

1. Errors in spelling so severe as co make comprehension virtually impossible.

Vocabulary

5. Use of vocabulary and idiom rarely (if at all) distinguishable from that of educated native writer. Occasionally uses inappropriate terms expression of ideas hardly impaired.

4. Uses wrong or inappropriate words fairly frequently; expression of ideas may be limited because of inadequate vocabulary.

3. Limited vocabulary and frequent errors clearly hinder expression of ideas.

2. Vocabulary so limited and so frequently misused that reader must often rely on own interpretation.

1. Vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make comprehension virtually impossible.

Complex sentences

5. Choice of sentences consistently appropriate; like that of educated native writer. Occasional lack of consistency in choice of structures and vocabulary, which does not, however, impair overall ease of communication.

4. 'Patchy', with some structures noticeably inappropriate to general style.

3. Structures of sentences sometimes not only inappropriate but also misused; little sense of ease of communication.

2. Communication often impaired by completely inappropriate or misused structures.

1. Misused structures of sentences rendering communication almost impossible.

Paragraphs

5. Highly organized; clear progression of ideas well linked; like educated native writer.

4. Some lack of organization; re-reading required for clarification of ideas but communication not impaired.

3. Little or no attempt at connectivity, though reader can deduce some organization.

2. Individual ideas may be clear, but very difficult deduce connection between them.

1. Lack of organization so severe that communication seriously impaired.

Modified from Jacobs (1981)

APPENDIX 3

TRANSITIONS

Transition words are not conjunctions. They can not be used to join together clauses or sentences. They are used to join together **ideas.**

1. Above,
2. Accordingly,
3. Afterward,
4. Again,
5. Also,
6. Although,
7. And,
8. As a result,
9. At the same time,
10. Before,
11. Besides,
12. Beyond,
13. But,
14. Consequently,
15. Earlier,
16. Equally important,
17. Even so,
18. Finally,
19. First (second, third, and so on)
20. For all that,
21. For example,
22. For instance,
23. For this purpose,
24. Furthermore,
25. Hence,
26. Here,
27. However,
28. In addition,
29. In brief,
30. In conclusion,
31. In contrast,
32. In fact,
33. In other words,
34. In short,
35. In summary,
36. In the distance,
37. In the past,
38. Indeed,
39. Last,
40. Later,
41. Likewise,
42. Likewise,

43. Meanwhile,
44. Moreover,
45. Nearby,
46. Nevertheless,
47. Next,
48. Nor,
49. Now,
50. On the contrary,
51. On the other hand,
52. On the whole,
53. Opposite,
54. Or still,
55. Overhead,
56. Previously,
57. Similar,
58. Similarly,
59. Simultaneously,
60. So,
61. Soon,
62. Subsequently,
63. That is
64. Then,
65. There,
66. Therefore,
67. Thus,
68. To conclude,
69. To sum up,
70. To the side,
71. To this end,
72. Too
73. Underneath,
74. With this object in mind,
75. Yet,

APPENDIX 3 A

TRANSITIONS

By O'hare, F., and Kline, E. A. (1996). *The modern writer's handbook.* (4th Ed.).
Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon

Transitional devices provide smooth passage from one idea to the next. It is helpful to link sentences by these devices to achieve coherence for readers. They show the relationship of one sentence to another sentence, one idea to another idea, and even one paragraph to another paragraph. They serve as signposts that direct the reader through the passage.

The following is a list of some common transitional words and expressions and the relationships they may indicate:

ADDITION
Again, also, and, besides, equally important, finally, first (second, third, and so on) , furthermore, in addition, last, likewise, moreover, next, too

CONTRAST
Although, but, even so, for all that, however, in contrast, nevertheless, nor, on the contrary, on the other hand, or still, yet

TIME
Afterward, at the same time, before, earlier, finally, in the past, later, meanwhile, next, now, previously, simultaneously, soon, subsequently

RESULT
Accordingly, as a result, consequently, hence, then, therefore, thus

SIMILARITY
Likewise, similar, moreover, similarly, so

PLACE OR DIRECTION
Above, beyond, here, in the distance, nearby, opposite, overhead, there, to the side, underneath

PURPOSE
For this purpose, to this end, with this object in mind

EXAMPLES OR INTENSIFICATION
For example, for instance, indeed, in fact, in other words, that is

SUMMARY OR CONCLUSION
Finally, in brief, in conclusion, in short, in summary, on the whole, to conclude, to sum up

APPENDIX 3 B
EXAMPLES FOR TRANSITIONS

Ascher Allen (1993, p. 329). *Think about editing.*

Transition words are not conjunctions. They can not be used to join together clauses or sentences. They are used to join together **ideas.**

TIME	after that	I graduated college in 1984. **After that,** I came to LA.
	then	We sat and watched the sea for several hours. **Then,** we went back home.
	before that	I arrived here in the summer of 1990. **Before that,** I had never spoken a word of English.
	at first,	when I met them, I was very nervous. **At first,** I thought That I looked very foolish
CONTRAST	however	English is very difficult to learn. **However,** it is very useful to know.
	on the other hand	I think that smoking cigarettes is bad for everyone's health. **On the other hand,** I do not think we should force anyone to stop smoking.
	nevertheless	I really would like to make lots of money. **Nevertheless,** I know that money alone will not make me happy.
	on the contrary	it is not true that everyone disagreed with him. **On the contrary,** many people agreed very strongly with his ideas.
RESULT	as a result	We had heard so many bad stories about that place. **As a result,** no one wanted to go there.
	consequently	The war continued for six years. **Consequently,** many people lost their lives.
	therefore	I was very interested in science and I wanted to help people. **Therefore,** I decided to become a doctor.
	thus	There were many students who only wanted to study computer programming. **Thus,** we decided to start a new department for these students.
ADDITION	also	I wanted to visit interesting and historic places. **Also,** I wanted to meet new people.
	besides	I did not feel comfortable about him helping me. **Besides,** I did not even know him.
	furthermore	They need to add more buses so that they aren't so crowded. **Furthermore,** they should raise the price of the tickets so that more improvements can be made.
	in addition	The children play and draw pictures. **In addition,** they learn the letters of the alphabet.
	in fact	I have a large family. **In fact,** there are twelve of us.
	moreover	This technology has been important because people can now work faster. **Moreover,** fewer people are needed to do the work.

APPENDIX 4

CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions are words used to join other words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. The list of conjunctions is given alphabetically below:

1. Accordingly
2. After
3. Also
4. Although
5. And
6. As
7. As if
8. As long as
9. As much as
10. Because
11. Before
12. Besides
13. Both …………and
14. But
15. Consequently
16. Either…………or
17. Even though
18. For
19. Furthermore
20. Hence
21. How
22. However
23. If
24. In order that
25. In that
26. Inasmuch as
27. Moreover
28. Neither…………nor
29. Nevertheless
30. Nor
31. Not only…………but also
32. Now that
33. Once
34. Or
35. Otherwise
36. Provided that
37. Since
38. So
39. So long as
40. So that
41. Still
42. Than

43. That
44. That
45. Therefore
46. Though
47. Thus
48. Unless
49. Until
50. When
51. Where
52. Wherever
53. Whether
54. Whether…………or
55. While
56. Yet

APPENDIX 4 A

CONJUCTIONS

O'hare, F., and Kline, E. A. (1996). *The modern writer's handbook.* (4th Ed.). Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon

Conjunctions are words used to join other words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. There are three types of conjunctions: *coordinating conjunctions, correlative conjunctions,* and *subordinating conjunctions.*

1. COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

A coordinating conjunction joins elements of equal grammatical rank. These elements may be single words, phrases, or independent clauses.

And   Or   For   Yet   But   So   Nor

Conjunctive adverbs
Words like the following are also called conjunctive adverbs and make the connection clear between independent clauses (clauses that can stand by themselves as sentences), but they cannot—as conjunctions can—join the clauses.

Accordingly	Hence	Otherwise	Consequently
Also	However	Still	Furthermore
Besides	Moreover	Therefore	Nevertheless
Thus			

2. CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Correlative conjunctions are coordinating conjunctions that are used in pairs.

Both ....and
Either............or
Neither............nor
Whether...........or
Not only..........but also

3. SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Subordinating conjunctions join clauses that cannot stand by themselves as sentences. They join subordinate, or dependent, clauses to main, or independent, clauses.

After	If	Than	Although, Though
In order that	That	As	In that
Unless	As if	As long as	As much as
Because	Before	How	Provided that
Once	Since	So that	Inasmuch as
Now that	So long as	That	Even though
Until	When	Where	Wherever
Whether	While		

APPENDIX 4 B

EXAMPLES FOR CONJUNCTIONS

Ascher, A. (1993, pp. 328-329). *Think About Editing*.

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

These conjunctions join together two independent clauses. The conjunction expresses a relationship between the two clauses:

equal ideas	and	At this national park, you can ride a horse **and** you can go skiing.
equal negatives	nor	At this national park, you cannot ride a horse **nor** you can go skiing.
1. alternative neg.	or	At this national park, you can ride a horse **or** you can go skiing.
2. alternative neg.	or	You should be careful on a horse **or** you might fall off.
contrasting ideas	but	I like horses **but** I don't like to ride them.
contrasting ideas	yet	I like to ride horses **yet** I don't trust them.
result of the first clause	so	I didn't like that horse **so** I decided not to ride it.
result of the second clause	for	I always go to a mountain resort for vacation **for** I like skiing.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Correlative conjunctions are coordinating conjunctions that are used in pairs.

both ....and	They were **both** tired **and** hungry.
either..................or	**Either** you apologize **or** I will never speak to you again.
neither..............nor	**Neither** Tom **nor** Ann came to the party.
whether.............or	The question **whether** they should build a new school **or** not will be discussed.
not only.......but also	They **not only** stole our money **but also** smashed the TV set.

APPENDIX 4 B

EXAMPLES FOR CONJUNCTIONS

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

These conjunctions join together a dependent clause and an independent clause.

TIME	After	We washed the dishes **after** we ate dinner.
	Before	We ate dinner **before** we washed the dishes
	Since	I have known them **since** I was a child.
	When	I washed the dishes **when** we finished dinner.
	While	We talked about the concert **while** we ate dinner.

REASON	Because	We stopped smoking **because** it is unhealthy.
	As	He got a job in a bookstore **as** he loves books.
	Since	They walk home **since,** many buses were not running.
	Now that	I have a very good job **now that,** I speak English.

CONDITION	If	I can help you **if** you want me to.
	Unless	I can't help you **unless** you want me to.
	In case	I am ready **in case** you need me to help.
	Provided that	I will help you **provided that** you work hard.

CONTRAST	Although	I never drink coffee **although** I like it.
	Even though	I never drink coffee **even though** I like it.
	Though	I never drink coffee **though** I like it.
	While	My wife drinks coffee every day **while** I rarely do.

APPENDIX 5

MECHANICAL SENTENCE COMBINING EXERCISES

The example of the Mechanical SC exercises given below illustrates how sentences are combined in the mechanical SC exercises:

Examples

Directions	:	Combine the sentences in each group into only one sentence according to the following directions:
Capitalization clue	:	delete all capitalized words in the given sentences.
Parentheses clue	:	insert the clues in parentheses at the end of the line into an appropriate place in that line.
Something clue	:	decide what information is replaced by the SOMETHING clue and place that word.
Insertion (-/-) clue	:	insert information into this space.

Example:

1. That is the leader.
2. THE LEADER is world famous.
3. THE LEADER'S country produces quantities of petroleum. (WHOSE)
4. THE QUANTITIES ARE large.
5. PETROLEUM is the fuel. (WHICH)
6. THE FUEL is the most needed by the nations.
7. THE NATIONS ARE industrialized.

• *That is the world famous leader whose country produces large   quantities of petroleum, which is the fuel most needed by the industrialized nations.*

Kameen (1978, p. 397)

APPENDIX 6

MEANINGFUL SENTENCE COMBINING EXERCISES

The example of the meaningful exercises given below also shows there are at least two possible combinations for the following sentence clusters.

Example:

1. We had handed out the tests. (AFTER) (,)
2. The students moaned.
3. The moaning was loud.
4. THEY WANTED to let us know SOMETHING.
5. They were surprised at SOMETHING.
6. The test was difficult. (HOW)

- *After we had handed out the tests, the students moaned loudly, letting us know that they were surprised at how difficult the test was.*

- *After we had handed out the tests, the students' loud moaning let us know that they were surprised at how difficult the test was.*

Kameen (1978, p. 399)

APPENDIX 7

COMMUNICATIVE SENTENCE COMBINING EXERCISES

The following sentences as the example of the communicative exercises show the number of possible combinations:

Example
1. The composition student hurries through his assignments.
2. The composition student is typical.
3. He sees no reason for something.
4. He learns to write more effectively.
5. He just waits for something.
6. The semester ends.

- *The typical composition student, seeing no reason to learn to write more effectively, hurries through his assignments, just waiting for the semester to end.*

- *Because he sees no reason to learn to write more effectively, the typical composition student hurries through his assignments, just waiting for the semester to end.*

- *Seeing no reason to learn to write more effectively, the typical composition student hurries through his assignments, just waiting for the semester to end.*

Kameen (1978, p. 397)

APPENDIX 8

T-UNIT EXAMPLE

Susana M. Sotillo

by Ina, 2/7/97
(T-units have been enclosed in brackets. Embedded subordinate clauses are shown in bold type, and subordinate clauses that show a hierarchical relationship with respect to the main clause are in bold type and italicized. The 16 T-units have been identified in this excerpt, only five are error-free.)

["The main idea of this story is that you can't deny your race, ethnic group] [and [you]can't show people how white or how american you supposed to be]. ["The real thing is **that** *even if* you are nice person, some people don't even want to talk to you, *because* of your race or nationality.] [This woman, Rosa Wakefield, tried to do the best [**that**] she could in her life.] [Everything **that** she did was perfect], [she helped her relatives, friends],[[and she] worked hard], [everybody knows **that** she is the best cook and the best housekeeper.] [She says a lot about differences between black and white people.] [One thing is *even that* the white people think a lot about everything, they are not always successful.] [She says **that** *if* she was thinking about everything like this, she'd burn her cakes and scorch skirts.] [I can't say **that** this is not true *because* there were so many situations *when* I was doing one thing and in the same time thinking about another] [and the result was, **that** I did wrong my job] [and I was depressed in my mind.] [She also says **that** people love her and treat her like the best friend, *because* she helped them a lot.] [Also she says **that** whites treat blacks like "the second kind of people..."]

An example of an evolving complex system of subordinate and embedded subordinate clauses is shown in.

(Sotillo, 2000, p. 109)

See also the following page for the T-Unit of Hunt who is the inventor of T-Unit

APPENDIX 8

T-UNIT EXAMPLE

Index of Measurement: The T-Unit

> I like the movie / we saw about Moby Dick the white
> whale. // The captain said / if you can kill the white whale
> Boby Dick / I will give this gold to the one / that can do it
> // and it is worth sixteen dollars // they tried and tried // but
> while they were trying / they killed a whale and used the
> oil for the lamps // they almost caught the white whale //.

Hunt (1965, p. 21) (Cited in
Klassen, 1976, p. 45)

Klasses states that although the student omitted all punctuation, the passage can be segmented into T-Units (//) and clauses (/) with precision by any rater familiar with English clause structure. He also states that phrases that did not make semantic or grammatical sense were excluded from the count (p. 46). Contractions and hyphenated words were counted as two words. Unhyphenated compound words were considered as one word. A T-Unit was not rejected if it contained an omission of a single word. However, the missing word was not included in the count. While counting the T-Units in this study, the rules in the Klassen's study were taken into consideration.

DIARY EXCERPT

6

Kasım
November

Salı
Tuesday

Tuesday / 10ᵗʰ of December

Today, we followed the subject, processing in pragraph ① in the book and did the exercises related to it. Then, we were given a paper to examine 3 paragraphs. That's all for today!

wednesday / 11ᵗʰ of December

Today we examined 2 paragraphs individually did corrections on them and explained the reasons about our corrections. As a result, we understood from the paragraphs that the lenght of sentences is not a reasonable way to make a paragraph complicated, but giving the content in a short form is the goal we have to achieve.
That's all for now! bye!

09.00   14.00

Ayse OCAK

I think "Progress Sheet" is a very useful method that improves our writing skill which resulted in being objective. When you learn to be objective, you can face with your mistakes easily and do everything what you need.

APPENDIX 10

STUDENTS' WRITTEN PRODUCTS

PRE-TEST & POST-TEST

E □ (Sit-down Exam pre-test) 15 SABRİYE E.

There are many ways to quit smoking. You eat more fruit. Because people who smoke don't eat enough fruit. You can chew gum or eat sugar. When there is something in your mouth, you don't want to smoke. Some smokers only smoke for their lips and they get used to cigarette. Charnel is also an important method for quitting. It is used to make our mouth busy too. Because we cannot stop eating charnel, when we started. I think planning to quit smoking in mind and think of our health is the best method. Because we are the real controllers of ourselves. We can accomplish whatever we want.

E □² (Sit-down Exam pre-test) 15 SABRİYE E.

   Overeating is a serious bad habit that both the fat and the slander are easily getting used to and having problems to break.
   This bad habit starts by eating a little more and thinking it would give no harm each day, or it starts eating too much saying ' I haven't eaten anything till now.' These excuses may be logical but, unfortunately, these are things to destroy our assimilation system. Right things should be eaten at right times like breakfast in the morning, dinner in the evening. We must be careful about the amount of bread and meal. Eating too much bread, as I do, is also harmful. Especially at dinners, both meal and bread should be eaten less because after dinner people are sitting and directly going to bed, which mean no action. Sweets are another big problem too. Some people cant stop themselves from eating sweet. As they have too much sugar, more than the normal amount of sweet causes many disorders such as getting fat and catching diseases etc. Once you get accustomed to eating more, than you will have great difficulties trying to find out how to break this habit. It may be very difficult to stop overeating, but it does not mean it isn't impossible.
   We can get over it with petience and by eating in sufficient degrees for each meal we take. Sweets may be so delicious but amounts must be restricted.
   Consequently, we shouldn't think the amount of things we eat, we should think the amount of calory we take. By doing these, we can impede overeating step by step.

APPENDIX 10

STUDENTS' WRITTEN PRODUCTS

PRE-TEST & POST-TEST

C□(Sit-down Exam pre-test)

15. EMINE A.

There is an effective way for breaking a bad habit such as smoking, overeating or excess drinking. Firstly, the person who wants to break it should be under control of a doctor or an expert. Because if not, she can delay it to another time. Next, she must convince herself to give up the habit and she should be obedient to her decision. The last step is doing something different instead of doing something related to the bad habits; for instance, a smoker can chew a gum instead of smoking, or a fat person can attend sport activities instead of sleeping, eating and so on.

C□ (Sit-down Exam post-test)

15. EMINE A.

There are some certain bad habits such as smoking, overeating or excess drinking which play a crucial role in people' life. These bad habits affect people's psychology, family, health etc. and there are also several ways of escaping from them.

A person who smokes has the risk of catching cancer or the diseases. They are related to lips, lungs, throat and if he wants to give up, he shouldn't guit it suddenly but he should lessen it by day by. He can chew gum including nicotine or he can eat candy whenever he wants to smoke. He can also be interested in any kind of sport such as voleyball, jogging ,swimming. These are the common ways of quiting smoking, if the smoker thinks that they're not effective, he can also create new ones for himself.

In our country,many people are suffering from overeating and this results in psychological and health problems.In terms of psychological problems, fat people don't feel themselves self-confident or they can't wear whatever they want. Sometimes, they can also be discriminated because of their apperance. In terms of health problems, they can't breath easily,following from snoring problem or their collestrol and licid in the blood may be high.For breaking this habit ,overeating people should apply to a doctor who majored in diets.Then they should be obedient to the diet.They may also do something different when they want to eat such as reading,swimming or shopping.

The last bad that I want to mention is excess drinking.This bad habit makes the people unconcinous so these drunk people may give harm to their friands, themselves etc. but they don't know what they are doing.The best way to give up drinking is attending threaphies which are given by specialists.They can also drink fruit juices or they can devote themselves to their works,families in order to forget about it.

Bad habits can damage people's private life and their body's ability to fight against to diseases.People who have these habits should find or create the most effective way which can help them.

APPENDIX 11

CLUSTERED SENTENCES FROM A MODEL PARAGRAPH

EXERCISE 1

Combine the following sentences into an effective essay.

LINCOLN AND KENNEDY

1.1 Are you aware of something?
1.2 There are the similarities between two of the U.S presidents.
1.3 These presidents are the most popular ones.
1.4 The similarities are striking.
1.5 These presidents are A. Lincoln and J.F. Kennedy.

2.1 The names Lincoln and Kennedy both have seven letters.
2.3 This is a minor point.

3.1 Lincoln had his election legally challenged.
3.2 Kennedy had his election legally challenged.

4.1 Lincoln and Kennedy are remembered for something.
4.2 That is their sense of humor.
4.3 They are also remembered for something else.
4.4 This is the fact that they are instrusted in civil rights.

5.1 Lincoln became president in 1860.
5.2 Kennedy became president in 1960.
5.3 Lincoln's secretary was Mrs. Kennedy.
5.4 Kennedy's secretary was Mrs. Lincoln.

6.1 Lincoln did not take the advice of his secretary.
6.2 Kennedy did not take the advice of his secretary.
6.3 The advice was not to make an appearance.
6.4 This appearance was public.
6.5 They should not have appeared on the day.
6.6 That is the day they were assassinated.

10.1 Lincoln's successor was Andrew Johnson.
10.2 He was born in 1808.
10.3 Lyndon Johnson was Kennedy's successor.
10.4 He was born in 1908.

11.1 Finally, the bodies of both men were carried in a caisson.
11.2 This caisson was the same for both.
11.3 They were carried in their funeral processions.

247

APPENDIX 12

SAMPLE COMPOSITION STUDENTS ANALYZED

THROUGH THE PROGRESS SHEET

First Assessment

PROGRESS SHEET   **APPENDIX A**   *Hz - B*

Neslihan Prep B
Akelin

Put √ in the boxes from **5** to **1** you do in each category listed on top of the chart. Study this sheet so that you know your errors and can avoid then in your writing.   **5 : Very strong / 4 Strong / 3: Average / 2: Weak 1: Very weak**

No	Title of composition	Grammar					Connectors					Punctuation					Spelling & vocabulary					Complex sentences					Paragraphs					Essays				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Picnic Lunch																																			
2.	Summer Burns																																			
3.	Roots of Attr																																			
4.	Essay Joyce																																			
5.	Emmer Lab																																			
6.	Around the Horse																																			
7.	Nuclear Waste																																			
8.	Six Pilgrims																																			
9.	Le Sagal																																			
10.	First Settlers																																			
11.	Magical Name																																			
12.	Ozel Ahur																																			
13.	Air Pollution																																			
14.	Hispanic Research																																			
15.	First Love																																			

Modified by Wiener, H. S. (1992). Creating Compositions

Golden Tim

APPENDIX 12

SAMPLE COMPOSITION STUDENTS ANALYZED

THROUGH THE PROGRESS SHEET

Neslihan AKTEKIN
Prep B

Second Assessment

T's Assessment

APPENDIX A

PROGRESS SHEET

Put √ in the boxes from **5** to **1** you do in each category listed on top of the chart. Study this sheet so that you know your errors and can avoid then in your writing. **5 : Very strong / 4 Strong / 3: Average / 2: Weak 1: Very weak**

| No	Title of composition	Grammar					Connectors					Clauses					Phrases					Complex sentences					Paragraphs					Essays				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.	First love																																			
2.	Name Game																																			
3.	Pirate beach																																			
4.	Means to Name																																			
5.	Japanese Business																																			
6.	Roadside Attraction																																			
7.	Susan Sayer																																			
8.	Leather Rain																																			
9.	A man with Heart																																			
10.	Nuclear waste																																			
11.	Disney Pilgrims																																			
12.	No Street																																			
13.	First settlers																																			
14.	Magical Nanny																																			
15.	Ladies' Man																																			
	Air Pollution																																			

By Wiener, H. S. (1992). Creating

APPENDIX 13

TIMED COMPOSITION
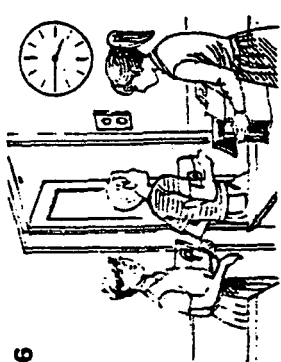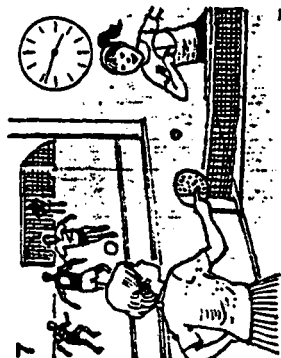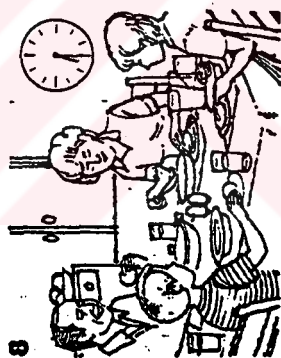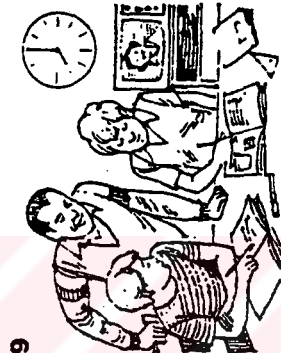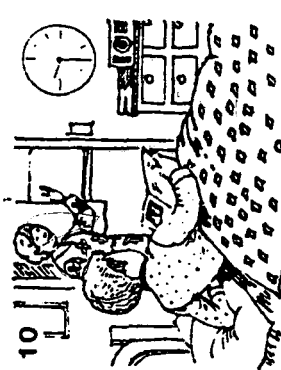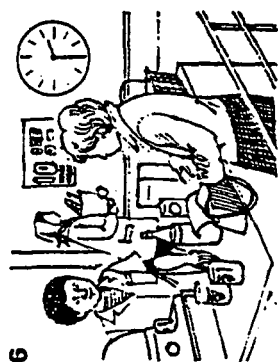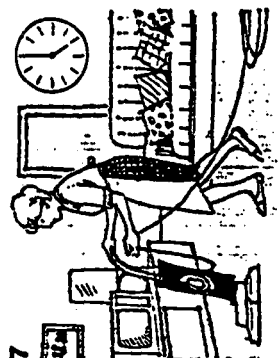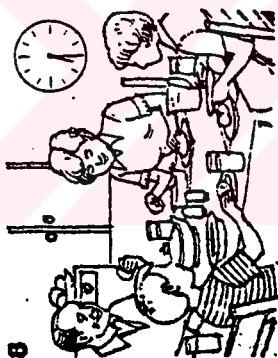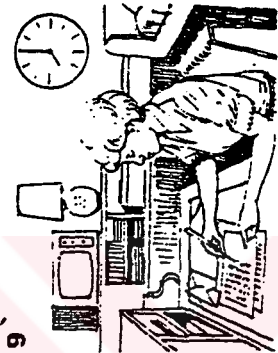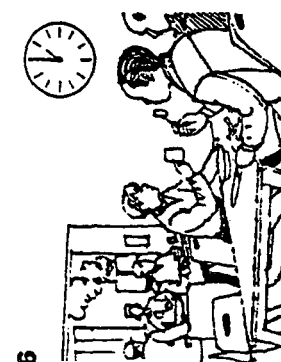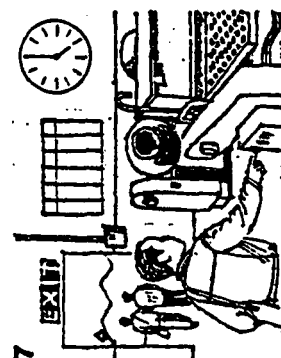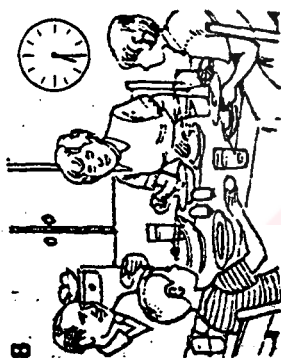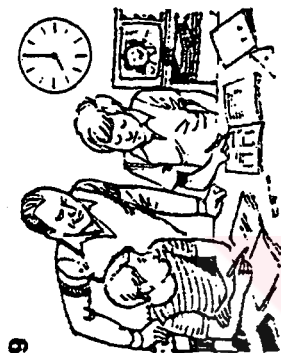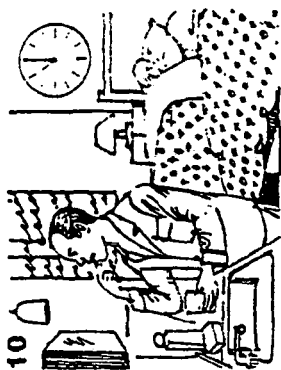
Questions

Answer these questions about the pictures.

a) At what time do Mr and Mrs Lee get up?
b) What does Mr Lee do first when he gets up?
c) When do the Lee family have breakfast?
d) Where does Mr Lee work? How does he get there?
e) How do Janet and Dave get to school?
f) What does Mrs Lee do as soon as she arrives at work?
g) What does Mrs Lee often do in the ...

h) What do Janet and Dave usually do as soon as school has finished?
i) What does everyone in the Lee family do at half-past six?
j) What does Mr Lee sometimes do in the evening?
k) How does Mrs Lee often pass the time?
l) At what time do they go to bed?

Writing: 1

Write a short account of a typical day in the lives of the members of the Lee family. Describe what they do in a similar way to the completed exercise on Page 11.

Writing: 2

Now write a short account of a typical day in your life and in the lives of members of your family.

APPENDIX 14

SYLLABUS OF WRITING

Name of the course: HIN-107 Writing
Instructors: Gülden Tüm and Münire Biçer
Hours per week: 6
Required Textbook: Arnalidet, M. L. & Barrett, M. E. (1990). *Paragraph development*: A guide for students of English. (2nd Ed.). New Jersey: Regents/ Prentice Hall.

Objectives of the course: at the end of the course, students will be able to write a unified, coherent paragraph, and will be able to transfer their skill to full composition in a paragraph form. They will be familiar to the format, content, and the style of compositions.

Course Calendar:
WEEK 1: What is a paragraph?
      Definition, length and indentation
WEEK 2:Topic versus topic sentence
      Differences between each topic and topic sentence
      How to limit topics, identifying categories, which limit topic sentence
      What makes a good topic sentence?
WEEK 3: Paragraph Unity
      Location of topic sentences in a paragraph
      Identifying topic sentences in a paragraph
WEEK 4: Identifying irrelevant sentences in a paragraph
      Supplying appropriate topic sentences
WEEK 5: How to support topic sentences
      A. Examples
         Guided analysis and Analysis of the use of examples
         Structures of exemplification
         Paragraph writing = examples
WEEK 6: Review and MID-TERM 1
WEEK 7: How to support topic sentences
      B. Details
         Guided analysis and Analysis of the use of details
         Information transfer
         Paragraph writing = details
         Describing a person
WEEK 8: How to support topic sentences
      C. Anecdotes
         Guided analysis and Analysis of the use of examples
         Paragraph writing = anecdotes
WEEK 9: How to support topic sentences
      D. Facts and statistics
         Guided analysis and Analysis of the use of examples
         Information transfer; interpreting pie graph, bar graph etc.
         Paragraph writing = statistics
WEEK 10: How to develop a paragraph
        Enumeration
        Guided analysis and enumeration
        Enumerators and Listing signals
        Paraphrasing and supplying listing signals

APPENDIX 14

SYLLABUS OF WRITING

Sentence structures of enumerative paragraph
WEEK 11: How to develop a paragraph
        Ascending and Descending order and Equal order
        Analyzing enumerative paragraphs
        Guided paragraph writing: Enumerative information transfer
WEEK 12: Review and MID-TERM 2

WEEK 1: Chronological order
        Analyzing a chronological paragraph
        Listing signals
        Time clues
        Unscrambling a chronological paragraph
        Guided paragraph writing: chronological information transfer
        Paragraph writing: Chronology
WEEK 2: Cause and Effect
        Analyzing a Cause and Effect paragraph (Focus on effect)
        Cause and Effect development
        Structural signals
        Guided paragraph writing: Cause and Effect information transfer
        Paragraph writing: Cause and Effect (focus on effect)
WEEK 3: Cause and Effect development (focus on cause)
        Analyzing a Cause and Effect paragraph (Focus on cause)
        Paragraph writing: Cause and Effect information transfer
        Paragraph writing: Cause and Effect (focus on cause)
WEEK 4: Cause and Effect development: Chain Reaction
        Analyzing a Chain-Reaction paragraph
        Unscrambling a Chain-Reaction paragraph
WEEK 5: Review and MID-TERM 3
WEEK 6:Comparison & Contrast
        Comparison
        Analyzing a Comparative paragraph
        Structures of comparison
        Guided paragraph writing: Comparative Information Transfer
        Paragraph writing: Comparison
WEEK 7:Contrast
        Analyzing a Contrast paragraph
        Structures of contrast
        Paraphrasing sentences of contrast
WEEK 8: Methods of contrast (Method 1+Method 2)
        Analyzing & reordering paragraphs of contrast
        Guided paragraph writing: Contrastive Information Transfer

WEEK 9: Comparison & Contrast
        Analyzing paragraphs of comparison and contrast
        Topic sentences of comparison and contrast
        Paragraph writing: Comparison and contrast
WEEK 10: definition
        Formal definition

APPENDIX 14

SYLLABUS OF WRITING

Structures of definition
Extended definition
Problems in definition
    Circular definition
    Overextended definition
    Over restricted definition
Identifying problems in definition
Stipulated definition
Analyzing stipulated definition
Paragraph writing: stipulated definition
WEEK 10: Review MID-TERM 4
WEEK 11: From paragraph to composition writing
    Personal
    Invitation
    Request & inquires
    Acceptance & refusals
    Arrangements
    Apologies & explanation
    Congratulations & commisenations
    Thank you letters
    General personal letters
WEEK 14: Formal
    Letters of application
    Complaint
    Apology & explanation
    Format, Content, and Style

APPENDIX 15

JACOBS' (1981) ANALYTIC SCORING

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE

CONTENT

15-14 : **EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:** knowledgeable; substantive; thorough development of thesis; relevant to assigned topic.

13-11 : **GOOD TO AVERAGE:** some knowledge of subject; adequate range; limited development of thesis; mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail.

10-9 : **FAIR TO POOR:** limited knowledge of subject; little substance; inadequate development of topic.

8-7 : **VERY POOR:** does not show knowledge of subject; non-substantive; not pertinent; OR not enough to evaluate.

ORGANIZATION

10-9 : **EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:** fluent expression; ideas clearly stated/ supported; succinct; well-organized; logical sequencing; cohesive.

8-7 : **GOOD TO AVERAGE:** somewhat choppy; loosely organized but main ideas stand out; limited support; logical but incomplete sequencing.

6-5 : **FAIR TO POOR:** non-fluent; ideas confused or disconnected; lacks logical sequencing and development.

4-3 : **VERY POOR:** does not communicate; no organization; OR not enough to evaluate.

VOCABULARY

10-9 : **EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:** sophisticated range; effective word/idiom choice and usage; word form mastery; appropriate register.

8-7 : **GOOD TO AVERAGE:** adequate range; occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but meaning not obscured.

6-5 : **FAIR TO POOR:** limited range; frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage; meaning confused or obscured.

4-3 : **VERY POOR:** essentially translation; little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form; OR not enough to evaluate.

LANGUAGE USE

12-11 : **EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:** effective complex constructions; few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns prepositions.

10-9 : **GOOD TO AVERAGE:** effective but simple constructions; minor problems in complex constructions; several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions but meaning seldom obscured.

8-6 : **FAIR TO POOR:** major problems in simple/complex constructions; frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions; meaning confused or obscured.

5-3 : **VERY POOR:** virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules; dominated by errors; does not communicate; OR not enough to evaluate.

APPENDIX 15

JACOBS' (1981) ANALYTIC SCORING

MECHANICS

3 : **EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:** demonstrates mastery of conventions; few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing.

2 : **GOOD TO AVERAGE:** occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured.

1 : **FAIR TO POOR:** frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing; poor handwriting; meaning confused or obscured.

0 : **VERY POOR:** no mastery of conventions; dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing; handwriting illegible; OR not enough to evaluate.

Jacobs, H. L., Zinkgraf, S. A., Wormouth, D. R., Hartfiel, V. F., & Hughey, J. B. (1981) Testing ESL Composition: A practical approach. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Hughes, A. (1989). Testing for Language Teachers. Cambridge: C.U.P.

APPENDIX 16

REDUCED CLAUSES

1.1 Reduced Adjective Clauses

a. I know the **man standing** over there (WHO IS)
b. I know the **man taken** to jail. (WHO IS)
c. I know the **man being charged** with the crime. (WHO IS)
d. I know the **man on the stage**(WHO IS)
e. Mohammed Ali, **born** Cassius Clay in Lousville, Kentucky, in 1942, retired from boxing in 1980.
f. **Born** Cassius Clay in Lousville, Kentucky, in 1942, Mohammed Ali retired from boxing in 1980.
g. Substances **in the center of** the earth are subject to extreme pressure.
h. The girl **he loved** married another man, shocking him. (WHOM)
i. Erkan was the only student **to arrive** on time for the lecture. (WHO ARRIVED)
j. The child needs a friend to play **with.** (WITH WHOM)
k. Have you got any books **to read?** (WHICH YOU CAN READ)
l. People **with** severe vision problems suffer a lot. (WHO HAVE)

1.2 Reduced Adverbial Clauses

a. **Before** going to school, John went to the shop. (PRESENT PARTICIPLE)
b. **Arriving** at the school, John saw the teacher. (PRESENT PARTICIPLE)
c. **Having made** a cake, she went to the party. (PERFECT PARTICIPLE)
d. **Having been invited,** she went to the party. (PASSIVE PERFECT PARTICIPLE)
e. **Warned about cheating,** the students were informed about the school system. (Absolutes)
f. **Where** necessary, improvements will be made. (IT IS)
g. **When** in London, he visited the British Museum. (HE WAS)
h. **While** at college, Sheila wrote a novel.
i. **As seen** from the chard, food accounts for 3/% of a middle-income family's monthly expenditure.
j. **Upon hearing** about his mothers heart attack, John rushed to the hospital.
k. **Although exhausted,** he went to bed very late.
l. **If convicted,** he could face five years in prison.

1.3 Reduced Noun Clause

a. The old man said the thief stole the handbag from the young lady. (THAT is omitted)
b. I am happy *to be* here.
c. It is said that he lives in Switzerland now. He *is said* to live in Switzerland now.
d. She pretends to *be enjoying* the show.
e. I assumed him *to be* in favor of the proposal.
f. I admit *having acted* irrationally.
g. I have no idea *how to tackle* this problem.
h. I have told him *where to go.*

(see Öztürk, 2001 for more examples and details)

APPENDIX 17

TOPICS UTILIZED IN WRITING COURSE

1. Nowadays, most of the developing countries want to send their students abroad to study.

2. Some students prefer to study alone. Others prefer to study with a group of students. Which do you prefer? Use specific reasons and provide examples to support your answer.

3. It is generally agreed that society benefits from the work of its members. Consider the contributions of artists to society with the contributions of scientists to society. Which type of contribution do you think is valued more by your society? Give specific reasons to support your answer.

4. People attend college or university for many different reasons (for example, new experiences, career preparation, increased knowledge). Why do you think people attend university? Use specific reasons and details to support your answer.

5. Movies are popular all over the world. Explain why movies are so popular. Use reason and specific examples to support your answer.

6. It is sometimes said that borrowing money from a friend can harm or damage the friendship. Do you agree? Why or why not? Use reason and specific examples to support your answer.

7. Some people think that human needs for farmland, housing, and industry are more important than saving land for endangered animals. Do you agree or disagree with this point of view? Why or why not? Use specific reasons and details to support your answer.

8. *Write about how you think bad habits such as smoking, overeating or excess drinking can ultimately be broken. Use specific reasons and details to support your answer.*

9. Some students like classes where teachers lecture (do all of the talking) in class. Other students prefer classes where the students do some of the talking. Which type of class do you prefer?

10. Choose one of the following careers and explain why it is important to society. Use specific reasons and details to explain your answer. (e. g. farmer, tour guide, architect, computer programmer, actor

APPENDIX 18

CONCORDANCE 3.0

Concordance 3.0 is a text analysis program, which provides to:

- make word frequency lists with percentages,

- make full concordances showing every word in its context. Use texts of any size,

- make fast concordances, picking the selection of words from text, and use multiple input files,

- view a full wordlist, a concordance, and the original text simultaneously,

- browse through the original text and click on any word to see every occurrence of that word in its context,

- edit and re-arrange a wordlist by drag and drop, and lemmatize-group together any words chosen.

As a Flexible, and Powerful Textual Analysis:

- user-definable alphabet: lets user control what's recognized as a word, user-definable reference system: identifies which section of a text each citation comes from, user-definable contexts: words are shown in contexts which you can vary by length or sense-unit,

- search, select, and sort words in very flexible ways, and word length chart,

- statistics on the text,

- full print preview and printing, with control over page size, margins, headers, footers, fonts etc.

As Comprehensive Text Tools:

- built-in file viewer can display files of unlimited size, and editor allows fast editing of files up to 16MB,

- file conversion tools - from OEM to ANSI character sets and from Unix to PC files.

As High Usability:

run fast - can pick 5000 occurrences of a word from a 1MB text in under 6 seconds on a 266MHz Pentium II.

Invented by Rob WATT
http://www.linguistlist.org/software.html#Text Analysis
http://www.rjcw.freeserve.co.uk/dl.htm

APPENDIX 18

CONCORDANCE 3.0

fith **Concordance**, you can

- make indexes
- count word frequencies
- compare different usages of a word
- analyse keywords
- find phrases and idioms
- publish to the web — see The Web Concordances
- ...and much more besides.

Headword	No.		Context...	Word	...Context	Reference
HEAR	15		That my own	heart	drifts and cries, having no...	Deep Analysis
HEARD	9		By the shout of the	heart	continually at work	And the wave
HEARING	7		Nothing to adapt the skill of the	heart	to, skill	And the wave
HEARS	3		The tread, the beat of it, it is my own	heart	.	Träumerei
HEARSE	1		Because I follow it to my own	heart		Many famous
HEART	26		My	heart	is ticking like the sun:	I am washed u
HEART'S	2		The vague	heart	sharpened to a candid co...	The March Pa:
HEART-SHAPED	1		Contract my	heart	by looking out of date.	Lines on a Yo
HEARTH	1		Having no	heart	to put aside the theft	Home is so Sa
HEARTS	7		And the boy puking his	heart	out in the Gents	Essential Beat
HEARTY	1		A harbour for the	heart	against distress.	Bridge for the
HEAT	6		These I would choose my	heart	to lead	After-Dinner F
HEAT-HAZE	1		Time in his little cinema of the	heart		Time and Spac
HEATH	1		This petrified	heart	has taken,	A Stone Churc
HEATS	1		How should they sweep the girl clean...	heart	.	I see a girl dra
HEAVE	1		Hands that the	heart	can govern	Heaviest of fit
HEAVEN	4		For the	heart	to be loveless, and as col...	Dawn
HEAVEN-HOLDING	1		With the unguessed-at	heart	riding	One man walk
HEAVIER-THAN-...	1		If hands could free you,	heart	.	If hands could
HEAVIEST	2		That overflows the	heart		Pour away the

Words	Tokens	At word	Deleted lines	Word sort	Context sort
7318	37070	2990	1 [24]	Asc alpha [string]	Asc occurrence order

oncordance is being used in

- Language teaching and learning
- Data mining and data clean-up
- Literary and linguistic scholarship
- Translation and language engineering
- Corpus linguistics
- Natural language software development
- Lexicography
- Content analysis in many disciplines including accountancy, history, marketing, musicology, politics,

CURRICULUM VITAE

Name & Surname : Gülden Tüm

Date of Birth   : 22 02 1962

Place of Birth : Hakkari, Turkey

Address   : (Work) Çukurova University, Faculty of Education, English Language

Teaching Department, Balcalı, 01330 Adana-Turkey

Telephone   :+90 (322) 3386084   ext. 2793 +20

Fax: :+ 90 (322) 338 6526

E-mail   : gultum@cu.edu.tr

: guldentum@yahoo.com

Web-site   : www.cu.edu.tr/insanlar/guldentum

Title   : English Language Instructor

ACADEMIC

DATE	INSTITUTE	DEGREE
2002	Faculty of Education, Ç.Univ.	Ph.D.
1995	Faculty of Education, Ç.Univ.	Masters of Art
1995	Cambridge University	**CEELT** Language Certificate
1992	Cambridge University	**COTE** Language Certificate
1986	Faculty of Education	Graduate

PROFESSIONAL

ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTOR

1995 - pres.	Ç.U. Faculty of Education
2002 - Oct.-May	Seyhan Hospital (Nursing English for Health Staff for Foreign Patients) (Volunteer)
1999 – Jun-Aug.	Napoli La Scuola Inglese il Privato Lingua (Napoli/Italy) (Volunteer)
1992 - 1995	Ç.U. Center for Foreign Languages (YADIM)
1988 - 1992	Ç.U. Ceyhan Vocational School
1986 - 1988	Ç.U. Institute of Applied Sciences, and Adana Private Foreign Language Center (Part Time)

TURKISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTOR

1999 - 2001	American Consulate	Simultaneous Interpretation for TABA (Volunteer)
1999 - 2001	American Consulate	Turkish Courses for the Consuls (Volunteer)
1995 - 1997	Incirlik American Base	University of Maryland (Volunteer)
1992 - 1995	Incirlik American Base	Family Support Center (Volunteer)

NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES ATTENDED

Date	Institution	Title
October, 4-6, 2002	University of Veszprém Veszprém-Hungary	"New Avenues" The 12th International Conference of IATEFL-Hungary

September, 5-6, 2002	Suleyman Demirel University Isparta, Turkey	The 1st International Symposium on Modern Approaches, Methods and ELT Problems (Programme)
May, 31, 2002	Nigde University Nigde, Turkey	The 3rd ELT Conference: Teaching and Learning in EFL Classrooms
May, 23-25, 2002	METU Ankara, Turkey	The 7th International ELT Convention: Evaluation and Assessment: Innovations In Action
November, 15-17, 2001	Anadolu University Eskisehir, Turkey	The 5th International INGED-Anadolu ELT Conference
September, 9-11, 2001	ODTU Ankara, Turkey	TDTR5 Teachers Develop Teachers Research 5th International Conference
May, 3-5, 2001	Işık University İstanbul, Turkey	Creativity in ELT

March 23-25, 2001	The American University in Cairo, Egypt	The second International Conference on Contrastive Rhetoric
Jan. 13-14, 2001	İstanbul Üniversitesi Adana, Turkiye	Öğretmen Sohbetleri 'Ana Baba Okulları'
Oct. 21-22, 2000	Çukurova University Adana, Turkey.	International INGED-Çukurova ELT Conference.
July 24-Aug. 4, 2000	100. Yıl Üniversitesi + USIS Van Summer Institute Van, Turkey	Peace Education Themes Through ELT Teaching For English Lang. Teachers
May 25-27, 2000	Middle East Technical University Ankara, Turkey	6th METU International ELT Convention

PAPERS PRESENTED

Sept. 2000   4th International INGED-Çukurova ELT Conference. Çukurova Univ.,
Adana. "The Use of Anaphoric Devices in Writing." (Co-author: H. Sofu)

23-25 March 2001   2nd International Conference on Contrastive Rhetoric. American
University in Cairo, Egypt. "Sentence Combining Technique: An Aid to
Improve Writing Skills." (Co-author: Ö. Ekmekçi)

3- 5 May 2001   5th International Conference on Creativity in ELT. Isik Univ., Istanbul.
"Welcoming Authentic Materials as Speaking and Listening Models."

15 –17 Nov. 2001	5th International INGED-Anadolu ELT Conference, Anadolu Univ., Eskisehir. "Extensive Reading: A Key to Vocabulary Improvement."

15 –17 Nov. 2001   5th International INGED-Anadolu ELT Conference, Anadolu Univ.,

Eskisehir. "Extensive Reading: A Key to Vocabulary Improvement."

23-25, May 2002   The 7th International ELT Convention, METU, Ankara, Turkey. "Does Self-

Assessment Cause Confusion & Panic or Not ?"

May, 31, 2002   The 3rd ELT Conference: Nigde Univ., Niğde, Turkey. "Adapting Authentic

Materials for EFL Learners"

5-6, Sept. 2002   The 1st International Symposium on Modern Approaches, Methods and ELT

Problems (Programme). Suleyman Demirel University. Isparta, Turkey. "Can

Embarrassment of Students be overcome in Speaking Activities in EFL

Classes?"

4-6, Oct. 2002   The 12th Annual Conference of IATEFL-Hungary. Veszprém-Hungary. "Give

a Man a Fish for a Day or Teach Him to Fish for a Life."

4-6, Oct. 2002   The 12th Annual Conference of IATEFL-Hungary. Veszprém-Hungary.

"Empowering ELT Students in Speaking Classes to Produce More Effective

and Complicated sentences."

PUBLICATIONS

(2000). The Use of Anaphoric Devices in Writing. Adana: Çukurova University, Turkey.

(2001). Sentence Combining Technique: An Aid to Improve Writing Skills. Cairo: American

University in Cairo.

(2001). Welcoming Authentic Materials as Speaking and Listening Models. Istanbul: Isik

University, Turkey.

(2001). Extensive Reading: A Key to Vocabulary Improvement. Eskisehir: Anadolu

University, Turkey. (to be published)

(2002). Does Self-assessment Cause Confusion & Panic or Not ? Ankara: METU, Turkey.

(to be published)

(2002). Adapting Authentic Materials for EFL Students in High Schools. (to be published)

(2002). Can Embarrassment of Students be overcome in Speaking Activities in EFL Classes?
Suleyman Demirel University., Isparta, Turkey. (to be published)

COURSES TAUGHT AT THE DEPARTMENT SINCE 1995

Undergraduate

Class	Name of the Course	Hours per week
Prep. Classes	Reading	6
Prep. Classes	Listening & Speaking	6
Prep. Classes	Writing	6
Prep. Classes	Grammar	6
1st Grade	Text Analysis	4
1st Grade	Speaking Skills	6
1st Grade	Reading and Study Skills	4
1st Grade	Advanced Writing Skills	4
3rd Grade	Culture	2
3rd Grade	Translation From Turkish to English	3