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The Role of Student Teams – Achievement Divisions Technique in the Implicit Teaching of the Use of Conjunctions in Writing

Case Study: Third Year Students of English at Biskra University

A Thesis Submitted to the Department of Foreign Languages in Partial Fulfilment of the
Requirements for the Master's Degree in Sciences of Languages.

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Dedication

To the Haters, thank you for challenging me.

To the Beloved ones, thank you for believing in me.

To Myself, thank you for staying strong.

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Abstract

This study aims mainly at investigating the role of the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing for third year LMD students. As an attempt to treat learners' misuse of this grammatical element, and to recommend more frequent implementations of this technique in particular and cooperative learning tasks in general in the EFL classrooms. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods have been opted for to carry on this investigation, using teachers' and students' questionnaires, a quasi-experiment, and documentations' analysis; in order to draw fruitful results and to test the set hypotheses. The nullified hypothesis claims that the implementation of the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions will not affect the students' use of conjunctions in writing; whereas, the alternative hypothesis states that the use of the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique will enhance the students' use of conjunctions in writing. The research findings have confirmed the alternative hypothesis at a very significant rate. In more detailed issues and results, the students state that they have positive and satisfactory levels towards working under the leadership of one of their classmates; whereas, their teachers seem to perceive the opposite. Also, from the analysis of the most faced problems when working with other, it is clear that students lack the proper understanding of the cooperative learning pillars. And, the majority of teachers exhibit zero knowledge about the (STAD) technique which explains the lack of using it. Consequently, it is recommended to use it more often in writing activities as most of the students prefer to write alone. Besides, it is suggested to implicitly teach the conjunctions through texts using authentic materials that will help the students to grasp the different semantic and grammatical relations that the conjunctions need better than giving them a list of alternative conjunctions that do not always fit the context of their written products.

Key words: Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique, cooperative learning, writing, conjunctions, implicit teaching, 3rd year LMD students.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

LMD: Licence, Master, Doctorate.

CL: Cooperative Learning.

CLL: Cooperative Language Learning.

EFL: English as a Foreign Language.

ESL: English as a Second Language.

FL: Foreign Language.

SL: Second Language.

SLA: Second Language Acquisition.

STAD: Student Teams-Achievement Divisions.

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

TESL: Teaching English as a Second Language.

FLL: Foreign Language Learning.

FLT: Foreign Language Teaching.

MKUB: Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra.

TGT: Teams-Games-Tournaments.

CIRC: Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition.

LT: Learning Together.

CDs: Cohesive Devices.

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.

List of Figures

Figure.1.1.1. The Five Pillars of Cooperative Learning (VCSMR and Rao, 2013:24).	15
Figure.1.1.2. The Active Learning Continuum (Soluri, 2010:13).	19
Figure.2.1.1. Elements for Producing an Adequate Piece of Writing.	41
Figure.2.1.2. The Modal (Must) in Freeman’s Model (cited in Savage et al, 2010).	51
Figure.3.1.1. Students’ Gender Distribution.	78
Figure.3.1.2. Students’ Age Distribution.	79
Figure.3.1.3. Students’ Choice of Most Challenging Step in Writing a Paragraph.	82
Figure.3.1.4. Description of Students’ Attitudes towards Learning about Linking Words and Phrases in Cooperative Learning.	84
Figure.3.1.5. Students’ Ranking Priority of the Challenging Types of Linking Words and Phrases to Be Used.	86
Figure.3.1.6. Students’ Ratings of the Benefits of Working in Cooperative Groups.	90
Figure.3.1.7. Students Most Faced Difficulties.	92
Figure.3.3.1. The Percentages of the Used Types of Conjunctions in the Pretest.	136
Figure.3.3.2. The Differences between the Erroneously and the Correctly Used Conjunctions in Students’ Pretest Paragraphs.	138
Figure.3.3.3. The Percentage of the Used Types of Conjunctions in the Posttest.	141
Figure.3.3.4. The Differences between the Erroneously and the Correctly Used Conjunctions in Students’ Posttest Paragraphs.	143

List of Graphs

Graph.3.2.1. Histogram Representing Students' Scores of the Pilot Pretest and Posttest.	107
Graph.3.2.2. The Pilot Tests' Scores Means Compared.	108
Graph.3.2.3. Frequency Polygon of Pilot Pretest and Posttest Scores.	109
Graph.3.2.4. Pilot Pretest and Posttest Statistics Compared.	114
Graph.3.2.5. Final Pretest and Posttest Scores.	118
Graph.3.2.6. The Final Pretest and Posttest Means Compared.	119
Graph.3.2.7. Comparison of the Final Pretest and Posttest Mean and Standard Deviation.	125
Graph.3.2.8. Presentation of the Changes in the Pretest and Posttest Scores for Each Student.	127
Graph.3.3.1. A Linegraph of the Difference between the Correct and the Incorrect Uses of Conjunctions for Each Student in the Pretest.	139
Graph.3.3.2. A Linegraph of the Difference between the Correct and the Incorrect Uses of Conjunctions for Each Student in the Posttest.	144
Graph.3.3.3. The Difference between the Two Test: Sum of Conjunctions, and the Means.	146
Graph.3.3.4. The Difference between the Numbers of the Used Conjunctions and the Correctness Level in Both Test.	147
Graph.3.3.5. The Pre- and the Posttest Differences in the Used Coordinating Conjunctions.	149
Graph.3.4.1. Priority Ranking of the Most Lacked Aspects in Students Written Products According to Teachers.	162
Graph.3.4.2. Teachers' Priority Ranking of the Given Importance to Some Aspects in Teaching Writing.	163
Graph.3.4.3. Teachers' Perspectives of the Frequencies of Students' Mistakes.	165
Graph.3.4.4. Teachers' Ranking Priorities of the Lacked Types of Conjunctions in	166

Students' Writings.

Graph.3.4.5. Teachers' Most Faced Difficulties when Using Cooperative Groups. 172

List of Tables

Table.1.2.1. Types of Cooperative Learning	27
Table.1.2.2. Cooperative Learning Designs. Their Methods, and Examples of the Type of Tasks.	28
Table.2.1.1. Teaching and Presenting Grammar in Language Teaching Approaches	51
Table.2.2.1. British Council's IELTS Task 2 Writing Band: Coherence and Cohesion	62
Table.2.2.2. Types of Conjunctions Based on Halliday and Hassan Classification (1976)	65
Table.2.2.3. Martin and Rose's Classification of Conjunctions Based on their Levels	67
Table.2.2.4. The Types of Conjunction, Its Placement in the Sentence, and the Proper Punctuation.	69
Table.3.1.1. Students' Justifications of Their Preferences in Writing.	73
Table.3.1.2. Students' Gender Distribution.	78
Table.3.1.3. Students' Age Distribution.	79
Table.3.1.4. Students' Attitudes towards Writing in English.	80
Table.3.1.5. Students' Personal Evaluation of their Writing Level in English.	80
Table.3.1.6. Students' Perception about the Importance of Learning to Write.	81
Table.3.1.7. Students' Choice of Most Challenging Step in Writing a Paragraph.	81
Table.3.1.8. Students' Awareness of the Importance of Linking Words and Phrases.	83
Table.3.1.9. Description of Students' Attitudes towards Learning about Linking Words and Phrases in Cooperative Groups.	83
Table.3.1.10. Description of Students' Attitudes towards Learning through Texts.	84
Table.3.1.11. Students' Evaluation of the Used Texts.	85
Table.3.1.12. Students' Ranking Priority of the Challenging Types of Linking Words and Phrases to Be Used.	86
Table.3.1.13. Students' Preferences When Writing.	87
Table.3.1.14. Students' Explanation of Their Preferences When Writing.	87

Table.3.1.15. Students' Levels of Motivation When Working with Others.	88
Table.3.1.16. Students' Rating Levels of Benefits When Working with Others.	88
Table.3.1.17. Students' Ratings of the Benefits of Working in Cooperative Groups.	89
Table.3.1.18. Students' Frequency of Facing Difficulties When Working with Others.	91
Table.3.1.19. Students' Most Faced Difficulties.	91
Table.3.1.20. Students' Perception of the Disadvantages of Working in Cooperative Groups.	92
Table.3.1.21. Students' Thoughts of the Disadvantages of Working in Groups.	93
Table.3.1.22. Students' Level of Satisfaction with Working under Leadership.	93
Table.3.1.23. Students' Preference towards the Group Types.	94
Table.3.1.24. Students' Knowledge about the Students Teams – Achievement Divisions Technique of Cooperative Language Learning Approach.	95
Table.3.1.25. Students' Level of Satisfaction with Students Teams – Achievement Divisions.	95
Table.3.1.26. Students' Description of the Cooperative Groups Learning Experience.	96
Table.3.2.1. The First Assessment Rubric for the Pilot Study.	106
Table.3.2.2. Students' Scores in the Pilot Pretest and Posttest.	106
Table.3.2.3. Means of Scores in the Pilot Pretest-Posttest.	107
Table.3.2.4. Frequency Distribution of Score Values in Pilot Study Tests.	109
Table.3.2.5. Pilot Pretest Scores: the Mean and the Standard Deviation.	112
Table.3.2.6. Pilot Posttest Scores: the Mean, the Variance and the Standard Deviation.	113
Table.3.2.7. Pilot Pretest and Posttest' Mean and Standard Deviation Compared.	113
Table.3.2.8. The Final Assessment Rubric for the Quasi-Experiment.	115
Table.3.2.9. The Final Pretest and Posttests: Students' Scores.	117
Table.3.2.10. The Final Pretest-Posttest: Means of Scores and Difference.	118

Table.3.2.11. The Final Pretest and Posttest: Frequency Distribution of Scores Values.	120
Table.3.2.12. The Final Pretest's Scores, the Mean, the Variance and the Standard Deviation.	122
Table.3.2.13. The Final Posttest's Scores, the Mean, the Variance and the Standard Deviation.	124
Table.3.2.14. Comparison of the Final Pretest and Posttest's Mean and Standard Deviation.	125
Table.3.2.15. Comparison of Score Difference between Posttest and Pretest for Each Student.	126
Table.3.2.16. Rules for Hypothesis Testing.	130
Table.3.2.17. The Gathered Results Using (SPSS) Software.	131
Table.3.3.1. The Used Types of Conjunctions in the Pretest: the Sum, the Percentage, and the Mean.	135
Table.3.3.2. The Full Number of the Used Conjunctions, the Correct Ones, and the Difference between the Two the Pretest.	137
Table.3.3.3. The Used Types of Conjunctions in the Posttest: the Sum, the Percentage, and the Mean.	140
Table.3.3.4. The Full Number of the Used Conjunctions, the Correct Ones, and the Difference between the Two in the Posttest.	142
Table.3.3.5. The Numbers of the Used Conjunctions in Both Tests.	145
Table.3.3.6. Pre- and Posttest: the Used Coordinating Conjunctions by Each Informant.	148
Table.3.3.7. The Pre- and Posttest: the Used Subordinating Conjunctions by Each Informant.	150
Table.3.3.8. The Pre- and Posttest: the Used Conjunctives by Each Informant.	152
Table.3.3.9. The Pre- and Posttest: the Used Prepositional Phrases.	153
Table.3.3.10. The Pre- and Posttest: the Overall Syntax Grading.	155

Table.3.4.1. Teachers' Qualifications.	159
Table.3.4.2. Teachers' Years of Experience in Teaching Written Expression at University.	159
Table.3.4.3. Teachers' Years of Experience in Teaching Written Expression for Third Year LMD Students.	160
Table.3.4.4. Teachers' Evaluation of Writing in English for Third Year LMD Students.	160
Table.3.4.5. Priority Ranking of the Most Lacked Aspects in Students Written Products.	161
Table.3.4.6. Teachers' Priority Ranking of the Given Importance to Some Aspects in Teaching Writing.	163
Table.3.4.7. Teachers' Perspective of the Most Challenging Step in Writing for Students.	164
Table.3.4.8. Teachers' Perspectives of the Frequencies of Students' Mistakes.	164
Table.3.4.9. Teachers' Ranking Priorities of the Lacked Types of Conjunctions in Students' Writings.	166
Table.3.4.10. Teachers' Most Used Model in Teaching Grammar in Writing.	167
Table.3.4.11. Teachers' Justification of Not Teaching Grammar in Writing through Texts.	167
Table.3.4.12. Frequency of Teaching Writing through Cooperative Group Work.	169
Table.3.4.13. The Usual Number of Members in Each Group.	170
Table.3.4.14. Teachers' Basis for Grouping Students.	170
Table.3.4.15. Teachers' Frequency Level of Facing Difficulties when Supervising Pair of Group Work.	171
Table.3.4.16. Teachers' Most Faced Difficulties when Using Cooperative Groups.	171
Table.3.4.17. Teachers Use of Role Assignments	173
Table.3.4.18. Teachers' Predictions about Students' Feelings when Working under Leadership of one of their Teammates.	173

Table.3.4.19. Teachers' Used Incentives for Rewarding Cooperative Group Efforts.	174
Table.3.4.20. Teachers' Most Used Cooperative Learning Technique.	175
Table.3.4.21. Teachers' Knowledge about the Student Team–Achievement Divisions Technique.	175
Table.3.4.22. Teachers Frequency Use of the Student Team–Achievement Divisions Technique in Their Classrooms.	176
Table.3.4.23. Teachers' Incorporation of Individual Assessment and Evaluation when Using Cooperative Writing Task.	176

Table of Content

Dedication	I
Acknowledgments	II
Abstract	III
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms	IV
List of Figures	V
List of Graphs	VI
List of Tables	VIII
GENERAL INTRODUCTION	1
1. Statement of The Problem	2
2. Aim of The Study	3
3. Significance of The Study	4
4. Research Questions	5
5. Research Hypothesis	5
6. Research Methodology and Design	6
6.1. Research Method	6
6.2. Research Sample	6
6.3. Data Gathering Tool	7
6.4. Data Analysis	7
7. Structure of the Thesis	8
CHAPTER ONE: COOPERATIVE LEARNING: HISTORY AND APPLICATION	9
PART ONE: COOPERATIVE LEARNING THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK	9
Introduction	9
1. Theoretical Foundations of Cooperative Learning (CL)	9
1.1. Motivationalist View	10
1.2. Cognitive View	10
1.3. Humanist View	10
1.4. Social View	11
1.4.1. Vygotskian View	11

1.4.2. Social Interdependence Theory (SIT)	11
2. Cooperative Learning Definition	12
3. Why Does Cooperative Learning Work	14
4. Elements of Cooperative Learning	15
4.1. Positive Independence	15
4.2. Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction	16
4.3. Individual Accountability	16
4.4. Social Skills	17
4.5. Group Processing	17
5. Learner-Centered Instruction versus Traditional Language Teaching	18
6. Cooperative Learning and Active Learning	18
7. Learning Goals Structures: Individual Efforts, Competitiveness and Cooperative Work	19
8. Cooperative Learning versus Collaborative Learning	20
9. Advantages of Cooperative Learning	22
10. Second Language Acquisition Theories and Cooperative Learning	23
Conclusion	25
PART TWO: COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN EFL CLASSROOM	26
Introduction	26
1. Terminology Set for this Study	26
2. Types of Cooperative Learning	27
3. Well-Known Cooperative Learning Models	27
4. History of the Student Team – Achievement Divisions Technique	29
5. Student Team – Achievement Divisions Technique in Comparison	30
6. Student Team – Achievement Divisions Technique Stages	31
7. Student Team – Achievement Divisions Technique Challenges and Solutions	32
8. Strategies for Smooth Cooperative Learning Tasks	34
Conclusion	37

CHAPTER TWO: THE WRITING SKILL IN EFL CLASSROOM	38
PART ONE: TEACHING WRITING AND GRAMMAR	38
Introduction	38
1. Definition of Writing as a Skill	38
2. Written and Spoken Language	38
3. The Significance of Writing in Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages	39
4. Components of Writing	40
5. Characteristics of Good Writing	41
6. Stages of the Writing Process	42
6.1. The Prewriting	42
6.2. Drafting	43
6.3. Revising	43
6.4. Editing	44
6.5. Publishing and Sharing	44
7. The Role of the Writing Teacher	45
8. Definition of Grammar	46
9. Defining Grammar from a Learning Perspective	47
10. Significance of Teaching Grammar	48
11. Approaches to Teaching Grammar	49
Conclusion	52
PART TWO: COHESION AND CONJUNCTION IN WRITING	53
Introduction	53
1. Text and Texture	53
2. Coherence and Cohesion	53
2.1. Cohesion and Coherence: Definitions and Relationship	54
2.2. Previous Research Studies on Cohesion in L2 Writing	55
3. Rationale for Teaching Cohesion and Conjunctions	56
4. Types of Cohesion	58
5. Teaching Cohesion, Coherence, and Conjunctions	59
5.1. Teaching Cohesion and Coherence through Frameworks	59

5.2. Crewe’s Stages for Teaching Conjunctions	61
6. Assessment and Evaluation of Cohesion in Writing	61
7. Theories to the Study of Discourse Connectives	63
8. Conjunctions	64
8.1. Conjunctions: Terminological Sets, Function, and Definition	64
8.2. Conjunctions: Different Sub-Categorizations	65
8.3. Conjunctions: Internal and External Levels	67
8.4. Conjunctions: Punctuations and Types of Sentences	68
Conclusion	69
CHAPTER THREE: DATA GATHERING AND RESULTS ANALYSIS	71
PART ONE: THIRD YEAR LMD STUDENTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE	71
Introduction	71
1. Aim of the Students’ Questionnaire	71
2. Description of the Questionnaire	71
3. The Pilot Questionnaire: Description and Some Inconveniences	72
4. The Preliminary Questionnaire: Analysis and Discussion of the Results	73
4.1. Section Two: Writing Skill and Sub-skills	73
4.2. Section Two: Cooperative Group at Work	74
5. Description of Students’ Final Questionnaire	77
6. Administering the Students’ Questionnaire	77
7. The Students’ Questionnaire Results: Analysis and Interpretation	78
7.1. Section One: Personal Information	78
7.2. Section Two: Writing Skill and Sub-skills	80
7.3. Section Three: Cooperative Groups at Work	88
Conclusion	97

PART TWO: QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON THE ROLE OF STUDENT TEAMS-ACHIEVEMENT DIVISIONS TECHNIQUE IN THE IMPLICIT TEACHING OF THE USE OF CONJUNCTIONS IN WRITING	99
Introduction	99
1. Rationale	99
2. The Aim of the Quasi-Experiment	100
3. The Population and the Sample	100
4. The Experimental Procedures	102
4.1. Pretest and Posttest Administration	102
4.2. Treatment	102
4.2.1. Session One	102
4.2.2. Session Two	103
4.3. Description of the Teaching Materials	104
5. Pilot Study	105
5.1. The First Assessment Rubric	105
5.2. The Pilot Pretest and Posttest Scores	106
5.3. The Pilot Results: Analysis and Interpretation	108
5.4. The Pilot Pretest: Statistical Considerations	110
5.5. The Pilot Posttest: Statistical Considerations	112
5.6. The Results of the Pilot Study	114
6. The Final Quasi-Experimental Design	116
6.1. The Final Pretest and Posttest: Students' Scores	116
6.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Results	119
6.3. The Final Pretest: Statistical Considerations	121
6.4. The Final Posttest: Statistical Considerations	122
7. Comparative Evaluation of the Pre-Test and the Post-Test Achievements	126
8. Hypothesis Testing	127
8.1. Calculation of the T-Test	128
8.2. Degree of Freedom (df)	129
8.3. Alpha Decision Level	129
8.4. Critical Value	129

9. The Size Effect of the Tests	130
10. The Use of (SPSS) Specialist and Teacher's Second Opinion	131
Conclusion	133
PART THREE: CORPUS-BASED EXAMINATION OF THE PRE- AND POSTTEST PARAGRAPHS	134
Introduction	134
1. Statistical Considerations Related to the Use of Conjunctions in the Pretest	134
1.1. The Used Conjunctions in the Pretest	134
1.2. The Correct Use of Conjunctions in the Pretest	136
2. Statistical Considerations Related	139
2.1. The Used Conjunctions in the Posttest	139
2.2. The Correct Use of Conjunctions in the Posttest	141
3. Comparative Evaluation of the Use of Conjunctions in Both Tests	144
3.1. The Numbers of the Used Conjunctions in Pretest and Posttest	144
3.2. The Difference between the Numbers of the Used and the Correct Conjunctions in Both Test	146
3.3. The Numbers of Each of the Used Coordinating Conjunctions	147
3.4. The Numbers of Each of the Used Subordinating Conjunctions	150
3.5. The Numbers of Each of the Used Conjunctive Adverbs	151
3.6. The Numbers of Each of the Used Prepositional Phrases	152
3.7. The Whole Syntax Grading Before and After the Treatment	154
Conclusion	156
PART FOUR: THE QUESTIONNAIRE OF THIRD YEAR LMD WRITTEN EXPRESSION TEACHERS	157
Introduction	157
1. Aim of the Teachers' Questionnaire	157
2. Description of the Teachers' Sample	157
3. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire	158
4. Administering the Teachers' Questionnaire	158
5. The Teachers' Questionnaire Results: Analysis and Interpretation	159
5.1. Section One: Qualifications and Experience	159

5.2. Section Two: Writing Skill and Sub-skills	160
5.3. Section Three: Cooperative Groups at Work	169
Conclusion	179
Suggestions, Recommendations, and Pedagogical Implications	180
Introduction	180
1. Recommendations for Using Cooperative Learning and the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions Technique	180
2. Teacher Training Programmes	183
3. The Role of the Teacher in Teaching Written Expression Courses	184
3.1. Recommendations about Teaching Grammar and Writing	185
3.2. Recommendations about Teaching Cohesion and Coherence	185
3.3. Recommendations about Teaching Conjunctions	186
4. Recommendations about Future Research Studies	188
Conclusion	190
GENERAL CONCLUSION	191
Limitations of the Study	196
REFERENCES	197
APPENDICES	215
Appendix 1. Students' Pilot Questionnaire	215
Appendix 2. Students' Final Questionnaire	219
Appendix 3. Tailored Lesson on the Use of Conjunctions	223
Appendix 4. Critical Value Table	227
Appendix 5. Teachers' Questionnaire	228
Résumé	234
المخلص	235

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Regardless of the importance of the language's spoken form, the written one has been always the centre of interest. This latter, certainly, received –and obviously still does– the major focus of educators, courses' builders, and mainly language' teachers. Throughout our humble experience in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra (MKUB), we have come to notice a few, but rather important things; such as: the challenging nature of the writing skill, the constant challenge of using the right conjunction, and the frequent struggle of finding the suitable learning environment and activities.

To commence with is the importance and the challenging nature of the writing skill in a foreign language classrooms. Writing is an independent medium and a crucial skill in EFL or ESL classrooms. It is usually used to teach or reinforce new vocabulary and topics, and even other skills and elements of the language. Apart from this, we have recognised that writing is far more complex skill and demanding process than we ever thought. So, no matter how good we may think we are in writing, we still need to go through those two sessions per week in order to polish, to gain perfection and control over our piece of writing because it is not any kind of writing; it is an “academic” writing sessions. This later is considered to be “at the heart of teaching and learning in higher education [where] students are assessed largely by what they write” (Coffin, Curry, Goodman, Hewings, Lillis, and Swann, 2005: i).

It is generally thought that writing encourages thought, reason, and permits expression with clarity, precision, grace and tact. Since academic writing demands further clarity and precision on its plat, the right use of conjunction is highly recommended for the betterment of the piece of writing. According to Fakuade and Sharndama: “He, [Yule, 1989], notes that analysis of cohesive links within the text gives some insights into how writers structure what they want to say and may help to judge whether something is well written or not” (2012: 304). So as former students, we have noticed that we had troubles either in misusing conjunctions in particular and the cohesive markers in general or not using them at all, probably due to our constant struggle with the appropriate learning situations and activities.

It goes without saying that founding the suitable learning environment that foster and sustain students' learning is a crucial matter in the teaching and learning process. So,

in order to create an active learning environment, approaches to language teaching, in ESL or EFL classes, have shifted from teacher-centred approaches to learner-centred approaches resulting in the innovation of cooperative learning (CL) approach to language teaching. So, whether you are a teacher or a learner, cooperation is needed for the betterment of the learning process. Apart from this, language is the core of teaching and learning in EFL classes. It is, in itself, a very complex matter that revolves around another complex matter which is “individuals”, who are unique and truly inseparable from their society, after all, as John Donne (1624) said “no man is an island”. Put plainly, two heads are better than one.

According to Alan, Singer, and Hofstra (2003), (CL) is one of the most effective strategies for enhancing students social behaviours, increasing their achievement, interest and involvement in the learning process. And, the use of the (STAD) technique is of no difference, as it can be used in various subject areas to teach or reinforce different facts or skills. For instance, Gomasatitd (1997) found that the use of a modified version of (STAD) significantly correlates with the improvements in English language proficiency for second-year business administration majors at a Thai university (cited in Jacobs, McCafferty, and Iddings, 2006). Slavin (1986) advocates the use the (STAD); through explaining its secret and special nature in comparison to other (CL) techniques: “(STAD) operationalised cooperative learning as a combination of in-group cooperation and intergroup competition, and Team-Assisted-Individualisation (TAI). [It] is a mixture of cooperative and individualistic learning” (D. Johnson, and R. Johnson, 2013: 100). To conclude, and on the light of the previously mentioned points, the topic of this research study revolves around the role of the correct implementation of Cooperative Learning (CL) activities, the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique – to be more accurate, has in the implicit teaching of the use of conjunctions in writing.

1. Statement of the Problem

Writing is a very complex procedure that demands a variety of sub-skills to be accomplished. Basically, linguistic competence should, and must be mastered by any EFL learner in order to produce a well-structured written text. This includes the proper use of conjunctions in order to maintain writings’ unity, and mainly cohesion. Certainly, this will not be achieved unless the learners are intensively, and innovatively taught the proper use

of conjunctions. It is true that good writers rarely use this kind of cohesive devices, as they achieve cohesion and coherence using other techniques such as: lexical cohesion. Still, in case of EFL learners, learning the correct use of the different connectors is very crucial, so they will not stumble and fall over incorrect use. i.e., the overuse is considered incorrect too. At last, this raises the urge to introduce some new techniques; like the (STAD) technique, for the betterment of the learning-teaching process.

The Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique is one of most innovative techniques in teaching. It demands the construction of small groups, four or less students, which create a great amount of interaction, and greater chance of learning since the teams are build upon the basic of heterogeneity. But, before that teachers must provide an introduction of the taught material at large, before handing the learning process to the students in form of groups. Later on students will take a quiz individually to determine their levels of understanding as individuals and as a group as they will be graded individually and as a group too. This kind of teaching technique is rarely used, and highly confused with regular group work assignments.

The implementation of (STAD) technique in teaching conjunctions' use is confronted by many obstacles. First, the issue of large classes was, and still cause several pedagogical problems to teachers. That is one reason why many EFL teachers, especially at (MKUB) where classes are about 50 students per each, hesitate, or even stop themselves from introducing such techniques. Moreover, learners' levels and backgrounds, precisely: linguistic, psychological are most certainly varied. In addition to the individual differences which play a major role in the success or failure of (STAD) technique. Consequently, it is difficult to start teaching cooperative learning tasks without knowing what teachers think of it, how learners would react to it, how it is implemented in the EFL classrooms, and what obstacles both parties may face or to what extent it is effective in teaching conjunctions in the (MKUB) context.

2. Aim of the Study

The current study aims mainly at determining the role that the Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD) technique has in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing. Also, it is to describe learners' attitudes towards it in Written Expression' lessons. Furthermore, it is set to check the teachers' knowledge about this technique in teaching

written expression courses. This attempts to raise their awareness of how important is to imply more of Cooperative Learning activities in the classroom including the (STAD) technique, in order to promote active learning, enhance students' writing and use of cohesive devices; like conjunctions. These general purposes can be categorized into some specific objectives that can be interpreted as follows:

- 1- Find out the reasons behind teachers' lack of the use of the Cooperative Learning in general and the Student Teams-Achievement Division technique.
- 2- Determine the challenges that both teachers and students face when working on the Student Teams-Achievement Division technique.
- 3- Investigate the students' under/over/ mis-used conjunctions in writing.

3. Significance of the Study

Learning is a human behaviour and humans are in constant change. No wonder why students of the past are no longer the students of present time: they have changed! Charles Igel and Vicki Urquhart, (2012:16), appeal for a new research about cooperative learning due to this change, so they have written:

Generation Z, also known as “Gen Next” or “Gen I” [includes people born between the early 1990s and the early 2000s. They are considered to] be smarter, more self directed, and more able to quickly process information than previous generations; but there is one thing they may not be—team players.

Consequently, and on the long run, this research aims to: first, to booster social learning spirit of third year LMD students through recommending Student Teams-Achievement Division activities. After all, cooperative learning considers language as a tool of social relations (Gupta, and Ahuja, 2014), second, to recommend the use of the (STAD) technique and (CL) activities more often in the EFL classes.

Usually, cooperative learning tasks, in general, are considered a daunting matter for teachers because it is thought that this kind of tasks is time consuming and noisy; as a consequence, it will not promote learning. On the contrary, cooperative learning promotes active learning, where students work together in order to solve problems; like: using the correct conjunction while writing. Not to forget to mention that the growing research about

the effect of cooperative learning activities highlights its effectiveness in Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language (TEFL or TESL) settings.

Therefore, the results of this research will be highly significant and very beneficial for better understanding how teachers -and mainly learners- react towards (STAD) technique. First, it will be a framework for future researchers in administering studies in the area of using (STAD) in teaching, and/or learning the proper use of conjunctions. Furthermore, the results will be very helpful for initiative teachers at Mohamed Kheider University – Biskra (MKUB) who are planning to implement this technique in their classes.

4. Research Questions

Considering TEFL setting, this study, in general, aims at answering several questions related to the implementation of (STAD) technique in EFL classroom; such as:

- Will the implementation of the Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD) technique help EFL students to use conjunctions properly when writing?
- What are the learners' attitudes towards the use of Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD) technique in teaching and learning the use of conjunctions implicitly?
- What are the students' satisfaction levels towards working under the leadership of one of their classmates?
- What are the teachers' expectations of the students' attitudes towards classmates' leadership?
- What are the problems that the students and teachers face when using cooperative learning tasks?

5. Research Hypothesis

In order to carry out this study, two hypotheses are put to test. It should be noted that a nullified hypothesis is as important as an accepted one, and this should not in any way degrade or demolish the quality of this study. So, in this respect, it is hypothesised that: in EFL settings:

(H₀): The implementation of the Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD) technique will not enhance the students' use of conjunctions in writing.

(H₁): The implementation of the Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD) technique will enhance the students' use of conjunctions in writing.

6. Research Methodology and Design

6.1. Research Method

This research will be conducted in Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra, through the qualitative and quantitative method as an appropriate way of investigating the main hypotheses.

6.2. Research Sample

Subjects of this study are third year LMD students and their teachers of written expression courses at the English division of Biskra University for the academic year: (2015 -2016). There are 365 students divided into two sections. Since it is difficult to deal with the whole number of the population, the sample consists of three groups conveniently chosen because of the easy accessibility. The population consists of students whose native language is Arabic and their Second Language is French. The participants come from various geographical regions in Algeria, and are of different genders. Concerning the teachers, there are only (06) of them who are responsible for teaching third year LMD students.

There are several reasons for choosing this sample and the course of application. First, unlike any other course, the teachers of written expression are supposed to know more about: students' writing level, the use of cooperative learning techniques; in addition to the fact they give lessons and reinforce the use of conjunctions with the correct punctuation implicitly. Students have been chosen because: they have been studying English long enough in the University of Biskra. So, they certainly have experienced working in group at least once in one of the modules, and they are supposed to have studied the use of conjunctions in their first year in details, in grammar and written expression courses, and this should be just a simple reinforcement of cohesion and the use of conjunctions in writing to them.

6.3.Data Gathering Tools

To answer the research questions, qualitative and quantitative data is provided from students' questionnaire, quasi-experiment, documentation analysis of students' writings in the pre- and the posttest and the teacher's questionnaire. The necessary numbers are collected, and commented on; in order to have an overview about: the students' different attitudes towards several issues, the effectiveness in using the (STAD) technique on the individual level achievement, the misused types of conjunctions, and teachers' views and knowledge about the (STAD) technique.

The conduct of data gathering tools is as follows. First, during the treatment sessions, students received intensive activities in the usage of conjunctions through the use of texts. Also, they set down for the pre- and the posttest; where they have been asked to write a short paragraph (no more than 15 lines) before and after receiving the treatment. The pre- and post paragraphs provide the study with the necessary documents for conducting the quasi-experiment and the corpus-based investigation. Of course, during the quasi-experimental design, the informants worked intensively using the (STAD) technique on selected exercises about the use of conjunctions. By the end of the treatment sessions, a questionnaire has been administered to the students to fill in. concerning the teachers' questionnaire, it has been administered in two weeks period because of teachers' busy schedule. Through the obtained results from the questionnaires large and immediate responses are provided, the scoring of both tests, and the analysis of documents will provide an insightful look into the usefulness of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing.

6.4. Data Analysis

The collected data has been manually calculated, doubled-check using the IBM (SPSS) software (IBM.20 version) and another expert's opinion in using the software and interpreting the results, communicated through different: tables, charts, and other visual representations if needed. Not to mention, the researcher own comments and interpretations of the gathered data. Concerning the corpus-based examination of documents, the difference between the correct usages of the conjunctions in the first and second document have been counted and commented on too among a variety of statistical considerations about the types of the used conjunctions.

7. Structure of the Thesis

The present research is basically divided into three major chapters. Chapter one and two will be devoted to the literature review of each variable; whereas, chapter three is for the conduct of the research tools.

The first chapter is about cooperative learning's history and application. It first investigates the various definitions, foundations, principles, activities and techniques of cooperative learning, and its significance to the teaching of a second language. Second, through tackling some strategies to facilitate the implementation of the cooperative task, the challenges and the issues that may encounter the process, and the role of both teachers and learners in it, a beneficial practical side for teachers is provided. Furthermore, more emphasis is put on the (STAD) technique since it is the treatment that the students will receive during the quasi-experimental design.

The Second chapter is devoted to the writing skill in EFL classrooms. This chapter reviews shortly the definition of writing and grammar, their importance in bolstering second language acquisition, along with other elements. In the second part of this chapter, the issues related to cohesion, conjunctions and coherence in texts are discussed with more emphasis is given to the conjunctions since they are the theme of the study.

The third chapter contains the full details of the conduct of the research tools, and it is divided to four parts. Part one is about the students' questionnaire; it involves a detailed description of the population, the aims, content and the results. In part two, a thorough depiction of quasi-experimental design is provided; which includes the administration of the pre- and posttest and a discussion of the results. The third part is devoted to the corpus-based examination of the paragraphs. In the fourth and last part, the teachers' questionnaire is presented; from its aims to the discussion of its results.

At last, a relatively small part is devoted to recommendation, and pedagogical implications of the study; which contains educational suggestions for the betterment of the learning experience, and future researches. Also, a general conclusion is provided which will provide a full summary of the work that this study has carried.

CHAPTER ONE: COOPERATIVE LEARNING: HISTORY AND APPLICATION

PART ONE: COOPERATIVE LEARNING THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

INTRODUCTION

Education is a very important sector in building and preparing generations that will raise up to the increasing needs and demands of the society and today's globe. Around the world and throughout history, educational approaches and psychological schools thought about what is considered to be suitable for the betterment of the schooling experiences in general and the acquisition of second language in particular have changed. The classical or traditional approaches to language teaching, such as: Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), had a dominant use. This dominance and wide-spread is due to the old psychological thought that the learner's brain is an empty barrel that can be filled with an infinite amount of knowledge. But soon after that, the truth had surfaced. The educational sphere witnessed the shift of paradigms and it turned up that the learner is an accumulation of several factors that may affect his learning in both directions (failure or success). Furthermore, language in such traditional approaches is hard to use and easy to forget because the learner is not an active participant in the learning process. This is why; the first part from this chapter in this dissertation is exclusively devoted to the theoretical framework surrounding cooperative learning.

1. Theoretical Foundations of Cooperative Learning (CL)

In order to understand how cooperative learning takes place in a classroom and how it affects the learners in an EFL or ESL classrooms, we should grasp the genesis of its underlying theoretical foundations. The literature review highlights that there are several antecedents for this instructional method; i.e., it is a poly-premises method. These antecedents consist of a combination of several prominent psychological theories: motivational, cognitive, humanist, and social psychological theories (Nguyena, et al 2009: 114; Jacobs, McCafferty, and Iddings, 2006: 9).

1.1. Motivationalist View

To commence with, the psychological approach “Behaviourism” that has a root within the positivist school. Behaviourism can be referred to in literature of cooperative learning fundamental perspectives as: “the behavioral-social perspective” or “the motivationalist perspective” of cooperative learning because it presupposes that cooperative efforts are fueled by extrinsic motivation to achieve group rewards (D. Johnson, R. Johnson, and Holubec, 1998); i.e. CL structures works as students’ incentive for better learning through providing and creating much suitable learning situations (Slavin, 1995:02; Pressley, Roehrig, Raphael, Dolezal, Bohn, Mohan, Wharton-McDonald, Bogner, and Kass Hogan, 2003:158). From its main pioneers are: B.F. Skinner, Slavin, and Bandure who spoke mainly on imitation.

1.2. Cognitive View

Second is the Cognitive Developmental Theory (CDT), or Constructivism, which its underlying assumptions are drawn mainly by Jean Piaget’s work. Although, the first seeds for this theory has been planted by Dewey in the 1930’s when he was calling for “global education”; students are supposed to be an active learners and citizens in and outside their schools. This has created an opposition to traditional education back then (Hilk, 2013), the underlying assumption of the Piagetian perspective suggests that “individuals are actively involved right from birth in constructing [personal meaning] (emphasis added” (Williams and Burden, 1997:21). Therefore, the individual must work alone to reach his or her cognitive equilibrium; meaning: the help of others is highly restricted, unlike what Vygotsky believes in his developmental learning theory.

1.3. Humanist View

The Humanistic view is derived from the work of Maslow and his hierarchy of needs. This latter’s basic idea is that a human being cannot thrive and achieve “self-actualization”, the top of the pyramid, unless his first pressing needs are met. Applying this to the educational context will help teachers relate to the needs of their learners and the used pedagogical techniques; for instance, according to Deutsch, (1973), Cooperative Learning is based on: “perceiving the human being as a positive social being that is driven by cooperation and pro-social and humanistic motives” (Cited in: Hertz-Lazarowitz,

2008:51). That is to say, learners are naturally sociable beings and their membership in a group and peers' validation promote positive self-image and high self-esteem because they simply completed a product with a team (Jenkins, Antil, Wayne, and Vadasy, 2006:283; Jacobs, et al, 2006:16).

1.4. Social View

1.4.1. Vygostkian Theory

In the social view, there is the Vygotskian theory and the Social Interdependence Theory (SIT). First of all, it is true that both Piaget and Vygotsky belong to the same Developmental Psychological theories, but they greatly differ in the introduction of social aspects to the learning process. The Russian giant theorist, Lev Vygotsky, believes that “knowledge is a societal product” (D. Johnson, R. Johnson, and Holubec, 1998). That is to say; that humans learn through interacting with others who are “More Knowledgeable Other (MKO)”; i.e. their learning is based on the idea of “Zone Proximal Development” (ZPD), and the help of (MKO). This zone is the area where the learner moves from something he does not know to something he is fully aware of with the assistance of More-Knowledgeable-Other (MKO) who is, usually, a competent peer. According to Doolittle (1995), a strong support for including CL tasks in classroom instruction is provided through Vygotsky's idea of (ZPD) about the role of cognitive development.

1.4.2. Social Interdependence Theory (SIT)

Second in the Social view, there is the Social Interdependence theory or Social Cohesion Theory as Slavin refers to it. D. Johnson and R. Johnson (2009: 366) explain that: “[...it] exists when the outcomes of individuals are affected by their own and others' actions”. This means that the way we structure our own and teammates' interdependence relationships define the outcomes that we receive; for example: a team achieves cooperation if there is positive interdependence, and failure in communicating and achieving goals as a team if it is negative interdependence, after all, interacting with others is a must and a necessary part in learning and teaching languages.

This theory is one of the most researched perspectives of cooperative learning. From early 1900's, studies just piled up, and so are the names of the researchers from: Kurt Koffka, to Kurt Lewin; though, it is thought that Kurt Lewin, with the help of his students,

like Morton Deutsch, created the new breaking ground in the examination of human behaviour and social motivation (Hilk, 2013) which suggested that his development of “The Field Theory”, during the late 1930’s and 1940’s, is somehow connected to the behaviouristic perspective; except the fact that he worked minimally on group dynamics, he is cited as a social interdependence pioneer.

2. Cooperative Learning Definition

As it was previously mentioned, the words for defining “Cooperative Learning” may differ but the essence is one. D. Johnson, and F. Johnson, (2013:481), put forward that:

Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize everyone's learning. Within cooperative learning groups, students discuss the material to be learned with one another, help one another to understand it, and encourage one another to work hard.

This definition proves the Behaviourism’s theoretical foundation of CL; where learners follow a certain pattern in working together; like: a “drill”. Almost the same definition was given by Shafritz, Koeppe, and Soper, except that they put more emphasis on the learner’s role in this instructional method, highlighting the cognitive, social and humanist views; “[...] the students take responsibility for their own learning, their teammates' learning and for classroom management by checking and monitoring, helping one another with problems and encouraging one another to achieve” (1988: 107). It is noticed that any given definition of CL, in the literature review, has highlighted one or more of the theoretical foundations that were previously mentioned.

As in the Motivationalist point of view, definitions highlight the effect and the motivational aspect of using CL in classrooms. Since learners in language classes in general and English institutes in particular suffer from: the lack of self-confidence, proper interaction, and internal or external motivation, teachers seem to agree on the use of CL activities to overcome such problems. A living example is Rahvard, an English language teacher, who spoke out after observing these problems in his classroom: “[...] Cooperative learning increases the self-confidence, interaction, and motivation of every individual.”(2010:02); which leads us to the definition underlying the motivational perspective and aspect of using cooperative learning to promote motivation in its both

types: “Cooperative Learning refers to an instructional technique in which pupils study in small groups and are rewarded some way for performance as a group. This strategy based on the psychology of cooperation and competition among pupils in the class” (Jayapraba, and Kanman, 2014:48).

In order to grasp this definition, we should pay attention to: the used terminology and the research established by: Robert E. Slavin, but before that, we should explain the difference between: “a learning goal” and “a goal structure”. According to D. Johnson, R. Johnson, and Smith (2014:87), a learning goal is “a desired future state of demonstrating competence or mastery in the subject area being studied”; whereas, the goal structure “specifies the ways in which students will interact with each other and the instructor during the instructional session.” Concerning the used terminology; like: the word “interaction” in the teacher’s confession and the expression “are rewarded some way for performance as a group” highlight what the social interdependence theory claims. Regarding Slavin’s research, (1995:02), he explains how cooperative learning can be a motivational driver for learners:

Motivational perspectives on cooperative learning focus primarily on the reward or goal structures under which students operate. [...] Therefore, to meet their personal goals, group members must both help their group mates to do whatever helps the group to succeed, and, perhaps even more importantly, to encourage their group mates to exert maximum efforts.

This means that in order for students to reach their ultimate learning goal, they have to interact, help and encourage their team-mates to succeed; i.e., they need to use different goal structures that will result in boosting their self-confidence and motivational drives.

Besides the theoretical foundations, it has been noticed that in non-hostile environment, heterogeneous grouping boosts peer-mediate learning that benefits: social relationships, skills and the low-achievers’ achievement especially if the classroom is a combination of students from different cultural or ethnical backgrounds. Fehling (2008:01) quotes Slavin explaining what students should be like in cooperative classrooms: from helping and discussing to assessing each other’s current knowledge and filling the gaps in each other’s understanding of the taught material which suggests that heterogeneous grouping is taking place in the process. Alkin too, in 1992, suggests the same idea when defining cooperative learning using the expression: “students of all levels of performance” (cited in Michael and Modell, 2003:107). There is also, the definition of cooperative

learning suggested by Kagan in 1994 that highlights the same idea heterogeneity (cited in Dotson, 2001, sec. 02, par. 01).

3. Why Does Cooperative Learning Work?

Researchers in the field of Human sciences usually complain about not being able to have access to 100 per cent accurate data that is scientifically proven to empower their research findings and make it more objective, but not for long. The fledgling sphere of neuroscience offers an important new line of research that proves scientifically how cooperative learning is effective as an active pedagogical practice.

First, it has been confirmed that a greater activation in regions of the brain, that is associated with reward-based learning, is led by Cooperative behaviour. According to Gillies and Cunnington, (2014:41), individuals experience greater reward during cooperation, which serves to reinforce the cooperative behaviour and lead to far greater engagement during the cooperative tasks. This draws attention to the previous definition of CL given by Jayaprabha and Kanman, Slavin and others about the use of CL as a motivational strategy to enhance students' engagement and achievement. Not to mention, the reinforcement of the part that cooperative learning has an antecedent in the behavioural theory.

Another fruitful research is concerned with "the neural mirroring processes" which is an emulation of other's mental states and experiences through observation. It appears that by simply observing others' actions, Humans engage in the same brain processes as when they generate and control their own actions, which suggests the contribution of this brain emulation to observational and motor learning. That is to say, mirroring processes play a role in generating positive interpersonal relationships between cooperating partners, which are a key element in cooperative learning (ibid, p.41-42). This research provides evidence to what Bandura mentioned in 1997 about "modelling"; which is one of the techniques used to promote scaffolding in classrooms. Modelling, or "Near Peer Role Models (NPRMs)" as Murphey calls it; it relays on the observation of others' behaviour and outcomes to learn new behaviours. Bandura advocates saying that most human behaviours are learned observationally through modelling; i.e. through observation of behaviours, Humans form an idea on the how's and this coded information serves as a manual for action (Cited in Pritchard and Woollard, 2010:42-43) because visualising

people similar to oneself perform successfully, raises self efficacy belief that this is possible for the observer him or herself (Bandura cited in Dornyei, and Murphey, 2003:128).

In short, the “mirror neurons” demonstrate the way the human brain execute the same behaviour simply by observing (Lightbrown and Spada, 2009: 386). This new line of neuroscientific research and the substantial amount of literature about studies conducted on the effect of CL show: the potent enhancement of cognitive and affective outcomes when using it, not to mention, the true roots of this instructional method that was previously explained in details.

4. Elements of Cooperative Learning

Features, tenets, aspects, foundations, pillars, basics or key components of cooperative learning are different terms that refer to the same crucial elements needed in order for cooperative learning to take place. These elements have been suggested by different scholars through different periods: D. Johnson and his colleagues, and Kagan.

First of all, there are the elements suggested by D. Johnson, R. Johnson, and Smith. There are the most known ones. These elements are demonstrated in the figure below.



Figure 1.1.1. The Five Pillars of Cooperative Learning (VCSMR and Rao, 2013:24).

4.1. Positive Interdependence

According to Millis, positive interdependence is described by D. Johnson, R. Johnson, and Smith, (2002: 03-04) as follows:

Cooperation results in participants' striving for mutual benefit so that all members of the group benefit from each other's efforts [...] their recognizing that all group members share a common fate [...] and that one's performance depends mutually

on oneself and one's colleagues (we cannot do it without you), and their feeling proud and jointly celebrating when a group member is recognized for achievement (You got an A! That's terrific!).

This means that there are two key components to positive interdependence: there is a positive correlation among the outcomes so the success of one helps the others (we sink or swim together); in addition to the kind that any contribution from each participant is necessary needed for the success of all. Subsequently, Light, (2001), who conducted a study at Harvard University in which he interviewed undergraduates students to determine how they learned and how their collegiate experience impacted them, he came to conclusion that learners who benefit the most from college are the happy ones, the academically grown, and those who organize their time to include interpersonal activities with either their faculty members or classmates “built around substantive, academic work” (Custer, 2002: 87-88); (Johnson, et al, 2014:102).

4.2. Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction

There is no cooperative learning without interaction. But not any interaction is highly regarded; promotive or fruitful face-to-face interaction is a central element for the success of the whole team as it relates to cognitive understanding. Stevens, and Slavin, (1995) stated that peer interaction facilitates comprehension, and emphasised that some learners who might normally refuse to speak out in a traditional setting become actively involved in the learning process through group interaction (Jayaprabha and Kanman, 2014:48). Not to mention, that promotive face-to-face interaction helps learners to generate, discuss, understand and come up with new ideas if needed using the target language.

4.3. Individual Accountability

Individual accountability happens when the performance of each individual is required and is viewed by at least one other. i.e., each member is held responsible for the win or the loss of their team. This element is highly important to keep the learner involved in the learning process; without it learners will wonder alone or the whole work will fall on the shoulders of one particular learner only: “the lap-genius” causing CL work to flounder. The benefit of this element is overwhelming self-esteem and affective factors; a third-grade teacher expresses: “The [learner] feels successful because he is completing a product with

a team that can give assistance in areas he is weak in, and yet he feels satisfied with what the group has done” (Jenkins, et al, 2003:283).

4.4. Social Skills

Improving the use of social skills involves the betterment of: one’s interpersonal, small-group, and communicative skills. These three skills are very requisite for the functioning of the cooperative group work, there are usually exhibited as: leadership, decision making, trust-building, effective communication (give and take the floor), and conflict management skills. Some learners are naturally gifted when it comes to using these kinds of skills, others? Not so much. This is why teachers need to help students to work through their conflicts and group misunderstandings, so they will have better and higher social strategies and positive attitudes towards cooperative group work assignments.

4.5. Group Processing

Sometimes, social skills and group processing are grouped together. Probably, because group processing is an evaluation and reflection on what happens during the team work. Using proper interaction, students reflect on each others’ work and deeds or what they should change about their work. Many questions can be asked during the group processing element that can be summarised into: “the three P’s”, as the researcher of this study suggest:

1. Previous Performances: the first “P” involves the questions asked about what each member did that contributed to this work, or did that affected the team work and was not helpful; i.e. it is an evaluation of the members’ work.
2. Product Perfection: the second “P” is about the product or the work in itself; for example: does the work need last scrutinisation before submission or not?
3. Post Performances: This last “P” stands for what can the team members do to make the coming cooperative group-works work in more coherent way than it is now, this happens in case the team work was graded as not sufficient.

In addition, there are the basic principles suggested by Kagan. The four basic principles are symbolised by the acronym “PIES”: **P**ositive interdependence, **I**ndividual accountability, **E**qual participation, and **S**imultaneous interaction (2014:127). Basically,

Kagan's version of the elements is "a shortened version" of Johnson and his colleagues' work on the elements of CL except that he puts more emphasis on the learner's need for individual participation in the CL situations, and bringing their thought and work to this kind of learning situation.

5. Learner–Centered Instruction versus Traditional Language Teaching

The traditional or classical language teaching approaches had shifted from being teacher-centered instruction to learner-centered instruction due to the shift of paradigms, leading to birth of Cooperative Learning that has been proposed as one instructional strategy congruous with that shift. It is true that Traditional Language Teaching methods are not completely useless, but Learner–Centered Instruction provokes deep, active learning and brings more benefits to its plat of success (Michael, and Modell, 2003: 16). Where he developed his theory of student involvement, in 1993, Astin asserted, after studying student learning at University of California, Los Angelos (UCLA), that cooperative learning "may be more potent than traditional methods of pedagogy because it motivates students to become more active and more involved participants in the learning process" (Custer, 2002: 87-88).

6. Cooperative Learning and Active Learning

According to Bonwell, and Eison, "Active Learning" has not been precisely defined in the literature, but some characteristics have been set to be linked to what can promote it (cited in Keyser, n.d :02). According to these characteristics, Active learning is defined as any instructional method that can promote: engagement, higher thinking skills between students when they are learning together, which provide them, simultaneously, with deeper and meaningful learning experience that assist them in exploring their values and attitudes. Thus, CL is one of these promoting methods because students "are given a marked degree of autonomy and control over the organisation, conduct and direction of the learning activity" (Kyriacou, 2007: 43). Active Learning is often contrasted to the traditional methods, like lectures, where it is thought that students passively receive information from the lecturer. This kind of learning experience is linked to different degrees of realism, which provide students with more opportunities to remember and retrieve the taught materials like it is shown in the figure below. So, this is why Cooperative Learning techniques are used in classrooms to provide active learning experience.

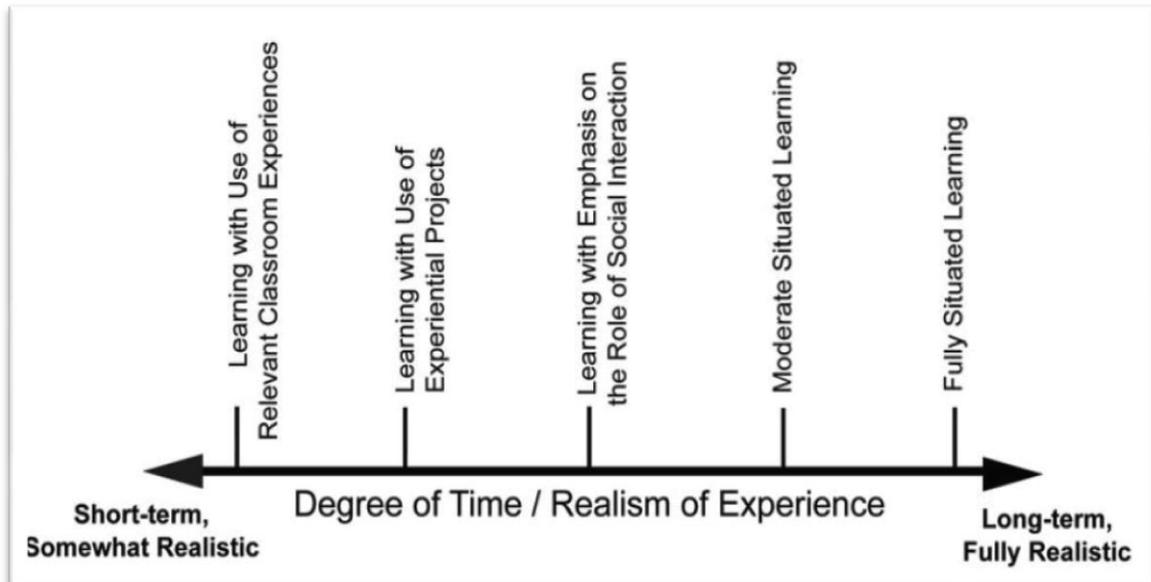


Figure 1.1.2. The Active Learning Continuum (Soluri, 2010:13).

7. Learning Goals Structures: Individualistic Efforts, Competitiveness and Cooperative Work

Learning goals are structured by teachers, so students will learn to produce and work in a certain pattern to provoke and evoke a particular work criterion. Students' learning goals can be structured into different ways in order to promote specific criteria; such as: Cooperative, Competitive or individualistic efforts.

First, cooperative work is drawn from the power of “team work”; i.e., we sink or swim together. The work is done in small groups, does not exceed five members, where students work together to achieve common goals and maximize their efforts, allowing themselves to strive for their own success, so they can celebrate it later on. The lessons are pre-structured to allow students to work together, and so are the criteria of evaluation of their performance as a team.

However, in competitive classrooms, each student works alone to benefit himself or herself while competing against others to attain a goal that only a few can manage to achieve. The Evaluation of students' performances is graded from “the best” to “the worst” and on that basis, the limited rewards are given; resulting in spreading: hatred among the students and negative emotions in the lines of the under achievers.

In the individualistic classrooms, learners work alone to accomplish a learning goal. Among readers, this may first create confusion with a concept: “competitive classrooms” because of the similarities between the two. But, in individualistic classrooms, students strive for their own success to accomplish learning goals that are not related to those of other learners; (what benefits one does not affect other), unlike competitive classrooms where the success of one deprives the rest. This means that rewards are viewed as unlimited, and Evaluation takes place by comparing performance to pre-set criteria. According to Macpherson, (2000), this is how Johnson, Johnson, and Smith cleared the differences in their book: “Active Learning: Cooperation in the College Classroom”, in 1991.

Reviewing literature exposed that there is a controversy when it comes to which goal structure works best. Obviously, scholars who stand for individualistic classrooms did not consider the thought of “two heads are better than one”, the notion of “competition between small groups”, or the idea that “multi-heads” can be working on the same matter at the same time, consuming time to provide the same data, ideas, or knowledge, when they can “join hands” instead, and maximise their efforts. At last, and according to Michael, and Modell: “Cooperative effort can yield more individual learning than individual effort alone” (2003: 16).

8. Cooperative Learning versus Collaborative Learning

Sometimes, authors use the terms cooperative learning and collaborative learning interchangeably which detects a controversy about this matter. Scholars seem to disagree whether these two instructional methods are the same or not; some would say that it is a matter of subsidiaries or terminologies others claim that the two methods are two different stories but the sure thing is that both instructional strategies have their own similarities and differences.

On the first hand, there are the similarities of the both methods as Davidson and Major put it. First, the review of the pedigree of Collaborative Learning suggests that the idea behind promoting it is based on the social constructivist rationale like in Cooperative Learning. Second, Collaborative learning and Cooperative learning are both the product of the paradigms’ shift; they both stand against the old passive ways of teaching; like: lecturing. This leads us to the third point, both learning methods are forms of active

learning, where students take the lead. Last but not least, they both favour: active engagement, small-group learning, and development of thinking capabilities. At last, and in spite of the differences in methodology, they share similar goals, when teaching or learning; mainly, encouraging the development of learning the content of the taught material, enhancing the relational and social skills among the learners. (2014:08-09).

On the other hand, there are the following differences between both strategies. In order to grasp them the definition of “Collaborative Learning” must be presented, (Jones, 2014:164-165):

[...] collaborative learning involves graduate students working together in a group, building on each other’s work, proposing and assessing new innovative ideas, and regularly communicating with each other in an open and respectful manner. Collaboration is about the common goal of the team rather than the individual graduate student’s goals alone.

The definition emphasises what Cooper and his colleagues wrote back in 1995, to distinguish between the two by claiming that Cooperative learning is more structured, with teachers being active participants in: planning, monitoring, and facilitating progress with the groups; whereas, Collaborative learning tended to give control to students to decide what to study and how their groups should function (Cooper, and Robinson, 2014:149), as if Cooperative Learning is designed for young learners and Collaborative Learning for adult learners as Romney sees it (2006:05), but Romney’s claim fails as many studies proves the opposite through the success of different cooperative learning techniques in an adults learning context; like: in 1987, Neer found out that the levels of anxiety can be significantly reduced if students are given the opportunity to first express themselves in “the more comfortable social context of a small group of peers” (cited in Johnson, et al, 2013:15).

There are also, the underlying distinctions that are drawn from the origins and originators of both strategies. There are different innovators, separate conferences, and separate publications, as Davidson and Major put it: “[The] advocates of the [...two] approaches were blissfully ignorant of the other camp [...] each movement had its own turf or silo and seemed happy remaining there” (2014: 08-09). They explained that Collaborative Learning has been used mostly in: the humanities, some in the social sciences, but rarely in other sciences or professional syllabus; whereas, Cooperative Learning has been used mainly in the sciences, mathematics and engineering, the social sciences, and professional programs (Nilson, 2010).

In spite of the differences, it seems that Cooperative Learning and Collaborative Learning meet half way to success. Some thought that Collaborative Learning is an “umbrella term” for a variety of educational approaches involving “joint intellectual effort” (Goodsell, Maher, Tinto, Smith and MacGregor, 1992:11); others like: Weimer, who wrote after observing what students are doing in groups are “blends of both strategies” (2014:08-09). There is also, Romney who sees cooperative learning as the term used in primary and secondary education, but collaborative learning as a term for joint learning efforts among older students (adults learners) (Cited in McCafferty, et al, 2006:05), although Slavin claims that CL was first assigned for university learners.

In short, and as Pritchard and Woollard (2010:28) put it: “The interdependence of collaboration and cooperation can be summarized as follows: without cooperation no collaboration can take place; the expectation of collaboration fosters cooperation.” This final idea seems pretty pliable and conclusive to the discussed controversy; especially, when you think of what Michael, and Modell mentioned about the common features that make both collaborative and cooperative learning effective; involving students learning with other students, that “overshadow” the differences between them (2003:17).

9. Advantages of Cooperative Learning

According to the myriad literature, the use of cooperative learning techniques in classroom has a positive impact. As it was previously mentioned and agreed on, CL techniques in general, develops learners’: academic achievement, social competence (interpersonal relationships), and psychological health (Jolliffe, 2007; Dunne, and Bennett, 2005; Farrell, and Jacobs, 2010). Not to forget to mention, enhancing learners’ problem-solving skills, and promoting cross-cultural understanding and tolerance in case of multi-racial classrooms (Killen, 2000 cited in Nel, and Wilkinson, 2006; Bruner, 1985, cited in Gokhale, 1995); for example, Slavin (1990) has strongly suggested the use of (STAD) technique because of its significant results in enhancing the levels of: achievement, self-esteem, attendance, and proper behaviours in classrooms. Furthermore, Long (2003) claims that creativity and thinking skills can be developed through involving learners in small groups in cooperative learning situations, where they can support and teach each other because the shared responsibility in cooperative learning techniques allows learners to develop their own: perception of materials, and approaches to explaining, exchanging,

listening and persuading others (Kober, 2000) i.e. CL leads to more autonomous learners and less reliance on the teacher. In short, Cooperative Learning methods benefit both teachers and learners.

10. Second Language Acquisition Theories and Cooperative Learning

The use of CL in second language instruction is highly supported by several theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The following are some prominent theories that are interested in the use of CL: the Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, the Output Hypothesis, and the Socio-cultural theory.

The input hypothesis, by Krashen, claims that a foreign / second language learner needs to be subjected to “comprehensible input” (Lightbrown, and Spada, 2009:37), that is slightly above her/his current level, in order to learn the SL/FL. Applying this hypothesis to real-life context suggests that teachers should provide an input that it is both simplified and challengeable for their learners. In a cooperative language learning classroom, a simplified input is provided by the learners themselves when teaching, and discussing with each other; where they translate the teacher’s language into their own language (Slavin, 1987) “a learner’s language” that they understand.

The interaction hypothesis, or the interactive model, by Long has carried on where Krashen’s input hypothesis has stopped, claiming that comprehensible input is the result of “modified interaction” (Brown, 2000:287). Obviously, Long agrees that comprehensible input is necessary for SLA, but he argues that this kind of input can only be made through modified interaction; where the learners work together to reach “mutual comprehension” (Lightbrown, and Spada, 2009:43). As it has been previously mentioned in the first part of this chapter, face-to-face promotive interaction is one of the most important pillars of CLL because, as Rivers (1987) put it, interaction happens when: “[learners] achieve facility in using a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic messages”(Cited in Richards, and Rodgers, 2001 : 21).

In response to Krashen’s Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, the Output hypothesis, or the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis, was first proposed by Swain (1985, op.cit) due to its significant role in SLA. Based on her observation of the French students, who had considerably weaker productive skills comparing to their levels in reading and listening comprehension, Swain introduced her hypothesis, supported later on by De Bot’s claim:

“[Output] generates highly specific input the cognitive system needs to build up a coherent set of knowledge” (1996, cited in Brown, 2000). Accordingly, the “reflective role of output” (Swain, 1995, cited in Mitchell, and Myles, 2004 :175) is frequently found in CL tasks because of learners constant discussion, and analysis of the learning problems which provide them with plenty of opportunities to experiment, and fill in the gaps in each other’s knowledge.

The socio-cultural theory assumes that language development arises as a result of social interaction. It was first presented by Vygotsky, whose work on children is lately developed intensively by several scholars; such as: Lantolf, Donato, and Swain’s recent works (Lightbrown, and Spada, 2009: 47-48). Vygotsky’s work revolves around the idea of learning and thriving within a group; i.e. social interaction between team mates and teachers contributes to betterment of the learning processes, and the enhancement of the intellectual levels. Therefore, using “collaborative dialogue” (Cook, 2008:230) and “negotiation of meaning” activities through structured cooperative tasks is very beneficial for SLA.

In short, whether it is the Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, the Output Hypothesis, or the Socio-cultural theory, Cooperative Learning tasks is highly recommended by various second language theories because of its multi-premises nature. Accordingly, Hill and Flynn (2006) advocate the use of cooperative learning as its various methods can be structured to fit each stage of language acquisition. For instance, in preproduction stage and using Jigsaw technique, learners may join the high-achieving students in the development of physical or pictorial representations in order to share it with their home teams and with the whole class later on through group presentations (ibid). Therefore, teachers of foreign or second language learning should consider the use of cooperative learning tasks in classrooms more often, as students in such tasks negotiate meaning and take advantage of the opportunities for conversing and using language even if it is for a little while.

CONCLUSION

This part of the first chapter has been devoted to introducing cooperative learning as an instructional approach with its philosophical tenets, differential spectrum, research-based benefits, and relational properties to second language acquisition theories. As it has been clearly demonstrated, cooperative language learning has grown of several psychological schools of thought; which explains its diverse nature and advantages. Besides that, cooperative learning has its proper fundamentals that guide students' interaction and work in such tasks. These fundamentals are necessary for structuring a coherent cooperative task and an easy management of groups for teachers. Apart from this, these basics are what differentiate cooperative learning from other types of group-learning instruction such as collaborative learning or regular group work, where learners are mostly likely sit next to each other, but work separately. The myriad studies about the benefits of cooperative learning explain and prove its reliability in foreign language teaching in particular, as the academic achievement is enhanced, the social and the psychological levels are developed within students. Accordingly, the acquisition of second language is of no difference, as opportunities for language use and meaning discussions are generously done to achieve mutual understanding for team mates. In short, this part has provided a theoretical framework for cooperative learning through the examination of numerous research studies.

PART TWO: COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN EFL CLASSROOM

INTRODUCTION

This part has been designed to provide a more practical component for the whole topic of the study, as the first part of this chapter has been devoted to supply a theoretical framework about cooperative language learning as an instructional method in general. Therefore, issues about the Student Team – Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique and its implementation in the EFL classrooms are mainly dealt with because it is the focus of the study. In order to provide a case for using such technique more often in teaching English at Biskra University, strategies are suggested to equip teachers with fluent cooperative activities. Furthermore, some solutions to the most occurring challenges are presented for the betterment of cooperative group management, and the application of such tasks either through using the (STAD) technique or one of the many CL techniques.

1. Terminology Set for this Study

During the conduct of the literature review for this study, it has been noticed that many scholars have referred to the same matters differently, so in order to gain and maintain consistency, and avoid confusion, the study will use a limited set of terms. First, the words: model, structure, or design will be used interchangeably to refer to the different procedures of applying cooperative learning in language classrooms; unlike how the Kagans referred to them as the “classical approaches” (2009). Second, on the light of Edward Anthony’s work (1988) on the difference between: an approach, a method, and a technique, the terminology set for this study will be as follows:

1. ‘Approach’ will only be used to refer to: Cooperative Learning, unlike how the Kagans (2009) used it; to refer to the models. Because, (CL) is, in whole, philosophy of using cooperative groups in second or foreign language teaching.
2. ‘Method’ will only be used to refer to the overall procedure that is in relation with the approach in general or the design in application. In cooperative learning context of this study, this refers to the theoretical explanation of cooperative structures like (STAD).
3. ‘Technique’ refers to the implementation of the method in real-life context (classroom). An example of this is the practice of using (STAD) technique in teaching the use of conjunctions in writing.

2. Types of Cooperative Learning

There are three types of Cooperative Learning. These types can be labeled as levels because they refer to the degree or the manner of applying cooperative learning groups in the classroom. The following table summarises the three types as explained by: D. Johnson and R. Johnson, 2008; D. Johnson, R. Johnson and Smith, 2013.

Type	Duration	Type of Task
Formal Cooperative Learning Group	From one class period to several week.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Decision making or problem solving activities.- Writing reports, or conducting a survey or experiment.- Reading a chapter or reference book.- Learning vocabulary, or answering questions after reading a text.
Informal Cooperative Learning Group	From few minutes to one class period.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Focused discussions.- Turn-to-your-partner discussions.- Summarise or rehearse pre-taught material.
Cooperative Base Group	Long-term grouping can be for years.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Any type of tasks can be assigned to this kind of learning group because of its supporting, long-term, and well-established relationships between its members.- Formal and thorough discussions are very common in it, either to discuss the taught material or fill-in the gaps in each others' knowledge.

Table 1.2.1. Types of Cooperative Learning.

3. Well-Known Cooperative Learning Models

Scholars, who strongly advocate cooperative learning, have developed various cooperative learning models. The three main groups of advocates who have developed the most widely known models of cooperative learning are: the Johnsons, Slavin and his associates, the Sharans and Kagan, though the two last ones do not collaborate directly, but

they both have developed “group investigation” techniques of cooperative learning models, as Robinson explains (1991:x). The following table presents some cooperative models along with their techniques, their developers, and the type of tasks that may be used in each model.

Technique	Developers	Examples of Type of Tasks
Jigsaw Designs		
Original Jigsaw.	Aronson (1978).	For acquiring or presenting new materials, or reviewing them in informal debates.
Cooperative Investigations		
Group Investigation	Thelen, Sharan, and Sharan (1976).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Writing and presenting reports.
Co-op Co-op	Kagan.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ For producing thorough discussions, presentations. ▪ Evaluating, analysing, and sharing complex materials with multiple sources.
Mastery Designs		
Student Teams - Achievement Divisions (STAD)	Slavin (Late 1970s).	Every single type of subject, but used mainly for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Basic and specific skills activities. ▪ Activities with one correct answer. ▪ Reinforcement activities.
Teams Games Tournaments (TGT)	DeViers, and Edwards (Early 1970s).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ For the use of academic games.
Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC)	Madden, Slavin, and Stevens.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ For reading, writing, spelling, English language mechanics activities. ▪ For developing and using meta-cognitive strategies (comprehension, retention, and thinking skills).
Learning Together		
Learning Together (LT)	D. Johnson, and R. Johnson (1986).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Filling in a worksheet.

Table 1.2.2. Cooperative Learning Designs, Their Methods, and Examples of the Type of Tasks.

The differences of these cooperative learning models and techniques include: the foci, the procedure, and the type of tasks. First, the relative focus or emphasis of a model may differ in the introduction of: external rewards (like: in Jigsaw II), or competition among small groups (like in STAD). Second, the procedure refers to the manner through which learners' interaction and work takes place. Third, the type of model depends on the type of lesson; as Harris, and Hanley (2004) exemplify: the Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT), and the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) models are cited as good means of enhancing and reinforcing previously-taught contents, materials, and basic skills. In short, a great deal of benefit for the teaching and learning processes is derived from the divergences of the models.

4. History of the Student Team – Achievement Divisions Technique

The effectiveness of STAD in English classrooms was put to test several times. In 1977, and 1978, Slavin targeted seventh-grade language arts classroom students, who were tested after participating in a ten weeks of (STAD) activities, which resulted in significant gains in their academic achievement. In 1985, a study was conducted by the Sharans and their associates to determine the effects of STAD upon Israeli junior high school learners, who were appointed to three different group structures: STAD, whole-class, Group Investigation (GI). The investigation disclosed that in both higher - order questions, and lower - order questions, learners from STAD grouping outperformed whole-class and GI learners (Digby, 2013). In another study, they have confirmed that STAD is more effective than GI in “achieving recall type language objectives; such as: language conventions” (Cited in Ross, 2008:223). There is also Fitriyaningsih (2009) who has conducted a research about using STAD in enhancing learners' reading competence, and it worked.

Other studies investigate the reasons behind (STAD) technique effectiveness in teaching. According to Slavin (1995) and Owns (2013), many studies; like: Huber, Bogatzki, and Winter (1982), Okebukola (1985), concerned with the effect of using group goals and individual accountability on learners' achievement determined that using STAD, comparing to traditional group work (jigsaw, and the Johnsons methods), has a far more significance on learners' attainment in mathematics. According to Wang (2007), Lin in 2000, conducted an experiment using STAD along with other cooperative learning methods, and compared the results to a traditional teaching method. Lin discovered that

learners in CL activities exhibited great levels of: confidence, and enthusiasm, along with higher scores and active interaction, thanks to group goals and individual accountability. In short, to increase learners' achievement, teachers are asked to apply methods that emphasise group goals and individual accountability; such as: STAD, for being more effective than the other forms of CL activities.

Whether it is a language art, a science, or a social studies classroom, STAD technique is very much present in different subjects and area of research. According to Slavin, in well-defined objectives of lesson; such: language usage and mechanics, learning facts and concepts, questions and activities with one correct answer, using STAD is highly appropriate.

5. Student Teams – Achievement Divisions Technique in Comparison

Cooperative learning techniques seem to share and vary considerably in some of their features. So, instead of providing a full definition of each technique, the study opts to supply a thorough comparison of the STAD technique with some of the most used and known techniques: Teams Games Tournaments (TGT), Jigsaw I and II, Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) to provide more insights on the use of the (STAD) technique and its benefits.

First, Teams Games Tournaments (TGT) and Student Teams – Achievement Divisions (STAD) share some procedural features. At first, in the early 1970's, De Vries developed the (TGT) technique, then with the help of Slavin, in the late 1970's, (TGT) has been modified into STAD (Slavin, 1985; Galton, and Williamson, 1992); this explains the similarities between the two techniques. In spite of that, STAD and TGT differ in the use of: quizzes instead of academic game tournaments, and individual improvement scores instead of a bumping system. Furthermore, and according to Kagans' research (2009), TGT is responsible for delivering low self-esteem within cooperative and minority learners because of the hostile and competitive tournaments they go through in the classroom.

Second, Jigsaw I, Jigsaw II, or the Kagan Jigsaw variations; such as: Leapfrog Jigsaw, or Workstation Jigsaw, are techniques that works on “initial information input” that is taken from textual materials instead of, or in addition, to teacher's instruction (Slavin, 1991: 12). In Jigsaw I, an expert topic is given to each member of the team. After reading, the topics are discussed in expert groups that are composed of learners

of the same topic. After the discussion period is over within the expert groups, learners report to their original teams, where they will take a quiz and their improvement points and team scores are computed as in STAD (ibid). In these two types of Jigsaw, a huge amount of time and energy is put to test by teachers, and their learners. First, teachers must prepare the material to fit the idea of experts and original grouping. i.e., not all material can be managed for this kind of activities. Second, learners must teach each other twice; within the expert and the original group, which is a very time consuming activity.

After their group work, learners, in Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC), take a quiz, and team scores are determined as in (STAD). After a period of reading a material in form of a group, as in traditional programs, teachers pair learners from different reading groups where they will be directly instructed to work on tasks; such as: “identifying the main idea, drawing conclusions, comparing and contrasting ideas or predicting how stories will end” (Ferguson, 2013 :67). Fast forward, they will fill in a worksheet that contains a set of practice items that will allow them to achieve consensus as a team through assessing each others’ work and discussing any problems left, before taking their quizzes and figuring their scores. This is why CIRC was first assigned as an alternative for basal reading programs that teaches high-order skills through direct instruction (ibid).

On the light of this short comparison, it is clear that the defining characteristics of each cooperative learning methods, from the mentioned above, seem to work its way out of cooperative learning issues, and around the different learning materials, providing learners with a different learning experiences and new learnt sub-skills. One of the common problems that cooperative learning groups experience is “overridden competitiveness”. This danger is averted in STAD through the use of individual quiz, and in Jigsaw I, Jigsaw II, and Group Investigation methods through the use of expert groups and the distribution of material between learners (Slavin, 1985). Concerning the taught materials, teachers have cited (STAD) and (TGT) as good means of developing and reinforcing already introduced content; whereas, for a good mean for preparing learners for end-of-term exams, the Jigsaw method will do the trick (Smith, Williams, and Wynn, 2013).

6. Student Teams – Achievement Divisions Technique Stages

There are five major components (stages) that define the Student Teams - Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique. These stages represent a total “fluctuation” line between individual and cooperative efforts in a systematic way that D. Johnson, R. Johnson, and Smith referred to as: “a mixture” (2013:23) of cooperation and intergroup competition. These defining stages go as follows: class presentation, team work, quiz taking, figuring scores, and team recognition.

1. ‘Class Presentation’: stands for the teacher’s explanation of the learner’s task, and the taught material. It is usually done traditionally (teacher’s lecturing), or via the use of technology; for example: the use of slide show, either ways each learner processes the provided explanation individually.
2. ‘Team Work’: stands for learners’ time on task where the magic happens. This phase incorporate a lot of peer tutoring in a very different means; learners may discuss the problems as a team, or take turns in quizzing each other in order to grasp the new materials in hand.
3. ‘Quiz Taking’: is individual time again. After a thorough studying phase within a group, learners now take a test individually. This is why it is important that everyone in the team masters the new material through peer tutoring.
4. ‘Figuring Scores’: consists of figuring: individual improvement scores, and group scores. Concerning the individual improvement scores are determined through the amount the learner’s quiz score exceeds his or her past quiz average. According to Slavin (1991), this system is highly important in STAD because it give learners the chance to contribute to the team when working on themselves too.
5. ‘Team Recognition’: is the reward stage; the teacher indentifies and rewards the winning team or all the perfectly-filled worksheet, and/ or the highest improvements.

Reflecting on the five stages of STAD technique, its definition can be as follows. It is an instructional method, where learners work in heterogeneous small groups (4 to 5 learners maximum) that represent a “microcosm” (Slavin, 1991:08) of the whole classroom (intersection of the different genders and achievement level of learners). But first, the teacher provides a presentation of the instructional material. Then, s/he assigns learners to work on their own, so they can master the material and perform well in the individual quiz, in which they cannot help their fellow mate. After figuring scores, the winning team will

receive full recognition through different rewards; for example: extra marks, or receiving team certificates.

7. Student Teams – Achievement Divisions Technique: Challenges and Solutions

Whether in STAD or any CL technique, problems may surface here in there, and teachers have to be prepared to deal with them. These challenges may concern: the learners themselves, the preparations, or the manner of applying the method in real-life context.

First of all, the learners in cooperative learning situations may exhibit what maybe referred to as a: “destructive behaviour” to a cooperative learning setting that can be contained most of the times by teachers. These behaviours may involve: competing with the members of the same group, taking control over the whole work, producing too much noise than usual, and other problematic issues. Although, the noise in cooperative learning classroom is an inevitable part, but it can be retained within its proper limits through the use of a particular gesture or a sign to remind learners to keep it down (ibid). Those negative behaviours will most definitely create a hostile working environment that it is not working for the benefit of the individual or the whole group because some learners (low-achievers) maybe marginalised in the process. This is why it is a necessity for teachers to contain and maintain learners’ behaviours under proper supervision in order to “keep difficult situations from becoming difficult groups” (Weisbord and Janoff, 2010: 01).

Second, concerning the preparations, a study, (Galton, et al, 1980, cited in Long, 2003), found that one of five teachers show enthusiasm about group work, but they largely fail to implement it effectively in their classrooms due to the significant amount of preparation required. Another study carried out by the Sharans and their associates (1985) state that many teachers complain about the time consuming preparations that a CL task may take from them because of the lack of “the prepackaged materials” (cited in Slavin, 1985). An opponent view by Slavin (1985), and Okebukola explain that the initial development and preparations are not always time consuming if the teacher got used to it (cited in Pedersen, and Digby, 2013). Therefore, they recommend the use of STAD technique because of its undemanding nature, easy applicability, and flexibility. According to McLeod, Fisher and Hoover (2003), cooperative learning is one of the areas that teachers need in-depth training experience in, along with community building and team formation.

Thirdly, when applying CL or STAD activities in real-life, teachers seem to fall in the same pattern of troubles. Some teachers, as Harris and Hanley (2004) wrote, have troubles in maintaining accurate records and keeping up with improvement points, when applying STAD in their classrooms. Consequently, Slavin (1991) suggests that teachers may involve their learners in the process of keeping records of their, and others' achievements which gives the teacher the opportunity to focus more on the other components of the used model, and the learners the chance to be more responsible when involved in their learning activities. Others teachers may fail to emphasise the team recognition component of the model whether through publically displaying preference or giving too much attention to certain learner (s). This is why it is recommended to precise the cooperative incentive structure (e.g. extra grades, concrete rewards, or symbolic reward like certificates for the winning team members), and maintain it between the whole members of the team, not only the strong chain in it (the high achiever).

From the above mentioned challenges, the learner – related issues is the most challenging one. Although, researchers have tried to sort the most common destructive behaviours, it is still tough to keep track of what might be unpredictable. Some of the most known troubles include: discouraging each others' work, hiding information from classmates, through the use of poor communicational acts (Johnsons, 1987, cited in Long, 2003), and belittling or resenting the contribution of the low-achieving learners by their high-achieving team mates within a heterogeneous learning teams (Slavin, 1985). It is true that this type of problems can be avoided in STAD, where teaching team mates is a must for the team's success, but it may still surface in other CL techniques.

Generally, teachers complain about not having a clear cut on how to assess learners' written productions within cooperative groups; unlike in oral productions. This bullet is dodged in STAD technique because learners have to take the quiz individually; although they have to study the material in group.

8. Strategies for Smooth Cooperative Learning Tasks

Classroom management is a crucial element for the teaching and learning process in order to maintain healthy and beneficial relationships. Therefore, strategies for classroom management in CL situations is a necessity too, it usually involves the management of space, material, task, time, and groups.

First, the physical setting must be spacious, flexible and well-arranged, and the provided materials and instructions must be clear and well-sequenced. Learners need to feel comfortable when working in groups, and this will not be feasible in an environment where they cannot properly sit down, and communicate face-to-face; this is why it is suitable to better have moveable chairs and tables. They also need the proper teaching material, and instruction on what to do and how to do it; for example: if the teacher needs them to fill in a worksheet, or match the name of an animal to its picture, s/he needs at first to provide the enough worksheets number for the whole groups and clear animal pictures for the whole classroom to see. Then, s/he can start explaining the instruction in the most simple, clear, and well-sequenced manner possible; accordingly, Shindler (2010: 231) wrote: “never ask students to process new content and a new process at the same time” because teachers’ discourse affects the learners’ behaviours, and perceptions of their learning processes which, consequently, form their learning environment later on (Patrick et al. 2001, cited in Gillies, 2008).

Second, group management involves: the number, the time, and the members. According to Singer, and the Hofstra New Teachers Network (2003), it is recommended that teachers put learners in groups of four, that way if one person is absent, three learners will fill in for her/him, not to forget to mention that large groups usually create the issue of marginalized learners instead of involved ones, and they are hard to manage. Concerning time and members, these two element go head to head; every team needs a kind of “permanence” period (ibid: 236) in order to achieve a particular goal. In case, group members do not get along or work cooperatively, they probably still need more time, if time does not work in their favour, they should be re-arranged in different groups. Usually, heterogeneous groups are favoured among teachers because of its research-based benefit; like in Bennett and Cass’s work (1989, cited in Long, 2003:143) on “mixed-ability groups” which showed higher levels of interaction, and high-achievers performing significantly better than they did in homogeneous groups, the same idea is communicated by Wilson in her book “Teaching 201: Travelling beyond the Basics”.

The teacher’s work does not end only with these pre-instructional decisions; other decisions are taken during the cooperative group work time. These decisions may involve: monitoring the task at close range, intervening when necessary, and assessing learners’ behaviours and contributions to the group work; for example: teacher’s observation of cooperative group work creates a sense of a individual accountability within the learners

(D. Johnson and R. Johnson, 2008) which will decrease the degree of destructive behaviours, and encourage learners to produce and cooperate. A teacher may also intervene to resolve problems between the members of a group, or to prevent difficult situations from turning into one big mess. Moreover, the teacher is responsible for assessing and rewarding learners for their good behaviours, or proper contributions to team work. Such actions demonstrate the important role that teachers play in cooperative language learning setting.

CONCLUSION

As it has been explained, the STAD technique is of unique nature that corresponds to its advantages in teaching foreign languages or science subjects. The cooperative and individual learning nature of (STAD) technique demonstrates its significance in providing a boost for students' learning, as the fluctuation between the two extremes of individualistic efforts and cooperative work allows students of different learning styles to better perform. In spite of being able to provide an easy assessment of the written products of students in cooperative groups, the (STAD) technique has been very effective in dodging competitiveness problems with one team; as students are required to teach each other in order to successes as a group. But, in order to do so, students need any help they can get from their teachers, who acquired to play many important roles and take care of essential management issues. So, they have to consider the space, material, task, time, and groups' management in order to provide the easy-flow of such tasks. But, all in all, the (STAD) technique has proven its effectiveness in many fields of academia.

CHAPTER TWO: THE WRITING SKILL IN EFL CLASSROOM

PART ONE: TEACHING WRITING AND GRAMMAR

INTRODUCTION

Writing is one of the most important human accomplishments, and one of the most crucial academic and professional criterion. It is true that spoken language has historically preceded writing, yet the latter's efficiency overruled the former's which made it very challenging to master and teach for non- natives and natives speakers of English too because of its defying characteristics such as Grammar. Ergo, this chapter is devoted to explaining several points that are writing and grammar – related issues, like the defining aspects, and the teaching approaches of each one of them, in order to demonstrate the significance of appropriately teaching writing for ESL or EFL learners.

1. Definition of Writing as a Skill

Writing is a very challenging skill to be learned in EFL classroom. It demands the involvement of the whole body; from the cognitive capacity to generating ideas to the ability to writing them down. Consequently, writing is not the mere definition of handwriting, as most people will probably assume, neither the language in itself. It is even more than the visualisation of language on a paper, which is an abstract cognitive system in the brain. Writing is very complex and long process that includes several procedures in order to provide a final and a well-written piece. Therefore, it is a very elaborated skill that is far more than noting down a bunch of ideas on a single paper. It demands an active state of mind, an excellent mastery of language skills and a sharp critical thinking. According to Andrews, "Writing is a complex activity that draws on the imagination, feelings, state of mind, mood, cognitive state, capability with the medium, context and other factors" (2001 : 43) which demonstrates its complexity and the need for the involvement of whole set of different skills.

2. Written and Spoken Language

Either spoken or written discourse has its own differential spectrum of characteristics. In general, these traits may include: the nature, the usage, and the context. For example, whether it is a spoken or written discourse, grammatical connections between

individual clauses and utterances are present, but are much harder to manage in the written texts because of the demanding grammatical forms and structures that are needed to convey a correct message. On the first hand, spoken language is used mostly to communicate short and instant language structures and replies (Willis, 2003); consequently, such language form is characterised by its limited immediate context (the spacio-temporal setting). This limited context results in the reticence of speech because participants are invited to fill in the meanings from the context itself and their knowledge about the speaker and the different gestures and facial expressions that she or he is using (Elbow, 2000). On the other hand, written texts have much wider range of existence, and communicative purposes. Therefore, it must explicitly convey its meanings through properly lexicalising or decontextualising them (ibid).

More specific characteristics that differentiate between the two forms may include: the processes, the style, and the participants. Harmer (2004) explains that one of the most obvious differences between the two types of discourses is the processes. Because of the little time spent to gather and produce the replay in face-to-face communications, speakers do not take much time as writers when producing a text which is considered to be a more complex and a harder process. As it is clear, written language or discourse is not just spoken language written down, “the sentences are usually well formed in a way that the utterances of natural, spontaneous talk are not” (McCarthy, 1991: 25). This is strongly communicated in the stylistic elements of the written language, which includes the organisational level of the ideas, topics and paragraphs, and the type of rhetorical structures (lexicon, grammar, format, content, and organisation). The involvement of participants in spoken language is essential in order to create a conversation, unless it is for literary matters (monologues). In short, these characteristics are what make writing, especially in an official setting, a prestigious trait, and a hard skill to master.

3. The Significance of Writing in Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages

The importance of the mastery of writing skill in the EFL classrooms is undeniable. Using writing, teachers are able to store scores and names and even teach, while students can learn and memorise more pieces of information given by their tutors. Writing also provides students with a chance to practise the learned materials. So, whether it is a new grammatical structure or a new vocabulary list, writing it down frees ones' mind from the rusty, primitive methods of using language by learning new ones. These new ways of

expressing language and using these new structures is due to student's struggle to express oneself and ideas. When a person is well – equipped in writing, she or he can use the one shot they get to mesmerise their readers and keep their attention, not to embarrass themselves and confuse their readerships. In spite of its importance within the cultural dimension of learning a foreign language, writing in EFL classrooms is used for far more in – depth educational matters.

4. Components of Writing

There are several components to writing that allow students to produce well – written products. These components, elements or procedures, differ from one scholar to another. According to Raimes (1983), demands control over many elements in order to produce a clear, a fluent and an effective communication of ideas. Some of these elements are: grammar, mechanics, content, organisation, word choice, and purpose. But, Kane (2000) explains that purpose, strategy and style are decided by the writer; whereas, grammar, usage, and mechanics falls into the rules which she or he has little control on. The mechanical elements that both writers spoke about include: handwriting, spelling, punctuation, and the construction of well-formed sentences, paragraphs, and texts (Harmer, 2004). According to Smith (1982, cited in Andrews, 2001), writing is a combination of composition and transcription. In composition, one is supposed to generate ideas, shape and rearrange them through using the proper grammar, style, and selecting words. But, when transcribing, the physical effort of writing along with the mechanics are taken in consideration.

So, overall the writing components includes: handwriting, spelling, punctuation and capitalisation, grammar and syntax, cohesion and coherence, choice of words and content relevance. Since it is a long list of components, the study will focus on the most relevant elements to it. These elements are: grammar and syntax, punctuation and capitalisation, cohesion and coherence, choice of words and spelling. The forthcoming figure presents the model that the study develops to fit its objectives. It explains the content of each of the elements that students need to deal with in order to create an adequate piece of writing.

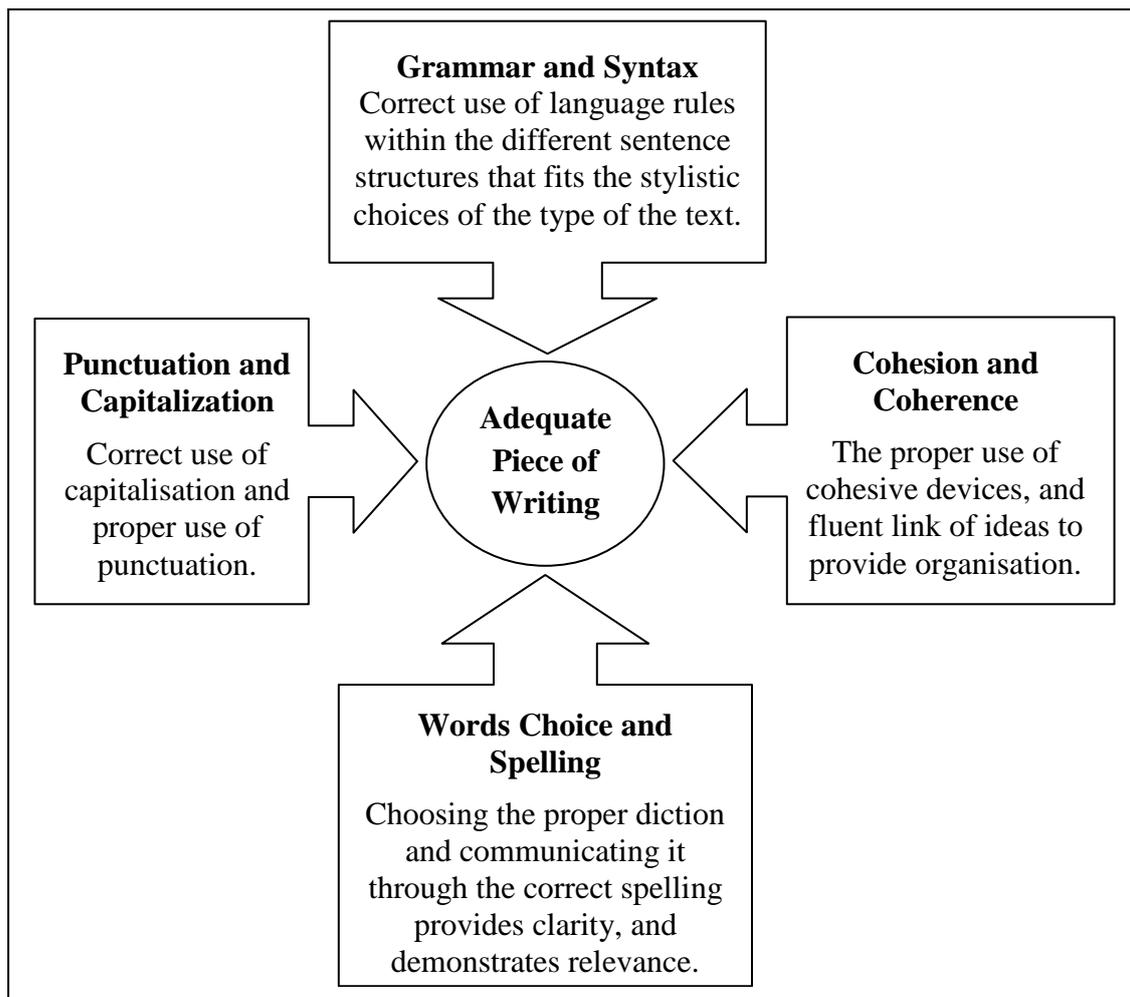


Figure 2.1.1. Elements for Producing an Adequate Piece of Writing

5. Characteristics of Good Writing

The definition of a good writing is blurred by the various perspectives that several scholars have presented to define it or set as approaches to ameliorate students' writings (Dewey, 1938; Schick, 2002; Hyland, 2003; Li, 1996, 2002). Rohman believes that good writing is "[the] discovered combination of words which allows a person the integrity to dominate his subject with a pattern both fresh and original" (1965 cited in Connors, 2002). According to Huck (2015), the most prevailing attitude and answer to what is considered to be good writing is that it is inevitably a matter of taste. Apart from this, Li concludes that good writing is a join of multiple threads of linguistic and non-linguistic, cultural and historical strands (1996). That is to say that good writing is made of what is actually written and how it is written, of the different ideologies and aesthetic elements that is derived from the society and the individual in person.

Accordingly, the definition of good writing is still elusive. But, at whole, it is the thematic, and the cultural context, and co-textual orchestration of semantics and grammar. i.e., the good writing is composed of two essential elements: the meaning; which is the core of the message, and the linguistic presentation; which is the used structures. The meaning of the message, which differs from one field of academia to another and from one cultural context to another, is being wrapped in the proper structures of language. These different structures are truly demonstrations of the idiosyncratic and cultural elements of the realisation of self and community when using a language. Since this definition or the previous ones are just a mere attempts to define good writing, some factors or characteristics should be set as guidelines in order to determine to what extent a text is well written.

These factors may be considered as descriptions or characteristics of good writing. They involve: clarity, explicitness, conciseness, clear paragraph structure, and overall organization (Kim, 2005: 180). According to the same source, Richards (1990) adds coherence and cohesion to the equation as two fundamental aspects that determine the quality of a written product. Fakuade and Sharndama (2012) mentioned that Yule (1989) shared the same idea, as Richards, when he was calling for an analysis of cohesive links in order to determine the quality of text. Freeman (1990: 234) describes the important guidelines for good writing as the traditional combination of “unity, emphasis, clarity, and variety” that shall govern one’s writing.

6. Stages of the Writing Process

In 1983, Graves has described five steps to the process of writing approach (cited in A. Johnson, 2008). Each one of these steps has a purpose on its own that will help the final product at last, but, all in all, it is a combination of three main stages: prewriting, writing and rewriting. The more detailed version includes five steps: prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, publishing and sharing.

6.1. The Prewriting

Prewriting is a very critical first step in the creation of a successful, well – written product (Starkey, 2004). Students are supposed to use this step to generate ideas as much as possible, but not only that, as this step shapes the students’ thoughts, draws their

attention and focus on the selected ideas in order to bring clarity and organization to their written products. Prewriting involves lots of “recalling, finding, analysing, and organising content” (Roberts, 2004: 06). This is why, if done properly, it enhances students’ achievement because inexperienced writers tend to spend little time on planning and grabbing on to their raw formulations of the ideas and problem (Hull, 1989, cited in Roberts, 2004), instead of scrutinising. Calkins explains that students should know that they should postpone their writing until they feel that they gained a sense of authority over their ideas (1986, cited in Roberts, 2004). In short, prewriting is a complex, but crucial stage that should not be ignored.

From the well-known techniques that are usually used in the prewriting step is the listing, the mapping, the brainstorming, or the free writing technique (Galko, 2001). Most of these techniques may sound the same for some, as they serve the same purpose, but use different kinds of visualisations. For instance, brainstorming for ideas means that a person simply notes down as many ideas as he or she possibly can about the topic they chose, in the way they please to; words or phrases because it is a stage for free writing (Creme and Lea, 2008); whereas, mapping is making a visual diagram of the writer’s ideas about the topic. A student can use one of the many provided techniques (strategies) in order to develop his or her ideas, so they will coalesce into the final shape of the topic.

6.2. Drafting

The Second step of the writing process is the drafting stage which is the writer’s first attempt to write down his or her ideas on a paper. A draft is a tentative, imperfect first version of the final product. Therefore, one should not worry about the small mistakes and keeps writing as much she or he possibly can (Kan, 2000); quantity is what matters in this stage not quality (A. Johnson, 2008). Comparing to free writing, a draft is more reined in (op.cit) because it is the first captured image of the ideas for the final product. Usually, a student may write up to 4 drafts before revising the more-fit one and submitting it as final work. And, this is what drafting is; a rough or a scratch form of your work on a paper.

6.3. Revising

Revision is a thoughtful and critical procedure in the writing process (ibid), as the writer is supposed to look into his or her work through the eyes of the reader in order to

produce a flow structured piece of writing. To achieve readers' eyes experience in revising personal product, one must force himself or herself to read slowly. A more effective strategy is reading aloud, yet it is not always feasible (ibid). A. Johnson (2008) compares revision to shaping a large blob of clay that a person just had thrown on the potter's wheel, where it will receive a continuous molding and changing operations that involves procedure such as adding and taking parts from it. Therefore, he describes it as the heart of writing process.

6.4. Editing

In this step of writing (editing), mistakes and errors in punctuation, spelling, or grammar are corrected. Trying to avoid mistakes is like trying to avoid the inevitable, but thinking of them during the two first steps of writing is a suicide mission towards a destructed piece of writing, as one's brain will be oscillated between more than one task. So, it is better for a person to familiarises himself or herself with using materials, like a dictionary, (ibid) and providing extra time for such tasks than trying to squeeze in all the tasks at once. Because, no matter how good a person he or she may think they are in writing, mistakes do happen, this is why revising, editing and proofreading are there.

One may wonder about the difference between revising, editing and proofreading. On the first hand, revising involves a general examination of the entire product; whether it has achieved its purpose or not. i.e., revising is a large scale inspection stage where a person may end up with re-writing large portions of his or her work in order to convey the desirable message. On the other hand, "editing is a word-by-word and sentence-by-sentence task" (Starkey, 2004: 54). And, proofreading is much more on smaller scale than editing. It inspects the same points that editing usually does, but since much of the error correction work is done in editing, fewer or none is left for proofreading. According to Elbow (1998), other people are better in detecting our flaws in writing; this is why it is recommended to get a second opinion about one's work.

6.5. Publishing and Sharing

According to A. Johnson (2008), by sharing written product with an audience, writing becomes more authentic and vivid. Sharing in second language classrooms may involve keeping collection of students' writings as journals, or publishing them in a book

or in the school's newspapers. Such writing experiences create strong and positive feelings about writing in general among learners. By sharing their written products together, students are not only going to learn from each other, but also develop their self-esteem and pride of what they have accomplished.

Although, no matter how many steps are there in writing, there is an opposite view of what really takes a place in real-life contexts when a person writes. The idea that this research highlights is that writing is a recursive process. i.e., no writer does that "rigid stage theory" of prewriting, writing and rewriting as Elbow (2000: 54) thinks of it. However, classifying the writing process into these stages makes it more teachable process in the second language classrooms because of the systematic sense that these stages gives that allows the students to produce.

7. The Role of the Writing Teacher

The teacher plays some important roles when teaching writing. These roles do not simply involve the allocated time in the classroom, but home preparations too. Teachers are supposed to prepare, choose, and modify the learning materials to fit the level and the needs of the learner. Although, this kind of preparations is very important, the main focus in this study is on the delivery phase of writing course where teachers' role is more complex.

Among the many roles that a teacher may take is: demonstrator, motivator, supporter, responder, and evaluator. According to Harmer (2004), a teacher should demonstrate and draw students' attention to the conventions, the constraints and the layout of a specific type of writing before asking his or her learners to produce any. A good writing teacher explains the value of the task to provoke his or her students to generate ideas, and work enthusiastically on producing an adequate written product. Closely attached to his or her role as motivator, a teacher should be available to support the learners to overcome their writing difficulties. According to the same source, teachers react to students' writings through two different ways: responding (for improving their level of achievement and products through written remarks that contains suggestions or error corrections remarks), and evaluating (for measuring their progression/achievement in tests).

Another set of teachers' roles in teaching writing includes: models, coaches, consultants, assessors, and planners (Rickards, and Hawes, 2004). As stated by the same source, watching teachers of writing systematically using the steps of writing and producing their own written products, provide students with fruitful insights about the writing procedures. As coach teacher provides students with a great sense of motivation towards writing, they are encouraged to socially bond with their classmates, and take the risks of writing (ibid). To try work as a consultant, a teacher is supposed to advice his or her students when meeting them either individually or in small, manageable groups. These learners should be from the same areas of needs; for example, student who do not know how to properly write a topic sentence. When teachers assess their learners' writing, they will be able to diagnose their strengths, their weaknesses and determine their needs. Consequently, when planning the teaching instructions and materials, the teacher will be able to plan and use what is suitable for his or her learners.

All in all, the roles of teachers in the writing process are highly regarded. As his or her support, consultation, and assessment are the key for students to step up their game and prove themselves even more when writing. Therefore, a writing teacher must assist his or her learners to ameliorate their thinking tendencies in order for them to grow their writing abilities (ibid). But this cannot be achieved unless the proper feedback is provided and arranged to encourage and improve their levels (Nation, 2009). As Moore (2013: 214) wrote: "Good writing mentors will [...] assist the writers' journey by helping them to navigate the obstacles, anticipate the challenges and share the joys and triumphs that are part of most of the best [...] writing experiences".

8. Definition of Grammar

There have been many trials to define "Grammar" as a concept, and still there is no clear cut. A general view by Celce-Murcia, and Hilles, based on the assumption that language is rule-governed, Grammar, therefore, is "a subset of language rules" (1988: 16) that exists within a Native's brain, and directs his/her use of language. That is to say, comparing to computer, Grammar is the software that allows a person to use the language correctly, which involves the configurations of morphology and syntax too (ibid). A later attempt of defining this abstract knowledge and deriving its major senses is presented by Weaver (1996), in his book "Teaching Grammar in Context", where he provides four

salient meanings for Grammar: (a) as a description of syntactic structure, (b) as prescriptions of how to use structures and words, (c) as rhetorically effective use of syntactic structures, (d) as the functional command of sentence structure that enables us to comprehend and produce language (1996:02). Soon after, those four senses of Grammar paved the way to build appropriate approaches to teaching and learning Grammar.

Different meanings were organized, as an attempt for clarifying Grammar, by Hartwell. These meanings ranged from simple statement of two words like “linguistic etiquette” (1985, cited in Williams, 2005: 01) to a much longer ones. Williams thinks that none of Hartwell’s taxonomy definitions has tackled the differences between spoken and written language, or mentioned anything about dialects, and above all the idea that writing and grammar are connected was neglected and replaced by “school grammar”, and the idea of raising teachers’ awareness of the many methods of using the term “Grammar” throughout education and society (ibid).

9. Defining Grammar from a Learning Perspective

Another definition for Grammar may come from a learning/ teaching perspective of the mother-tongue language (MT/L1), and Second or Foreign Language (SL/FL) that this study suggests. As children, humans have been taught grammar through speaking the dialect of the L1. At later age, (5 to 6 years), the daily trips to school enlarges the human perspective of language use, grammar, vocabulary, what is the difference between (did not and didn’t) and far more language – related issues are dealt with. Hence, the definition that fits L1 perspective must include something about dialect, written and spoken language; such as: Grammar is a group of formal and informal patterns of wording a sentence and conveying its message, it can be used to generate ideas and communicate messages for a spoken or written language purposes.

When a person starts learning a second language, the Grammar definition can be altered to another more conclusive definition. When learning a (SL), a learner is trying to acquire a totally different language system, especially in case of distant languages like Arabic and French. It is usually done for academic or professional purposes, therefore, learning grammar, at the beginning, is very crucial because it is a matter of accuracy. Although it can be culturally – distant to just focus on grammar, it is still necessary to be well-acquainted with its rules. Since learning a (SL) usually goes in a much slower pace

than the L1's – especially if the learner is older – Grammar's definition in (SL) perspective must include the type of SL learning experience that the learner goes through. So, Grammar is acquiring new language faculty, or building upon the old one (L1 faculty) which allows the person to use, understand and communicate in the SL, using the learnt forms, patterns, rules and structures in order to generate ideas that fits more accurately in its needed contexts.

Again, the Grammar definition changes when the person commence learning a third or fourth language, a Foreign Language that is not used within his or her environment. Grammar's definition in (FL) learning context maybe defined as the extension of the L1 and L2 (SL) islands or building upon those two faculties in order to make room for the new learned language system. This explains the negative and positive transfer that may occur during the process of learning a new language during the first periods. As much as a person learns of the second or foreign language, as much as she or he will develop better control over his language of choice and grammar use.

10. Significance of Teaching Grammar

The different attitudes towards teaching Grammar or not uncovered the discussion of its significance in second or foreign language classrooms. Webbe was among the first ones who questioned the importance of teaching Grammar. He believes that by exercising the four skills, all Grammar-related matters “will without labour, and whether we will or no[t], thrust themselves upon us” (cited in Thornbury, 1999: 14). Krashen agrees too, since he considers language of a communicative purpose that overlooks accuracy on the expense of fluency. He refers to the effects of grammar teaching as marginal and flimsy (ibid). Accordingly, teaching Grammar seems to be a thorny issue as much as defining it (ibid). An opposite view led by many scholars, who support teaching grammar in ESL/EFL classrooms, expresses its strong requirement and effect upon the acquisition of the learnt language (Ellis, 1996; Nassaji, and Fotos, 2011; Norris and Ortega, 2000).

In this respect, Thornbury (1999) has given a list of arguments in favour of teaching grammar. Some of these arguments include: the sentence-making machine, the fine-turning argument, the fossilisation argument, the advance-organiser argument, and the discrete item argument. Since grammar is a set of regularities of language, it works as a sentence-making machine. Also, it works as a corrective for language output, and it

lessens the chances of getting language learning fossilisation. Grammar, in his defence, seems to work as advance organiser for later acquisition and a portion-controller for the gigantic and infinite structures of language (ibid).

Moreover, teaching grammatical knowledge through dividing it into a finite collection of rules creates “a helpful scaffold” (Mystkowska-Wiertelak, and Pawlak, 2012: 02) for language acquisition. The learners’ language is constructed upon this scaffold. This is why, students who are assisted by grammatical rules feel more comfortable just by seeing the immense amount of data that they are attempting to learn to be manageable in few language points (ibid). In spite of his anathema to grammar, Swan has presented “two good reasons for teaching carefully selected points of grammar” (2002, cited in Mystkowska-Wiertelak, and Pawlak, 2012: 02). First, the fact that grammar assists learners’ acquisition through the refinement of meaning which ensures better comprehension. Second, it endows learners with an opportunity for integration into the (TL) community through the reduction of their risks of getting rejected.

In addition to that Savage, Bitterlin, and Price (2010), Grammar works amply as an enabling skill, a motivator, and a mean to self-sufficiency. As it allows students to better understand and use language when it is received or used in the four skills. Besides that it has a motivational aspect for language learning, as most students link the successful learning of a new language to mastering its grammatical structures and rules. Since the ability to self-correct is desirable for students, learning grammar will provide them with the right equipment that leads them to self-sufficiency (ibid). The effectiveness of teaching grammar is proved in a large analytical study, by Norris and Ortega (2000, cited in Hinkel, 2004), which surveyed 77 published research papers. As it is explained above the large amount of literature written about the effectiveness of Grammar instruction reveals its significance in foreign or second language teaching.

11. Approaches to Teaching Grammar

Various models and didactic approaches have always considered grammar teaching as an important part of learning a SL/FL. Two main methods are used in teaching the grammatical rules: deductive and inductive. According to Thornbury (1999), a deductive approach starts with the overt presentation of a grammatical rule, followed by examples in which the rule is applied; whereas, in the inductive approach the process is reversed; the

presented examples are used to infer the rule from. The later is one of the implicit teaching approaches to grammar, it may be referred to it as imbedded, or teaching grammar in context, as examples of language use are used to explain a grammatical element and derive the rule for using it. For example, through reading a text, a teacher may explain the rule for structuring the plural form in English, because reading develops students' sense for structures and vocabulary (A. Johnson, 2008).

Nassaji and Fotos (2011) state that the controversial matter of whether to teach grammar explicitly (through the formal presentations of grammatical rules) or implicitly (through the natural exposure to meaningful language use) has always existed. As many teachers are familiar with students who master the grammatical rules; nevertheless, they cannot use it properly in their output (Savage, Bitterlin, and Price, 2010). It should be noted that there is no 'best' approach to teaching grammar or language; it utterly depends on the needs of the learner. If the learner is a beginner or a low achiever because she or he does not master grammar rules, then she or he is in need for explicit teaching of grammar. But, if the learners are fairly good, then implicit teaching of grammar rules using authentic materials is the most adequate approach for them.

Overall, grammar teaching approaches are either: text-focused-instruction (teaching forms and structures), meaning-focused-instruction (teaching grammar as a communicative competence), or as the latest attempts are trying to achieve, text and meaning focused instruction. In this respect, the table below is provided as a summary for how grammar is taught and presented in some of the well-known teaching approaches (ibid).

Approach	Focus
Grammar-Translation Method	The explicit teaching of grammatical rules is provided, and an extra attention is paid to the language forms.
Direct Method	The inductive teaching of grammar rules is done.
Audiolingual Method	The explicit, deductive teaching of grammar rules is later on emphasised through the use a list of drills.
Cognitive Approach	Grammar is thoroughly taught and analysed using either inductive or deductive methods.
Natural Approach	Grammar is rarely taught.
Communicative Language Teaching	Since the focus is brought to communication, fluency is regarded on the expense of accuracy; consequently, grammar is not taught openly or implicitly.

Table 2.1.1. Teaching and Presenting Grammar in Language Teaching Approaches

Most of the grammar teaching models follow the (PPP) model which is based on presentation, practice, production. The (PPP) model is presenting the grammar rule, practicing it in overt manner to provide a vivid example, and then asking students to use it on their own. A more recent model is provided by Freeman (2001, cited in Savage, Bitterlin and Price, 2010). This three-dimensional model claims that each grammatical structure has three dimensions: form, meaning, and use. An example of this is of “the modal must”, presented by the same source below. Freeman’s model is a combination of text and meaning instruction of grammar teaching.

Form	<i>must</i> + base form of verb (without <i>to</i>)
Meaning	obligation or necessity
Use	formal; used much more in writing than in speaking. In speaking, people tend to use <i>have to</i> .

Figure 2.1.2. The Modal (Must) in Freeman’s Model (cited in Savage et al, 2010)

CONCLUSION

On the light of this chapter, it is deduced that writing and grammar in EFL setting are two very crucial elements to be learnt. Writing plays an integral part in the introduction of culture and communication with Natives (Raimes, 1983). As people are not always around to interpret your body movements or facial expressions, mastering writing as a skill is a must (ibid). Apart from this, writing broadens students' use of language and expands their learning experiences and knowledge about language usage. But, this cannot be achieved unless students are completely aware of how to communicate their ideas using correct and proper grammar rules. Therefore, it is very crucial for students to make the difference between the various grammatical structures and their usages that they may come across, as to know the different contexts within which these structures function (Ur, 2011). Bae argues that grammar is a universal writing quality; without a sufficient ability in it, it is unlikely for students to produce a text with a reasonable length or quality that communicates their ideas (2001, cited in Brisk, 2011). For that reason, grammar teaching must be short and thoroughly practiced through the productive skills. As Hillocks explains: "Grammar instruction is important; however, time spent composing has a more positive effect on grammar and writing than time spent teaching grammar" (1986, cited in A. Johnson, 2008: 235).

PART TWO: COHESION AND CONJUNCTIONS IN WRITING

INTRODUCTION

Cohesion is a crucial characteristic in a written text. It helps in demonstrating the text's structure and organisation which help in the flow of ideas. For that reason, SL or FL learners are in need for intensive instruction and further focus on the discourse level in order to help them to produce coherent texts (Reid, 1998, cited in El-Gazzar, 2006). Cohesion was first painstakingly introduced by Halliday and Hassan in their seminal work “Cohesion in English” in 1976. Numerous studies have sparked off since then, investigating the various types and parts of cohesive ties (Na, 2011; Carlsen, 2010; Ghasemi, 2013; Hessamy and Hamed, 2013; Mawardi, 2014; Hung and Thu, 2014). It is true that Halliday and Hasan did not take into account the issues of language pedagogy in their work. Yet, they have managed to reveal the importance of cohesion, and to provide a very influential taxonomy of the different cohesive devices that it includes. One part of this large categorisation interests the current study, which is: conjunctions. This latter is used to connect different parts of speech and ideas. Ergo, the present part of this chapter is devoted to issues that are cohesion, or conjunctions related.

1. Text and Texture

A text can be differentiated from non-text through “texture” (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 02), or as McCarthy (1991: 35) refers to it “textuality”. Texture or textuality refers to the feeling that something is well-connected, and it is not just a random collection of words and sentences (ibid), that functions as one unit in the respect of its environment (op.cit) Referring to the study's context (cohesion), Renkema claims that cohesion and coherence are two of the seven important standards for creating texture (1993: 34, cited in Mawardi, 2014:81). This claim highlights the importance of cohesion and coherence in a text in order to achieve texture, and to be considered as a text.

2. Coherence and Cohesion

Before a deep embarkation upon this topic, a clear cut between cohesion and coherence must be made. Although, trying to define the terms in a matter of two or three paragraphs is not just an impossible mission, but unjust as these two elements are

magnitudinal in perspectives and studies. But, to provide a theoretical framework for this study, two simple definitions and few relevant studies are put to light.

2.1. Cohesion and Coherence: Definitions and Relationship

The first stop is the definitions of the concepts. According to Yule (2006), ‘cohesion’ is a textual feature and coherence is a personal feature of the interpretation of a text. He further explains that cohesion is achieved through the use of different linguistic connections. These cohesive ties, that cohesion uses, are the different individual connections that tie the words and phrases of a text together to make it fit together. Therefore, the feeling that one gets about parts of a text hanging together, making sense, and that it is not simply a mere collection of endless words is ‘coherence’ (McCarthy, 1991). This means that ‘coherence’ is created in the reader's mind to provide a meaningful interpretation of the text, while ‘cohesion’ is the different relations that exist within it (op.cit).

Tanskanen describes the relationship between cohesion and coherence as “independent but intertwined” (2006:15). Since coherence is considered as the interpretable property of the text, cohesion is the linguistic property that uses cohesive devices (CDs) in order to facilitate the reader's journey in discovering the meaning of the text. It is true that cohesive ties are not always a sign of coherence, as many texts may exhibit various cohesive ties, yet they fail to be coherent (Speyer and Fetzer, 2014). Hannay and Mackenzie still describe these linguistic ties as “signposts” (1996: 178) on the reader's path to deducing meaning. To explain this idea, consider the following list of examples.

- (1) Have you met Linda? She was here yesterday with me.
- (2) Manchester shoots and the whistle blow.
- (3) My best friend died. I have to see her tomorrow.

In the first example, the two sentences are related through the use of the personal pronoun; (she) to refer to (Linda) in the first sentence. The semantic relation between the two means that the example is both cohesive and coherent. In spite of being speech-related example (sport commentary), the idea of no cohesive elements are used in it, yet it is semantically coherent is very obvious. In the last example, cohesive links are found but no

coherence is detected, as the use of (her) renders the two sentences incoherent, and unpragmatically fit for the discourse or the context. This means that the logical connectedness and consistency of a text cannot always be feasible unless at least some of the linguistic relations are involved, as cohesion is concerned with the horizontal sequencing of the surface propositions, and coherence is related to the vertical progression of the topic's deep meaning (Schiftner, 2014; Tangkiengsirisin, 2012).

2.2. Previous Research Studies on Cohesion in L2 Writing

According to Catalan and Espinosa (2005), there are four major strands of research about cohesion and (CDs). These strands include: (a) the frequency of CDs, (b) the relation between the frequency of CDs, coherence, and writing quality, (c) the comparisons between the use of the CDs used by L1 writers and their counterparts from L2, and between L2 writers of different L1s, and (d) the effect of genre or topic on the types of lexical cohesion used (cited in Hamedi and Hessamy, 2013). Here are some few examples of these studies. In Tierney and Mosenthal's (1983) work, cohesion analysis is considered as a poor sign of coherence or writing quality, as their research reveals no causal relationship between CDs and coherence ranking. In 1984, Connor's examination of the differences in the cohesive density of two English native speakers' and two advanced ESL writers' argumentative essays reveals no difference between the cohesive density (reference and conjunctions) between the two types of participants. These results contradict Witte and Faigley's work (1981) that demonstrates a variety in good and poor essays, when it comes to the frequencies of grammatical CDs, which supports Tierney and Mosenthal's contribution about the fact that cohesive texts are not always coherent (cited in Tangkiengsirisin, 2012). Although much has been revealed and learned from the many studies about the cohesive features of texts, a comprehensible picture about L2 textual cohesion use and teaching has not emerged yet (Na, 2011).

In a more related literature to this study's topic, some of the investigations about the use of conjunctions are presented next. In 1992, Johnson's work with native and non-natives of different L1s reveals that more referential and conjunctive ties are used in well-written native English essays (op.cit). Høyte (1997) has examined the relation between learners' use of connectives and their test scores to only find out that there is a weak positive correlation between the two, but no further examination of the types of the used

connectives in the low and high levels has been carried out next. Another study in the same year by Palm has compared the native speakers and non-native speakers of Norwegian community. Palm has found that the latter's (non-native speakers) over use the causal connective (because). In the same vein, McGhie (2003) inspects the causal connectives' used in spoken and written discourse of five learners in Norwegian. The study reveals the over use of (because) comparing to the use of (therefore) (Carlsen, 2010). In spite of Johnson's work, in the Norwegian context, Høyte, Palm, and McGhie have provided few studies using small numbers of informants only.

Much of the studies conducted in these various strands are still inconclusive for several reasons. The diverse or the considerably low proficiency level of students' in writing in English is one of the main reasons. As learners still experience (MT) interference, and struggle with their insufficient knowledge about the readers' expectations, FL discourse community and writing conventions (ibid). For instance, a considerable amount of literature about Arab learners and their struggle in writing in English shows that their products lack the lexical variety and subordination, they rely heavily on redundancy and coordination which does not add any new ideas or information to their writings (El-Gazzar, 1994). A more learner related reasons involves the nature of their L1 and the kind of teaching they received in L2. For example, as Mohamed-Sayidina (2010) claims, Arab ESL students writing in English involves transferring their L1 rhetorical modes for text organisation into their English compositions. This is proved by the strong statistical support that additive transition words provides, as they are more commonly used than other types of transition words. A didactic matter is that students are often presented with a long list of different transition words and phrases, which they use alternatively without the semantic or the syntactical considerations and restrictions for each of those transitions. Therefore, factors that influence the use of cohesive devices and the teaching of cohesion should be further investigated.

3. Rationale for Teaching Cohesion and Conjunctions

Writing in general is a challenging process on its own, not to mention writing cohesively and coherently. This is why, achieving cohesion is considered as a challenging task even for advanced learners and users of English (Naderi, Keong, and Latif, 2013). Therefore, the proceeding details will reveal that cohesion is very important for language

learners, as it helps learners in reading comprehension, writing segments, and even conversing with others (listening and speaking). It should be mentioned that the forthcoming details take into perspective the complex relation between cohesion and coherence. Since this research study is related to writing, more emphasis is put on the role of cohesion in reading and writing.

One of the early views about cohesion and coherence is that coherence is divided into two types: text-based and reader-based (Johns, 1986, cited in Tangkiengsirisin, 2012). This means that, while the text-based coherence includes cohesion and unity (the textual features of a text), the reader-based coherence is the successful interaction between the reader and the text that is required to infer and draw ideas from. The idea communicated in the latter type is thoroughly explained in Sinclair's model of text structure. He assumes that when reading, a person progresses into processing the next sentence and focusing on its interpretation, as the linguistic portions disappear and only the meaning is preserved (Sinclair, 1993, cited in Moreno, 2003). Numerous research studies prove that "the presence of discourse markers (DMs) enhances readers' comprehension of the texts" (Khatib and Safari, 2011: 243). According to Rahman (2013), text comprehension can be drastically improved when cohesion is increased, especially for low knowledge readers. In the same token, Donnelly explains that the explicit demonstration of relationships between sentences in a text, especially the use of conjunctions, "make text comprehension proceed efficiently" (1994, cited in Abdelreheim, 2014: 23). For that reason, the reader is given a considerable responsibility for interpreting the writer's message, so she or he needs to be well-equipped with knowledge about the different cohesive ties in order to comprehend the communicated ideas.

Since writing is characterised as being a "detachment" and a work in "social isolation", comparing to speaking, it needs a particular connectedness for its elements (Chafe, 1982, cited in Tangkiengsirisin, 2012: 09). The organisation of ideas in a paragraph is carried out via the different structural relationships of the text. Accordingly, Kamali and Noori (2015) assert that a list of various devices contributes to a discourse's cohesion and coherence. Rahman (2013) also suggests that the appropriate use of various and well-placed cohesive devices can achieve cohesion in a written text. As Salkie puts it "cohesive devices play the role of the glue that holds different parts of a text together" (1995, *ibid*). This is why, linking or moving from one idea to another is a tricky and rather difficult process that needs lots of information transforming and reshaping, which is more

complex than writing itself (Myles, 2002, cited in Mawardi, 2014). So, to ease on this process, learners need to be aware of the different cohesive features of a discourse.

As Wang and Sui (2006) clearly explain, cohesion should be used more often in real-life teaching contexts and practices, in order to demonstrate how crucial it is for learners to be able to join sentences in logical manner that provides better coherence (Ye, 2013: 82). Since coherence is primarily supported through the semantic relations that the use of cohesive devices allows, the realisation of coherent text relies mainly on the proper use of cohesive devices (Jin and Ban, 2006, cited in Ye, 2013). Besides that, the analysis of cohesion, or the use of cohesive ties in students' writings can help scholars and teachers in distinguishing between students' different stages of writing development, and in providing methods of a concrete explanations for some of the differences between competent and not-so competent student written products (Mawardi, 2014).

To finally consider the importance of the cohesion through the use of conjunctions, the three examples below represent three different cases that are conjunctions-related-matters.

(a) Jennah is a hardworking young lady, but George is a very idle man.

(b) Robin has finally managed to get his driving licence. He is thrilled.

(c) My father is poet. My mother is a doctor.

Example (a) demonstrates the explicit use of conjunction to connect the two part of the sentence through a contrastive relationship. In example (b), there is no use of any kind of conjunctions, yet the meaning is clearly communicated through an implied resultative relationship. At last, example (c), there is no use of conjunctions either, but the reader or the hearer may deduce different relationships which maybe a source of confuse. Ergo, the explicit presentation of clear, semantic, conjunctive relationships in a discourse provides easy accessibility to meaning. Therefore, conjunctions should be used carefully because they are not some cheap, decorative items that act like fillers for text's structure.

4. Types of Cohesion

The Hallidaian categorisation of the grammatical cohesive devices used in the English texts includes: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctions. For a starter, referential cohesion occurs when one item in a text points to another element for its

interpretation, either a proceeding or preceding element. While substitution is the replacement of an element by another, ellipsis is the “substitution by zero” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 142). Since conjunctions are the core of this study, detailed explanations will be provided in the upcoming points. However, for now, a simple example is given, by the researcher herself, for each type to explain the differences between them. For further details on the definitions, explanations, or the elements of the lexical cohesive devices, readers should refer to Halliday and Hasan's work on cohesion in English.

- Reference: I bought a book. It is in my bedroom.

I cannot believe it. He is dead.

- Substitution: (The morning news did not mention anything about the incident, nor did the newspaper. I think they are trying to cover up the story).
- Ellipsis: (I have been in a lot of places in this world, but this is my favourite).

5. Teaching Cohesion, Coherence, and Conjunctions

There are no clear didactic solutions on how to teach cohesion, yet some attempts have been made to do so. Since there are no clear descriptions of learners' proficiency in terms of linguistic competence or discourse features, and students of Biskra University are of no difference, to design suitable material for teaching writing in a (FL) or (SL) is a very difficult procedure. Therefore, the students' competence concerning these features must be first investigated, to draw on conclusive results on their needs, goals, and a map on how to achieve the two. However, some scholars, on their journey of understanding cohesion and coherence in text, have provided some insightful data on how to write coherently using cohesive ties as a carrier of meaning.

5.1. Teaching Cohesion and Coherence through Frameworks

First, there is Lovejoy's and Lance's work on written discourse that claims that cohesion can be achieved through “the operation of theme-rheme” (1991, cited in Tangkiengsirisin, 2012). According to them, ‘theme’ is the starting point of how to present information in a written text, while ‘rheme’ is the set of information that the person would like to communicate about the present ‘theme’, i.e., the ‘theme’ is the old information that is initially produced to provide a background for discourse; whereas, ‘rheme’ is a new and

specific information that is presented in order to endow the ‘theme’ with more clarifications. These two are usually presented alternatively in connected text, which grants the easy and smooth flow of ideas. According to the same source, in various contextual and propositional situations, Lovejoy's and Lance's approach fails to provide coherent texts.

Second, in her work on examining coherence, Lautamatti proposed an approach to the analysis of textual flow (1987, cited in Tangkiengsirisin, 2012). Lautamatti considers coherence as a hierarchical organisation of a text. So, when examining how readers are able to understand a text's theme through the use of a clear sentence topic, she proposes the use of terms ‘topic’ and ‘comment’ in her work. In her definition, the term ‘topic’ is what the sentence is about; whereas, the ‘comment’ is the information about the ‘topic’. All sentence topics and subtopics are progressively inter-related in a certain way or another in order to provide an overall understanding of the text. The different patterns of progression relations are referred to as “topical development of discourse” (ibid). It includes three types of progressions: (a) parallel progression, (b) sequential progression, and (c) extended parallel sequence. In ‘parallel progression’ the identical topics are presented in subsequent sentencing of a text. In ‘sequential progression’ the ‘comment’ of the preceding sentence becomes the ‘topic’ of a new one, while in ‘extended parallel sequencing’, a parallel progression representation is interrupted by a sequential progression.

The third party in this list of framework is Givon's work (1983) about topic continuity. His three-level framework includes: thematic continuity, action continuity, and topics/participants continuity (ibid). In order to provide such fruitful results, he has suggested the study of various and complex elements (referential distance, topic persistence, and potential interference). To cut the long story short, his relevance to the present study is that his results explain the recipe for coherence through the reflection on the movement of the mind when processing a text. This mental procedure of text processing is done through the presentation of ‘topic’ then the ‘comment’.

The presented frameworks above provide a better understanding of cohesion, coherence in a text, and guided-structures for students to follow when writing. Explaining how the ‘theme’ and the ‘rheme’ operate, or how the ‘topic’ and the ‘comment’ work in different contextual surroundings, help the students to grasp the importance of cohesion and coherence. As such frames work like guided, ready-made structures of paragraph or essays that demonstrate the necessity of smooth flow of ideas and data. McCarthy strongly advocates the use of frames because it helps the not-so-competent students in writing to

manage the organisation of their detailed ideas that they usually feel trapped within them; which causes the global organisation of their writing to crumble and fall (1991, cited in Achili: 2007).

5.2. Crewe's Stages for Teaching Conjunctions

Crewe (1990) presents three pedagogical stages to teaching connectives and raising students' awareness of their textual meaning. The outlined approaches are: the reductionist, the expansionist and the deductionist. In the first stage, students are only taught a list of commonly used connectives like: 'and', 'but', and 'also'; whereas, in the second stage, another list of connectives is presented. This latter states the paraphrases of the first list of conjunctions, and provides explicit explanations of the relationships that they signal. For example, the new list may contain conjunctions like: 'in addition to this', 'because of this', 'as result of', 'consequence of', or 'in reaction to this' (cited in Achili, 2007). In the third and last stage, learners are supposed to concentrate on the semantic relations found in their products not the relations that conjunctions supply. But before doing so, learners must state these relations, their connections to the whole text, and whether or not is necessary to use any conjunction. All of this is done during the planning stages of writing. By doing so, students will learn not only to use conjunctions, but also to use them conveniently in the whole text.

Such stages of presentation are better than the mechanical exercises that are usually found in textbooks or provided by the teachers. According to the abstract of Crewe's work (1990), the treatment of conjunctions as a bunch of "stylistic enhancers [that a student] sprinkle over a text in order to give it an (educated) or (academic) look" is one source of the under/mis /over- use of conjunctions by students, not to mention, the rote presentations. Therefore, connectives should be treated, thought of, and taught as a much higher-level discourse unit that are needed for the organisation of the chunks of the text in relation to the overall understanding of the text (ibid).

6. Assessment and Evaluation of Cohesion in Writing

Learners must be assessed gradually along their progress. Certainly, writing holds a significant part of this. In fact, cohesion may pose certain difficulties when assessed. Regardless to this, The British Council offers a public grading scale for the writing task of the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Along the task achievement,

the lexical resources, the grammatical range and accuracy, the following table represents the descriptors of cohesion and coherence in bands (scale from 0 to 9) as taken from (IELTS).

Band	Description
0	- Writes a totally memorised response
1	- Fails to communicate any message.
2	- Has very little control of organisational features.
3	- Does not organise ideas logically. - May use a very limited range of cohesive devices, and those used may not indicate a logical relationship between ideas.
4	- Presents information and ideas but these are not arranged coherently and there is no clear progression in the response. - Uses some basic cohesive devices but these may be inaccurate or repetitive. - May not write in paragraphs or their use may be confusing
5	- Presents information with some organisation but there may be a lack of overall progression f makes inadequate, inaccurate or over use of cohesive devices. - May be repetitive because of lack of referencing and substitution. - May not write in paragraphs, or paragraphing may be inadequate
6	- Arranges information and ideas coherently and there is a clear overall progression. - Uses cohesive devices effectively, but cohesion within and/or between sentences may be faulty or mechanical. f - May not always use referencing clearly or appropriately. - Uses paragraphing, but not always logically.
7	- Logically organises information and ideas; there is clear progression throughout. - Uses a range of cohesive devices appropriately although there may be some under-/over-use. - Presents a clear central topic within each paragraph.
8	- Sequences information and ideas logically. - Manages all aspects of cohesion well. - Uses paragraphing sufficiently and appropriately
9	- Uses cohesion in such a way that it attracts no attention. - Skilfully manages paragraphing.

Table 2.2.1. British Council's IELTS Task 2 Writing Band: Coherence and Cohesion.

The presented table proves that coherence and cohesion share an intimate co-existential relationship. As the more a learner masters the fair, and mainly meaningful use of cohesive devices, the more the higher grade he or she gets. Varying between lexical and grammatical ties plays an important role too. In short, cohesion proves its vital position in the overall assessment of learners' written outcomes.

Specific predictions about the use of conjunctions by learners of different levels have been provided by The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) through the scale of coherence and cohesion too. According to (CEFR)'s calculations, learners gain more control over their use of conjunctions as they progress in learning a language. Ergo, the use of conjunctions varies between the different proficiency levels of students; from the common and daily used connectives by inexperienced students, to the less frequent but accurately used conjunctions by experienced students (Carlsen, 2010).

7. Theories to the Study of Discourse Connectives

There have been some different theories of various foundations to investigate the use of conjunctions. For a start, there is Information Structuring or Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST). It is a purely linguistic approach to describing the organisational elements or the methodological constructions of a text (Mann and Thompson, 1988, cited in Prommas, 2011). (RST) is primarily concerned with the study of the different links between the linguistic entities and their functions in achieving meaningful text. Therefore, discourse connectors are given the role of structuring information. Second, there is Contrastive Rhetoric (CR). It is the study of the similarities and the differences between two different languages and how the (MT) influences a person's linguistic idiosyncrasy in L2. In other words, (CR) is concerned with highlighting the cultural and linguistic effect of L1 on L2 discourse. Third on the list is Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA). They are world-wide researches that are empirically based studies on the comparative analysis of the products of learners from different L1s using L2 for communication. This International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) project has been launched in 1990 to provide numerous corpus-based studies (ibid). All in all, whether it is a descriptive linguistic analysis, a differential analytical study, or an empirical approach, the analysis of discourse in general

and conjunctions in particular, surely provides a worth mentioning and practical data for the betterment of language teaching pedagogy.

8. Conjunctions

8.1. Conjunctions: Terminological Sets, Function, and Definition

Throughout literature, conjunctions have taken different terminological sets. For example, the term “text connectives” is used by Kopple (1985) because conjunctions link units of discourse together. Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen (1993) label them as “textual markers”, as they assist in the organisation of text; whereas, Hyland (2005) refers to words such as first and second as “frame markers”; as they are of a sequential nature (cited in Abdelreheim, 2014: 23). For this study, the term ‘conjunctions’, ‘connectives’ or ‘connectors’ will be mostly used to refer to the same matter. If other terms are used are of specification means; such as using the terms coordinating or subordinating. In spite of the different labels, ‘conjunctions’ are still a part of speech with their proper function.

As the name suggests, conjunctions are used to link between different proportions of discourse. Etymologically speaking, the word conjunction is derived from the Latin word “Conjungere” which means to join together (Fernerld, 1904:195; Dykes, 2007: 73). This is why; conjunctions are used to link elements, “mainly clauses”, together into one sentence (Jackson, 2005: 18). A detailed definition of conjunctions is taken from Halliday’s and Hassan’s work (1976), for they explain that conjunctions are of semantic relation that does not need a search party to determine the link or the kind of the relationship it demonstrate, like in ellipsis or reference. This is why; Carter and McCarthy (2006) define conjunctions as elements used to indicate the presence of logical relation between words, phrases, clauses and sentences (cited in Neary-Sundquist, 2013). Conjunctions are a type of semantic relationship that allows segments of the text to systematically connect to each other in meaning (Abadiano 1995).

Unlike the rest of the parts of grammatical cohesive devices, conjunctions are not used to remind the reader of previously mentioned entities. They are used to link words, phrases, sentences, or even paragraphs – in case a conjunctive element is used at the beginning of a paragraph in an essay. They “do not signal information present in the text, [..., but they indicate] the way the writer wants the reader to relate what is about to be said to what has been said before” (Baker, 1991:190, cited in Bechoua, 2012: 80). In the same

respect, Halliday and Hassan (1976) state that one of the characteristics of a conjunctive element is that it is indirectly cohesive. Because they denote certain relations through certain meanings that reach the preceding or the following parts of the discourse, and signal the presence of its different entities, which creates a certain relationship between the two linked entities (Abdelreheim, 2014). Therefore, a conjunction is an element of a semantic entity and a syntactical property that relates segments of writing or speech together.

8.2. Conjunctions: Different Sub-Categorisations

These relationships have been sorted out into five broad categories: temporal, causal, additive, adversative, and continuative (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). The table below is taken from Abdelreheim's work (2014), as an attempt to summarise Halliday and Hasan's work on the different types of conjunctions. Yet, the table does not contain any further information about the continuative type of conjunctions. Consequently, the researcher has opted to adding this type of conjunctions using the data provided from the canonical work of those authors.

Type of Conjunction	Its Function	Examples
Additive	To add more information to what is already in the sentence.	and, also, furthermore, in addition, besides, that is, in other words, moreover. To indicate comparison: likewise, similarly, in the same way. To indicate dissimilarity: on the other hand, in contrast, alternatively
Adversative	To indicate contrast between information in each clause.	but, however, although, yet, though, only, nevertheless, despite this, on the other hand, instead, on the contrary, anyhow, at any rate
Causal	To indicate causality.	so, then, hence, therefore, consequently, because, for this reason, it follows, on this basis, to this end
Temporal	To indicate time.	then, next, before, after, during, when, at the same time, previously, finally, at last, soon, next day, an hour later, meanwhile, at this moment, first, second, third, in conclusion, up to now
Continuative	To establish other relationships.	Now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all.

Table 2.2.2. Types of Conjunction Based on Halliday and Hasan Classification (1976)

As the table demonstrates, conjunctions are classified into four types. First, conjunctions with an additive meaning may contain words like ‘in addition’ and ‘moreover’. They are used to add further information to the topic. Second, adversative type of conjunctions includes words and expressions such as ‘however’ and ‘despite this’. This type is used to provide contradiction or contrast between the meanings that the clauses carry. ‘Consequently’ and ‘for this reason’ are examples of the third type which is causal conjunctions. As the name suggests these conjunctions involves the explanation of causes and effects. Temporal conjunctions, the fourth type, incorporate words and phrases that create time-related relationships between the linked entities. The last type of conjunctions is referred to as continuative, as it is a combination of miscellaneous types of conjunctions that are used to establish other relationships using words such as ‘well’, and ‘surely’. It is obvious that Halliday's and Hasan's taxonomy of the conjunctions is based on the semantic relationships that a conjunction may produce when linking two entities. But, it should be mentioned that some of these conjunctions may realise more than one category (Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999), like: (yet); it may be temporal, and it may be adversative.

There are other classifications for the types of conjunctions that have been presented by other scholars. For example, Fernald (1904) believes that there are four types of connectives which include: prepositions, conjunctions, relative pronouns and adverbs. While, Salkie suggests four main types of conjunctions: addition, opposition, cause, and time conjunctions (1995: 76, cited in Tangkiengsirisin, 2010). Another example is presented by Titscher, Meyer, Wodak, and Vetter who subdivided conjunctions into subcategories: “conjunctions, disjunctions, contra-junctions, and subordinations” (2000, *ibid*). Words of the ‘conjunctions’ subcategory are used to link sentence structures of the same status, while in ‘disjunctions’, sentence structures with differing status are linked together. In ‘contra-junctions’, sentence structures of mutual status but irreconcilable meaning (like cause and unexpected effect) are linked together. And, in subordinates, dependent and independent clauses are connected (*ibid*). In a more recent publication, Osisanwo (2005, cited in Akindele, 2011) recognises four types of conjunctions: coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, compound adverbs, and continuatives. By compound adverbs, it is meant words such as “furthermore” and “nevertheless”. It is clear that the scholars are torn apart between two main types of sub-categorisations: semantic-base typing and syntactic-based typing.

The current study opts to using Osisanwo categorisation of conjunctions, but with a number of changes in order to implicitly teach conjunctions in writing for third year LMD students. First of all, since continuative conjunctions are more likely to be used in spoken discourse than written one, the study will not investigate this subcategory. Second, the compound adverbs sub-type is enlarged, as the use of linking phrases is introduced to it. Therefore, this last category will be referred to as “adverbials and prepositional phrases”; adverbials for the compound adverbs, and prepositional phrases for the newly introduced part to the category. Examples of these latters include expressions such as: in the same way, the main cause for, on the other hand, in contrast to. In short, this research study is concerned with enhancing students' use of these types of conjunctions only: coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, adverbials and prepositional phrases.

8.3. Conjunctions: Internal and External Levels

The conjunctive relations are achieved through an external or an internal level. By the external level of relations, it is meant that the language is used to talk about, unlike the internal level; where language is used for a communicative purpose only. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), the levels may extend and inter-relate, as the internal level is the extension of the external one. i.e., a person cannot react to something that is not there, as if it is a matter of stimulus and response. Martin and Rose provide a classification of the conjunctions based on the level they communicate, and the table below is taken from their work, for a more details, the readers should consult the original source (2007, cited in Tsareva, 2010: 30).

External conjunction			Internal conjunction		
addition	addition	and, besides	addition	additive	further
	alternation	or, if not-then		alternative	alternatively
comparison	similarity	like, as if	comparison	similar	for instance
	contrast	but, whereas		different	in contrast
time	successive	then, after	time	successive	firstly, finally
	simultaneous	while		simultaneous	at the same time
consequence	cause	so, because	consequence	concluding	therefore, in conclusion, thus
	means	by, thus			countering
	purpose	in order to			
	condition	if, unless			

Table 2.2.3. Martin and Rose’s Classification of Conjunctions Based on their Levels

8.4. Conjunctions: Punctuation and Types of Sentences

Before explaining how to use punctuation when using conjunctions, differentiating between a clause, a phrase, a sentence and its various types is a must. A common knowledge about what are these three is presented next. A sentence is a complete message made of several units, although it is mainly divided into two parts a subject and a predicate. A clause is a part of the sentence which takes only one finite verb, a noun or pronoun (Field, 2009); whereas, a phrase is is group of relative words without a finite verb that form a part of sentence. A sentence can be: simple, compound, complex or compound complex sentence. A simple sentence is a sentence that communicates one single idea (message) and does not contain any kind of conjunctions; consequently, it has only one clause and one finite verb. A compound sentence is a combination of two independent sentences linked by a coordinating conjunction (such as: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so), or separated by a comma. A complex sentence is a combination of at least one main clause (independent clause) and a subordinate clause (dependent clause). The subordinate is a clause that cannot stand alone as a sentence and begins with a conjunction (Macmillan, and McGraw-Hill, 2007). It may be placed before, after or inside the main clause. A sentence which has at least two main clauses, and at least one subordinate clause is compound complex sentence. To better illustrate the definitions, the following list of items is suggested.

- (a) James is a fast track racer.
- (b) James is track racer, but Amy is a cheerleader.
- (c) Don was sick; he did not come to work yesterday.
- (d) After he had finished, he arrived.
- (e) Johnny was very furious because of the incident, and he did not speak to me for over two weeks.

Item (a) presents how a simple sentence looks like; it starts with a capital letter and finishes with a full stop. Its subject is the noun (James), while the predicate is (is a fast track racer). The clause in this example is the same as the predicate; whereas, the phrase for this item is (a fast track racer). Item (b) is an example of a compound sentence that is linked with the coordinating conjunction (but). Notice that before a coordinating conjunction, a person is required to put a comma (,) to prevent misunderstanding it. Item (c) is an example of a compound sentence that is linked through using a semicolon only. An example of a complex sentence is presented in item (d). The subordinate is (after he

had finished); whereas, (he arrived) is the main clause. A compound, complex sentence is demonstrated in item (e). (Johnny was very furious) is the main clause, (because of the incident) is the subordinate, and that is the complex part of the sentence. The compound part of the sentence is present in (and he did not speak to me for over two weeks). The whole clauses put together constitute the compound, complex sentence.

Punctuation is an important ingredient in the proper use of conjunctions, as not to mislead the reader, or to create a run-on sentence. This latter “is two (or more) sentences incorrectly written as a single sentence” (Umstatter , 2010: 74). The table below explains the proper use of conjunctions in a sentence; with the right punctuation and in different placements in the sentence.

Type of Conjunction	Punctuation and Sentence Placement
Coordinating conjunctions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Main clause, (coordinating conjunctions) the rest of the sentence. ▪ Coordinating conjunction, the rest of the sentence.
Subordinating Conjunctions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Main clause; subordinating conjunction, subordinate. ▪ Subordinating conjunction, subordinate, main clause.
Adverbial conjunctions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sentence (1); adverbial conjunction, sentence (2). ▪ Adverbial conjunctions, sentence.
Prepositional phrases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Prepositional phrase, the rest of the sentence.

Table 2.2.4. The Type of Conjunction, Its Placement in the Sentence, and the Proper Punctuation.

CONCLUSION

Learners are in a desperate need to learn, and be aware of the different properties of the English text in order to be able to develop an adequate one. Without the proper knowledge of the cohesive devices, students' writings will be inconclusive. It is true that to become a competent member of the discourse community, students must learn to go beyond the words and sentence's boundaries (Kang, 2005, cited in Na, 2011). Yet, this would be elusive, if they could not manage to internalise the language grammar, its linguistic forms and cohesive devices including the proper use of conjunctions. Because the functions of conjunctions' vary, it may be used to provide an additional fact or a specific idea, to demonstrate concession in an argument, to display a causal relationship between elements, to express a contrast relation in facts, and to conclude or to summarise different data (Bechoua, 2012). Not to forget to mention that each type of conjunction demands a different grammatical structure and punctuation when used. Therefore, the conjunctions are not just a mere collection of text-fillers, but functional words and phrases that carry meaning and provide link and organisation to the textual entities which grant coherence when used properly. Thus, they should be taught in context where the semantic and grammatical relations are clearly demonstrated and explained.

CHAPTER THREE

PART ONE: THIRD YEAR LMD STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

INTRODUCTION

This part of the present study aims at providing a thorough descriptive background about the participants who are the same as the subjects of the quasi-experimental design. It specifically investigates their present situation in writing, their perceptions and attitudes towards several cooperative group learning issues that they may have come across with during their studies of English at Biskra University. To add more credibility to this investigation, a preliminary version of the questionnaire is first presented to a pilot group. Consequently, this chapter describes the different procedures used to conduct the preliminary and the final questionnaire. It also includes a description of the two versions of the questionnaire, data analysis and results interpretation; as well as, the statistical procedures.

1. Aim of the Students' Questionnaire

The current questionnaire aims at: acquiring an accurate data, providing a thorough picture of the subjects' attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions of the elements of the study; as well as, building a background about their present proficiency level in writing in English. The questionnaire has been chosen as one of the data-gathering tool for this research because it generates a large scale study with a consistent and comparative database and items.

2. Description of the Population and the Sample

The population of this study consists of a total of 365 students, whose first language, in most cases – if not Chawi or Amazigh- is Arabic and their Second Language is French. The participants come from various geographical regions in Algeria, and of different genders. They are divided into two sections. Since it is difficult to deal with the whole number of the population, the sample consists of two groups randomly selected.

Each group consists of almost 35 students who represent the whole population of third year learners, and a third group is used to pilot the study.

3. The Pilot Questionnaire: Description and Some Inconveniences

In an attempt to assure the reliability of the findings and amplify the sounding credibility of the gathered results, two versions of the questionnaire were constructed; a pilot and a final version of the questionnaire. The preliminary questionnaire has been administered to 20 students from the pilot quasi-experiment group, as a small scale trial version of the final questionnaire. But, only 10 out of 20 students handed it back fully answered. In March, 7th, 2016, the pilot questionnaire was distributed to participants at the end of their second class period from the quasi-experiment sessions, and it took them from 10 to 15 minutes to read and answer the questions. During the answering period, participants were highly encouraged to ask for any further explanations about any ambiguities they may come across; for instance, they claim that question (06) in the third section needs a third option that stands for ‘a between- answer’; it depends on the group whom they are working with. Further enquiries and answers were later on used as a database to verify the wording, change or omit some question items.

The study opts to scrutinise the style, the redundancy or ambiguity of questions to provide a more suitable, and well-structured format for the last version of the questionnaire. The pilot questionnaire revealed that most students have no attempt to fill in the semi-structured questions; an example of these questions is the students’ explanation of their own preference in writing whether it is in groups, pairs or alone. Students’ enquiries showed that question (05) from the third section and question (07) from the same section, about the difficulties and the advantages of working in groups, are almost identical for the participants, so they had to be rephrased into multiple-choice questions for further clarification of the task. Most, if not all, students exhibit troubles with question (10) from the third section which is about what do they associate with the concept “Cooperative Group Work”; therefore, it had to be removed. Except from the mentioned inconveniences in the first version of the questionnaire, the students agreed that the question items are easy to be handled and to be answered. Because the primary objective of this pilot questionnaire is to check the comprehensibility of its instructions, strengthen its structure and content, a couple of changes were considered in re-structuring the final version.

4. The Preliminary Questionnaire: Analysis and Discussion of the Results

In this part, an analysis and a discussion of the results of the pilot questionnaire (appendix 1) is presented. It should be noted that not all the questions that were presented in the first version are presented in this part, i.e., the questions that the study opt to changing them after conducting the pilot study are the only ones discussed below.

4.1. Section Two: Writing Skill and Sub-skills

Q11) – Whatever your answer is, please, explain why?

In question (10) students were asked to choose their preference when writing; individually, in pairs, or in small-groups. And, in question (11) they were asked to provide the study with reasons that explains this preference. These are some of the collected answers.

Preference	Examples of the Presented Reasons	Frequency
Individually	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- I will get the chance to focus more on my work and ideas.- I can manage my ideas and product easily when I work alone.- I benefit more and in a fast way than when I work with others.- I like to work on my own because I will produce a work that is only mine, it has my ideas and topic, my wrongs and my rights with nobody interrupting me, or telling me what to write or what not to write.	6/10
In pairs	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- When discussing with one partner only, we exchange ideas, and pieces of information. We also help each other with the vocabulary, and grammar mistakes.- With one partner, we can easily spot the mistakes, and manage to correct each other's work through our one-to-one discussion.	2/10
In small-groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- When we write in small-groups, we exchange ideas, gather more pieces of information, and correct our mistakes.	2/10

Table 3.1.1. Students' Justifications of Their Preferences in Writing

The table presents some of the students' justifications of their choice in writing, and the frequency of each of their preferences. Most of students have chosen to write individually (6/10) because when they do, it gives them an opportunity to self-assess themselves, while providing a product that it is theirs and theirs alone; no extraneous involvement from the others. An equal percentage of (2/10) for each of: working in pairs or in small-groups. Students provided reasons that explain their choice that involves the nature of each of the two choices. For example, when working in pairs, students seem to think of the manageable aspect of this kind of learning interaction, as they can share and correct each other through meaningful, easy-managed discussions. Whereas, for some, writing in small-groups is a treat; as they exchange numerous ideas, and correct each other's mistakes too. Using these three main ideas, three responses were arranged to communicate each one of them in the final version of the questionnaire.

4.2. Section Two: Cooperative Group at Work

Q3) – In your opinion, what are the benefits of working in groups?

In this question, students were asked to provide examples of what they may think of as benefits for working in small-groups. From the gathered responses, the study collected these:

- Working in groups allows us to discuss important things, improve our language, as we can remember vocabulary that we may use in exams or in essays, or even pay attention to things that could occur in future writings or occasions.
- Exchanging ideas, and new pieces of information, discovering new words and expressions. Concerning the conjunctions and the adverbs, I distinguished between them today only, thanks to my team mates.
- We can only benefit from group work when the members' minds are set on working, and they are intelligent and interested in working with each others.
- Through group work we can know how others think, exchange ideas and new language elements, while correcting each others' mistakes and discussing our activity at the same time.
- I feel less anxious when I am working in groups with my friends.
- I participate even more in the classroom when I work with my teammates because I have confidence in what we achieved together.

According to the provided answers, most of the students seem to be interested in the academic benefits that group work establishes for them. This is why, most of their answers include: language development elements; such as: acquiring new vocabulary set, or exchanging new ideas. Other benefits include social-affective learning and personality development. The social-affective learning element in CL activities includes creating a pleasant learning environment that is anxiety-free. While, personality development includes working on enhancing self-esteem and courage, as working with friends boost one's participation in the classroom.

Since most of the students did not answer the unstructured questions, including this one, the need for altering it to fit the structured version is a must. From the gathered data, the study opts to categorise the benefits of working in cooperative groups into three categories: academic achievement, social-affective learning and personality development. Further explanations of each category are provided in the questionnaire to ease on the process of answering and understanding the questions for the students. Such explanations include: learning new vocabulary, expressions, and ideas to refer to the academic achievement.

Q5) – What are the difficulties that you usually face or you may have faced already?

In this question, students were asked to provide examples of the difficulties and challenges that they may have encountered in their cooperative group work activities. Some of their answers are found below.

- When we have to write about a topic, and I want to use an idea or an example, others ignore it or disapprove. Then, they will propose other ideas that are not always good.
- We always disagree about the organisation of ideas. Although we do not have that much time, team members try to show that their contribution is the best when it is not.
- In my experience, difficulties rise when we do not understand the task. Then, when we ask the teachers for their help, but she or he does not add much.
- We disagree about the ideas, or others like to work on their own.
- Some members of the group count on each other to fully answering the task for them. So, either I do the whole work on my own, or I do not at all.

According to the gathered responses, students mostly disagree with their teammates about the quality of the work they produce as a group. In spite of the heated arguments about what goes in or off the final written product, some students wrote about some of the disruptive behaviours they encountered when working in cooperative groups like: belittling the contribution of some members, refusing to contribute to the work, or working on their own. For that reason, the structured responses for this question includes: (a) I do all the work by myself because others refuse to work. (b) I do not agree with my teammates about the work. (c) My teammates do not appreciate my contributions.

Q7) – What are the disadvantages of working in group that you may think of?

Again, students were asked to provide examples of disadvantages of working in cooperative group. Some of their answers include the following ideas.

- Sometimes, members produce a lot of noise because of their unfruitful discussions with each other.
- The delegate of the group (the leader) may retain the answers.
- Members may start discussing unrelated matters and forget about the task, so I have to do the work on my own.
- When there is no harmony between the members of the group, a lot of time is wasted, and we do not have a lot of time to work together.
- If one group member does not want to work, he or she may influence the rest negatively, and everybody stops working, and start wasting time instead.

According to the provided answers, two main types of answers keep on coming back to the surface, summarising the gathered answers: management problems, and uncooperative group members. The management problems include the time constraints and the noisy atmosphere, while the issues about the uncooperative group members involve various destructive behaviours of retaining answers, working alone, or speaking out of the subject.

All in all, thanks to the results of the pilot questionnaire, some considerable changes were introduced in the construction of the final version. These changes include mainly the type of questionnaire and the questions asked. Through the analysis of the data gathered by the preliminary version, the results were used to build a background and a referential database to the new questions. As those results has been used to form the new

questions (Multiple Choice Questions). For that reason, the type of the questionnaire has been changed from semi-structured to structured questionnaire.

5. Description of Students' Final Questionnaire

The final questionnaire (appendix 2) consists of three sections (personal information, writing skill and sub-skills, and cooperative groups at work) with a total of twenty-five (25) close – ended questions. The question items ranged from using: Likert scale, Yes or No questions to Rank Order Items. Personal information section aims to identify the participant's gender and age in order to build a referential background about the subjects. Writing skill and sub-skills section provides essential answers that are linked to the person's level, opinions about writing in cooperative groups, his or her preferences and perceptions of the used materials and manner of teaching the linking words and phrases. i.e. this part also provides a boost element to the quasi- experiment. The last section, cooperative groups at work, aims to determine students' attitudes, beliefs, and preferences about working in cooperative groups in general and the (STAD) technique in particular.

Personal information section has two questions only. It mainly represents students' personal profile; therefore, it seeks their gender and age. Writing skill and sub-skills section contains 11 questions in it. It states the general attitudes of students towards writing in English, alone or with different partners, and other issues related to the present theme of study and the quasi-experimental design. Section three, cooperative groups at work section, includes 12 questions that investigate group-related matters; for instance: the degree of motivation for learners when working with others, their perception of the benefits, difficulties and disadvantages of working in cooperative groups. Moreover, the kind of difficulties that they faced, and their attitudes towards leadership within one team is taken in consideration.

6. Administring the Students' Questionnaire

As in the quasi-experiment sessions, the main problem while administering the questionnaire was the absence of many students; which prevented the researcher from collecting as many answers as possible. Each group received the questionnaire papers at the end of the second, and final written expression class when preparing the quasi –

experiment. Except for the pilot group, they have received it twice; once with the pilot questionnaire and second in their theme and versions session which was a week after the conduct of the quasi-experiment. The pilot group consists of 12 subjects (30%) from the whole sample. It should be mentioned that the questionnaire was only given to those who have attended both sessions of the quasi-experimental design.

7. The Student’s Questionnaire Results: Analysis and Interpretation

A process of analysing and interpreting the findings is to be conducted after having collected the responses of the participants. The collected data are communicated through different tables and charts using the SPSS software. The interpretation of findings aims mainly to determine students’ attitudes towards the use of Student Teams – Achievement Divisions technique in the implicit teaching of the use of conjunctions, and gauge the extent to which learners of English at Mohamed Kheider University are ready to be taught using this technique. So, here are the findings.

7.1. Section One: Personal Information

1. Gender Distribution

Choice	Male	Female
Participants	06	34
Percentage	15%	85%

Table 3.1.2. Students’ Gender Distribution

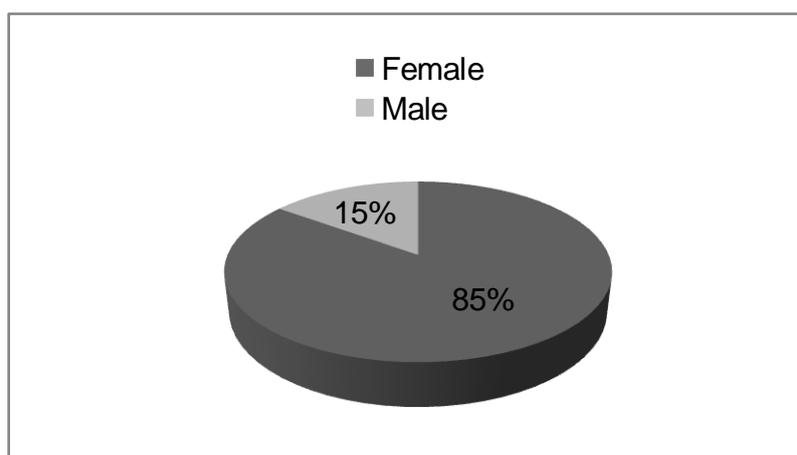


Figure 3.1.1. Students’ Gender Distribution

The table and the pie-chart demonstrate that the majority of learners are females. Out of 40 participants, only 06 (15%) are males and 34 (85%) are females.

2. Age Distribution

Response	21 – 25	26 - 30	31 - 35	36 - 40	41 - 45	46- 50
Participants	39	00	00	00	1	00
Percentage	97.5%	00%	00%	00%	2.5%	00%

Table 3.1.3. Students' Age Distribution

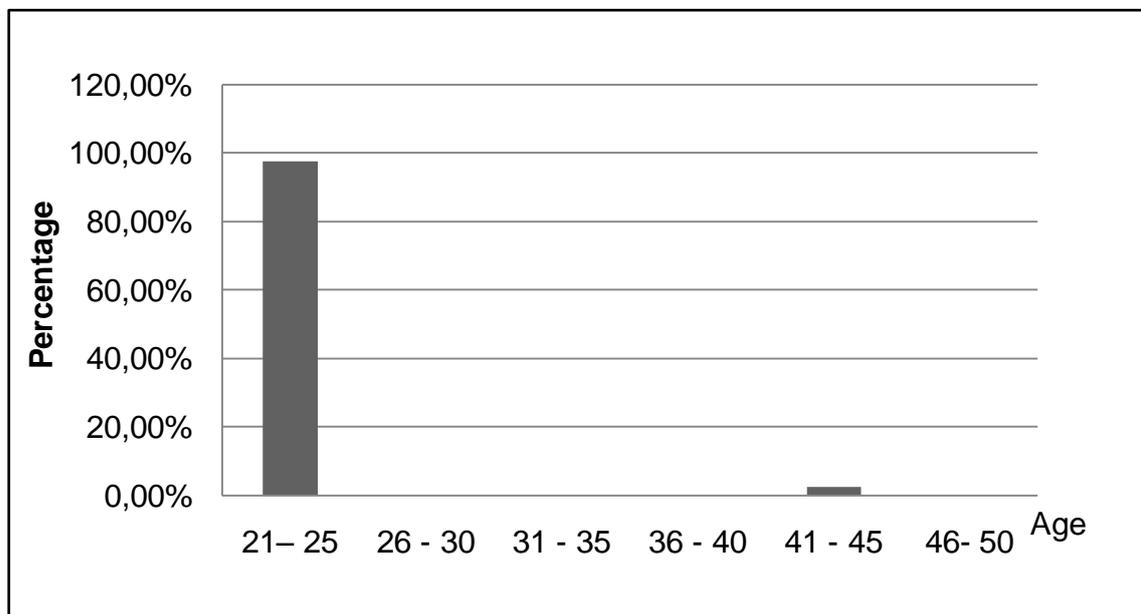


Figure 3.1.2. Students' Age Distribution

The table and the graph demonstrate that the participants' age ranges between 21 and 25 years. This indicates their youth, homogeneity, and the similar learning experience that is shared between the subjects of the sample in particular and the population in whole.

7.2. Section Two: Writing Skill and Sub-skills

1. Do you like writing in English?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	28	70 %
Somehow	12	30 %
No	00	00 %
Total	40	100 %

Table 3.1.4. Student's Attitude towards Writing in English

The results that are found in the table above demonstrate that most of students (70%) have the desire to write in English which is a sign for a good start for teachers of written expression that can be used when teaching the subjects in other further occasions. (30 %) out of the sample have chosen somehow, and none have chosen no.

2. How do you evaluate your level in writing in English?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Good	9	22.5	2.20
Average	30	75	
Bad	1	2.5	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.5. Students' Personal Evaluation of their Writing Level in English

In spite of the fact that the subjects of the study are in their third year, the data gathered into the above table show that most of the students (75%) rate their level in writing in English as average; whereas, only (22.5%) from the whole sample rate it as good, and only one subject, which equals (2.5%), rate it as bad.

3. Do you think that learning to write is

- a. Very important.
- b. Important.
- c. Not important.

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Very important	31	77,5	2,775
Important	9	22,5	
Not important	0	0	
Total	40	100,0	

Table 3.1.6. Students' Perception about the Importance of Learning to Write

Thirty-one (31) students out of 40 have rated the importance of learning to write as very important, and another 9 subjects rated it as important, while none have gauged it as not important. This means that students are highly aware of the importance of learning to write in a foreign language.

4. Which step do you find hard in writing a paragraph?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage
a. Gathering and selecting ideas and topics.	19	47,5 %
b. Linking and moving from one idea to another.	19	47,5 %
c. Editing and revising your work.	02	05 %

Table 3.1.7. Students' Choice of Most Challenging Step in Writing a Paragraph

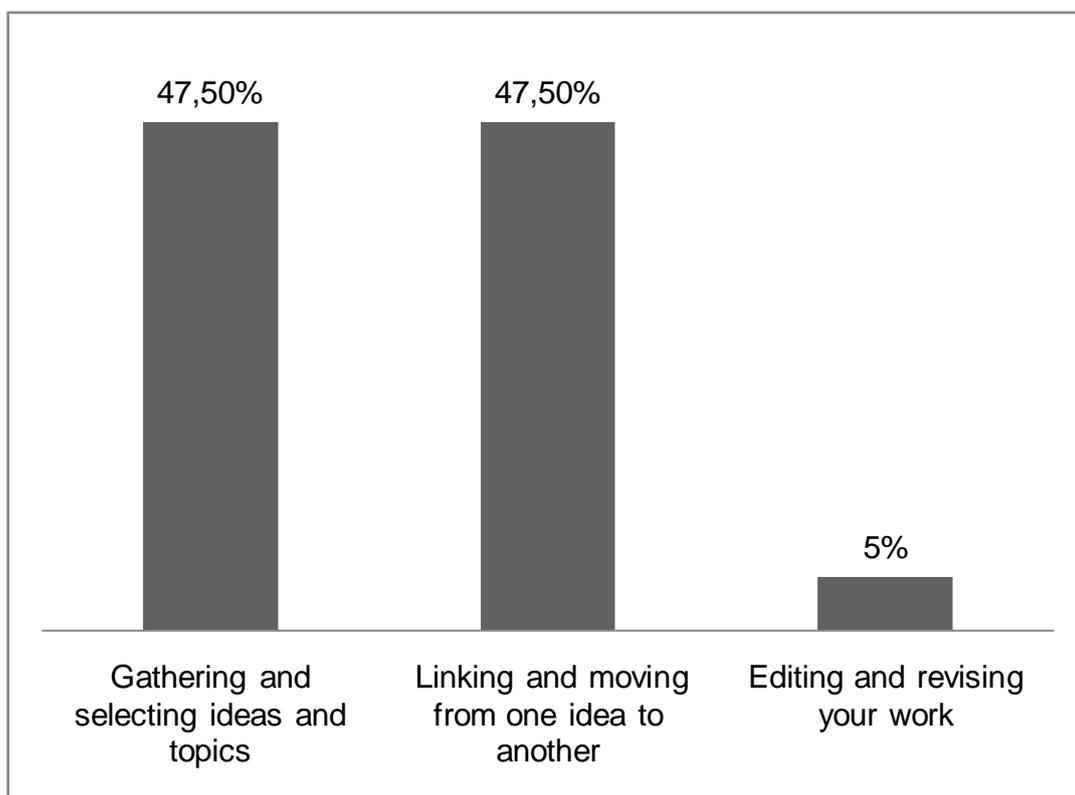


Figure 3.1.3. Students' Choice of Most Challenging Step in Writing a Paragraph

This question works as a Needs Analysis (NA) part in this study, and probably other future studies in order to help learners overcome their problems in writing. The graph and the table above indicate that learners find the first and second choices – gathering and selecting ideas and topics with linking and moving from one idea to another- equally (47.5%) challenging aspects when trying to produce any written production in English. Probably, they chose gathering and selecting ideas and topics because students lack reading skills and habits, but this is still just a mere claim that needs further explanations and investigations.

5. Do you think that using properly the linking words and phrases in writing is
- Very important.
 - Important.
 - Not important.

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Very important	28	70 %	2.75
Important	11	27.5 %	
Not important at all	1	2.5 %	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.8. Student's Awareness of the Importance of Linking Words and Phrases

The majority of students (70%) reported that they think that using properly the linking words and phrases in writing is very important, other (27.5 %) of the sample stated that it is important and only (2.5%) , which equals one subject only, reported it as not important at all. This means that students are highly aware of the importance of properly using the linking words and phrases when producing their written productions.

6. How did you find learning about the linking words and phrases using the cooperative groups?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Very easy	04	10	3.50
Easy	14	35	
In between	20	50	
Difficult	02	05	
Very Difficult	00	00	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.9. Description of Students' Attitudes towards Learning about Linking Words and Phrases in Cooperative Groups

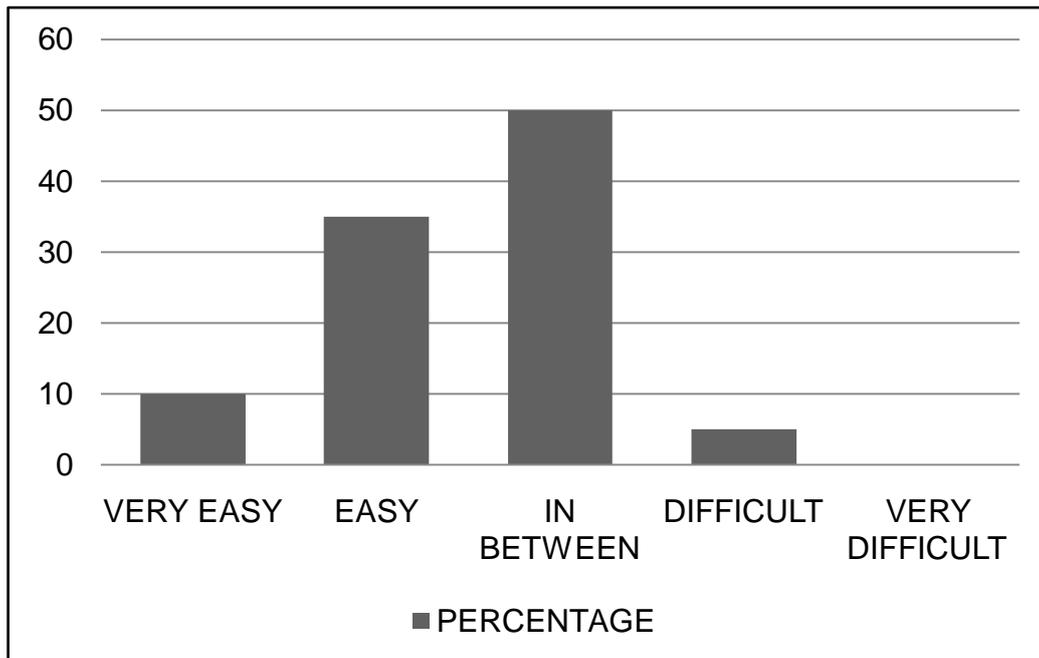


Figure 3.1.4. Description of Students' Attitudes towards Learning about Linking Words and Phrases in Cooperative Groups

In spite of the considerably large frequency (20 out of 40) that the table demonstrates in the 3rd choice of answers, the mean ranges between 3.40 to 4.19 which suggests that overall, students find that learning about the linking words and phrases through the use of cooperative groups in general, and in this case the Student Teams – Achievement Divisions technique in particular, to be easy.

7. How did you find learning about the linking words and phrases through texts?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Very easy	3	7.5	3.50
Easy	17	42.5	
In between	17	42.5	
Difficult	3	7.5	
Very difficult	00	00	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.10. Description of Students' Attitudes towards Learning through Texts

This question is asked to determine the students' attitudes, and how they find the process of being taught using the implicit teaching method of linking words and phrases. The results report an equal amount of answers (42.5%) to being easy and of medium difficulty. Apart from this, referring to the mean which ranges between (3.40) and (4.19), the supremacy of the second choice (easy) takes over.

8. How would you evaluate the texts used?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Very easy	04	10	3.45
Easy	12	30	
In between	22	55	
Difficult	02	05	
Very difficult	00	00	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.11. Students' Evaluation of the Used Texts

The table records that the students, mostly (55%), evaluate the used texts in the quasi-experiment as being of a medium difficulty which may be considered as inconclusive for some. Therefore, the mean from the same table demonstrates that the second response (easy) prevails over most of the answers. It should be noted that the texts used in the quasi-experiment were designed to fit the advanced learners of English.

9. Which linking words and phrases you find hard to use properly?

- a. Coordinating conjunctions (FANBOYS).
- b. Subordinating conjunctions (Although...).
- c. Adverbials and prepositional phrases (For instance...).

Students were asked to indicate their priorities using numbers. Number one is for the highest priority, while number two and three are for the second and third highest priorities. The forthcoming table and the bar chart demonstrate and explain the gathered results.

	First Priority		Second Priority		Third Priority	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Coordinating Conjunctions	10	25	01	02.50	29	72.50
Subordinating Conjunctions	15	37.5	23	57.5	02	05
Adverbials and Prepositional Phrases	15	37.5	16	40	09	22.50
Total	40	100	40	100	40	100

Table 3.1.12. Students' Ranking Priority of the Challenging Types of Linking Words and Phrases to Be Used

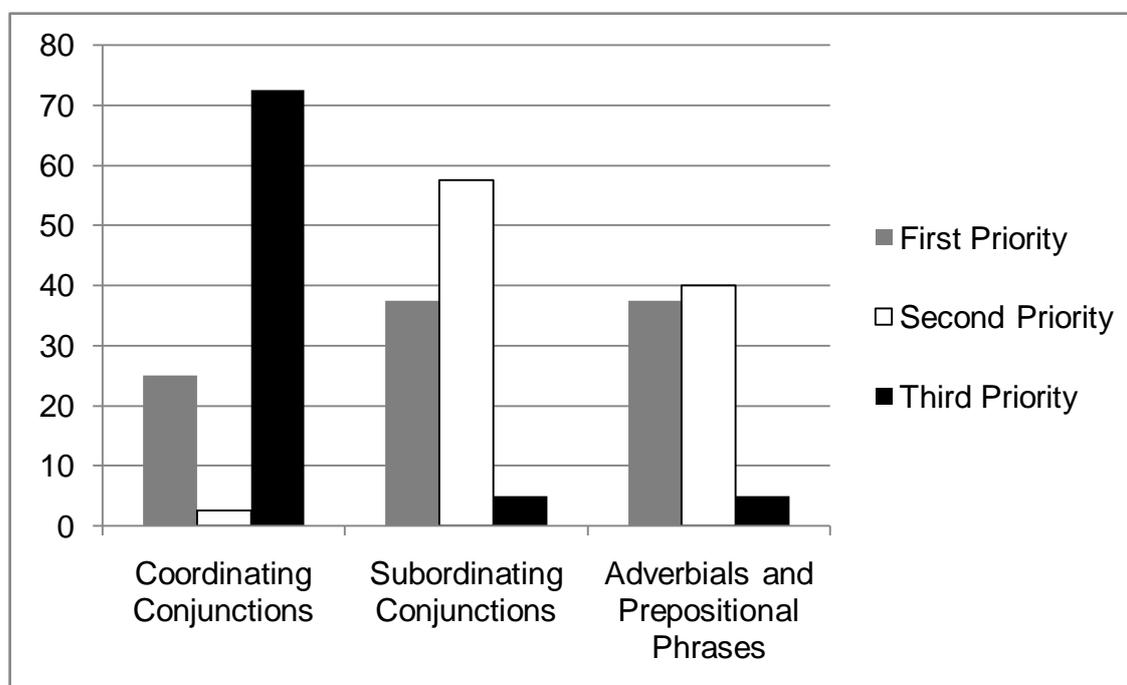


Figure 3.1.5. Students' Ranking Priority of the Challenging Types of Linking Words and Phrases to Be Used

Subordinating conjunctions and adverbials and prepositional phrases seem to equally share the amount of the difficulty (15 out of 40), as the subjects of the study indicated these two types of conjunctions as their first priority. These ratings are probably due to students' lack of understanding for the type of grammatical complexity of the sentence that these types of conjunctions need. Second priority in the collected data stands as a clear cut between the two types of conjunctions, as the students rated that the use of subordinating conjunctions as the most challenging one (57.5%) followed by Adverbial

and prepositional phrases with a (40%) percentage. The students agree that the coordinating conjunctions are the last of their worries (72.5%), as they rated it in the third priorities.

10. Do you like to write
 - a. Individually.
 - b. In pairs.
 - c. In small-groups (2-4)?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage
Individually	27	67.50
In pairs	08	20
In small groups	05	12.50

Table 3.1.13. Students' Preference When Writing

A percentage of (67.5%) of students have chosen to work individually; whereas, (20%) of them chose to work in pairs. While working in small groups, that ranges from 2 to 4 members, got only (12.5%) percentage from the whole sample. This data fits Igel's and Urquhart's (2012) description of the generation Z who are considered to be of higher IQ, more autonomous, but they are not team players. Therefore, the (STAD) technique is the best fit for them because they will get the chance to provide their individual work while working with small groups at the same time.

11. Whatever your answer is, please, explain why?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage
I like to work and think on my own.	27	67.50
I like to discuss with one partner only.	08	20
I like to have many ideas as possible.	05	12.50

Table 3.1.14. Students' Explanation of Their Preference When Writing

As it was previously mentioned, this question was re-structured using the data collected from the pilot questionnaire. The results of the above table express the reasons

behind students' choice in question (10); this is why they fit exactly the numbers found in it, i.e. the supremacy of individual work (27 out of 40) is because of their wants for generating ideas when writing in a peaceful environment that provides them with self-assessment. The second most chosen response is to work in pairs (08 out 40) because they can manage to discuss – again, peacefully- with one partner only. The third option (05/40) is working in small groups which allow them to generate as many ideas and new learning matters as possible it can be.

7.3. Section Three: Cooperative Groups at Work

1. Do you feel motivated when working with others?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Yes	18	45	2.35
Somehow	18	45	
No	04	10	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.15. Students' Levels of Motivation When Working with Others

This question is asked to determine students' motivational levels when working with others. The table above register equal percentage (45%) of positive and medium levels' of answers. Only (10%) of the members has expressed negative answers to this question. Therefore, the students are mostly motivated when working with others in groups.

2. How much do you think you benefit from others when working in groups?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
A lot	19	47.5	2.475
A little	21	52.5	
Nothing	00	00	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.16. Students' Rating Levels of Benefits When Working with Others

The collected data have reported that a total of twenty-one (21) students have gauged their benefits from others, when working in groups, as being little. Whereas, nineteen (19) out of (40) believe that they benefit from others a lot, and nobody from the whole sample chose the negative end of this question. As the mean (2.475) of this data suggests, the majority of the subjects' answers fall into the first box (a lot) which means that overall the scale of benefit in small groups is high and students are aware of the advantages that they draw from working with others in cooperative groups.

3. In your opinion, what are the benefits of working in groups?

Students were asked to indicate their priorities using numbers. Number one is for the highest priority, while number two and three are for the second and third highest priorities. The table and the bar chart below demonstrate and explain the gathered results.

	First Priority		Second Priority		Third Priority	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Academic Achievement	18	45	09	22.5	13	32.5
Social-Affective Learning	11	27.5	19	47.5	10	25
Personality Development	11	27.5	12	30	17	42.5
Total	40	100	40	100	40	100

Table 3.1.17. Students' Ratings of the Benefits of Working in Cooperative Groups

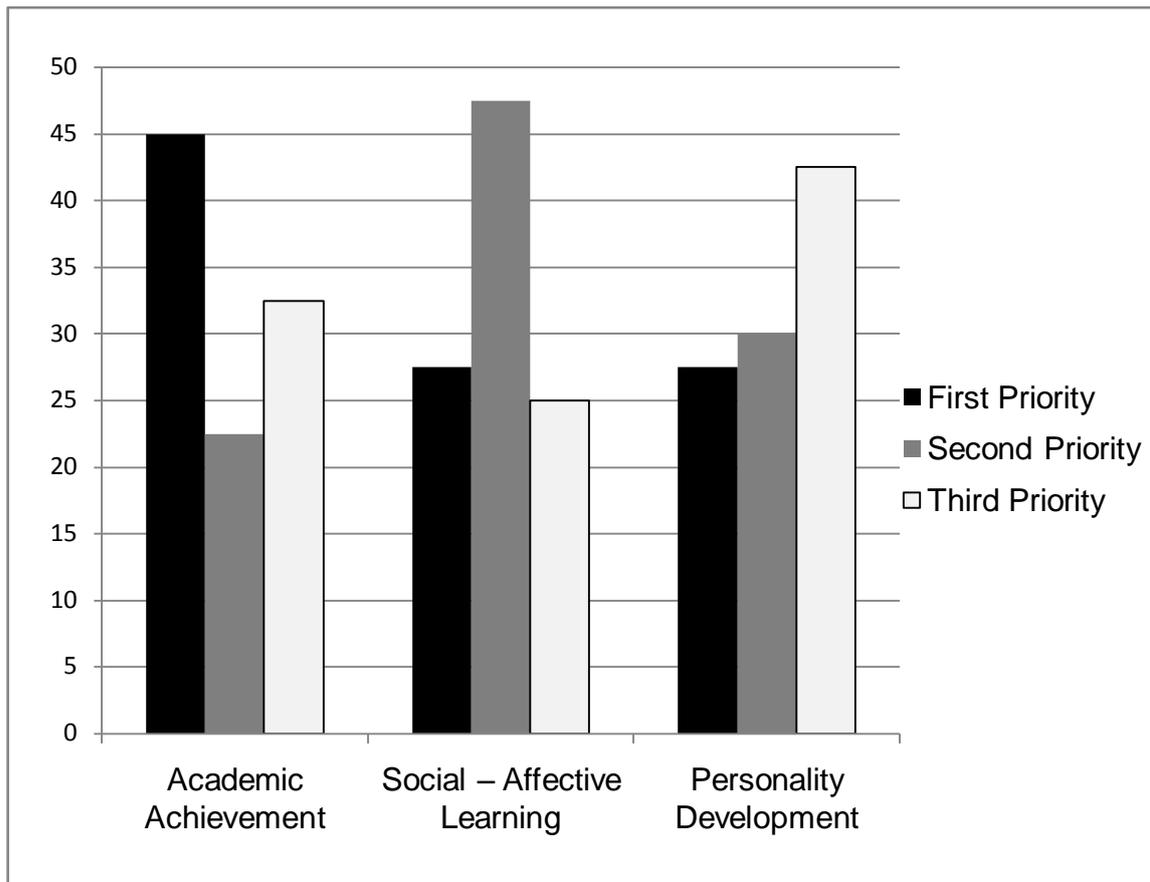


Figure 3.1.6. Students' Ratings of the Benefits of Working in Cooperative Groups

As a first priority, Academic achievement seems to receive the finest share (45%) of the amount of benefit in the subjects' perspective; whereas, social-affective learning and personality development share an equal amounts of (27.5%). Social-Affective learning as a second priority has rocketed to (47.5%), followed by a (30%) personality development and (22.5%) for academic achievement. The students agree that personality development should be the third priority, as it received (42.5%), followed by (32.5%) for academic achievement and a (25%) for social-affective learning. The gathered results demonstrate that students focus more on their academic achievement through assessing their knowledge and developing their language skills. Moreover, their perception of cooperative group work is that it provides a non-threatening, language free learning environment for them.

4. How often do you face difficulties when working in pairs or in groups?

Response	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Always	4	10	3.20
Very often	6	15	
Sometimes	25	62.5	
Rarely	4	10	
Never	1	2.5	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.18. Students' Frequency of Facing Difficulties When Working with Others

A large portion of the students' responses to this question (62.5%) reports that sometimes they face difficulties when working in pairs or in groups. Fifteen per cent (15%) say it is very often that they face difficulties, and (10%) claim it is always. A much positive parts claim it is rarely by (10%), while only (2.5%) chose never which equals one subject from the whole sample. The mean for this question reveals that most of the students' answers fall into the 3rd box which means that; a 50% chance of troubles' occurrence when working in groups.

5. What are the difficulties that you usually face or you may have faced already?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage
I do all the work by myself because others refuse to work.	14	35
I do not agree with my team mates about the work.	19	47.5
My teammates do not appreciate my contribution.	07	17.5
Total	40	100

Table 3.1.19. Students Most Faced Difficulties

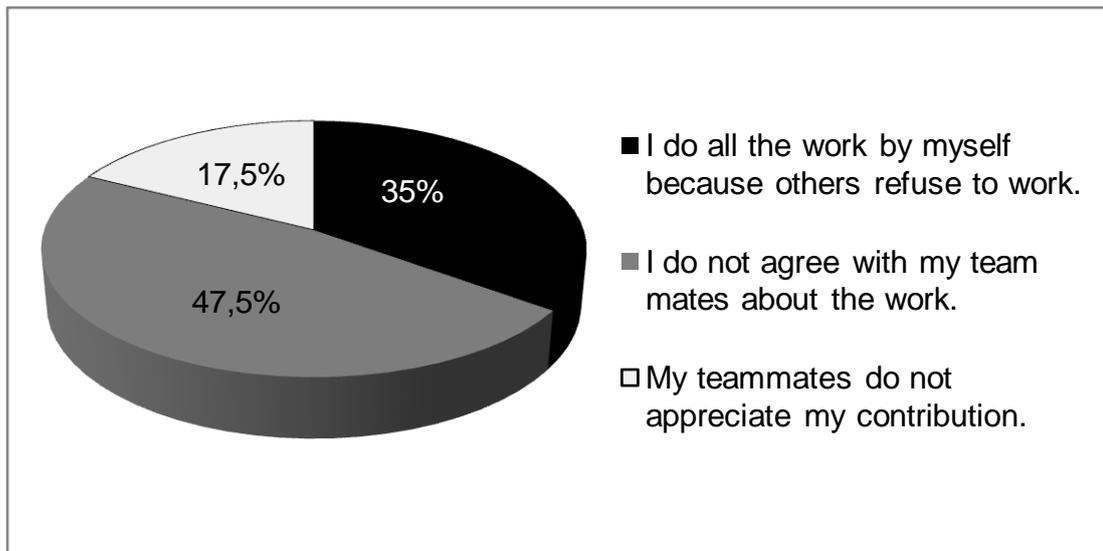


Figure 3.1.7. Students Most Faced Difficulties

This question too has been changed using the collected data from the pilot questionnaire. The given choices are designed to fit 3 different levels of students: high achievers', mediums', and low achievers' common problems. The table records the highest percentage (47.5%) for the second choice which is disagreeing with the group members about the work. The second choice about doing most of the work received (35%), and at last getting no appreciation for the individual work received (17.5%). These results resembles to the ones found in the previous question which explains why most students have troubles getting along with their team mates, probably, due to their ignorance of the cooperative group work elements; positive interdependence and individual accountability.

6. Do you think that there are disadvantages of working in cooperative groups?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Yes	08	20	2.15
Sometimes	30	75	
No	02	05	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.20. Students' Perception of the Disadvantages of Working in Cooperative Groups

A high percentage of (75%) is recorded for the second choice, a second high percentage of (20%) is for the first answer, and at last (5%) is recorded for the third answer. Since, a medium frequency has got the highest percentage in the table, it is obvious that it is a matter of 50% chance that the disadvantages and the difficulties of working in groups happen. Therefore, students are somehow aware of their needs of working their differences for the sake of their team's success.

7. What are the disadvantages of working in group that you may think of?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage
Too much noise and little time to work.	27	67.5
Uncooperative group members.	13	32.5

Table 3.1.21. Students' Thoughts of the Disadvantages of Working in Group

This question is asked to determine the most occurrent problems in cooperative group tasks and the reasons behind it. The table recorded a (67.5%) for the first choice which reflects the management issues that a classroom may experience during such tasks. This is probably due to ill-implementation of cooperative tasks or the nature of such interactive type of learning activities in the first place. Almost a third of the sample chose the second choice. Uncooperative group members, as a choice, refer to any of the students' and groups' related problems.

8. How do you feel about working in group under the leadership of one of your teammates?

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Very satisfied	00	00	03
Satisfied	8	20	
Neutral	27	67.5	
Unsatisfied	2	05	
Very unsatisfied	3	7.5	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.22. Students' Level of Satisfaction with Working under Leadership

This question is asked to determine students' attitudes and levels of satisfaction with working under one of their team mate's leadership. The table reports: a (67.5%) of neutral levels of satisfaction, an (08%) of satisfied subjects, (05%) of unsatisfied ones, and (7.5%) of extremely unsatisfied members. Overall, the subjects of the sample seem to find it completely neutral to work under the leadership of one of their team mates in spite of the negative prejudice that are usually drawn.

9. Mostly, you like to work in
 - a. Heterogeneous groups.
 - b. Homogeneous groups.
 - c. Gender-mixed groups.
 - d. Unmixed-gender groups ?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Heterogeneous groups	16	40
Homogeneous groups	18	45
Gender-mixed groups	04	10
Unmixed-gender groups	02	05

Table 3.1.23. Students' Preference towards the Group Types

This question is asked to determine students' preference when it comes to the grouping types. The data show that homogeneous groups got the finest share (18/40), with two subjects' difference; there is heterogeneous group (16/40). Gender-mixed groups and unmixed-gender groups reported 04/40 and 02/40. As being the least favoured, unmixed-gender groups and gender-mixed groups reveal that learners are not gender biased nor academic biased.

10. Are you familiar with The Student Team-Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique or Cooperative Language Learning approach?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	10	25
No	30	75

Table 3.1.24. Students' Knowledge about the Student Teams – Achievement Divisions Technique or Cooperative Language Learning Approach

The table records that the majority of the answers is negative (75%), and only (25%) are familiar with this type of learning experience. As a result, learners are not aware of the elements of cooperative learning which results in the mis-application of its learning techniques or principles which leads to the raise of group-related issues (disruptive behaviours).

11. How do you feel about this statement: « learn the material in groups, write about it individually »?
- Totally agree.
 - Undecided.
 - Totally disagree.

Choice	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Totally agree	23	57.5	2.45
undecided	12	30	
Totally disagree	05	12.5	
Total	40	100	

Table 3.1.25. Students' Level of Satisfaction with Student Teams-Achievement Divisions Technique

Such statement refers directly to the implementation of the (STAD) technique that was used to implicitly teach the use of linking words and phrases in writing. This question is asked to supplement the research about students' attitudes towards the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique. The results communicated in the table above express

that: (57.5%) of students totally agree, while (30%) of them are still undecided and only (12.5 %) of them seem to totally disagree. Therefore, and as the mean (2.45) explains most of the answers fall into the first box that expresses students' positive attitudes and total satisfaction for using the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing ; especially since most of them prefer to write individually.

12. How would you describe the process of working in cooperative groups?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Beneficial and enjoyable	30	75
Disturbing and unexciting	10	25

Table 3.1.26. Students' Description of the Cooperative Groups Learning Experience

The majority of students (75 %) chose to describe the process of working in cooperative groups in general, and the experience of working in Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique in particular, as beneficial and enjoyable; whereas, only (25%) thought it was disturbing and unexciting type of practice. So, in general, working in cooperative groups or using the (STAD) technique is considered as a real treat for the students, as such experience got most of their positive descriptions and attitudes.

CONCLUSION

This chapter surveyed students' present situation in writing, and when working with others, in order to uncover their perceptions and attitudes about certain issues in writing and in cooperative group work in general; and when using Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique in particular. Based on the results obtained from the present questionnaire, and in spite of being in their 3rd year, the sample of students of English evaluates their personal level of writing in English as average only. They also reported that they experience troubles both when trying to gather and select ideas as much as trying to link and move from one idea to another. Therefore, they ranked the different types of linking words and phrases that are challenging for them to be used as follows: subordinating conjunctions, adverbials and prepositional phrases, and coordinating conjunctions at last. The data gathered report that the students are completely aware both of the importance of learning to write in a foreign language, and to properly use the different types of connectives in writing.

Besides that, students have exhibited positive attitudes and descriptions of the didactic method used in the quasi-experiment which is topic of this research. The participants have rated both of the learning experiences that concern teaching conjunctions through the (STAD) technique and using texts as being easy. As when they have been asked about their preference when writing, most of students chose to work individually; this is why, the (STAD) technique is considered as the best-fit for the population at whole and the sample in particular. Not to forget to mention, informants have mentioned that they have positive and satisfactory levels of acceptance for classmates' leadership. In a similar vein, subjects of the study have shown a strong interest in their academic achievement, as it has been noticed through the priority ranking of the benefits of (CL) for them; which stands for the common, and the main cause for creating the (STAD) technique in the first place.

Moreover, the third section about cooperative groups at work reveals some remarkable results that booster the role of the (STAD) technique in (FL) classrooms. Except for disagreeing with the members of their groups about the work, students claim that they feel neutral when working under the leadership of one of their teammates. In spite of their very limited knowledge about cooperative groups elements and the (STAD) technique, students seem to totally approve of its use. Insofar, they have described such learning experience as beneficial and enjoyable; especially if it meets their two mostly

chosen types of groupings; homogenous and heterogeneous groups. Accordingly, the students seem to have positive attitudes and satisfactory levels for the use of the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing.

PART TWO: QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON THE ROLE OF STUDENT TEAMS-ACHIEVEMENT DIVISIONS TECHNIQUE IN THE IMPLICIT TEACHING OF THE USE OF CONJUNCTIONS IN WRITING

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the quasi-experimental design for the research study which has been conducted at the English Department of Biskra University. In order to check the validity of the hypothesis, and to put into practice the findings of this research later on, a thorough description of the quasi-experiment includes its: aims, sample, data gathering tools (the pretest and the posttest), and content. As a remedy for the unsatisfying writings' of participants, it was necessary to instructionally intervene to lessen the lack of cohesion and coherence in students' writings, through the implicit teaching of the proper use of conjunctions using the Students Teams-Achievement Divisions technique. Thus, this latter had been introduced to work as an instructional treatment for this thorny issue for a period of two sessions in order to ascertain its effectiveness in dealing with this problem.

1. Rationale

Since experimental research designs are regarded as an essential part in the evaluation of the success or the failure of any didactic programme, this study opt to use it in order to determine the effect of Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique on the implicit teaching of the use of connectives in students' writings. Due to the absences' of the members and the short time for the conduct of the study, the random assignment of subjects to the experimental and the control group has not been feasible nor the time for taking more sessions. For that reason, a quasi-experimental design with one group has been chosen to provide more legitimate data. Although the quasi-experiment deals with one group, it shares some common grounds with the experimental design in general which includes the used tools; pre- and posttest, which is enough to provide fruitful discussions over the causal relationship that the two variables of the study share.

To determine the effectiveness of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of the use of conjunctions in writing, the quasi-experiment has been chosen for a number of reasons. For a starter, the random allocation of participants into two different groups

(treatment and control groups) had been unviable in this case study because of pure administrative matters, and subjects-related issues such as absences. Therefore, the participants were administratively grouped into three different groups. One group was used for the pilot quasi-experiment and the pilot questionnaire. The two remaining ones were used for the quasi-experiment and the final version of the questionnaire. Each group of the three groups had its two sessions separately, although only a few members (2-4 persons) have attended their second session with other groups. To measure the amount of effectiveness and influence of the (STAD) technique over the proper use of linking words and phrases in students' writings is the fundamental purpose of the study, not to forget to mention determining the existing relationship between the two variables.

2. The Aim of the Quasi-Experiment

In short, and as it has been previously pointed out in the general introduction, the aim behind this quasi-experimental design is to investigate the effect of The Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique on the learners' proper use of conjunctions in writing. This study opt to use the sessions of written expression module to precede the conduct of this quasi-experiment because of its influential nature, undeniable importance, and constant use of cooperative learning groups' tasks that unfortunately does not involve the use of (STAD) technique. As this important course is a very crucial element in reinforcing grammar and vocabulary through the use of cooperative learning activities. It is expected that one of two variables will influence the other, resulting in the demonstration of the strength of the causality relationship between the dependent and the independent variable.

3. The Population and the Sample

Since it is hard to deal with the whole population of 365 students, the study opts to conveniently select 3 groups; one of them is for the pilot study. Usually, the randomness of the sample of participants will allow the researcher to make appropriate generalisations about the population at whole, as Ross explains “the information derived from the resulting sample is customarily employed to develop useful generalisations about the population” (2005: 1, cited in Meddour, 2014:147-148). Also, according to Denscombe (2010), the source of generalisations is the unspcialiness of the case study (it is a “typical of other

instances” (186)). This means that the researcher needs to clarify the fact that what has been studied and discovered, whether in case study or small sample, is most likely to emerge in other occasions because of the usualness of the investigated phenomena or case study (ibid). But, in this case study, and since opportunity sampling is used, also known as accidental or convenient sampling, “the parameters of generalisability [...] are negligible” (Cohen, Marion, and Morrison, 2007: 114).

Of course, subjects were administratively divided and allotted time for two sessions in one week. The study sample investigated a total number of 61 subjects from 3rd year LMD students of English during the academic year 2015-2016. Unfortunately, 21 of them did not attend either the first or the second session of the quasi-experiment which leaves the investigation with 40 participants only, (11) of them are from the pilot group study. i.e., only 29 participants attended the two sessions of the quasi-experimental design. Although, the attendance of the course is compulsory, not all participants regularly attended the course for different reasons that will be explained extensively later on. Because of the lack of time, the pilot study will consider the examination of the products of 6 subjects only; whereas, the final quasi-experimental design will investigate the written productions of 15 subjects from the conveniently gathered data using random sampling. Using six subjects for the pilot study is considerable number comparing to the infeasibility of the conduct, as in such circumstances, it is thought that it may be possible to organise “one or two scouting forays” (ibid: 58) in order to determine the potential inconveniences and problems.

For some, this sample may be deemed inconclusive or unrepresentative for the whole population, but with the few provided resources it is not. As Cohen and his co-authors (2007) explain, the sample size is to some extent related and controlled by the type of the carried investigation. For example, in ethnographic or qualitative studies, the size of the sample is most likely to be smaller (ibid). They further explain the constraints that a researcher may encounter during the conduct of the study; which may hinder if not stop his or her research. These restraints may include: financial problems, psychological obstacles (stress), administrative support, and staff (researchers) and resources shortage (ibid).

In how to choose your sample and participants, Dawson (2009:52) advises the researchers to use “well-worked out, small sample” than “a badly worked out, large sample”, because taking more than one can cope with is a recipe for disaster. Dorneyi (2007) believes that increasing the size of the sample would most likely be pushing the boundaries of the research to more uncomfortable and unmanageable area; especially for

one researcher such as “a postgraduate student” (127). Therefore, a well-designed and a thought-of qualitative study generally necessitates a fairly small number of informants to produce “the saturated and rich data that is needed to understand even subtle meanings in the phenomena under focus” (ibid: 127) like in this current study.

4. The Experimental Procedures

4.1. Pretest and Posttest Administration

The quasi-experiment includes the implementation of The Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing. The participants were asked to write a free topic paragraph that ranged from 7 to 15 lines maximum. This first product is considered as a pre-test for the quasi-experiment. Since one copy was taken by the researcher herself to conduct the study, students were asked to re-write their paragraph twice on two different papers; one she will receive to conduct the study on, and the other one they will keep for further notice. After working in cooperative groups using the (STAD) technique, and providing the feedback (correction of the lesson), students were asked to rewrite their first products using what they have learned; to improve the cohesive links and provide more coherent paragraphs. Their second product is considered as the post-test for the quasi- experimental design.

4.2. Treatment

4.2.1. Session One

Each one of the sessions is a period of one hour and a half. In the first session of the quasi-experiment, the period was divided into three main stages. First stage was to ask students to write a paragraph of a free topic that ranges between 7 to 15 lines. At the same time, the teacher was writing the questions of the next activity on the blackboard. The students took around 30 to 40 minutes to write their paragraphs. It is obvious that the period of one hour and half is neither sufficient nor manageable, as many students arrive late to their written expression course.

The second stage is devoted to the management of cooperative learning task. Students were grouped into small-groups of threes' or fours'. When the expert teacher was present, he picked a handful of high-achieving learners in order to choose the rest of the members and lead the team work in the learning process. But, when he was absent, the

researcher had no knowledge of students' level and performance, so she used a different method in selecting the team members. Volunteers for the leadership of the groups were used in order to create small-size cooperative learning groups. In order to provide stability and sense of group community, students were handed yellow papers to write the name of their leaders and their team mates on. After having chosen their team members, students worked on the space management to form small-rounded tables, as camps for their work stations. At this stage too, the written materials needed to answer the questions were given to each student from each group.

After having settled down, the third stage of quasi-experiment in the first session had started. It was mainly about explaining the three questions (activities) written on the blackboard and checking students' understanding of the different parts of the task. Therefore, the teacher (researcher) read and explained the written activities thoroughly; using examples of the required answers for each step of the designed activities. She also monitored each group understanding, any given difficulties that the members seemed to share when trying to cooperatively work together to answer the designed tasks. Of course, further explanations and detailed descriptions of the teaching material and lesson will be provided separately next. The teacher made it clear that students must work together, help each other in understanding the different parts of the lesson, and that it is the job of the leader to manage the work of the others.

4.2.2. Session Two

The second session was mainly devoted to providing the feedback, and administering the posttest, yet it involved the demonstration of the competitiveness between groups that the (STAD) technique highlights. It should be noted that the use of competition among small-groups was not used in the pilot study. In fact, it is one of the fruitful results of the conduct of pilot study. At the beginning of the second session, students were allowed 10 to 15 minutes to discuss their previous work, or what they may have prepared at home concerning the activities. Afterwards, the correction of the different activities started and ended in a competitive and fun manner that students enjoyed, and most certainly learned from. In short, with the help of the teacher and the collaboration of the students, all activities have been dealt with, and a comprehensible input has been provided to students in a period of 45 minutes, in order to take the posttest in remaining time.

4.3. Description of the Teaching Materials

A focused course that is text-based has been designed by the researcher herself. It aims to raise students' awareness of the different types of linking words and phrases and their proper usage, in order to ascertain the impact of the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique on the implicit teaching of the use of conjunctions in writing for 3rd year LMD students of English. The purposeful course is composed of three texts that are designed for the advanced learners of English. These texts essentially cover three chief types of conjunctions that are under investigation: (1) coordinating conjunctions, (2) subordinating conjunctions, and (3) adverbials and prepositional phrases (appendix 3).

The programme relies on three main questions that are texts-related. The first question is designed as a warm-up for the the rest of questions; as it helps students to identify the various types of conjunctions through extracting and categorising them into one table that has a three different columns that stand for each of the presented types of conjunctions in the texts. The second question involves filling in a second table that contains: the meaning that each conjunction conveys, its place in the sentence with the proper usage of punctuation. After managing to understand the differences, the proper meanings and usages of punctuation, students are given a list of different linking words and phrases to replace the ones in one of the text. As a practice for what they have learned, the proper use of punctuation is strongly recommended as well as the choice of conjunction, not to forget to mention that not every conjunction fits in because each demands a different sentence structure. So, in short, the tailored lesson may be short, but it is very loaded; as each of the three main questions plays an important role in the process of recognising the types of conjunctions, their meanings, punctuation and place in a sentence and the syntactical forms they require.

During the current quasi-experimental design, the teacher has played some important roles in order to help students in their learning process through providing a suitable and non-threatening environment. Because both Cooperative Learning (CL) and Competency-Based Approach (CBA) to language teaching highlight the crucial role, and the vital involvement of the learner in the learning process, the teacher opt to managing the courses with the students' collaboration. Consequently, during the designed sessions, participants were strongly encouraged to participate, share their ideas, discuss with their team mates and teacher. This has created a flexible and enjoyable learning atmosphere for

students that exemplified a student-fronted class, and exhibited teacher's roles as a facilitator, assistor and motivator in such tasks.

5. Pilot Study

In the first session of the pilot experiment session, an expert teacher was present and he controlled the learning process of the groups under some of the guidelines of the current research that the researcher is seeking to answer. Since the teacher is familiar with his students' level, he was asked to choose a handful of high achievers (7 students) to lead, teach and manage the group members whom they will be working with. In order to give the students' some freedom, the leaders were asked to choose their group members (3 members maximum). For the male groups, there was just one, and both the leader and his vice-leader were absent in the two sessions.

5.2. The First Assesement Rubric

After the administration of the pilot pre-test and post-test to the pilot group, the obtained results are valued out of 10 using the upcoming rubric.

As it is demonstrated in the table below, the assessment rubric for the pilot study contains two main parts: form and content. Since the use of conjunctions is related to content, that column receives more focus and points for grading. It is not that the form is not important, but it receives 4 out of 10 because it is not the main focus of the study. All in all, this rubric represents what has been provided in the lesson; as the learners where expected to use the suitable conjunction that fits the content, using the right punctuation too.

Form (4/10)	Content (6/10)
- Grammar (0.75/10). - Syntax (0.75/10)	Use of Conjunction: - Content (1.5/10). - Punctuation (1.5/10).
- Punctuation (0.5/10). - Capitalisation (0.5/10)	- Cohesion and Cohesive Ties (1.5/10)
- Vocabulary (0.75/10). - Spelling (0.75/10)	- Coherence (1.5/10)

Table 3.2.1. The First Assessment Rubric for the Pilot Study

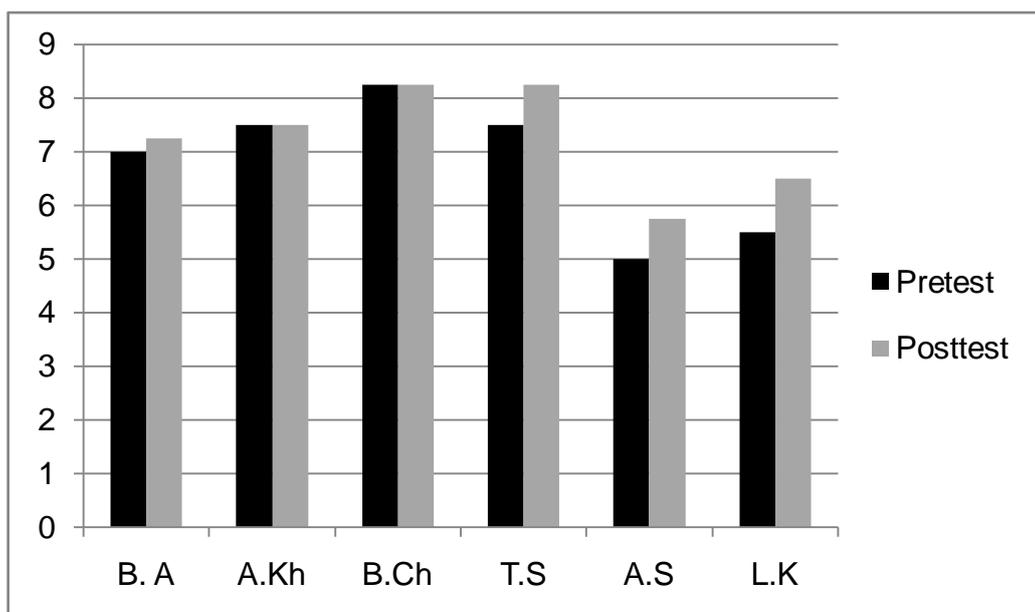
5.3. The Pilot Pretest and Posttest Scores

To maintain the confidentiality of the research and the ethical reasons of research, the names appearing on table below are pseudo names for the students who participated in the pilot quasi-experiment. Each pseudo name is constructed using the students' initials.

N	Students' names	Pretest	Posttest	Mean
1	B.A	7	7.25	7.125
2	A.Kh	7.5	7.5	7.5
3	B.Ch	8.25	8.25	8.25
4	T.S	7.5	8.25	7.875
5	A.S	5	5.75	5.375
6	L.K	5.5	6.5	6
Sum of scores (Σx)		40.75	43.5	42.125
Mean of scores		6.79	7.25	7.02

Table 3.2.2. Students' Scores in the Pilot Pretest and Posttest

To present the scores graphically, the below histogram is used.



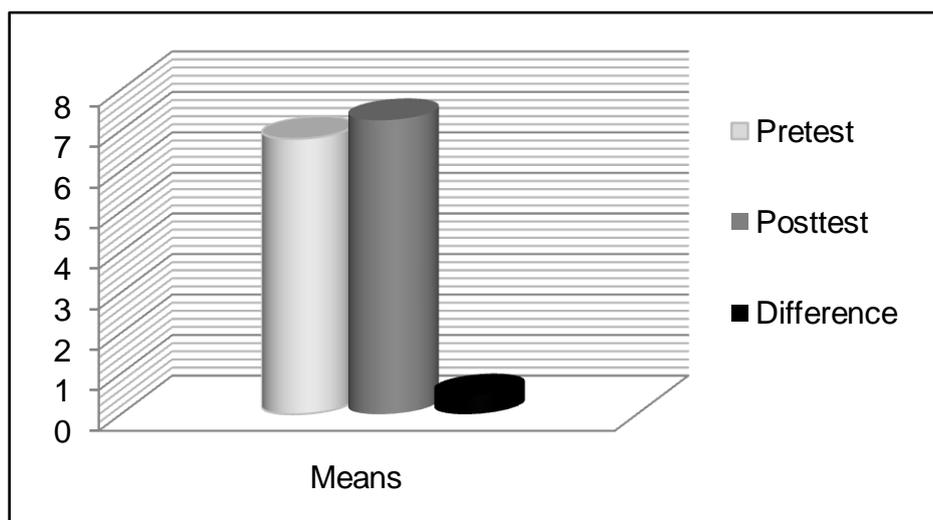
Graph.3.2.1. Histogram Representing Students' scores of the Pilot Pretest and Posttest

The table (3.2.2) indicates the supremacy of the posttest scores over the pretest. It is expressed in terms of the sum of scores (**40.75 vs. 43.5**), i.e., there is (**2.75**) difference between the pre- and posttest results. Statistical table and picture of how the participants have achieved in both tests, comparing the means of scores will certainly clarify the matter.

Tests	Pretest	Posttest	The Difference in the Means
Means	6.79	7.25	0.46

Table 3.2.3. Means of Scores in the Pilot Pretest-Posttest

These statistics are represented in the following graph.



Graph 3.2.2. The Pilot Tests' Scores Means Compared

According to the results displayed in table (3.2.3) and graph (3.2.2), it is noticed that the participants scored better in posttest than in pretest with a difference of **(0.46)** in the means. This leads to one and only primary interpretation to claim that this progression is a result of the inclusion of (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions. Obviously, the cooperative nature of the (STAD) technique and the use of texts in teaching the proper use of conjunctions of different types with the accurate use of punctuation allowed the participants to use them which enhanced the cohesion and coherence of their writings. Consequently, they obtained better results in the posttest. The instructional advantages of the treatment (STAD technique) increases students' focus and efficacy in writing. Accordingly, the participants' progression in the posttest reinforces the hypothesis set for the present study, which claims that the integration of the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions improves their use of this element.

5.4. The Pilot Results: Analysis and Interpretation

In order to provide a portrayal of how the participants performed in each of the test, descriptive statistics, visual representations and inferential statistics are put forward. The descriptive statistics that can be used in the pilot pretest-posttest study involves calculations of the measures of central density and the measures of variability in order to build the inferential statistics later on. The measures of central density include calculating: the mean, the mode, and the frequency distribution of scores in both tests; whereas, in the

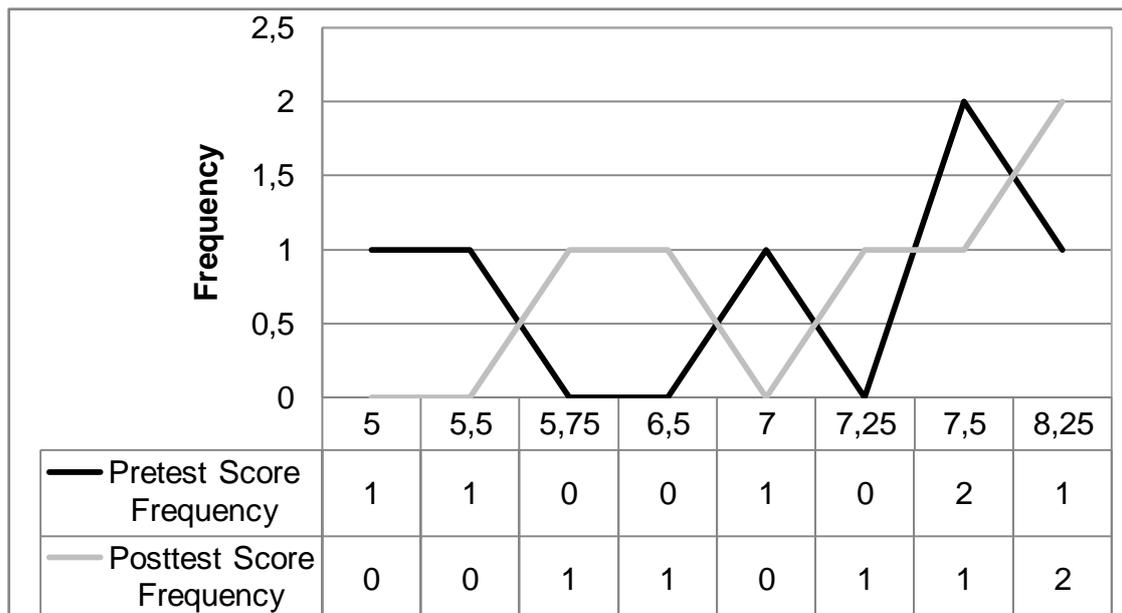
measures of variability, the range, the variance, the standard deviation, and t-test are calculated. These types of statistical presentations equip the study with depth, and supply better understanding for the findings; as they work in harmony, are complementary in nature, and necessary for testing the hypotheses.

The score have been arranged from high to low scores and the frequency distribution of each of the pre- and posttest is displayed in the table below.

Pretest		Posttest	
Score “X _{pre} ”	Frequency "F"	Score “X _{post} ”	Frequency "F"
5	1	5.75	1
5.5	1	6.5	1
7	1	7.25	1
7.5	2	7.5	1
8.25	1	8.25	2
Sum of "F"	6	Sum of "F"	6

Table 3.2.4. Frequency Distribution of Score Values in Pilot Study Tests

The frequency of each score is expressed in the following frequency polygon.



Graph 3.2.3. Frequency Polygon of Pilot Pretest and Posttest Scores

Some statistical inferences about the score values and their frequencies in both tests are revealed from table (3.2.3) and graph (3.2.3). In terms of the mode, the highest and the lowest score values, and the range of scores. To start with is the pretest's inferred statistics.

- The mode in the pretest is 7.5.
- The median for the pretest is 7.25.
- The score values in pretest range from 5 to 8.25.
- Since the score values varied from 5 to 8.25, the range is 3.25.

As far as the posttest is concerned, table (3.2.3) reveals the following inferences:

- The table demonstrates the supremacy of the score 8.25 (mode).
- The median in the posttest is 7.37.
- The score values in posttest range from 5.75 to 8.25.
- The difference between the highest and the lowest score is 2.5.

5.5. The Pilot Pretest: Statistical Considerations

In order to check the difference and similarity in the collected data, it is necessary to provide thorough statistical presentations of the mean, the variance, and standard deviation. These purely quantitative data calculations will determine the differences between the students' performance in pre-and posttests which will ascertain the effectiveness of the (STAD) technique in enhancing students' use of conjunctions in writing.

a. The mean

The mean is the most frequently employed measure of central density. It represents the average of a list of numerical data (numbers). It is symbolised in writing by \bar{X} or \bar{M} . In this case, the sum of the the scores (F_x) is divided by the number of the subjects (N). The formula for calculating the mean is as follows:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum F_x}{N}$$

b. The Variance and the Standard Deviation

The Variance is the sum of the squared differences between a value and the mean of the numerical set divided by the number of the subjects of the sample. Meanwhile, the standard deviation (SD) is the square root of variances of the list of data. These measures are used to indicate the degree of variability of the scores in data set. In order to compute the two measures of variability, these formulae are presented:

$$V = \frac{\sum F (X - \bar{X})^2}{N}$$

$$SD = \sqrt{\text{Variance}}$$

The calculation of the Mean, the Variance, and (SD) of the pretest is shown in table (3.2.4).

- Mean calculation

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{N} = \frac{40.75}{6} = 6.79.$$

$$\bar{X}_{\text{Pretest}} = 6.79.$$

- Variance (V) calculation

$$V_{\text{Pretest}} = \frac{\sum F (X - \bar{X})^2}{N} = \frac{8.03}{6} = 1.33.$$

- Standard Deviation (SD) calculation

$$SD_{\text{Pretest}} = \sqrt{\text{variance}} = \sqrt{1.33} = 1.15$$

Pilot Pretest			
Score “X_{pre}”	“\bar{X}_{Pre}”	Difference “D”	Square of Difference “D²”
5	6.79	-1.79	3.20
5,5		-1.29	1.66
7		0.21	0.04
7,5		0.71	0.50
7.5		0.71	0.50
8,25		1.46	2.13
Sum		$\Sigma D^2 = 8.03$	
V_{Pretest} = 1.33		SD_{Pretest} = 1.15.	

Table 3.2.5. Pilot Pretest Scores: the Mean and the Standard Deviation

5.6. The Pilot Posttest: Statistical Considerations

The table below demonstrates the calculations of the Mean, the Variance and the Standard Deviation (SD) for the pilot posttest scores.

- Mean calculation

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{N} = \frac{43.5}{6} = 7.25.$$

$$\bar{X}_{Posttest} = 7.25.$$

- Variance (V) calculation

$$V_{Posttest} = \frac{\sum F (X - \bar{X})^2}{N} = \frac{4.87}{6} = 0.81.$$

- Standard Deviation (SD)

$$SD = \sqrt{\text{variance}} \quad SD = \sqrt{0.81}$$

$$SD_{Posttest} = 0.90.$$

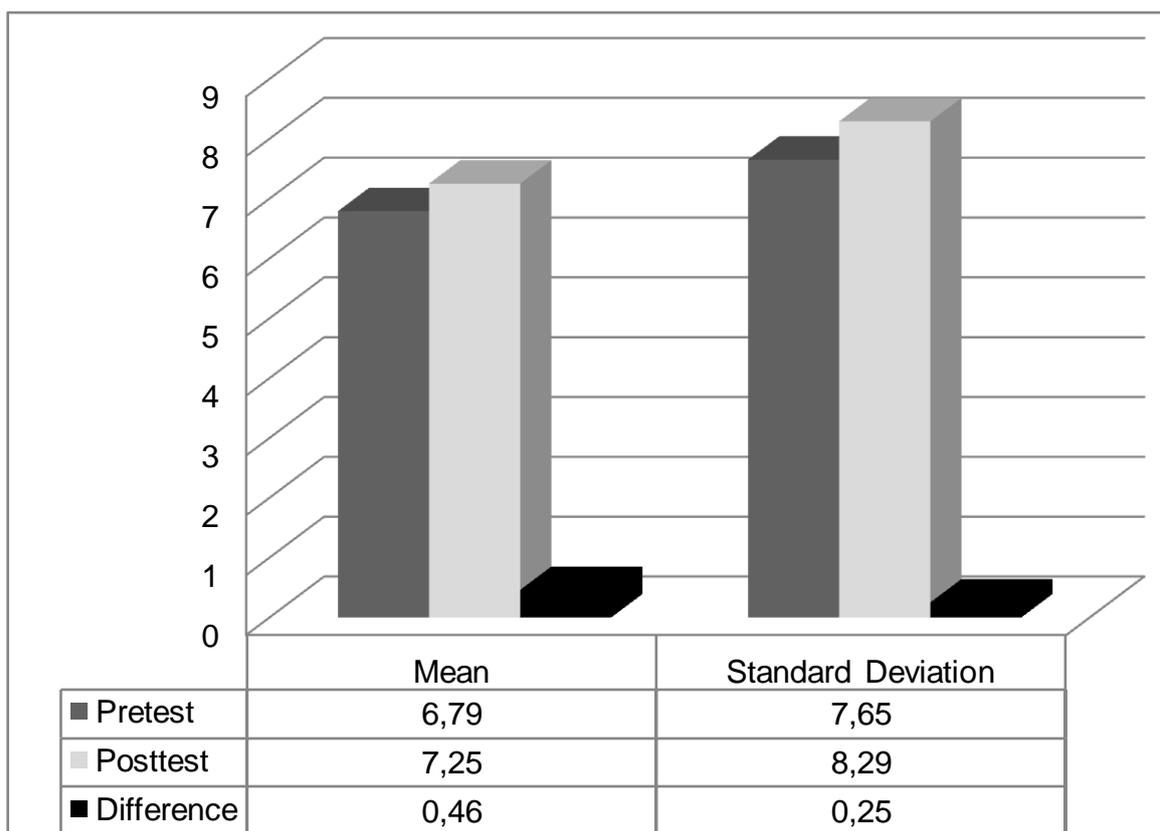
Pilot Posttest			
Score “X_{Post}”	“\bar{X}_{Post}”	Difference “D”	Square of Difference “D²”
5.75	7.25	-1.5	2.25
6.5		-0.75	0.56
7.25		0	0
7.5		0.25	0.06
8.25		1	1
8.25		1	1
Sum		$\Sigma D^2 = 4.87$	
V_{Posttest} = 0.81.		SD_{Posttest} = 0.90.	

Table 3.2.6. Pilot Posttest Scores: the Mean, the Variance and the Standard Deviation

Comparing the two tests’ descriptive statistics portrays the following differences between them in table (3.2.6) and graph (3.2.4) respectively.

Descriptive Statistics	Pretest	Posttest	The Difference
Mean	6.79	7.25	0.46
Standard Deviation	1.15	0.90	-0.25

Table 3.2.7. Pilot Pretest and Posttest’ Mean and Standard Deviation Compared



Graph 3.2.4. Pilot Pretest and Posttest Statistics Compared

According to the results presented in table (3.2.6) and graph (3.2.4), one can argue that the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique – the treatment which the participants had gone through- resulted in better achievement of participants in the posttest. The difference between the means (**0.46**) and the standard deviation (**0.25**) of both tests are a strong proof of the improvement of the subjects in their tests' scores. The differences in the statistical descriptions further reinforce the research hypothesis which claims that the use of (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions will enhance students' use of conjunctions and develop their writing skills as it renders their writings more cohesive and coherent.

5.7. The Results of the Pilot Study

After piloting the programme in a class of 11 participants, valuable changes have been reconsidered. The chief *raison d'être* for the pilot study is to allow the researcher to deduce general results and observations about the programme, the content or the course delivery in order to establish further reliability and validity to the whole study when conducting the final experimental study. Therefore, a number of reconsiderations at

different levels; pedagogical and structural, have been taken into consideration in order to prepare for the conduct of the final quasi-experimental study with the entire sample (15 students).

One of the main changes is the assessment rubric. Some students have shown a correct use of type of conjunctions when it comes to meaning, but their sentences lacked proper syntax, to clarify the matter, please, consider the following examples:

(a) Second, sports help the sick people who suffer from lung cancer to fight their illness by making them breathe easily as a result the breath of their lungs.

(b) Personally, I find happiness when I am with my family and best friends; as a result, passing great times.

In example (a) not only the conjunction "as a result" does not fit the content, it is not punctuated accurately, and it has no correct syntactical features either. In example (b), the same remark can be made too, even though the conjunction is preceded and followed with right punctuation, the sentence still needs further development and accurate use of conjunction that fits the content of the message. Therefore, a column about the correct use of the syntactical features for conjunctions had to be included in the new assessment rubric.

Form (4/10)	Content (6/10)
- Grammar (0.75/10). - Syntax (0.75/10)	Use of Conjunction: - Content (1.5/10). - Punctuation (1/10). - Syntax (1.5/10).
- Punctuation (0.5/10). - Capitalisation (0.5/10)	- Cohesion and Cohesive Ties (1/10)
- Vocabulary (0.75/10). - Spelling (0.75/10)	- Coherence (1/10)

Table 3.2.8. The Final Assessment Rubric for the Quasi-Experiment

Concerning the course delivery, the researcher opts to using more competitive approach when implementing the (STAD) technique in order to create more enjoyable and

fun learning environment that demonstrates the nature of this task. So, students were first asked to pick a name for their team; for example, the boys' team chose to name their group as “the gladiators”. The teacher drew a table of all the teams’ name and drew next to each name a symbol that matches the name as a logo; for instance, for “the gladiators” crossed swords was their logo. Then, from each group a leader and two other members, that the team chooses, were asked to represent their teams in a learning game, when answering the second question from the tailored lesson. Each of the chosen members will chose randomly a card with two different types of conjunctions in it, and with the help of their team mates, the chosen member is supposed to fill in the table of question two. Each time the teacher scores the teams' answer in form of rounds, and the winning team was acknowledge with a round of warm applause.

6. The Final Quasi-Experimental Design

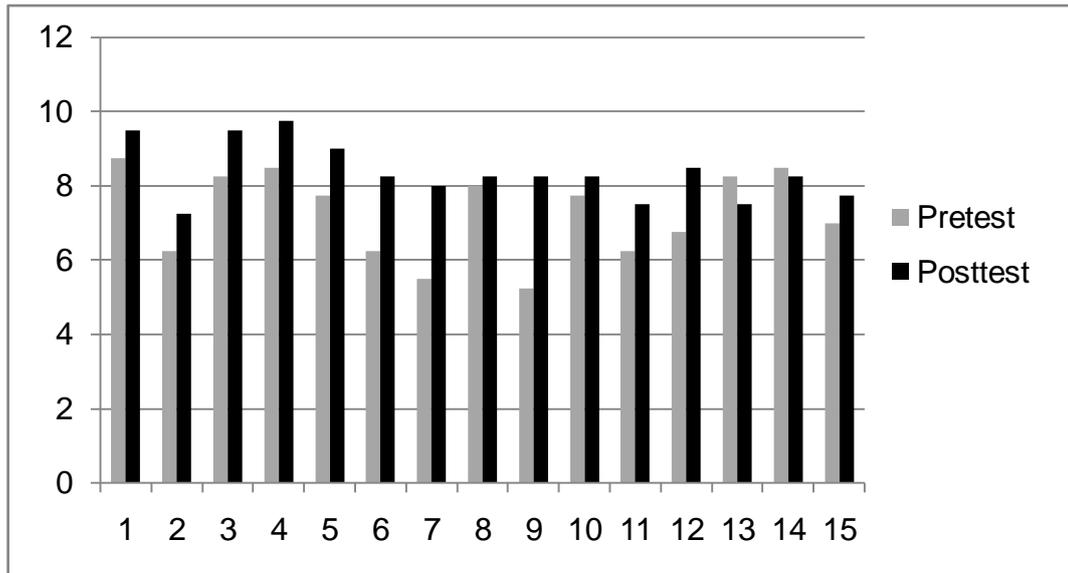
Using what has been collected as a results and considerations in the pilot study. The final quasi-experiment has been carried out on a much larger sample. Afterwards, the subjects’ scores in both tests (pretest and posttest) were collected, analysed statistically and represented graphically using the experimental research conventional statistical descriptions; mainly: the Mean, the Variance, the Standard Deviation, T-test and hypothesis testing. To start with, table 3.2.8 shows the informants’ scores of final pretest and posttest and their Mean followed by a histogram that pictures the scores for each participant.

6.1. The Final Pretest and Posttest: Students’ Scores

The scores shown in the table below are obtained from the pre- and posttest. To remind the readership, the names appearing in table below are also pseudo names of participants which are composed of their initials.

N	Students' Names	Pretest	Posttest	Mean
1	A.S	8.75	9.5	9.125
2	R.H	6.25	7.25	6.75
3	K. Gh	8.25	9.5	8.875
4	K.A	8.5	9.75	9.125
5	S.M.H	7.75	9	8.375
6	L.S	6.25	8.25	7.25
7	Gh.I	5.5	8	6.75
8	N.I.D	8	8.25	8.125
9	G.T.A	5.25	8.25	6.75
10	Ch.A	7.75	8.25	8
11	R.M	6.25	7.5	6.875
12	D.H	6.75	8.5	7.625
13	Gh.H	8.25	7.5	7.875
14	M.F.Z	8.5	8.25	8.375
15	Gh.M.S	7	7.75	7.375
Sum of scores (Σx)		109	125.5	117.25
Mean of scores		7.26	8.36	7.81

Table 3.2.9. The Final Pretest and Posttest: Students' Scores



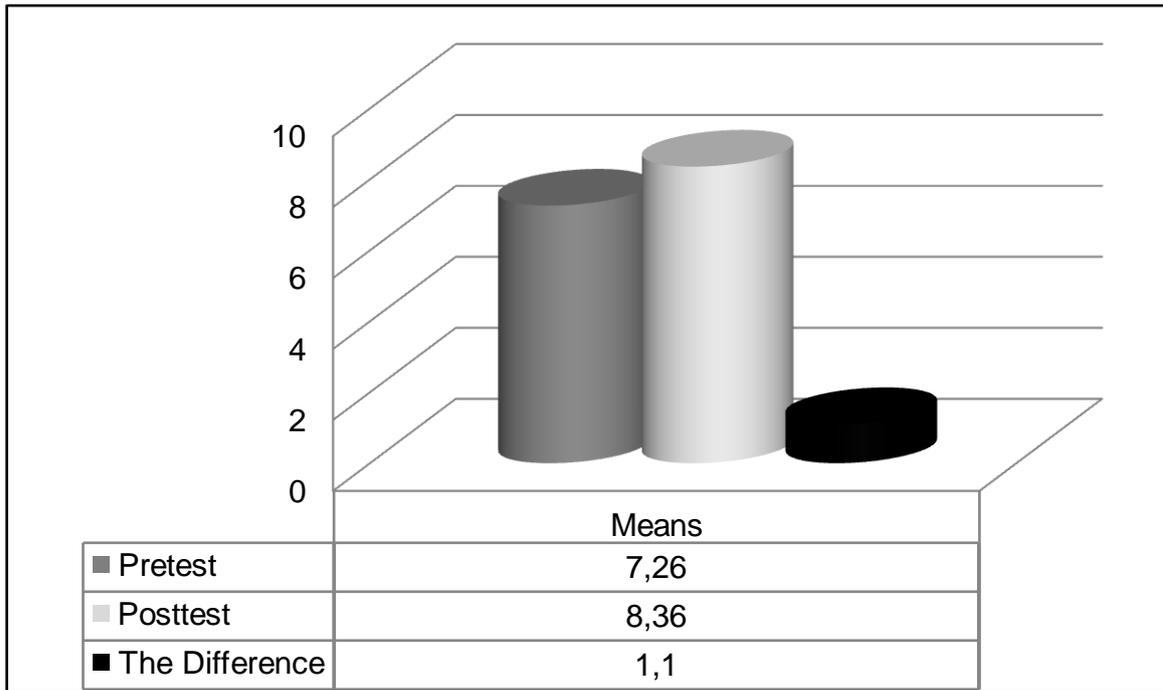
Graph 3.2.5. Final Pretest and Posttest Scores

The instant interpretation of table (3.2.7) and graph (3.2.5) suggests noticeable development in the participants' scores from pretest to posttest, which is expressed in the sum of scores (**109 vs. 125.5**) and the difference in the means (**7.26 vs. 8.36**). By comparing statistically the means of scores, table (3.2.8) depicts how the participants achieved in both tests.

Test	Pretest	Posttest	The Difference in the Means
Means	7.26	8.36	1.1

Table 3.2.10. The Final Pretest-Posttest: Means of Scores and Difference

The overall picture of the means of scores in the final pre- and posttests of the final study is represented graphically in graph (3.2.6) next.



Graph 3.2.6. The Final Pretest and Posttest Means Compared

According to the results displayed in table (3.2.9) and graph (3.2.6), it is clear that there is a significant difference in participants' scores from pretest to posttest. It is clearly expressed by the difference in the score means (1.1) which initially demonstrates the participants' development in the posttest performance. One may immediately make initial inferences on the participants' better achievement to carefully claiming that it is due to the amendments on the delivery of the course.

To explain the over-scoring in the posttest, it is therefore necessary to acclaim the role of the intervention and the advantages of the (STAD) technique in teaching writing mechanics in general and the use of conjunctions in writing in specific. The participants' better scoring in the posttest initially confirms the hypothesis set for the research, which claims that the integration of the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions will enhance students' use of conjunctions in writing.

6.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Results

Like in the pilot study, the descriptive statistics that can be applied in the final pre- and posttest study requires computing the frequency distribution of scores in both tests, the variance, the standard deviation, and at last checking the validity of all the statistical results using the t-test value.

Pretest		Posttest	
Score "X _{pre} "	Frequency "F"	Score "X _{post} "	Frequency "F"
5.25	1	7.25	1
5.5	1	7.5	2
6.25	3	7.75	1
6.75	1	8	1
7	1	8.25	5
7.75	2	8.5	1
8	1	9	1
8.25	2	9.5	2
8.5	2	9.75	1
8.75	1		
Sum of "F"	15	Sum of "F"	15

Table 3.2.11. The Final Pretest and Posttest: Frequency Distribution of Score Values

Frequency distribution of the pretest and the posttest scores is demonstrated in the table above. In order to make use of these statistics, and to provide relevant assumptions and implications of the gathered scores in relation to the quasi-experimental design; which consists mainly of the treatment that the subjects had undergone through, statistic and comparative inferences must be done in order to determine the success or failure of this didactic intervention. Therefore, the required statistical inferences are made between the pre-and the posttest, in terms of: the mode, the median, the highest and the lowest score values, and the range of scores.

To start with are the pretest values and their statistical inferences:

- The score values in pretest range from 5.25 to 8.75 with the supremacy of the scores (6.25, 7.75, 8.25, and 8.5).
- The mode of the pretest is 6.25.
- The range of this test is 3.5.
- The median for the pretest is 7.75.

As far as the posttest is concerned, the following points are observed:

- The score values in posttest range from 7.25 to 9.75 with the supremacy of the score (8.25, 7.5, and 9.5).
- 8.25 are both the mode and the median of the posttest.
- The range of the posttest's scores is 2.5.

6.3. The Final Pretest: Statistical Considerations

In order to provide a quantitative data for the final pre- and posttest, the Mean, the Variance, and the Standard Deviation must be calculated so the degree of similarity and difference between the two scores is revealed. These statistical considerations are used to provide justifications of the results and easy access to the final conclusion. But, to better analyse, justify, and visualise such statistics, figures and graphs of different types are used along with proper descriptions.

The calculation of the Mean, the Variance and (SD) of the pretest is presented in table 3.2.11.

- Mean calculation

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{N} = \frac{109}{15} = 7.26.$$

$$\bar{X}_{\text{Pretest}} = 7.26.$$

- Variance (V) calculation

$$V_{\text{Pretest}} = \frac{\sum F(X - \bar{X})^2}{N} = \frac{18.77}{15} = 1.25.$$

- Standard Deviation (SD)

$$SD_{\text{Pretest}} = \sqrt{\text{variance}} = \sqrt{1.25} = 1.15.$$

Final Pretest			
Score “X_{pre}”	“\bar{X}_{Pre}”	Difference “D”	Square Difference “D²”
5.25	7.26	-2.01	4.04
5.5		-1.76	3.09
6.25		-1.01	1.02
6.25		-1.01	1.02
6.25		-1.01	1.02
6.75		-0.51	0.26
7		-0.26	0.06
7.75		0.49	0.24
7.75		0.49	0.24
8		0.74	0.54
8.25		0.99	0.98
8.25		0.99	0.98
8.5		1.24	1.53
8.5		1.24	1.53
8.75		1.49	2.22
Sum		$\Sigma D^2 = 18.77$	
V_{Pretest} = 1.25.		SD_{Pretest} = 1.15.	

Table 3.2.12. The Final Pretest's Scores, the Mean, the Variance and the Standard Deviation

6.4. The Final Posttest: Statistical Considerations

Table (3.2.12.) demonstrates the posttest's scores, the Mean, the Variance and the standard deviation of the posttest scores.

- Mean calculation

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{N} = \frac{125.5}{15} = 8.36.$$

$$\bar{X}_{\text{Posttest}} = 8.36.$$

- Variance (V) calculation

$$V_{\text{Posttest}} = \frac{\sum F(X - \bar{X})^2}{N} = \frac{8.1521}{15} = 0.54.$$

$$V_{\text{Posttest}} = 0.54.$$

- Standard Deviation (SD)

$$SD_{\text{Posttest}} = \sqrt{\text{variance}} = \sqrt{0.54} = 0.76.$$

$$SD_{\text{Posttest}} = 0.76$$

Final Posttest			
Score “X_{Post}”	“\bar{X}_{Post}”	Difference	Square Difference “D²”
7.25	8.36	-1.1	1.23
7.5		-0.86	0.73
7.5		-0.86	0.73
7.75		-0.61	0.37
8		-0.36	0.12
8.25		-0.11	0.01
8.25		-0.11	0.01
8.25		-0.11	0.01
8.25		-0.11	0.01
8.25		-0.11	0.01
8.25		-0.11	0.01
8.5		0.14	0.01
9		0.64	0.40
9.5		1.14	1.29
9.5		1.14	1.29
9.75	1.39	1.93	
Sum		$\Sigma D^2 = 8.1521$	
V_{Posttest} = 0.54.		SD_{Posttest} = 0.76.	

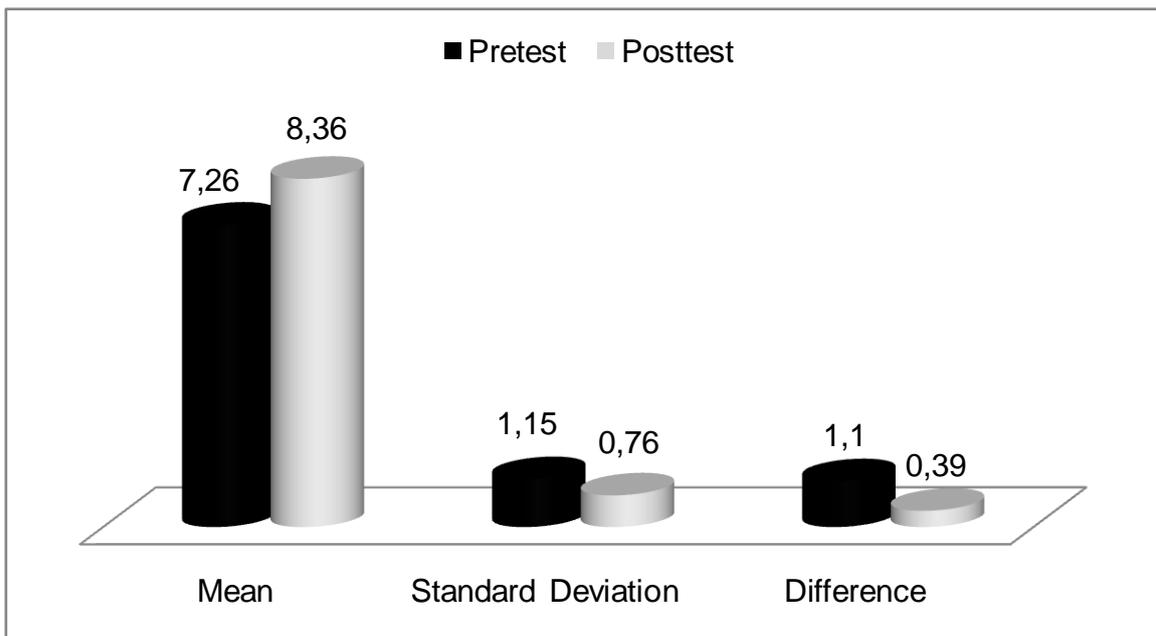
Table 3.2.13. The Final Posttest's Scores, the Mean, the Variance and the Standard Deviation

The difference between the pretest and the posttest Mean and Standard Deviation is revealed in the following table that compares the descriptive statistics.

Descriptive Statistics	Pretest	Posttest	The Difference
Mean	7.26	8.36	1.1
Standard Deviation	1.15	0.76	0.39

Table 3.2.14. Comparison of the Final Pretest and Posttest' Mean and Standard Deviation

To represent graphically the above statistics, the following graph is used to show the difference in the Mean and Standard Deviation of both tests.



Graph 3.2.7. Comparison of the Final Pretest and Posttest Mean and Standard Deviation

The results displayed in table and graph above suggest that the (STAD) technique (the treatment which the participants had received) has slightly increased the subjects' scores in the posttest. Although, the differences in the Mean and the Standard Deviation are not extremely remarkable to the point that one can claim that the intervention has greatly improved students' performance. In the meantime, one should definitely state the positive effect that the conduct of the (STAD) technique had a hand in the betterment of the majority of scores. To confirm statistically this minor values and claim, it is necessary to seek extra descriptive statistics to better consolidate the gathered results through calculating the t-test value.

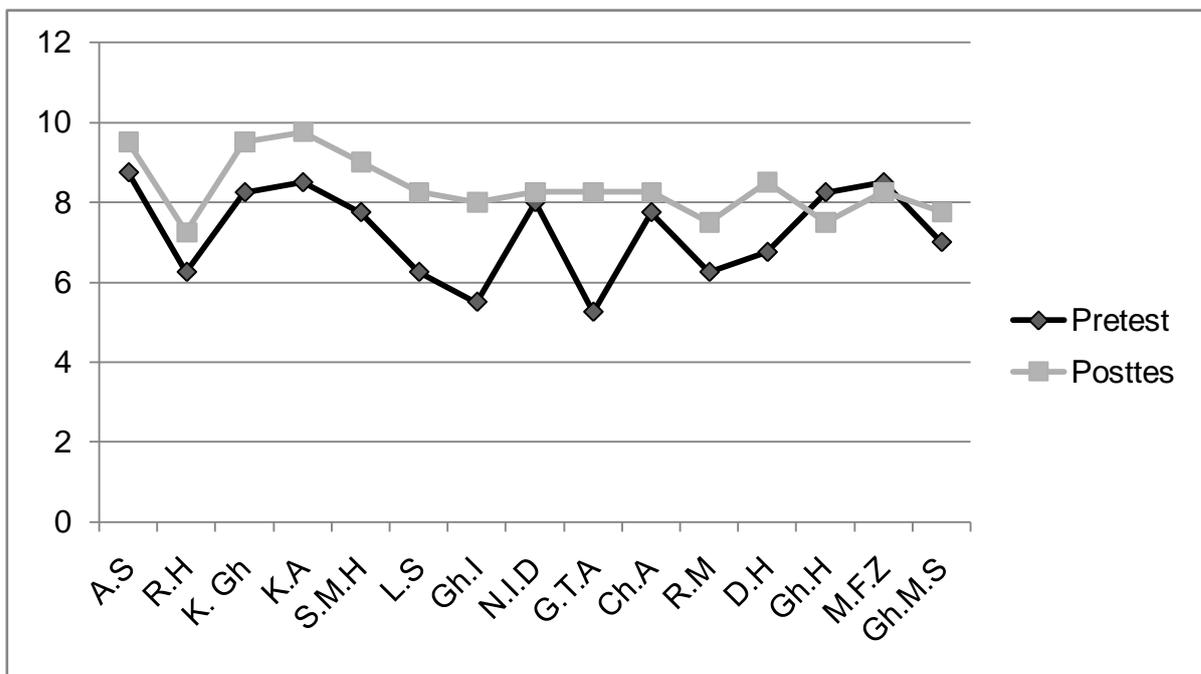
7. Comparative Evaluation of the Pre-Test and the Post Test Achievements

This part is devoted to conduct a comparative evaluation of students' achievements in both pretest and posttest. This process is essential to see whether there has been any development in students' use of conjunctions in writing after having received comprehensible input about the matter and using the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique in various activities to work out their knowledge of the appropriate use of this grammatical element through texts. Consequently, it will allow the testing of the hypothesis posited at the beginning of this dissertation and finally accepting or rejecting it.

N	Students' Names	Pretest	Posttest	Difference
1	A.S	8.75	9.5	+0.75
2	R.H	6.25	7.25	+1
3	K. Gh	8.25	9.5	+1.25
4	K.A	8.5	9.75	+1.25
5	S.M.H	7.75	9	+1.25
6	L.S	6.25	8.25	+2
7	Gh.I	5.5	8	+2.5
8	N.I.D	8	8.25	+0.25
9	G.T.A	5.25	8.25	+3
10	Ch.A	7.75	8.25	+0.5
11	R.M	6.25	7.5	+1.25
12	D.H	6.75	8.5	+1.75
13	Gh.H	8.25	7.5	-0.75
14	M.F.Z	8.5	8.25	-0.25
15	Gh.M.S	7	7.75	+0.75
Sum of scores (Σx)		109	125.5	16.5
Mean of scores		7.26	8.36	1.16

Table 3.2.15. Comparison of Score Difference between Posttest and Pretest for Each Student

The above table presents students' performances in both tests with the difference in performance between them. The slightest improvement was with student number eight (8) who went from eight (8) in the pre-test to eight point twenty five (8.25) points in the post test. However, the most remarkable improvement was the one of student number nine (09) who had five point twenty five (5.25) points in the pre-test and eight point twenty five (8.25) points in the post test. There are four students whose scores show a slight decrease in performance from zero point twenty-five (-0.25) to zero point seventy-five (-0.75). It is obvious that the most frequent increase is of one point twenty five (+1.25) as four (04) students have managed to increase their scores by this amount. So, among fifteen (15) students who have undergone this experiment, thirteen (13) students have witnessed a noticeable improvement in their performances. For better visualisation, the following graph is suggested.



Graph 3.2.8. Presentation of the Changes in the Pretest and Posttest Scores for Each Student

8. Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis is tested through a statistical procedure using a t-test. It should be mentioned that there are two types of t-tests; the unpaired t-tests (independent-samples t-tests) and paired t-tests (dependent-samples t-tests). In the former one, the results of two independent samples are compared. These two samples are often referred to as the experimental group that has gone through the treatment, and the control group, who has

took both pre-test and posttest without receiving any treatment. For this study, the most appropriate type of t-tests is the paired t-test (dependent-sample t-test), as the data were only gathered from the same sample that was tested twice. This means that every student has two scores. The main aim of calculating this t-test value is to determine the probability of the results that may have occurred under the null hypothesis. In case, the calculated probability is less, or equal to 0.05 the null hypothesis (H_0) will be rejected in favor to the positive hypothesis (H_1) (Chelli, 2011, cited in Boudjelal, 2015).

In this study, the null hypothesis (H_0) states that using the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of the use of conjunction in writing to students of third year LMD has no positive effect. i.e., there is no remarkable difference between the means of the pre- and the posttest. Apart from that, the alternative hypothesis (H_1) claims that the implementation of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions will improve student's proper use of this element. In other words, there will be a notable difference between the means of the tests' scores. In order to test the hypothesis, several procedures must be taken in consideration; there are as follows.

8.1. Calculation of the T-Test

The t-test calculation is a procedure that is conducted to ensure the existing relationship between the hypothesis' variables, and to prove that the independent variable, which is the (STAD) technique, has a strong impact on the dependent variable, which is students' use of conjunctions in writing. Since, one group has been used to drive the data and draw conclusions from, the formula for calculating the t-test is:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_{\text{post}} - \bar{X}_{\text{pre}}}{\text{Standard of Error of Mean (SEM)}}$$

To calculate the Standard Error (SE) of Mean, the following formula is given:

$$SEM = \frac{\frac{SD_{\text{pre}}}{\sqrt{N}} + \frac{SD_{\text{post}}}{\sqrt{N}}}{2}$$

Considering that:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{X}_{\text{Pretest}} &= 7.26. & SD_{\text{Pretest}} &= 1.15 \\ \bar{X}_{\text{Posttest}} &= 8.36. & SD_{\text{Posttest}} &= 0.76 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$SEM = \frac{1.15}{\sqrt{15}} + \frac{0.76}{\sqrt{15}} = 0.29 + 0.19 = \frac{0.48}{2} = 0.25$$

$$SEM = 0.25$$

Standard Error of the difference in Means is **0.25**.

Applying the above t-test formula, the following results are obtained:

$$t = \frac{(\bar{X} \text{ post} - \bar{X} \text{ pre})}{\text{Standard of Error of Mean (SEM)}} = \frac{(7.26 - 8.36)}{0.25} = -4.342$$

$$|t| = 4.34$$

8.2. Degree of Freedom (df)

The degree of freedom helps in determining the critical value. In order to calculate the former, one should consider the type of t-test sample and the number of the participants; the paired sample t-test in the case of this study.

$$df = N - 1 = 15 - 1 = 14.$$

$$df = 14.$$

8.3. Alpha Decision Level

The probability value (α) is used to indicate the improbability of H_0 to be correct as the smaller it gets, the more accurate and powerful the H_1 becomes. i.e., H_1 is accepted and H_0 is refused. In the current pre- and posttest studies, α is set at 0.05 which means only 05% chance of error can be tolerated. i.e., the 95% of the results are approved and confirmed. Since, H_1 does not go both ways; i.e., it has a positive claim about the results of the treatment; therefore, it is directional hypothesis (Cohen, et al., 2007), the test is of one-tailed hypothesis.

8.4. Critical Value

In view of the fact that, alpha is set at $\alpha = 0.05$ for a one-tailed decision, $df = 14$ and the corresponding critical value for “ t_{obs} ” in the table of the critical value is **1.7613**. Then, $t_{\text{observed}} > t_{\text{critical}}$ (**4.34 > 1.76**).

Since the null hypothesis (H_0) stands for no statistical difference between the means of the group either in the pre- or the posttest, the alternative hypothesis (H_1) claims that there is statistical difference between the means of the pre - and posttest. Hence, in order to test the hypothesis, the needed data is gathered in the following table.

$H_0: \bar{X}_{\text{post}} = \bar{X}_{\text{pre}}$ $H_1: \bar{X}_{\text{post}} > \bar{X}_{\text{pre}}$ $t_{\text{observed}} > t_{\text{critical}}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alpha level: $\alpha=0.05$, one-tailed (directional hypothesis) decision. • Observed statistics: $t_{\text{observed}} = 4.34$. • Critical statistics: $t_{\text{critical}}=1.76$ (from the table of critical value). • Degree of freedom: $df = 14$.

Table 3.2.16. Rules for Hypothesis Testing

Since the experimental statistics is greater than the critical value ($4.34 > 1.76$), the null hypothesis is not supported at $\alpha = 0.05$. So, having rejected the (H_0), the (H_1) is automatically accepted. This means that there is only 05% probability that the experimental (observed) mean difference: $\bar{X}_{\text{post}} > \bar{X}_{\text{pre}}$ ($8.36 > 7.26$) occurred by chance; i.e., a 95% probability that it was due to variables than chance reasoning. Since the null hypothesis has been rejected, it is clear that a 95% percent of certainty that the relationship between the two variables did not occur by chance. i.e., the use of the (STAD) technique has largely a positive effect on the scores of informants in the posttest mainly, and the use of conjunctions exclusively. Consequently, the causal alternative hypothesis (H_1) is supported, and the significance of the use of (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing is proved to be correct.

9. The Size Effect of the Tests

In order to add more reliability for this research work and gauge the effectiveness of the (STAD) technique, the study opts to calculating the Effect Size. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), the effect size (d or eta squared) is the calculation of the extent to which an observable fact is present or the extent to which the null hypothesis

(H₀) is not sustained. According to the same source, the eta squared is calculated in case of paired sample t-test using the following formula:

$$\text{Eta Squared} = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + (N - 1)}$$

$$\text{Eta Squared} = \frac{4.34^2}{4.34^2 + (15 - 1)} = \frac{18.8356}{18.8356 + 14} = \frac{18.8356}{32.8356}$$

$$\text{Eta Squared} = 0.57.$$

Taking Muijs (2004, cited in *ibid*) guidelines in determining the strength of the size effect, the eta squared of this study belongs to (>0.5), so it is of strong effect size. i.e., there is a significantly large effect from the (STAD) technique upon the students' scores in the posttest, and accordingly their use of conjunctions in writing.

10. The Use of (SPSS) Specialist and Teacher's Second Opinion

In order to add more reliability and credibility to the research results, a university teacher and a specialist in the use of the (SPSS) software have double-checked the credibility of the gathered results. And, the gathered results from her collaboration are communicated in the table below.

Paired Samples Statistics						
	Mean	N	SD	SD. Error Mean		
Pretest	7,2667	15	1,15907	0,29927		
Posttest	8,3667	15	0,76687	0,19801		
Paired Samples Test						
	Paired Differences			t-test	df	Sig. (one-tailed)
	Mean	SD	SEM	-4,342	14	0.018
pretest -posttest	-1,1	0,98107	0,25331			
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference						
Lower			Upper			
-1,64330			-,55670			

Table 3.2.17. The Gathered Results Using (SPSS) Software

From this table, it is observed the t statistic, $t = 4.342$, and $p = 0.018$; i.e., a very small probability of this result occurring by chance, under the null hypothesis (H_0). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, since $p < \alpha$ (in fact $p = 0.018$ and $\alpha = 0.05$). So, there is strong evidence ($t = 4.342$, $p = 0.018$) that the teaching intervention improved the scores. In this study's data set, it improved the marks, on average, by approximately 1 point. Of course, if one was to take a larger sample, he or she could get a greater mean difference in the marks of the pre- and posttest, and Confidence Interval that exceeds the (95%) found in this study.

CONCLUSION

During the period of the implementation of the (STAD) technique, participants had been taught using texts, and related activities with different aims to ascertain the effect of the treatment. The significant progress of the participants in the posttest's scores has statistically proved the benefits of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of the proper use of conjunctions in writing. Consequently, the null hypothesis (H_0) has been rejected at an alpha level $\alpha = 0.05$ which denotes that the output of the treatment was not a mere result of chance, but rather than the significant contribution of the (STAD) technique. Similarly, the calculation of the size effect has eliminated the chances of error in the results. The Confirmation of the alternative hypothesis (H_1) reinforces the assumption that the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing using the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique will enhance the learners' use of this grammatical element in their written products. It is definitely worth mentioning that the pilot study has extremely contributed to the organisation and the conduct of the final version of the quasi-experimental design through students' feedback and testing the effectiveness of the first assessment rubric.

PART THREE: CORPUS-BASED EXAMINATION OF THE PRE- AND POSTTEST PARAGRAPHS

INTRODUCTION

After having finished the quantitative and qualitative examination of the pre-and the posttest, it is necessary to conduct a sort of qualitative investigation of the used conjunctions to achieve a better and in-depth understanding of the semantic-pragmatic content and the poly-functional use of conjunctions (Blackmore, 2002; Mosegaard-Hansen, 1998, cited in Carlsen, 2010). Ergo, this study uses a quantitative, and qualitative corpus-based examination of the paragraphs of the pre- and posttest in order to determine the percentage of each of the used types of conjunctions, the over/under/ mis- use of conjunctions. To start with is the use of conjunctions in the pre- and the posttest, then, a comparative evaluation between the two will take a place to conclude this part of the investigation.

1. Statistical Considerations Related to the Use of Conjunctions in the Pretest

1.1. The Used Conjunctions in the Pretest

The following table shows the different types of conjunctions that the students used in their paragraphs of the pretest, the sum, the percentage, and the mean for each type. And, the forthcoming pie-chart represents the percentage for each of the used types (coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, adverbials and prepositional phrases).

Pretest Used Conjunctions				
N	Students' Names	Coordinating	Subordinating	Adverbials and Prepositional Phrases
1	A.S	2	0	1
2	R.H	6	2	4
3	K. Gh	4	1	4
4	K.A	5	2	1
5	S.M.H	3	3	0
6	L.S	4	1	0
7	Gh.I	10	3	0
8	N.I.D	2	0	1
9	G.T.A	7	2	0
10	Ch.A	6	4	3
11	R.M	2	1	4
12	D.H	8	1	2
13	Gh.H	8	4	1
14	M.F.Z	13	2	2
15	Gh.M.S	7	1	3
Sum of Conjunctions		87	27	26
Percentage (%)		62	19.24	18.75
Mean		5.8	1.8	1.73

Table 3.3.1. The Used Types of Conjunctions in the Pretest: the Sum, the Percentage, and the Mean

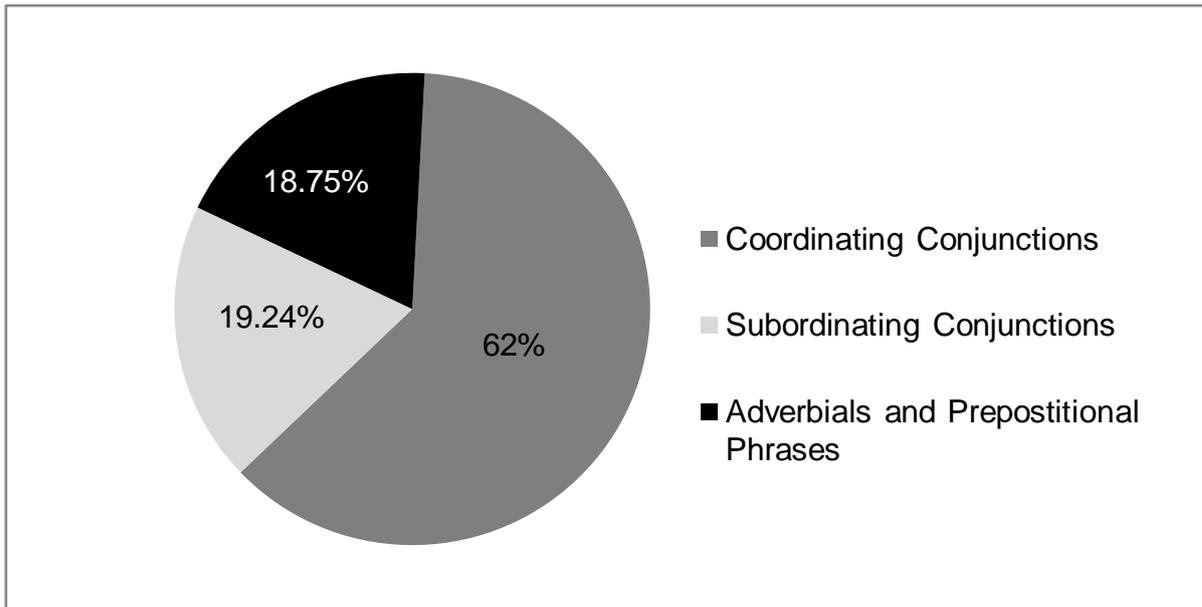


Figure 3.3.1. The Percentage of the Used Types of Conjunctions in the Pretest

Both the table and the piechart demonstrate students' overuse of the coordinating conjunctions (**62%**) on the expense of the subordinating conjunctions (**19.24%**), adverbial and prepositional phrases (**18.75%**). Such results were expected as most of the used coordinating conjunctions is the "and" conjunction. This is linked to students' responses in the questionnaire about which type of linking words and phrases they find challenging to use (please, refer to the analysis of the student's questionnaires in the preceding part of this chapter for more details).

1.2. The Correct Use of Conjunctions in the Pretest

The following table presents the difference between the full number of the used conjunctions in the pretest's paragraph, and the correct number of the used conjunctions.

Pretest Calculations				
N	Students' Names	Full Number of the Used Conjunctions	Correct Conjunctions	Difference
1	A.S	3	2	1
2	R.H	12	4	8
3	K. Gh	9	3	6
4	K.A	8	5	3
5	S.M.H	6	5	1
6	L.S	5	5	0
7	Gh.I	13	6	7
8	N.I.D	3	3	0
9	G.T.A	9	6	3
10	Ch.A	13	6	7
11	R.M	7	2	5
12	D.H	11	5	6
13	Gh.H	13	6	7
14	M.F.Z	17	9	8
15	Gh.M.S	11	6	5
Sum of conjunctions		140	73	67
Mean of conjunctions		9.33	4.86	4.46

Table 3.3.2. The Full Number of the Used Conjunctions, the Correct Ones, and the Difference between the Two in the Pretest

In the pretest, it has been recorded 139 uses of conjunctions, only 73 of them are correct, the other 67 are wrongly used either in terms of syntax, punctuation or content. Some statistical inferences about the numbers of the used conjunctions are revealed from table (3.2.17.), in terms of: the mode, the highest and the lowest numbers, and the range of values. First, in the list of the full number of the used conjunctions:

- The mode in the list of full numbers of the used conjunctions in a paragraph is 13; whereas, the median is 09.
- The full numbers of the used conjunctions varied from 3 to 17 with a range difference of 14.

In the list of the numbers of the correct uses of conjunctions:

- The mode is 6 and the median is 5.
- The numbers of the correct uses of conjunctions varied from 2 to 9 with a range difference of 7.

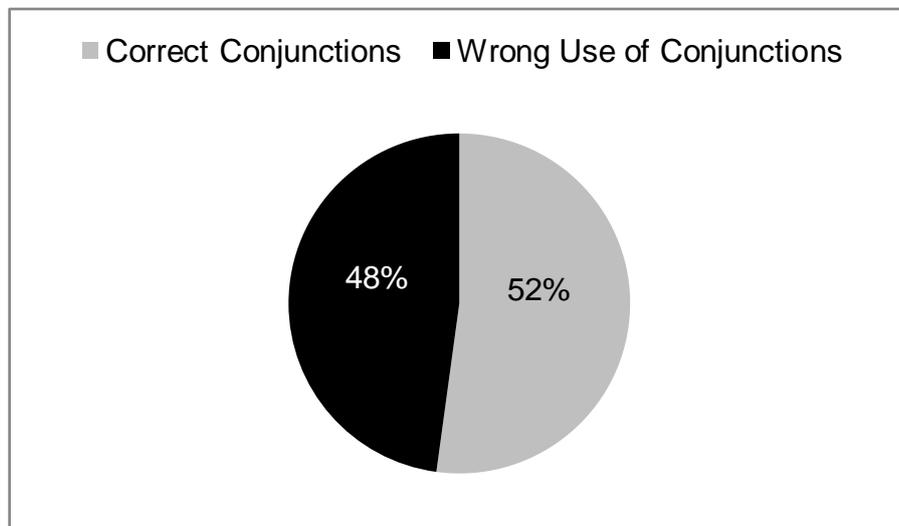
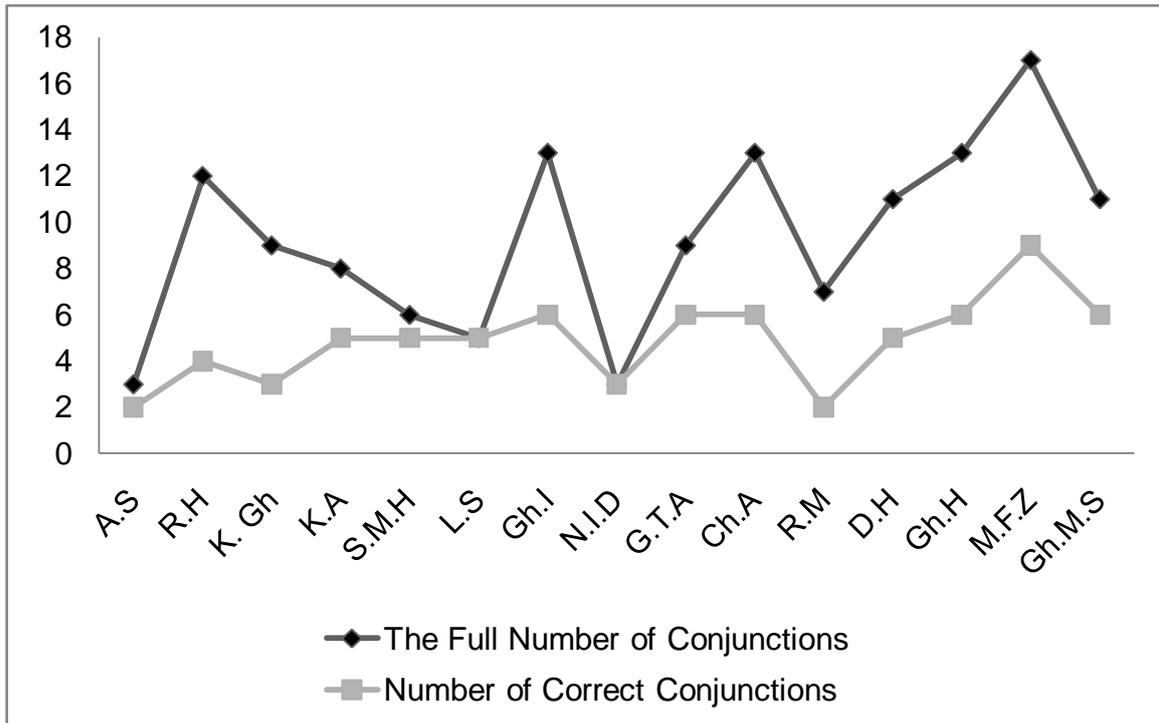


Figure 3.3.2. The Difference between the Erroneously and the Correctly Used Conjunctions in Students' Pretest Paragraphs

In the above figure, it is clearly shown that almost the half of the used conjunctions from the total number (48%) of the used conjunctions are incorrect; which demonstrates students' misuse of this grammatical element.



Graph 3.3.1. A Linegraph of the Difference between the Correct and the Incorrect Uses of Conjunctions for Each Student in the Pretest

From the linegraph, it is obvious that most of the students use a noticeably large amount of conjunctions without a little consideration of the how right or wrong they might be. The students: (R.H), (M.F.Z) and (Ch.A), (Gh.H) and (Gh.I) had significant differences (8 and 7) between the accurate and inaccurate uses of conjunctions. In general, the line graph demonstrates the lack of the proper use of conjunctions among the participants.

2. Statistical Considerations Related to the Use of Conjunctions in the Posttest

2.1. The Used Conjunctions in the Posttest

The table below shows the different types of conjunctions that the students used in their paragraphs of the posttest, the sum, the percentage, and the mean for each type.

Posttest Used Conjunctions				
N	Students' Names	Coordinating	Subordinating	Adverbials and Prepositionals
1	A.S	2	0	1
2	R.H	5	1	4
3	K. Gh	5	1	5
4	K.A	7	3	1
5	S.M.H	3	3	0
6	L.S	4	3	1
7	Gh.I	7	4	0
8	N.I.D	2	0	3
9	G.T.A	8	2	0
10	Ch.A	8	1	6
11	R.M	2	1	4
12	D.H	6	2	2
13	Gh.H	5	3	3
14	M.F.Z	12	1	4
15	Gh.M.S	4	1	5
Sum of conjunctions		80	26	39
Percentage (%)		55	18	27
Mean		5.33	1.73	2.6

Table 3.3.3. The Used Types of Conjunctions in the Posttest: the Sum, the Percentage, and the Mean

For better visualisation of data, the following piechart is arranged.

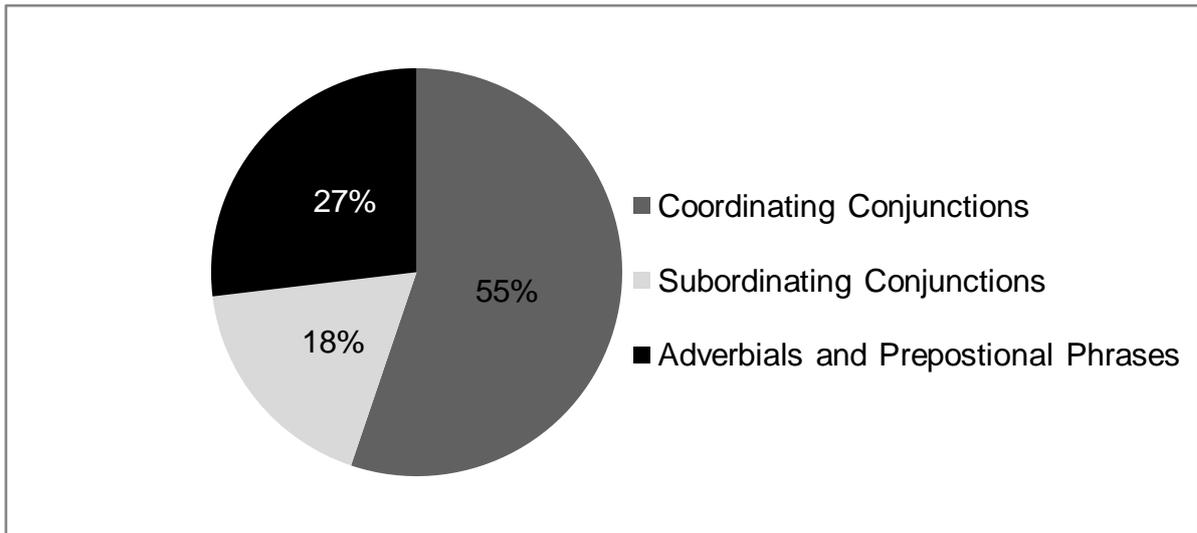


Figure 3.3.3. The Percentage of the Used Types of Conjunctions in the Posttest

The table of the used types of conjunctions in posttest reveals that the coordinating conjunctions (55%) are still in the lead for the main used conjunctions, while almost equal percentage of using subordinating conjunctions (18%), and adverbials and prepositional phrases (27%) is recorded in the posttest paragraphs.

2.2. The Correct Use of Conjunctions in the Posttest

The following table demonstrates the difference between the full number of the used conjunctions in the students' posttest paragraphs, and the correct number of the used conjunctions.

Posttest Calculations				
N	Students' Names	Full Number of the Used Conjunctions	Correct Conjunctions	Difference
1	A.S	3	3	0
2	R.H	10	8	2
3	K. Gh	11	10	1
4	K.A	11	11	0
5	S.M.H	6	6	0
6	L.S	8	7	1
7	Gh.I	11	9	2
8	N.I.D	5	4	1
9	G.T.A	10	10	0
10	Ch.A	15	12	3
11	R.M	7	5	2
12	D.H	10	7	3
13	Gh.H	11	7	4
14	M.F.Z	17	15	2
15	Gh.M.S	10	8	2
Sum of conjunctions		145	122	23
Mean of conjunctions		9.66	8.13	1.53

Table 3.3.4. The Full Number of the Used Conjunctions, the Correct Ones, and the Difference between the Two in the Posttest

In the posttest, it has been recorded 145 use of conjunctions, only 23 of them are incorrect, the other 122 are totally accurate in terms of syntax, punctuation or even content. Some statistical inferences about the numbers of the used conjunctions are revealed from table (3.3.4.), in terms of: the mode, the highest and the lowest numbers, and the range of values. First, in the list of the full number of the used conjunctions:

- The mode in the list of full numbers of the used conjunctions in a paragraph is 11; whereas, the median is 10.
- The full numbers of the used conjunctions varied from 3 to 17 with a range difference of 14.

In the list of the numbers of the correct use of conjunctions:

- The mode is 7 and the median is 8.
- The numbers of the correct uses of conjunctions varied from 3 to 15 with a range difference of 12.

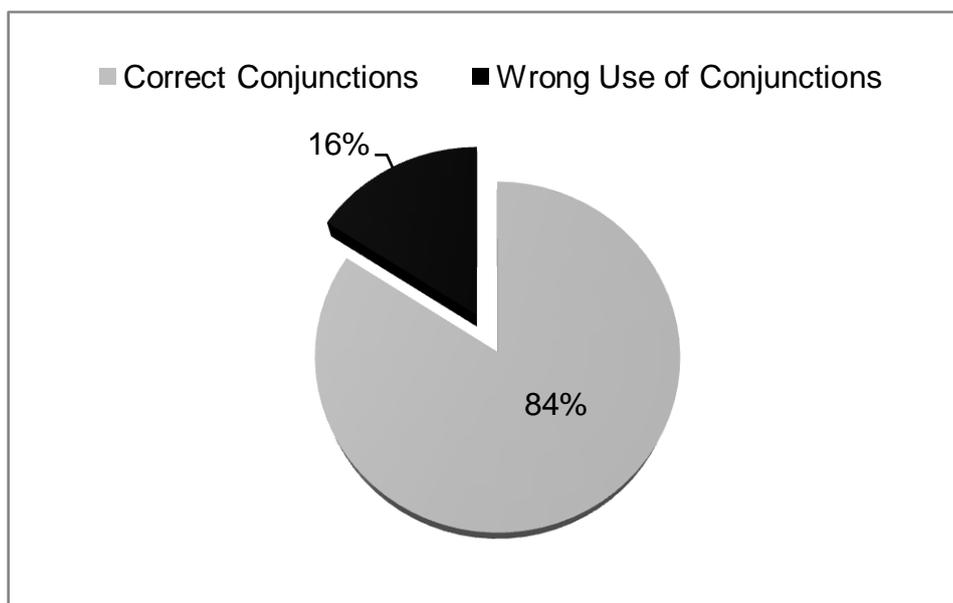
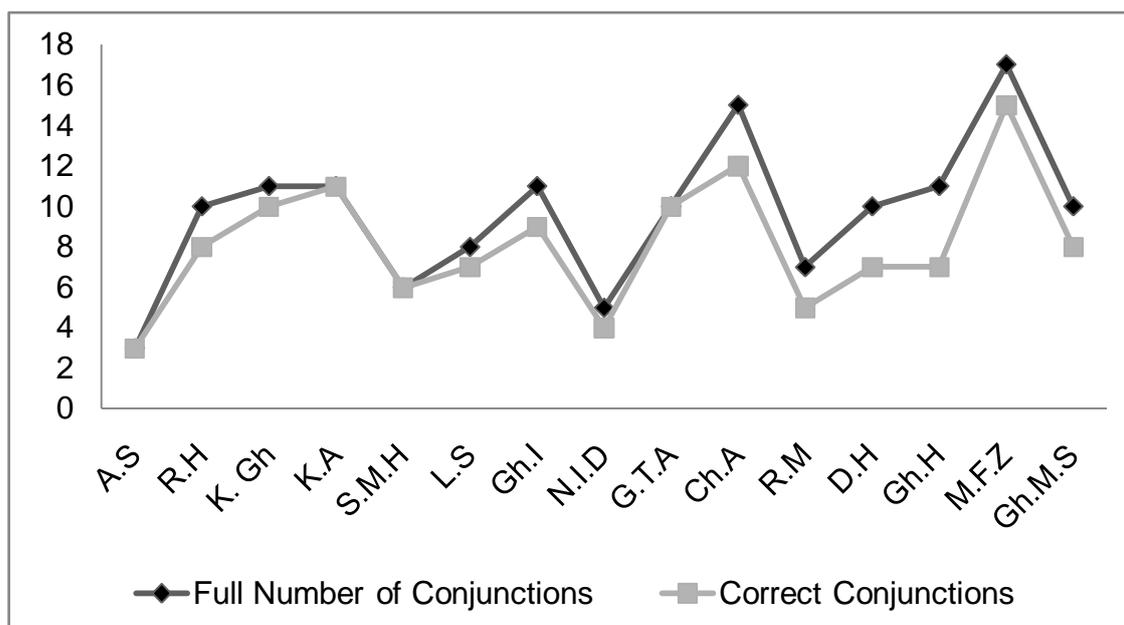


Figure 3.3.4. The Difference between the Erroneously and the Correctly Used Conjunctions in Students' Posttest Paragraphs

In the above visualisation, the majority (**84%**) of the used conjunctions in the posttest paragraphs of the informants are properly used, while only (**16%**) is considered misused. These results reveal the effectiveness of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing, and the success of the treatment that the students received during the quasi-experiment sessions.



Graph 3.3.2. A Linegraph of the Difference between the Correct and the Incorrect Uses of Conjunctions for Each Student in the Posttest

The above linegraph can be divided into two main parts. In the first part, which starts from (A.S) students and ends at (G.T.A) student, both lines almost overlap. This means that the number of the correct conjunctions is approximately identical to the full number of the used conjunction with (0, 1, or 2) difference only. The second part of the linegraph starts with (Gh.A) and ends with (Gh.H). In this part, there is a considerable distance between the two linegraphs due to the (2, 3, and 4) difference that is recorded between the full number of the used conjunctions and the correct ones. With the students (M.F.Z and Gh.M.S) the difference in the linegraphs has gone unnoticeable again like in the first part with 2 elements differentiation. Although there is a maximum of 5 unites difference between the used and the correct conjunctions in the second part of the linegraph, the treatment is still deemed successful as the overall results have improved.

3. Comparative Evaluation of the Use of Conjunctions in Both Tests

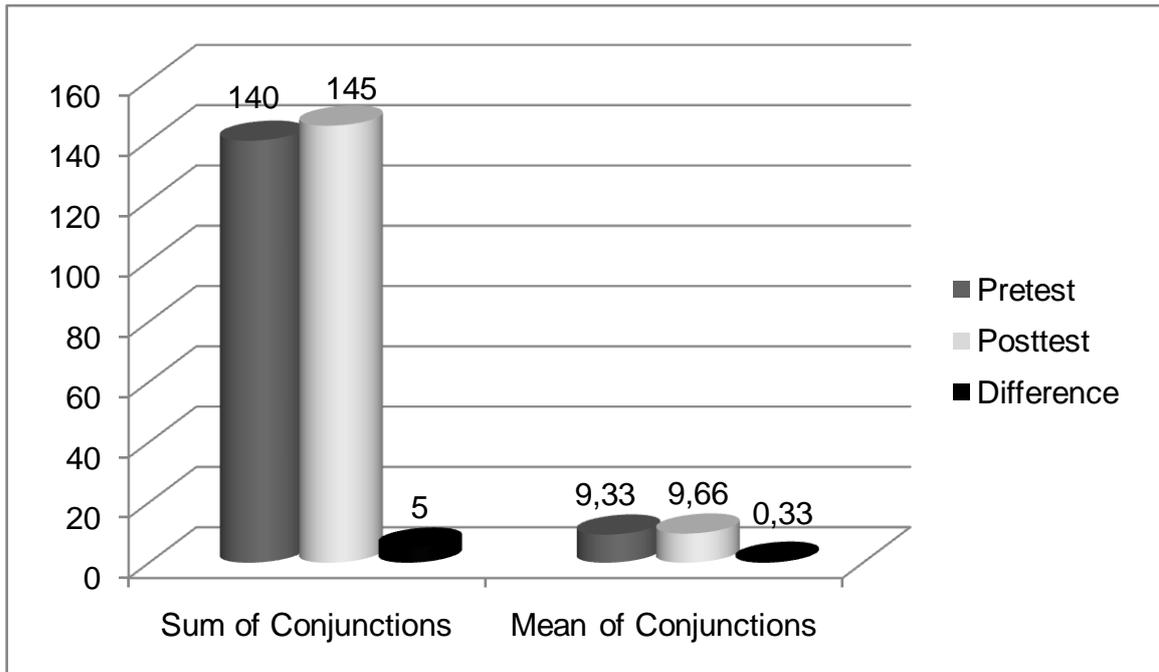
3.1. The Numbers of the Used Conjunctions in Pretest and Posttest

The following table demonstrates the numbers of the used conjunctions in both tests by each informant, in spite of its correctness in terms of punctuation, syntax or content.

N	Students' Names	Pretest	Posttest	Difference
1	A.S	3	3	0
2	R.H	12	10	-2
3	K. Gh	9	11	+2
4	K.A	8	11	+3
5	S.M.H	6	6	0
6	L.S	5	8	+3
7	Gh.I	13	11	-2
8	N.I.D	3	5	+2
9	G.T.A	9	10	+1
10	Ch.A	13	15	+2
11	R.M	7	7	0
12	D.H	11	10	-1
13	Gh.H	13	11	-2
14	M.F.Z	17	17	0
15	Gh.M.S	11	10	-1
Sum of conjunctions		140	145	5
Mean of conjunctions		9.33	9.66	0.33

Table 3.3.5. The Numbers of the Used Conjunctions in Both Tests

To demonstrate the data of the above table, the following graph is suggested.

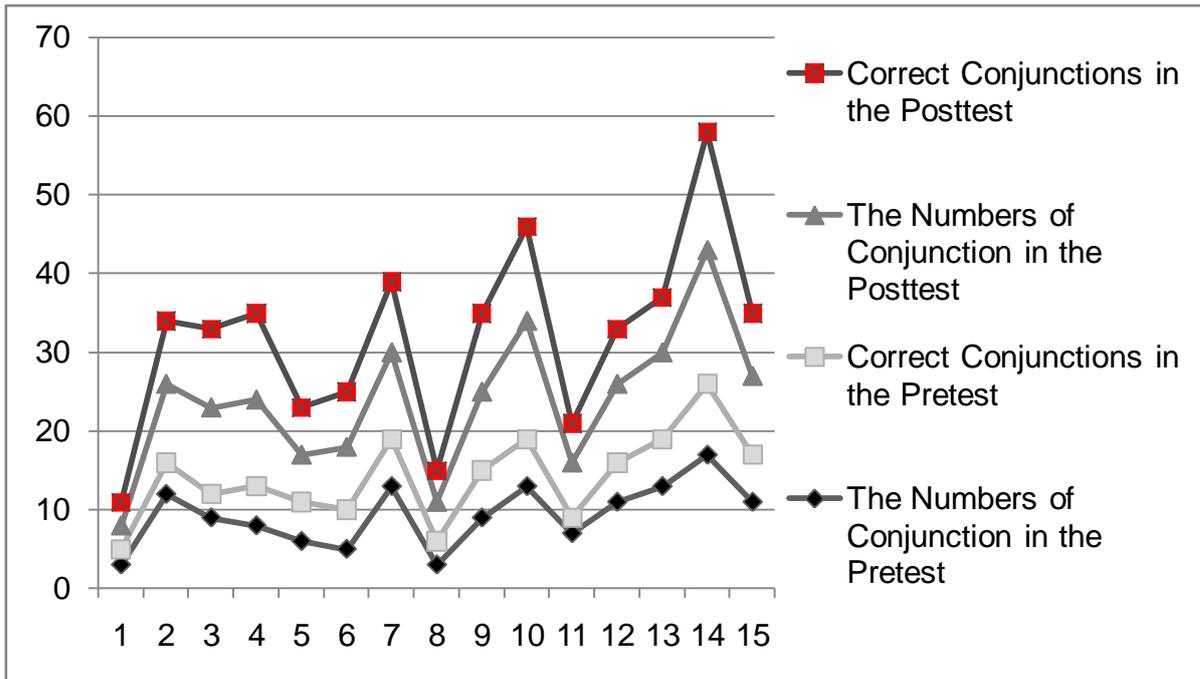


Graph 3.3.3. The Difference between the Two Tests: Sum of Conjunctions, and the Means

The above graph and the previous table demonstrate the difference in the sum of conjunctions and the Means in each test. It is obvious that there is a (5) unites change in the use of conjunctions in the posttest.

3.2. The Difference between the Numbers of the Used and the Correct Conjunctions in Both Tests

To demonstrate the effectiveness of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions, the pretest's and posttest's full numbers of the used conjunctions and the correct uses are communicated in the following line graph to show the differences between the two tests.



Graph 3.3.4. The Difference between the Numbers of the Used Conjunctions and the Correctness Levels in Both Tests

It is obvious that the use of conjunctions between the two tests has gone through a notable change. As the full number of the used conjunctions has rocketed in the posttest, and so is the levels of correctness of those conjunctions; unlike, in the pretest lines, where there is a remarkable gap between the overall used conjunctions, and the levels of the correctness in them. This clearly entails to what extent the (STAD) technique (the used treatment during the quasi-experimental design) have succeeded in developing the informants' proper use of conjunctions for the betterment of their written products.

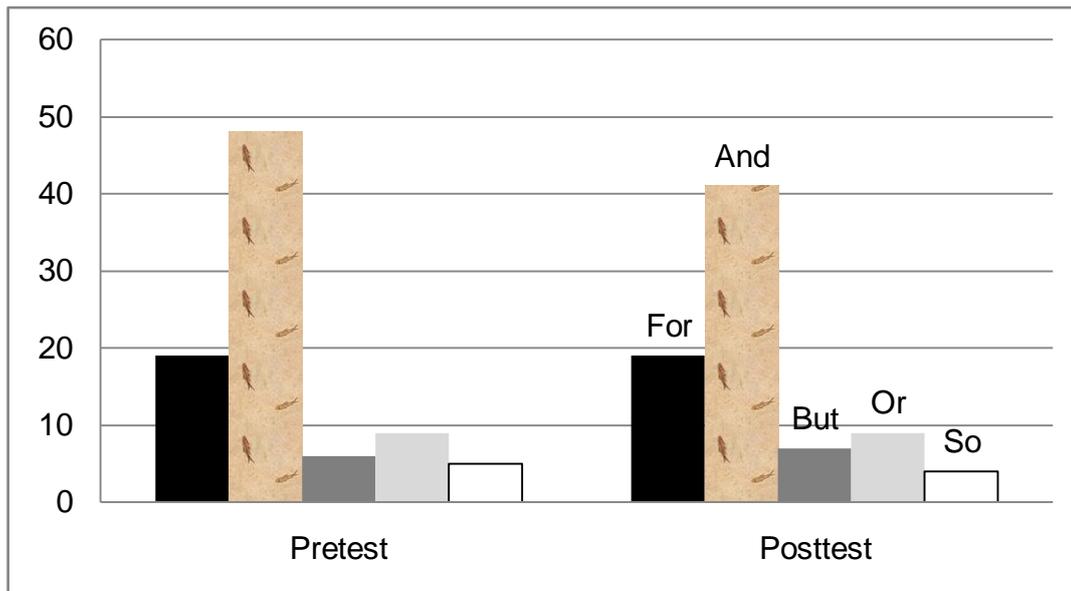
3.3. The Numbers of Each of the Used Coordinating Conjunctions

In order to provide a thorough look into the numbers of each of the used conjunctions; starting from the coordinating conjunctions, the following table is put together after the examination of the pre- and posttest paragraphs of the informants.

Pretest							
Name	For	And	Nor	But	Or	Yet	So
A.S	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
R.H	2	4	-	-	-	-	-
K. Gh	1	1	-	-	1	-	1
K.A	4	-	-	-	1	-	-
S.M.H	1	-	-	1	1	-	-
L.S	-	4	-	-	-	-	-
Gh.I	-	7	-	2	-	-	1
N.I.D	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
G.T.A	1	3	-	-	2	-	1
Ch.A	2	3	-	-	1	-	-
R.M	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
D.H	3	5	-	-	-	-	-
Gh.H	-	2	-	3	3	-	-
M.F.Z	2	9	-	-	-	-	2
Gh.M.S	-	7	-	-	-	-	-
Sum	19	48	0	6	9	0	5
Mean	1.26	3.2	0	0.4	0.6	0	0.33
Posttest							
A.S	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
R.H	1	3	-	-	1	-	-
K. Gh	1	2	-	1	1	-	-
K.A	5	1	-	-	1	-	-
S.M.H	1	-	-	1	1	-	-
L.S	-	3	-	1	-	-	-
Gh.I	1	3	-	2	-	-	1
N.I.D	-	1	-	-	1	-	-
G.T.A	1	4	-	-	2	-	1
Ch.A	3	4	-	-	1	-	-
R.M	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
D.H	2	4	-	-	-	-	-
Gh.H	-	2	-	2	1	-	-
M.F.Z	1	9	-	-	-	-	2
Gh.M.S	-	4	-	-	-	-	-
Sum	19	41	0	7	9	0	4
Mean	1.26	2.73	0	0.46	0.6	0	0.26

Table 3.3.6. Pre- and Posttest: the Used Coordinating Conjunctions by Each Informant

To better demonstrate the findings of the above table, the following graph is suggested.



Graph 3.3.5. The Pre- and the Posttest Differences in the Used Coordinating Conjunctions

During the pretest, it is recorded that ‘and’ (48) is one of the two main used coordinating conjunctions. The overuse of ‘and’ is due to the negative transfer of (و) from the Arabic language which is the (MT) of the informants. To better explain this point, consider the following demonstrative examples taken from the participants’ pretest papers:

- Etiquette is a code of behavior based on treating others with honesty, respect ‘and’ consideration ‘and’ one of the most stressful ‘and’ confusing aspects of etiquette today is tipping.
- Because in order to make your dreams ‘and’ what you want to reach true you have to work hard ‘and’ do not stop at dreaming, ‘and’ this means that you have to try over ‘and’ over ‘and’ learn from your mistakes.
- The main obvious reason in studying with a group is that it can help student to gain more knowledge ‘and’ offers a chance to discuss the problems ‘and’ exchange opinions with each other.

In the posttest, it has been an attempt to lessen the overuse of ‘and’ (41) by the students, as other conjunctions with additive meaning (like: furthermore and moreover) has been introduced, and students have been helped to recognise that such overuse is incorrect. In general, some coordinating conjunctions remain absent before and after the treatment (Nor, and yet), the use of ‘but’ has slightly increased in the posttest; whereas, the use of ‘so’ has shown slight decrease in the posttest (1 element difference).

3.4. The Numbers of Each of the Used Subordinating Conjunctions

The following table is put together after the examination of the pre- and posttest paragraphs of the informants in order to investigate the use of the subordinating conjunctions.

Pretest								
N	Although	Also	when	as	because	since	whereas	In order that
1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	-
3	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
4	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-
5	-	1	-	-	2	-	-	-
6	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	-
8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
10	-	2	1	-	-	-	1	-
11	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
12	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	-	1	2	-	1	-	-	-
14	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
15	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Σ	0	9	4	2	9	1	1	1
\bar{X}	0	0.6	0.26	0.1	0.6	0.06	0.06	0.06
Posttest								
1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
3	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	-
5	-	1	-	-	2	-	-	-
6	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	-	-	1	1	2	-	-	-
8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
11	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
12	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-
13	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-
14	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
15	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Σ	2	7	2	2	11	1	1	0
\bar{X}	0.13	0.46	0.13	0.1	0.73	0.06	0.06	0

Table 3.3.7. The Pre- and Posttest: the Used Subordinating Conjunctions by Each Informant

Through the gathered data, it is clear that the informants overuse the two subordinating conjunctions ‘also’ and ‘because’. In the posttest, the number of the used ‘also’ has decreased from **9** to **7** because of the introduced conjunctives and prepositional phrases with the same function and meaning as ‘also’. But, it seems that in spite of the introduced linking words and phrases with causal meaning, students still fail to change their habit of overusing ‘because’. In fact, in the posttest, the use of ‘because’ has increased by **2** elements difference. The posttest also witnessed attempts to use the subordinating conjunction ‘although’ by two informants. The second most used subordinating conjunctions are ‘when’ (**4**) and ‘as’ (**2**) in both tests. It is probably that these are mostly used because students find them easily to be remembered and handled in writing; unlike other linking words and phrases which may cause confusion because of the need syntax and grammar that they acquire; for example, to use ‘because of’ in a sentence, it is necessary to consider the use of a noun phrase afterwards.

3.5. The Numbers of Each of the Used Conjunctive Adverbs

In spite of the introduced concluding prepositional phrases (like: as a conclusion, and at last), most of the informants still use ‘finally’ in order to introduce their concluding sentence, in fact, even afterwards. The posttest analysis shows that the use of this conjunctive has increased with 2 elements difference. It is worth mentioning that some attempts of incorporating other conjunctives (namely, nonetheless, nevertheless) and prepositional phrases (to sum up, apart from); that the lesson did not include, have been recorded in the posttest paragraphs. This demonstrates students own contributions to the lesson and issue in general, and again the effectiveness of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing. The following table exhibit what have just been explained.

Pretest								
N	however	nonetheless	therefore	namely	finally	instead	furthermore	moreover
1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
3	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
12	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
13	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
14	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Σ	1	0	1	0	4	1	0	0
\bar{X}	0.06	0	0.06	0	0.26	0.06	0	0
Posttest								
1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
3	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-
4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-
9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
12	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
13	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-
14	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Σ	0	1	2	1	6	0	1	1
\bar{X}	0	0.06	0.13	0.06	0.4	0	0.06	0.06

Table 3.3.8. The Pre- and Posttest: the Used Conjunctions by Each Informant

3.6. The Numbers of Each of the Used Prepositional Phrases

The forthcoming table is set after the examination of the paragraphs of the informants in order to investigate the use of prepositional phrases in the pre- and posttest.

Pretest												
N	For example	Such as	On the other hand	In addition	To sum up	Apart from	As well as	For that reason	As a result	As a conclusion	At last	In the same way
1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	-	-	-
12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
15	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
Σ	4	4	2	1	1	0	2	1	1	1	1	0
\bar{X}	0.26	0.26	0.13	0.06	0.06	0	0.13	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0
Posttest												
1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
4	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	1	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	-	-	-
12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
14	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-
15	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	-
Σ	4	5	2	2	1	1	3	2	1	1	1	2
\bar{X}	0.26	0.33	0.13	0.13	0.06	0.06	0.2	0.13	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.13

Table 3.3.9. The Pre- and Posttest: the Used Prepositional phrases

In the pretest, it has been recorded the overuse of ‘for example’, ‘such as’ and ‘as well as’ by the informants who used each of the mentioned conjunctions more than once. To prove this point, these examples are taken from the pretest paragraphs of the participants (03) and (15):

- Cell phones can be very helpful for students in their academics ‘for example;’ they could use them to take pictures of experiments done by their teacher. [...]

In addition, students need mobiles in case of emergency ‘for example;’ a death in the family or an accident that has happened.

- They experience physical violence from their teacher as well as from their classmates, ‘such as’ (hitting, pushing, and other ways of punishment); and mental violence ‘such as’ (name calling, bullying, and humiliating).

In spite of the misuse of punctuation and other conjunctions, it is obvious that the two informants have overused the mentioned prepositional phrases (for example, such as). In the posttest, both participants have accurately used these prepositional phrases:

- Cell phones can be very helpful for the students in their academics‘; for example,’ they could use them to take pictures of experiments done by their teacher. [...] Also, students need mobiles in case of emergency ‘; such as,’ a death in the family or an accident that has happened.
- They experience physical violence from their teachers as well as their classmates ‘; such as,’ beating, hitting and pushing. Another kind they may witness is mental violence ‘as’ name calling, humiliating, bullying and so on.

3.7. The Whole Syntax Grading Before and After the Treatment

The following table represents an unexpected result that has been noticed when grading the pre- and posttest paragraphs which is the improvement in the general syntax of the paragraph. The research study did not consider the effect that the introduction of the proper use of conjunctions through the (STAD) technique will have on the overall sentencing of the paragraphs; which has improved by (2.25) difference. Most of the informants’ scores (6/15) have increased by (0.25). Of course, with a larger sample, a longer products of investigation (essays instead of one paragraph) or using different assessment rubric, the difference between the two would have been greater than this (2.25) difference; which is still significant even though. It should be mentioned that these results are collected through the used final assessment rubric (page: 115).

N	Students' Names	Pretest	Posttest	Difference
1	A.S	0.5	0.5	0
2	R.H	0.5	0.75	+0.25
3	K. Gh	0.75	0.75	0
4	K.A	0.5	0.75	+0.25
5	S.M.H	0.25	0.75	+0.5
6	L.S	0.5	0.75	+0.25
7	Gh.I	0.25	0.75	+0.5
8	N.I.D	0.5	0.5	0
9	G.T.A	0.5	0.75	+0.25
10	Ch.A	0.75	0.5	-0.25
11	R.M	0.25	0.25	0
12	D.H	0.5	0.75	+0.25
13	Gh.H	0.5	0.5	0
14	M.F.Z	0.25	0.25	0
15	Gh.M.S	0.5	0.75	+0.25
Sum of Grades		7	9.25	2.25
Mean of Grades		0.46	0.61	0.15

Table 3.3.10. The Pre- and Posttest: the Overall Syntax Grading

CONCLUSION

The corpus-based examination of the pre- and the posttest paragraphs has revealed many worth mentioning results. First of all, in the pretest, the students overuse the coordinating conjunctions (**62%**) on the expense of the subordinating conjunctions (**19.24%**), and adverbial and prepositional phrases (**18.75%**). Such results were expected as the most of the used coordinating conjunctions is “and” (**48**) because of negative transfer from (MT). Second, it has been recorded (**139**) use of conjunctions, only (**73**) of them are correct, the other (**67**) are wrongly used either in terms of: syntax, punctuation or content; which demonstrates students’ misuse of this grammatical element. Next, the posttest discloses that the coordinating conjunctions (**55%**) are still the main used conjunctions, while almost equal percentage of using subordinating conjunctions (**18%**), adverbials and prepositional phrases (**27%**) is recorded. The posttest’s paragraphs have also recorded (**145**) uses of conjunctions, only (**23**) of them are incorrect; the other (**122**) are totally accurate in terms of: syntax, punctuation or even content. i.e., the majority (**84%**) of the used conjunctions are properly used.

In more in-depth scrutinising into the paragraphs, it has been noticed that the informants overuse the coordinating conjunction ‘and’, the two subordinating conjunctions ‘also’ and ‘because’, the adverbial ‘finally’ and the prepositional phrases ‘for example’, ‘such as’ and ‘as well as’. Some of these overused linking words or phrases have been lessened through the use of other conjunctions when necessary, others not so much as the informants have kept on using ‘finally’, in spite of the introduced concluding prepositional phrases. Probably, because such conjunctives are syntactically easy to handle that is why most participants use them so often.

It is worth mentioning that some successful attempts of incorporating other conjunctives or prepositional phrases; that the lesson did not include, have been recorded in the posttest paragraphs. Also, an unexpected but fruitful result has been noticed, when scoring the paragraphs, which is the improvement of the overall sentencing of the paragraphs. All in all, these results reveal the effectiveness of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing, and the success of the treatment that the students received during the quasi-experiment sessions.

PART FOUR: THE QUESTIONNAIRE OF THIRD YEAR LMD WRITTEN EXPRESSION TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION

This part of the present study aims at identifying the reasons behind teachers' lack of the use of cooperative learning activities in general and the (STAD) technique in particular. Not to forget to mention that it also aims at gauging teachers' awareness of (CL) and (STAD) technique, determining the challenges that they encounter in the implementation of cooperative task, and other writing and cooperative learning related issues. Therefore, to investigate these elements a questionnaire will be conducted to gather the necessary data for this research study.

1. Aim of the Teachers' Questionnaire

Since teachers are supposed to be strongly concerned with the application of the different tasks and techniques that are CL-related, it makes them a valuable source of data gathering. Consequently, a semi-structured questionnaire is used to answer some important questions, and investigate several issues about CL, teaching writing and conjunctions. A more detailed aims for using this questionnaire is explained below.

- 4- To determine the challenges that teachers face when using the Student Teams-Achievement Division technique or any other cooperative learning tasks.
- 5- To evaluate teachers' awareness and knowledge about the practices of the cooperative learning models and the use of Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD) technique.
- 6- To find out the reasons behind teachers' lack of using of cooperative learning tasks in general, and the Student Teams-Achievement Division technique in particular.

2. Description of the Teachers' Sample

Since the study deals with the writing skill, the teachers of written expression have been used as a sample. In spite of this, written expression teachers use various cooperative learning tasks that relate to writing, which can be useful in enhancing students' writing skill. To be able to link the students' sample of the quasi-experiment with this questionnaire, only teachers of third year LMD of written expression courses are used.

There are only (06) teachers at the English Department who teach written expression for the 3rd year LMD students, and who have answered the present questionnaire.

3. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The present questionnaire (appendix 4) consists of three sections (qualifications and experience, writing skill and sub-skills, and cooperative groups at work) with a total of twenty-nine (29) questions. These questions ranged between close-ended and open-ended questions. The type of the question items varied from using: Likert scale, yes or no questions, Multiple Choice Questions (MCQ), rank order items to open-ended questions. Qualifications and experience section aims to identify the participant's qualifications and experiences in order to build a referential background about the subjects. Writing skill and sub-skills section provides essential answers that are linked to the students' level, opinions about didactic writing and grammar issues, the subject's preferences and perceptions of the used materials and what is considered to them good writing. i.e., this part also provides a boost element to the students' questionnaire. The last section, cooperative groups at work, aims to determine teachers' attitudes and preferences about using cooperative groups in general and the (STAD) technique in particular.

The qualifications and experience section has two questions only. It mainly represents teachers' personal profile; therefore, it seeks their degree, and experience. Writing skill and sub-skills section contains 10 questions. It states teachers' evaluation of students' level and different writing inefficiencies, and other issues related to the present theme of study. Section three, cooperative groups at work section, includes 21 questions that investigate group-related matters; for instance, the teacher's perception of students' satisfaction with leadership, and the difficulties of working in cooperative groups.

4. Administering the Teachers' Questionnaire

The teacher's questionnaire has been administered to the chosen sample at the English Department of Biskra University during a period of two weeks. Teachers preferred to answer it at home, and schedule a meeting with the researcher later on when they can. It should be noted that no first version of the teachers' questionnaire have been used because of the lack of time, the unavailability of teachers, and the few participants.

5. The Teachers' Questionnaire Results: Analysis and Interpretation

A process of analysing and interpreting the findings is to be conducted after having collected the responses of the participants. The collected data are communicated through different tables and charts using the (SPSS) software. The interpretation of findings aims mainly to determine teachers' attitudes towards the use of Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique in the implicit teaching of the use of conjunctions, and gauge the extent to which teachers of English at Mohamed Kheider University are aware of such technique. So, here are the findings and their interpretations.

5.1. Section One: Qualifications and Experiences

1. What degree do you hold?

Choice	Frequency
Licence / B.A.	0
Magister / M.A.	4
Doctorate / Ph.D	2

Table 3.4.1. Teachers' Qualification

The table shows that (04) teachers hold a Magister or M.A. degree, while (02) other teachers have a Doctorate or Ph.D in teaching English. This means that the sample of teachers is more than qualified, and fully-versed in the teaching / learning approaches and regarding the writing skill in English.

2. How long have you been teaching written expression at university?

Choice	Frequency
Less than one year	0
From one to five years	2
More than five years	4

Table 3.4.2. Teachers' Years of Experience in Teaching Written Expression at University

In table (3.4.2), it is recorded that most of the teachers of the sample (04) have taught more than five years written expression module at (MKUB), while only (02) subjects from the whole sample have taught written expression from one to five years period only. This demonstrates that the sample is a mixture between novice and experienced teachers.

3. How long have you been teaching written expression for 3rd year LMD students?

Choice	Frequency
One year or less	0
From one to five years	2
More than five years	4

Table 3.4.3. Teachers' Years of Experience in Teaching Written Expression for Third Year LMD Students

In the above table, teachers were asked about how many years they have been teaching written expression courses for third year LMD students. The results are the same as the results for the previous question. And, it means that the department of English has a considerable number of experienced teachers in teaching the writing skill and in developing students' awareness of the importance of writing in English in EFL environment.

5.2. Section Two: Writing Skill and Sub-skills

1. How would you evaluate your 3rd year LMD students' level of writing in English?

Choice	Frequency
Good	0
Average	6
Bad	0

Table 3.4.4. Teachers' Evaluation of Writing in English for Third Year LMD Students

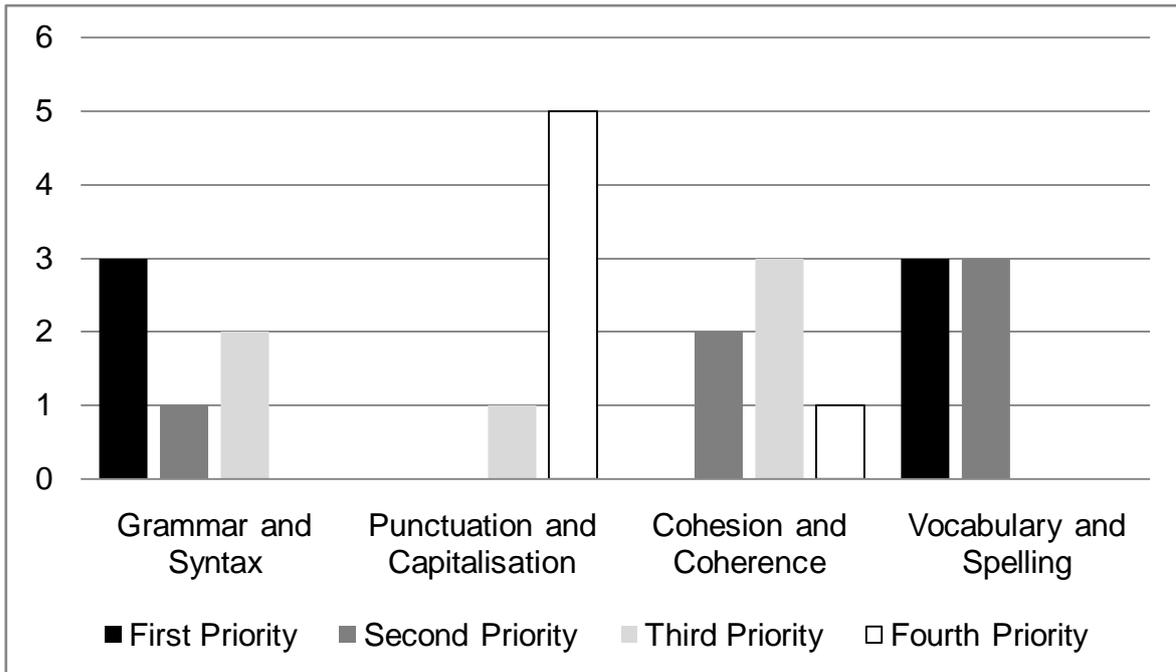
As the table shows teacher's perspective and evaluation of 3rd year LMD students' level in writing in English is average. This correlates with the students answers of their questionnaires in the first part of the third chapter.

2. Which of the following writing elements, you think your students' written productions lack the most?

Teachers were asked to indicate their priorities using numbers. Number one is for the highest priority and the most missing element in the students' writings, while number two, three and four are for the second, the third and the fourth. The given choices for rate are the elements taken from the suggested model of this study for adequate piece of writing. The forthcoming table and the bar chart demonstrate and explain the gathered results.

	1 st priority		2 nd priority		3 rd priority		4 th priority	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Grammar and syntax.	3	50	1	16.66	2	33.33	0	0
Punctuation and capitalisation.	0	0	0	0	1	16.66	5	83.33
Cohesion and coherence.	0	0	2	33.33	3	50	1	16.66
Vocabulary and spelling.	3	50	3	50	0	0	0	0

Table 3.4.5. Priority Ranking of the Most Lacked Aspects in Students Written Products According to Teachers



Graph 3.4.1. Priority Ranking of the Most Lacked Aspects in Students Written Products According to Teachers

Grammar and syntax, and vocabulary and spelling seem to equally share (50%) of the amount of the responses in the most lacked aspects in students' writing, as the subjects of the study indicated these two elements as their first priority. Second priority in the collected data stands as a clear cut between the two elements, as the teachers rated that the use of vocabulary and spelling as the most lacked aspect (50%) followed by cohesion and coherence (33.33%), then, grammar and syntax (16.66%), and last punctuation and capitalisation (0%). At the top of the third priorities, in the ranking of the most lack aspects in the written products of third year LMD students, is cohesion and coherence (50%), then, grammar and syntax (33.33%), at last (and again) punctuation and capitalisation (16.66%). As a fourth priority in the lacked aspects of writing, punctuation and capitalisation (83.33%) seem to get most of the answers. These gathered results reveal that most of students find it challenging to control their grammar and syntax, and to properly make use of vocabulary and spelling.

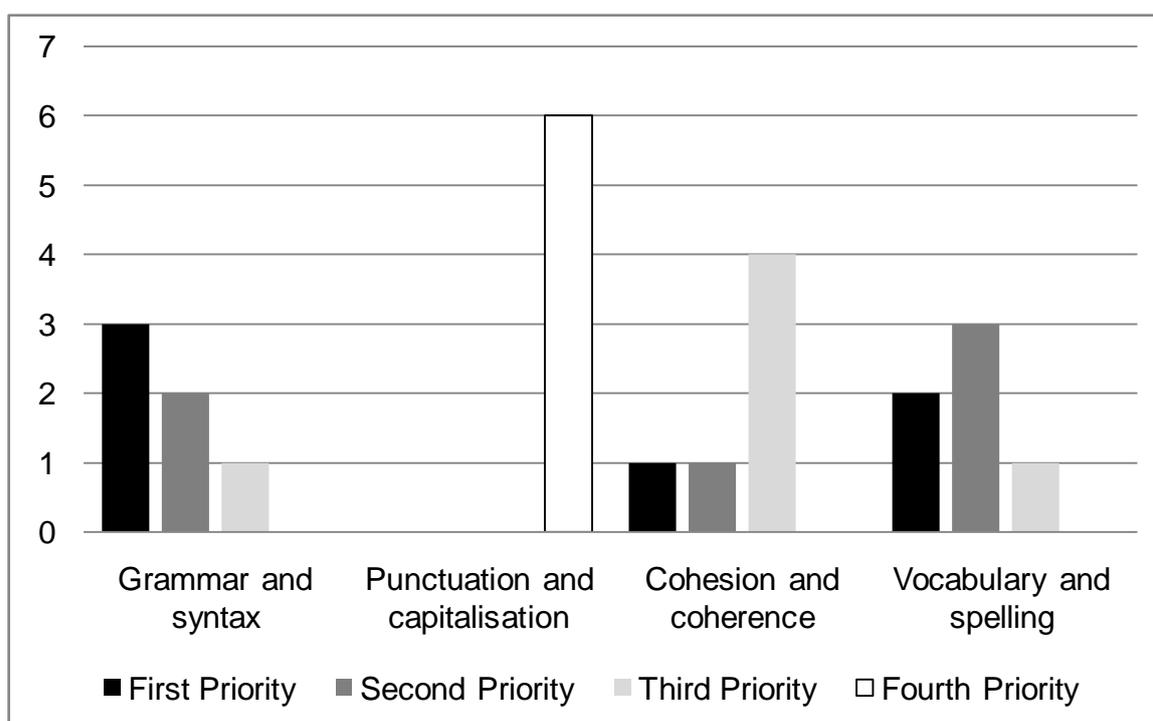
3. How would you classify the following items according to the importance you give them while teaching writing?

Teachers were asked to indicate their priorities using numbers. Number one is for the highest priority and the element most focused on when teaching writing, while number

two, three and four are for the second, third highest and fourth priorities. The given choices are the same elements from the previous question. The table below and the bar chart demonstrate and explain the gathered results.

	1 st priority		2 nd priority		3 rd priority		4 th priority	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Grammar and syntax.	3	50	2	33.33	1	16.66	0	0
Punctuation and capitalisation.	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	100
Cohesion and coherence.	1	16.66	1	16.66	4	66.66	0	0
Vocabulary and spelling.	2	33.33	3	50	1	16.66	0	0

Table 3.4.6. Teachers' Priority Ranking of the Given Importance to Some Aspects in Teaching Writing



Graph 3.4.2. Teachers' Priority Ranking of the Given Importance to Some Aspects in Teaching Writing

With a (50%) of responses, grammar and syntax take the lead in the aspect most focused on when teaching writing; whereas, in the second priority in the collected data stands the use of vocabulary and spelling as the second most focused on aspect (50%). At the top of the third priorities, in the ranking of the most focused on aspects in the written

products of third year LMD students, is cohesion and coherence (66.66%). Teachers seem to agree on focusing at last on punctuation and capitalisation when teaching writing, since these two elements rates (100%) as a fourth and last priority. These results almost correlate with the results found in table (3.4.5) about the most lacked aspects in the students' writings, as teacher of written expression attempt to heal and enhance their output.

4. Which step do you think your students find the most challenging when writing a paragraph?

Choice	Frequency
Gathering and selecting ideas and topics.	1
Linking and moving from one idea to another.	4
Editing and revising their work.	1

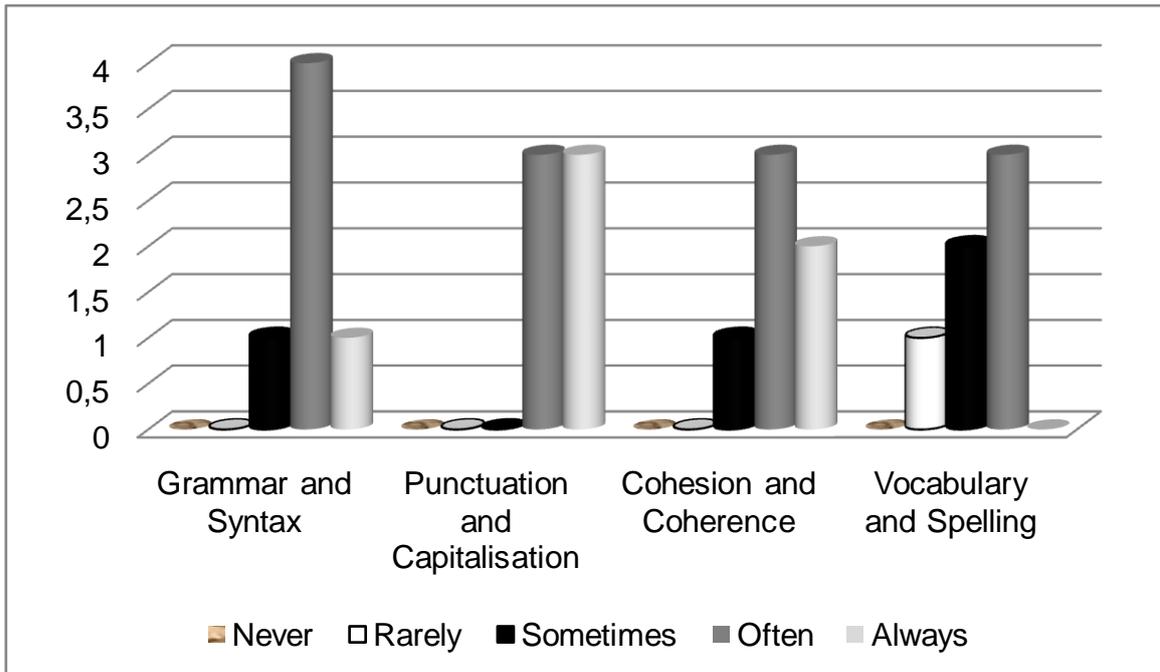
Table 3.4.7. Teachers' Perspective of the Most Challenging Step in Writing for Students

Unlike the students' answers in their questionnaires, most of teachers (4/6) seem to notice that the majority of students find it challenging to link and move from one idea to another when writing. Two equal but few amounts of answers choose gathering and selecting ideas and topics, editing and revising their work as the most challenging step for students in writing. This demonstrates the importance cohesion and coherence based-lesson, and the significance of this study in bringing more focus to this undervalued element in writing.

5. How often do your students make mistakes in the following aspects of language?

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Grammar and syntax	0	0	0	0	1	16.66	4	66.66	1	16.66
Punctuation and capitalisation	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	50	3	50
Cohesion and coherence	0	0	0	0	1	16.66	3	50	2	33.33
Vocabulary and Spelling	0	0	1	16.66	2	33.33	3	50	0	0

Table 3.4.8. Teachers' Perspectives of the Frequencies of Students' Mistakes



Graph 3.4.3. Teachers' Perspectives of the Frequencies of Students' Mistakes

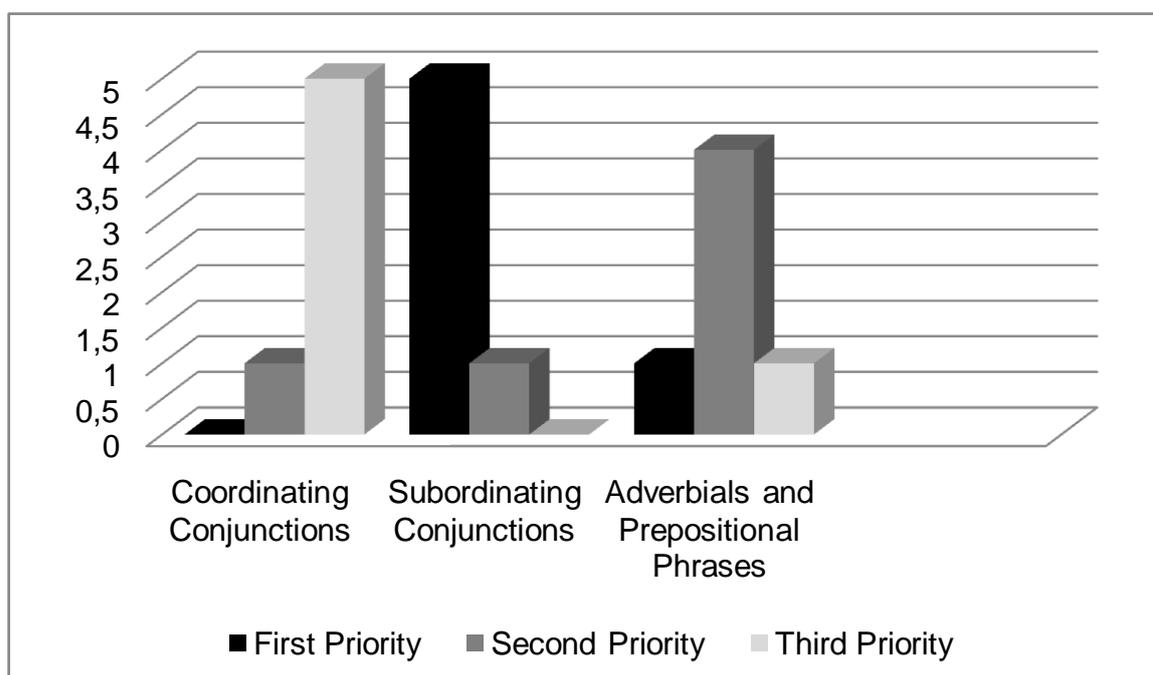
A (66.66%) of teachers believe that it is frequently that their students make mistakes in grammar and syntax, while only one subject believe it is always. Equal percentages of (50%) of teachers say that either often or always that third year LMD students make mistakes in punctuation and capitalisation. When it comes to cohesion and coherence, it is recorded that (50%) of teachers believes that it is quite often that students do mistake in it, a (33.33%) of teachers think it is always, while only one subject believes that it is only sometimes, that the third year LMD students are mistaken in cohesion and coherence. In vocabulary and spelling mistakes, it is recorded (50%) for often, (33.33%) think that it sometimes, and the other (16.66%) believe it is only rarely that such mistakes happen. It is obvious that vocabulary and spelling is the least troublesome element for students in writing, while grammar and syntax, cohesion and coherence, punctuation and capitalisation are the most challenging and mistaken elements in writing.

6. Which linking words and phrases you think your students' writings lack its proper usage the most?

Teachers were asked to indicate their priorities using numbers. Number one is for the highest priority and the most lacked conjunctions, while number two and three are for the second and third highest priorities. The forthcoming table and the bar chart demonstrate and explain the gathered results.

	1 st priority		2 nd priority		3 rd priority	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Coordinating Conjunctions	0	0	1	16.66	5	83.33
Subordinating Conjunctions	5	83.33	1	16.66	0	0
Adverbials and Prepositional Phrases	1	16.66	4	66.66	1	16.66

Table 3.4.9. Teachers' Ranking Priorities of the Lacked Types of Conjunctions in Students' Writings



Graph 3.4.4. Teachers' Ranking Priorities of the Lacked Types of Conjunctions in Students' Writings

With (0%) for the coordinating conjunctions as a first priority, subordinating conjunctions takes the lead by (83.33%), followed by adverbials and prepositional phrases (16.66%), as the most lacked type of conjunctions in the students' writings. Second highest priority in the collected data belongs to the use of adverbials and prepositional phrases (66.66%), then, the use of subordinating conjunctions with one subject difference. Teachers have clearly demonstrated that the use of coordinating conjunctions is the last troubling conjunctions in their students' writings, since it is the highest third priority (83.33%). These results correlate with the findings derived from the gathered data of students' questionnaire, and the corpus-based examination of the pre- and the posttest.

7. When teaching grammar in writing, which approach/model do you use the most?

Choice	Frequency
Implicitly, in context (using texts).	5
Explicitly, deductive model.	1
Explicitly, inductive model.	0

Table 3.4.10. Teachers' Most Used Model in Teaching Grammar in Writing

The table demonstrates that most of teachers of written expression course use the implicit teaching of grammar through texts, while only one subject uses the explicit, deductive model when teaching grammar in writing.

8. If you do not teach grammar implicitly through the use of texts, please, explain, why?

Choice	Frequency
Too much preparation is needed for one lesson	0
Authentic and lesson-related materials are hard to find	0
Difficult to teach and communicate to students	0
Hard to grasp for students	1

Table 3.4.11. Teachers' Justification of Not Teaching Grammar in Writing through Texts

The subject who chose to teach grammar through the explicit, deductive model explains her / his choice, as the implicit teaching of grammatical element is hard to grasp for students. However, and according to students' questionnaire responses, they find that the experience of being taught the use of linking words and phrases via texts as being easy.

9. How would you define or characterise good writing?

In order to determine teachers' perspective of what can be deemed as good writing, or a well-written piece, the gathered responses are found below.

- Good writing means; it is accurate, fluent, well-punctuated and capitalised, successful choice of words, and a rich content.

- Good writing includes appropriate information and vocabulary, accurate grammar and coherence.
- Good writing is associated with particular choices of grammar and vocabulary, and giving importance to cohesion and coherence.
- It is when the students seriously write a short paragraph with good content, good organisation of ideas, good use of vocabulary, good language use and good control over the use of mechanics.
- Good grammar and syntax, rich vocabulary and content, good word choice, good and clear cohesion and coherence.
- A well-written piece must make use of vocabulary. It is content-related and error-free (such as spelling and grammar) with a smooth link of ideas.

The whole sample of teachers have mentioned (explicitly or implicitly) and focused on the importance of the following elements for setting the characteristics of good writing:

- Correct grammar use and syntax.
- Proper cohesion and coherence.
- Good choice of vocabulary, rich content and correct spelling.
- Accurate punctuation and capitalisation.

Of course, teachers have used different dictions to refer to the same elements. For example, some have used the adjective ‘accurate’ or ‘error-free’ when implicitly referring to the correct use of grammar and syntax. For cohesion and coherence, some teachers used expression such as: ‘smooth link of ideas’, ‘good organisation of ideas’ or the adjective ‘fluent’ to refer to the smooth transition and linkage between ideas. Definitely, the suggested elements in this study fit the teachers’ descriptions of what might be considered good writing. Besides, that cohesion; the theme of the current investigation, is highly regarded by many teachers.

5.3. Section Three: Cooperative Groups at Work

1. How often do you use cooperative group work in teaching writing?

Choice	Frequency
Once or twice a week.	3
About once a month.	3
Never.	0

Table 3.4.12. Frequency of Teaching Writing through Cooperative Group Work

The table above indicates that (50%) of teachers implement cooperative group work in the classroom activities about once or twice a week, and the other (50%) use it about once a month. This means that teachers use cooperative learning activities when they will get the chance to, and they are not completely oblivion about this approach to foreign language teaching.

2. If, once a month or never, could you say why?

In this part of the question, teachers were asked to justify in case they only implement cooperative learning technique once a month or never. These are the gathered responses:

- It depends on the nature of the designed courses.
- In writing, I rely mostly on individual work because it is more beneficial to students.
- It is because of the lack of time and resources (material that are designed for cooperative group work).

Two of the teachers who provide justification of their choice have mentioned the lack of the tailored lessons and the teaching materials that fit the cooperative learning tasks, but not only that, the lack of time is one mentioned reason too. One teacher explains his / her lack of the use of such activities to the questioned benefit of cooperative learning tasks upon the individuals' level of writing. So, basically, there are two main reasons for not using CL activities in writing. First, the lack of time and the cooperatively-set materials, second, the belief that writing cooperatively is not effective on the individual level. Of course, these reasons are mainly related to the management of cooperative

learning activities, and teachers' belief of the insufficiency of the cooperative learning tasks in the betterment of the individual capacities. But, and on the contrary, the (STAD) technique is one cooperative learning technique that is set for accreting and accelerating the individual achievement of students within one team.

3. How many students do you usually set in each group?

Choice	Frequency
In pairs	1
In small groups (2-4 members)	4
Five or more students	1

Table 3.4.13. The Usual Number of Members in Each Group

It is clearly demonstrated that most of teachers prefer to use small-group (2-4 members) when applying cooperative learning activities. Probably, it is because that such grouping is easily manageable for both students and teachers when teaching.

4. On what basis do you set the groups on?

Choice	Frequency
Heterogeneous groups	3
Homogeneous groups	0
Students' choice	3
Gender-based groups	0

Table 3.4.14. Teachers' Basis for Grouping Students

Equal percentages are shared between heterogeneous groups (50%) and students' choice (50%). This means that most teachers are aware of the significance and the benefits of using heterogeneous grouping when applying cooperative learning in writing activities.

5. How often do you face difficulties when supervising pair or group work?

Choice	Frequency
Always	0
Very Often	0
Sometimes	5
Rarely	1
Never	0

Table 3.4.15. Teachers' Frequency Levels of Facing Difficulties when Supervising Pair or Group Work

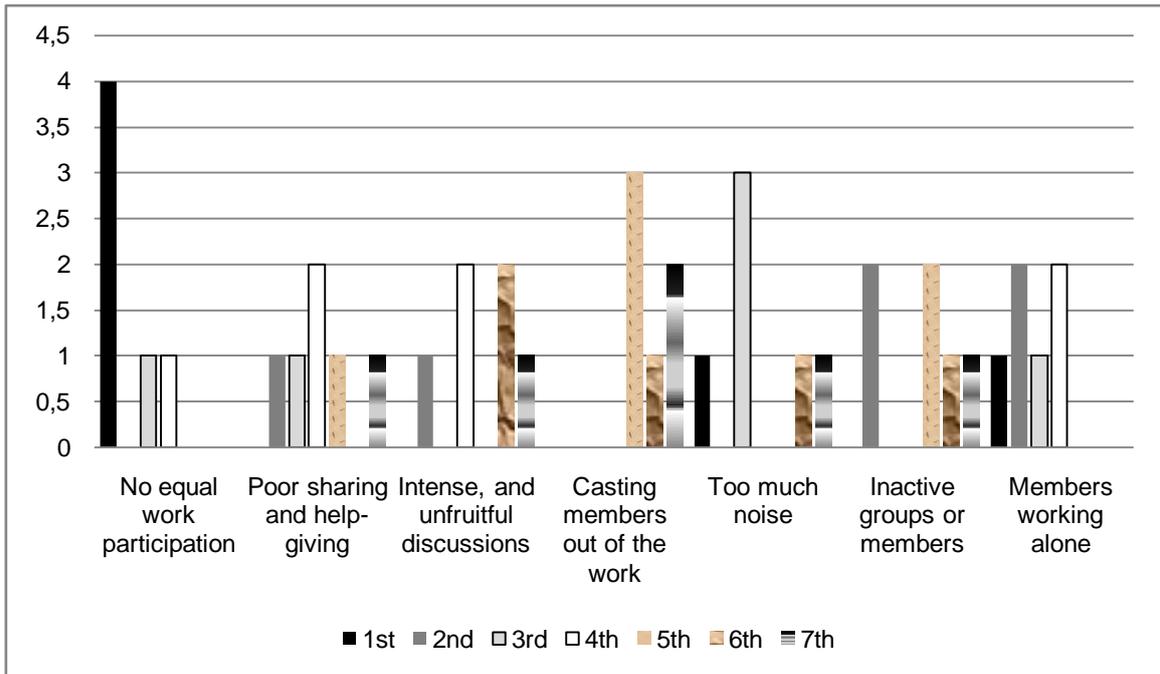
The majority of the teachers (5/6) claim that they sometimes face difficulties when supervising pair or group work, while only one subject claims it is rarely that she/ he faced difficulties with such tasks. This means that most teachers face troubles when trying to apply cooperative learning situation into their classroom settings.

6. What are the difficulties that you mostly come across?

Teachers were asked to indicate their priorities using numbers. Number one is for the most frequent difficulty, while number two, three, and so on are for respectively, the second and third and most frequent difficulties. The forthcoming table and the bar chart demonstrate and explain the gathered results.

	Priority Numbers						
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th
No equal work participation	4	0	1	1	0	0	0
Poor sharing and help-giving	0	1	1	2	1	0	1
Intense, and unfruitful discussions	0	1	0	2	0	2	1
Casting members out of the work	0	0	0	0	3	1	2
Too much noise	1	0	3	0	0	1	1
Inactive groups or members	0	2	0	0	2	1	1
Members working alone	1	2	1	2	0	0	0

Table 3.4.16. Teachers' Most Faced Difficulties when Using Cooperative Groups



Graph 3.4.5. Teachers' Most Faced Difficulties when Using Cooperative Groups

As the above graph demonstrates the majority of teachers have prioritised the lack of equal work and participation as the most faced difficulty when using cooperative group. This suggests that students do not recognise the importance of one of the fundamental elements of cooperative learning (individual accountability). Second on the list of the first priorities is the two disruptive behaviours 'too much noise' and 'members working alone'. Of course, teachers are aware that a little noise can be tolerated, but too much noise is a sign for something going wrong. Again, 'members working alone' is another sign for students' lack of knowledge and awareness about the tenets of cooperative learning (positive interdependence). Inactive groups or members have taken the lead in the second priority list of faced difficulties along with members working alone. Poor-sharing and help giving, intense and unfruitful discussion share an equal percentage in the fourth priority ranking. This demonstrates students' proper knowledge of the importance and the persisting need for promotive, face-to-face interaction. First ranked behavior in fifth priority is casting members out of the team. this shows students' lack of proper groups processing.

7. If and when you assign students to work in small-groups, do you assign roles?

Choice	Frequency
Yes	1
No	5

Table 3.4.17. Teachers' Use of Role Assignments

The table demonstrates that the majority of teachers (5/6) do not assign roles when using small-group cooperative tasks. This probably explains the lack of using the (STAD) technique since leaders (high achievers) are asked to be present in each group in order to manage the work and teach the rest of the group.

8. If so, which roles ?

- I assign the role of the leader, his or her vice-leader. That is all, but I doubt that the students consider them.

One teacher, who assigns roles when using cooperative learning, gives examples of the roles that he or she assigns as being leadership-related roles; leader and his or her vice, in case the leader is absent, and the cooperative work needs to be continued in other sessions.

9. How do you think your students feel about working in group under the leadership of one of their teammates?

Choice	Frequency
Extremely unsatisfied	0
Unsatisfied	3
Neutral	3
Satisfied	0
Extremely satisfied	0

Table 3.4.18. Teachers' Predictions about Students' Feelings when Working under the Leadership of one of their Teammates

Since being neutral may not be a conclusive answer for some, it is, therefore, that the second choice that conveys the final decision of teachers. i.e., the students feel unsatisfied about working under the leadership of one of their classmates. This contradicts with the students' answers in the first part of chapter three. Of course, this might explain the reason why most teachers do not assign roles when implementing cooperative group work in their classroom.

10. Which of the following incentives do you use to reward the cooperative group efforts?

Choice	Frequency
Extra grades	2
Concrete rewards	0
Symbolic rewards	4
No rewards	0

Table 3.4.19. Teachers' Used Incentives for Rewarding Cooperative Group Efforts

The majority of teachers (4/6) use symbolic incentives in order to reward their students' efforts when working in cooperative group. Some teachers exemplified their symbolic rewards as smiles or encouragement. Only two subject from the whole sample use extra grades as incentives for cooperative group efforts, while none of teachers use concrete rewards. Overall, most teachers are aware of the positive effect that incentives have on students; this is why they avoid not giving any.

11. What do you use to fuel the competition between the members of different groups?
- I do not use anything to fuel the competition between the members of different groups.
 - I do not use anything. I just let them work how they want to.
 - By promising them extra marks or by reading the best work produced in front of the whole class.
 - I use extra grades. (This was the answer of three teachers).

Only two subjects of the study do not use any kind of tricks or methods to fuel the competition between the members of different groups. But, the majority of teachers (3/6) use extra grades to do so, while only one of these three teachers uses a symbolic incentive; which is reading the best work produced in front of the whole class, such incentive resembles to Slavin’s use of certificates in classroom (for more information, please refer to the literature review in the second part of the first chapter).

12. Which of the following cooperative learning techniques do you implement the most when teaching writing?

Choice	Frequency
Jigsaw I or II	1
Learning Together	4
Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition	1
Student Teams - Achievement Divisions.	0

Table 3.4.20. Teachers’ Most Used Cooperative Learning Technique

It is clear that most teachers are influenced by Johnsons’ Learning Together CL work, as (4/6) of them claim that it is the most implemented cooperative learning activities in teaching writing. Two other teachers chose Jigsaw (I/II) and (CIRC) as their most used cooperative learning technique. This demonstrates the lack of using the (STAD) technique in teaching writing skill in (MKUB).

13. Are you familiar with The Student Team-Achievement Divisions technique?

Choice	Frequency
Yes	2
No	4

Table 3.4.21. Teachers’ Knowledge about the Student Team-Achievement Divisions Technique

The majority of the teachers (4/6) admit that they are not familiar with the (STAD) technique, and only two of them were. This explains the lack of using such technique in teaching writing for students of English in (MKUB).

14. If yes, how often do you use it in your classroom?

Choice	Frequency
A lot	1
A little	0
None	1

Table 3.4.22. Teachers Frequency Use of the Student Team-Achievement Divisions Technique in Their Classrooms

Only one of the two teachers who are familiar with the Student Team-Achievement Divisions technique claims that she or he uses a lot in her /his classroom; whereas, the other teacher explains that she or he has never used it. Even though, only a few members recognise the (STAD) technique, these few still do not use it so often in their classrooms.

15. Do you incorporate individual assessment and evaluation in cooperative writing tasks?

Choice	Frequency
Yes	4
No	2

Table 3.4.23. Teachers' Incorporation of Individual Assessment and Evaluation when Using Cooperative Writing Task

Table (3.4.21) demonstrates that most of teachers have answered positively to the incorporation of individual assessment and evaluation when using cooperative writing task in their classroom.

16. Whatever your answer is, please, explain how?

In this part of the question, teachers were asked to provide an explanation of how they incorporate individual assessment and evaluation of members during cooperative writing task. These are their answers.

- I try to encourage students to evaluate their own written products, and then I provide my personal evaluation.
- I use peer assessment. (This was the answer of three teachers).
- Dividing the work between the group members allows me always to have an individual assessment. Also, the fact of sitting with the group listening to their discussions was a solution for me too.

In the third response, assign roles and dividing the work between the group members would be an effective strategy for individually assessing the students in case of longer piece of writing is required (essay) not a paragraph; it would be much more difficult if not possible. Not to mention that in these cases, only a qualitative assessment can be provided, not accurate individual scores. To conclude, since students are asked to provide a written product that is the work of the whole group, most of the used methods for assessing them in cooperative writing tasks does not involves personal scoring (grading system). Of course, if the (STAD) technique would have been implemented, both group and individual assessment would have been granted.

17. According to you, what might be the reasons behind the lack of using cooperative learning tasks by most EFL/ESL teachers in their classrooms?

Teachers were asked to provide their thoughts of what might be the reason(s) for the lack of using cooperatives learning tasks by most of EFL teachers in their classrooms. Their answers are communicated below.

- The inability of the teacher to control the class.
- The high number of students (large classes).
- Some think that it is inefficient that some students will take over (control) and that they might speak in their mother tongue.
- Students do not have the same level that is why it is difficult for them to work together.

- Lack of time and large classes are the main reasons for me.
- The large size of classes is the reason number one for that.
- It is time consuming and as teachers, we do not have that time especially when teaching large classes, where most the students are not always motivated to work in groups.

Several reasons can be drawn from these answers that can be summarized as follows. First of all, the management-related issues compensate the lack of tailored teaching materials that fit the cooperative learning tasks, the lack of time with large classes that is hard and tricky to be handled, if not impossible for some. Second, the students' issues deals mainly with teachers' thoughts that the students are neither of the same level not always motivated, so it is difficult for them to work together, and come to one correct understanding of the learning material. Third on the list is teachers' belief that cooperative learning in general does not accelerate the students' individual development, or their academic achievement. One of the subjects raised the issue of the teacher's inability of controlling the cooperative task or the efficiency of teaching using cooperative groups.

CONCLUSION

This part has surveyed teachers' qualifications and experiences, writing-related issues, and using cooperative learning in order to mainly evaluate their knowledge about the (STAD) technique, to determine the challenges that they face when using such tasks, and uncover the reasons behind the lack of the implementation of such activities. Based on the results obtained from the present questionnaire, the majority of teachers (4/6) have exhibited zero knowledge of the use of (STAD) technique; which explains the lack of implementing this latter in their classes. Even though, the two members who are fully-aware of it, only one of them has got the chance to implement it in his / her classroom, as most of the teachers are totally invested in teaching written expression courses through the use of Johnson's Learning Together model of cooperative learning. It is also probable that because teachers think that their students feel unsatisfied when working under the leadership of their classmates, that they avoid assigning roles when using cooperative learning tasks.

Of course in the writing skill and sub-skills section, most of the results have correlated with the students' questionnaire and corpus-based examination. For example, the most lacked type of conjunctions in the students' written products is the subordinating conjunctions, the adverbials and prepositional phrases, and the coordinating conjunctions at last. In an assessment related issue, most teachers of (MKUB) do not provide individual grading of students when applying cooperative writing tasks. However, they attempt to evaluate the general performance of students through peer correction, or after dividing the tasks among students. Of course, in the (STAD) technique, this issue is detoured as both individual scoring and group grading is required.

Speaking of CL challenges, teachers' most troubling difficulties when using cooperative learning activities are: the lack of equal work participation, members working alone, quarrels, and casting members out of the group. These problems can be explained by students' deficiency in understanding the pillars of cooperative learning (individual accountability, positive interdependence, promotive, face-to-face interaction, and group processing). According to subjects of the sample, the reasons behind the lack of the use of cooperative learning tasks in EFL classrooms can be classified into issues related to management, students, teachers' beliefs, and teachers' inability to control the task.

Suggestions, Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

INTRODUCTION

Students' questionnaire, quasi-experiment, corpus-based examination and teachers' questionnaire are the data gathering tools utilized in the present study to investigate the usefulness of implementing the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique in the implicit teaching of conjunction in writing. The results uncovered a range of controversial issues that have a tight bound with the implicit teaching of cohesion, coherence, and conjunctions through a cooperative learning platform. As a contribution to the field of EFL education, the present part attempts to put forward some relevant recommendations that might set a firm ground for the betterment of the teaching practices and light the path for further investigations in the field of academia. Therefore, this part first reconsiders the notion of using (CL) activities in general, and the (STAD) technique in particular, in teaching writing and grammar. On a second basis, it seizes the opportunity to shed light upon the issue of teaching cohesion and achieving coherence. It also reviews the role of the teacher in written expression courses, and examines the necessary elements for structuring a well-tailored, implicit teaching of a grammar lesson about the use of conjunctions. Finally, this part suggests some tips to design further research studies for future researchers in the arena of cooperative learning, and teaching conjunctions in relation to coherence for EFL / ESL students.

1. Recommendations for Using Cooperative Learning and the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions Technique

Recently, there has been a growing amount of research about cooperative learning, its practices, advantages and high ranking role in promoting Second Language Acquisition (SLA). According to Fehling (2008), a databank research in "FIS Bildung, (2007)" has shown (588) publications on the key word "Kooperatives Lernen"; which is "Cooperative Learning" in German. However, and according to the same source, that database does not contain several entries on the key word: "empirical research and cooperative learning". This demonstrates the importance of this research study, as it collaborates to the limited empirical studies about the same topic. The devoted literature to Cooperative Learning in Foreign Language Learning (FLL) and Teaching (FLT) proves the need for more Cooperative Learning activities in classrooms. In spite of the less extensive literature in

this academia, the eminent scholars in this stream state that Cooperative Learning in general provokes active and deep learning; where students are taught through it how to work cooperatively in order to learn the new materials, provide fruitful discussions and interaction causing better social interactive skills and higher level of achievement. (D. Johnson, and R. Johnson, 2014; Aronson, Wilson, and Akert, 2013; Gupta, and Ahuja, 2014; Wang, 2007; Gillies, and Boyle, 2010; Macpherson, 2007; Kober, 2000; Jolliffe, 2007; Crawford, Saul, Mathews, and Makinster, 2005).

Therefore, some recommendations that are related to the use of CL techniques with a few adjustments are presented next. Starting from the overall visualisation of the (CL) approach as a replacement for whole-class teaching; it is necessary to understand that calling for a more frequent use of (CL) activities does not necessary mean the abandonment of the traditional or other teaching approaches. It is true that researchers have found that working in CL groupings fosters language acquisition in ways that teacher-fronted classes cannot (Hill and Flynn, 2006). But, teaching a (FL) or a (SL) should vary too as the amalgamate of cooperative learning techniques. For this reason, the use of such cooperative tasks should be pursued by a follow-up activities or further explanations that consider the individual seatwork and contribution of the student.

Of course, such individual efforts are already a crucial part of the (STAD) technique which demonstrates its special nature and effectiveness. According to Grundman (2002), Kagan (1994) believes that a syllabus should be a balance of different learning experiences; cooperative, competitive and individualistic learning efforts. And that is the essence of the (STAD) technique, cooperation between the members of the same group, competition between the members of different groups, and must-do individualistic efforts. As the fluctuation between cooperative and individual efforts moves, it is granted that students of different learning styles and preferences are involved in the learning process. Also, since the (STAD) technique “depersonalises competition” (Good and Brophy, 2008: 193), the weighting on the shoulders of the low-achievers is taken off, but they still need to better their performance for the success of their teams. This is why; teachers are advised to create a sense of community and belonging in the team members. They may use strategies; like: asking students to pick their team's name, a logo, and divide the roles between the members (a leader, a time keeper, a summariser). Such stratagem will not only heighten the competition between members of different groups, but also help the students to run

their task, recognise the importance of (CL), and exhibit cooperative skills. This latter is usually considered as an issue along with the tenets of (CL).

As Johnson and his colleagues (2009) highlight the crucial difference between placing learners into groups to learn, and structuring cooperation among them. So, they explain that cooperation is not a mere design of students' setting; it is the implementation of the five features or elements, of cooperative learning: positive interdependence, individual accountability, face-to-face promotive interaction, inter-personal and small-group skills, and group processing (Eison, 2010:14). So, in order to create a successful cooperative small-group learning environment, these five components must be present; otherwise, students will only be sitting next to each other bumbling about last night's game or pretending to work cooperatively as the large-scale study taking by Kutnick and his colleagues, (2002), where they have found that primary-school teachers use small groups more as physical seating arrangements rather than for any "pedagogic value", with the most common size of group (4–6 pupils) including pupils of similar ability who worked as "individuals rather than collaboratively" (Cited in Long, Wood, Littleton, Passenger, Sheehy, 2011:156).

Consequently, teachers are asked to explicitly teach the proper cooperative skills, and to demonstrate the needed pillars for the success of the cooperative activity. Farrell and his co-writers advocate such plans by saying: "many students need some preparation for group activities as they may not be accustomed to working with classmates on academic tasks. Instead, they may have mostly experienced teacher-fronted instruction" (2010: 32). They further explain that in order to help learners to cooperate, EFL teachers must incorporate an overt training for the use of cooperative skills; like: how to praise others, ask for assistance, and give and receive suggestions (Gillies, 2007, cited in *ibid*; Fathman and Kessler, 1993). Nilson (2010) suggests several tricks to explicitly fostering cooperative skills and tenets including: brainstorming the qualities of a good team mate, counting these qualities and skills in the peer evaluation criteria, modelling them or praising students who use them. In "the four-stage rocket", as Epstein (1972) refers to it, Cohen (1994) suggests four main skills to guiding the group processes; "conciseness, listening, reflecting, and everyone contributing" (cited in Good and Brophy, 2008: 203).

However, in this study a model of "three P's" is suggested in order to guide and group students' questions and discussions about the learning task in general. It comprises: Previous Performances, Product Perfection, and Post Performances. In the Previous

performances, students are supposed to evaluate each other's contribution or cooperative behaviours during the conduct of the task; whereas, Product Perfection encompasses questions about the quality of cooperative output. In Post Performances, students discuss the deficiencies of their work as a team, in case troubles have been raised during cooperative time-on-task. Teaching student this three steps model can prevent future problems, as more transparency is allowed for understanding the troubling issues of team, and dealing with them as mature individuals. Since the third year LMD students have shown the lack of the proper understanding of the pillars of (CL), an explicit instruction about that and using one of the suggested models would be very helpful in structuring cooperation between them. It is most certainly that acquiring such skills and understanding the cooperative learning pillars will not only accelerate the students' achievement, but also their communicative skills in non-academic settings; in further occasions when dealing with others.

In her article: “Cooperative Learning in the EFL Classroom”, Fehling quotes Slavin explaining the role of students in cooperative classrooms. He states that “students are expected to help each other, to discuss and argue with each other, to assess each other’s current knowledge and fill in gaps in each other’s understanding” (2008: 01) which suggests that heterogeneous grouping is taking place in the process. It is true that heterogeneous groups has a long proven research-based benefits, still teachers are required to vary the type of grouping once in a while, so students will not get bored. For example, if a teacher always uses mixed-ability groups, where the high-achieving student is supposed to teach the rest, the learning process becomes frustrating for both high- and low-achieving students; which may cause problems. Even though, peer assessment is very beneficial and handy way for providing feedback, “peers are not [always] an acceptable substitute” (Good and Brophy, 2008: 200). Therefore, one should vary the grouping types and size, so students will better perform (Hill and Flynn, 2006).

2. Teacher Training Programmes

Training teachers have been always a necessity, but unfortunately in the Algerian context teacher training programmes is not seriously considered. As former students become teachers in a matter of minutes, who lack the proper knowledge about the implementation of learning approaches in real-life context, or on the manner in which

students are handled. Even if there is a training programme, it usually does not exceed the period of one month. According to McLeod, et al (2003), teachers are in desperate need for careful and exhaustive training programmes about the use of cooperative learning approach, how to build communities and format teams. Good and Brophy raise the issue that have been discussed by several researchers, “educators have much to learn about how to design small-group instruction in order to stimulate comprehension and higher order thinking (McCaslin and Good, 1996; O'Donnell, 2006; Webb and Palinscar, 1996)” (2008: 189). Grundman (2002: 60) expresses her opinion about the difficulties that she encountered during her first time of conducting cooperative learning with no sufficient knowledge or training:

In a future study, I would attend training on cooperative learning before attempting to implement these activities into my classroom. It was difficult to learn about cooperative learning and try to implement the new ideas at the same time. During my study I learned that creating and gathering materials for cooperative learning projects involves a huge amount of preparation.

She further recommends constructing teacher training programmes and teachers' (CL) cells that this study supports. The programmes will be concerned with teaching educators about the needed skills for using (CL) techniques, and providing the sufficient knowledge about the different learning techniques. And, the teachers' (CL) cells or support groups will be composed of novice and expert teachers who will probably share the enough experience with the rest or work together on producing full unites of using (CL) activities referring to the syllabus at hand. In a bolder attempt, Quinlisk advocates cooperation in teacher's education programmes, as this kind of opportunities create “a safe climate” (2010: 253) in which they will learn to picture themselves as active contributors and “agents of change” (ibid: 251) in the students' learning process; even though they may not think so. Therefore, teacher training programmes and teachers' support groups is a must for the betterment of the teaching process, where the application of (CL) activities and tailoring the lessons to fit them is a necessity too.

3. The Role of the Teacher in Teaching Written Expression Courses

As it has been previously explained in the second chapter, the teacher plays an important role in writing instruction, and teaching grammar, cohesion, coherence, or conjunctions is of no difference. According to Hinkel (2004: ix), in spite of the well-

thought of textual organisation of a writer's work, or his or her brilliant ideas, it would be difficult to understand all of that if an “opaque” language is used. For that reason, few recommendations are presented next for improving the process of teaching grammar, cohesion, coherence, and conjunctions for EFL / ESL learners.

3.1. Recommendations about Teaching Grammar and Writing

It has been settled that teaching grammar plays an important role in enhancing the students' writing proficiency and second language acquisition (Ellis, 1996, cited in Hinkel, and Fotos, 2002:10). There is no better way than teaching grammar via composition; as such task is an opportunity to practice both elements. And, the fact that teaching grammatical basics in context using authentic materials that fit the students' current level, and meet their interests is more than sufficient for triggering their motivation and interest. Moreover, Hyland (2003) advocates using cooperative writing tasks, so students can generate ideas, collect data, focus their priorities and structure the manner in which they will organise their written products. Of course, all of that provides purposes for genuine communication opportunities. To conclude this part, the wise words of Ward (n.d) demonstrate the importance of grammar in writing: “a writer who can[not] write in a grammarly manner better shut up shop” (Ward, cited in Palmer, 2005: XV).

3.2. Recommendations about Teaching Cohesion and Coherence

When teaching cohesion and coherence, teachers are advised to consider the following suggestions. Starting with, providing a comprehensible explanation for the cohesive features of well-written text, Hyland (2003: 05) explains that: “[the] control over surface features is crucial, and students need an understanding of how words, sentences, and larger discourse structures can shape and express the meanings they want to convey”. Second, to raise students' awareness of the importance of writing a coherent text, structures of the different genre texts is a very effective process for guided-writing instruction that teaches students the importance of structuring their essays or paragraphs. As to facilitate the writing course, teachers are also recommended to assist their learners in the process of generating, organising, and ordering the content of their ideas; since the majority of learners may feel trapped within their ideas as they extend. In short, cohesive and coherent writing is a demanding activity to be performed by EFL students at different levels of

mastery (*Naderi, Keong, and Latif, 2013*); which demonstrates the importance of teachers' assistance, as it is evident that expert and novice utilise differently the linking words and phrases depending on their degree of mastering the FL / SL (*Nippold, Schwarz, and Undlin, 1992*).

3.3. Recommendations about Teaching Conjunctions

Usually, cooperative learning activities is associated with better social, cognitive, critical thinking skills and higher achievement. Not far away, and in contrast to other types of group investigation techniques, the (STAD) technique is oriented toward student acquisition and mastery of predetermined facts and skills (*S. Kagan, and M. Kagan, 2009: 449, 459*). On the light of the previous statement, studies on the influence of cooperative learning have examined, in general: its positive effect on the written or spoken output of students, its use as motivational factor in achieving interaction or raising interest in a course or a matter, but never been used on the implicit teaching process of conjunctions. It has been proven that CL activities are very important in teaching written expression courses.

Therefore, this study opts for mentioning a number of activities are suggested by *Zamel (1983)*, and designated to enhance students' understanding of the semantic and the grammatical relations and restrictions of the use of the different types of conjunctions. Because “[a writer] must not write (Consequently) unless what follows is a consequence” (*Brooks, and Warren, 1950: 300*), for the same reason that he or she uses a noun phrase after using (because of). Therefore, sentence combining, completion exercises, and longer units' practices are used instead of the opaque lists of transitional words and phrases that are presented in textbooks or given to students by their teachers of written expression or grammar.

There are four types for the completion exercises. In the examples given by *Zamel*, the first one is semantic-lead type of exercises; as students are provided with complex sets of sentences where they have to insert the right connectives considering the meaning presented in the ideas. The second example is syntax-lead type of exercises; students are asked to fill in the empty blanks by the suitable subordination clause considering the used connective, and the main clause. The third type of exercises is relation-lead. Pairs of sentences are presented, and students are required to connect between the two using the

right connector. The last section of the completion exercises is the connective-lead type of practice. Students are asked to consider the used transitional device in order to fill in the empty space.

In the sentence combining two main suggestions are made in order to help the students to control the large repertoire of the taught links (ibid). The first suggestion is type-lead practice. Students are supposed to connect two pairs of sentences using the specified type of conjunctions; coordinating, or subordinating conjunctions as an example. The second type is less controlled type of practice, as the learners are presented with a list of paired sentences that they are supposed to use any connector they please. Of course, the type of connector is function-based (e.g. contrast, time...). The learners may later on discuss the different possibilities of linking the same couple of sentences (ibid). In exercises about the longer units of discourse, teachers may take any passage they think it is the best fit for their students, and empty it from the connectives, then, scramble its sentences. In such type of exercises students do not only consider the use of the appropriate connective on the sentence-level, but on much larger scale; which is in the paragraph, as they need to monitor and derive meaning of the scrambled text sentences in order to provide a coherent text by the end.

Zamel (1983) have presented a fine job and concrete examples of these three types of activities to be used for developing students' cohesion, enhancing their coherence, and teaching them the appropriate use of transitional words and phrases, while moving from different foci and portions of control. Because, text cohesion and coherence-related issues in L2 written texts need to be didactically dealt with, especially conjunctions, to provide linguistic tools for students in order to ameliorate the unity of their products (Reid, 1993, cited in Hinkel, 2001). But, when explicitly presenting a list of signposts to a learner and expecting him or her to accurately use them, it is for sure a recipe to a short leap. Therefore, teaching such elements is best done gradually and in context through syntactical and semantic based practices.

It is also necessary to refer once in a while to Crewe's stages of teaching conjunctions (please, refer to the second chapter for more details). As these stages help the students understand the fact that conjunctions are not mere fillers for their texts, but meaningful tools with special syntactical and semantic requirements. For example, one of the fundamental syntactical differences between coordinating, subordinating conjunctions and adverbial and prepositional phrases is that the former indicate "intra-sentential

relations”; whereas, the latter signals “inter-sentential relations” (Schiftner, 2014: 255). In brief, understanding the main principle of Crewe's stages; which is using conjunctions when necessary, will probably help the students to use this grammatical element properly (no overuse).

4. Recommendations about Future Research Studies

Recently, cooperative learning has emerged as a significant concept and a pedagogical practice; that booster students’ achievement, social and cognitive skills in acquiring and interacting using foreign or second language. According to McGroarty (1993: 29), researchers like: Davidson and Worsham, the Sharans, Van Lier, also Chaudron have proven that “small-group activity expands students’ exposure to a new language and furnishes many more opportunities to practice the language naturally than are available in traditional whole-group instruction”. Moreover, CL is more than a cooperation to achieve better or learn much; it is a social process. Students learn the new segments of the lesson through interacting with each other; i.e., the context in which language or data is negotiated provides much benefits to the quality of learning and what happens after-schooling hours; like: a sense of community and developing better social skills and relationships (Neamen and Strong, 2001; D. Johnson, R. Johnson, 2013; Fehling; Long, 2003).

According to D. Johnson and F. Johnson, (2014), cooperative learning is an ancient idea. As ancient as, the Talmud that clearly states in order for one to learn she or he must have a learning partner, and as the Roman philosopher Seneca who supports cooperative learning through such statement: “Qui Docet Discet”; meaning: “when you teach, you learn twice” (p.479). Even though, there is a large amount of publications dealing with cooperative learning in the natural sciences, in physical education or in computer-based learning, there are only few publications about “cooperative learning in foreign language learning and teaching” (Fehling, 2008: 07-08). This is why; the current study has opted for the use of quasi-experimental design for in-depth investigation, where the (STAD) technique will be used as a remedial solution for students’ ill-use of conjunctions. Of course, there are plenty of research tools and methods to choose from your next research, but on the light of the fruitful results of this study, few suggestions can be made.

One may consider investigating issues related to cooperative groups and teachers, or the use of conjunctions in different writing contexts. Such as:

- Investigating the teachers' management skills and ability in controlling cooperative learning tasks.
- Considering thorough descriptions of the reasons, the challenges and the feeling of teachers and students during the conduct of cooperative learning tasks.
- Examining the effect of introducing the three P's model, or any model for structuring better social processes, on the students' cooperative behaviours or achievement.
- Investigating the use of conjunctions using larger samples, in longer products (essays) of different genres (descriptive or argumentative texts) and types of writing (dependent, independent writing).

Because it is a central premise of cooperative learning is that students enhance their communicative competence in FL or SL through conversing in a social and pedagogical structured settings (Richards and Rodgers, 2001), most of the suggested future topics of investigations revolves around cooperative learning. Among these few best-fitting recommendations, that are drawn from this study's results and limitations, future researchers are strongly advised to consider their research tools, and larger samples that can take different statistical considerations.

CONCLUSION

The main pedagogical implications of this research investigation involve: more frequent use of the (STAD) technique, the quality and nature of the used texts, activities for teaching conjunctions, and suggestions for achieving cohesion and coherence. Since the (STAD) technique is a combination of cooperative and individual efforts, it provides a fair opportunity for students to practice their cooperative and communicative skills, while working on their individual achievement and knowledge too. Also, using authentic texts that meet the needs and interests of students is a good stratagem for teaching grammar implicitly. In case of the current study, and on the light of the fact that it is reported that conjunctions occur on average of (50%) of the coherence relations (Redeker, 1990; Taboada, 2009 cited in Gruber and Redeker, 2014), it is advised that “learners should not be presented with lists of ‘interchangeable’ connectors, but instead taught the semantic, stylistic and syntactic behaviour of individual connectors, using authentic texts” (Granger and Tyson, 1996: 17).

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The fact that most of the designed cooperative learning tasks in the English department at (MKUB) does not include the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique, let along the lack of proper usage of conjunctions in writing have driven this study to instructionally and immediately intervene to straighten this thorny issue. For that reason, the study investigates the usefulness of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing as an updated instructional platform for fostering cooperative efforts, better writing skills and producing cohesive and coherent texts that are increasingly desired in international institutions, academic or professional settings. Thus, this study is carried out to either confirm or reject the set hypotheses. As a null hypothesis, the use of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing will not have an effect on students' use of this grammatical element. And, as an alternative hypothesis it is stated that the implementation of the (STAD) technique will enhance the students' use of conjunctions in writing. Of course to do so, triangulated research method that covers the use of students' questionnaire, quasi-experiment and a corpus-based examination of the pre-and posttest's paragraphs were utilised to gather relevant data about the subject matter, and make fitting inferences for future pedagogical implications and recommendations.

The first theoretical chapter has dealt with the independent variable of the study (the Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique). The first part has presented cooperative learning as an instructional approach with its philosophical tenets, differential spectrum, research-based benefits, and relational properties to second language acquisition theories. Of course, the whole chapter was not purely theory-related. In the second part of it, a practical side has been opted for to convey several handy tips in dealing with the challenges of applying (CL) tasks in EFL classes, managing the cooperative activity, and dealing with some disruptive behaviours. In the same part, a considerable amount of data and past studies about the use of the (STAD) technique have been mentioned to demonstrate its special nature and usefulness in numerous fields of academia, and in dealing with assessment and competitiveness problems within one team. In short, the opening chapter includes two parts; the first about the cooperative learning approach in general, and the second about the (STAD) technique and its application in EFL classrooms.

The second theoretical chapter has been committed to the study of the dependent variable (the writing skill in EFL classrooms). In the first part of this chapter, numerous

issues about teaching writing and grammar in EFL classes have been discussed; from the significance of teaching grammar, and the how's to the impact of writing on the (SLA), and the role of teacher in it. In the second part of the same chapter, the main focus of the study has been brought to the spotlight. Through this part, it has been clearly demonstrated that without the suitable understanding of the Cohesive Devices (CDs) in general, and the use of conjunctions in particular, students' writing will be inconclusive, as they fail to achieve coherent texts. Also, it seems that the main reason for misusing conjunctions is the different semantic and grammatical relationships that this grammatical element needs. In brief, and on the light of this chapter, grammar and writing is very important elements in learning a (FL) or a (SL), as grammar permits the control of longer speech units, and writing broadens and develops one's use of language to provide cohesive and coherent texts. Therefore, the proper use of conjunctions must be taught to students in context to better understand the semantic and grammatical relations produced afterwards.

In the first part of the third chapter, a thoroughly designed questionnaire designated for students who participated in the quasi-experiment has been dealt with. The analysis of the pilot and the final version of the questionnaire have provided enormous contributions to the results of this study, as the first version revealed some inconveniences that have been covered in the late version, to add more reliability to the work. The questionnaire was primarily divided into two main sections; writing skill and sub-skills section, and cooperative learning at work section. Each of the two sections contained several structured questions of different types (Likert Scale, Yes/No Questions, and Multiple-Choice-Questions) that investigate various issues related to the study theme; such as: the implicit teaching of grammar, writing skill, the use of conjunctions, group dynamics, cooperative learning group problems, and the use of the (STAD) technique.

Of course, the questionnaire has revealed some worth mentioning results in both sections. In the first section, the students seem to recognise the importance of the correct use of conjunctions, since they find that linking ideas and collecting them are two of the most challenging aspects in writing. They also seem to agree that subordinating conjunctions, adverbials and prepositional phrases are the two most difficult types of conjunctions to be handled when writing; probably due to the syntactical form needed by these types of conjunctions that students' ignore or find difficult to understand and manipulate. Moreover, the majority of students (**67.5%**) prefer to write individually; which makes the (STAD) technique the best-fit for them; especially, since they are totally

invested in bolstering their academic achievement, as their priority ranking shows. Concerning the second section, students' have demonstrated positive attitudes towards using the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions, and satisfactory levels for working under the leadership of one of their classmates. This is why; they have described this learning experience as 'enjoyable and beneficial', in spite of their little knowledge about the technique in particular, or the cooperative learning approach in general. In the questions related to the quasi-experiment, students have rated the used text, the experience of learning conjunctions through these texts, and using the (STAD) technique as being easy and trouble-free.

As indicated in the second part of the third chapter, the implementation of the (STAD) technique took place to decide whether the application of such learning experience will affect the students' use of conjunctions in writing or not. Throughout the teaching sessions, it was obvious that the study was limited by time and syllabus constraints; otherwise, the lessons would have been much enriched by further activities related to the manipulation of conjunctions in different contexts. In spite of that, the study has yielded a very significant results comparing to the limited amount of time, and the small sample that it used. It is most likely that the study managed to successfully demonstrate the significance of using the (STAD) technique because of its special nature, the application of intensive activities, and the remarkable results of the pilot study. As this latter happened to broaden the study's perspective, gauge the effectiveness of the employed assessment rubric, and to test the usefulness of this research tool in proving the set hypotheses (H_0 and H_1). In the null hypothesis, it was hypothesised that the (STAD) technique will not have any positive effect on the students' use of conjunctions in writing; whereas, in the alternative hypothesis, it is claimed that the use of the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions will improve students' use of this grammatical element in writing. Of course, (H_1) has been proved to be right at very significant rate ($p=0.018$) comparing to the set α level (0.05), which automatically rejects (H_0) hypothesis with a very strong effect size value too (0.57).

In the corpus-based examination of the pre- and posttest paragraphs, qualitative and quantitative analysis of the used conjunctions has been conducted in order to chiefly determine under/over/mis-use of this grammatical element. In the pretest paragraphs, (**139**) use of different types of connectives has been recorded. Only (**73**) of the whole number is considered accurately used in terms of: content, syntax, and punctuation; which

demonstrates students' misuse of conjunctions when writing. Also, it has been determined that students' overuse coordinating conjunctions on the expense of each of the subordinating conjunctions, adverbials and prepositional phrases in the pretest. Of course, such result was expected as most of the participants overuse 'and' due to negative transfer from their (L1). In the posttest, a slight increase in the total number of the used conjunctions (**6%**), and the use of adverbials and prepositional phrases (**8.25%**) has been recorded, while a drastic improvement in the number of the correctly used conjunctions (**84%**) has been noticed; which demonstrates – again- the effectiveness of the received treatment. In more about the overused conjunctions, 'also', 'because', 'as well as', 'for example', 'such as' and 'finally' have been documented in the first paragraphs only, as many of them has been lessened through the use of other conjunctions when necessary in the posttest paragraphs. Nonetheless, some informants have kept on overusing 'finally' and 'because'; perhaps because such conjunctions are syntactically easy to handle. In unexpected turn of events, a remarkable positive improvement in the overall sentencing of paragraphs has been noticed, as a several attempts of incorporating other conjunctions that the quasi-experiment lessons did not include; which proves the usefulness of using the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions.

The fourth and last part of the field work have surveyed the teachers of third year LMD written expression course to gauge their knowledge and practices of the (STAD) technique, to determine the problems that they face when using cooperative learning tasks, and uncover the reasons behind the lack of the implementation of such activities. Based on the gathered results, the majority of teachers (**66.66%**) have exhibit no prior knowledge of the (STAD) technique; which explains the lack of implementing this latter in their classes. Even, the few members who claim to be familiar with it, do not use it that often. In view of the fact that most instructors are absolutely devoted to teaching writing through the use of Johnson's Learning Together model. It is also plausible that because teachers believe that their learners feel unsatisfied when operating under the leadership of one of their classmates, that they evade assigning roles when using (CL) tasks. In an assessment related issue, most of teachers of (MKUB) do not provide individual grading for students when applying cooperative writing tasks, as they only attempt to evaluate the general performance of students mainly through peer correction. Certainly, if the (STAD) technique has been used, this issue would have been deviated from as both individual scoring and group grading is requisite. Concerning the troubling part of using (CL) tasks,

teachers find that: the lack of equal work participation, members working alone, quarrels, and casting members out of the group are the most frequent problems to deal with; which demonstrates students' deficient understanding of the pillars of (CL). About the reasons behind the lack of the use of (CL) in EFL classrooms, they include: management-related issues (lack of time and materials), students-related issues (lack of motivation or ability to work together), teachers' beliefs of the ineffectiveness of such tasks, and teachers' inability to control the task.

It is true that triangulated research method reveals a correlation between students' answers, teachers' responses, the corpus analyses and the quasi-experiment results, yet, the literature about the two variables in general is so extended that it cannot be squeezed into two chapters without leaving some worthy information on the sides. In the part of the pedagogical implications and the educational researches, several if not many points have been suggested for the betterment of the learning-teaching process. These points have included: the nature and the quality of the used texts in teaching grammar in context, activities about teaching conjunction, cohesion and achieving coherence, the use of the (STAD) technique and tricks for better implementation and fuelling competition between the members of different groups. In the future research recommendations part, it has been suggested to investigate the use of conjunctions using larger sample, with longer products with a specific topic.

Limitations of the Study

In spite of the positive feedback on using the (STAD) technique in the implicit teaching of conjunctions in writing, this study has its own limitations. The first restraint is the time constraints. Because of the heavy schedule and the lack of time, only a small-scale investigation has been conducted. Therefore, it may not be considered as a representative sample for the whole population (365 students); which is a very large and very much impossible to manipulate in the allocated time. If longer time period have been allotted, a larger sample would have been used. Also, more time would have permitted the use of additional activities and extra sessions devoted to practicing the use of conjunctions in writing; which will most definitely extend the dimensions of this research study. Moreover, an attempt of adding more credibility to the corrected pre- and posttest paragraph, through getting other teachers of English language to correct them, has failed because the majority of tutors have expressed their unavailability to do so. Therefore, the researcher had to correct them on two week basis, and chose the minimal grading for each paragraph in order to receive the minimal impact and worst scenario cases.

Consequently, the results obtained in this study have been applicable only to the sample of population in this study. They cannot be generalised to all the EFL learners at the University of Biskra at various levels. Second, this research is concerned only with some of the following linking words and phrases: coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, adverbials and prepositional phrases. Other types of conjunctions like continuatives do not concern this study, but they have been included in the literature review by means of identification. Also, during the conduct of the quasi-experiment students were a week apart from taking their make-up exam, and two weeks apart from the spring holidays, where most of them was either psychologically unprepared, or soon to fly back home. In short, like every research, the limitations of this study are either related to the obtained results or to the study itself.

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