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The Relationship Between EFL Students' Learning Style Preferences and their Language Written Achievements: The Case of Second Year EFL Learners at M'sila University

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Master Degree in Linguistics

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July 2020

Declarations

We hereby solemnly declare that the work we are going to present in this thesis entitled

**The Relationship Between EFL Students' Learning Style Preferences and their Language
Written Achievements: The Case of Second Year EFL Learners at M'sila University**

...is our own to the limits of our knowledge, has not been submitted before to any other institution or university or degree and all sources that we have used and quoted from have been indicated by means of complete references. This work is to be carried out and completed at Mohamed Boudiaf University M'sila, Algeria.

Signature

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Date: June 2020.

Abstract

Learning style is one of the main factors that determines how students learn English. This study aimed at investigating any relationship between EFL learners' learning style preferences and their written language achievement. This investigation was conducted among 30 students of second year LMD of English Department at M'sila University who were randomly selected to participate. Moreover, the researchers adopted a mixed method using a combination of qualitative and quantitative research tools to collect data using a questionnaire, a classroom observation, and a written test. The results revealed that there was a strong positive relationship between EFL learners' learning style preferences and their written language achievement. The results also indicated that there was a difference between learning style preferences of skilled and less-skilled writers in which skilled writers mostly showed a preference to auditory learning style. However, less-skilled writers were visual learners. The current research aims to help both teachers and students by raising their awareness to the importance of learning style on written language achievement.

Dedications

This work is dedicated:

To our great parents who have provided us with their encouragement, love, care, support and understanding,

To our beloved sisters and brothers for their love, support, and encouragement,

To our families, the symbols of love and giving,

To all the people in our life who touch our hearts.

We dedicate this research.

Amina and Assia

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List of Abbreviation:

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

IDs: Individual Differences

EFL: English as a foreign language.

SRS: Simple Random Sampling

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

UG: Universal Grammar

L1: First language

L2: Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

LS: Learning Style

VAK: Visual, Auditory, Kinaesthetic

VAR: Visual, Aural, Read/ write, Kinaesthetic

CE: Concrete Experience

RO: Reflective Observation

AC: Abstract Conceptualization

AE: Active Experimentation

LMD: License, Master, Doctorate

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Science

BA: Bachelor of Arts

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General introduction

Background of the study:

It is known that learning is a dynamic, lifelong process that is unique to each individual. In the context of psychological researches, the concept of “Learning” has been a central topic of many researchers. Thus, there were many attempts to define it, but no single definition could be said to be conclusive. The most common one is that learning means a change that occurs in the learner’s behaviour, attitudes, or skills (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007).

Over the past century, educational psychologists and researchers have posited many theories to explain how individuals acquire, organize and deploy skills and knowledge. They are intrigued by how the mind acquires knowledge, develops skills, modifies attitudes and values (as cited in Encyclopaedia of The Sciences of Learning, 2012). Hence, knowing how knowledge is acquired, this fact will give a detailed information and awareness of the ways in which learning can be promoted in classrooms. For that reason, psychologists have used three major theories to explain the phenomenon of human learning that are: Behaviourist, Cognitive and Constructivist learning theories.

“In the process of learning a foreign language, students learn a subject at different rates and with different levels of completeness because of factors within learners themselves that influence their ability to learn” (Bellout, 2014, p.02). That is there exist some internal factors such as gender, age, motivation, attitude, aptitude, learning styles and strategies, etc which are important contributors to success in language learning. Dornyei (2005) pointed out that Individual Differences (IDs) have been consistently shown to correlate strongly with L2 achievement to a degree that no other SLA variable can match. Thus, a great attention to individual difference among learners has led to the investigation of learning styles employed by learners in a learning situation.

In English language learning context, writing is considered to be one of the most important communicative skills (Hayes & Flower, 1986; Sharples, Goodlet, & Pymberton, 1989). It is a significant skill of language production. The significance of writing in learning a language has been acknowledged by many researchers and educators (Richards & Renandya, 2002). However, it is often considered as the most difficult skill to be mastered because of its complexity. Nunan (1989) argues that writing is an extremely difficult cognitive activity which requires the learner to have control over various factors. It is a quite challenging task. Hapsari (2011) argues that writing is generally known as the most difficult of the four skills.

Literature Review:

In regard to how learners approach their goal of learning a foreign language, their individual uniqueness has been the interest of many researchers. As claimed by Tabatabaei & Mashayekhi (2012), “language learning is one of the most challenging activities one has to deal with. Therefore, the personal reflection of how one learns a language is regarded as a key to an academic mastery of the native language, and the learning of the second or foreign language” (p.01). Sadeghi, et al. (2012) claimed that one of the current trends in foreign language learning setting is to raise awareness about students’ personal differences and their potential effects on the learning process and outcomes, so as to arrive at the most conclusive explanation of the variance in performance.

As the term suggests, Individual Differences (IDs) are characteristics or factors in respect of which learners may be shown to differ from one another. According to Dornyei (2005, as cited in Bellout, 2014), individual differences are “enduring personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree”. Age, attitude, anxiety, motivation, learning styles, and learner’s strategy are among the ones highlighted in a number of scholars’ treatment of the theme.

Among these individual differences: “learning style”, which is an important determinant to consider in the process of learning a foreign language. This view was supported by several researchers (Syler et al., 2006; Thorton, Haskell & Libby, 2006; Zualkernan, Allert, & Qadah, 2006; Graf, Lin, & Kinshuk, 2008; Kolb & Kolb, 2009) who suggested that the learning style by which one learns and applies knowledge is an important characteristic to consider in the aggregate educational processes.

Plethoras of definitions also exist for the concept of learning styles (Dunn & Griggs, 2000; Lemire & Gray, 2003; Centre on Disability Studies, n.d.; Sims & Sims, 1994). For instance, Nunan (2003) defined learning styles as learners’ preferred ways of perceiving and processing information stemming from the learners themselves. Thus, learning style preference refers to “an individual’s natural, habitual and preferred way of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills” (Reid, 1998, as cited in Dörnyei, 2005). Hence, learning style may affect the behavioural, psychological and learners’ cognitive side. Thereby, the learners’ language achievement might be determined by their learning style preferences.

Learners have unique ways of learning, which may greatly affect both the learning process and their academic achievement and its outcomes. Carroll (1963) was the first researcher to clearly show the influence of individual learning styles on academic achievement (Henson & Borthwick, 1984; Claxton & Murrell, 1987; Bedford, 2006). Furthermore, many researchers also regard learning styles as crucial factors in education (Rourke & Lysynchuck, 2000). Studies by researchers such as Marton or Carroll are crucial to the literature of learning styles. They concluded that: “the knowledge of learning styles may predict academic achievement and may also influence the improvement of teaching-learning processes” Zywno (2003, p. 12). As for other researches, the findings indicated that learning styles determined academic performance (Yahaya, Boon, Hashim & Wan Hamid, 2003). In a study of Castro and Peck (2005) on learning styles and learning difficulties of

foreign language students, they claimed that student's preferred learning style can be a help or a hindrance in the success of the student in the foreign language classroom. Abidin et al. (2011) noted that the students in their study possessed multiple learning styles or a combination of different learning styles; thus, they are able to learn effectively. Therefore, these ideas have become the baseline for many studies and analyses which found the apparent correlation between learning styles and learning outcomes (Cassidy & Eachus, 2000; Giordano & Rochford, 2005; Marefat, 2007; Ounwattana & Mounghoo, 2008; Kia, Aliapour & Ghaderi, 2009; Moenikia & Zahed-Babelan, 2010).

Dedicated teachers have made attempts to enhance their students' academic achievements in many ways (Abidin et al., 2011). One of these ways, according to Abidin (2011), is to identify each student's learning style to determine strengths for academic achievement. However, the relationship between EFL students' learning style preferences and their language written achievement has not yet been fully explored.

Problem statement:

Due to the widespread use of English language in all domains of life, it is important for non-native speakers to acquire this language. As for Algerian context, English is learned as foreign language which means learners lack authentic contexts to acquire and to use this language. Therefore, each student attempts to set his own preferable approach to the learning tasks. Hence, learners' language achievement can be determined by the usefulness of their different ways to learn. Moreover, writing is a productive language skill which has a vital role in language learning, in particular EFL learning. Algerian university students seem to have some difficulties in producing an academic writing piece. A search in the literature revealed few studies which dealt with the relationship between EFL students' learning style preferences and their written language achievement. Consequently, the researchers attempt will be to investigate the gap.

Research questions:

The present study aims to provide answers to the following key questions:

- 1-What are the different learning styles preferred by second year EFL students?
- 2-Does language written achievement among second year EFL students differ according to their learning styles?
- 3-What type of relationship exist between learning style preferences and the students' language written achievement?

Research objectives:

There are three primary aims of this study:

- 1-To determine the different learning styles preferences that exist among second year EFL students.
- 2-To explore the different levels of second year EFL students' language written achievements.
- 3-To identify the relationship existing between learning styles preferences and the students' language achievement.

Hypothesis:

There is a positive relationship between Students' Learning styles preferences and their language written achievement.

Research Design and Methodology:

This descriptive study was designed along the lines of a correlation research. According to Gay (1987): "correlational research involves collecting data in order to determine whether and what degree a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables" (p.229). In

correlation research, there is usually no manipulation of the variables, and the purpose is to investigate the extent to which the variables are related and the direction of the relationship.

The present study uses a mixed method which is defined by Tashakkori and Creswell (2007, p.04) as: “research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or a program of inquiry”. This approach to research is used when this integration provides a better understanding of the research problem than either of each alone.

Population and Sampling:

The sample for this study consisted of 30 university students of second year license from a total number of 120 students at M’sila University. The participants were male and female aged between 19-22 years old. The selection of the participants was based on a simple random sampling (SRS) which is a method of selection of a sample comprising of N number of sampling units out of the population having N number of sampling units such that every sampling unit has an equal chance of being chosen.

Data gathering tools:

Data of this study are collected using different tools: a questionnaire was designed and will be delivered to students for identifying their learning styles. Besides, students will be asked to write a short paragraph on a given topic in order to test their language written achievement. Moreover, the researchers use a classroom observation as another source of data to enrich the findings of the study.

Significance of the study:

This study attempts to establish an understanding to the relationship between learning styles preferences and language written achievement of EFL learners at M'sila University. The contribution of this study might be highly important for both EFL learners and teachers. On one hand, learners will be aware of appropriate learning style that increases their writing performance. Hence, they will try to assimilate their own preferred learning style with the target one. On the other, teachers will benefit from the result of this study in a way that makes them adjust their teaching style to help learners develop a learning style that can be useful for their language written achievement.

Chapter division:

The overall structure of this study takes the form of three chapters: the first chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section provides an overview to foreign language learning including the nature of learning, some definitions, theories and factors influencing learning as well as definitions, the importance, sub-skills, and types of writing. Additionally, a comparison between writing as a product and as a process. While the second section identifies adults' learning style differences and preferences towards learning.

The second chapter provides a description of the methodology used to conduct this research in one part and an analysis and interpretation of the results in another.

The third chapter is arranged into two sections. The first section is devoted to an overview about EFL students' learning style preferences and classroom written tasks; whereas the second section treats a correlation between students' learning styles and their written achievements.

Chapter one

Chapter One: Foreign Language learning and Adults' style differences and preferences toward learning

Introduction:

As writing is a challenging task, most of foreign learners often face several difficulties in writing a composition. However, based on the uniqueness of learners as individuals, each of them tries to make the task of writing less difficult by the use of different strategies that are determined by their preferable way of learning. Hence, learners' written achievement is closely related to their learning style preferences.

This chapter is the literature review on previous researches on the related topic. It presents a theoretical background on the writing skill and learning style preferences in general. Therefore, the chapter is divided into two parts. The first part sheds light on foreign language learning including the nature of language, a detailed review on writing skill, definitions and theories of learning, and factors influencing learning. The second part is devoted to Adults' learning style differences and preferences towards learning.

Part one: Foreign Language Learning

1.1.1. The nature of Language:

Before talking about the acquisition and innateness of language, it has to be made clear what "language" actually is. The concept of "Language" is defined as a tool used to communicate with across geographical boundaries. According to Albert C. Baugh & Thomas Cable (2002, p.10), "a language communicates one's thoughts, feelings to others, the tool with which people conduct their business, or the government of millions of people, the vehicle by science was transmitted...". Similarly, Microsoft Encarta Encyclopaedia Deluxe (2004), language is "the crucial means that human beings use to communicate with one another".

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2019) also defines language as "the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country".

Additionally, these are some other definitions to the concept of "language" provided by different researchers and scholars. According to Sapir (1921), "language is a primarily human and non- instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols" (p.07). For Gardner (1932), "language is a collective term, and embraces in its compass all those items of knowledge which enable a speaker to make effective use of word-signs" (p.88). However, for Sweet (1845-1912), "language may be defined as the expression of thought by means of speech-sounds" (p.01). Chomsky (1957) conceived language as "a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements" (p.13).

Language has several types depending on its context. According to Paliwal (1998), there are seven types of languages designated on their nature, the ways in which they are learnt. 1) First Language (L1) - Mother tongue; 2) Second Language (L2) - French (in Algeria)-3) Third Language (L3); 4) Foreign Language (FL) –English (in Algeria) - 5) Dead Language (DL); 6) Classical language (CL); 7) Modern Language (ML).

1.1.1.1. Acquisition vs Innateness:

The question of how individuals acquire language is still a subject of debate and linguists still argue how much of language is learned and how much is innate. Several theories and approaches have emerged over the years to study and analyse the process of language acquisition. Researchers tried to differentiate between two concepts, which provide a clear explanation to the nature of language: acquisition and innateness.

a. Acquisition:

Language acquisition is one of the central topics in cognitive science. It began in the late of 1950s. New theories deriving insights from psychology and linguistics are being proposed. Many researchers try to differentiate between two terms: acquisition and learning (Ellis, 1985; Pinker, 1995; etc.) and they use both terms interchangeably. Nevertheless, acquisition might be considered more general or on a higher level in the lexicological hierarchy, as the meaning incorporates both unconscious and conscious processes, while learning is considered to refer to the latter only. Moreover, Krashen (1988) characterises language acquisition as the process that occurs when we learn our first language. On the other hand, he claims that language learning is learning about a language, that is, learning about grammar rules, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc. “Language acquisition is opposed to learning and is a subconscious process similar to that by which children acquire their first language” (Kramina, 2000, p. 27). This means language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring language, but are only aware of the fact that they are using the language for communication. Additionally, Light Brown and Spada (2001) observe that acquisition occurs during the formative years of one’s life - usually commencing in early childhood before age three - and that it is learned as part of growing up among people who speak it fluently. In contrast, learning is differentiated as a more conscious and explicitly sequenced process of “accumulating knowledge of linguistic features such as vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar, typically in an institutional setting” (Yule, 1985, p.163). However, the term “acquisition” is used rather than “learning”, because “learning” tends to be employed by psychologists in a more specific sense than is perhaps appropriate (Robin Campbell and Roger Wales, 1970).

In fact, it is a matter of controversy whether the acquisition of language can be accounted for within current versions of psychological theories of “learning” (Lyons, 1968). The difference

between these ways of developing language competence is manifest most clearly in their outcomes: through acquisition the contextual understanding of the language is gained, and through learning, knowledge 'about' the language: "knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them" (Krashen, 1982, p.10).

At this point, it is to be borne in mind that researchers differ in the definition of acquisition. For our purpose, we would like to subscribe to Krashen (1981) who has defined acquisition as "the sub-conscious process of picking up a language through exposure". Language acquisition was differentiated into language acquisition of first and second language.

First Language acquisition is the process whereby a child acquires his/ her first language. This latter refers to the very first language(s) that a child masters and that he continues to use (to different degrees) for the rest of his/ her life. In the last thirty years or so, researchers from fields such as developmental psychology, sociology, anthropology, education, and linguistics have conducted studies to determine how children acquire language. Since then, researchers have focused on different aspects of language acquisition. Developmental psychologists have concentrated more on the child and the child's capacity for learning (David E. Freeman and Yvonne Freeman, 2014). Since language is the means by which humans communicate with one another, "sociologists and anthropologists have studied the environmental setting to determine how the social context influences language development" (David E. Freeman and Yvonne Freeman, 2014, p.04). While linguists have looked closely at just what it is that children acquire (David E. Freeman and Yvonne Freeman, 2014).

In 1957, Skinner wrote *Verbal Behaviour Analysis* and suggested that children learn language through interaction with the environment (Skinner, 1957). "These interactions occur through principles of conditioning such as stimulus, association response and reinforcement" (Skinner, 1957, p.30-32). However, Noam Chomsky challenged B.F. Skinner's theory

(Chomsky, 1959). Chomsky argued that children could not learn all they needed to learn about language without having an innate ability to acquire language. Chomsky's studies led him to the "Innateness Hypothesis", "a theory that describes how children's knowledge of language is inborn" (as cited by Jackendoff, 1994, p.35).

Much of the research in child language acquisition has focused on the early language that children produce. Children's language acquisition is considered to start when children say their first words. Researchers who have observed children over time and have transcribed children's speech have identified certain stages in normal language development. Lindfors (1987), for example, includes a number of examples of transcripts that show how children move from babbling to one-word utterances to two-word sentences and beyond. Additionally, researchers found that beyond the two-word stage, language growth is incredibly rapid and complex. As Pinker writes, "between the late twos and the mid threes, children's language blooms into fluent grammatical conversation so rapidly that it overwhelms the researchers who study it, and no one has, worked out the exact sequence" (1994, p. 269). Some of the most recent research, using new technology, has revealed that Language development may be the same whether the language is oral or gestural. Children learning oral language go through the same stages as children learning sign.

In the context of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), the term "second" is generally used to refer to any language other first language. Second language acquisition (SLA) is the learning of any language in addition to the mother tongue. It also refers to one's introduction to a second language after having received native competence in a first language (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2003). Ellis (1997) argued that the second language is not only the language learned or succeeding one's mother tongue but the third or fourth language is part of the second language acquisition.

The distinction between second and foreign language is also relevant. Collins Dictionary (2013) defines Second Language as the language that a person learns after his or her native language and Foreign Language as a language that is used in a country other than one's native country. In the case of second language, learning the language plays an institutional and social role in the community. That is, it functions as a recognized means of communication among members who speak some other language as their mother tongue. In contrast, foreign language learning takes place in communities where the language plays no major role in the community and is primarily learnt in the classroom. For instance, English is learnt as second language in India, whereas it is learnt as foreign language in Algeria. The term 'second language' has different connotations in certain countries.

SLA began in the late 1960s as an emerging interdisciplinary enterprise that borrowed equally from the feeder fields of language teaching, linguistics, child language acquisition and psychology (Huebner, 1998). During the 1980s and 1990s SLA expanded considerably in scope and methodology, to the point that by the end of the twentieth century, after some 40 years of exponential growth, it had finally reached its coming of age as an autonomous discipline (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Some individuals find it difficult in learning another language especially the adults. It is essential that second language learners receive an enormous amount of exposure to the language for them to learn it (Krashen, 1981). Krashen (1981) further argues that in order to learn a second language, a learner needs to be provided with the opportunity (environment) to acquire it; learning will occur without any conscious effort from the part of the learner. In other words, some learners are lucky enough to grow up in a bilingual environment where more than one language is used and were able to acquire a second language in circumstances similar to their first language acquisition.

b. Innateness:

Languages are built on two fundamental parts; grammar and vocabulary and each normal human being acquires at least one language. Various theories of how we acquire language have been put forward over the years by different theorists and there has been much debate on which theory is effective and which one is not. Some of these theories include behaviourist, innatists, and interactionist (Light Brown & Spada, 1993).

Innateness theory is part of first language acquisition introduced by Noam Chomsky in the middle of the twentieth century. Chomsky shows the innatists' limitations of behaviourist view of language acquisition in 1960's to the alternative generative account of language (Pinker, 1994). We are born with set of rules about language in our brains and children are equipped with an innate template or blueprint for language and this blueprint aids children in the task of constructing a grammar for their language (Chomsky, 2009). Thus, the view of innateness started with Chomsky's claim who asserted that the process of acquiring languages is not based solely on learning but also dependent on an inborn knowledge of the fundamental grammar common to all languages. Noam Chomsky mentions, in his work, *Knowledge of Language*, that knowledge of language is knowledge without grounds: it is not taught or learnt knowledge (Chomsky, 2004, as cited in Samúelsdóttir, 2015). He backed up his hypothesis with theories of generative and universal grammar, critical period and a so-called language faculty. Moreover, this linguist argued his ideas by stating that children at an early age create stories and novels using language that no one had taught them. Likewise, "all children share the same innateness, all children share the same internal constraints which characterize narrowly the grammar they are going to construct" (Chomsky, 1977, p.98). Widdowson (1995) supported the view of innateness in his book "Linguistics" by stating that:

“The argument for genetic uniqueness of language is that it provides an explanation for a number of facts which would otherwise be inexplicable .one of these is the ease with which children learn their own language .they rapidly acquire a complex grammar which goes beyond imitation of any utterances they might hear .they do not simply pick up language ,parrot like, but use the language around them to develop rules which cannot possibly have been induced directly from the relatively meagre data they are exposed to ”(p.12).

Whilst Humboldt (1999, as cited in Khalifa Aljoundi, 2014) in support of Chomsky affirmed that language cannot properly be taught but only awakened in the mind; it can only be given the threads by which it develops on its own account. This means that “language learning of children is not an assignment of words to be deposited in memory and rehearsed by rote through the lips, but a growth in linguistic capacity with age and practice” (Chomsky, 2009, p.101). Accordingly, children’s ability to learn a language does not develop through memorization, but it develops as much as their body grows. Similarly, Crain and Lillo-Martin (1999, p.05) postulate that “language is not a concrete set of things out in the world that we can point out to or measure rather, it is something inside our brains and minds”. Thus, this led to the fact that there exists an innate, genetically programmed language acquisition device which directs the process of learning.

According to Chomsky (1959), children are born with an understanding of the way languages work, which was referred to as ‘Universal Grammar’. It means that children use Universal Grammar to get a grasp of the language they hear in their environment and apply it in their native language. In other words, universal grammar allows them to construct the grammar of their mother tongue. Likewise, Crain and Lillo-Martin (1999) pinpointed that the innate knowledge, known as the language Acquisition Device (LAD), includes principle common to all human languages, called the Universal Grammar (UG). Chomsky asserted with

his theory that this inborn knowledge helps children to acquire their native language effortlessly and systematically despite the complexity of the process. Unlike adults acquiring a second language, who find it a much more difficult process. In the same line of thought, Crain & Lillo-Martin, (1999) claimed that children's ability makes the task of learning a first language easier than it would otherwise be.

However, in literatures, some scholars have criticized the innateness of language as it relates to having nothing defending the thesis (Khalifa Aljoundi, 2014). Sampson (2005) argued that to say that language is not innate is to say that there is no difference between my granddaughter, a rock and a rabbit. According to Sampson (2005) if you take a rock, a rabbit and my granddaughter and put them in a community where people are talking English, they will all learn English. This simply implies that if there is a difference, therefore, language is not innate.

1.1.2. Writing skill:

In the history of language learning, writing has always been considered as a crucial skill to be mastered in order to achieve better learning outcomes. However, the task of writing seems highly challenging for most language learners in particular foreign language learners as it requires a lot of time and attention. Even natives encounter several difficulties when it comes to writing, oftentimes they fail to display a good command of writing (Johnstone, Ashbaugh, and Warfield, 2002).

1.1.2.1. Definitions of writing:

A significant body of literature has been written about this skill. Unlike writing in an L1, writing in an L2 or in a FL is a quite challenging task; it requires an attainment of sufficient linguistic proficiency (Hinkel, 2004). Since it is an active, productive skill, students learning to

write in a foreign language face multiple challenges (Hyland, 2003; Erkan & Saban, 2011). Lado (1983) stated that writing in a foreign language demands the mastery of vocabulary, structures and their conventions.

Hence, writing is defined differently according to the researcher's perspective. In Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary, it is defined as the act of putting symbols or letters on a surface. In the same line of thought, Byrne (1972) states that when we write we use graphic symbols that are letters or combination of letters which relate to sounds we make when we speak. Similarly, Widdowson (1981, p.26) relates the act of writing to the activity of producing correct sentences and "transmitting them through the visual medium as marks on paper". In contrast to the previous definitions that emphasize the use of graphic or visual language, Brooks (1960) believes that writing is a collection of expressions that convey meaning and carry a message (as cited in Maouedj, 2015). This is what Spratt, Pulverness and Williams (2005, p.26) argued when they say: "very simply, we can say that writing involves communicating a message (something to say) by making signs on page. To write we need a message and someone to communicate it to". This indicates that we use written symbols to achieve communication.

For Nunan (1989): "writing is an extremely complex, cognitive activity for all which the writer is required to demonstrate control of a number of variables simultaneously" (p.36). Additionally, as regard to the complexity of this activity, "writers must change ideas into text, repair organization and mechanics, and monitor their success--all while trying to formulate a coherent message" (Ransdell and Levy, 1996, p.93, as cited in Singleton-Jackson, 2003).

From the previous set of definitions, one might say that the skill of writing has been defined differently according to every researcher's view. Some argue that it is a complex

activity that has certain stages where students or writers in general need to go through. Others claim and emphasize that writing is a production of messages through graphic symbols.

1.1.2.2. The importance of writing:

Language learners attempt to gain certain goals; one of them is learning to write. Academic writing ability is particularly recognized as one of the most crucial aspects of language for successful academic achievement (Nasihah, Cahyono, 2017). Indeed, writing in the academic community is highly important; a student can't be successful without a certain level of academic writing proficiency.

English language teaching circles are paying further attention to writing skill (Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 1999). This is because writing is regarded as one of the most important communicative skills in English language learning (Hayes & Flower, 1986; Sharples, Goodlet, & Pymberton, 1989). Riswanto and Putra (2012) claimed that writing is among the language skills that will never become taken as an outdated component in education. In addition, Bjork and Raisanen (1997) determine the part of writing as a thinking tool and a tool for learners to enlarge their knowledge. They stated:

“We highlight the importance of writing in all university curricula not only because of its immediate practical implication, i.e. as an isolated skill or ability, because we believe that it has been seen from broader perspective. Writing is a thinking tool; it is a tool for language development, for critical thinking and extension for learning in all disciplines” (p.06).

Thus, writing deepens the students' knowledge because through their researches they collect, they learn different information, and they use the findings when composing. As well, writing can be used as an instrument for documenting the students' linguistic competence. In

other words, the essays they write, their exam papers, and portfolios, help teachers recognize their students' level (Maouedj, 2014).

Hence, writing holds a tremendous importance for native, second and foreign language learners. Therefore, “we no longer have to ask ourselves whether writing is a good thing or not. We take it as a fundamental right” (Harmer, 2004, p.03). In other words, Harmer means that we learn to write to fulfil our social needs, and being educated gives people the impression of self-esteem over those who are not so fortunate. On the importance of writing in our society, Brown (2004) indicates that: “today, the ability to write has become an indispensable skill in our global literate community” (p.218). In all cases, writing is highly important for human as it allows individuals to accomplish a variety of personal, intellectual, and professional goals (Bouchibi, 2017).

1.1.2.3. The sub-skills of writing:

Knowing the nature of writing, Flower and Hayes (1980) have studied writing by looking at the involved mental operations as they interact recursively: planning and generation of knowledge, translation of the plan into speech, and editing or reviewing the plan or the newly created text. According to the National Research Council (2012, p.13), writing consists of different skills such as “handwriting, spelling, keyboarding, capitalization, punctuation, sentence construction”. Similarly, Spratt, Pulverness and Williams (2005, p.26) claimed that: “writing involves two sub skills: accuracy and having a message.”

Additionally, writing was considered as one of the most difficult skills for the students to acquire as writing demands various skills and agreements like arranging, and enhancing ideas, thoughts, and information, choosing the accurate vocabulary to get rid the meaning obscurity, as well as the practice of correct grammatical devices to focus and increase ideas and thoughts (Nik et al, 2010; Yunus et al, 2013, as cited in Bouchibi, 2017).

1.1.2.4. Types of writing:

Writing, as being considered a mean of communication, is of different types: narrative descriptive, argumentative, and expository.

a- Narrative: in this type of writing, the writer tells a personal, fictional experience or story. The writer tries to portray the main character with a plot and setting, i.e. all the situations, events, conflicts, and challenges the hero goes through reaching a solution. It is mainly used in novels, stories, autobiography and essays.

b- Descriptive: this type of writing is used to create a clear picture of a person, place or something, which provide details to the reader. When describing; the writer involves a sense of subjectivity through the use of certain adjectives and adverbs. In other words, his inner feelings and emotions are connected with the world. It is often used in poetry, journals, or diary writing, and usually mixed with other styles as supplements.

c- Argumentative: also called persuasive writing, this type attempts to convince the reader with writer's point of view by giving different evidence and facts. The writer should be objective and show the opposing opinions, then criticize them, i.e. discussing both sides of the topic.

d- Expository: this type of writing provides a neutral explanation of information about a person, a thing, or a relationship. It provides factual data, clear reasons statistical information, and causes and effects. Expository writing is free of any form of description of emotion and opinions. It is used in textbook writing, How-to articles, technical, or scientific writing.

1.1.2.5. Writing as a product and as a process:

Writing has been viewed as a process. Ransdell and Levy (1996, p.93) defined writing as “a process that requires extensive self-regulation and intentional control...writers must change

ideas into text, repair organization and mechanics, and monitor their success--all while trying to formulate a coherent message” (as cited in Singleton-Jackson, 2003). In fact, as being considered, a process student has to complete all steps of it to be able to conduct a piece of writing (Annab, 2016). According to Raimes (1983), writing depends on three basic elements; rules of grammar, words and style, because it is a planned process and the writer needs to convey the message to the reader accurately.

Likewise, Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 366) believe that: “writing is best understood as a set of distinctive thinking processes which writers orchestrate or organize during the act of composing”. On the other, writing is seen as a product that the students reach after series of actions. Widdowson’s definition of writing in 1978 supported this view, where he defined writing as being an act of producing correct sentences and transmitting them into words on paper. Similarly, Alharthi (2011) stated that writing was viewed as an act of producing symbols.

a. The product approach:

The product approach has been viewed as ‘the Traditional Paradigm’ or the ‘Traditional Approach’ of teaching writing. Nunan (1991, p.86) defines the product approach as “... a product-oriented approach, as the title indicates focuses on the end result of the learning process, what is expected from the learner is to do as fluent and competent user of the language”. Following what Nunan has said, the major goal of this approach is to make competent language learners through producing relevant, correct and coherent compositions.

Therefore, the focus of this approach is the finished product of students. Moreover, the texts written by the students are based on models provided by the teacher. Ghodbane (2010) stated that following this approach, the teachers give controlled and guided activities to prevent students from making errors in their writing. Hyland (2003) summarizes the major

principles of the product approach as the following. “The product approach ‘encourages a focus formal text units or grammatical features of texts’. That is the product approach focuses on the form of texts: how words in sentences are combined” (as cited in Ouazeta, 2010, p.07).

The model-based approach was strongly criticized because it limits the learners’ creative aspect, namely it gives them no chance to add or remove sentences. In addition, Raimes (1983) argued that the product approach gives no importance to the audience. Indeed, “what the model does not demonstrate is how the original arrived at that particular product. In other words, it gives no indication of the process” (White, 1988, p. 06). Accordingly, White means that, it focuses more on the final form of the writing piece and neglects how students have accomplished the task of writing.

b. The process approach:

In the mid-1970’s the process approach came as a response to the shortcomings of the product approach. This approach defines the problem and argues that the final draft of the writer is the result of many stages (Ouazeta, 2010). That means, the writer is free to add and create new ideas each time he revises his paper. The process approach identifies four stages in writing: (1) pre-writing, (2) drafting, (3) revising, and (4) editing (Teribble, 1996). In addition, producing final draft is not as easy as following a model suggested by the product approach, but the process activity takes too much time as learners need to move through different stages. Terrible (1996, p. 37) suggested that the process approach highlights “writing activities which move learners from the generation of ideas and the collection of data to the “publication” of a finished text”. Significantly, this process approach emphasizes a greater focus on the person (that is, the writer) and the process (that is, strategies) involved in writing (Schmitt, 2010).

In the writing process, “students gain feedback after each of the drafts they write, the feedback may be from peers, small groups or from teachers” (Ouazeta, 2010, p.8). Thus, it calls for providing and maintaining a positive, encouraging and collaborative workshop environment. The major critiques to the process approach are the difficulty lying under the students’ minds and make them aware about the process writing (Brooks and Grundy, 2001, as cited in Nemouchi, 2009). According to Hedge (2000), if students are in examinations, the drafting stage will be time consuming. It takes much time than it is required.

1.1.3. Definition and theories of learning:

When psychology was first considered as “the science of mental life” in 1890, the study of human learning starts to evolve. Pitchard (2013, p.03) declared: “it is from this approximate starting point that the study of mind and of human behaviour and, in particular, the study of learning began to grow”. The study of how learning occurs is part of educational psychology, neuropsychology, learning theory, and pedagogy (Pal, 2011, as cited in Baghdadi, 2015). Hence, there is no universal common definition of the term learning as it is perceived differently by a number of researchers. On the other hand, learning theories are conceptual frameworks that try to explain how and why human being absorb and process information in the learning process.

1.1.3.1. Definition of learning:

Learning has been a central topic in psychological research virtually since the conception of psychology as an independent science (Ebbinghaus 1885-1962; Thorndike, 1911). During the largest part of the previous century, it was even the most intensely studied topic in psychology. It is therefore surprising to see that researchers are rarely explicit about what they mean by the term “learning”. Various psychologists and educationists have defined this concept of learning in their own way. Some define it as a process, some as a change in

performance and some define learning as acquisition and retention of knowledge. In common parlance, the word 'learning' carries at least two meanings.

There is a general one of some kind of change, often in knowledge but also in behaviour. According to Ambrose et al. (2010, p.03): “learning is a change in knowledge, beliefs, behaviours or attitudes”. As well, it is defined as an effect of experience on behaviour. As was noted by Lachman (1997), most textbook definitions of learning refer to learning as a change in behaviour that is due to experience. Similarly, Wakefield (1996) argued that: “learning can be described as a relatively permanent change in the behaviour of an individual based on his/her experiences or discoveries” (p. 364). This change in behaviour brought about by experience is commonly known as learning. However, “learning cannot be defined merely in terms of changes in behaviour. But there is also a more intense sense of the verb “to learn” meaning “to memorize, to learn by heart” (Roger, 2003, p.86). To say that 'learning is change' is too simple. Not all change is learning. What we usually mean by 'learning' are “those more or less permanent changes and reinforcements brought about voluntarily in one's patterns of acting, thinking and/or feeling” (Roger, 2003, p.86). This is very simple explanation of learning, but a complete understanding of the term needs more clarification and exact definitions. Therefore, some well-known definitions are compiled as follows.

“Any activity can be called learning so far as it develops the individual (in any respect, good or bad) and makes him alter behaviour and experience different from what that would otherwise have been” (Woodworth, 1945, p. 288). In addition, other definitions have been forwarded: “learning is the process by which behaviour (in the broader sense) is organized or changes through practice or training” (Kingsley and Garry 1957, p.12). For Henry (1962): “learning is the acquisition of new behaviour or the strengthening or weakening of old behaviour as the result of experience” (p.260). Robinson and Horrocks (1967, p.232) said that: “ learning is an episode in which a motivated individual attempts to adapt his behaviour so as

to succeed in a situation which he perceives as requiring action to attain a goal”. Finally, according to Crow and Crow (1973): “learning is the acquisition of habits, knowledge and attitudes. It involves new ways of doing things and it operates on an individual’s attempts to overcome obstacles or to adjust to new situation. It represents progressive changes in behaviour. It enables him to satisfy interests to attain a goal” (p.225).

In the process of education learning occupies a quite central place. Whatever exists in our educational setup is meant for the learning of the learners that is students. Therefore, it is quite essential for you as you would be teacher to be acquainted with the concept of the term learning.

1.1.3.2. Theories of learning:

Over the past century, educational psychologists and researchers have posited many theories. Some light will be shed on a certain number of theories which were significantly influential in term of explaining human learning. The so-called modern learning theories are: Behaviourism, Cognitivism and Constructivism. Schunk (1991) stated five definitive questions that serve to distinguish each learning theory from the other: 1) How does learning occur? 2) Which factors impact learning? 3) What is the role of memory? 4) How does transfer occurs? And 5) What types of learning are best explained by the theory? Moreover, Hammoudi (2010) stated that: “which one should be adhere to? Which one is more valid? A personal answer would assert that “space and time” are the two elements which select the theory or theories that are suitable to a given situation” (p.18).

a. Behavioural learning:

The ideas of behaviourism have their roots in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Pritchard, 2009). It is a doctrine interested in observable behaviours either by animals or human beings in order to show the link between stimulus and response.

“Behaviourist theory focused on the study of animal and human behaviour to determine the connection between stimulus and response as a learning process. That is why the theory is commonly called connectionist” (Baghdadi, 2015, p.18). Learning for the behaviourist is focused on an observable change in the learner’s behaviour and is not concerned with the internal thought processes of the learner. Charles and Soltis (2004) emphasize the idea of observable behaviours; however, they added the idea of discounting any mental activity or internal physiological process, that is, the absence of mind. Schmitt (2010) stated that behaviourists view all learning particularly language learning as a process of imitation, practice, reinforcement and habit formation. In general, language learning is seen as the formation of habits, based on the notions of stimulus and response. The response people give to stimuli in their environment will be reinforced if desired outcome is obtained. Through repeated reinforcement, a certain stimulus will elicit the same response time and again, which will then become a habit.

In L1 acquisition, the imitation process of utterances produced by adults and the efforts that children make at using language either rewarded or corrected help them to master their mother tongue (Hoque ,2017). It was also believed that SLA could proceed in a similar way. Imitation and reinforcement were the means by which the learner identified the stimulus-response association that constituted the habits of the L2. When learning a second language, we already have a set of well-established responses in our mother tongue. The L2 learning process therefore involves replacing those habits by a set of new one. Behaviourists call this method of learning ‘conditioning’ which was a widely spread learning process. Two different types of conditioning are described and demonstrated as viable explanations of the way in which animals and humans alike can be ‘taught’ to do certain things.

First, there is “classical conditioning”; “this involves the reinforcement of a natural reflex or some other behaviour which occurs as a response to a particular stimulus” (Pritchard,

2009, p. 06). A well-known example of this type of conditioning, the first of its kind, is the work of Ivan Pavlov, a Russian physiologist at the start of the twentieth century. From his perspective, learning begins with a stimulus-response connection. In this theory, a certain stimulus leads to a particular response.

The second type of conditioning is ‘operant conditioning’. Operant conditioning is the most important type of behaviourist learning. It involves reinforcing a behaviour by rewarding it. “It can also work in a negative way, when an undesirable behaviour can be discouraged, by following it with punishment of some form” (Pritchard, 2009, p.07). Skinner, a psychologist working in America in the 1930s, is the most famous psychologist in the field of operant conditioning and probably the most famous behaviourist (1957, as cited in Lightbown and Spada, 2013). According to him, language was considered as a behaviour. He stated that the fundamentals of language are essentially developed through conditioning and the formation of good language habits (Mitchell, Myles and Marsden, 2013). His most fundamental principle is his law of conditioning: “a response followed by a reinforcing stimulus is strengthened and therefore more likely to occur again”. His second principle was his law of extinction: ‘a response that is not followed by a reinforcing stimulus is weakened and therefore less likely to occur again.’ Skinner proposed that language could be categorized by the way it was reinforced. He argued that languages are acquired through a process of stimulus-response-reward.

Behaviourism came under attack when Chomsky (1968) questioned the notion that children learn their first language by repeating what they hear in the surrounding environment. He argued that children produce novel and creative utterances – ones that they would never have heard in their environment (Schmitt, 2010).

b. Cognitive learning:

The genesis of cognitivism as a learning theory can be traced back to the twenties century. It is until 1950s/ 1960s when researchers started to understand that perhaps human learning did not just involve behaviour, that maybe it involved introspective aspects (Ormrod, 2011). The shift from behaviourism to cognitivism stemmed from the behaviourist failure to explain why and how individuals process information. Theorists such as Piaget, Vygotsky, and Gagné disagreed with behaviourism because they were convinced that learning could also occur without external stimuli (Gagné et al., 1985, Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, as cited in Vanderzanden et al., 2007, p.69). Similarly, James Hartely (1998, p.18) claimed that “learning results from inferences, expectations, and making connections, instead of acquiring habits”. Thus, cognitivism view turned its attention to the study of individuals’ mental processes such as learning, perceiving, remembering, using language, reasoning and solving problems. Its focus is on the cognitive processes, that is, “how people perceive, interpret, remember and in other ways think about environmental events” (Ormrod, 2012, p. 141). The theory is based on the idea that people mentally process the information they receive, rather than simply responding to stimuli from their environment. According to the cognitive theorist all aspects that are learnt by an individual are as a result of what learners have constructed or discovered their own mental process and not through observable behaviour (Warren, 2012). Most significantly, this theory was credited to Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget (1896-1980). He disagreed with the behaviourist theory which focuses strictly on observable behaviour. He argued that learning and thinking are active processes, not merely passive or trial and error responses to stimuli (1972). He believed that knowledge is something actively constructed by learners based on their existing cognitive structure. According to him, learning is a meaningful process of relating new events or items to already existing cognitive concepts (Brown, 1987).

c. Constructivist learning:

Constructivism is an approach to teaching and learning based on the premise that cognition (learning) is the result of “mental construction”. In constructivist learning theory, the key idea is that “... students actively construct their own knowledge. That is learning is active mental work, not passive reception of teaching” (Woolfolk, 1993). In other words, students learn by fitting new information together with what they already know. “Learning takes place when new information is built into and added onto an individual’s current structure of knowledge, understanding and skills” (Pritchard, 2009, p. 17). As well, it is important to mention that within constructivism there are two schools of thoughts: the social constructivism with the leadership of Lev Vygotsky who emphasized the role of social and cultural learning context; and the cognitive constructivism.

According to Vygotsky (1978), constructivist theory builds knowledge based on previously gained information or experiences. In the same line of thought, Durbin (1996) suggested that learners’ interpretations of knowledge rely on their personal experience and context. Vygotsky felt that the ability to comprehend any mental development could only be within the sociocultural context in which the development was occurring (Baghdadi, 2015). That is social aspects of learning form a crucial part of the constructivist view of learning. Social interactions play a fundamental role in the development of all cognitive abilities, including thinking, learning and communicating (Leonard, 2002). Similarly, Schmitt (2010) affirms that only through social interaction with others that humans develop their language and cognition. He added; most language use (spoken or written) is co-constructed with others and not simply the product of one individual acting alone in a vacuum. This means that people also learn from one another and not only in isolation from others.

Cognitive construction came directly from Piaget's work. He is considered as the founder of constructivism as this latter is derived from the field of cognitive psychology which based on his work (Sridevi, 2008). Specifically, the main focus of cognitive constructivism has to do with the individual and how he/ she constructs knowledge. This theory proposes that humans cannot be given information, which they immediately understand and use; instead, humans must construct their own knowledge (Piaget, 1953, as cited in Powell and Kalina, 2009). That is knowledge is constructed as part of cognitive learning systems that the individual builds. Piaget stated that children's schemas are constructed through the process of assimilation and accommodation, when going through for different stages of development (Wadsworth, 2004, as cited in Powell and Kalina, 2009).

However, these two lines of thoughts do not represent opposing perspectives, but rather differences in focus. Where cognitive constructivist tends to focus on the individual and how he/ she constructs meaning of the world around him/ her, social-constructivists emphasize how social interactions mediate the construction of knowledge.

In brief, various theories and approaches have been developed in the field of how a person learns. Pedagogues make a classification based on three basic approaches while dealing with learning theories. These are: behaviourist approach, cognitive approach and constructivism.

1.1.4. Factors Influencing Learning:

The following points highlight the six main factors influencing learning. The factors are:
1. Environmental Factors 2. Sociological factors 3. Physiological Factors 4. Intellectual/mental factors 5. Emotional factors 6. Psychological Factors.

1.1.4.1. Environmental factors:

“Developmentalists believe that learning results from adaptations to the environment, which are characterized by increasingly sophisticated methods of representing and organizing information” (Baghdadi, 2015, p.21). Caine and Caine (1991) quoted in an article by North central regional education laboratory, “learning involves both focused attention and peripheral perception” (p.83). Thus, the environment where learning takes place has a great importance in the learning process. In the same vein, Greeno (1989) proved that learning has a connection to the environment and thinking is a result of these interactions. According to an article published by Zaveri (n.d) in the website <http://www.psychologydiscussion.net>, environmental factors include the following items:

a. Working conditions:

According to Zaveri (n.d., Working conditions section,para.1): “learning is hampered by bad working conditions such as distraction, noise, poor illumination, bad ventilation, overcrowding, bad seating arrangement, and uncomfortable stay both at home and school”. Moreover, the location of the school, the internal way in which it is organized and the health conditions are important factors that affect the efficiency of learning (Zaveri, n.d.).

b. Organizational set-up:

“The organizational set-up of the school also influences learning. (i) The time-table must be drawn, in accordance with the psychological principles. It should avoid fatigue and boredom. Difficult subjects should be taught in the morning. There should be interval after some periods. (ii) The teacher-pupil relations should be healthy, so that there is mental cooperation and the pupils are motivated to learn. (iii) There should be some sort of competition. This will stimulate the pupils to work more in order to outshine others. (iv) The

participation on the part of the pupils should be active. The pupil should not act as a passive learner. (v) Guidance in the selection of subjects and activities in accordance with age and ability and aptitude of the pupils should be provided” (Zaveri, n.d., Organizational set-up section, para.1).

1.1.4.2. Sociological factors:

Sociological factors play an important role in language learning. The following items represent some sociological factors related language learning.

a. Gender and Power:

Schmitt (2010) point out that the influence of gender and asymmetries in power relations have been a major aspect of sociolinguistic discussion in recent years. He claimed that: “the notion of a ‘genderlect’ has been proposed to account for some of the apparently systematic differences in the ways men and women use language” (2010, p.150). These differences can be observed across the whole range of linguistic variables, from plans of narrative and discourse organization, to the different accents that men and women have even from the same area (Coates and Cameron, 1986; Cameron, 1995; Crawford, 1995; Mills, 1995; Holmes and Meyerhoff, 2003; Coates, 2004). Additionally, as regards to L2 learning contexts, Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that female students were more motivated for the learning of L2 and had more favourable attitudes than male students.

b. Audience:

According to Schmitt (2010), within most conversations the interlocutors plan in their mind what to say in advance. This factor often results in speakers adjusting their accent, style or language towards their addressees. This phenomenon is called ‘accommodation’ and it seems that such convergence of accents is an important cause of language change over time (Auer, 2007, as cited in Schmitt, 2010).

c. Identity:

This is an important social factor. “Not only do linguistic patterns signal social and individual identity, but people’s conscious awareness of their personal, ethnic, geographical, political and family identities is often a factor in their language use” (Schmitt, 2010, p.151).

d. Social network relations:

Schmitt (2010, p.151) argued that: “the relative strength of relations between individuals within a social group (their ‘social network’) is also important in understanding how linguistic features are maintained, reinforced and spread”. Whether individuals have strong or weak ties to the group can be used as a measure of their sociolinguistic influence (Milroy, 1987; Milroy and Milroy, 1999).

1.1.4.3. Physiological factors:

Caine and Caine (1991) quoted in an article by North central regional education laboratory “learning engages the entire physiology” (p.80). Thereby, no one can deny the role of physiological or physical factors in learning languages. These factors are defined by Zaveri (n.d.) in the website <http://www.psychologydiscussion.net> as follow: sense perception, physical health, fatigue, time of learning, food and drink, atmospheric conditions and age.

a. Sense-perception:

According to Zaveri (n.d.), all cognitive learning is based on sensation and perception. Thus, “weaker the power of perception, lesser the amount of learning. A blind man learns far less than a normal person. Also, impairment of sense organs is a handicap in the process of learning” (Zaveri, n.d., Sense-perception section, para.1).

b. Physical health:

Sane mind is only in a sane body. “Sound physical health gives vigour and vitality to pursue learning activities for a longer education” (Zaveri, n.d., Physical health section, para.1). Zaveri added that a diseased person is handicapped by the normal physical strength necessary for any mental activity. Similarly, Mondal (n.d.) affirmed that the health of the learner will likely affect his ability to learn and his power to concentrate.

c. Fatigue:

Muscular or sensory fatigue causes mental boredom and indolence. “A number of factors in the home and school environment may cause physical and mental fatigue, such as lack of accommodation, bad seating arrangement, unhealthy clothing, inadequate ventilation, poor light, noise over crowdedness, and pure nutrition” (Zaveri, n.d., Fatigue section, para.1). Additionally, the long durations of study may also cause fatigue which affects the learning capacity.

d. Time of learning:

Morning and evening hours are the best periods of study. “During the day, there is decline in the mental capacity. Experiments on children have shown that there are great variations in learning efficiency during the different hours of the day” (Zaveri, n.d., Time of learning section, para.1).

e. Food and drink:

It is known that efficient mental activity is based on healthy nutrition while poor nutrition adversely affects learning (Zaveri, n.d.). Moreover, the kind of food also has some effect on the mental state. Zaveri (n.d.) claimed that the alcoholic drinks, caffeine, tobacco and such addictive items have adverse effect on neuro-muscular system, and consequently upon

the learning capacity. Additionally, Mondal (n.d.) indicated that malnutrition interferes with learning and physical growth.

f. Atmospheric conditions:

“High temperature and humidity lower the mental efficiency. Also, low ventilation, lack of proper illumination, noise and physical discomfort (as we find in factories and overcrowded schools) hamper the learning capacity” (Zaveri, n.d., Atmospheric conditions section, para.1). Distractions of all sorts affect power of concentration and consequently the efficiency of learning (Maslow, 1968, as cited in Schunk, 2010).

g. Age:

Learning capacity varies with age. Some subjects can better be learnt at the early age, and some during adulthood. On the evidence of researches conducted, adults learn faster than children and outperform them in Grammar in the short term (Olsen and Samuels,1973; Krashen, Long and Scarcella, 1982), though with the learning of pronunciation children seem to be superior (Burstall, 1975). Age accompanies mental maturation. So, some complex problems cannot be solved till the person is sufficiently mature. “Children learn the school subjects more easily than uneducated adults can learn. This is perhaps because the children’s minds are not burdened with worldly problems, and they have more flexible nervous system” (Zaveri, n.d., Age section, para.2)

1.1.4.4. Intellectual factor:

Both Child (1977) and Anderson (1995) (as cited in Baghdadi, 2015) agree on the principle that a study of learning cannot be carried out without great consideration be given to perception and processes of the mind.

“The term intellect refers to the individual mental level. Success in school is generally closely related to level of the intellect. Pupils with low intelligence often encounter serious difficulty in mastering schoolwork.”(Mondal, n.d., Intellectual factor section, para.1)

Thus, the individuals’ intellectual capacity is of prime importance in determining the effectiveness of the learning process.

1.1.4.5. Emotional factors:

Caine and Caine (1991, p.82) quoted in an article by North central regional education laboratory, “emotions are critical for patterning”. Thus, learning is influenced by feeling and attitudes. Crow and Crow (1973) think of emotion as “an effective experience that accompanies generalized inner adjustment and mental and physiological stirred-up states in the individual, and that shows itself in his overt behaviour” (as cited in Mondal, n.d., para. 2). Moreover, Emotions can help to direct attention, which is necessary for learning (Phelps, 2006). In SLA, research on emotions has been referred to as affect. The term “*affect*” is defined as: “broadly aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which can condition behaviour and influence language learning” (Arnold and Brown, 1999, p.01). Emotion enters into every activity of life, and therefore of school. Thus, Affective factors in the individual’s experiences influence the amount of his learning. Emotions, feelings, and attitudes play many roles in the teacher’s teaching and in the pupil’s learning (Mondal, n.d.).

1.1.4.6. Psychological Factors:

There are many psychological problems that prevent learners from being successful in their language learning process. The following items represent some important psychological factors that affect learning:

a. Mental health:

Mental diseases in general hamper learning. As far as concentration needs mental poise, a maladjusted child finds it difficult to concentrate and thus to learn. While, calmness increases his power to concentrate and learn better (Zaveri, n.d.).

b. Motivation:

According to Moskovsky & Alrabai (2009), motivation is a very important operator in language learning and realization. Thus, no learning takes place unless it is motivated. Moreover, in the context of second language learning Gardner (1985) view motivation as the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language, because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity. Hence, in the absence of motivation learners will not be interested in learning any language subject.

c. Rewards and punishments:

On one hand, rewards of all sorts are powerful incentives to learn. Willingham (2008, p.160) states that: “rewards can motivate students to attend class, to behave well, or to produce better work.” That is, rewards promote good behaviour and better performance. However, learners become over-dependent on rewards. Sometimes they even refuse to work without any incentive of reward. On the other, punishments, arousing fear in anticipation, may influence learners to work and learn, but not in all the cases. Sometimes punishment creates bad reaction, retaliation, hatred and disgust. Moreover, experimental studies show that when punishments are absent students will disobey and waste time (Zaveri, n.d.).

d. Anxiety:

According to Sabi and Farhet (2017, p.9): “anxiety is a psychological phenomenon which relates to the learners’ feelings of fear and worry”. It posits barriers for learners to be

successful in the learning process. Moreover, we cannot deny that: “it is too easy for foreign language classroom to create inhibition and anxiety” (Littlewood, 1999, p.03). Thus, those negative feelings challenge learners during their learning process which make them losing concentration and feeling uncomfortable about the language learning process.

Part two: The Adult’s learning style differences and preferences toward learning

1.2.1. Characteristics of Adult Learners:

Learning is a continuous, ongoing and a lifelong process. Each learner has individual learning needs and it is important for the teachers or facilitators to know their learners well. According to Bugelski (1956) “learning is most effective when geared to the physical and intellectual ability of the learner”. In addition, Kapur (2015) stated that: “a child learner is not as an adult learner, for this reason, the adult learner cannot be treated as an oversized child learner” (p. 111). That is teachers or facilitators of adult learners, while teaching adults, cannot use methodologies, strategies and activities used with the child learner. As well, maturity brings unique characteristics that affect how adults are motivated to learn. Hence, teachers or facilitators of adult learners have to first understand the characteristics of the adult learners, then conceive, design or implement learning programs. The adult learner and the manner in which he/ she learns best have been questioned and researched since the 1920s. Today, several theories and models attempt to explain adult learning. One of the most well-known theories is that of Malcolm Knowles’ learning theory of Andragogy, the art and science of helping adults learn as contrasted with pedagogy, the art and science of teaching children. Andragogy is a learning theory that is designed to address the particular needs of adults, and it is based on the idea that there are significant differences in learning characteristics between children and adults (Knowles, 1980).

1.2.1.1. Who is an Adult Learner?

The term “adult” incorporates a comprehensive range of concepts. It is referred to the stage in the lifecycle of the individual. As well, it is the status accepted by the society. It is also referred to as the social sub-set, which is used to distinguish from children or it can include a set of ideals and values (Svetina, &Perme, 2004).

To fully understand what is meant by “the adult learner”, it is important to note that the definition of “adult” is not strictly related to age. As his thinking and work evolved, Knowles (1980) himself defined adulthood as the point at which individuals perceive themselves to be essentially self-directing. Other researchers indicate that an adult learner is a mature student who is acquiring new knowledge and skills, developing new attitudes after having reached mature intellectual, physical and social development. Adult learners are mature and understanding (Svetina, &Perme, 2004). Furthermore, they are the participants in adult learning opportunities. They form a heterogeneous up of individuals with different educational biographies and diversified educational needs.

1.2.1.2. Malcolm Knowles’ Characteristics of Adult Learners:

Knowles built upon the works of Piaget and Erikson to develop five assumptions on the characteristics of adult learners and how they differ from younger learners.

- a. Self-concept:** as an individual reaches his prime stage, his/her self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality towards one of being an independent, self-directed human being.
- b. Experience:** as a person matures, he/she accumulates a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning.

- c. **Readiness to learn:** as an individual turns into an adult, his/her inclination to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of his/her social roles.
- d. **Orientation to learning:** on becoming an adult, the time perspective of an individual changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application. In the similar way, learning shifts from one of subject centeredness to one of problem centeredness.
- e. **Motivation to learn:** amongst the adult learners, the motivation and the enthusiasm of learning develop internally.

Similarly, many studies have been conducted by (Houle, 1961; Knowles, 1980 & 1984; Heimstra and Sisco, 1990; Rogers, 2007) in order to facilitate the understanding of adult learners' characteristics. They have elaborated the main characteristics as follow.

- a. **A Distinct group:** the adult learners vary distinctly from each other in terms of their needs, problems, requirements, attitudes and outlook that they bring to the learning situation. There are also variations in their age, religion, race, experience, levels of knowledge, communication and learning styles.
- b. **Autonomous, independent and self-directed:** adult learners are self-governing, self-dependent and self-directing, willingness to take initiative, persistence in learning, self-discipline and self-confident.
- c. **Goal-oriented individuals:** adults set their goals very clearly and elaborately in whatever activity that they involve themselves in. They prefer to partake in learning activities that help them reach their goals. Their participation in learning activities also involves achievement of the enunciated goals. Sometimes the goal may be social or educational, occupational, or an economic goal.

- d. Voluntary learners: adult learners join learning process without any pressures, compulsions or coercion.
- e. Result-oriented: besides coming voluntarily to the learning situation, the adult learners are highly result-oriented learners. They usually have specific expectations and definite result in their mind for what they will get out of learning activities. If the results they are anticipating out of learning activities are not achieved they may even drop out of the learning program.
- f. Relevancy-oriented: adult learners have to know how relevant the learning process is to them? How is it geared up to meet their needs? Once they understand the relevancy of the learning both in their present everyday life and future context, they become active participants in the learning programmes.
- g. Wealth of experience and knowledge: as individuals progress chronologically in age, they become mature by accumulation of vast wealth of experience and knowledge. They bring this depth and breadth of knowledge to the learning situation. These adults bring a wealth of information and experiences to a learning situation... (Zemke Zemke, 1984). This has to be tapped as a resource during the teaching learning situation.
- h. Motivated learners: their motivation to learn is related to their immediate needs and requirements. This means that they are usually intrinsically motivated to be part of the learning process. Intrinsic motivation involves a lot of curiosity on part of the learner, active exploration and spontaneity. However, a raise, a salary increase, or an additional bonus, may extrinsically motivate an adult to participate in learning programs. Also, the disparity in the individual learning styles of learners too has to be catered too by using a variety of learning methods. After having done so, the learning processes should cater to these needs in order to keep them motivated and interested in learning.

- i. Multiple responsibilities: adult learners have a lot on their shoulders in terms of professional, social and personal responsibilities and commitments to family, friends, community and work. They tend to seek opportunities for learning while also balancing life responsibilities with the demands of learning. These opportunities are often prompted by life changes, such as marriage, divorce, a job change, job termination, retirement or a geographical change (Cross, 1981).
- j. Practical: adult learners are pragmatic and practical. They have to see the relevance, usefulness and benefit of the learning activity that participate in for self-development and careers. They prefer practical knowledge and experiences that will make work easier or provide important skills while they often frustrated over theory. In other words, adults need personal relevance in learning activities.
- k. Readiness to learn: we know by now that the adult learners come to learning situation voluntarily in order to effectively cope with their real-life situations. So, the teaching-learning has to be associated with their current needs, problems and life situations. Adults usually want to learn something that will better their lives in some way.
- l. Orientation to learning: according to Knowles (1984) the adults are life-centred meaning they are task and problem centred in their orientation to learning. Hence the acquisition of new knowledge and new skills through a learning program has to be practical, rather than theoretical, vague, ambiguous and unrelated to their life situations.
- m. Resistant to change: adult learners are mature with vast experience and all this makes them less open minded and therefore resistant to change with an attitude that change is not always for the better. The facilitators have to give them time to reflect and absorb new information, link those new ideas they plan to introduce with prior learning and the old concepts.

- n. Declining physical potentials: depending on their age and physical condition, adult learners may acquire psychomotor skills more slowly than younger students. With age some faculties may be affected over time as declining eye sight and sharpness of vision or the visual acuity. The hearing may be affected causing auditory problems especially in elderly and senior adult learners. Besides, cognitive slowing may affect cognitive abilities.

1.2.2. Definition of learning style theories:

The topic of learning styles has drawn a great deal of attention and generated a wide variety of approaches to stylistic differences among learners. As a result, this concept has been defined differently by researchers. De Bello (1990) noted that there exist a variety of definitions of the concept of learning styles due to a vast number of research and practitioner based studies in this area. Those differences in definitions and models result from the fact that learning is achieved at different dimensions and that theorists define learning styles by focusing on different aspects (Shuell 1986; Dede, Brown-L’Bahy, Ketelhut, & Whitehouse, 2004; Jensen, 1998). That means each researcher views learning style from his vision and angle. However, this dissimilarity did not prevent of acceptable definitions. As different studies (Butler, 1987; Canfield & Canfield, 1988; Keefe, 1991; Weinstein, 1996) stated that even though there are various definitions of learning styles which are unique and steady, methods of effective learning and information processing are widely accepted.

In the enormous task of learning a second language, the most significant definition of learning styles is the one provided by Keefe (1979) who defines learning styles as the characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment. That is individuals show differences in terms of their preferences regarding the acquisition of

knowledge. According to Reid (1995), they refer to “an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills”.

For instance, Wintergerst and DeCapua (2001), similarly, define learning styles as inherent preferences of individuals in learning. Felder and Spurlin (2005, p.01), also, describe learning styles as: “the strengths and preferences in the ways students take in and process information”. Pritchard (2009) stated that it is an individual’s preferred means of acquiring knowledge and skills.

These definitions all posit that the concept of learning styles is concerned with the distinct ways in which students acquire and process knowledge. Simply put, learning styles are different approaches or ways of learning. It is commonly believed that individuals learn best in different ways, sometimes using a variety of different learning styles. Thus, learning styles are concerned with how students prefer to learn not what they learn. As well, the different styles may complement one another instead of competing with one another. Learning styles are value-neutral, that is, no one style is better than others (Reid, 1998, as cited in Dörnyei, 2005).

1.2.3. Types of learning styles:

Although there is a wide acceptance of the concept of LS in educational psychology, there is, however, disagreement on how to classify and measure it. Different theories used several models and instrument to identify the concept. Dozens of dimensions of learning styles have been identified in the field of SLA by educators and psychologists (Mohammed Al-Hebaishi, 2012). Among these dimensions, there are: VAK and VARK learning style models, Kolb’s Experiential Learning model, Honey and Mumford’s model, Dunn and Dunn’s model.

1.2.3.1. VAK and VARK learning style models:

In psychology, a distinction is established between four basic types of learners: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, and tactile ones (Dunn and Burke, 2008; Reid, 1987; Scarella, 1994). Each learner prefers to expose to the language through the mode that helps him/her concentrates best and consequently learn best (Chiya, 2003). It states that information is processed through the senses and as such focuses on how the learner receives information. Sarasin (2006) adopted VAK theory that addresses LS from a perspective that classifies learners according to their preferences into: Visual, Auditory, and Kinaesthetic. According to Brown (2000), visual learners prefer reading, studying charts, making drawings, and the like. Whereas auditory learners prefer to take in information in a form of sounds, listening to lectures and audiotapes are two instances of their preferences. Kinaesthetic learners show a preference for demonstrations and physical activity involving bodily movement.

On the other hand, VARK learning style model is a learning style that has been modified from VAK model, to VARK learning style by Fleming in 2006. This learning style is modified by classifying students to four different modes. VARK stands for Visual, Aural, Read /Write and Kinaesthetic. VARK from a different angle is concerned with how the learner perceives the information, or the dominant way to understanding and learning, by seeing, by hearing and discussion, by reading and writing, or by doing (Alghamdi, 2009). It is a model that supplies learners with a sketch of their learning preferences. Researchers like Sarasin (2006), Pritchard (2009) and Walsh (2011) have been identified the major characteristics of visual, auditory, reading and kinaesthetic learners as Follows:

a. Visual (V) learners:

Visual learners refer to individuals who “rely on their sight to take in information” (Renou, 2009, p. 03). They learn best through seeing and prefer information to be presented

visually in the form of pictures, posters, maps, diagrams, film....etc. They recall best information when equipped with visual aids such as maps, handouts, flashcards, pictures, diagrams, and graphs (Dunn &Missere, 2007). Lectures do not work well for them. They get nothing from merely hearing information. In a classroom setting, they appreciate most written information on the chalkboard along with printed materials in textbooks (Reid, 1998). Also, they usually tend to sit in the front of the classroom, take notes, use lists to organize their thoughts and observe teacher's body language and facial expressions to fully understand. During lectures, visual students' resort to excessive note-taking and pay close attention to their lecturer's body language and facial expression (Montemayor, Aplatén, Mendoza, &Perey, 2009).

Visual learners fall into two categories: visual-verbal and visual-nonverbal learners. Visual verbal learners are also called 'print-oriented' as they enjoy reading printed materials such as textbooks, handouts, and their notes (Marcia, 1995). These learners are typically the kind of 'bookworm' individuals who read just for pleasure (Davis, 2007). On the other hand, visual-nonverbal learners transfer information into a mental picture in order to absorb the presented data (Marcia, 1995). In short, visual-verbal learners perceive written materials whereas visual-nonverbal learners perceive the drawn ones.

b. Auditory (A) learners:

Auditory learners prefer to collect and confirm information via listening. They refer to the preference for learning through hearing and listening to words (Renou, 2009). "Some of these students learn best when the teacher explains orally, others when participating in speaking activities" (Mohammed Al-Hebaishi, 2012, p. 512). The classroom activities they like to participate in are discussions, debates, role play and problem solving. Unlike visual learners, auditory ones feel comfortable with lectures and discussions and benefit from them

(Scarcella, 1990). Put briefly, auditory learners learn by listening either to themselves or to others.

Auditory learners can be divided into two types: auditory-nonverbal and auditory-verbal learner. Auditory-nonverbal learners are also called ‘listeners’ as they listen to others speak. They are learners “who absorb verbal presented information as they carry on mental dialogues and determine how to continue by thinking back on to the words of others” (Marcia, 1995, p. 12). Auditory-verbal learners, on the other hand, refer to those who need to ‘talk it out’ (Marcia, 1995). They recall information best when they talk to themselves as they think (Nilson, 2003). Eventually, auditory/nonverbal learners favour listening to others speaking while auditory/verbal favour listening to themselves speak.

c. Reading (R) learners:

Reading Learners are learners with the tendency of reading printed word and text as a method to gain information. They like lists, glossary, textbooks, lecture notes, or circulation. These students like to arrange lecture notes into sketch form, paraphrase classroom notes, and study multiple choice exam questions (Murphy et al. 2004). Besides that, according to Drago and Wagner (2004), these students are note takers. They study better through note taken from lecture or from difficult reading materials.

d. Kinaesthetic (K) learners:

Kinaesthetic learners are the movers of the educational world. They learn best when actively engaged in doing or touching something. They need to sense that they are physically involved in the learning task (Marcia, 1995). They need to walk around or stand up while working. They retain information “primarily through the performance of body movements” (Bennouna, 1999, p.04). They enjoy physical activities, field trips, manipulating objects and hands-on experiences. They enjoy doing artwork, laboratory experiments, building models and

“tracing words and pictures” (Reid, 1998; Davis, 2007, p. 47). They benefit from vivacious activities such as field trips, role playing, and pantomime (Reid, 1998; Dunn & Burke, 2008; Daud, 2014). ‘Hands-on’ learners want to work with materials as they get the chance to have direct control over them. In a classroom setting, they concentrate best with active teachers. They also recall best when they are given room to participate in classroom activities. In simple words, kinaesthetic learners associate learning with action and movement as opposed to stillness and immobility. Simply defined, they recall best when they use a ‘hand’s on’ approach (Davis, 2007; Naserieh & Anani Sarab, 2013).

e. Holistic learners:

Holistic learners are the multimodal learners who do not have a strong preference for any single Learning style (Shah K et al. 2013). They rather learn via two or more of the modalities. Multimodal learners thus are sub-classified as bi-modal (VR, VA, VK, RK) , tri-modal (VRK, VAK, VAR, ARK), and quad modal (VARK) learners who prefer to use two, three, or four styles, respectively. Unlike uni-modal learners who have a preference for any one of these learning modalities (unimodal learners).

1.2.3.2. Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory:

The Kolb Learning Style Inventory is a tool to diagnose each learner's style, to find their strengths and weaknesses. To get to know one's learning style is a step toward empowering the learner, which in turn allows the learner to accomplish high targets through their learning life (Kolb, 1976). Kolb's model (1984), as shown in Figure 1 below , combines the two bipolar aspects of cognitive development well known by many psychologists: the "abstract-concrete dimension" and the "active-reflective dimension". The terms ‘concrete ‘and ‘abstract ‘refer to how the learner takes in information; while the terms ‘active ‘and ‘reflective ‘refer to how they internalize the information (Kolb, 1984). Those polar limitations are used by Kolb to set a

four-stage cycle of learning. It begins with the attainment of concrete experience (CE) that leads to reflective observation (RO) on that experience. On this basis, theory construction or abstract conceptualization (AC) takes place. The concepts are then tested through active experimentation (AE). This cycle, through its experimentation, acquiesces new real experiences, knowledge and understanding (Sharlanova, 2004). Kolb categorized styles according to the following four categorizations based on the two cognitive dimensions as illustrated in Figure 1 below:

a. Divergers: they reveal experiences based on different perceptions, that is, CE and RO strength. They process information concretely and process it reflectively. They are referred to as imaginative learners because they integrate experiences with the self and need to be personally engaged in the learning process.

b. Assimilators: they build up a hypothetical structure on the basis of their experiences, that is, RO and AC. They perceive information abstractly and process it actively. They are pragmatists.

c. Convergors: they apply the theory practically including AC and AE. They perceive information abstractly and process it reflectively. They are attentive to detail.

d. Accommodators: they set those results for a new learning processes namely CE and AE. They process information concretely and process it actively. They are risk-takers who relish change and flexibility.

Kolb model states that learning is an endless loop – a continuous non-stop process. A learner may start at any place on the cycle, as each step leads to the other. For example: a learner could begin at phase 2 which is concerned with attaining some information and meditating on it before reaching any conclusions. These four stages of Kolb's model are interrelated in a supportive way to help the learner "experience", "review", "conclude" and

"plan". Kolb's learning styles gave examples of how one might teach to them: 1) For the concrete experiencer: offer labs, field work, observations or videos. 2) For the reflective observer: use logs, journals or brainstorming. 3) For the abstract conceptualizer: lectures, papers and analogies work well. 4) For the active experimenter: offer simulations, case studies and homework. It involves doing something in the external world with the information to discuss it or explain it or test it in some way.

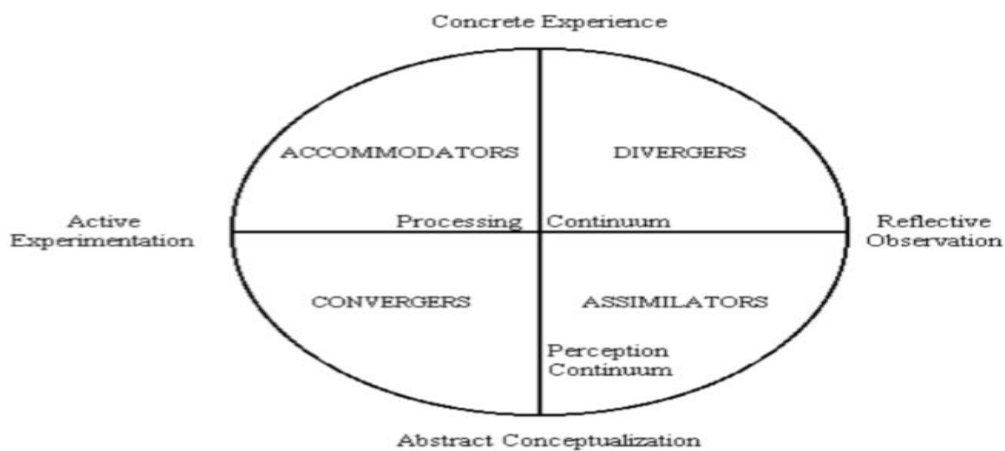


Figure 1: Kolb's model

1.2.3.3. Honey and Mumford's model:

Honey and Mumford's model approached four main styles: "Theorist", "Activist", "Reflector" and "Pragmatist". It looks at how to interact with the learning (Honey&Mumford, 1992). The Honey and Mumford's model is less complicated than that of Kolb. Honey and Mumford refer to the four styles (figure 2 below) as being four separate learning styles unlike Kolb who defined them as parts of the learning cycle stages (Kinshuk, 1996). They believe that no single style has an overwhelming advantage over the other; each has strengths and weaknesses. From this, they developed the four different styles which are described in more detail below.

a. Theorists:

Theorists adapt and integrate comments into multifaceted but rationally sound theories. They sense problems in a rational way of thinking. Their attitude is that of a perfectionist, in which they do not gain peace of mind until a logical condition is reached. Examining, evaluating and creating are their goals. Their philosophy is: "If it is logical it is good", that is, logical thinking and approach are always their trend in solving problems. Questions they frequently ask are: "Does it make sense?" "How does this fit with that?" "What are basic assumptions?"

b. Pragmatists:

Pragmatists are eager to try and to apply ideas immediately. Once they understand a concept, they want to apply it. They are energetic in trying to put their knowledge into practice and to conduct the first experiment to get results. Also, they are extroverts, searching for the new, applying any theoretical ideas, confident in themselves and in what they value. As well, they are open-minded and solution-oriented people. Their philosophy is: "There is always a better way" and "If it works it is good".

c. Activists:

Activists learn best from activities in which they try new experiences and challenges. They prefer short tasks involving problem-solving. Activists learn least from, and may react against, activities where they have a passive role (lectures, instructions, reading) or when they are required to assimilate, analyse and interpret lots of 'messy' data. They do not tolerate repeating or repeated practising of the same skills.

d. Reflectors:

Reflectors need patience or encouragement to participate in activities. They need time to think and review their learning before acting. They are careful when they produce analyses or reports. In addition, they can make decisions if they are not under pressure or have to meet

deadlines. Reflectors learn least when they feel forced. They find making decisions difficult if they have not been given sufficient data.



Figure 2: Honey and Mumford's learning style

1.2.3.4. Dunn and Dunn's learning style model:

Dunn and Dunn's learning styles model (1990) became very popular internationally. According to this model, learning styles are divided into 5 major strands called stimuli: (1) Environmental, (2) Emotional, (3) Sociological, (4) Physiological, and (5) Psychological.

a. Environmental preferences: are related to natural phenomenon: light, sound, temperature and view of surroundings. Some learners like to study in a cool and quiet environment while others cannot stand it. Some tend to study while listening to music, while others cannot.

b. Emotional preferences: deal with motivation, inspiration, persistence, perseverance and structure. Some learners have to start a new project before the previous one ends, while others like to do many tasks at the same time.

c. Sociological preferences: handle individualised or group gathering as well as teaching links. This means some learners tend to learn alone or with peers. Others tend to learn in a routine manner.

d. Physiological preferences: deal with perceptual, timing and mobility preferences and are based on beliefs. Some people tend to be in their high energetic status at night while others prefer daytime.

e. Psychological preferences: address the hemispheric and analytic modes. The hemispheric learner addresses the left and right brain, processing the impulsive versus reflective style. This describes how some people overreact without thinking (irrational people). While others examine every single detail before moving ahead.

Conclusion:

The field of language learning is indeed a complex domain of study. It can vary according to different criteria related to the field's four main pillars: the learner, the teacher, the learning context, and the target language. In order to get the hang of this domain and understanding how people learn languages, there have been many theories of learning with principles. These principles are used to choose the suitable learning tools and strategies in learning process. Additionally, language learners vary in every sense of cognitive ability such as: learning styles, which determines how people demonstrate variance of language learning success. To have clear overview on foreign language learning and Adults' style differences and preferences toward learning, this study which was carried out by means literature review model, gives detailed information about this topic.

Chapter two

Chapter two: Research Methodology, Design, Data collection, Analysis and Interpretation:

Introduction:

The previous chapter tackled the theoretical background and related research on the topic. Hence, this chapter has a practical tendency and deals with the implementation of the research project. It aims to provide answers to the research questions and hypothesis. For this need, this chapter is divided into two parts. The first part is about the description of the research methodology and design. Primarily, it entails the description of the setting followed by a profound description of the overall research design and methods. It also supplies an explanation to the participants' criteria and selection. Finally, it provides a detailed explanation of the procedures that the research has gone through. The second part provides the data analysis and interpretation of results obtained besides a general conclusion.

Part one: Research Design and Methodology:

This part deals with a detailed description of the methodology, it describes the setting, sample and population used for data collection and explains the procedures for data collection and analysis.

2.1.1. Research Design and Methods:

An appropriate research design is selected as an overall plan for the present study. Moreover, a certain type of methods is used to investigate the research problem. Both are fully described as follow.

2.1.1.1. Research Design:

Thyer (1993, p. 94) defined a research design as “being a blueprint or detailed plan for higher research studies to be conducted”. Mouton (1996) added to this by defining research design as “a set of guidelines and instructions to be followed in addressing the research problem” (p.107). In the same vein, Parahoo (1997) described a research design as an overall plan that entails the appropriate tools, time, and setting for data to be collected and analysed. The research selected design for this study is the descriptive research based on a correlational study. To achieve the purpose of the research, certain methodological decisions were taken concerning the research method, research tools, selected sample and research setting that are explained in the first part.

2.1.1.2. Methods:

According to Kothari (1990, p.02), the term research refers to “the systematic method consisting of enunciating the problem, formulating a hypothesis, collecting the facts or data, analysing the facts and reaching certain conclusions either in the form of solutions(s) towards the concerned problem”. The present study aims to investigate the relationship between EFL learner’s learning style preferences and their written language achievement, for doing so, we opted for correlational study where the relationship between one variable with another variable is investigated.

Hence, the choice of the methodology is based on the objectives of the study. According to Crotty (1998, p.216), “the research method can be either qualitative, quantitative, or both, regardless of the type of research that is engaged in”. Moreover, to increase the research validity, the researchers adopted a mixed methodology to be appropriate for solving the current problem through combining a quantitative and a qualitative method. Bhawna and Gobind (2015, p.50) define a mixed methods approach as: “a procedure for collecting,

analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative research and methods in a single study to understand a research problem”.

Thus, both qualitative and quantitative methods are complementary and can be presented along a continuum since it is not adequate to use a single type of measurement. In this respect, Bell (1987) said: “qualitative researchers draw on quantitative techniques and vice-versa” (p.04). Accordingly, studies proved that using both qualitative and quantitative approaches may provide a better understanding of research issues and complex phenomenon than either approach alone (Venkatesh et al, 2013). The two methods are explained as follow:

a. The Quantitative Method:

Biggan (2008, p.86) argued that quantitative method: “refers to research that is concerned with quantities and measurements such as proportion and number”. Hence, to collect quantitative data, the researchers used questionnaires with a combination of closed and open-ended questions. Additionally, in this study, the Pearson product Moment statistical coefficient correlation was applied to identify the relationship between EFL students’ learning style preferences and their written language achievement described using the SPSS count (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

b. The Qualitative Method:

“Qualitative research is linked to in-depth exploratory studies where the opportunity for quality responses exists” (Biggan, 2008, p.86). Moreover, Denzin and Lincoln (1994) hold that qualitative research involves studying ‘things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them’ (as cited in Biggan, 2008, p.86). Thus, to collect qualitative data the researchers used observations and written tests in term of writing paragraphs. In addition, within qualitative research, we have

Text Analysis (written samples). Marczak, DeMatteo and Festinger (2005, p.17) said that: “qualitative research is often used as a source of hypotheses for later testing in quantitative research”. In this study, it consists of textual analysis of students’ paragraphs. Text analysis is based on a description of students’ paragraphs in terms of content, language use, organization, and mechanics. This analysis permits us to evaluate students’ paragraphs in terms of quality and determine any relation between students’ written productions and their learning style preferences. The whole research procedures are described, explained and detailed in the coming part.

2.1.2. Description of the setting:

The Algerian government has begun, in recent years, a global reform of higher education system to meet new system requirements imposed by the new socio-economic changes. Like the other Algerian universities, M’sila University uses the LMD system. The LMD system containing Licence of six semesters, Master of four semesters and Doctorate of six semesters. Before starting the research procedures, a researcher should well select the setting of research. This study took place at the English language Department of M’sila University, during the second semester of the academic year 2019/2020.

2.1.3. Population and sampling:

A researcher needs a population and a sample of the population in order to conduct his/her study. In our research, our population, sample and sampling were described as shown below.

2.1.3.1. Study population and sample:

Khan (2010) argued that: “participants show the people who participated in our study” (p.05). Our population is EFL students of 2nd year at the University of Mohamed Boudiaf,

M'sila. Indeed, the population encompasses 4 groups of 36 students. Our sample which represents 25% of the total population consists of one group which was selected randomly. The group is composed of 36 students, but only 30 attended their writing classes regularly.

2.1.3.2. Sampling method:

Kothari (1990) defines sampling as the selection of part of an aggregate or totality on the basis on which a judgment of inference about the aggregate or totality is made. It is the process of drawing samples that would be a representative of the population of the study. Its objective is to secure a sample which subject to limitations of size will produce the characteristics of the population as closely as possible. In this study, the simple random sampling technique was used. For the first investigation, the lists of second year groups were provided by the administration. Then, the lottery technique was used to determine the group.

2.1.4. Data collection tools:

This research uses triangulation to attain different objectives, target different and same populations, and collect the required information that would help researchers interpret as accurately as possible the phenomenon under investigation. Triangulation refers to the three tools that have been utilized to collect the target information. These three tools are: (1) questionnaires, (2) classroom observation, (3) a short paragraph written test; each of which has its own specific objectives and target population. It is noteworthy to mention that the tools in question were designed to complete one another for more than one reason. First, to capitalize on the weaknesses of the previous used tools, and second to add to the accuracy and credibility of the data collected.

The major concern of this research is to provide accurate and trustworthy results. On score of that, it is recommended to employ more than one methodology of research, namely,

triangulated methodology. According to Cohen et al. (2000): “triangulation may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour” (p. 112). In other terms, a serious researcher needs to combine more than one method of research to find out verifiable data with the view of attaining ultimately precise outcomes and interpretations.

2.1.4.1. Questionnaire for students:

Questionnaire is practical, easy to design and administer and analyse. These features render the questionnaire a popular tool for research. Gillham (2000, p.01) affirms that: “the great popularity of questionnaire is that they provide a ‘quick fix’ for research methodology; no single method has been so much abused”. In the present study, the questionnaire for students is composed of 24 questions. It was divided into 2 sections. The first section was composed of 16 questions on the students’ learning styles preferences using Liker-type scale. While the second section includes 8 closed and open-ended questions. The latter sought information about language written production (see appendix 1). As for the questions wording, we made sure to include simple and direct questions with the view of avoiding confusion.

2.1.4.2. Students’ classroom Observation:

Classroom observation refers to the direct involvement of the researcher in collecting data from classrooms. In their definition of classroom observation, Cohen et al. (2000) said:

“The distinctive feature of observation as a research process is that it offers an investigator the opportunity to gather ‘live’ data from naturally occurring social situations. In this way, the researcher can look directly at what is taking place in situ rather than relying on second-hand accounts.” (p.396)

In the present study, we played the role of a non-participant observer sitting silent during the attendance of the written expression sessions recording every single detail which may help to obtain the necessary data about the informants themselves as well as the setting, the teaching aids, and the surrounding environment. We attempted to lie low to give elbow room for both teacher and students to interact as naturally as possible. This data collection operation took place several times along the second semester of the academic year 2019/ 2020 in written expression sessions. It focused on different aspects (see appendix 2) as who participated more female or male, types of learners' learning styles: Auditory, Visual, Kinaesthetic, or Holistic.

2.1.4.3. The short paragraph written test:

The students' written test was composed of one short paragraph (see appendix 3). The test was designed in a way it would not take much of the teacher and students' time. The students' level of language written achievement was based on their paragraph written test grades. The students' paragraphs were analysed and evaluated by another teacher from English department for more reliability.

2.1.5. Data Collection Procedures:

Before the students started to fill in the questionnaire and to write the paragraph written test, the researcher gave detailed instructions and the students were allowed to ask questions in the process in case they did not understand something. Moreover, the classroom observation was neutral where we have been at the back of the classroom to notice the students' response to the activities and their interaction with the teacher. The respondents also were assured that all the results of the study would be applied to research work only and their responses would have nothing to do with instructors' evaluation to them. Further, and more importantly, the respondents were assured of their free-will in participating in the study: they could quit the

participation any time. In the final analysis, only valid questionnaires and paragraphs were considered.

Part two: Analysis and interpretation of result finding

2.2.1. Analysis and result of students' questionnaire:

Part One: On learning Style Preferences-Tick an appropriate answer:

1. When the teacher tells me about the instructions, I understand better.

Choice	1)Strongly disagree	2)Disagree	3)Neither agree nor disagree	4)Agree	5)Strongly agree
Number	2	2	3	17	6

Table 1: On understanding the instructions

From table 1 above, it is clear that the majority of students agree that they understand better when the teacher tells them the instruction. We notice that (17) students chose the column “agree”, and (6) of them strongly agree with the question; whereas, an equal number of (2) students chose disagree and strongly disagree column. Meanwhile, (3) students chose neither agree nor disagree column.

2. I prefer learning by doing or hands on activities.

Choice	1)Strongly disagree	2)Disagree	3)Neither agree nor disagree	4)Agree	5)Strongly agree
Number	2	3	4	14	7

Table 2: On learning through hands on activities.

From table 2 above, clearly, most students prefer learning by doing or hand on activities because (14) chose to agree, and (7) choose to strongly agree. However, a total number of (5) students (3 disagreed and 2 strongly disagreed) do not prefer these activities, Moreover. (4) students were not sure either to agree or disagree.

3. I get more satisfaction when working with peers.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	2	5	4	15	4

Table 3: On working with peers.

From table 3 above, mainly, half of students (15) agree that they get more satisfaction when working with peers, (4) of them strongly agreed with idea. However, (5) students disagreed, and (2) students strongly disagreed with the idea; whereas, (4) of them chose neither agree nor disagree column.

4. I learn more when I study with a group.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	1	8	7	13	1

Table 4: On learning with a group.

From table 4 above, it seems that nearly half of students (13) agreed that they learn more when they study with a group together, while one student who strongly agreed with the idea. Although, (9) students were against the idea (8 students disagreed and 1 student strongly disagreed). The rest of them chose to be neutral.

5. I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the board

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	1	7	3	10	9

Table 5: On learning from what is written on board.

From the table 5 above, the results show that the majority of students learn better by reading what the teacher writes on board. (10) students responded that they "agree" and (9) students responded that they "strongly agree". Instead, (7) students responded that they disagree, and (1) responded that he/ she strongly disagree as well as (3) students responded that they "neither agree nor disagree".

6. I remember things I have heard in class better than those I have done

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	0	15	5	7	3

Table 6: On learning by hearing.

From the table 6 above, Students' answers indicated that they do not remember things they have heard in class better than those they have done, with this intention, (15) students disagreed. In contrast 10 students supported the idea (7 have agreed and 3 have strongly agreed). In addition (5) students were neutral (neither agree nor disagree).

7. When I see instructions on the board, I remember them better.

Choice	1)Strongly Disagree	2)Disagree	3)Neither agree nor disagree	4)Agree	5)Strongly agree
Number	2	3	1	15	9

Table 7: On understanding visual instructions.

From the table 7 above, the results markedly revealed that most students remember instructions better when they see them on the board. Whereas, (15) students agreed and (9) of them strongly agreed. However, (3) students disagreed and (2) students strongly disagreed with the idea, while only one student who was neutral.

8. I learn more when I can draw or make a shape of something.

Choice	1) Strongly Disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	2	1	1	15	11

Table 8: On learning by drawing or making a shape of something

From the table 8 above we see that most students (26) agreed with the statement and (3) of them disagreed with it. While (1) participant was neutral. Hence, the kinaesthetic learning style was the major learning styles for this group.

9. I understand better when I discuss my learning with my friends.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	0	4	2	15	9

Table 9: On learning through discussion.

As shown in this table 9, more than half of the participants (24) had a strong preference for group learning, whereas preferences for individual learning was less than a quarter of the students (just 4 students). While just (2) students were neutral. Thus, most students of this group were auditory and social (interpersonal) learners.

10. I learn better if someone explains something to me.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	1	2	1	20	6

Table 10: On learning from others.

This question is slightly similar to the preceding one and the results are slightly similar too. Most of the participants (26) preferred to learn from others, whereas (3) of them did not learn better if someone explain something to them. While (1) student was neutral. Therefore, the majority of the students of this group were auditory and social learners.

11. When I study alone, I understand things better.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	9	13	3	3	2

Table 11: On studying alone.

The answers collected from this question shown a sort of consistency with the answers of the preceding questions. According to what is suggested in the table 11, we could notice that (22) of the participants, (13) students chose disagree column and (9) of them chose strongly disagree column. This declared that they preferred group learning instead of

individual learning. So, this result confirms that the majority of those students were auditory and social (interpersonal) learners.

12. I can understand something more easily if there is a diagram to explain it.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	2	1	3	17	7

Table 12: On learning through visual aids.

As shown in this table 12, the majority of the participants (nearly 24 students) liked learning with diagrams. The number of the participants who answered negatively or was neutral is equal (3) students for each side. That meant the dominant learning style of this group was visual.

13. I learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	2	4	4	14	6

Table 13: On learning by reading textbooks.

We could notice here from the table 13 that most of the participants (20 students) liked reading from textbooks instead of listening to the lectures. While the rest were opposite to this statement. Thus, we could say that this result is similar to the previous one which indicates that the majority of those students were visual learners.

14. I prefer to learn by listening and taking notes.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	3	3	3	14	7

Table 14: On learning by listening and taking notes.

The above results show that (21) students from the total number preferred taking notes while learning. This indeed shown that the preferred ways of learning were auditory and visual.

15. I enjoy making something for a class project.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	3	5	3	12	7

Table 15: On learning by making a class project.

As shown in this table 15, (19) of the students liked doing hands on activities, whereas the rest vary between neutral and opposite.

16. I enjoy speaking in the classroom.

Choice	1) Strongly disagree	2) Disagree	3) Neither agree nor disagree	4) Agree	5) Strongly agree
Number	4	3	4	11	8

Table 16: On learning by speaking in classroom.

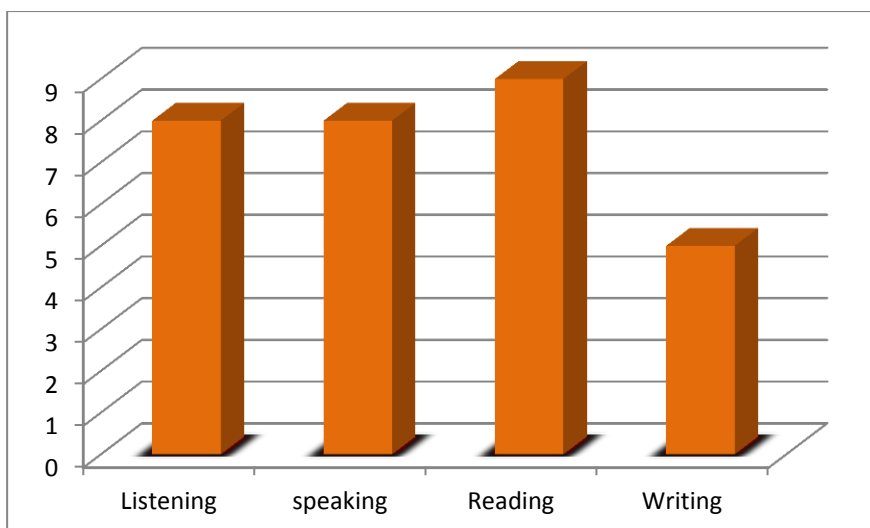
The results of the table 16 demonstrated that (11) of the participants responded that they agreed with this statement and (8) of them responded with strongly agree. This meant that a number of (19) students out of 30 enjoyed speaking in the classroom. Consequently, the major learning style in this group was auditory.

Part Two: On Language written Production

17. Which skill are you more proficient in?

Alternative options	Number	percentage
Listening	8	27%
Speaking	8	27%
Reading	9	30%
Writing	5	16%
Total	30	100%

Table 17: Student's language skill proficiency.



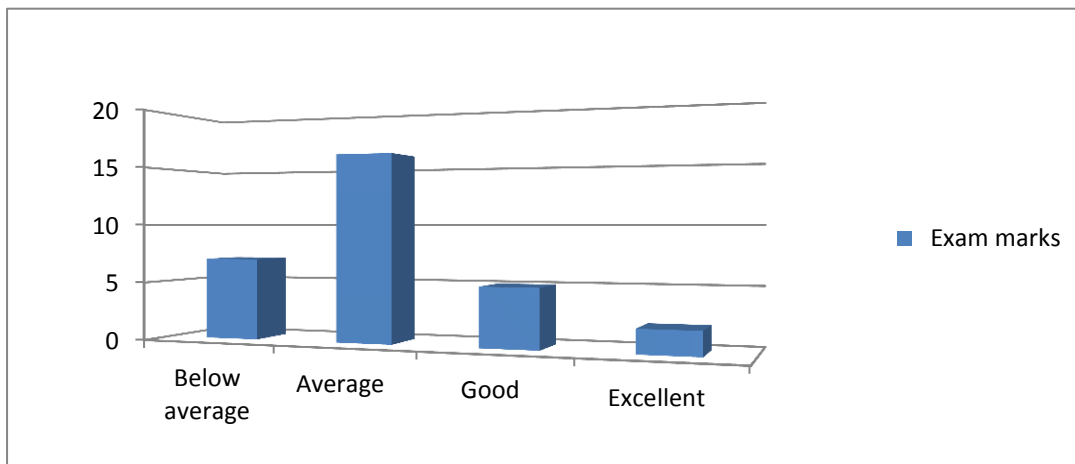
Graph1: student's language skill proficiency

As it is apparent in the table17 and graph 1, students were asked to identify the language skill they were proficient at. We can see that (9) students representing (30%) admitted reading as their proficient skill and (5) students representing (16%) admitted writing as their proficient language skill. However, equal number of (8) students representing (27%) declared listening, speaking as their proficient language skill.

18. How would you define your written English exam marks?

Alternative options	Number	Percentage
Below average	7	23%
Average	16	53%
Good	5	17%
Excellent	2	7%
Total	30	100%

Table 18: students' Exam marks



Graph 2: Students' Exam marks.

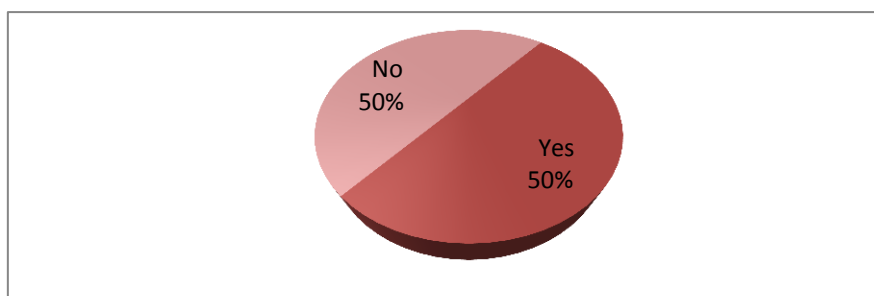
As has been noted in table 18 and graph 2, the majority of students (16) who represent (53%) defined their written English exam marks as average, (7= 23%) students confessed that their written exam marks are below average, (5=17%) students believed that their marks are good, and notably two students (7%) said that his written English exam marks are excellent.

19. When you write, do you like what you write about? If Yes, why?

Alternative options	number	Percentage
Yes	15	50%
No	15	50%

Yes Justifications : They are not complicated./I think that the topics that I write about make me feel that I am in the right way of writing and follow the right structure of forming a coherent sentence and well-structured paragraph/The topics make me like the way I use in writing my ideas/ When I write I feel comfortable and I feel like I am creative and skilful./The topics that I write about allow me to use the vocabulary that I know, and I feel proud that I could express myself by English even though I hate writing and I love speaking more./The topics that I write about make me feel that I'm creative and skilful student. I feel that I'm a good thinker. /Because the topics seem interesting, and they usually related to my experiences.

Table 19: students' preferences towards what they write



Graph 3: students' preferences towards what they write

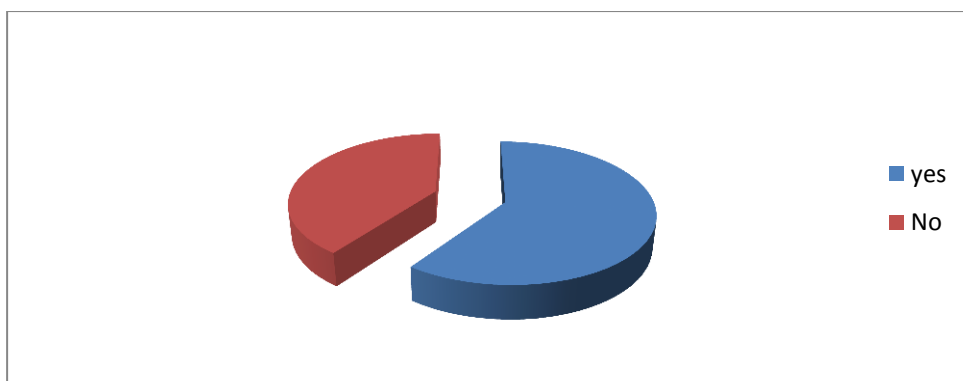
As indicated in the table 19 above and graph 3, students were asked whether they like what they write about or not .Surprisingly, the response revealed an equal number of students, (15) students (50%) said Yes ,and (15) students (50%) said No. Additionally, students who admitted the answer yes, justified their answers differently as listed below:

- They are not complicated.
- I think that the topics that I write about make me feel that I am in the right way of writing and follow the right structure of forming a coherent sentence and well-structured paragraph.
- The topics make me like the way I use in writing my ideas
- When I write I feel comfortable and I feel like I am creative and skilful.
- The topics that I write about allow me to use the vocabulary that I know, and I feel proud that I could express myself by English even though I hate writing and I love speaking more.
- The topics that I write about make me feel that I’m creative and skilful student. I feel that I’m a good thinker.
- Because the topics seem interesting, and they usually related to my experiences.

20. Do you feel comfortable when writing according to your language style?

Alternative options	Number	Percentage
Yes	18	60%
No	12	40%
<p>Yes Justification: I can express all my thoughts in a perfect way /I ‘m satisfied of what I’m writing also my ideas would be clear, obvious, easy to understand and well-formed /I feel free because I write without rules/ I feel I am professional in writing even though I suffer from many difficulties/ because I’m using the style I feel comfortable with to express the ideas that I have to share /I can use my own words and express my ideas better /I feel that my language is clear and simple and that make others understand what I mean so I feel comfortable /because I feel free and wrote without rules ./because I am not limited or guided to certain words and structures.</p>		

Table 20: Students’ preferences towards writing according to their language style



Graph 4: students' preferences towards writing according to their language style

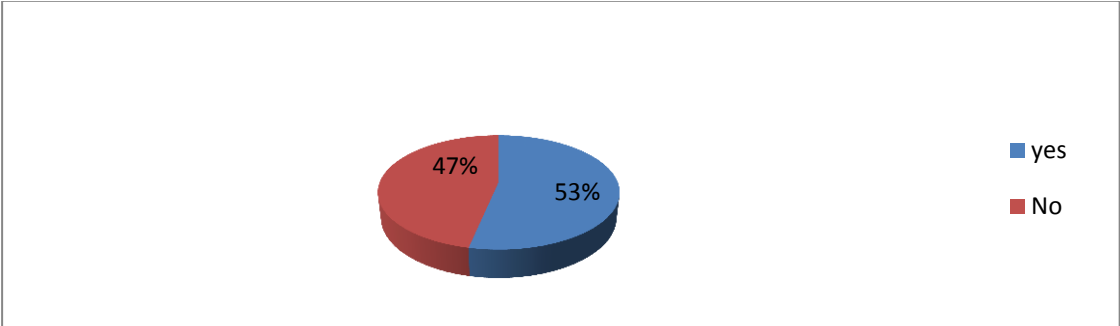
As clearly observed from the table 20 above and graph 4, most of students 18 (60%) stated that they feel comfortable when writing according to their language style. In contrast, 12 (40%) students said that they do not feel comfortable when writing according to their language style. Those who said yes justified their answers as follow:

- I can express all my thoughts in a perfect way.
- I'm satisfied of what I'm writing also my ideas would be clear, obvious, easy to understand and well formed.
- I feel free because I write without rules.
- I feel I am professional in writing even though I suffer from many difficulties.
- Because I'm using the style, I feel most comfortable with to express the ideas that I have to share.
- I can use my own words and express my ideas better.
- I feel that my language is clear and simple and that's what makes others understand what I mean so I feel comfortable.
- Because I feel free and wrote without rules.
- Because I am not limited or guided to certain words and structures.

21. Do you think there is a relationship between your styles preferences and the way you write? If yes, where does this relationship lie?

Alternative options	number	Percentage
Yes	16	53%
No	14	47%
<p>The relationship lies in: your style affects the way you write and this I represented in your writing /both are highly related to each other, because every person select his writing according to his style preferences / in linking ideas and thoughts / Because you can't be a writer without a special style and you can't start writing without preferences /my personality reflect the ideas in my mind ,so logically it has a relation with my way of writing / according to me writing process is the manner using by individuals to express their own though about certain subject and everyone has his own tendency of style preferences and that reflect his manner and process in writing because it will help him and motivate him to achieve a great writing work /in the choice of words</p>		

Table 21: the relationship between students' style preferences and the way they write



Graph 5: the relationship between students' style preferences and the way they write

As shown in table 21 and graph 5, among our 30 participants, 16 students (53%) said that there is a relationship between their styles preferences and the way they write, while the rest who represent (47%) gave negative answer. In fact, question 21 is followed by another question which asked the participants to justify their answer if it is yes. Those who answered with yes provided the following justifications as listed below:

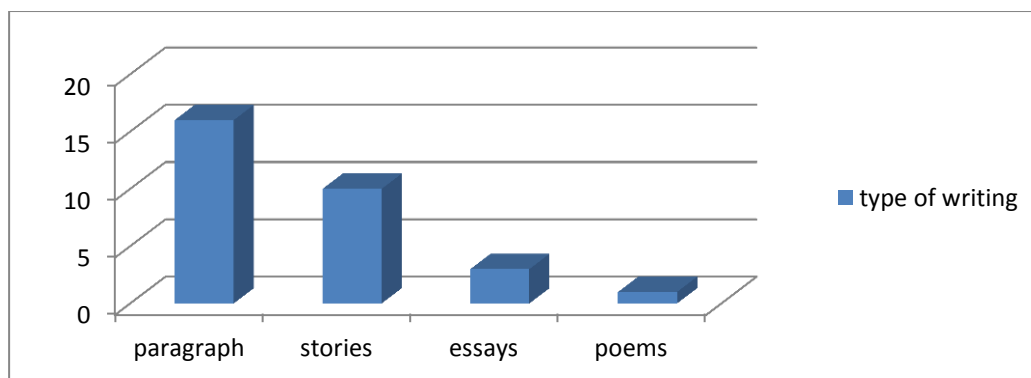
- My style affects the way I write and this represented in my writing.
- Both are highly related to each other, because every person selects his writing according to his style preferences

- In linking ideas and thoughts
- Because you cannot be a writer without a special style and you can't start writing without preferences
- My personality reflects the ideas in my mind, so logically it has a relation with my way of writing
- According to me writing process is the manner using by individuals to express their own thought about certain subject and everyone has his own tendency of style preferences and that reflect his manner and process in writing because it will help him and motivate him to achieve a great writing work
- In the choice of words.

22. What do you usually like writing about?

Alternative options	Number	Percentage
Paragraphs	16	54%
Stories	10	33%
Essays	3	10%
Poems	1	3%

Table 22: students' preferred type of writing



Graph 6: students' preferred type of writing

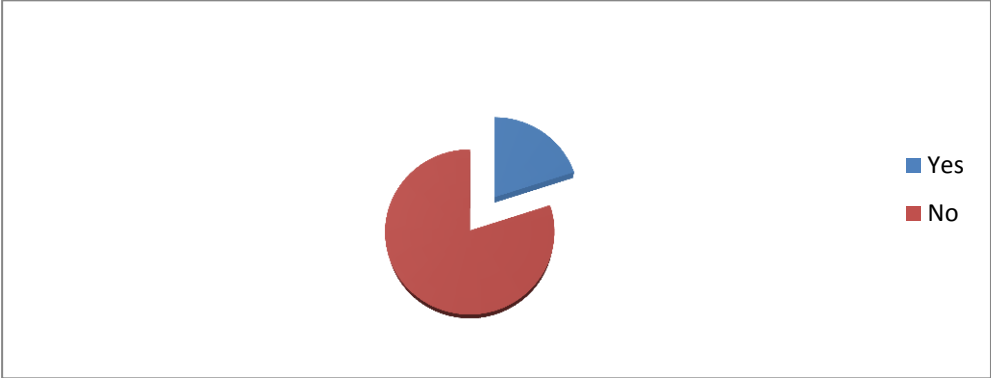
In this question, we aim to find out what do students like writing about. From table 22 and graph 6, we notice that the majority 54% that is (16) students liked writing paragraphs. Whereas, the minority which represents (4) students (13%) liked writing essays and poems.

23. Is what you write about always reflective of your choices?

Alternative options	Number	Percentage
Yes	6	20%
No	24	80%

Yes Justification: because everything I write about is my point of view and that reflects my choices / because they are easy for me in expressing my thoughts and ideas successively and with order /what am I writing is something I have experienced and I have learned from/ Our teacher provides us with different topics and we have the opportunity to choose. /They are easy to understand and express their ideas.

Table 23: students' point of view about the topics they write



Graph 7: students' point of view about the topics they write

This question 23 looks for the students’ point of view about if the topics they write about reflect their choices. From table 23 and graph 7, out of 30 participants, 24 students (80%) said No, while 20% (6) students said yes. Those who answered by yes justified their answers as follow:

- Because everything I write about is my point of view and that reflects my choices
- Because they are easy for me in expressing my thoughts and ideas successively and with order.

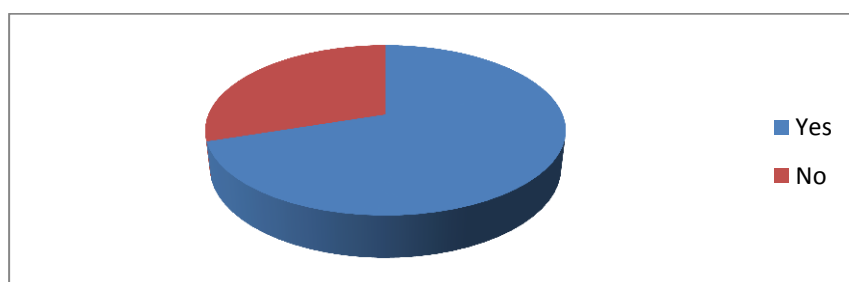
- What am I writing is something I have experienced and I have learned from.
- Our teacher provides us with different topics and we have the opportunity to choose.
- They are easy to understand and express their ideas.

24. Do you think your teachers should assign you according to your style preferences?

Alternative options	Number	Percentage
Yes	21	70%
No	9	30%

Yes, Justification: they should do it /I think that teachers assign their projects according to their opinion and what they want and because each student has his own style /I think teacher should take the students style preferences into consideration because it will help them to become creative and they will find a good atmosphere within the writing process and that eventually lead to great results /the style is the most important in writing any type , because ideas without logical linking is nothing , you have to have a good style because even a simple idea can be turned into an excellent paragraph / because my style preferences show my level so that gives the teacher the right to assign me /this thing concerns the teacher itself , there are some teachers assign us according to our style preferences .this teacher can read our thinking but other teachers do not accept that thing ,they just want to apply their method ./because style preferences differ from one student to another ,and what is easy for someone can be difficult for another .

Table 24: students’ point of view about the requirement of assigning them according to their learning styles preferences



Graph 8: students’ point of view about the requirement of assigning them according to their learning style preferences

Question 24 is another yes/no question seeking to find out the students’ point of view about the requirement of assigning them according to their learning styles preferences. As indicated in the table 24 and graph 8, 70% which represent (21) students showed that it is necessary to assign them according to their style preferences, while the rest (9= 30%)

disagreed with this question. The latter mentioned that it is not necessary to assign them according to their style preferences. Besides, within the same question, we have requested the participants to justify their answer in case if they responded with yes. The justification can be summarized in the following list:

- they should do it
- Because each student has his own style
- I think teachers should take the students style preferences into consideration because it will help them to become creative and they will find a good atmosphere within the writing process and that eventually lead to great results.
- The style is the most important in writing any type, because ideas without logical linking is nothing, you have to have a good style because even a simple idea can be turned into an excellent paragraph
- Because my style preferences show my level so that gives the teacher the right to assign me
- This concerns the teacher itself, there are some teachers assign us according to our style preferences. This teacher can read our thinking but other teachers do not accept that thing, they just want to apply their method.
- Because style preferences differ from one student to another and what is easy for someone can be difficult for another.

After the analysis of data obtained from the students' questionnaire, the results clearly indicate that the majority of second year students at M'sila University show a preference to auditory learning style. This type was represented by 25 students (84%) and followed by 5 students (16%) with a preference to visual learning style.

2.2.2. Analysis and result of students' classroom observation:

2.2.2.1. Observation grid:

Who participated more?		Types of learners	Frequency	Nature of the work
Male	Female	Visual	05	Essay Writing
8	22	Auditory	25	
		Kinaesthetic	00	

Table 25: observation grid

2.2.2.2. Classroom observations:

Session	Observations
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Teacher ordered silence in class and announced the beginning of the lesson. - There was still noise and most of students didn't hear the Teacher's instructions. - Copybooks are open and the teacher checks whether they did the task or not. -The teacher asks students to read aloud their essays. -Students in front tables show more interest to participate and interact with the teacher unlike the majority who remain silent. -Female students show more adherence to speaking and discussion. -Male students are silent. -the teacher always gives feedback about ideas, wordiness, language use, organization.... -The teacher encourages students to speak. -the teacher asks students to comment on their colleagues' essays. -At the end, the teacher asks students to correct their peers' works. - Students are generally good in terms of linking ideas, finding argument to their topic sentences, but they do have some problems in writing conclusions to their works. - Most students are auditory. - Female students are talkative and participate more than male students. -Majority of students discuss and exchange ideas about the topic. - In some courses, the teacher asks students to work in groups.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -They listen to one another carefully in order to give their feedback by the end of reading session. -The teacher leads her students to correct each other. -During the session, the teacher speaks less than her students and she encourages them to speak more. -The teacher interferes from time to time to give her feedback. -Majority of students show interpersonal attitudes.
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Table 26: classroom observations.

Based on the several observations data obtained, the majority of students developed auditory learning styles; while a minority of them had other learning styles. The results of the data showed that the students' dominant learning style is auditory. With this tendency, the instructors must adopt the appropriate teaching method that makes it easier for students to absorb learning material in their own ways. Understanding and knowing the learning styles of each individual may help students effectively both inside and outside the classroom.

2.2.3. Analysis and result of the paragraph written test:

To evaluate the students' level at writing, a paragraph written test was used on a currently popular topic: *the benefits of social media*. Students' paragraphs were corrected by a teacher from English department using the Paragraph Writing Test' Scale (see app 4). Moreover, the students' level was based on their paragraph written test grades.

2.2.3.1. Students' marks of the paragraph written test associated with their learning style preferences:

Student's number	Student's learning style preference	Student' s mark
1	Auditory	05
2	Auditory	06
3	Auditory	2.5

4	Auditory	05
5	Auditory	07
6	Auditory	04
7	Auditory	06
8	Auditory	2.5
9	Auditory	04
10	Auditory	05
11	Visual	05.5
12	Auditory	05
13	Auditory	07
14	Auditory	05.5
15	Visual	04
16	Auditory	06
17	Auditory	07
18	Auditory	06
19	Visual	02.5
20	Auditory	04
21	Auditory	05.5
22	Auditory	04
23	Auditory	05.5
24	Auditory	05
25	Auditory	05.5
26	Auditory	07
27	Auditory	05
28	Auditory	5.5
29	Visual	05
30	Visual	1.5

Table 27: Students' marks of the paragraph writing test associated with their learning style preference

2.2.3.2. Study and analysis of some students' written samples and comments on their feedback:

As a third means of collecting data for this study, a number of students' written test have been collected and examined for identifying the students' written achievement. The main aim behind implementing this was to have a closer look at students' actual level, and attempting to determine the common errors in their written task. Therefore, in this study thirty (30) copies of students' written paragraphs were gathered to be analysed.

2.2.3.2.1. Analysis of errors in students' paragraphs:

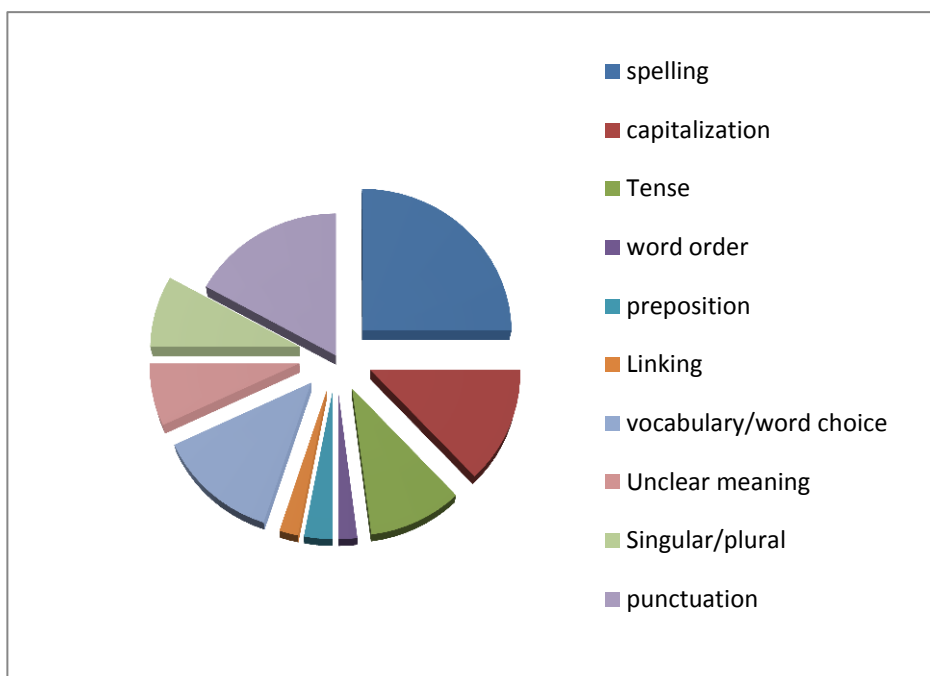
The table 28 below shows the analysis of errors in students' paragraphs. According to this table, there exist five main errors with high frequency in students' essays. Spelling and punctuation were the major class errors encountered during the analysis with a percentage of (25%) and (17%) of the total number. Moreover, students committed errors of capitalization and vocabulary (word choice) by (13%). In addition, tense errors appeared in approximate percentages (10%). Furthermore, less frequency errors in students' paragraphs was the singular/ plural forms (8%), the clarity of meaning with (7%), errors of prepositions (3%), word order (2%) and linking by (2%).

Aspect	Frequency of errors	Percentage
1. Spelling	150	25%
2. Capitalization	80	13%
3. Tense	60	10%
4. Word order	15	2%
5. Preposition	17	3%
6. Linking	10	2%

7. Vocabulary/word choice	80	13%
8. Unclear meaning	40	7%
9. Singular/plural	50	8%
10. Punctuation	100	17%
Total	602	100%

Table 28: Common errors in students' written paragraphs

According to the graph (9) below, the largest number of errors occurred in the spelling aspect. The students seem to be confused of writing words correctly. They find themselves unable to write correct words. This signals a false concept of the use of incorrect letters or words. This may be also proven that students do not have the knowledge of the relationship between sounds and written symbols and faulty pronunciations. Besides, punctuation poses another great difficulty for second year students of English. This could be due to the lack of practice.

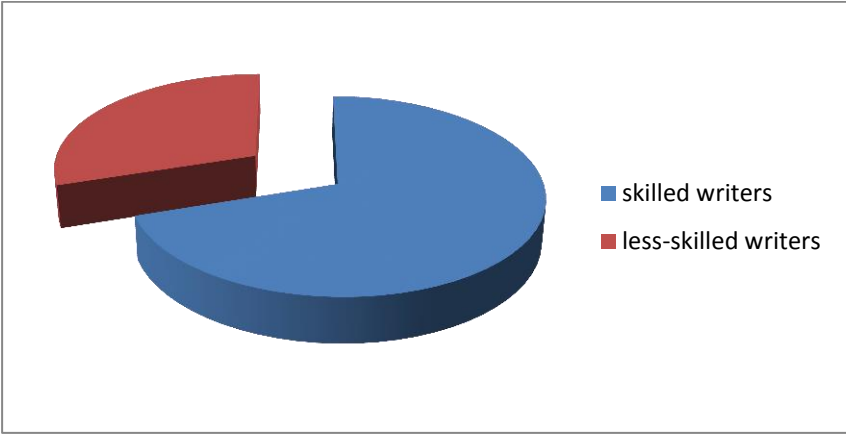


Graph 9: Common errors in students' written paragraphs

On the other hand, the students were divided into two groups based on their paragraphs writing test scores, namely skilled and less- skilled writers (10-5 points= skilled writers; 4.9-0 points= less-skilled writers). The data obtained from the paragraph writing test are displayed on the table (29) below.

Level	N	Scores	Percentage	Mean
Skilled writers	21	10-5	70%	07.8
Less-skilled writers	09	4.9-0	30%	03.22
Total	30		100%	04.50

Table 29: students’ writing achievement level.



Graph 10: students’ writing achievement level

As shown in the table 29 and graph 10 above, (21) students whose scores of the paragraph writing test are between 5-10 points were organized as skilled writers; whereas, the rest (09 students) who got less than 5 points in the test were viewed as less-skilled writers. Based on the written achievement level, the less-skilled writers scored low mean of 03.22 as compared to the skilled writers who had a mean of 07.80. In general, students had approximately average level based on their scores in the first semester which correlates with the total founded mean (04.50).

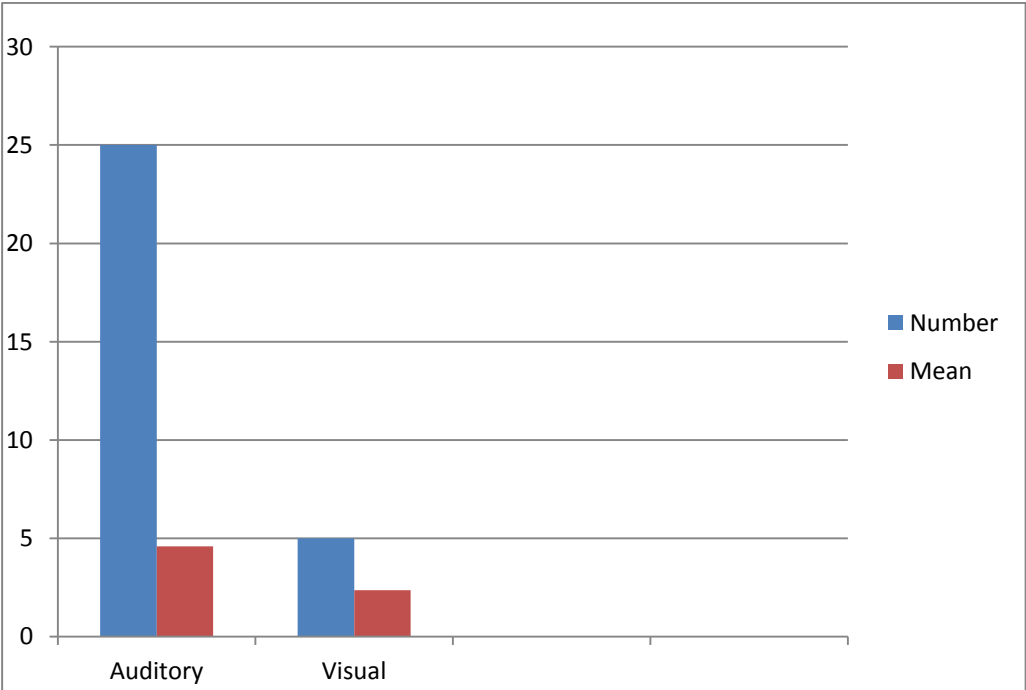
As mentioned previously, less than half of the students (30%) scored less than 5 points in the paragraph writing test; that is, they find problem in writing in relation to grammar,

vocabulary, mechanics, organization, etc. This can be due to the lack of using adequate writing learning strategies, and the mismatch between students’ learning style preferences and the teaching strategies.

In contrast to Oxford et al. (1993) study which is perhaps the most extensive and comprehensive research that was able to find that among 107 students who participated in the study visual students significantly outperformed auditory and tactile/kinaesthetic students. The results of this study pointed out that generally, auditory learners performed better than visual ones (see table 30 and graph 11 below).

Learning Styles	N	Mean
Auditory	25	4.58
Visual	5	2.35

Table 30: Comparison between students’ written achievement and their learning style.



Graph 11: Comparison between students’ written achievement and their learning style

Conclusion:

This chapter represents the analysis and interpretation of the data gathered from different stages of the research. The collected data consisted of three main tools, a questionnaire for students, a paragraph writing test, and a classroom observation. The results were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively, represented statistically in tables and interpreted in graphs. The findings of this study provided a better understanding of the relationship between language written productive achievement and the learning style preferences of second year EFL students at M'sila University.

Firstly, from the analysis of the questionnaire, we were able to identify students' learning style preferences which varied among two learning style only; Auditory and visual, since the number of the participants was limited. The results showed that auditory learning style was the most preferred type among students. Secondly, Notes taken from the observation were similar to the analysis of the questionnaire. Most students tend to be auditory because they like to speak and discuss their works with their peers and were eager to hear feedback from the teacher. Thirdly, the results of the writing paragraph test revealed that the majority of students lacked the ability to write a complete, coherent, comprehensive paragraph. Moreover, the marks indicated that auditory learners scored better than visual learners.

Chapter three

Chapter 3: The relationship between EFL Learning Style Preferences and their Language written achievements

Introduction:

This chapter involves a discussion based on the literature review and the outcome of the study findings in Chapter 2. There are two main parts. The first part includes an overview about second year EFL students' learning style preferences and classroom written tasks. In the second part, students' learning styles and their written achievement are displayed.

Part one: An overview about second year EFL students' learning style preferences and classroom written tasks:

In this part, the researchers tried to give a general idea about second year written syllabus and the types of written activities displayed in the classroom. Additionally, they included the determination of second year EFL students learning style preferences too.

3.1.1. An overview to second year written syllabus:

In Algeria, at the university level, English language is also taught as an independent field of study. In this case, the English department has the task to prepare students for a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) in English. Second year level has different written syllabus. Accordingly, introductory academic paragraph writing lessons and essays with their different types are proposed for second year.

3.1.2. The types of written activities displayed in the classroom:

Within the classroom, the teachers use different activities in order to help their students develop their essays. Free writing activities are promoted where students share what they have

written in a discussion as filling blanks with the appropriate type of sentence and discussion of the work.

3.1.3. Second year EFL students' style preferences:

Based on the uniqueness of students as individuals, each has a learning style that is different from each other; “what works well for one student may not be beneficial or favourable to another” (Man & Tomoko, 2010, p. 30). The findings of the present study reveal that second year EFL students at M’sila university use different learning styles to approach any learning task. However, they show a general preference to auditory learning style which is the primary learning style preferred by the participants. This information showed that students have a tendency to learn with activities that involve discussions, debates, role play and problem solving.

Part Two: Students' learning styles and their written achievements:

In this part, the researchers tried to provide some definitions to the term “achievement”, to shed light on the relationship between students' learning style preferences and their written production, and to determine the strategies they have used to make their written achievements comply with their learning styles.

3.2.1. Definition of Achievements:

In the Standards for test construction (APA, 1999) achievement is viewed basically as the competence a person has in an area of content. That is, achievement is the competence of a person in relation to a domain of knowledge. Specifically, Academic achievement is defined by Crow and Crow (1969) as the extent to which a learner is profiting from instructions in a given area of learning namely, achievement is reflected by the extent to which skill and knowledge has been imparted to him (as cited in Arul Lawrence & Deepa, 2013). Suryabrata

(1998) added that academic achievement is an educational assessment to the extent to which students learn and practice intentionally. In line with the above definitions, academic achievement is a change in terms of behavioural skills or skills that increase during the learning process (Djamarah, 2004). To conclude, learning achievement is an assessment of the teaching and learning process that is measured using standardized tests.

3.2.2. The relationship between learners' learning style preferences and their written production:

Learners use all styles to learn; however, they exhibit a preference or a dominant style. Knowing and understanding each learning style is believed to maximize students' learning (Aboe, 2019). Hodges (1988) stated that it was important to know the learning styles of students to assist them in being able to achieve in their studies. Consequently, recent studies have investigated school-aged children's performance and the extent to which learning style preferences predict academic achievement (e.g. Rahmani, 2012; Tabatabaei & Mashayekhi, 2012).

Some Researchers argued that learning style preference and its implementation is an important factor in student achievement (Cano, 1999; Cano & Garton, 1994). As well, several recent studies have investigated the relation between learning styles and language achievement among them; Rohmatulloh (2010) said that the aim of her study is to analyse the English achievement among the learning styles. In consequence, the result of this research showed that there is a significant variation among students who have visual, audio, and kinaesthetic in their English written achievement. In the same line thoughts, Abidin et al. (2011) conducted a study using Dunn and Dunn's (1986) Learning Styles Model and concluded that there is a significant relationship between learning styles and academic performance.

In order to establish the relationship between learning styles and written achievement of second year EFL students at M'sila University, the Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient was used. Table (31) below shows that there is a strong positive relationship between learning styles and language written achievement. So, learning styles affect the language written through students' achievement. It is from this data that teachers or teaching staff can integrate teaching patterns by considering individual learning styles to accommodate them according to the way they learn and how they absorb learning information to the fullest.

The pattern of the teaching approach can vary according to the needs of students and their type of learning. As there are four learning skills in English through reading, writing, listening and speaking, there are types or styles of learning that may help learner to learn optimally depending on the teacher / lecturer who provides material by considering individual learning styles in a comprehensive manner.

Variables	Correlation	Number
Learning style & written achievement	0.60	30

Table 31: The relationship between learning style and written achievement.

3.2.3. Strategies students use to make their written achievements comply with their learning styles:

Writing in a second or foreign language is the most difficult skill in which to achieve communicative competence (Chamot, 2005). As teaching this skill is really hard, any teacher is responsible for making it less difficult to his learners. Unfortunately, “most teachers search to find “what” to teach in writing and neglect the important question which is “how” to teach it” (Fellak & Nouibat, 2019, p.30). Many studies have shown that there is a significant relationship between the learning style preferences and learning strategies used by learners. As

the findings of the studies conducted by Carson and Longhini (2002), M.-L. Chen (in press), Oxford (1991, as cited in Oxford, 1995), and Rossi-Le (1989), in which it was revealed that there were significant relationships between the learners' sensory preferences and their learning strategy use.

For that reason, a study made by Dahmani and Ben Rouane (2019) was conducted to determine students' strategies used to make their written achievement showed that second years students at M'sila university use many strategies: the following writing strategies are instances of- *know/ use planning strategy, revising strategy, and evaluating strategy, editing, monitoring, drafting, sharing my writing with others, cognitive strategies, practice, extensive reading, using different types of maps (mind maps, spider-maps...), checking grammar and punctuation, and using punctuation and indentation.*

Conclusion:

Based on the research findings, this chapter has made some useful and significant contribution to research on learning style preferences of second year students and their language productive achievement in learning English as a foreign language. The most significant contribution of the study lied in the analysis of the relationships that exist among learners' written achievement level and their learning style preferences. The result of the Pearson correlation Test has proved the existence of a strong positive relation between learning style preferences and the scores of the test where the scores represent students' written achievement.

Recommendations:

The present study yielded some important insights into learning style preferences among second year EFL students. Hence, the following recommendations can be made:

- a. Teachers/instructors need to take into account their students 'diverse learning styles, design instructional methods that take care of those diversities and remain sensitive to the during instruction process.
- b. Teachers should also help their students to understand their learning style preferences and make use of to develop into life-long learners;
- c. University administrators need to provide various learning materials which can bring diversity in the classroom by employing visual, auditory and kinaesthetic materials such as the use of technology, students' project writing and presentation among other methods.
- d. Programs should be designed to improve students' learning styles and learning strategies for all levels to make the teaching and learning process more effective.

Limitations:

To have this work accomplished, the researchers faced many difficulties without which this work could be better. The current situation in the whole world prevented university students to study the second semester which was the biggest obstacle they encountered. In addition, there was not enough time to devote the practical part of the study which obliges us to make some changes. Besides there was also a challenge during the distribution of the students' test and questionnaire where not all respondents were serious about the study.

General conclusion

The present research has been undertaken to establish the importance of learning styles as a factor that directly affects students' achievement, specifically, written language achievement. The results of the investigation confirmed the hypothesis that there was a strong positive relationship between EFL learners learning style preferences and their written language achievement at M'sila University. It also showed that learners had learned successfully when a focus on their learning styles was done. The researchers ultimately suggest some recommendations which will contribute to the improvement of the teaching/learning situation at the Department of Letters and English Language, M'sila University.

Through the process of conducting the research, the results indicate that the lowest minority of students are less-skilled writers. Because the majority of students are auditory learners and the teacher focuses more on activities that match auditory style such as discussion, reading aloud, etc., it seems clear that this type of learners was more skilled in writing and they got good marks in the test than visual learners which represent the minority in this sample. Thus, matching between students' learning styles and the activities displayed in the written expression session was believed to maximize their written achievement.

To conclude, the findings of this study indicate the need for teachers and educators to be made aware of the existing students' learning style preferences in order to encourage the development of a balanced learning style. However, in the real world of EFL classes, it is rather difficult to take all the learners' learning style preferences into account. Moreover, it is challenging for the educators to constantly remind how each student learns best so that they can match their teaching styles with the students' diverse learning styles. Furthermore, the

variable of learning style is just one of the many factors (e.g. personality, motivation, attitude, intelligence, etc) which impact the learning process and outcomes.

It is hoped that the findings of this research would be of value to other English institutions and academics both in M'sila and in Algeria in designing second language learning (SLA) syllabus and curricula that accommodate different learning style preferences.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Students' Questionnaire

We would greatly appreciate it if you could answer this questionnaire honestly as it is a crucial part of our study. You can be assured that your responses will be completely anonymous and used for scientific research only.

Section One: On learning Style Preferences-Tick an appropriate answer:

1. When the teacher tells me about the instructions, I understand better.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

2. I prefer learning by doing or hands on activities.

1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

3. I get more satisfaction when working with peers.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

4. I learn more when I study with a group.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

5. I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the board

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

6. I remember things I have heard in class better than those I have done

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

7. When I see instructions on the board, I remember them better.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

8. I learn more when I can draw or make a shape of something.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

9. I understand better when I discuss my learning with my friends.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

10. I learn better if someone explains something to me.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

11. When I study alone, I understand things better.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

12. I can understand something more easily if there is a diagram to explain it.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

13. I learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree
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disagree	Disagree	disagree	Agree	

14. I prefer to learn by listening and taking notes.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

15. I enjoy making something for a class project.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

16. I enjoy speaking in the classroom.

(1) Strongly disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly agree

Section Two: On Language written Production

17. Which skill are you more proficient at?

Speaking listening reading writing

18. How would you define your written English exam marks?

Below average Average Good Excellent

19. When you write, do you like what you write about?

Yes No

If yes, why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

20. When writing, according to your language style, do you feel comfortable?

Yes No

If yes, why?

.....
.....
.....

21. Do you think there is a relationship between your style preferences and the way you write?

Yes No

If yes, where does this relationship lie?

.....
.....
.....
.....

22. What do you usually like writing about?

Paragraphs stories essays poems

23. Is what you write about always reflective of your choices?

Yes No

If yes, why, according to you?

.....
.....
.....

24. Do you think your teachers should assign you according to your style preferences?

Yes No

If yes, why?

.....
.....
.....

Thank You for your cooperation

Appendix 2

Observation checklist

Things to be observed(aspects)	Frequency of appearance
1. The total number of students	
2. How many females are there?	
3. How many males are there?	
4. How students are arranged in class?	
5. How does the teacher start the session?	
6. What is the type of students?	
7. What is the nature of the lesson?	
8. What type of activities involved during the session?	
9. Are students participating during the session?	
10. Who participated more? males or females	
11. Does the teacher speak more than the students?	
12. Do students prefer speaking only?	
13. Do students prefer listening and taking notes only?	
14. Do students go to the board and write their answers?	
15. What does the teacher ask students to do?	

Appendix 4

Paragraph Writing Test' Scale:

The marking criteria used were as follows:

10 points was the maximum which a student could score in the paragraph writing test; this is divided down as below:

Content	Language Use	Organization	Mechanics	Total
3 points	3 points	2 points	2 points	10 points

- Content:** relevance, subject knowledge, and clarity.
- Language Use:** both variety of vocabulary and accuracy of grammatical construction.
- Organization:** including topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence besides fluency and coherence.
- Mechanics:** spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.

Appendix 5:

Samples of students' written paragraph

Sample 1: Student number one:

The Test

In not more than 10 lines , write a short paragraph about the benefits of social media .

The Benefits of Social Media

Social Media has many advantages and various benefits on the individuals and the society also. First of all, it helps the individuals searching for extra-information by using internet, also chatting with themselves by facebook, emails and so on. In addition, it is one of the basic and useful sources and references in some fields and aspects. Moreover, this wide and huge term regarded as the most influential tool in world. Finally, Social Media participate in doing such good affect on every element in the environment and the society.

07
10

Sample 2: Student number two:

The Test

In not more than 10 lines , write a short paragraph about the benefits of social media .

The Benefits of Social Media

social media has changed the way we communicate
Today it's in our best interest to be informed about
All of the new possibilities to manage our online reputation
Social media helps to build relationships and
connecting people to people and it also allows
home in on what you really care about and what
you really want to read
social media is land of real opportunity there
are countless personal and professional benefits
of using social media with a little love and
care we can start build and share our
personal brands into a epicenter of opportunity

05
10

Sample 3: Student number three:

The Test

In not more than 10 lines , write a short paragraph about the benefits of social media .

The Benefits of Social Media

Social media provide young people with a range of benefits, and opportunities to empower them selves in a variety of ways. The communities and social interactions young people form online can be invaluable for bolstering and developing young people's self-confidence and social skills.

2.15
10

نبذة مختصرة

يعد أسلوب التعلم أحد العوامل الرئيسية التي تحدد كيفية تعلم الطلاب للغة الإنجليزية. تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى التحقيق في أي علاقة بين تفضيلات نمط تعلم متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية والإنجاز اللغوي المكتوب. تم إجراء هذا التحقيق بين 30 طالباً من قسم اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة المسيلة تم اختيارهم عشوائياً للمشاركة. علاوة على ذلك، تبنى الباحثون طريقة مختلطة باستخدام مجموعة من أدوات البحث النوعية والكمية لجمع البيانات باستخدام الاستبيان وملاحظة الفصل واختبار كتابي. أوضحت النتائج وجود علاقة إيجابية قوية بين تفضيلات أسلوب التعلم لدى متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية والإنجاز اللغوي المكتوب. أشارت النتائج أيضاً إلى وجود اختلاف بين تفضيلات أسلوب التعلم للكاتب ذوي المهارات والأقل مهارة ، حيث أظهر الكتاب المهرة غالباً تفضيلهم لأسلوب التعلم السمعي. ومع ذلك ، كان الكتاب الأقل مهارة من المتعلمين البصريين. يهدف البحث الحالي إلى مساعدة كل من المعلمين والطلاب من خلال رفع وعيهم بأهمية أسلوب التعلم في تحصيل اللغة المكتوبة.