

Methods and Techniques of Teaching Writing

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to present the methods and techniques of teaching writing. This study reveals a structured approach to teaching writing in English. After the teacher has decided which of the above-described approaches suits best the needs of their current writing project, they should diligently consider how to accomplish their needs through various methods and techniques that they are to use in the writing lessons. It is only up to the teacher what methods and activities they will use as these can be freely combined across all approaches at the teacher's (and their students') best convenience. Therefore, the following section puts forward the whole range of methods, techniques and activities collected from Ann Raimes, Jeremy Harmer, Ron White and Valerie Arndt, Tricia Hedge, and Don Byrne.

Keywords: Methods; Techniques; Teaching of Writing

Introduction

Writing is one essential language skill that should be learned and mastered by students. In this context, writing is taught by lecturers as a compulsory subject at college. However, teaching writing is not easy for lecturers particularly to enhance students writing skill. Huy (2015:2) defined that "writing is a complex metacognitive activity that draws on an individual's knowledge, basic skill, and ability to coordinate multiple processes". Hence, writing is a complex matter in which students should express their ideas, feelings, and opinions through a piece of paper.

Besides that, the students must be able to arrange their writing into cohesive and coherent paragraphs and texts. Writing as a process to get product is influenced by some elements such as vocabularies, grammar, spelling, punctuation, and organization of ideas as well as the correlation between sentences, paragraphs, main ideas, and supporting ideas. It is supported by Richards and Renandya (2002:303) stated that "the difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing ideas but also in translating these ideas into a readable text. The skills that are involved in writing are highly complex". It is supported by Harmer (2004:31) explained that "writing should encourage students to focus on accurate language use and, because they

think as they write, it may well provoke language development as they resolve problems which the writing puts into their minds”.

1. During pre-writing stage

This part of the writing process is to some extent a planning part, commencing with choosing a topic and rounding off with structuring ideas, which precede the writing itself.

1.1 Choosing topics

Not many are needed, but good ones. The teacher should also have in mind that students themselves are great sources of topics, which can positively influence their writing process as they feel actively engaged and their intrinsic motivation works as a real fuel for their writing journey, suggests Raimes (1983:13). In her view, rather than looking for a number of topics, finding a few excellent ones that are of students’ interest and building “a whole series of assignments around them” is recommended.

1.2 Generating ideas

It has already been discussed that generating ideas is one of the most demanding tasks for students. Raimes (1983:13-15) encourages that finding and communicating ideas is more effective if students are allowed to cooperate and if they are given opportunity to speak, to listen, to read, and to write, all in a series of activities rather than in one isolated exercise. White and Arndt (1991:18) distinguish two main kinds of discovery techniques for creating ideas: guided (using prompts for generating ideas, e.g. questions) and unguided (generating ideas by writers themselves, e.g. brainstorming). However, some of the activities in the following list may be used either as guided or unguided:

- Brainstorming – one of the most effective ways of gathering ideas. It involves quick thinking without inhibition; it suppresses censorship and is suitable for individual or, even better, group work. Brainstorming by the teacher is used as a demonstration of the technique if unfamiliar to students. Brainstorming by students is a group work benefiting from and contributing to cooperative way of learning. (White & Arndt, 1991: 18-21; Raimes, 1983:69-71) Harmer (2004:87) calls this cooperative model of generating ideas Buzz groups.

- Questions – a basic problem-solving prompt for the writer, are good to ask as they yield interesting answers that might become foundation of the text-to-be. They can be invented by students themselves or given by the teacher in sets which help students to look at the topic from different angles. Another important aspect of asking right questions is focusing on what the reader needs to know, i.e. the writer should consciously consider what information is shared with the reader and what should therefore be conveyed. (White & Arndt, 1991:22-32; Raimes, 1983:33)

- Note-making – a helpful technique that can be either structured (guided) or unstructured (unguided). With the first mentioned, students make organized, categorized notes, e.g. spidergrams, mind maps, whilst with the latter, they write down ideas similarly as in

brainstorming – without organizing them. (White & Arndt, 1991:33-34; Raimes, 1983:78; Hedge, 1988:30, 34; Harmer, 2004:88-90)

- Visual material – plays an essential role in the writing process as it represents a shared experience of all students of the class, claims Raimes (1983:27) and adds that visuals draw students' attention, focus them on the same thing, and strengthen their interest. They can bear the form of pictures, photos, drawings, posters, cartoons, diagrams, graphs, tables, maps, and even realia (i.e. physical objects). Raimes then follows with some general strategies of using pictures in the class and lists possible ways of using them. White and Arndt (1991:35-41) suggest that pictures can be used as singles or as sequences which bring more divergent interpretations and offer variety of outcomes. Also, completing incomplete maps and plans can offer a great room for creativity.

Role plays and simulations – widely used techniques that are open-ended in the range of ideas they may offer and therefore provide a great stimulus for generating ideas. (White & Arndt, 1991:42-43; Raimes, 1983:33)

- Reading material – likewise pictures, accounts for shared content in the classroom and supports communicative activities, points out Raimes (1983:50). In addition, she highlights that reading, both intensive and extensive, has significantly beneficial contribution to the writing process for it actively engages students with new language and culture.

- Whole group discussion – this kind of eliciting ideas, sharing useful vocabulary and grammar, and engaging students with their own opinions and/or experiences, helps generating ideas prior to the writing stage. (Harmer, 2004:88)

- For and against – an activity which helps students to come up with ideas regarding the topic. This task can be carried out individually, in pairs or preferably in two buzz groups, one group thinking about positive reasons/advantages, the other one writing down negative reasons/disadvantages. After a time limit the ideas are shared in class and written on the board. (Harmer, 2004:90)

1.3 Analysing genres

This method is particularly suitable for Genre Approach. If students are writing in a particular genre, they first need to be exposed to a great variety of models and analyse them, argues Harmer (2004:91) and suggests that models of concrete genres are a great source to notice: specific vocabulary and phrases, linking words, punctuation, paragraphing, layout, other characteristic features. The best methods therefore are real examples of the targeted genre (e.g. advertisement, formal letter, newspaper article, recipe, etc.)

1. Linking words – activity in which students are given texts with first few linking words underlined and the rest removed. They discuss the meaning of the words, how they link ideas

and how they are punctuated. Students then fill in blanks with most suitable linking words. (Withrow, 1987:6-7)

2. Punctuation – students inspect punctuation marks, capital letters and apostrophes in the given model and discuss their rules. (Withrow, 1987:13)

1.4 Focusing on purpose, reader and form

White and Arndt (1991:44-45) argue that the expression of the main idea is closely connected to (a) the writer's purpose for writing the particular piece of text, (b) taking into account the reader, and (c) the form the text is going to take. Following activities are beneficial for practicing these aspects.

Discovering main ideas – may not happen easily and it often is the case that the writer discovers their key point during the drafting stage. One of three techniques, recommended by the authors, that help the writer find their focus is Fast writing.

Compared to brainstorming, this type of activity develops not only ideas but relates them. Loopwriting is an upgraded fastwriting activity with a summarizing sentence after each paragraph used as an opening sentence for a new loop. Conferencing is a consultation between the writer and the reader (teacher or colleague student). It is used for clarifying and explaining the writer's point to the reader. (White & Arndt, 1991:46-48)

Considering purpose – a core aspect of the writer's effort to be taken into account. (Raimes, 1983: 16) "Understanding the importance of purpose in writing is an essential part of the writing process," claim White and Arndt (1991:49) and explain that it forms the basis for the writer's decisions on the content and the way of expressing it. It involves methods of detecting the writer's reason, selecting and rejecting ideas, sifting data, transforming (sharing) personal experiences, and establishing (communicating clearly) a viewpoint.

Considering audience – second most important aspect to be considered while composing a text. (Raimes, 1983:17) The writer is to take a role of a critical reader in order to be effective in conveying their message. Certain activities in writing classes can help writers to tailor their writings so as to suit potential readers: reconstructing (deducing the sort of) a reader, clarifying information to unfamiliar reader, or sharing 'expert' knowledge to laymen. (White & Arndt, 1991:69-74)

Showing attitude – an activity in which students supply removed attitude words (e.g. obviously, personally, etc.) (Withrow, 1987:8)

Considering form – last but not least aspect to be focused on by the writer when creating a piece of writing, involves knowledge how different types of texts are conventionally structured in different forms. Since it is important that the writer matches the expectations of the reader concerning the appropriate form, there are some activities that teachers might find useful in their writing classes: comparing (analyzing) characteristics of text-types and then varying (experimenting with) text forms. (White & Arndt, 1991:75-77)

1.5 Organizing texts

Raimes (1983:115-116) claims that “how we write in English has many conventions” which make writing culturally determined, just as eating habits or social interaction. The English way of thinking, dealing with topic, putting ideas in structures and connecting them is different from other cultures and therefore does not predetermine a successful writer in L1 to be successful in L2 in the same way. If willing to be effective, claim White and Arndt (1991:78-79), the writer should adopt skills of organizing thoughts, grouping ideas and sequencing them. These activities can help improve and practise organising the text:

- Outline – before writing a text the writer should have a brief plan of their writing, which usually follows pre-writing activities such as brainstorming, list-making, reading, discussing, etc. This device works as a guide for the writer during their writing phase as well as after when the writer has to review their work. (Raimes, 1983: 116-121)

- Ordering information – into clusters or categories involve grouping ideas into frameworks (spidergrams, tables, schemes) or paragraphs, using statement prompts (words, phrases), considering priorities for arranging information. (White & Arndt, 1991: 79-88) Students can put sentences cut in strips in the correct order according to ‘cohesive ties’. Students can also work in groups and select the most relevant ideas from the list or reject them. Then they group information in paragraphs and finally decide on the best order of paragraphs. (Withrow, 1987:4-10)

- Experimenting with arrangements – helps writers to understand that there might not be the one and only way to organise the information, but more. This also prepares the writer to adjust and change the arrangement in order to achieve best results. (White & Arndt, 1991:89-93)

Relating structure to focal idea – shows that the main idea can give the writer a good lead how to structure the text. White and Arndt (1991:94-98) suggest practising this aspect on texts in which the reader expects certain elements but not in a fixed order, e.g. telling personal anecdotes (stories) or writing about people’s lives and achievements.

1.6 Controlled writing

The technique of controlled writing is based on Controlled-to-Free Approach which focuses on accuracy and where the content and form are supplied by the teacher. In contrast to free writing, when students generate, organize and express own ideas in own sentences, in controlled writing students follow, continue, manipulate or complete. Raimes (1983:95) suggests that this technique can be used as a prep stage to free writing as it helps students grow mature in writing, and that it is suitable at all levels, but most beneficial at early stage of language learning. She introduces five basic types of frequently assigned controlled tasks, each of them focusing on and practising a different area of language according to students’ needs. They are:

- Controlled composition – work with given passage. Students make only grammatical or structural changes (e.g. singular into plural, present into past, active into passive, etc.). The focus is on accuracy as there are only right answers. This activity is good for reinforcing grammar, vocabulary, syntax. (Raimes, 1983:97-101)

Questions and answers – no text to write but questions to answer. This activity allows a bit more freedom in structuring sentences. (Raimes, 1983: 101-103)

Guided composition – task in which students are given for example first and last sentence, outline or a piece of information. Students discuss the activity; they make notes, share and plan before writing. This activity, again, is a bit freer than previous one; students' products might be similar but will not be the same. (Raimes, 1983:103-107)

Sentence combining – focuses not on content but on choices about structure. Students for example join words and structures or work with positions of particular information in the text, which improves their ability in using sentence structure, length of their writing and variety. (Raimes, 1983: 107-109)

Following models – students use a passage of a text as a model and practise writing on a similar topic following it or on the same topic but for different audience. This kind of guided writing is primarily focused on form and only after that on ideas. To avoid unnatural copying, the model can serve as a simple resource or example rather than an ideal to stick to. (Raimes, 1983: 125-130)

Parallel writing – the freest of all described tasks. Students create own pieces of work based on reading a text and writing a similar text on their own topics. (Raimes, 1983:109-112)31

2. During composing stage

While the activities listed above help developing writing skills mainly during the pre-writing stage, following are methods and activities that can be used primarily in the course of the writing stage.

2.1 Writing drafts

Once the writer has gone through the previous 'pre-writing' stages, they can now embark on writing a first draft which is more reader-based and therefore of more significant concern for the writer, for after having considered the best way of selecting and organizing ideas, the writer now starts thinking about how to attract and keep the reader's attention. What White and Arndt (1991:100) hold as fundamental of this process stage, are revision and rewriting. They support this core opinion by claiming: "We would advocate running through the 'write-revise-rewrite' cycle at least once [...], twice through the cycle is recommended." Practice shows that even more than three drafts, when publishing an important text, are a norm. Fortunately enough, nowadays writers can use labour-saving word processor which makes their re-writing much more congenial and easier.

- Drafting by the teacher – a demonstration activity implemented by White and Arndt (1991:100-102) to help students view the process; through this, in addition, they can see that writing can be difficult even for teachers.

Beginning, adding and ending – the skill of the writer compared to a pilot taking off, keeping the craft in the air and landing safely. Therefore White and Arndt (199:102-1151) present activities considering effective ways of opening, supplying info and completing texts, through

which the students can develop their writing skills and thus can gain more confidence in their difficult tasks. (Withrow, 1987:9)

Comparing texts – gives students opportunity to compare two texts written on the same subject, one poorly and the other one written well. After students have read both texts, they discuss which one is better, and why. The activity can follow in two possible variations: students are tasked to either rewrite the poor text or add another passage to the well-written text. (Withrow, 1987:11)

Writing based on reading material – helps and exposes target vocabulary, organization flow, sentence patterns and background information to students who through reading get in interaction with the writer of the text. (Raimes, 1983:51-63) She also puts forward a plentiful list of various reading activities on content and form, including tasks focusing on cohesive links, punctuation, sentence arrangement, and more.

Writing based on conversation or visual material – a useful task for students to practice writing according to real situation. Students write a text based on provided information which can serve as a model for actual writing. (Withrow, 1987:11-12)

Practicing writing – an activity in which students are given topics from which they choose one and write their own texts. They can follow texts or parts of them as models. This task helps students integrate all skills they have already learnt; students practice writing complete, cohesive texts. (Withrow, 1987:13-14)

2.2 Evaluating drafts

White and Arndt (1991:116) object that it is commonly, and wrongly at the same time, assumed that the task of students is to write and the task of teachers to evaluate. On the contrary, writers have to learn to accept responsibility for their writing and become their own critics, able to sensibly assess their product and make appropriate improvements during the drafting stage.

- Self-editing – a valuable technique used by the writer, who now becomes a reader, to critically view their piece of writing in order to make adjustments and corrections. It is advised to edit the draft at the right stage – after some time of rest, as a fresher eye can see more inconsistencies, misspellings or incompleteness. (Raimes, 1983:149-150)

White and Arndt (1991:117-123) recommend this activity as suitable for critical viewing of own work. An inseparable part of this method is developing criteria for evaluation, which can be carried out in the form of a checklist (see Appendix 1 for illustration) with questions to be answered about the writing.

- Students' responses to a student's writing – a way of responding to reading another student's piece of work while using a guideline such as a checklist to follow and see what needs to be checked. (Raimes, 1983: 148-149) This attitude might help as advocated by Harmer (1991:8) who argues that students at the age of adolescence might view the teacher as a potential enemy if not tact enough in terms of criticism. Peer-approval, however, is important to

them. (Harmer, 1991:8) White and Arndt (1991:117-123) agree that the writer should be read by many other people, which not only gives them an intrinsic motivation to make a greater effort, but develops the competence of becoming more critical readers of own work as well.

- Responding to the text – should be done by a reader, not a marker, being primarily concerned with the meaning and purpose of the writing, rather than other, linguistic, stylistic or formal features. This requires of the reader some self-control, tact and sensitivity. To support and enhance this practice, the teacher and students should train their skills in responding to other people's work. Patterns of responding to the observed text, suggested by White and Arndt (1991:124-131), are teacher to student, teacher to class, and student to student; possible ways are written form of a letter or list of notes.

- Dealing with errors – however important it is that the teacher (as a reader) should focus on expressed ideas and conveyed message first, it is inevitably important, argues Raimes (1983:152), not only to evaluate these features, but help the writer to correct mistakes. It is very much helpful if the teacher uses a system of indicating which students are aware of and which help them to revise and correct their drafts prior to submitting the final works.

Conferencing – a procedure in which the reader and the writer discuss the written piece. It can be carried out during or after composition; and shows personal attention to the writer, which proves more beneficial than written response not only in that individual attitude but also because of face-to-face interaction/dialogue/discussion over the areas that need to be clarified. This can be done either as a set of questions to be asked while continuing and improving the draft, or as responding to the student's self-evaluation. (White & Arndt, 1991:131-135)

2.3 Re-viewing final versions

Once the writer has gone through all previous process stages, the writing has come to the point of almost final version. What now remains is to look at the text once again with “a new pair of eyes,” as White and Arndt advise (1991:136). They suggest following points to consider, with two objectives in mind: to improve critical viewing and provide students with linguistic tools for writing.

- Checking the context – based on an overall assessment of the text and on how successful the writer has been with handling the issue of considering the purpose, audience and form at the focusing stage. This can be carried out with the help of ‘context checklist’ in pairs or groups, assessing other students' drafts. (White & Arndt, 1991:137-139)

Checking connections – an important part of this stage. The writer is assumed to write in a clear and understandable way for the reader; thus, now it comes to the part of testing logical and cohesive links. Activities for improving this area include categorizing cohesive devices into ‘connectives chart,’ text-analysing and textreconstructing exercises. (White & Arndt, 1991: 138-150)

- Checking divisions – helps the writer review how clear and logical the graphical division of their thoughts and arguments is. With the help of segmenting, paragraphing, cutting-and-pasting activities, the students can develop their skills of organizing their written piece more effectively. (White & Arndt, 1991: 151-156)

- Assessing impact of the chosen language on the reader's mind and heart – a work of a real writer who knows how to choose expressions and structures to make the right impression. In their book, White & Arndt (1991:156-171) present activities focused on conveying mood, attitude, feeling; signalling an opinion; highlighting the focal idea; and adjusting the style.

3. Responding to students' writing

Undeniably, an integral part of the writing process is a response to it. According to Raimes (1983), a common procedure comprising (a) selecting the topic, (b) pre-writing activities, (c) writing, (d) reviewing, editing, proofreading and (e) the teacher's marking of the paper has little influence on developing writing skills. Rather, as it has already been promoted, the teacher should accept the role of a sympathetic reader providing a continuous feedback during the whole writing process, agree Raimes (1983: 139), Harmer (2001: 110) and Byrne (1988: 124). Even more, White and Arndt (1991:172) hold that the teacher and students should cooperate not only on the whole process of writing but on setting criteria for judging (i.e. correcting and marking) the written assignments, too.

Before the teacher starts to correct and evaluate a piece of writing, they are advised to take account of the following five principles suggested by Raimes (1983:142):

1. Read without pen.
2. Look for strengths.
3. Make sure students know editing symbols.
4. Decide on error-marking policy and inform students.
5. Remember that the task of the teacher is to help students/writers see what to do for their improvement.

Following are several ways of how to respond to students' writings that are put forward for teachers' inspiration:

3.1 Written comments

The teacher's note of praise of what the student managed well in their writing leads to improvement more than correction or brief statement such as 'Good job'. Following the above mentioned Raimes' principles, the teacher should first read the paper as a whole, note down positive occurrence of correct language and form use (e.g. organization, spelling, punctuation, coherent flow of ideas, use of cohesive devices, etc.) and only until the strengths are highlighted, inform about what in particular needs to be improved. This might be done by giving a hint to the student or putting forward some questions to be answered by the student who has to think and come up with another possibility. (Raimes, 1983:143-145) What Harmer

(2001:111) suggests is that instead of commenting on mistakes, the teacher uses an alternative way of ‘reformulating’ the sentence in other ‘more suitable’ words.

3.2 Conferencing

A form of talking about the paper (conferencing) can be used during the stage of evaluating drafts by all readers as well as the form of a final feedback by the teacher. However time-consuming this alternative looks, it certainly counts among ideal ways of communicating the teacher’s (reader’s) response. A short, real discussion can be very productive and motivating for the student as both, the writer and the reader, are engaged in the interaction. (Raimes, 1983:145-146)

3.3 Checklists

This device, intended to help students deal with mistakes and discrepancies in their writing, can be used both during the writing process by students as well as a final evaluation by the teacher. It contains a list of questions to check specific area, e.g. ‘Does you essay have a title?’, ‘Does the essay have visible paragraph arrangement?’, ‘Is the spelling of troublesome words checked in the dictionary?’ etc. (Raimes, 1983:147-148)

3.4 Dealing with errors

There are a few hints that Raimes (1983: 150-153), Byrne (1988:124-126) and Harmer (2001: 110-112) agree on and propose to teachers regarding the topic of correcting mistakes. According to them the teachers are advised:

- To avoid over-correction. Decide which errors to deal with in the piece of writing as it is not advisable to correct all of them, rather focus just on some, for instance grammar areas covered in the lessons, punctuation and articles, or any other area that is important for students at their stage.

To use three or four sentences with students’ errors anonymously and give them to pairs or groups of students to find them and improve the sentences.

- To treat errors seriously but not allow them to dominate your and students’ concern. Rather, teach students to accept mistakes as friends, or steps to perfection, which show what needs to be improved.

- To use a set of symbols for indicating errors that best suits your needs. For inspiration, see an example in Figure 3. Make sure students understand them and can use them profitably. Possible alternatives are: either the teacher indicates mistakes and students correct them, or students identify mistakes themselves and correct them. Add one more symbol to the set: the symbol of a tick. The teacher can indicate where the student has used language well or has “made a particularly telling point” (Harmer, 2001:112).

- To back up error correction with remedial teaching.

- To remember that the best results for students’ language improvement can be obtained if the correction is done while students are still engaged in the writing process.

Mark	Error Indicated
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^	A word is missing
/	Start a new sentence
//	Start a new paragraph
Gr	Grammar error
Sp	Spelling error
P	Punctuation error
Art	Error with articles (a, an, the)
c/unc	Countable/uncountable error
Wo	Wrong word order
Ww	Wrong word
Wt	Wrong tense
Wf	Wrong form
Irreg	Irregular verb
?	Undear

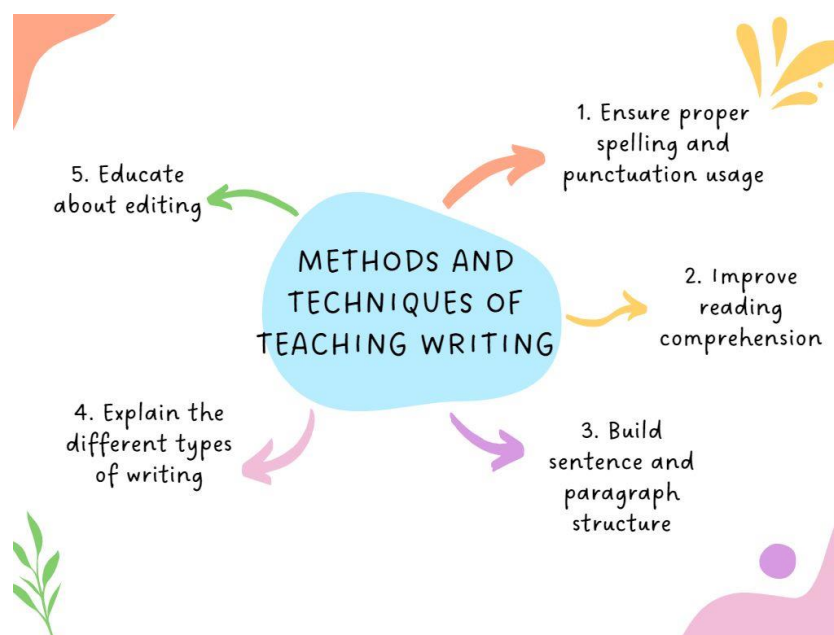
3.5 Remedial work

It is very useful to provide students with explanation of their errors, or even with some remedial exercises that are focused on dealing with trouble spots, advises Byrne (1988: 126) along with White and Arndt (1991:174) who suggest that the teacher uses parts of students' texts as a source for correction exercise in groups/pairs. Another possibility is to follow ready-made lessons targeted at problematic areas, for instance Grammar Troublespots by Ann Raimes.

Knowledge from the Study

Listening, speaking, reading and writing are the four skills that make up any language. Having good writing skills may assist you in conveying information in a more comprehensive, informative, clear and direct manner. The ability to write effectively and precisely is an important skill, especially in a professional environment. In this article, we discuss how to teach writing skills, the approaches to teaching writing and the stages of the writing process and we provide some tips to help you improve your teaching skills.

The writing process requires several key skills. There are methods available to assist struggling writers in developing these writing skills. That is because there is a lot that goes into expressing thoughts in writing or written expression. Here are some basic steps for teaching writing skills that can help establish a strong foundation in the learning process:



1. Ensure proper spelling and punctuation usage

The proper usage of spelling and punctuation is one of the most important elements of writing. By distributing worksheets, you can teach spelling and punctuation skills. The worksheets can include a 'fill in the blank' section that prompts candidates to use their vocabulary to complete sentences with proper spelling and punctuation. These blank sections may prompt candidates to use their vocabulary to fill in missing words and punctuation in sentences and improve their skills.

2. Improve reading comprehension

Good reading comprehension is important for good writing skills as it adds meaning to what is read. You may improve your students' reading comprehension by enhancing their vocabulary and encouraging them to read more books and other types of material. Reading comprehension also improves by answering questions and writing a summary about the text. Other simple tips, such as reading aloud for extra clarity and reading in a quiet environment, may be effective.

3. Build sentence and paragraph structure

Building sentence and paragraph structure ensures that the writing is as clear and understandable as possible. It primarily consists of forming sentences and paragraphs with the appropriate tense and placing modifiers and verbs in the right place. Teaching students the importance of having a beginning, middle and end in their paragraphs is important for their progression to more advanced writing skills, such as essays and articles.

4. Explain the different types of writing

A comprehensive understanding of the different types of writing is an important part of learning how to write. The four types of writing are narrative, descriptive, persuasive and

expository writing. Besides regular writing assignments, you can provide your students with creative writing assignments to hone their creativity and solidify their writing skills.

5. Educate about editing

The final part of the writing process is editing the draft for grammar and punctuation errors. It is important to revise the draft, catch the errors and rectify them to have an error-free document. You can encourage your students to read the draft aloud or ask a peer to review it to find the mistakes.

Conclusion

Technique is any exercise, activities, and tasks in the classroom to meet the objectives or goal of learning. So, it means that all activities that take place in a language class are techniques. Techniques are not exclusive to certain methods. To some extent, different methods may have similar techniques even though they must have different techniques. Language teachers may develop their own techniques as long as the techniques are still consistent with the assumptions or theories of the methods from which the techniques derive. Techniques not only include the presentation of language material but also the repetition of the material. Therefore, the position of a technique is at the implementation phase and it is often called procedure while approach and method are at the level of design.

Based on the explanation above it can be concluded that language teaching involves approaches that lead to methods, methods that are broken down into procedures and procedures that are a collection of techniques. Understanding how these concepts interrelate can help a teacher know the reasons behind their choices in how they choose to teach.

Writing can be widely defined from several perspectives. In the language learners' perspective, writing can be classified as productive skills besides speaking. Writing produces written language, while speaking can produce spoken language; both of them are very different. The difference between speaking and writing comes from the characteristics. The characteristics that differences written language from spoken language in terms of the permanency, production time, distance, orthography, complexity, formality and vocabulary.

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