



BENEMÉRITA UNIVERSIDAD AUTÓNOMA DE PUEBLA

SCHOOL OF LANGUAGE

**PROBLEMS THAT YOUNG LEARNERS HAS DURING LEARNING A FOREIGN
LANGUAGE**

**THESIS TO OBTAIN THE DEGREE OF:
LICENCIADA EN LENGUAS MODERNAS**

BY:

MARIA GUADALUPE VIEDAS CARMONA

THESIS DIRECTOR

MTO. JOSÉ DEMETRIO JULIO GONZÁLEZ MARTÍNEZ

PUEBLA, PUE.

NOVEMBER 2014

“Problems that young learners has during writing a foreign language”

**A Thesis Submitted to the School of Languages for the Degree of
Licenciatura en Lenguas Modernas**

By María Guadalupe Viedas Carmona

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla

November, 2014.

“Problems that young learners has during writing a foreign language”

The thesis has been read by the members of the Thesis Committee of

María Guadalupe Viedas Carmona

**And is considered worthy of approval in partial fulfillment of the requirement
for the degree of**

LICENCIATURAS EN LENGUAS MODERNAS

Mto. José Demetrio Julio González Martínez

Thesis Director

Lic. Maria de los Ángeles Preciado Lloyd

Commitee Member

Mtra. Carolina Torres Galindo

Commitee Member

Dedico esta tesis principalmente a mis padres, pues gracias a ellos soy quien soy y he podido llegar tan lejos. Gracias por tu todo su amor, cariño, consejos y apoyo no solo económico sino emocional. Muchas gracias, pues por ustedes es que soy alguien en la vida y a ustedes les debo todo. A mi hermana por su cariño y apoyo.

And I would like to thank to my boyfriend for all his love and support when I wanted to give up, you encouraged me to go ahead. This is for you too.

Special thanks for the teacher Julio, teacher Angeles and teacher Carolina, for all their support and time.

Acknowledgements

Special thanks go to my thesis director: the teacher Julio González Martínez for all his help, support, patient and the time he dedicated to me and my thesis. And also because with his help I can finish this project.

I would like to thank too to my committee members: the teacher Angeles, who accepted to be my first reader before she retired from LEMO, I'm so grateful with you.

And the teacher Carolina Torres, who was my second reader, in spite of she was busy. Thank you for taking the time to read my thesis and help me with my presentation.

I also thank the contribution of my friend and English teacher: Alejandro Cruz Herrera, who let me observe his classes and apply my instruments.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
1. Chapter I: Introduction	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Introduction to the problem	4
1.3 Purpose of the study	5
1.4 Research questions	6
1.5 Significance of the study	6
1.6 Key terms	8
2. Chapter II: Literature Review	10
2.1 Language learning	10
2.2 Language learning development	12
2.3 The four skills	16
2.3.1 Listening	16
2.3.2 Speaking	19
2.3.3 Reading	21
2.3.4 Writing	22
2.3.4.1 EFL writing	24
2.3.4.2 Children writing	24
2.4 Difficulties with writing	25
2.4.1 Dyslexia	27
2.4.2 Dysgraphia	29

2.4.3 Dysortographia	29
2.5 How to introduce writing to children	30
2.5.1 Writing activities	31
3. Chapter III: Methodology	34
3.1 Subjects	34
3.2 Instruments	35
3.3 Procedure	35
3.4 Data analysis	37
4. Chapter: IV Results	38
4.1 Results related to problems with the children´s writing	38
4.2 Results of children´s learning disabilities through their symptoms	40
5. Chapter V: Conclusions	43
5.1 Conclusions	43
5.2 Implications	44
5.3 Limitations of the study	45
5. References	46

TABLE OF APPENDICES

	Page
1. Appendix A: Checklist applied to children	51
2. Appendix B: Survey applied to the English teacher	52

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

English has become one of the most important languages all around the world. Its importance is related not only to the increasing number of speakers, but also to the use in daily life. Young learners are not excluded of being bombed with different English input in daily activities; for example, music, videogames, internet, television and as a subject in their daily education. The area of teaching English in early stages is becoming more and more demanded. As Mckay (2007) mentions, young foreign language learners in the early primary school years are in the process of developing their literacy understandings and skills, whether in their first or their foreign language. This means that young learners have the necessity to learn and communicate in English.

Additionally, there are different kinds of problems involved in this learning. One of these problems is the writing skill. These English skills can be introduced in order to appreciate the demands of learning in another language. However, writing is not always easy, and as Ytreberg and Scott (1990) claim, we assume that our pupils can already write or are in the process of learning to write. Writing has certain characteristics which seem to make it difficult for pupils to deal with especially for younger learners.

In the 1970s there were some studies related to students whose first language was not English or was not Edited Standard English (ESE) which refers to the correct use of the language according to rules. This study was

carried out by sociolinguists and composition teachers/researchers who found that the students were not intellectually deficient, but was linguistically and culturally diverse. One of these researches is Shaughnessy.

Shaughnessy (1977 in Ferris and Associates 1998), who studied 4,000 student essays and analyzed their errors. She posited that the cause of the error is more important than the fact of the error. But the problems were faced by students who had limited English proficiency (LEP) and whose reading and writing skills were deficient. Shaughnessy recommended the identification of the student's problems further to the discovery of the linguistic and cultural reasons for the errors.

In 2010, Melgarejo, a full time English teacher and academic coordinator of the English area in the Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas in Colombia, made an investigation about children's perception of writing in EFL based on the process approach. The research was focused on analyzing the students' perceptions on the way they perceived writing in EFL. The main purpose of his study came from noticing that children presented problems in writing in English due to the fact that some teachers considered writing as a difficult task in which several factors contribute (time, space, guidance, interest, vocabulary, structures, among others). In his study the participants were divided into three groups, adults, adolescents and children. In the last category, 21 children between ages 10 to 13 with an intermediate level of English were chosen.

In Melgarejo's project the workshops were designed first according to the interest of students. Each session was focused on a specific topic and different pieces of writing included brainstorming, drafting, revising and socializing in a collaborative work. At the end, the students presented a portfolio which became a powerful tool to the research. The final result of this project was defined by understanding the students' perception of writing in EFL, which came from two identified areas such as motivation and interest to write, as well as writing skill improvement. These areas are related to the aspect of self-awareness.

Freppon (1999) published a case of studies of the writing and thinking of three African American second graders in a whole language classroom. She made classroom observation and her study took place twice a month from September to June in a second –grade classroom involving the use of field notes, artifact collection, teachers interview and the collection of audio and video tapes. The children were originally selected from a pool of children on the federally assisted program. The three participating children were representative of average and above average readers in the classroom. The participating children appeared in the final quarter of the school year and there had been no significant changes during the school year.

The teacher that participated in the study had been teaching for over ten years and completed a master's degree and reading recovery. The evaluation of the class was primarily carried out through the use of observations, anecdotal notes, and reading and writing examples. In a typical day in the classroom, Freppon observed that children began by working independently or in small

groups for the first hour and they were expected to read or write. At times, one child or a small group of them worked on a writing task. The teacher circulated among the children, observed and interacted. She nearly always took the opportunity to teach reading or writing strategies and skills.

This case of study was conducted using a qualitative research design and data collection method. Data were gathered over time as well as a synthesis of those data that supported the findings. Journal writing from September to December, and all the writing collected in April were selected for analysis. The teacher helped to collect the writing. The analysis of written data documented writing growth in all three children as well as show some individual characteristics. They produced more writing and, longer pieces demonstrated an expanding knowledge of genre. The findings from the analysis of writing interviews indicated that the children began the school year with positive views about writing, and they maintained them. Their discussions revealed breadth in thinking about writing and an ability to consider themselves critically as writers. The result of Freppon's study was that African American children demonstrated that they thought about writing in sophisticated and motivated ways. Nowadays the findings were limited to the population studied in one particular classroom via a case study design.

1.2 Introduction of the problem

Most of the EFL teachers that work with the National English Program in Basic Education belonging to the Secretaría de Educación Pública (SEP) have

never had a course on writing beyond the courses. Most of these teachers have just taken courses in grammar, syntax, phonetics and reading but writing. For this reason they are able to teach those skills more than EFL writing.

In addition, it has been observed that a high number of students of elementary school commit some errors while they are usually writing or copying a text that has been originally printed in a foreign language such as English. As a consequence, students of this level present lack of motivation and a negative perception about writing due to their poor writing skill in EFL.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The main purpose of this document is to find out the problems that children present during the process of learning to write in a foreign language and what the causes that provoke these problems can be. This research was focused on elementary school 6 to 9 year-old students learning English.

There is a main interest in this Project. That is, in Ytreberg and Scott's words (1993), "Even if there are difficulties in writing in the foreign language, it is still a useful, essential, integral and enjoyable part of the foreign language learning".

1.4 Research questions

This document was set out to answer the following questions:

- Do all these elementary school students that are learning English as a foreign language have problems with writing?
- What kind of problems can the students present when they are writing in a foreign language?
- What are the main causes that make students have problems with writing?
- Is there an extra tool to help these young learners to write?

1.5 Significance of the study

The final results of this document provide information related to the way to manage the problems that can be presented in young learners that are writing in EFL. It also provides ideas about ways to improve writing and some activities to improve writing in early stages, as well as the use of some materials to help students with this improvement.

EFL teachers are not well-prepared to focus on writing. For that reason, the result of this study may help for those teachers who are working with students that are learning a foreign language and who are presenting problems with this skill.

Most EFL students in a basic education present problems with writing as lack of interest, lack of motivation, poor vocabulary, etc. So, this document

provides a possible solution to the problems that young learners face when writing in a foreign language and it will help to the EFL teachers to plan their lessons according to the students' necessities taking into account their problems with writing.

1.6 Key terms

1.6.1 **Dyslexia:** Learning disability that primarily affects the child's ability to learn to read and develop a strong understanding of language (Marshall 2009, p.2).

1.6.2 **Dysgraphia:** It is the pseudo- clinical term used to describe a specific disability in writing that is more severe, and more resistant to remediation than the general difficulties encountered by other weak writers. (Cavey 2000, p. 67).

1.6.3 **Dysorthographia:** It is specific disability affecting spelling. There is little or no connection between the letter people write and the phonemes occurring within the word. (Thomson 1995, p.67).

1.6.4 **EFL:** English as a Foreign Language A traditional term for the use or study of the English language by non-native speakers in countries where English is generally not a local medium of communication. (Nordquist 2014, about education).

1.6.5 **Foreign language:** It is a language studied in an environment where it is not the primary vehicle for daily interaction and where input in that language is restricted. (Oxford 2003, p.1)

1.6.6 **Language acquisition:** It is the process of learning a native or a second language. The acquisition of native languages is studied primarily by developmental psychologists and psycholinguists. (Brown 1988, p.265)

1.6.7 Language Assessment: It is a field of study under the umbrella of applied linguistics. Its main focus is the assessment of first, second or other language in the school, college, or university context; assessment of language use in the workplace; and assessment of language in the immigration, citizenship, and asylum contexts. (Brown 1998, p.233)

1.6.7 LEP: Students that have a Limited English Proficiency. Their first language is not English. The first language of LEP students is intimately tied to their cultural background. (Kennedy, L; and Tipps, S 2007, p.34)

1.6.8 Second language: It is a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication and where abundant inputs exist in that language. (Oxford 2003, p.1)

1.6.9 Skills: In the teaching of English the students are training to hear and understand English, to speak in the language and to be understood, to read in the language and understand what they read and to write in the language and be understood. These four aims of teaching English correspond to four language skills_or language abilities. (Dash & Dash, 2007, p. 35)

1.6.10 Young learners: They are children who are in primary or elementary school. In terms of age, the young learners are between the ages of approximately five and twelve. (McKay 2006, p.1)

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section of literature review, a brief overview of the main factors involved in children's writing and the problems they can present when they are writing in a foreign language will be presented. At the end, some activities that can help teachers to overcome these problems with writing will be explored in more detail.

2.1 Language learning

Young learners are usually exposed to learn more than one language in school or at home. In this case, we will refer to the English language and young learners as young English language learners. Some authors state that language learning can focus on working through affective problems find in the process of adapting to a new culture and language (Arnold & Brown, 2005). They also say that some kinds of activities such as role-playing, written activities and written tasks can be useful to overcome these problems in learning. Donahue & Parsons (1982 in Arnold & Brown, 2005) propose the use of role-playing to overcome cultural fatigue, which is the physical and emotional exhaustion coming from the stress involved in adjusting to a new cultural environment. In fact, Chitester (2008) mentions that teachers must be able to differentiate between students who have a conflict with English because of their learning difficulties and those whose first language is not English.

Language learning takes place when learners are engaging in relevant communicative activities (McKay, 2006). That is, language uses tasks, on the one hand (activating the formulaic system), and focuses on form in the context

of language use within communicative tasks (activating the rule-governed system), on the other, In addition, O'grady (2005) says that some children are initially better than others at finding words. In fact, they appear to be two different styles of language learning.

According to Oxford (2003), the learning styles are general approaches (for example, global or analytic, auditory or visual) that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject. "Learning style is the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others" (Dunn & Griggs, 1988 in Oxford, 2003). In addition, there are some strategies that help students to improve and develop their language competence. These strategies are called learning strategies.

Weng (2012) states that learning strategies play a crucial role in second or foreign language acquisition. Learning strategies also help learners to gather new information and then assimilate that acquired information into their existing knowledge. According to Oxford (2003), learning strategies can be classified into six groups: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective and social. As noted by Griffiths (2004), language learning strategies, although still fuzzily defined and controversially classified, are increasingly attracting the interest of contemporary educators because of their potential to enhance learning.

Language learning styles and language learning strategies are the principal tools to help students to learn a second or a foreign language. In

Oxford's words (2003) a second language is a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication and where abundant input exists in that language. A foreign language is a language studied in an environment where it is not the primary vehicle for daily interaction and where input in that language is restricted.

2.2 Language learning development

One frequently used definition refers to development as patterns of change over time which begins at conception and continues through life span. Development occurs in different domains, such as the biological, social, emotional and cognitive (Keenan & Evans, 2009).

Harris (1996) in her book *Language Experience and Early Language Development: from Input to Uptake* took into account the historical perspective between Chomsky and Skinner about language development. Skinner's claim is that children learn language through operant conditioning. In Skinner's view, language learning involves processes that are essentially similar to those used when laboratory animals are trained to make simple responses such as pushing a lever -in the case of a rat- or pecking a disk -in the case of a pigeon. On the other hand, Chomsky's critique was that Skinner's failed to take account of the central role of syntactic knowledge in language competence. Chomsky's claim was that, far from receiving systematic reinforcement, children's exposure to

language is so unsystematic that their language experience does not even serve as a good model of correct adult usage.

Children acquire the phonologic and prosodic regularities of their native language, which are helpful for the maturation of syntactic information within early stages of language development (Friederici & Thierry, 2008). Boysson-Bardies (2001) states that two years after conception or a year after birth, children will say their first words. According to Friederici & Oberecker (2008) the child has to extract from the speech input the relevant rules which constitute linguistic knowledge. The fact is that the linguistic input children receive does not consist of single words or utterances. The child needs to learn to segment out of the words and extract rules from fluent speech in order to build up a vocabulary and acquire a language. In addition, Boysson-Bardies (2001) says that the learning of speech depends on a process of maturation and reorganization of the relevant organs.

During the children's second year, the most obvious development is in the domain of vocabulary. Children typically begin this year by producing their first word, and by the end of the year, they have a productive vocabulary of about 300 words and are producing word combinations (Fenson, Dale, Reznick & Bates, 1994 in Hoff, 2014). Bloom (1993) adds that most children begin the year between their second and third birthdays with a fairly sizable vocabulary of words, at least 50 words by most counts. Many have even begun to combine words to form their first phrases and simple sentences.

The study of human communication is so complex that it can be broken down into different components depending on differing theoretical views from which language development can be studied (Hedge, 2001 in Angeli, 2009). Berman (2004) integrated a form-function approach with the developmental paradox and proposed a phase-based model of language acquisition and development called phases in language development. These phases were: pre-grammatical, grammaticized and conventionalized. "Language development involves linguistics knowledge and the use of language in communicative contexts. There are five developmental steps:

a) Rote-knowledge: Initial acquisition of individual items as unanalyzed amalgams, closely tied to the immediate situational context, with no generalization beyond form-meaning mappings of particular linguistics forms.

b) Initial alternations: A few highly familiar items are modified contrastively within or across paradigms and constructions, with no abstraction beyond certain limited groups of forms.

c) Interim schemata: Transitional, non-normative and idiosyncratic, although partly productive application of rules and tentative generalizations.

d) Rule-knowledge: Grammaticization, with strict adherence to rules plus some lacunae, including inadequate command of structural and lexical constraints expressed as over-regularization and creative errors.

e) Proficiency integration of knowledge and use: In mature language usage, abstract rules are constrained by norms of usage, rhetorical convention,

and discourse appropriateness, yielding variation in style and register in accordance with particular communicative context (e.g., genre and modality) as well as individual predispositions, backgrounds and levels of literacy“(Berman, 2004).”

About stages of development, Jardine (2006) mentions the Piagetian stages of development based on Jean Piaget who believed that development of knowledge goes through definable stages in a specific sequence. These stages can be characterized by a high stability or equilibrium. The stages are the following:

a) Sensory-motor knowledge: It is Piaget's first stage of development (0-2 years old) in which children are centered on their immediate physical environment and learn through bodily activities: grabbing, touching, smelling, eating, etc.

b) Pre-operational knowledge: Piaget's second stage of development (2-7 years old), in which children become immersed in language and plays as forms of knowledge.

c) Concrete operational knowledge: Piaget's third stage of development (7-11 years old) in which children can know not just about objects in the world but also about operations they perform on an object (adding, subtracting, ordering, etc.), as long as those operations are concrete and visible. And

d) Formal operational knowledge: (Logico-mathematical knowledge), Piaget's fourth stage of development (adolescence through adulthood), in which adolescents and adults use symbols related to abstract concepts.

2.3 The four skills

DiYanni & Jen (2003) say the four language skills are taught in an integrated manner and within a holistic approach. When reading is the focus, writing is also included. When listening is the focus, speaking is also included. Various combinations and permutations that integrate the teaching of reading, writing, speaking and listening English are essential to the pedagogy. In addition, Mukalel (2007) states that integrated approach to the language skill is an important requirement to make foreign language teaching a success. "In the teaching of English we wish to train our students to hear and understand English, to speak in the language and to be understood, to read in the language and understand what they read and to write in the language and be understood. These four aims of teaching English correspond to four language skills or language abilities." (Dash & Dash, 2007, p. 35). The language skills are listening, speaking, reading and writing.

2.3.1 Listening

Bolton (2009) defines listening as a combination of hearing what another person says and involving with the person who is talking. In addition, Downs

(2008) describes listening as an activity that may take many different people. The behaviors and tools used by someone in one listening situation may not be the same as those used in another. Housel (2010) in her book "*developing listening skill*" mentions that listening is as crucial as instruction in reading and writing. Listening permeates every facet of school curriculum and the academic environment itself demands that children possess a competent listening skill in order to learn. About youngsters' listening, Vowels (2002) states that listening skills prepare a young child for formal learning. As the child develops his or her abilities to focus, interpret, recall, organize and carry out multiple tasks chronologically, he or she gains confidence and maturity to meet new changes. According to Downs (2008), listening involves a five-step process: attending, understanding, interpreting, responding and remembering. It also, involves various types of listening such as: critical, emphatic, informational and appreciative.

O'Rourke & Collins (2009) agree with Downs and they mention that the listening process has a series of five steps:

1. SENSING, or the physical processing of sounds selected from an environment.
2. INTERPRETING the sounds or assigning meaning to them.
3. EVALUATING the message.
4. RESPONDING.
5. REMEMBERING what it has been heard.

On the other hand, Malgaj (2009) states that there are six steps in the listening process and not five as Downs, O'Rourke & Collins mentioned. Malgaj says that the six basic stages of the listening process are: hearing, attending, understanding,

Remembering, evaluating, and responding.

1. HEARING: It refers to the response caused by sound waves stimulating the sensory receptors of the ear.

2. ATTENTION: The brain screens stimuli and permits only a selected few to come into focus -these selective perceptions are known as attention, an important requirement for effective listening.

3. UNDERSTANDING: To understand symbols we have seen and heard, we must analyze the meaning of the stimuli we have perceived.

4. REMEMBERING: Our attention is selective, so too is our memory - what is remembered may be quite different from what was originally seen or heard.

5. EVALUATING: Beginning this stage of the process before a message is completed requires that we do not longer hear and attend to the incoming message. As a result, the listening process ceases.

6. RESPONDING: This stage requires that the receiver completes the process through verbal and/or nonverbal feedback because the speaker has no other way to determine if a message has been received . This stage becomes the only overt means by which the sender may determine the degree of success in transmitting the message.

These stages are said to occur in sequence, but they are generally performed with little awareness and often rapid succession.

2.3.2 Speaking

According to Goh and Burns (2012), speaking is accepted by everyone as an essential language-communication skill, but its importance to language learners goes beyond just day-to-day. Speaking can facilitate language acquisition and contribute towards the academic development of many second language learners.

"Effective speaking skills are worth more time than it usually receives in classrooms, but there is still the issue of how to teach speaking" (Palmer, 2011). According to Locke (2013), spoken language is the basic form of human communication and the principal method of teaching from the early years through to higher education. Most of what goes on in classrooms depends on talk. Without fluency in spoken language children will never learn as much as at school. Spoken language is critical for:

Communication: Spoken language is perhaps the most basic and certainly the most common form of human communication.

Teaching: Most teaching involves talking, especially in the early years.

Learning: Children also learn by talking, to us and to each other, reformulating what we have told them in their own words.

Literacy: Children need to be fluent in spoken language before they can become fluent in written language.

Thinking: Children need language to think with.

Social and emotional development: Talking is a social skill. Children need to be able to communicate with other people if they are to make friends, join the activities, and learn from them.

Grugeon, Hubbard, Smith & Dawes (2000) in their book "*Teaching Speaking and Listening in the Primary School*" say that speaking and listening are acknowledged as an integral part of learning to read and write and central to the development of literacy. "Speaking is using background and linguistic knowledge to create an oral message that will be meaningful for the intended audience" (Chastain, 1988 in Safont, 2002 p. 51). Arnold & Brown (2005) says that the speaking skill is so central to our thinking about language learning that when we refer to speaking a language, we often mean knowing a language.

"Speaking is also the most difficult language skill to assess reliably. A person's speaking ability is usually judged during a face-to-face interaction, in real time, between an interlocutor and a candidate," (Luoma, 2004, p. ix). Grauberg (1997) states that there are two types of speaking:

Speaking in real life: It takes place in situations necessitating speech. It is a purpose which speakers wish to achieve through speaking. It is the involvement generally of just two people or slightly more in a quickly interaction between the interlocutors.

Speaking in the classroom: It has two functions, one is to learn the language and the other is to use it as people do in real life. The two functions

often overlap: speaking to learn can lead to speaking to communicate, and this consolidates learning.

2.3.3 Reading

Heath (1983, in Aebersold 1997) says that reading is a powerful activity that confers knowledge, insight, and perspective on readers. Those who grow up in homes where reading is seldom seen have a very different view of the value of reading. "Reading is a complex activity, how we approach and read a text depends on a number of factors, including the choice of the text, reading ability, prior knowledge of the subject matter of the text, and the reasons for reading" (Booth, 1998).

Wallace (2003) defines reading as an awareness of the way in which we use language. For reading is above all to do with language. In addition, Romero & Romero (2008) say that anyway: reading involves the use of a code that has to be interpreted for meaning. (Lapp & Flood, 1978 in Romero & Romero, 2008) state that all definitions of reading fall into two categories: first, there are those who view reading primarily as a decoding process, a breaking of visual code. In a second view, reading for meaning is emphasized from the very earliest stages of instruction. In this view, reading as a comprehension process is stressed.

According to Grellet (2006), there are two main reasons for reading: reading for pleasure and reading for information. And also, four ways of reading:

1. Skimming: Quickly running one's eyes over a text to get the gist of it.

2. Scanning: Quickly going through a text to find a particular piece of information.

3. Extensive reading: Reading longer texts, usually for one's own pleasure. This is a fluency activity, mainly involving global understanding.

4. Intensive reading: Reading shorter texts, to extract specific information. This is more an accuracy activity involving reading for detail.

2.3.4 Writing

Pinter (2006) says that writing is a complex skill progressing from the level of copying familiar words and phrases to developing an awareness of text structures, genres, the processes of drafting and editing, and writing for an audience. According to Latham (2002), writing depends upon the use and understanding of speech. The use and understanding of speech depends upon the acquisition of language, and this in turn depends upon early brain development. Motor skills, used in writing, also depend upon brain development, involving the growth of sensori-motor structures and functions leading to hand and eye co-ordination.

Rodgers (2011) state that writing in a most basic definition is a graphic representation of language. In addition, writing does a number of different things such as: describing, expressing, documenting, explaining, analyzing and informing. McKay (2006) says that writing as a process involves the pre-writing,

writing, revising and editing processes that writers go through to produce a piece of writing.

I.S.P Nation (2009) says that English has some writing conventions but not all languages follow the same conventions:

1. Writing goes from left to right (cf. Arabic-right to left, Japanese-top to bottom).

2. The lines of writing come one under the other starting from the top of the page (cf. Japanese).

3. The pages go from front to back (cf. Japanese-back to front).

4. Words are separated by spaces (cf. Thai-no spaces between words).

5. Sentences begin with a capital letter and end with a full stop, question mark, or exclamation mark.

6. Quotation marks are used to signal speech or citation.

7. English has upper case (capital) letters and lower case (small) letters.

The use of capital letters may carry an extra meaning.

8. Sentences are organized into paragraphs.

9. In formal and academic writing there are conventions that need to be learned, such as the use of bold and italics, the use of headings and sub-headings, the use of indentation, the use of footnotes, the use of references and page numbering.

2.3.4.1 EFL Writing

Pinter (2006) about EFL writing says that children depend on their specific language background and the type of writing system in their first language. EFL children may need more or less practice with the mechanical basics of writing. "As EFL writing teachers, the main activities involve conceptualizing, planning, and delivering courses. At first sight, this seems to be mainly an application of practical professional knowledge, gained through hands-on classroom experience." (Hyland, 2009, p.1). In TEFL Educator (2014) is suggested that most EFL students will have some writing skills when you get them and they will often have an idea that their writing is quite good. Unfortunately, it will very often be quite poor.

2.3.4.2 Children writing

Latham (2002) states that when we write or teach our children to write in English, we use the alphabetic system which developed from ancient times through the cultures of the western world. In addition, Grabe & Kaplan (1996) say that children in English-speaking elementary school classrooms fit the characterization of beginning writers. This is true whether the students are learning English writing skills in their first language, in their second language, or in an additional language. For the purpose of general classification, beginning elementary students learning to write would include children in early education.

"As children are sorting out the differences between drawing and writing as separate forms of expressions, they make attempts at writing that look like the writing they see in their environment," (Griffith, Beach, Ruan and Dunn, 2008, page:87). In addition, Browne (1999) says that a certain state of writing children begin to observe and have feedback from other children's writing and they start to separate writing symbols from other written marks like drawings and numbers. She also states that children's writing often contains some letters that are found in their names because they are more familiar to them.

According to Smith (1994 in Dorn and Soffos, 2001), the tension that can occur between the mechanics of recording and composing the message can affect how children see the writing process. "For the beginning writer, the difficult part is finding the right words and phrases to express the ideas in logical and sequential ways while simultaneously dealing with the mechanical limitations of transcribing the message" (Dorn and Soffos,2001 , page, 3).

2.4 Difficulties with writing

"Most students who display writing problems in educational contexts do, in fact, have writing skills; they are just not the skills which educational institutions value" (Barton and Ivanic, 1991; Street 1993, in Grabe and Kaplan, 1996).

In the same way Butler and Silliman (2001), say that the writing problems of children with language learning disabilities are not transitory difficulties that

disappear quickly or easily. Also they have some recommendations for forging this road based on the next six principles:

1. Provide exemplary writing instruction;
2. Tailor writing instruction to meet the individual needs of children who experience difficulty in learning to write;
3. Intervene early, providing a coherent and sustained effort to improve the writing skills of children who experience writing difficulties;
4. Expect that each child will learn to write;
5. Identify and address academic and non-academic roadblocks to writing and school success; and
6. Employ technological tools that improve writing performance.

Problems with writing are also considered into learning disabilities and/or learning difficulties. According to Harinath (2007), learning difficulties can be caused by many factors and in various combinations. The most common factors include:

1. Biological factors: For all type of learning disabilities boys outnumber girls by about three to one. This suggests that genes carried on the X-chromosome may play a part in many cases. Boys have only one X-chromosome from their mothers and Y-chromosome from the fathers. Girls have two X-chromosomes. If a boy inherits an X-chromosome with a small defect, that can cause learning disabilities. Learning disabilities are common with certain

genetic syndromes such as: neurological abnormalities like alzheimer's disease, cerebral palsy, Down's syndrome, epilepsy and multiple sclerosis.

2. Socio-economic and cultural factors: Society and culture influence a lot of dyslexics. Most difficulties of children contribute to a variety of family problems other than divorce and separation such as stress, disruption of household routines, budget parenting sibling and relationships with relatives. The socio economic status of the family also contributes to a lot of the difficulties of children.

3. Environmental factors: Children spend most of their time in school and at home. These environments naturally contribute to the growth of the children. The way children are reared has contributed to a lot for the development of learning disabilities in children. It is true that some children can exhibit behavioral problems, which are a reflection of stress or difficulties outside school. Learning environment directly contributes a lot of disruptive and apparent social maladjustment. Large classes, seating arrangements in the classes also contribute for the difficulties in learning.

2.4.1 Dyslexia

Marshall (2009) defines dyslexia as a learning disability that primarily affects a child's ability to learn to read and develop a strong understanding of language. It is more than just a problem with reading. The child may also have difficulties with oral communication, organizational skills, following instructions,

and telling the time. Additionally, there are some more definitions about what dyslexia is Hull (2004), presents two definitions:

"Dyslexia is present when the authorization of word identification (reading) and/or word spelling does not develop or does so very incompletely or with great difficulty" (Health council of the Netherlands, 1997, in Hull learning services, 2004)

"Dyslexia causes difficulties in learning to read, write and spell. Shortterm memory, mathematics, concentration, personal organization and sequencing may also be affected" (Dyslexia institute September 2002, in Hull learning services, 2004)

Burden (2002, in Reid, 2013) suggests that dyslexia is a convenience term because it can embrace a number of different types of difficulties and, therefore, the term dyslexia in itself is not helpful. According to Hull learning services (2004) dyslexia can be subdivided into:

Developmental dyslexia: something you are born with.

Acquired dyslexia: following an injury to the brain, e.g. via an accident or stroke.

In addition, in the web site ladislexia.net are mention some principal factor that dyslexic children between 6 to 9 years old usually show. Some of these factors are:

Mirror writing: The letters and numbers are written in reversal form.

Segmentation errors: The words are written together without spacing or are separate, for example: The child had a sw ord.

Confusing of consonants: Consonants are written in reversal or are confused by a similar consonant.

Mixed letters: Lower and capital letters are mixed in a same sentence.

2.4.2 Dysgraphia

In "Acquired dyslexia and dysgraphia across scripts" by Raman and Weekes (2005), difficulties with writing can be classified into several different patterns. This includes surface dysgraphia which refers to poor spelling of irregularly spelled words. Dysgraphic patients make semantic errors when writing to dictation and they cannot write nonwords. Extent reports of deep dysgraphia come from languages with relatively opaque orthographies.

In addition, CM, Engelsman and Van Galen (1997) state that the common feature of dysgraphic children is that even with the proper amount of instruction and practice, they fail to make sufficient progress in the acquisition of the fine motor task and handwriting. The most frequent complaint about their writing is that they are not capable of producing a good quality script.

2.4.3 Dysortographia

"Dysorthographia is the learning disability associated with spelling" (Akron's Children's Hospital, 2003; Pierangelo & Giuliani, 2006, in Pierangelo & Giuliani, 2008, p.46). Harinath (2007) argues that dysorthographia is a spelling

difficulty that is very closely associated with the writing skill. It is part of dysgraphia but it could be dealt with as an individual difficulty. They said that diagnostic symptoms of dysorthographia include the following:

1. Addition of unneeded letters
2. Omission of needed letters
3. Reversals of vowels
4. Reversals of syllables
5. Phonemic spelling of non-phonemic words
6. Difficulty in understanding the correspondence between sounds and letters.

Thomson (1995, in Westwood 2008) says that dysorthographia is a specific disability related to spelling. It is argue that their problems stems from lack of ability in segmenting spoken words into separate sounds. "Dysorthographic students also appear to be particularly intensitive to the way in which clusters of letter representing pronounceable sub -units within words occur consistently across a number of different words". (Westwood, 2008, p. 67).

2.5 How to introduce writing to children

Talking about children writing, Pinter (2006) adds that when writing is introduced to children, it depends on many factors such as the age of the children, the level of their exposure to English as a second language and their first language background. The products of writing are numerous, and, in many

forms, determined by different purposes and audiences and contexts for writing; for example, the illustrated sentences, letters, narratives and shared books that children produce in the classroom.

"Writing is a complex skill progressing from the level of copying familiar words and phrases to develop into an awareness of text structures, genres, the process of drafting and editing, and writing for an audience" (Pinter, 2006, p. 74). To this, Mayesky (2009) states that writing begins when the children are interested in making their own marks and it continuous to be part of their everyday experiences. Also, she adds that when a child shows an interest about writing, large pieces of paper are made available along with crayons, felt-tip pens and pencils.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) state that in beginning to write the students need confidence to feel they can do what is being asked to them. They also say that students need guidance as they carry out a given writing task.

2.5.1 Writing activities

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) regarding writing activities suggest that they depend on the children specific language background and the type of writing system in their first language. EFL children may need more or less practice with the mechanical basics of writing. "Children can begin to see that we write differently depending on who we are writing for" (Pinter, 2006, p. 77).

According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996) there are a lot of enjoyable and interesting activities that are useful for the development of writing skill. They also

say that students should be encouraged to feel that writing is an important and effective means of self-expressions, communication and information gathering. About writing activities, Pinter (2006), says that the introduction of many written genres will further enhance children's appreciation of different audiences.

Some writing items that are mentioned by Pinter are: copying, filling in captions, scripts, shopping lists, recipes, puzzles, own stories, writing lists of new words, dialogues or short dialogues and simple diaries. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) mentioned five principles that provide a way to explore various aspects of writing instructions. The five principles are:

1. Preparing students for writing: It has five themes about preparing students for writing and making students aware that writing is a means of communication. These themes include: Using print in the classroom, writing daily, promoting discussion prior to writing, taping student's interest and providing reasons for writing.

2. Assisting and guiding writing: It centres on supporting students as they carry out writing tasks in the classroom.

3. Working with writing: It proposes basic activities for working with beginning writers and they provide ways to get students to generate texts. Six themes are presented in these basic writing activities: using big books and language experiences activities, generating word lists, working with phrases and sentences, copying and dictation, working with poems and working with pictures.

4. Writing for different purposes (genres): For beginning students, it is reasonable that they expect that they learn how to tell a story, write simple

letters, provide descriptions, describe procedural sequence of events, keep records and write reports. Four themes address these basic types: telling stories, writing letters, providing descriptions, direction and procedures and finally keeping records and writing reports.

5. Extending the written curriculum: It suggests ways to enhance the writing environment and assist students in carrying out writing tasks. There are five themes appropriate for these purposes: using a dialogue journal, publishing complete work, establishing a writing corner, including extensive reading and providing early access to word processing.

Genesse and Hamayan (1996) mention some activities that can be focused on writing too. For example, students journals, students portfolios and checklists. This last can be devised on a specific kind of language skill for example writing. These activities also are used by teachers to assess student's achievement through different methods of assessment such as the mentioned activities.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides specific information about the subjects of study for this research such as names, ages, English level, the instrument used and the procedure of the methodology used in this chapter. This research was carry out by collected data through a short survey and a checklist. The samples were collected from a public elementary school in Puebla City.

3.1 Subjects

The subjects of this investigation were 12 children between 7 to 9 years old of third grade (A, B, C) from a public elementary school located in Puebla City. There were three groups of this level in the school, group A with 32 students, group B with 33 students and the last group C, with 30 students. The students are learning basic level of English.

At first, some classes were observed to identify if the children presented some problems with writing in English and to check the development of the students during the English classes according to the teacher's activity. The classroom observations were in different days in the three groups (A, B, C). The time of each observation was of 1 hour during the normal schedule of the students. Finally, three children from each group were chosen to answer the instrument by their English teacher at random.

3.2 Instruments

For this investigation, there were two instruments. One of these was for students and the other one was designed for their English teacher. The first instrument of this research was a checklist for students. It was adapted from a checklist for evaluating the use of writing conventions (Genishi and Dyson, 1987 in Genesse and Hamayan, 1996). The checklist consisted of three open questions related to the vocabulary applied during the classroom observations and a chart with six statements in which children had to mark their answer according to their feeling about English writing. This instrument was in Spanish for the students. See appendix "A"

For the second instrument, the English teacher had to answer a short survey based and adapted from a checklist for "evaluating the use of writing conventions" (Genishi and Dyson, 1987 in Genesse and Hamayan, 1996) taking into account the content of the students checklist. See appendix "B". In this short survey, the teacher had to mark the problem he observed in his students and mentioned what he considered could be the cause. They also, answered about the number of students and what kind of problems the students had at home or at school.

3.3 Procedure

On the day before of the last class observation, the instrument was applied. The English teacher chose randomly three students from the different classrooms (A, B, C) .After that the nine students were given the instruction to

read carefully and answer with a pencil. The students started to answer the checklist. The checklist was designed in Spanish for a better comprehension of the children.

In the first part of the checklist, the students had to answer three open questions about vocabulary (colors, zoo animals and greetings). For the second part, a chart with six statements about the English classes was presented for example: "Es difícil copiar del pizarrón" or "Es Inglés difícil porque no entiendo". The student had to answer by drawing a tick below one of the three answers represented by symbols (Yes, No, Sometimes).

The survey for the English teacher was designed in English. He had to answer three surveys. One for each group (A, B, C) because there is not any other English teacher teaching these groups. The instrument for this teacher was applied at the same time as the student's checklist. The survey has two parts. In the first part, the teacher had to answer sample questions as: the number of their students and two questions about what the possible problems their students present and say why.

In the second part of the survey, a chart adapted from a checklist for "evaluating the use of writing conventions" (Genishi and Dyson, 1987 in Genesse and Hamayan, 1996) is presented. The teacher had to write the name of the student he considered had problems and mark the problem he can notice with a tick, for example, lack of use of capital letters, confusing letters, missing letters and identifying according to the teacher if the students could have dyslexia or dysgraphia. Before answering the chart, were brief definitions of

what dysgraphia and dyslexia are in order to help the teacher understand better and answer according to what he knew about their students.

3.4 Data analysis

In order to facilitate the interpretation of the results obtained were designed some tables and graphs using excel. The number of students that presented problems with writing and the type of problems or learning disabilities were indicating. The checklist was revised and compared with the others to find out what the principal problems with writing that the students presented were. The study of the problems with writing were analyzed according to Harinath (2007), Buttler and Silliman (2001), Marshall (2009), Hull (2004), Burden in Reid (2002), Raman and Weekes (2005), CM, Engelsman and Van Galen (1997), Thomson in Westwood (1995), Pinter, (2006), Mayesky (2009) and Grabe and Kaplan (1996).

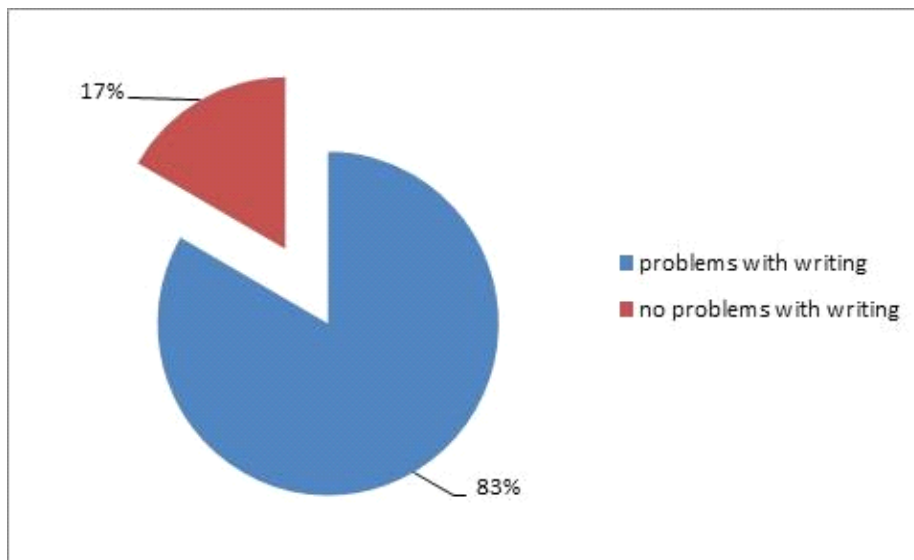
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

In this chapter, the results obtained from the checklist applied to twelve children from a public primary school in Puebla City are presented. The results of such analysis are presented by graphs indicating the type of problem and learning disability. The principal problems with writing that the students presented were determined by contrasting each child's way to write with the concepts the authors suggested.

4.1 Results related to problems with the children's writing

In this part, the results of the survey applied to twelve children in a public elementary are presented and described in order to try to determine the number of students that had problems with writing.

Figure 1: Percentage of children that presented problems with writing



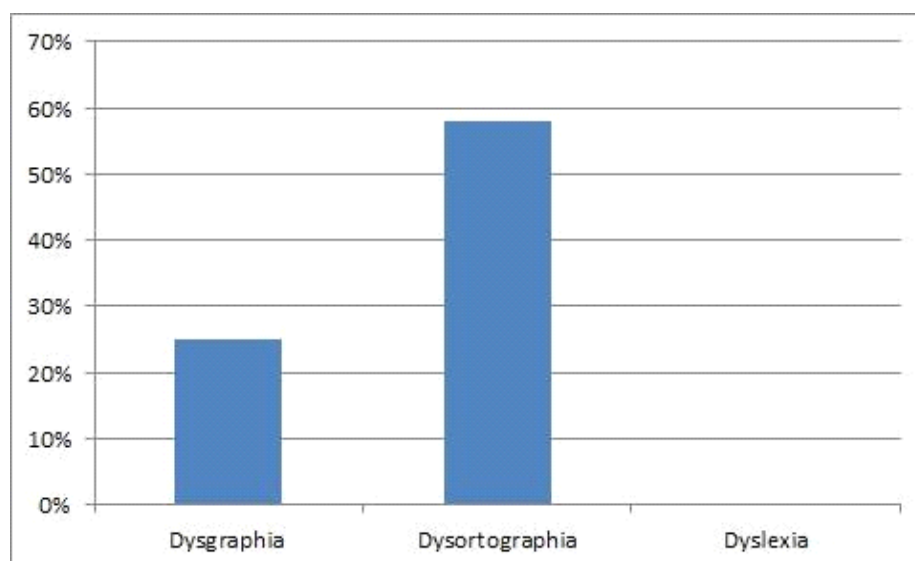
As it can be seen, in Figure.1, most of the students that are learning English as a foreign language in a basic level presented problems with writing. The results suggested that these children had learning difficulties and according

to Harinath (2007) these difficulties can be caused by many factors such as: biological factors, socio-economic and cultural factors and environmental factors. However, there are some types of difficulties with learning better known as learning disabilities.

Butler and Silliman (2001) say that learning disabilities are not transitory difficulties that disappear quickly or easily. Once the division between students with problems and those without problems was established the analysis focuses on the children that presented conflicts with writing. Consequently, the 10 students that represented the 83% of the total number of children became our universe for study. That is, these 10 students were taken as 100%.

The results of what type of learning disability the ten children presented are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Percentage of the type of learning disability the twelve children presented

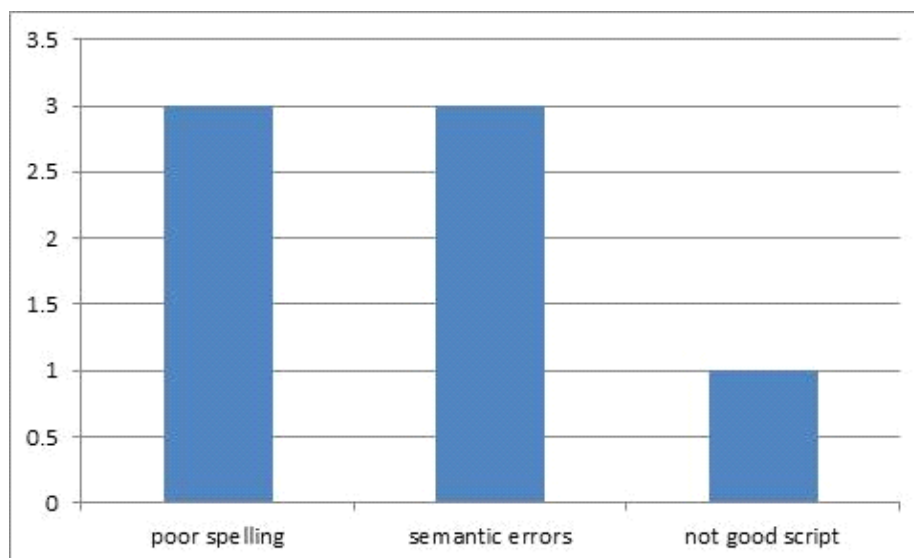


The children's writing was analyzed and compared with the symptoms of each learning disability as described and suggested by the authors. Figure 2 shows that most of students presented dysorthographia and 30% of them presented dysgraphia. No children presented enough symptoms to declare dyslexia.

4.2 Results of children's learning disabilities through their symptoms

In this section, the results of the learning disabilities shown by the ten children are presented and explained. The learning disability of each child was diagnosed taking into account each symptom showed in their writing and according to the descriptions given by the authors. The results are shown below in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Number of students with Symptoms related to Dysgraphia

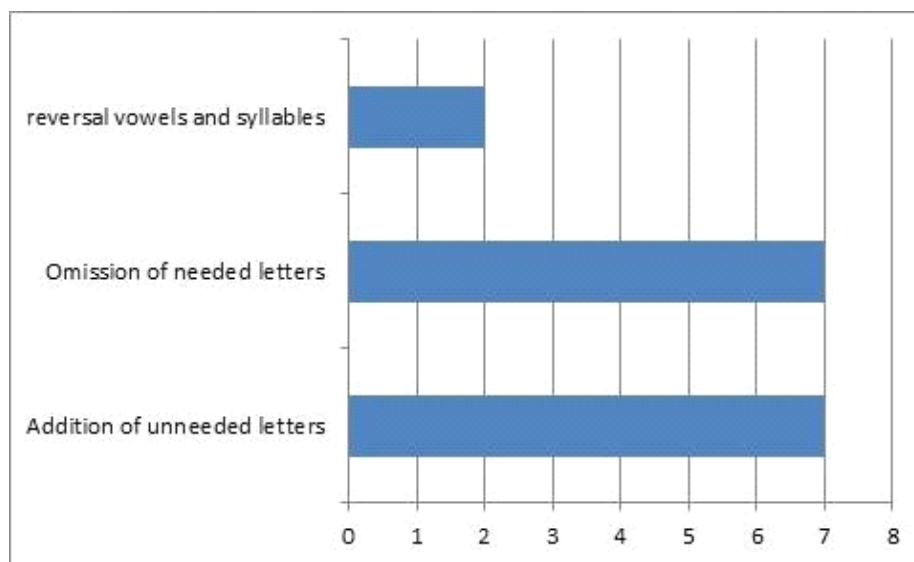


As shown in Figure 3, the students that presented dysgraphia showed more than one symptom. These symptoms were studied by Raman and Weekes

(2005) who say that these difficulties can be classified into several patterns and two principal characteristics of these are presented in children with dysgraphia. The symptoms presented in children were: poor spelling, such as irregularly spelled words and some semantic errors usually presented in dictation. Another symptom presented by the children with dysgraphia, is poor quality of script. According to CM, Engelsman and Van Galen (1997), dysgraphic children fail to make enough progress in the acquisition of a fine motor task and the most frequent complaint about writing is that they are not capable of producing a script of good quality.

Finally the rest of the students that showed another learning disability are shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Number of students with Symptoms related to Dysorthographia



As the figure shows, most of the ten children presented a high percentage of dysorthographia. The seven students that presented dysorthographia showed

more than one symptom. Harinath (2007) says that dysorthographia is a spelling difficulty associated with the writing skill. The symptoms presented in the graph are related to dysorthographia according to Pierangelo and Giuliani (2009). The symptoms are: addition of unneeded letters, omission of needed letters and reversals of vowels and syllables.

Two children out of the seven that were considered as dysortographics children, also presented dysortographic symptoms. In other words, they also showed few symptoms of dyslexia, but not enough so they could not be diagnosed as dyslexic children. The symptoms that both children showed were mixed letters and error with a sequence.

All in all, it can be said that in these group writing in English was in conflict, however it was not due to the English language itself, but to other psychological aspect that played an important role in the process of learning of this small group of young learners.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Conclusions

The purpose of the present paper was to find and determine the types of problems that are presented in young learners and how these problems can influence on students' writing. The research was carried out by considering 7-9-years-old children learning English as a foreign language in a public elementary school in Puebla City.

For this purpose, some different English classes were analyzed and observed. At the end of the observations, four children from three different groups were chosen at random to answer a checklist and use the vocabulary they had learned in their English class. At the same time, their teacher answered a short survey in which he had to write the students' name that he had observed had problems with writing and what he thought the reasons for them were. Finally, the writing of the vocabulary used by the twelve children was further analyzed and classified. These results were also classified into three difficulties known as learning disabilities that could cause these problems with writing.

From the analysis performed and the results obtained, it can be said that the problems with writing that are present in young learners can be caused not only by their English language, but they can also be caused by some psychological aspects. Which means that psychological aspects have a strong influence on the students' learning.

Also, at the moment of analyzing the information contained in the survey that was applied to the English teacher, it could be noticed that the students he

had named as students with problems with writing were not the same that were listed in the students' checklist. With this, it can be said that the teacher did not know about the development of all his students' learning. This indicates that most teachers may not totally concerned about their students' learning or may not be qualified to respond and find ways to overcome their students' learning problems.

5.2 Implications

To obtain more results it is recommendable to analyze and study more than three groups of children in different grades and age during a longer period of time, and not only for two or three weeks. It is also suggested that the analysis can be done in different schools and not only one or two. For better results, the research can be done by making a contrast between a public and private school.

Finally, the use of more complete surveys or tests according to the problems with writing or learning disabilities can be used for better results too. The use of surveys, checklists or tests are for a better data collection and to compare results among students from different ages, grades and school.

5.3 Limitations of the study

The results obtained were limited by a number of factors. One of them was that in the school where the research was made, the groups were numerous and most students in third grade presented a kind of personal problem. For example, some of them lived apart from their mother or father; some others had to undergo psychological therapy; and some others go to institutions that help them to try to overcome their learning problems.

In addition, the time of the observations was not enough. The classes were supposed to last for about 50 minutes, but in the most of the observations the children had to practice for their December's festival and their English classes were reduced to 15 or 20 minutes. The observations were supposed to be made two days a week from 8:00 to 1:00, but in some days the teacher did not get punctual to his first classes, so the time allowed for the observation in the first classes was only of about 30 minutes.

Finally, another complication in this research was that the children did not attend school constantly. Some children did not attend school because they had got late or they were sick. And occasionally, during the observations, some children had to leave the English class because of their bad behavior.

It is hoped that the results of this research will be useful for the majority of English teachers that are teaching at early stages in elementary schools.

REFERENCES

- Aebersold, J. (1997). *From reader to reading teacher: Issues and strategies for second language*. U.S.A: Cambridge University Press.
- Angeli, C. (2009). *Language development and disorders: A case of study approach*. U.S.A: Jones and Barlett publishers, LLC.
- Arnold, J. and Brown, D. (2005). *Listening skills training*. India: Discovery publishing house.
- Beach, S. and Griffith, P. (2008). *Literacy for young children: A guide for early childhood educators*. California: Corwin Press.
- Berman, R. (2004). *Language development across childhood and adolescence*. Netherland: John Benjamins B.V Publishing.
- Bolton, R. (2009). *People skills*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc.
- Booth, D. (1998). *Guiding the reading process: Techniques and strategies for successful in k-8 classroom*. Canada: Pembroke Publishers.
- Burns, A. and Goh, C. (2012). *Teaching speaking: A holistic approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Boysson-Bardies, B. (2001). *How language comes children: From birth to two years*. U.S.A: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Bloom, L. (1993). *Language development from two to three*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Browne, A. (1999). *Teaching writing: Key stage 1 and before*. United Kingdom: Stanley Thornes (Rb) Ltd.
- Butler, K. and Silliman, E. (2001). *Speaking reading and writing in children with language learning disabilities*. U.S.A: Psychology Press.
- C.M, B; Engelsman, S; and Van Galen, G. (1997). *Dysgraphia in children: Lasting psychomotor deficiency or transient developmental delay*. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 67, 164.
- Chitester, D. (2008). *Language development in the young second language learner of English*. U.S.A: Instant Publisher.

- Collins, S. and O'Rourke, J. (2009). Module 5 interpersonal communication listening and response. U.S.A:
- Dash, M; and Dash N. (2007). *Teaching English as an additional language*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers and Distributors (P) Ltd.
- Dawes, L.; Hubbard, L.; Grugeon, E.; and Smith, C. (2000). *Teaching speaking and listening in the primary school*. Great Britain: David Fulton Publishers.
- DiYanni, R; and Jen, T. (2003). *Integrated English*. China:
- Dorn, L. and Soffos, C. (2001). *Scaffolding young writers: A writer's workshop approach*. U.S.A: Stenhouse Publishers.
- Downs, L. (2008). *Listening skills training*. U.S.A: ASTD Press.
- Evans, S; and Keenan, T. (2009). *An introduction to child development*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Freppon, P. (1999). *Case studies of the writing and thinking of three African American second graders in a whole language classroom*. University of Cincinnati: Literacy teaching and learning, vol. 4, no. 2.
- Ferris, D. (2013). *Treatment of error in second language students writing*. U.S.A: University of Michigan Press.
- Friederici, A: and Thierry, G. (2008). *Early language development: Bridging brain and behaviour*. Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Co.
- Friederici, A; and Oberecker, R. (2008). *Early language development: Bridging brain and behaviour. Chapter nine: The development of syntactic brain correlates during the first years of life*. Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Co.
- Genesee, F. (2004). *Educating second language children*. U.S.A: Cambridge University Press.
- Giullani, G; and Pierangelo, R. (2008). *Teaching students with learning disabilities: A step-by-step guide for educator*. California: Corwin Press.
- Grabe, W; and Kaplan, R. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing*. London: Longman.
- Grauberg, W. (1997). *The elements of foreign language teaching*. Great Britain: WCB Book Manufactures Ltd.
- Grellet, F. (2006). *Developing reading skills: A practical guide to reading comprehension exercises*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

- Griffiths, C. (2004). *Language learning strategies: Theory and research*. New Zealand: AIS st Helens Centre for Research in International Education.
- Harinath, P.K (2007). *Learning disabilities in English*. India: Discovery Publishing House.
- Harris, R. (1996). *Signs, language and communication*. London: Routledge.
- Hoff, E. (2014). *Language development*. U.S.A: Wodsworth Cerigage Learning.
- Housel, D. J. (2010). *Developing listening skills*. U.S.A: Publisher Mary D. Smith M.S.Ed. Teacher Created Resources Inc.
- Hull, Learning Services. (2004). *Supporting children with dyslexia*. Great Britain: David Fulton Publishers Ltd.
- Hyland, K. (2009). *Second language writing*. U.S.A: Jack Ridchards
- I.S.P Nation (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL reading and writing*. United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Jardine, D.W. (2006). *Piaget and education*. New York: Peter Lang Publisging, Inc.
- La Dislexia (2012). <http://www.ladislexia.net/detectar-entre-6-9-anos/>
- Latham, D. (2002). *How children learn to write: Supporting and developing children's writing*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Locke, A. (2013). *Teaching speaking and listening: One step at a time*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing Pic.
- Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Malgaj, L. (2009). <http://www.articlesfactory.com/articles/communication/stages-of-the-listening-process-explained.html>.
- Marshall, A. (2009). *When your child has dyslexia*. Canada: Adams Media, a division of Ftw Media Inc.
- Mayesky, M. (2012). *Creative activities for young children*. U.S.A: Cengage Learning.
- Mckay, P. (2006). *Assessing Young language learners*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

- Melgarejo, D.A. (2010). *Assessing children's perceptions of writing in EFL base d on the process approach*. Bogota: Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal vol. 12, no. 1.
- Mukalel, J.C. (2007). *Approaches to English language teaching*. India: Discovery Publishing House.
- Nordquist, R. (2014). <http://grammar.about.com/od/e/g/English-As-A-Foreign-Language-Efl.htm>
- O'grady, W.D. (2005). *How children learn language*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford, R. L. (2003). *Learning styles and strategies*. New York: Routledge.
- Palmer, E. (2011). *Well spoken: Teaching speaking to all students*. U.S.A: Stenhouse Publishers.
- Pinter, A. (2006). *Teaching young language learners*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Raman, I; and Weekes, B.S. (2005). Acquired dyslexia and dysgraphia across scripts. China: Behavioural Neurology vol. 16, no. 2,3.
- Reid, G. (2013). *Dyslexia and inclusion (Classroom approaches for assessment, teaching and learning)*. U.S.A: Routledge.
- Rodgers, J. (2011). What is writing? Mimeograph.
- Romero, A. D; and Romero, R.C. (2008). *Developmental reading (a skill text for college students)*. Quezon: Rex Printing Company Inc.
- Safont, P. (2002). *Oral skills: Resources and proposals for the classroom*. Castello: University Jaume.
- Scott, W; and Ytreberg, L. (1990). *Teaching English to children*. London: Longman.
- TEFL Educators. (2014). <http://teflbootcamp.com/teaching-skills/teaching-efl-writing/>
- Vowels, T. (2002). *Listening skills for young children*. U.S.A: Teacher Created Resources Inc.
- Wallace, C. (2003). *Reading*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Weng, P.S. 82012). *The effect of learning styles on learning strategies use by EFL learners*. Science Publications, Journal of science 8 (2).

Westwood, P. (2008). *What teachers need to know about reading and writing difficulties*. Australia: ACER Press.

APPENDIX "A": CHECKLIST APPLIED TO CHILDREN

Nombre: _____

Edad: _____ Grado: _____

I. Por favor, responde de acuerdo a las siguientes indicaciones:

1. Escribe el nombre de tres animales del zoológico en Inglés:

2. Escribe tres saludos en Inglés:

3. Escribe tres colores en Inglés:

II. Por favor dibuja una palomita debajo de la columna correspondiente



= SI



= NO



= AVECES

Quando escribo en Inglés...			
Utilizo letra mayúscula al inicio de mis oraciones			
Utilizo punto final			
Uso comas cuando hay series			
Me cuesta trabajo copiar del pizarrón y de mi libro			
Me cuesta trabajo seguir una orden			
Me cuesta trabajo porque tengo poco vocabulario			

APPENDIX “B”: CHECKLIST APPLIED TO THE ENGLISH TEACHER

Number of students: _____

Level: _____

I. Please, Answer the following:

1. Do all your students have problems with writing?

2. For you, what are the possible causes that provoke those problems?

II. Write the name of your students you consider have problems with writing and draw a tick to indicate the possible problems. Please answer taking into account the following definitions:

- **Dysgraphia:** Is it the pseudo- clinical term used to describe a specific disability in writing that is more severe, and more resistant to remediation than the general difficulties encountered by other weak writers.
- **Dyslexia:** Is it the learning disability that primarily affects the child's ability to learn to read and develop a strong understanding of language

Student	Begins sentence with capital	End sentence with period	Use commas in list	Wrong copy from book or blackboard	Problems with sequencing	Poor vocabulary	Dysgraphia	Dyslexia