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Faculty of Letters and Languages

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The Impact of Metacognitive Strategy-based Instruction on Students' Writing Performance

Case Study: of First-year EFL Students,

Teachers Training School, El Katiba Assia Djebbar, Constantine

A Thesis submitted to the Department of Arts and the English language in candidacy for the degree of doctorat 'és-sciences' in Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching.

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2022-2023

Dedication

This work is dedicated

To my late father, who did not live enough to see me stand where I am today.

To my beloved mother, who has been the source of inspiration and strength.

To my beloved husband "Abd Elkrim" and my children: "Chahine, Ritadj, Chahd, and Roua."

You have been a constant source of love, concern, support, and strength all these years.

To   my beloved sister, Amina, my brother-in-law Boubaker, and my lovely nieces and nephew,

Nahla, Djouri, and Ghazi Abd Errahmaan.

To my best friend Saliha and her lovely family.

To all my relatives, friends, colleagues, and students.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

This study investigates the impact of strategy-based instruction (SBI) in metacognitive pre-writing strategies on developing first-year English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' writing performance, mainly improving their ability to construct unified and well-organized paragraphs with correct and original topic sentences. For this, it was hypothesised that first-year EFL students at the Ecole Normale Supérieure of Constantine (ENSC) would achieve better writing performance after being explicitly taught and trained to implement effective metacognitive learning strategies. Moreover, if the pre-writing strategies were integrated into everyday class materials and explicitly embedded into the writing tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice within the Writing Course content, students would be able to produce well-written English paragraphs. To check the hypothesis, quantitative as well as qualitative data were gatherd using a diversity of research tools pertaining to different research paradigms. First of all, a preliminary questionnaire was administred in the pre-experimental stage where experienced teachers of writing at the department of English at ENSC were asked to report their attitudes about the effectiveness of training students to use metacognitive pre-writing strategies in developing their writing skills. Besides, an experimental design was set based on the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) model developed by Chamot et al. (1999), which prioritizes curriculum content, academic language development with a focus on literacy, and explicit learning strategies. The sample for the experiment, which consists of two groups of freshmen at the department of English at the ENSC was randomly chosen from the wider population of first-year students at the same pedagogical institution during the academic year 2017- 2018 and represents the fifth of the targeted population. The sample individuals took part in an experiment which lasted nine weeks wherein the intervention group was instructed on how to use the metacognitive pre-writing strategies at two distinct levels planning and outlining. The instruction was embedded within the First-year Writing Course content. The third investigation tool, a qualitative one, consists of a key-informant semi-structured interview with outliers in the post-test wherein they were invited to think aloud and verbalize the cognitive processes they undertook when planning their writing. The data analysis collected indicated that SBI in pre-writing strategies improves students' writing performance and confirmed the aformenshioned hypothesis. Furthermore, the thematic analysis of the qualitative data revealed that SBI raised participants' strategies awareness, fostered their self-confidence and motivativaion, and reduced the level of their anxiety.

List of Abreviations

BAC: Baccalaureate Exam

CALLA: Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

CBA: The Competency-based Approach

CD: Cognitive Description

CE : Cognitive Extension

CI : Confidence Interval

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

ELL: English-language Learning

FL: Foreign Language

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LLS: Language Learning Strategies

LSC: Learning Strategies Cycle

LSBI: Learning Strategy-based Instruction

LSU: Language Strategies Use Inventory

M: Mean

MT: Metacognitive Thinking

NAEP: National Assessment of Educational Progress

OWP: Overall Writing Performance

R*:* Correlation Coefficient

RT: Reading Techniques

SBI: Strategy-based Instruction

SD: Supporting Details

SD: Standard Deviation

SILL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

SL: Speaking and Listening

SRC: Self-regulatory Capacity

TA: Thematic Analysis

TS: Topic Sentence

UID: Unity and Ideas Development

4B4: Bac + 4

5B5: Bac + 5

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General Introduction

General Introduction

1. Background of the Research

Language learning and teaching is an important field of research and investigation that has seen constant changes in approaches and methods backed by diverse thinking directions. The emergence of cognitive psychology and its implications in the field of language teaching has created a new vision of teaching and assigned new roles to teachers and learners. The latter gave up their passive roles of knowledge receivers and embraced new roles, those of autonomous active knowledge seekers responsible for taking charge of their learning. Accordingly, they need to be armed with different learning strategies to boost their learning and make the learning "easier, more enjoyable, and transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

However, learners, most of the time, fail to rely on themselves to learn alone and constantly seek their teachers' help and guidance when learning the four skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The latter is depicted by most researchers, teachers, and students as the most challenging skill to master as it requires the orchestration of cognitive and metacognitive skills and strategies together with a good mastery of linguistic skills, which is most of the time a far-fetched target to reach. Conversely, learners could prove their success in some subjects requiring their cognitive skills to be applied and hold good communicative and linguistic competence. This leads us to think that the lack of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive awareness lay as a stone onto which learners stumble. So, learners do not master metacognitive pre-writing strategies; that's why they are they are unable to produce compositions reflecting an acceptable level of writing proficiency. The development of metacognitive strategies by learners is essential to their learning because it leads to greater

independence and self-regulation, which builds a foundation for efficient and lifelong learning. (Veenman, Kok, & Blo¨ te, 2005)

Nevertheless, this would not be realised unless students are explicitly exposed to strategies-based instruction in the pre-writing strategies. Accordingly, the present research study provides a strategies-based instruction course in pre-writing strategies based on the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) model developed by Chamot et al. in 1990. It is a curriculum-based model that highly prioritizes curriculum content, academic language development, and explicit learning strategies to develop student's writing skills and help them acquire a better writing proficiency.

2. Statement of the Problem

The department of English at the Ecole Normale Supéieure of Constantine (ENSC), which is an Algerian national institution, prepares middle school (4B4), and secondary school (5B5) teachers offering learners a good level of instruction in both language and content modules. As far as the writing skill is concerned, the course content offers a weekly schedule of four hours and a half in the first and second years, whereas in the third year, the schedule is reduced to three hours per week. Throughout these three years, students learn all types of paragraphs and compositions, phrases, sentences, clauses, sentence problems, etc. After this bulk of instruction, ENSC students are supposed to master their writing skills and be able to express themselves in writing to convey all types of messages.

However, this is not the case, as there is a constant complaint among writing teachers, dissertation supervisors and evaluators about students' poor writing that lacks the most straightforward rhetorical rules. This leads us to ask many questions about what contributed to this negative pedagogical situation. What are the main reasons behind this, and how can we

intervene as teachers and researchers to ameliorate this situation and improve students' writing proficiency levels?

3. Aims of the Research

There has been little research on the relationship between pre-writing strategies and the learners' writing proficiency in the Algerian educational context. This study is conducted to demonstrate the impact of the metacognitive learning strategies on students' overall writing performance with a particular emphasis on three writing traits, Unity and Idea Development, Topic Sentence, and Paragraph Organisation. First, metacognitive strategies would help learners to plan and outline their writing and, thus, make the subsequent phases easier. Second, by planning their writing, learners would develop metacognitive knowledge and raise metacognitive awareness about the learning strategies and their usefulness in making the learning journey enjoyable inside and outside the classroom.

4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The researcher aims to answer the following research questions in the present study.

- **Q1.** How do teachers perceive the importance of the pre-writing strategies with regard to the writing activity?

- **Q2.** To what extent would training students to use planning strategies improve their writing proficiency?

- **Q3.** What is the impact of exposing first-year students to strategy-based instruction on their overall writing performance?

- **Q4.** What is the effect of exposing first-year students to strategies-based instruction on their written paragraphs in terms of unity and ideas development?

- **Q5.** What is the impact of exposing first-year students to strategies-based instruction on creating well-structured topic sentences?

- **Q6.** How can SBI be helpful to students in the organisation of their paragraphs?

- **Q7**. What are the cognitive processes expert writers go through to achieve a good English paragraph?

- **Q 8.** What are the significant gains students could have from participating in the SBI workshop?

The need to answer the above-stated questions led the researcher to formulate the following hypotheses.

➢ The General Hypothesis

If first-year ENSC. Students were explicitly taught metacognitive pre-writing strategies integrated into the writing course content and embedded within the regular teaching material, their level of the overall writing performance would be improved.

➢ Hypothesis 1

If ENSC. students were taught pre-writing strategies and trained on how and when to use them, they would be able to write unified paragraphs.

➢ Hypothesis 2

If ENSC. teachers organized strategies-training workshops in using pre-writing strategies for their students, the latter would be able to produce English paragraphs with well-stated and original topic sentences.

➢ Hypothesis 3

If pre-writing strategies were taught at two distinct levels, namely planning and outlining, students would be able to write different types of paragraphs with well-organized and logically ordered supporting details.

5. Research Tools and Methodology

To check the hypotheses, the researcher adopted the triangulation strategy in mixed methods research. As such, data collected from the quantitative research paradigm was triangulated with that elicited from a qualitative research paradigm to enhance the validity and the credibility of the research findings and answer the research questions. The present research is structured in three steps research design: Exploration, intervention, and reflection. It follows, then, that data was gathered using different research tools reflecting both the quantitative and the qualitative research paradigms. As such, the three first research questions were answered utilizing a questionnaire administred to English teachers at the department of English at ENSC.

Besides, the other tools are a pre-test and a post-test to concretise and compare the experiment's results. Shortly after the post-test's administration, three participants were selected from the experimental group on the basis of their statistically significant improvement in the post-test to take part in a semi-structured interview to answer the last two research questions and validate the research findings.

6. Population and Sampling

To carry out the present investigation, the researcher relied on three data-gathering instruments to elicit data from a particular population. However, as gathering data from the targeted population would not be easy to realize either in terms of time or effort, sampling is an easier way to collect data. So, a representative sample would be helpful in this case.

The research paradigms by which the present research is backed require the engagement of two distinct representative sample groups. The first comes from the vast population of students at ENSC, the second from teachers at the department of English at the same educational institution. Accordingly, two first-year groups were randomly chosen to participate in the experimental design: a control group and an experimental one. The latter represents

approximately a fifth of the first-year students at ENSC. During the intervention phase, the control group endured the same conditions as the experimental group except for the explicit teaching of the pre-writing strategies, which was a priviledge to the experimental group.

From the same sample, the intervention group, three of the best achievers in the post test were invited to take part in an interview to report the mental processes they went through while they were planning and composing. In parallel, they were asked to evaluate their experience with the SBI course.

As teachers continue to play a crucial role in teaching, in general, and teaching writing specifically, even within the framework of a learner-centred approach, the researcher found that questioning teachers about the current pedagogical situation would help her to construct a more precise image and narrow down her scope of vision in order take the adequate step forward. Consequently, fifteen teachers with differentyears of experience and levels of expertise in teaching the first-year writing course were chosen to act as a sample in the research at hand.

7. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is of eight chapters, four theoretical, and the other four are practicl. Chapters one, Teaching Writing in the EFL Context, tackles writing as a skill and the different approaches to teaching and assessing it. On the other hand, some light is shed on the paragraph as a type of academic writing; its different types and aspects of good writing are the subject matter of the practical part. The second chapter, The Process Approach to Writing, discusses the different cognitive and met-cognitive phases involved in the process approach besides the different models provided by educators and experts in teaching/ learning. The third chapter, Metacognition, provides an overview of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive awareness and how they are woven to better learners' learning proficiency. The fourth chapter, Strategies-based Instruction, relates to the core of the research and describes types and different

models of SBI and how to assess it. The fifth chapter discusses the methodology adopted in the thesis. The sixth chapter tackles the results of the quantitative data, namely the questionnaire and the post-test results compared to the pre-test ones. Quantitative data, on the other hand, is discussed in the seventh chapter. The eighth chapter provides some pedagogical implications and recommendations.

8. Operational Definitions of Variables

- Strategies-based Instruction (SBI)

In this research, strategies-based instruction is intended to mean nine weeks of explicitly teaching metacognitive pre-writing strategies integrated within the first-year course content.

- Metacogntive pre-writing strategies

Metacognitive pre-writing strategies are taught in this experiment at two distinct levels, planning and outlining. While the former consists of idea creation and vocabulary selection using four planning strategies, which are brainstormin, mind-mapping, listing, and free-writing, the latter deals with organizing the created ides into a simple outline.

- Writing Performance

Writing proficiency, within the framework of this research work, refers to unified and well-structured English paragraphs, which convey ideas developed in a smooth way

- Unity and ideas development

Paragraphs centered on a significant idea or topic, clear, focused, and engaging with relevant vocabulary.

- Correct and well-structured topic sentence

A topic sentence has to be interesting, original, and reflecting thoughts and insights. Most importantly, it must be focused on one interesting main idea.

- Logical organization of the paragraph

Examples and details in the paragraph relate to the topic with exciting explanations and concrete details backed by rich and pertinent examples following a logical order.

Chapter One

Teaching Writing in the EFL Context

Chapter One

Teaching Writing In the English as a Foreign Language Context

Chapter One

Teaching Writing in the English as a Foreign Language Context

Introduction

Writing is familiar to most human cultures worldwide as a way of communicating messages and information. Humans seem to have long felt the need to express themselves; cave paintings from thousands of years ago show the habit and experiences of the earliest humans. However, as humans began to live in larger settlements and communities, the need to record and manage information rather than just express it has gradually grown. The importance of writing lies in the fact that it exceeds mere communication and ideas expression to connect people across time and help them gain knowledge about the present and design for the future.

The disputation over definitions of writing stems from the various purposes scholars set for their respective theories and approaches to teach the skill in question. Consequently, linguistics and language teaching fields have witnessed the emergence of diversified definitions of writing stressing particular aspects or components. Besides definitions, approaches to teaching and assessing writing together with identifying various types of writings have been the subject matter of research studies since decades. This chapter attempts to provide an overview of writing as a skill and how it is being dealt with in EFL classes with a special focus on the English paragraph and its components, as it is the subject matter of the practical part of this research project.

1.1. Definition of Writing

Writing is a conventional graphic representation of speech. Writing systems use sets of symbols to represent speech sounds and may also have symbols such as punctuation and numerals. From another perspective, writing is considered as an information storage device;

however, it is not the only form of information storage. Long before, and in many instances simultaneously with it, human memory served the same purpose. In most cases, it was the memory of a specially trained and selected group to whom society entrusted this task (Gaur, 1992).

Hust (2004) states that "Writing is a complex task… It is, however, an important part of the communicating, as well as a tool for thinking and learning" (p. 58). Dean (2004), supporting the previous claims, puts "It is one of the most demanding activities that humans undertake. The writer is often compared with the talker, and writing is unequivocally regarded as being the more demanding." (104). Weigle (2002, p. 22) claims that to some extent, "the ability to write indicates the ability to function as a literate member of a particular segment of (…) discourse community" Yule (2010) defines writing as "the graphic representation of language through the use of graphic signs" He went further to compare writing to another productive skill, speaking:

> Unlike speech, it is a system that is not simply acquired but has to be learned through sustained conscious effort. Not all languages have a written form and, even among people whose language has a well-established writing system, there are large numbers of individuals who cannot use the system.

(Yule, 2010, p. 212)

Scholars mentioned above all agree on the difficulty and complexity as well as the cognitive burden the writing skill imposes on the writers. Like Dean (2004), Yule (2010) tackled the difficulty of the writing skill by comparing it to another productive skill, namely the speaking one. However, as opposed to speaking, which is acquired, writing is consciously learned in formal artificial teaching/ learning situations sustaining many cognitive efforts.

Considering its difficulty and complexity, not all languages possess an established writing system. Even for those with one, it is not always mastered by many individuals from the same speaking community. According to Crystal (1997), "writing is a way of communicating which uses a system of visual marks made on some kind of surface; it is one kind of graphic expression" (p. 214). For Bloomfield, "Writing is not language: but merely a way of recording language utilising visible marks" (Bloomfield as cited in Crystal 1994, p. 178). Writing is defined as the act of transforming thoughts into a written form. This makes it a complex skill to achieve as it demands both mental and physical efforts on the behalf of the writer.

Accordingly, Byrne (1988) identified three kinds of problems stemming from the difficulty of writing. The first one, of a psychological nature, is stimulated by a lack of interaction and feedback between the reader and the writer. The second problem is a cognitive one that emerges from the writer's constant control of the organisation and structure of his thoughts in written communication. According to Byrne, the third problem is linguistically oriented; the writer has to express himself more efficiently than in speech to compensate for the absence of specific characteristics of spoken language and body language such as gestures and facial expressions. The writer has to deal with many components: content, grammar, syntax, mechanics, word choice, organisation, and audience needs. Indeed, these elements make writing a complex and demanding skill. Many linguists and educationalists stated that the difficulty of writing in one's first language requires formal instruction and, more importantly, conscious mental effort. The matter seems to be even more complicated for L2/ FL learners as pointed out by Schoonen et al. (2003).

Writing in a mother tongue is demanding and requires several language abilities and more general (meta) cognitive abilities. These constituent abilities are in constant interplay. Writing in a second language is even more demanding because several of these constituent abilities may be less well developed than in one's first language. For example, linguistic knowledge of the L2 may be limited, and the accessibility of this knowledge may be less rapid or automatic.

(p.166)

According to Schoonen et al., writing is a cognitively demanding activity in both the mother tongue and the target language requiring continuous interaction of linguistic and metacognitive abilities. However, its intricacies may be more obvious when learners approach a writing task in the second language, as their constituent abilities may not be adequately developed.

1.2. Importance of the Writing Skill

Writing is an onerous task stipulating much effort involving an adequate arrangement of a variety of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. So, it is not surprising that the majority of students find it a challenging endeavour and lots of teachers evaluate their students' written achievements as unsatisfactory. However, due to its undeniable importance, it is considered as the most crucial skill among the three others, to name: speaking, listening, and reading.

Learning a foreign language necessitates learning to write in it. Nevertheless, writing in all varied forms and purposes is a complex process, which makes it a neglected skill by most English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students. The reason behind is that it calls upon them to bring both the left and right brain sides together to shape experience and feeling into something another person can read and understand in their absence. Many people, students, in particular, view the whole process as mysterious and inaccessible. Some students may feel that the whole

writing matter is a tough job and too troublesome. Some EFL students may question its importance and why they must learn to write in a foreign language. In this respect, Byrne (1988) clarifies:

> It is possible to learn to speak a foreign language without learning how to write in it, and for many of our students, perhaps even the majority of them will be the skill in which they are not only least proficient, even after considerable practice, but also the one for which they will have minor use…Because writing is a skill which is both limited in value and difficult to acquire.

(p. 6)

According to Byrne (1988), despite its tremendous importance, writing is devalued by most foreign language learners mainly because of its intricacy and how it is challenging to master despite continuous practice. Consequently, and if aspiring for better writing proficiency, teaching the writing skill should be given more attention in that it serves a variety of pedagogical purposes; that is why teachers should be very clear about the purpose of teaching writing and aware of the following beliefs and practices. First, the introduction and practice of some form of writing help to provide for different learners' learning styles and needs. Second, written work provides the learners with some tangible evidence that they are making progress in the language. In parallel, exposing students to a foreign language through more than one medium appears to be more effective than relying on a single medium alone. Writing also provides variety in classroom activities, serving as a break from oral work. Lastly, writing is often needed for formal and informal testing, which results, very frequently, acknowledge writers' writing competency or the opposite.

There is considerable concern about writing competency worldwide of its great importance in educational and other domains. So, writing is a skill that serves individuals' learning and communication needs. As students develop their writing skills, they begin to apply their knowledge to the written expression more and more efficiently and go beyond what they have learned (Raimes, 1983). He explains how writing helps students learn the foreign language.

> Writing helps our students learn. How? First, writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary that we have been teaching our students. Second, when our students write, they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risks. Third, when they write, they necessarily become very involved with the new language: the efforts to express ideas and the constant use of the eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning. As writers struggle with what to put down next to how to put it down on paper, they often discover something new to write or a new way of expressing their idea. They discover a need to find the right word and the correct sentence. The close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course.   (p. 3)

According to Raimes, there is a close relationship between writing and learning. Writing reinforces learning through reinvesting the already learned language tools, taking risks with the language and continuously learning new words, sentences, and ways of expressing ideas. In other words, writing influences how writers think and learn; it forces them to confront issues, define and redefine themselves, their feelings and position, and express themselves to others more effectively. Therefore, the importance of writing skills should not be neglected, either in teaching or learning.

1.3. Approaches to Teaching Writing in the English as a Foreign Language Context

To teach writing effectively in a second or foreign language context, teachers need awareness and a global understanding of existing approaches and principles of teaching it. Therefore, surveying the history of teaching approaches to writing in L2 classes becomes evident.

For many years, the teaching of writing in any context was largely discarded. Thus, the focus was on what the students produce orally rather than on how students learn to write, and language was seen as "primarily what is spoken and only secondarily what is written". (Brooks and Richards, 1964, p. 49).

It was only after the 1960s, especially in the United States, with the prevailing of the structural school as the leading learning theory, which stressed the importance of teaching writing, that writing for academic purposes gained popularity and became central to effective language learning. Accordingly, approaches on how to deal with writing skills started to emerge. The main approaches to teaching writing as reported by Raimes (1994) are as follows:

1.3.1. The Controlled-free Approach

In the 1950s and the early 1960s, the Audio-lingual Method dominated second language learning. As great attention was given to speech, writing was regarded only as a way to reinforce it, and mastering grammar and syntactic forms was crucial. In this respect, Raimes (1994) stated that speech was primary, and writing served to reinforce speech in that it stressed the mastery of grammatical and syntactic forms. Within the framework of the Controlled-free Approach, most of the writing process is controlled by having students substitute words and combine sentences or clauses. Leki (1992) explains that "the writing is carefully controlled so that the students see only correct language and practise grammar structures that they have learned" (p. 8). According to Raimes (1983), it is the approach that stresses three features: grammar, syntax,

and mechanics. Once students can master these, typically at an advanced level, they can be encouraged to engage in autonomous writing.

1.3.2. Free Writing Approach

The Free Writing Approach emphasises content and fluency rather than accuracy and form. Instructors who implement this approach are expected to assign free writing on given topics with only minimum error correction or intervention, for what they value is the quality of writing. Once the ideas are down on paper, grammatical accuracy and organisation will gradually follow. (Raimes, 1983)

Thus, in a typical free-writing class, a teacher might ask his students to write freely on a topic of their interest without worrying about making mistakes. Unlike the Controlled-free Approach, the teacher does not have to correct the students' pieces of free writing but only comments whenever necessary. Proponents of this approach (Olson, 1981; Elbow, 1998) consider that grammatical competence can be developed over time.

1.3.3. Paragraph-pattern Approach

This approach stresses the importance of language organisation rather than grammar accuracy or content fluency. The paragraph, the sentences, the supporting ideas, cohesion, and unity are the basic units dealt with by copying model paragraphs, putting scrambled sentences into order, identifying or writing the topic sentence, and inserting or deleting sentences. Students are taught to develop an awareness of the English features of writing. (Raimes, 1994)

1.3.4. The Grammar-syntax Organisation Approach

As its name suggests, this approach uses writing tasks that help the students pay attention to organisation and, at the same time, work on grammar and syntax, which are vital to carry out the writing tasks. That is, teachers need to stress the importance of working on more than one feature. In this respect, Raimes (1994) explains that "writing cannot be seen as composed of separate skills which are learned one by one." (p.13)

1.3.5. Communicative Approach

This approach stresses the purpose of writing and the audience. Student writers are encouraged to ask themselves two questions: Why am I writing this? (Purpose). And who will read it? (Audience). The purpose of writing may, in a general sense, be said to represent an attempt to communicate with the reader (Grabe& Kaplan, 1996). Therefore, the purpose, i.e., the communicative function of the text, can be labelled according to what it is intended to do: entertain, inform, intrust, persuade, explain, argue, and so on (Harris, 1993). Similarly, students are encouraged to link their writing to real-life situations that allow them to write purposefully.

1.3.6. The Product-oriented Approach

Along with the emergence of the Product Approach in the 1960s, writing became a matter of "responsibility in writing to literary texts" (Kroll, 1990, p. 245). At a higher level, very little time was devoted to teaching writing on its own. Nevertheless, teaching writing within the framework of the product approach meant simply 'correcting the papers' because the time allotted to writing was after the students had finished. That is, it is more devoted to correcting writing than teaching writing.

Kroll (1990) summarised the steps of this approach as follows:

- Students are taught to write according to fairly rigidly defined rhetoric and organisation steps, which are presented as writing rules.

- The teacher gives a reading text for classroom discussion, analysis, and interpretation (preferably a work of literature).

- The teacher requires a writing assignment (accompanied by an outline) based on the text.

- Before beginning the following lecture, the teacher reads, comments, and criticises the students' papers.

Accordingly, students' writing achievements would look like a mere reproduction of the models provided by their teachers and discussed during class. Hence, they are deprived of any creativity or personal innovation.

Therefore, it becomes evident that the Product Approach focuses on writing a well-produced, mistake-free composition. "A product-oriented approach, as the title indicates, focuses on the result of the learning process, what is that the learner is expected to be able to do as a fluent and component user of the language" (Nunan, 1991, p. 86). A well-known principle of this approach is to expose learners to model texts and ask them to construct sentences, paragraphs and essays following those models. As Hyland (2003) states:

> Essentially, writing is seen as a product constructed from the writer's command of grammatical and lexical knowledge, and writing development is considered to be the result of imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher. For many who adopt this view, writing is regarded as an extension of grammar, reinforcing language patterns through habit formation and testing learners' ability to produce well-formed sentences. For others, writing is an intricate

structure that can only be learned by developing the ability to manipulate lexis

and grammar.   (p. 3)

According to Hyland, this writing framework reduced the whole writing act to a reproduction

of a written model provided by instructors to provide for reinforcement of language patterns.

By the same token, Silva (1990) explained that the premise of the Product Approach

was first derived from the Controlled-composition Approach, which ultimately focuses on the

lexical and syntactic features of a text and the Current-traditional Rhetoric Approach, which

focuses on discourse-level and discourse structure. The purpose is to lead learners to reach pre-

determined objectives; as White (1988) says "learners' needs are carefully specified, and the

work of material designers and the teacher is to provide the means of enabling these needs to

be realised" (p. 5). Tribble (1996) also views that teachers see errors as something that they

must not only correct but also eliminate given the importance accurate language has.

Consequently, writing revolves around the writer's mastery of the grammatical and lexical

systems of the language.

1.3.7.   The Process Approach

The process approach appeared as a reaction to the weaknesses of the product approach.

This approach shifted emphasis from the final product to the different cognitive stages the writer

consciously goes through to create his final product. Writing, then, is an exploratory,

collaborative approach during which the finished product emerges after a series of drafts rather

than a linear route to a pre-determined product (Hyland, 2002).

An essential perspective of the writing process has recently provided proponents of the

theory of meta-cognition with the background to support that the writing activity is a productive

one based on the writer's thoughts and his control and regulation of these thoughts during the

different stages of the writing process. In this respect, Hacker et al. (2009) point out: "Writing is the production of thoughts for oneself or others under the direction of one's goal-directed monitoring and control, and the translation of that thought into an external representation" (p.154). Stated differently, writing starts in the writer's mind, which begins by setting goals for his writing task and, then, generates ideas from his schemata, which he organises in an outline. The writer's next step is transferring his abstract knowledge into a concrete graphic symbol on paper. Afterwards, he proceeds by revising and editing his writing, which involves self-monitoring and self-regulation. By so doing, the writer shows his application of metacognitive knowledge in the writing process. (Flower and Hayes, 1981)

Although the stages of the writing process have been identified differently by many scholars (Flowers & Hayes, 1981; Breiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Hyland, 2003; Harmer, 2004; Hedge, 1998), it is generally agreed that the most important ones are the following: the pre-writing, the drafting, the revising, and the editing stage. However, they are not implemented linearly; rather, they are used dynamically, allowing the writer to move forward and backward from one stage to another to correct, amend, and revise his writing.

1.3.8. The Process-product Approach

The ability to write effectively and eloquently sidesteps many people in their native language and other languages despite the myriad practice opportunities and the enormous amount of time devoted to teaching and learning this skill.

Learners, very frequently, fail to produce accurate pieces of compositions yielding to conventional rules of grammar correctness and appropriate vocabulary choice and the "Product-based writing helps instructors raise learners' L2 writing awareness, especially in grammatical structures" (Tangpermpoon 2008, p.3). However, most of the time, the correct form does not go hand in hand with unified, coherent content. In parallel, it is not easy for them to match the

requirements of the process approach, as they find it extremely difficult to plan their writings, generate ideas, organise them and transform them into meaningful compositions. Once they succeed in so doing, they come up with poor texts in terms of linguistic skills.

Thus, the process cannot be sacrificed for the product and vice versa. Therefore, it is vital to help students realise the efficacy of the end-product of writing by engaging them in the various stages of the writing process that help them create a piece of composition. It would be better to blend both to have better results. The merits of both approaches can be exploited in writing classes to achieve the writing goals of the learners. This could help the learners focus on form and ideas development.

Accordingly, the blending of the product and the process approaches seems to be necessary. A broad acceptance of the blending of both approaches has been observed among linguists and writing teachers, as they help realise the expected learning outcomes of the writing skill. "The strengths and weaknesses of each writing approach (…) show that the two approaches complement each other" (Tangpermpoon, 2008, p. 3). Therefore, writing teachers should use the combination of both approaches to writing, called "a process-product hybrid" (Dyer, 1996, p. 316), to teach and improve the L2 writing of the learners starting with writing.

1.4. The Paragraph as a Basic Unit of Organisation in Academic Writing

A paragraph, by definition, is a group of closely related sentences which expresses a complete unit of thought. It is seen by many researchers and practitioners in the field of language teaching and learning (Oshima and Hogue, 1998; Zemach and Rumisek, 2003; Murray, 2015) as a primary unit of organisation in writing in which a group of some sentences interrelate to develop one and only one idea. It is also seen as "... a group of related sentences about a single topic. The topic of a paragraph is one, and only one, idea". (Hugue, 2008, p.17). Murray (2015) clarified that a paragraph is a self-contained unit of a discourse in writing dealing with a

particular point or a single idea. It consists of a series of sentences closely related to one another and devoted to developing one topic. It is marked by indentation at the beginning, pauses of various lengths, and a break in the dot at the end.

According to Zemach and Rumisek (2003) "a paragraph is a group of sentences about a single topic. Together, the sentences of the paragraph explain the writer's main or most important idea". (p. 11)

In parallel, Oshima and Hogue state that:

> A paragraph is a basic unit of organisation in writing in which a group of related sentences develops one main idea. A paragraph can be as short as one sentence or as long as ten sentences. The number of sentences is unimportant; however, the paragraph should be long enough to develop the main idea clearly.

> (Oshima and Hogue, 1983, p. 3)

They further updated their definition to: "A paragraph is a group of related statements that a writer develops about a subject. The first sentence states the specific point, or idea, of the topic. The rest of the sentences in the paragraph support that point." (Oshima& Hogue, 2007, p. 3).

As previously mentioned, all definitions of a paragraph point to the idea that a paragraph is a piece of writing consisting of a succession of related sentences that discuss one main idea; it should be indented, and a complete stop should mark its end. These definitions indicate that the English paragraph has a particular structure and that the essential rule of paragraph writing is to focus on one and only one idea. Said differently, the English paragraph is made up of a group of sentences to create one single idea.

1.4.1. Structure of the English Paragraph

The English paragraph structure differs from other structures in other languages. According to Mayers, as cited in Murray (2015), there are three essential parts of the English paragraph: the topic sentence, the body of the paragraph (supporting sentences), and the concluding sentence.

1.4.1.1. The Topic Sentence

The topic sentence is the sentence which introduces the topic of the paragraph to the readers. It the most general statement in paragraph writing, which indicates what the paragraph is about and in which the main idea is stated. Mayers (2006) argued that the topic sentence outlines the main idea of a paragraph on which the rest of the paragraph should be focused. "The first sentence in a paragraph is a sentence that names the topic and tells what the paragraph will explain about the topic. This sentence is called topic sentence" (Hogue, 2008, p.4). Oshima and Hogue (2006) explained that a topic sentence not only names the topic of the paragraph but also limits the topic to one or two areas that can be discussed entirely in the space of a single paragraph. It also tells the audience about the purpose of the paragraph. A good topic sentence has two parts: the topic and the main idea. The topic is the subject of the paragraph. It is what we are writing about. The main idea, on the other hand, limits the topic of the paragraph to the aspects, which are going to be explored in the paragraph. A topic sentence usually occurs at the beginning of the paragraph, but it sometimes occurs in other positions, such as in the middle or at the end.

1.4.1.2. The Body of the Paragraph

In the English paragraph, a topic sentence is followed by supporting sentences or supporting details, as they support a paragraph's topic sentence and help convey the message to the audience. Supporting sentences follow the topic sentence and give further explanations,

illustrations, or details. They refer to a group of sentences that provides information and develops the idea expressed in the topic sentence. Hgue (2008) explains that "the middle sentences in a paragraph are called supporting sentences. Supporting sentences give examples or other details about the topic." (p.4). In other words, the supporting details are sentences used to support the main idea stated in the topic sentence.

1.4.1.3. The Concluding Sentence

The concluding sentence is the final sentence in the paragraph. It reviews the topic sentence and gives some final thought about the subject. According to Mayers (2006), the concluding sentence occurs at the end of the paragraph. It emphasises the point of the paragraph to the audience. The concluding sentence serves to signal the ending of the paragraph. Most of the time, it repeats the topic sentence but in different ways. Other times, it summarises the main points, which appeared in the paragraph. (Hogue, 2008)

A concluding sentence usually starts with a transition, such as in short, all in all, in conclusion, in summary. Not all concluding sentences require a transition, and not all paragraphs necessitate a concluding sentence.

1.4.2.   Types of the English Paragraph

There are different kinds of paragraph writing depending on the writers' rhetorical objectives; however, the light would be shed only on three basic types: Narrative paragraph, descriptive paragraph, and expository paragraph, as they are the subject matter of the first-year EFL Written Expression syllabus, the field study of the present research.

1.4.2.1.Narrative Paragraph

To tell a story in its simplest form is called a narrative paragraph. This type of writing is mainly talking about the events that happened in the past. Following a chronological

order, the narrative paragraph, either relating to historical events or fiction stories, follows the conventional paragraph structure: a topic sentence, supporting details, and a concluding sentence.

Writing any paragraph require the writing to know and use specific transitions. As far as the narrative paragraph is concerned, Boardman (2008) explained that specific transitions need to be employed to ensure the chronological order of the supporting sentences in the body of the paragraph.

1.4.2.2. Descriptive Paragraph

The purpose of writing a descriptive paragraph is to paint a vivid picture in the reader's mind. The writer, through his description, should help the reader to reconstruct a visual image of what he is describing. Zemach and Rumisek (2005) aknowledge that "a descriptive paragraph explains how someone or something kooks or feels" (p.25).

Through a descriptive paragraph, the writer communicates a picture or feeling in words. He tells the reader how something looks, sounds, smells, feels, or tastes. If a writer describes a landscape as fascinating, the audience's immediate question would be what does it look like?

1.4.2.3. Expository Paragraph

The writer of the expository paragraph explains something to the audience. There are different ways to explain something; one common way is by giving examples (i.e., for example, for instance, like, etc.). As space order is essential in a descriptive paragraph, logical order is equally important in an expository paragraph. As a writer, you decide and give your order to the significant supporting sentences because the logic differs from one person to the other. (Boardman, 2008).

1.4.3. Elements of a Good Paragraph

Nunan (2002) believes that some elements determine the quality of the paragraph. That is, the paragraph should have three main components to be achieved, i.e. unity, coherence, and adequate development. Further, Walker (2010), cited in Nurul Fajri (2016), listed five elements of good writing: Purpose, audience, clarity, unity, and coherence. These elements produce good writing according to the scholar.

1.4.3.1. Unity of Paragraph

When all the supporting sentences are related to the topic sentence, in this case, the paragraph has unity. If a paragraph has a sentence, which is not related to the topic sentence, it is an irrelevant sentence, and it has to be omitted (Boardman& Frydenberg, 2008).Oshima and Hogue (1999) note that:

> Unity means that a paragraph discusses one and only one main idea from the beginning to the end. Every supporting sentence must directly explain and support the main idea as stated in the topic sentence. Any information that does not directly support the topic sentence should not be included. The paragraph will be unified if all the details support the points in the topic sentence. (p. 30)

A unified paragraph has a topic sentence and a group of sentences that support this topic sentence. The supporting sentences should reflect the topic sentence. Strunk et al. (2000) informed that the supporting sentences must follow the idea mentioned in the topic sentence and must not deviate from it. In this way, unity in a paragraph is achieved. Any idea that does not address the topic breaks the paragraph unity. That is to say, in order to ensure paragraph unity, the writer must focus solely on a single idea and discuss it. Therefore, the paragraph should not begin to stray and develop new ideas.

According to Rustipa (2016), the paragraph must have one controlling idea in the topic sentence. Otherwise, the paragraph loses focus. The supporting sentences must support, demonstrate, prove, or develop the main idea in the topic sentence. If they do not, they will be irrelevant or off-topic and destroy the unity of the paragraph. The concluding sentence should restate the idea in the topic sentence to reinforce the main idea for the reader. When all the supporting sentences are related to the topic sentence, in this case, the paragraph has unity.

1.4.3.1. Coherence of Paragraph

Coherence involves logical connections at the idea level (topic). In this respect, Hyland defines coherence as "The way a text makes sense to readers through the relevance and accessibility of its configuration of concepts, ideas, and theories". (Hyland, 2003, p.31). Coherence was also defined by Altenberg (1987) as the relationships that link the meanings of the sentences in the text and may be based on the speakers' shared knowledge.

Adelstein & Pival (1980) view that a paragraph has coherence if a series of sentences develop the main idea. To convey the writer's meaning, the writer has to avoid distracting the reader from his message by making the message understood, ensuring continuity between one part of the text and another. If a paragraph is coherent, the reader can move easily, quickly, and smoothly from one sentence to the next without being lost in details. To facilitate the reader's comprehension, all the sentences that make up each paragraph must be logically arranged by following a continuous order based on the message they are trying to convey. (Hinkel, 2004)

In short, coherence refers to the unity created by the succession of sentences to construct the main idea of a paragraph. Each sentence should flow smoothly into the next

one in an effective way. In other words, supporting details should be arranged logically and clearly to develop the topic sentence.

1.4.3.2. Paragraph Development

As it has been explained earlier, the English paragraph has a special architecture and requires writers to respect it in order to produce what could be categorised as academic writing. So, a paragraph should have a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding statement. Once the writer provides a well-structured topic sentence, immediately after, he bears the burden of developing his paragraph to match the conventional form of well written paragraphs.

According to Zemach and Rumisek (2005), there exist three common ways to develop a paragraph: giving details, giving explanation, and giving an example. They explain that "details are specific points that tell more about a general statement (....) An explanation tells the reader what something means or how something works (...) An example is a specific person, place, thing, or event that supports an idea or statement" (Zemach and Rumisek, 2005, pp. 17-18). Thus, a writer of a paragraph should avoid writing in a monotonous way that may be boring to the reader. On the opposite, he should provide supporting sentences in diversified ways ranging from giving details about the topic at hand, to explaining certain points like the functioning, cause of existence of something. By the same token, the writer may give concrete examples of people, things, places, concepts, or things to illustrate better his idea and bring it closer to the reality.

1.5. Assessing Writing in the English Foreign Language Context

Assessment as a final stage in writing is meant to produce a snapshot of learners' writing at a given time. Nevertheless, this does not mean that assessment is only a general picture of learners' writing that clearly shows weaknesses and strengths. Assessment can be defined as a measurement of learners' performance in a particular task, be it listening, speaking, reading, or

writing. Hyland (2003) defines assessment as "the variety of ways to collect information on a learner's language ability or achievement. It is, therefore, an umbrella term which includes such diverse practices as a once-only class test, short essays, long projects, reports, writing portfolios, or large-scale standardised examinations." (p. 213)

Writing assessment/ evaluation is an issue of great concern to teachers. The difficulty of the process and the complexity of its measurement procedures make it challenging for teachers to succeed objectively in EFL writing courses. Hyland (2003) has noted that teachers often unwelcome assessment/evaluation because it undermines the relationship they create with their students. Learners may lose confidence in their writing ability, leading them to encounter problems. Teachers, if not aware, are likely to find themselves at stake.

Understanding assessment procedures is necessary to ensure that teaching has the desired impact and that students are judged fairly. Without the information gained from assessment, it would be difficult to identify the gap between students' current and target performances and to help them progress.

1.6. Assessment vs. Evaluation

Another issue that has always been raised is the difference between evaluation and assessment. For years, the two terms have been used interchangeably, for they both give an overview of somebody's level of performance through scores, grades or remarks. They measure learners' performances depending on a set of criteria. Usually, these criteria are put forward by specialists who may be teachers, educators, administrators, or any other group. Assessment and evaluation "are common concerns in different ELT sectors and levels, from mainstream schooling to specialist EAP courses, from kindergarten to adult, and in both traditional EFL and ESL contexts" Davison and Cummins (2007, p. 415). However, research has shown remarkable differences between the two in terms of objectives, measurement tools, and intervention time.

Williams (2008, p. 297) asserts that "although assessment and evaluation often are used synonymously, they are not the same."

In writing, remarkably, they seem to address the same principles though they differ in scope. Generally, writing assessment and evaluation were at the hands of those responsible for teaching writing. They use and distinguish between the two concepts by having a set of goals for each. Galbraith and Jones (2010) state that assessment "refers to the collection of information, and it measures levels of achievement without comparison to a set of standards. Evaluation, however, indicates the application of the assessment findings to the continued development of student learning or program achievement" (p. 167). As such, evaluation is the continuous teachers' observations and results obtained after tasks; whereas assessment is the general outcomes teachers gain after having their learners tested; tthat is, they are not contradicted but rather complementary.

1.6.1. Writing Assessment vs. Writing Evaluation

Writing assessment and evaluation is a complex area of study. It has been scoured to help teachers, as well as learners, benefit from its results. Evaluation is regarded as broader than assessment because it is based on results from the assessment. It is believed that "evaluation is 'writing -to demonstrate' what was learned and assessment is 'writing -to learn'. Both are integral aspects of teaching and learning." (Urquhart and Mclver, 2005, p. 27). Subsequently, assessment is for learning, whereas evaluation is of learning. In other words, assessment is used for formative purposes while evaluation is used for summative purposes. Williams (2003) noted that evaluation designates the judgements we have about students learning progress, and the outcomes they achieve are based on assessment information. He further assumed that writing assessment/ evaluation is a complicated area in EFL writing, for teachers of writing face great difficulty while assessing/ evaluating students' performance than teachers of other subjects. For

him, writing teachers should consider a wide range of variables that do not necessitate the mastery of a particular writing lesson. That is, teachers generally do not make it clear whether they measure the writing ability, the content of the writing, or students' performance at a particular time. The complexity of the process and its measurement make it challenging for teachers to succeed objectively in EFL writing. Hyland (2003) noted that teachers often unwelcome assessment/evaluation because it undermines the relationship they create with their students. Learners may lose confidence in their abilities which leads them to encounter problems. Teachers, if not aware, are themselves at stake.

1.6.2. Methods of Evaluating/ Assessing Students' Writing

Very frequently, assessors (teachers or students) find themselves at stake in evaluating writing. This is mainly due to the nature of the writing skill and the difficulty of assessment. Various methods can be used according to the purpose and the type of assessment employed. Hence, assessors should select the appropriate scoring method corresponding to the objective and the type of writing task. The assessment methods can be divided into two major categories: formal/ informal and mutual evaluation methods. As far as the formal evaluation group is concerned, it is seen as a type of evaluation, which includes different scoring methods, in comparison to the informal method, which encompasses some everyday practices in the writing class. The mutual methods category, on the other hand, includes methods that combine both formal and informal assessment methods like feedback, portfolios and rubrics.

1.6.2.1. Formal Methods

Within formal methods of evaluation appear some methods like holistic, analytical, and trait-based scoring.

1.6.2.1.1. Holistique Scoring

It is a method by which assessors evaluate a piece of writing for its overall quality. It requires teachers or students (peer evaluators) to evaluate the written composition. Instead of looking for every single error, ratters need to score (holistically) the writer's overall writing proficiency. By holistic scoring, students get one single overall score for the paper. Through the holistic method, evaluators do not allot a score for each criterion but read the paper and try to give rates according to some priorities they have in mind. As a result, the score will be a sort of impression based on what they consider as strengths and weaknesses to reach an overall assessment. Nonetheless, holistic scoring, according to Hyland (2003), hinders teachers from getting diagnostic information about their teaching or their students' progress, despite its easiness and time-saving.

1.6.2.1.2. Analytic Scoring

It is the method through which evaluators score writing without giving an overall impression based on strengths and weaknesses, as in holistic scoring. Unlike the latter, analytic scoring requires detailed feedback on every single criterion of the writing task. Brown (2004) explains that "analytic scoring may be more appropriately called analytic assessment in order to capture its closer association with classroom language instruction than with formal testing." (p.243).

Therefore, analytic scoring is the assessment of writing across multiple standards rather than an overall evaluation of a final written product. In this respect, Hyland (2003) asserts that

"Analytic scoring more clearly defines the features to be assessed by separating, and sometimes weightings, individual components and is, therefore, more effective in discriminating between weaker texts" (p. 229). Consequently, it should be noted that though it is both time and energy-consuming, analytic scoring can provide more information for both teachers and students, the former to develop their teaching methods and the latter to consider the dismissed elements and set a plan of action for remediation.

1.6.2.1.3. Trait-based Scoring

Unlike holistic and analytic scoring methods, the trait-based scoring method focuses neither on the overall impression nor on detailed criteria but on the features of good writing. It is also concerned with the characteristics of a particular writing task, topic, theme and genre. It consists of primary-trait scoring and multiple-trait scoring.

1.6.2.1.3.1. Primary-trait Scoring

It is similar to holistic scoring; nevertheless, with primary-trait scoring, readers focus on a particular feature of the writing task. Other secondary traits may also be assessed but with less weight. Only the identified features (criteria) are assessed by this scoring method. So, only these elements receive feedback, whereas the other errors will be neglected. As a result, it helps students and teachers focus on particular aspects, which will save time, yet this will lead readers to shut their eyes to aspects that need revision. It was the source for developing multiple-trait scoring (Hamp-Lyons, 2003).

1.6.2.1.3.2. Multiple-trait Scoring

It is a method that requires assessors to assign scores for the criteria to be assessed. Not so different from an analytic method, yet there should be a multiple-trait scoring procedure for each writing task type or context. In this respect, Hamp-Lyons (2003) explains,

As its name implies, multiple trait scoring treats the construct of writing as complex and multifaceted; it allows teachers or test developers to identify the qualities or traits of writing that are important in a particular context or task type and to evaluate writing according to the salient traits in a specific context.   (p.176)

A multiple-trait method is, thus, significant for teachers who want to assess writing accurately due to the information they can get by using it. This data can be used in course content or remedial action, as Hyland (2003) observed. Nonetheless, this process is also time and energy-consuming.

1.6.2.2. Informal Methods

Informal evaluation of writing may include observation, description, and discussion. They are considered informal because they may occur in regular classes as teachers or students make informed judgments about writing. These informal judgements will not be recorded for the final grade because most of them are not scored. They help students develop learning and benefit from comments and discussion to prevent errors in formal assessment methods. Unlike the formal scoring method, the informal approach can allow teachers and their students to perceive writing as a social process through which students express personal ideas and not only as a demonstration of knowledge by which students get grades. When students view writing as a social process, they can feel more relaxed and in time they will be more confident to assess their writing by themselves. In addition, involving students in the assessment will reduce their anxiety, leading teachers to have a truer and more accurate vision of their knowledge or biases. Yet, this does not imply that they will get higher scores (Cizek& Burg, 2005).

1.6.2.3. Mutual Methods

These are methods that can be formal and informal. For that reason, they are considered mutual because teachers can use them as they see their appropriateness to the purpose of the assessment they want to conduct.

1.7. Writing Feedback

Feedback is the response teachers provide their students with concerning their written achievements. Traditionally, feedback on writing is written on drafts or given orally in the form of conferences and is considered a significant part of the instruction (Par&Timperieg, 2010). In the present time, however, feedback is not only oral (conferencing) and written but also electronic. Moreover, it may be of different characteristics such as simple pen marked (a score) or unmarked, positive or negative. It is fundamental to the learning process due to its vital role in learning development. Feedback can be used in summative evaluation to assign final grades or as a tool in formative assessment. It sometimes helps to use assessment data to tell students what they have done, direct suggestions for improvement or mere encouragement (Astin& Antonio, 2012). They further argued that "Learning feedback is intended to serve the goals of teaching and learning: to facilitate students' learning and talent development and to make the learning process itself more rewarding" (p. 201). In other words, feedback is intended to serve to teach and learn to improve the quality of learning and promote self-assessment. In this respect, Flateby (2011) asserts that "if feedback from the assessment process is stressed, deeper learning may result and the process may promote students' self-assessment" (p. 42).

1.7.1. Portfolios

It is a method of assessment representing a collection of students' written achievements to check their progress over time. The work should be systematically and purposefully collected. That is, the collection should not be randomly gathered but according to specific

criteria that match the objectives for specific purposes. Hence, assessment is done by measuring students' works and the portfolio as a whole against these criteria. The purpose of using portfolios is to decide on the number, type and time of work to be included. Many researchers call for the use of portfolios in writing assessments regarding their significant effects on the teaching/ learning process. Hamp-Lyons (2006) explains that "writing courses that use a portfolio-based approach to assessment appears to provide a fertile environment in which teachers and learners can engage in feedback on writing and thus mesh well with process approaches" (p.140). Portfolios enhance, in addition to the teaching/learning process, the assessment process by revealing students' skills and understanding, reflecting progress and development over time and engaging students in self-evaluation naturally. Coombe et al.(2012) note that:

> The portfolio-based assessment examines multiple pieces of writing produced over time under different constraints rather than an assessment of a single essay written under a specified time frame. Increasingly, portfolios are being compiled to allow the student to provide evidence of self-reflection.

> (p. 152)

Thereby, because portfolios provide the chance to collect works over time, they will not be written under the same conditions, resulting in multiple performances that reflect students' improvement as a reaction to continuous instruction.

1.7.2. Rubrics

A rubric is an assessment method teacher, or students use to assess writing. Directly tied to stated objectives, a set of criteria is used to assess performance; rubrics can be regarded as guidelines for rating or scoring. They provide assessors with the characteristics for each level

of performance against a set of standards and criteria and those assessed with clear information about how well/ bad they have performed, in addition to a clear indication of what they need to achieve better in the future. Correspondingly, they are not meant only for assessment but also for learning. Andrade (2000, p. 13) notes:

> Instructional rubrics help teachers teach as well as evaluate students 'works. Further, creating rubrics with your students can be powerfully instructive. Rubrics make assessing student work quick and efficient, and they help teachers justify to parents and others the grades they assign to students.

1.8. Reliability

It refers to the degree to which an assessment task has stable and consistent results. An assessment task is considered reliable when it measures the students on different occasions and across different ratters. If the same results/marks are obtained, then it can be said that this test is reliable. A test is reliable when it gives consistent results when administered in different conditions or rated by different scorers. Therefore, reliability simply indicates the consistency of grades across different ratters or points of time.

In short, reliable assessment scores are nearly identical regardless of the assessment time or the assessors. There should be compelling evidence to show consistent results across ratters and scoring occasions.

1.9. Validity

It refers to how well a test measures what it is supposed to measure. Thus, a valid test assesses the achievement of some learning objectives and not others. For example, if a test assesses students' mastery of cohesion, it should be made clear that it is about cohesion and not coherence. Hyland defines validity as:

> The quality that most affects the value of a writing assessment is validity. Although dependent on reliability, validity is crucial to1air and meaningful writing assessment. It means that: An assessment task must assess what it claims to assess; an assessment task must assess what has been taught.
>
> (Hyland 2003, 217)

A test must be not only reliable but also valid. If the test is not reliable, it does not dictate valid measurements; however, if a test is not valid, it is almost always reliable. Therefore, in a simple meaning, validity indicates that it is not adequate for assessors to assign students to do something they do not know. It is also not valid to assign students to have tasks without providing them with adequate conditions, like giving them enough time to accomplish their work. A test may be reliable but not valid. So, reliability does not necessitate validity. However, a good test is the one which is both reliable and valid, Carmines and Zeller (1979, p.12) state that "while reliability focuses on a particular property of empirical indicators -the extent to which they provide consistent results across repeated measurements- validity concerns the crucial relationship between concept and indicator."

Conclusion

Decades ago, writing as a skill was exclusive to scribes and scholars in educational or religious institutions. Almost every aspect of everyday life for ordinary people was carried out orally. Business transactions, records, legal documents, and political and military agreements were all written by specialists whose vocation was to render language into the written form. Today, the ability to write has become a requirement for individuals to be part of modern society since it is a condition for achieving employment in many walks of life. Thus, teaching and learning to write have gained considerable attention during the last few decades.

Writing is agreed upon as a cognitively demanding task to accomplish and a complex skill to master both in the native language and the target one. Compared with other skills, writing is viewed by a large majority of students, teachers, and specialists as an essential and sophisticated skill, which simultaneously requires cognitive ability, linguistic and grammatical mastery of the language constituents to reach reasonable control of its components.

As it is assumed to be consciously learned in artificial teaching/ learning situations, many approaches appeared in the field of language learning to bring about an efficient way to teach this skill. These were the subject matter of this chapter, besides various definitions of writing and different ways to assess/ evaluate it. By the same token, some light was shed on the English paragraph and its components as an important type of academic writing.

Chapter Two

The Process Approach to Teaching Writing

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Introduction

The emergence of new trends that consider the cognitive nature of text writing as a reaction to the drawbacks of the previous writing approaches provided a solid background to the process approach. The movement helped to call attention to aspects of writing that had long been rejected in many traditional writing classrooms. The primary concern has shifted from what students produce to how they undergo their writing tasks and, more particularly, how good writers write and go through the different stages, considering the highly complex recursive processes. The orientation to process-based teaching has been initially developed for native language classes. The process approach, then, had a widespread influence on teaching writing throughout the English-speaking world.

2.1. A Historical Overview of the Process Approach to Writing

It is argued that traditional teaching approaches neglected some essential practices in the composing process that were given much attention in the process approach. In a traditional writing model, the function was to produce flawless text by correcting surface grammar, punctuation, and spelling mistakes. The emphasis of product-focused writing on accurate grammar and error-free sentence structure was a turning point toward a process approach that emphasises content and organization in writing rather than form. "It has been accepted that language is more than simply a system of rules. Language is now generally seen as a dynamic resource for creating meaning" Nunan (1989, p 12). He further explains that it is generally accepted that we need to distinguish between 'learning that' and 'knowing how'. Stated differently, we need to make the difference between knowing the different grammatical rules and being able to master the rules efficiently and appropriately when communicating.

The task of writing is believed to be, within the framework of the process approach, well connected to the writers' process of thinking as well as the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, which are very significant in the teaching and learning of writing. Hence, the adoption of the process approach includes strategies in composition classes. Twenty years ago, researchers and teachers started to explore the various strategies writers use to produce texts. They have found that writing is a highly complex process of several sub-processes that do not occur one after the other, but, rather cyclically and in various patterns. Claudery (1995)

During the 1970s, the birth of the communicative teaching methodology, the functional-notional approaches, and further developments in the various areas of English teaching have directed researchers, teachers and methodologists' attention toward the students' practical needs. From the early 1970s to the late 1980s, English as a second language (ESL) writing research paradigm focused primarily on the writing process rather than on the written product. This new trend in the teaching of writing emerged at a very favourable period when writing teachers were discontented with the traditional approaches to teaching writing that had proved to be inadequate. William (2003) states that when the NAEP committee (National Assessment of Educational Progress) compared process pedagogy to other approaches, it concluded that "process offers the best chance for improving students' skills." Williams (p. 64)

2.2. Origins of the Process Approach

Even though the process approach to writing appeared in the early 1970s with the emergence of the cognitive approach to learning, its origins go as far back as the 1960s. Williams acknowledges the origins of the process pedagogy in writing: "Although Janet Emig (1971) is rightly credited with originating process pedagogy in composition, it is important to recognize that the late 1960s witnessed an intellectual shift in many fields toward process, a shift grounded in 'process philosophy', a worldview that identifies reality with the pure

process". (Williams, 2003, p. 219). By the same token, Kroll reports that Emig's landmark L1 research; the Composing Processes of Twelfth Graders (1971) represents "the first major study to respond to the shift in composing orientation from product to process" (p. 38). Kroll (1990) asserted that Emig established what has become the primary research design for conducting research into the writing process through using the case study approach. She explains how the procedure took place:

> Emig analysed the writing processes of eight high school seniors, above-average students who were not randomly selected. She met with her subjects four times and gathered data from 'composing-aloud' audio tapes (her notes were taken while observing the subjects writing) and interviews in which 'each subject gave a writing autobiography'… and answered questions on his or her writing process for a particular piece of writing.   (1990, p. 38)

In an attempt to understand the mental processes and the decision-making processes of writers, Emig encouraged students to think aloud while composing, so as to verbalise the different cognitive stages they were going through. Thus, students were asked to take part in an interview to share the different steps taken for the writing of a given type of composition.

Emig's technique of asking writers to compose out loud has also been used by many teachers and researchers in the field for the efficiency it proved to have in developing students' communicative writing skills. According to Edge (2000), several researchers and writers (Perl, 1979; Faigly and Witte, 1981; Zamel, 1983; Raimes, 1985) studied the composing processes of their students. These studies have used many techniques, such as interviews, observation, think-aloud protocols, and audio and video recordings. Most findings of these studies have proved the value of the process approach. Besides, the 'think aloud' these researchers have widely used protocols analysis to infiltrate the mind of the writers while composing. This technology is

unique because it allows the researchers to follow writers' mental activity and decision-making processes while planning their text. In practice, the protocol technique demonstrates writers thinking loudly through verbalizing their framing decisions through their composing activity.

2.3. Definitions of the Process Approach to Writing

The Oxford learners' dictionary defines a process as "a series of actions or steps to achieve a particular end or result". Many teachers and researchers in the field have also attempted to define the process approach and give it the best description. Applebee reveals that the process approach "provided a way to think about writing in terms of what the writer does (planning, revising, and the like) instead of in terms of what the final product looks like (patterns of organization, spelling, and grammar)" (Applebee, as cited in Kroll, 1990, p. 96). Moreover, Kroll explained that the process approach serves today as an umbrella term for many writing courses. The term refers to a specific pedagogical situation in which student writers engage in their writing tasks through a cyclical or recursive approach rather than a single-shot approach. For that reason, students are expected to produce and submit complete and polished responses to their writing assignments after going through stages of drafting and receiving feedback on their drafts, be it from peers or from the teacher, followed by revision of their evolving texts. (Kroll, cited in Hasan & Akhand, 2010)

It can be assumed that this approach operates at the level of learners' specific needs and focuses on fluency, content and self-expression rather than accuracy. Consequently, this orientation encourages students to write as much as possible without worrying about mistakes because proficiency in writing is achieved through the students' mastery and understanding of the composing process. Consequently, a process approach tends to focus more on varied classroom activities that promote language use development: brainstorming, group discussion, revising, and rewriting. In this respect, Tribble suggests that the process approach stresses

"writing activities which move learners from generation of ideas and collection of data through to the 'publication' of a finished text" (Tribble as cited in Badger and White, 2000, p. 37). Thus, writing in the process approach is seen predominantly with linguistic skills like brainstorming, planning, group discussion, drafting, and rewriting rather than linguistic knowledge such as grammar and text structure.

In his turn, Brown (2000) emphasised the cognitive and reflective aspects of the act of composing. He claimed that the process approach is just an attempt to take advantage of the nature of the written code, which gives the student the opportunity to think as they write. He also acknowledged Elbow to be a person well before his time because, in his essay some decades ago, he explains:

> The common sense, the conventional understanding of writing is as follows; writing is a two-step process. First, you figure out your meaning; then you put it into language…figure out what you want to say; do not start writing till you do; make a plan; use an outline; begin writing only afterwards. Central to this model is the idea of keeping control, keeping things in hand. Do not let things wander into a mess…think of writing as an organic, developmental process in which you start writing at the beginning before you know your meaning and encourage your words to gradually change and evolve. Only at the end will you know what you want to say or the words you want to say with it.

> (Elbow as cited in Brown 2000, p. 336)

Elbow claimed that student writers should by no means start writing straightforward; instead, they must plan their writing before engaging in the composing task. They can start writing only after having a clear idea about what their writing will be. Furthermore, Elbow reminded the

student writers to monitor their learning by keeping control over the writing task and not letting things go into a mess.

The new trends of language teaching /learning approaches and methods that appeared in the 1970s appealed to learners' cognitive abilities; consequently, a significant shift from teachers' centred approach to a learners-centred one was witnessed in pedagogical settings. Inherent in that shift in focus was a shift in responsibilities. Thus, the learner has become more responsible for his learning taking all the necessary decisions about his instruction. Onozawa (2010) described learners as essential participants in the process approach. He puts:

> In the process approach, learners are considered central in learning, so learners' needs, expectations, goals, learning styles, skills, and knowledge are considered. Through the writing process, learners need to make the most of their abilities, such as knowledge and skills, by utilizing the teacher's and other learners' appropriate help and cooperation. It encourages learners to feel free to convey their thoughts or feelings in written messages by giving them plenty of time and opportunity to consider and revise their Writing and, at each step, seek assistance from outside resources like the instructor.

(p. 155)

Though the process approach to writing yields to rules and conventions of learners' centred theory, the undeniable role of the teacher remains very significant and crucial. Teachers have to assist their students by being around at each stage of the composing process; they have to act as facilitators who help learners develop strategies for planning, generating ideas, revising, editing, etc. They are coaches and mentors who help and assist at every composing stage. To this effect, Harmer argues:

However, those who advocate a process approach to Writing pay attention to the various strategies that any piece of writing goes through. By spending time with the learner on the pre-writing phases, editing, redrafting, and finally 'publishing' their work, a process approach aims to get to the heart of the various skills that should be employed when writing.

(Harmer, 2001, p. 257)

By the same token, Hyland (2003) while referring to Raimes' (1992) argumentation says:

The teacher's role is to guide students through the writing process, avoiding an emphasis on form to help them develop strategies for generating, drafting, and refining ideas. This is achieved through setting pre-writing activities to generate ideas about content and structure, encouraging brainstorming and outlining, requiring multiple drafts, giving extensive feedback, seeking text level revisions, facilitating peer responses, and delaying surface correction until the final editing.

(Hyland, 2003, p. 12)

It can be deduced that Raimes was focusing on the teacher's important role in guiding students to develop the different stages of writing. The latter is essential to help them become proficient in carrying out their writing tasks.

From what has been said before, it can be deduced that within the framework of the process approach, credit is given to the cognitive and metacognitive aspects of learning in a learner-centred approach without neglecting the undeniable role of the teacher who assists his students at every stage of the composing task.

2.4. Stages of Development of the Writing Process

Writing is a complex combination of skills best taught by breaking down the process into different steps. The writing process involves various steps to follow in producing a finished piece of writing. Research explained that by focusing on the process of writing, almost everyone learns to write effectively. By breaking down writing to a step by step, the mystery is removed, and writer's burden is reduced. Most importantly, students realize the benefits of constructive feedback on their writing, and they gradually master, and even enjoy, writing. Accordingly, Gardner and Johnson describe the stages of writing as follows: "Writing is a fluid process created by writers as they work. Accomplished writers move back and forth between the process stages, consciously and unconsciously. Young writers, however, benefit from the structure and security of following the writing process in their writing." (Gardner and Johnson, 1997, pp. 220- 221)

Within the framework of the process approach, much importance is credited to the process through which writers go rather than the final product they come with. In this respect, Onozawa (2010) asserts:

> Process writing is an approach to writing where language learners focus on the process by which they produce their written products rather than on the products themselves ... focusing on the writing process; learners come to understand themselves more and find how to work through the writing. They may explore what strategies conform to their style of learning. Stated otherwise, student writers discover themselves and their writing style while concentrating on the writing process, as if they go through a journey of self-discovery.
>
> (p.154)

Thus, the process approach to writing is more than an approach about how to better students' writing proficiency. The focus is not on the product; rather, on the process followed to reach that product. Furthermore, through choosing and applying strategies that most conform to one's learning style, student writers come to know better themselves.

Many researchers (Flower and Hayes, 1981; Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Kroll, 1990; Edge, 2000; Brown, 2001; Coffin et al., 2003; Hyland, 2003; Raimes, 2003; Williams, 2003; Harmer, 2004; Johnson, 2008; Onozawa, 2010) and many others have attempted to provide definitions for the writing process and identify its main components. All have agreed that student writers go through different cognitive and metacognitive steps and activities before their final written product is ready to be read. Coffin et al. (2003) defined the writing process as a complex activity that includes eight different stages. They are pre-writing, planning, drafting, reflecting, peer or tutor reviewing, revising, and editing/ proofreading. Harmer (2004) suggested that the process of writing has four main elements. Planning, drafting, editing (reflecting and revising), and final version. Brown (2001) mentioned that writing always involves pre-writing, drafting, revising, and editing. In parallel, Johnson (2008) cited five steps to the writing process: pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing. In his Process Model of Writing Instruction, Hyland (2003) depicted four main stages all students follow in their writing journey; they are planning, drafting, revising, and editing.

The researchers mentioned above and others who have not been cited here agree that the process approach to writing includes four primary steps and strategies. They have been named them differently as planning, drafting, revising, and editing. Each of which may include some sub-stages. Furthermore, a consensus among the researchers and teachers was made regarding the order of these steps. Scholars insist on their non-linear but recursive sequencing and students' freedom to move forward and backwards to revise, amend, correct, re-plan, etc. Even

though planning, labelled by some researchers pre-writing, occurs before the composing stage, student writers go back to it in each stage to amend, verify, check or ensure they are on the right path. In this respect, Hyland (2003) explains "Planning, drafting, revising, and editing do not occur in a linear sequence but are recursive, interactive, and potentially simultaneous, and all work can be reviewed, evaluated, and revised, even before any text has been produced at all. The writer can jump backwards or forward to any of these activities at any point." (p.11)

Brown (2003) portrays the writing process to be framed in three stages, namely pre-writing, drafting, and revising, giving much importance to the pre-writing stage and the activities as the main gain of the process approach. On the opposite side, drafting and revising are not new since they are seen as the main focus in traditional approaches to teaching writing. He states:

> Those are pre-writing, drafting, and revising. The pre-writing is aimed at generating ideas, which can happen in numerous ways; reading (extensively) a passage, skimming or scanning a passage, conducting some outside research, brainstorming, listing, clustering, discussing a topic or question, instructor-initiated questions and pre-writing. Then, the drafting and revising stages are the core writing processes in traditional writing instruction approaches.

> (p. 348)

2.4.1. The Pre-writing Stage

The first and the most challenging step in any writing activity is the pre-writing phase where writers get ready to write, gather the relevant information through activating schemata and reading about a topic, identify the purpose of the writing task and the audience to which they are going to write, and organize their ideas into a plan. Many scholars and teachers

(Flowers ad Hayes, 1981, Breiter and Scardamalia, 1987) perceive that novice writers spend less time in the planning phase in comparison to their expert peers, and sometimes they do not plan their compositions at all. The cause behind that is their inability prepare and organize themselves for a writing task; therefore, it is essential to encourage the students to go through this stage using various techniques like reading, dialogues, discussions, asking questions, and other ones that will be tackled later on.

Flower and Hayes (1981) describe what happens in the planning stage as

> Planning, or the act of building this internal representation, involves some sub-processes. The most obvious is the act of generating ideas, which includes retrieving relevant information from long tern-memory. Sometimes this information is so well developed and organized in memory that the writer is essentially generating standard written English. At other times, one may generate only fragmentary, unconnected, even contradictory thoughts, like the pieces of a poem that has not yet taken shape.   (p. 372)

Following that, planning involves a set of sub-stages; the most prominent of which is ideas generating from long-term memory. The scholars explain that not all student writers succeed in this phase. Some retrieve well-organised related pieces of information while others retrieve fragmentary, disconnected, and unrelated thoughts.

Brown (2007), presented a set of pre-writing classroom activities that students make use of while tackling any writing task. Teachers also are required to engage their students in this stage by providing them with classroom practice opportunities to practice these activities which are brainstorming, clustering, free-writing, reading passages, skimming and scanning.

2.4.1.1. Brainstorming

Brainstorming involves jotting ideas and writing whatever comes to the writer's mind about a topic. This pre-writing strategy is valuable for getting started or generating new ideas. Bobb-Wolff (1996) argued that brainstorming can be a valuable tool to teach EFL students to generate new ideas linked to a given writing topic, which inevitably leads to an increase in their autonomy of learning and, most importantly, enhances the quality of their writing skills and their production in the classroom.

The cognitive nature and linguistic characteristics involved in a composition make it a complex skill to master both in the native language and in the target one. Research pointed to the positive role of brainstorming in developing organization and mechanics of writing, for learners can be actively involved in the writing process by brainstorming. Richards (1990) stated that brainstorming can progress the learners' cognitive skills and contribute to producing opinions. In his investigation, Richards revealed that learners instructed in brainstorming strategies were more effective in classifying opinions than others. The positive effect of brainstorming on the learners' writing skills has also been studied by Rao (2007) who argued that brainstorming helps L2 learners gain more independence and success in writing.

2.4.1.2.Clustering/ Mind Map/ or Spider gram

Clustering is a pre-writing activity that Rico (1983) named to get to that state of consciousness referred to as the right side of the brain where writers schematise, design, link, and process complex pictures. Rico defined clustering as a generative, open-ended, non-linear, visual structuring of ideas, events, and feelings. He added that it is a way of mapping an interior landscape as it emerges. While adopting this strategy, student writers begin with a keyword and add other words using free association. To illustrate using circles and lines, writers can also construct clusters with tree diagrams, balloons, and strings.

A mind map involves writing down a central theme, idea or word and thinking of new and related ideas which radiate out from the centre. Focusing on the key ideas, help the writer to retrieve from his long-term memory the related information. Unrelated data can also come out hand in hand with the relevant one. However, the writer can just cross it when he revises his final diagram. The graphic representation can be helpful to writers, especially, those who exhibit a visual learning style.

2.4.1.3. Free-writing

This strategy helps learners to initiate and generate new ideas. Within this activity's framework, learners are free and can use their lexical items, sentence structures, writing mechanics to get in touch with the writing situation without getting distracted by the details. Moreover, Darling (2004) pointed out that many teachers use a free writing exercise at the beginning of each class to get the brain up to speed. Free writing also helps learners to understand that not all writing they produce is equally worth keeping. Instead, they need to focus on what to retain and what to dispose of. By the end of the writing task, they may look at the topic differently or even change to a new one. Preserving earlier ideas and phrases at this stage may damage the overall meaning or even ruin the end product. As such, while undertaking this pre-writing strategy, learners will often create ideas, sentences, and phrases that lead them towards a new imaginative orientation.

Free writing helps the writer get in touch with the final picture without getting side-tracked with details. It is a non-linear activity using the right side of the brain, which deals with concepts and abstractions. As soon as the writer begins to organise, edit and censor his ideas, moves over to the left side of the brain, where linear thinking happens. That is where thoughts get blocked. Additionally, Darling (2004) noted that many writing instructors use a free writing exercise at the beginning of each class as a way of getting the brain in gear.

2.4.1.4. Listing

Listing is a pre-writing activity some writers find helpful. As its name suggests, listing implies that writers make a list of what they will say about a given topic. Atlee (2005) pointed out that it is a common strategy of narrowing down a topic. It is considered as a creative technique as it leads writers to achieve fluency in writing. Sloane (1999) provided a concrete example; he proposed while dealing with a topic about language, that a writer could invent a list of the main topic of regional dialects. Then, sub-lists would be regional dialects he knows or has experienced.

2.4.1.5. Outlining

Though planning and outlining are used interchangeably by some teachers and practitioners, they are not the same. Hogue explains that "making an outline is another part of prewriting. Once you get ideas to write about, you need to organise them. An outline helps you do this" (Hogue, 2008, p. 51). Gardner (1989) pointed out that outlining is an essential technique because it helps the writers to generate their ideas and create a relationship between them. It is called an outline as the writer states his main points in a list to appear in his composition. Accordingly, an outline is like an architect's plan for a house. An architect plans a house before it is built to make sure that all the parts will fit. Like an architect, a writer should plan a paragraph before he writes it to make sure that his thoughts will fit.

Learning to outline improve students' writing quality for three main reasons:

- It will help you organise your ideas.

- It will help you write more quickly.

- It will help you improve your grammar.

(Oshima & Hogue, 1983, p. 21)

Preparing an outline helps the writer a lot in writing a passage of any type. The actual writing becomes easier because the writer has not to worry about what to say since he has already elaborated a well organised outline to follow. Consequently, he will develop the habit of writing quickly and saving time. Lastly, the writer's grammar will improve, as it becomes his major focus not on thoughts and organisation.

2.4.2. The Drafting Stage

It is the production stage of getting ideas down into graphic representations using the conventions and rhetoric of writing. It begins with writing the first draft by formulating sentences to convey the message and later on changing one draft to multiple ones; however, this stage should not be credited much emphasis over the others because the writer should give equal importance to all the stages to improve his writing ability and production. Harmer (1988) explains that "after the students have a list of ideas related to the topic, it is the stage for the students to start writing the first draft. They write the ideas they will write without paying attention to making mistakes." (p. 11)

2.4.3. The Revising Stage

Before and after finishing the first draft, writers should give time to revising in which they need to be critical readers of their writing. They re-read and reconsider their writing to measure the match between the plan and what has been written. This stage is considered a problem-solving activity that requires meta-cognitive knowledge on the part of the writers because they think about how to solve the problems of content and form by adding, deleting, and consolidating. These actions raise learners' awareness about the effective ways to write. In this respect, Flower and Hayes (1981) distinguish revision together with evaluation as a sub-process of the review stage:

Reviewing depends on two sub-processes, evaluating and revising. Reviewing itself may be a conscious process in which writers read what they have written either as a springboard to further translating or with an eye to systematically evaluating and/or revising the text. These periods of planned reviewing frequently lead to new cycles of planning and translating. However, the reviewing process can also occur as unplanned action triggered by an evaluation of either the text or one's own planning.   (p. 374)

2.4.4. The Editing Stage

The final stage in any writing activity is the editing one, which must be differentiated from the revising one because the former is concerned with the changes at the sentence or the surface level like punctuation, spelling, style, and usage, i.e., the mechanics of writing. In contrast, the latter focuses on language quality, coherence and cohesion.

Due to the significant importance of these various stages, teachers should help their students use different techniques and strategies in each stage and increase their awareness of practical ways to improve their writing products. Therefore, implementing a writing strategy instruction in the classroom and incorporating it within teaching materials are needed to enhance learners' meta-cognitive strategies during the writing process.

2.5. Different Models of the Process Approach to Write

The cognitive approach to teaching that appeared in 1970, seen as a backlash to traditional teaching approaches, made a noticeable shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred. In parallel and concerning approaches to teaching writing, a switch towards the process approach was witnessed as a reaction to the product approach.

The process approach is backed by a movement that helped to call attention to all writing steps. Students go through strategies recursively before they finally achieve a polished version. Thus, teaching writing in EFL classes witnessed a definite shift from an emphasis on the form to a more concentration on content and the different steps and strategies undertaken by the writer to reach the final version of their writing. Accordingly, researchers in the field of cognitive psychology and language teaching started to investigate this new trend of thoughts. They researched to define these steps and strategies, their order, and how student writers move from one step to another. Consequently, numerous models of the composing process appeared, each of which tried to explain how learners undertake the writing task.

2.5.1. Flower and Hayes' (1981) Cognitive Process Model of the Composing Process

Countless later studies confirmed the fundamental insight of this model. Flower and Hayes' model distinguished between three basic processes: Planning, which included generating ideas, organisation and goal setting as components; translating plans into the text; and finally, reviewing, which includes reading and editing as components. They have presented this in a "flow chart" of boxes indicating processes (e.g., «Revising/ Reviewing") and sub-processes (e.g., "Editing"), and arrows indicating information flow between them, These processes (cognitive processes rather than stages in the writing process) operated upon two kinds of information: a representation of the task environment, which consisted of the writing assignment and the text produced so far; and knowledge stored in long-term memory, which consisted of such things as topic knowledge, a model of the audience, the writing plan, rules for grammar production and knowledge of text standards.

Perhaps the most critical consequence of this research was that it enabled the characterization of differences between expert and novice writers (Hayes & Flower, 1986). Through this model, (see Figure 2) Flower and Hayes succeeded in redirecting composition by

creating a detailed model which identifies separate sub-skills of the composing process skilled writers use in concert together and less-skilled ones need to learn and practise.

The main difference between expert and novice writers lies in the length of time experts spent during the periods of 'planning' and 'translation' (composting), which was much longer than the time used by novices. Flower and Hayes (1980) state that when "confronting a new complex issue, writers must often move from a rich array of unorganized, perhaps even contradictory perceptions to integrated notions of just what it is they think about the topic" (p. 34) In other words, experts construct a more elaborate representation of their goals, and continue to develop and modify this representation throughout writing. (Flower and Hayes, 1980a). In particular, they develop explicit rhetorical goals for the text, which they use to guide content retrieval from long term memory. Novices, on the opposite, rely on more concrete content goals and tend to generate content in response to the topic alone.

Moreover, experts develop more elaborate plans to which they go back, yielding to the recursive nature of the process approach and modifying them throughout the writing task. In addition, the more elaborate conceptual representation of goals for them is evaluating their texts in terms of their underlying function for their goals, rather than simply considering whether the text is appropriately expressed (Hayes et al., 1987). Consequently, experts spend a very long time planning their writing and modifying content more during both planning and revision. In the following figure, Flower and Hayes give a clear presentation of the main components of the Cognitive Process Model of the Composing Process and how they are used by both novice and expert writers.

Figure 1

The Cognitive Process Model of the Composing Process (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 370)
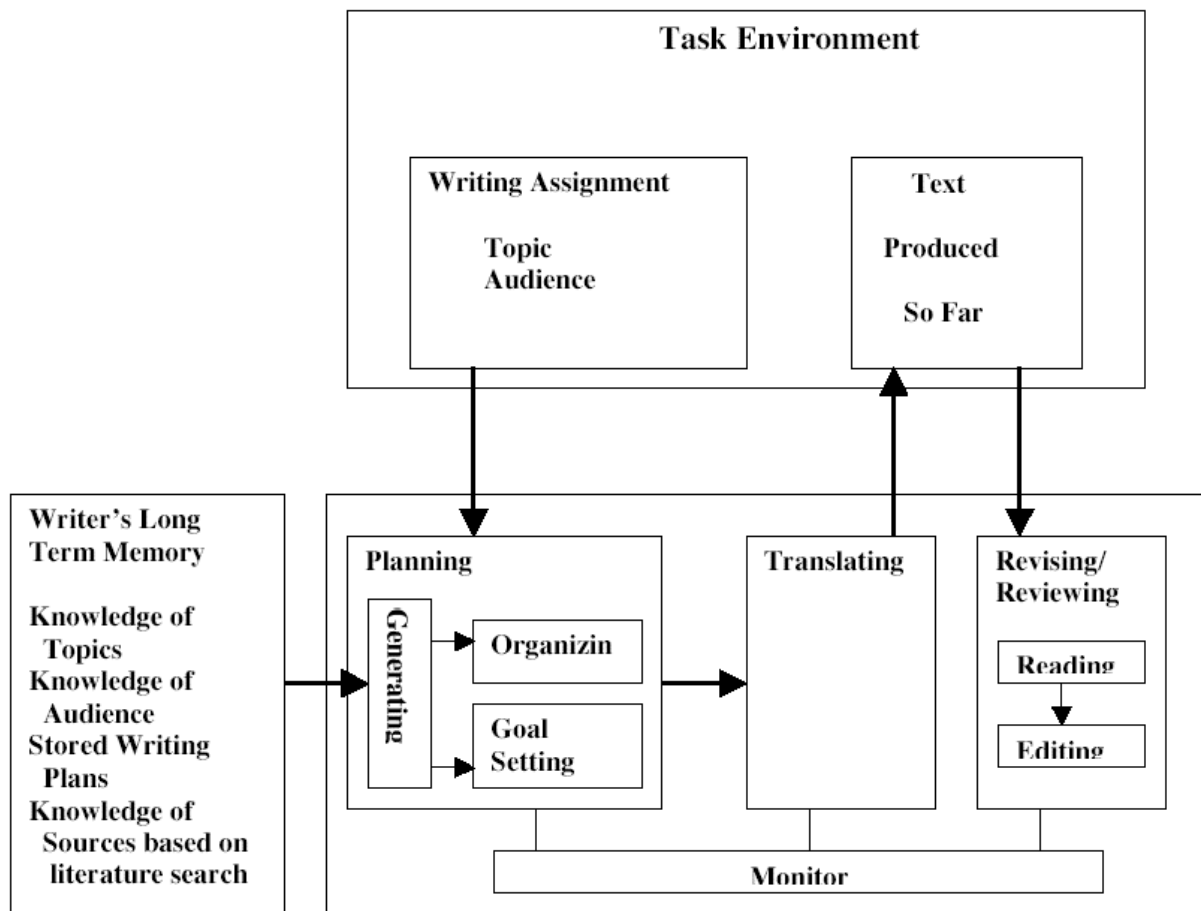
As shown in Figure 2, Flower and Hayes deduced that the actual cognitive behaviour of experienced writers would include: the task environment (the writing assignment, the writing task, or the text produced), the writer's long-term memory (knowledge about the topic, audience, and so forth) in addition to other cognitive and metacognitive processes such as planning, outlining, translating, revising, and editing. Commenting on The Cognitive Process Model of the Composing Process, Winne (2006) pointed out to the complexity of the composing process, which involves processes and sub-processes that writers go through in a recursive manner while composing. He states: "Hayes and Flower indicated that the execution of the

cognitive processes was under the writers' direct control, and proposed that virtually any sub-process could interrupt or incorporate any other sub-process" (p. 458).

2.5.2. Breiter & Scardamalia's (1987) Knowledge Transforming Model of Writing

Inspired by Flower and Hayes' model, Breiter and Scardamalia also elaborated a scheme that analysed differences between skilled and less-skilled student writers' writing ability trying to discover reasons behind disparity in their written achievements. The fundamental difference in their writing model was evident in terms of "knowledge telling" and "knowledge transforming" levels. Less skilled writers are observed to function at the level of "knowledge telling" as in a straightforward narrative. In contrast, more skilled writers are involved in "knowledge transforming" as in expository writing. The main difference is that less skilled writers get involved in the composing task retrieving from memory what they know about the topic and jotting it down in the same way they are involved in a speaking activity that does not demand much planning and revision. This is referred to in this model as natural or spontaneous as it can be performed by any fluent speaker who has mastery of the writing system.

On the contrary, more skilled writers are involved in knowledge transformation as in expository writing, which necessitates planning and revising to achieve a communicative goal. Conversely, more expert writers employ a knowledge-transforming strategy, which involves elaborating a representation of the rhetorical or communicative problem to be solved and using the goals derived from this representation to guide the generation and evaluation of content during writing. Consequently, expert writers show much more evidence of reflective thought during writing. They develop more elaborate plans before starting to compose, amend, modify, and elaborate these more radically during writing and extensively revise their initial drafts of texts. As a result, more expert writers' texts match the audience's needs, adapting their thoughts

to their communicative goals. By doing that, expert writers also develop their understanding of what they are writing about. Bergh and Rijlaarsdam (20007) explain:

> Breiter and Scardamalia (1987) distinguish two basic configurations: knowledge telling and knowledge transforming. Knowledge telling involves retrieving information on the subject matter and the relevant discourse schemas from long-term memory and translating these ideas into language. Successive parts of the text (sentence) reflect more or less directly the speed of activation through associative memory. In knowledge transformation, both sub-processes are involved too but are now mediated by more realistic problem-solving strategies by which communicative goals are imposed on the generation process.

> (p. 126)

Breiter and Scardamalia's (1987) model of the knowledge-telling process depends on the process of retrieving content from memory concerning topical and genre cues. Subsequently, if restored information is adequate to the topic, it is accepted and should eventually be written down. This process is repeated for more ideas which are then written as part of the essay until the writer covers all aspects of his topic. Furthermore, this process also focuses on the distinctive behaviours that reflect the writing process of less-skilled writers in which a shortcut route to writing is attained. Besides, less-skilled writers are likely to leap the more complicated activity of writing as their attention is attributed to the more relevant part of writing; that is, putting thoughts into words relevant to the topic. Expert writers, however, go through the different stages of the process mediated by more realistic problem-solving strategies. The communicative goals are imposed on the generation of ideas that are, then, transformed into concrete words.

Figure 2

Knowledge Telling and Knowledge Transforming (Breiter & Scardamalia, 1987, p.12)
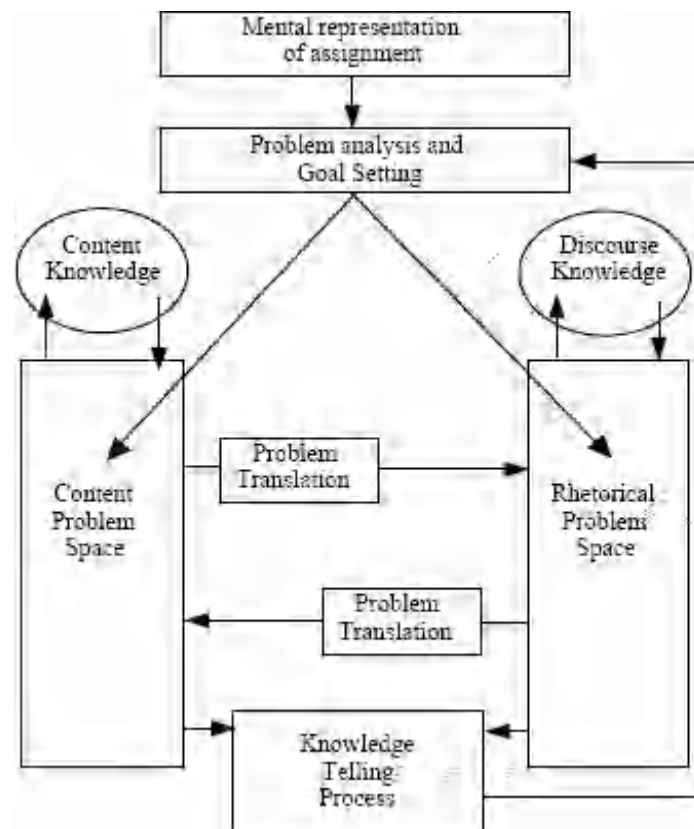
Breiter and Scardamalia (1987) noted that a knowledge-telling strategy is of great importance as it can help create content without the benefit of a conversation partner, which is very important in writing. Moreover, they described the knowledge-telling model by quoting a 12-year-old child's description of this process. "I have a whole bunch of ideas and write them down until my supply of ideas is exhausted. Then I might try to think of more ideas up the point when you cannot get any more ideas that are worth putting down on paper and then I would end it" (Breiter and Scardamalia,1987, p. 9). The structure of the Knowledge-Telling Model would be better illustrated through its graphic representation, as follows:

2.5.3. White and Arndt's Writing Process Model (1991)

White and Arndt (1991) state that there are some activities learners should follow to produce a text; these are recursive, beginning with a discussion in the class, be it in small groups or pairs. After the discussion comes the next activity, which requires students to take notes or to ask questions, it is called brainstorming. Once done, learners should select the right ideas, establish a viewpoint, and write it down as fast as possible to prepare for their first draft.

As far as evaluation is concerned, the writing activity is evaluated at three levels: An auto-evaluation, a peer evaluation, and finally a teacher evaluation executed at two levels, an oral level then a written one. In other words, a preliminary self-evaluation is done after brainstorming. Arranging the information and structuring the text is the first thing students should do to come up with the first draft. Once the first draft is ready, learners can work in groups or pairs to exchange feedback and respond to each other's pieces of writing. After that, a conference is held between the teacher and the learner for further advice and guidance to write the second draft, which is also to be self-evaluated, edited and proofread to write the finished draft, which is subject to final evaluation by the teacher. (White and Arndt, 1991)

Therefore, and according to White and Arndt, the process of writing requires the learners to consider many aspects of the writing task that may not be clearly ordered due to the recursive nature of the process approach. There is no clear cut between the different stages. For instance, the writer makes a continuous revision to his writing text on the basis of which he writes other drafts "some processes occur simultaneously, with one influencing another" (White & Arndt, 1991, p. 4). The other thing which is more difficult for the learner is organizing their ideas coherently with the use of abstract symbols of the language despite the absence of the person to whom he/ she is writing, the reader. The audience is a crucial element in the writing activity. In order to be well conceived by the reader, the learner must provide him/her with enough

truthful, relevant and transparent information. Hence, the writer must always make sure to keep the message he conveys in his writing clear for his audience in his absence.

The following figure illustrates how writers undertake the task of writing according to White and Arndt.

Figure 3

A Model of Writing (White & Arndt, 1991, p. 43)
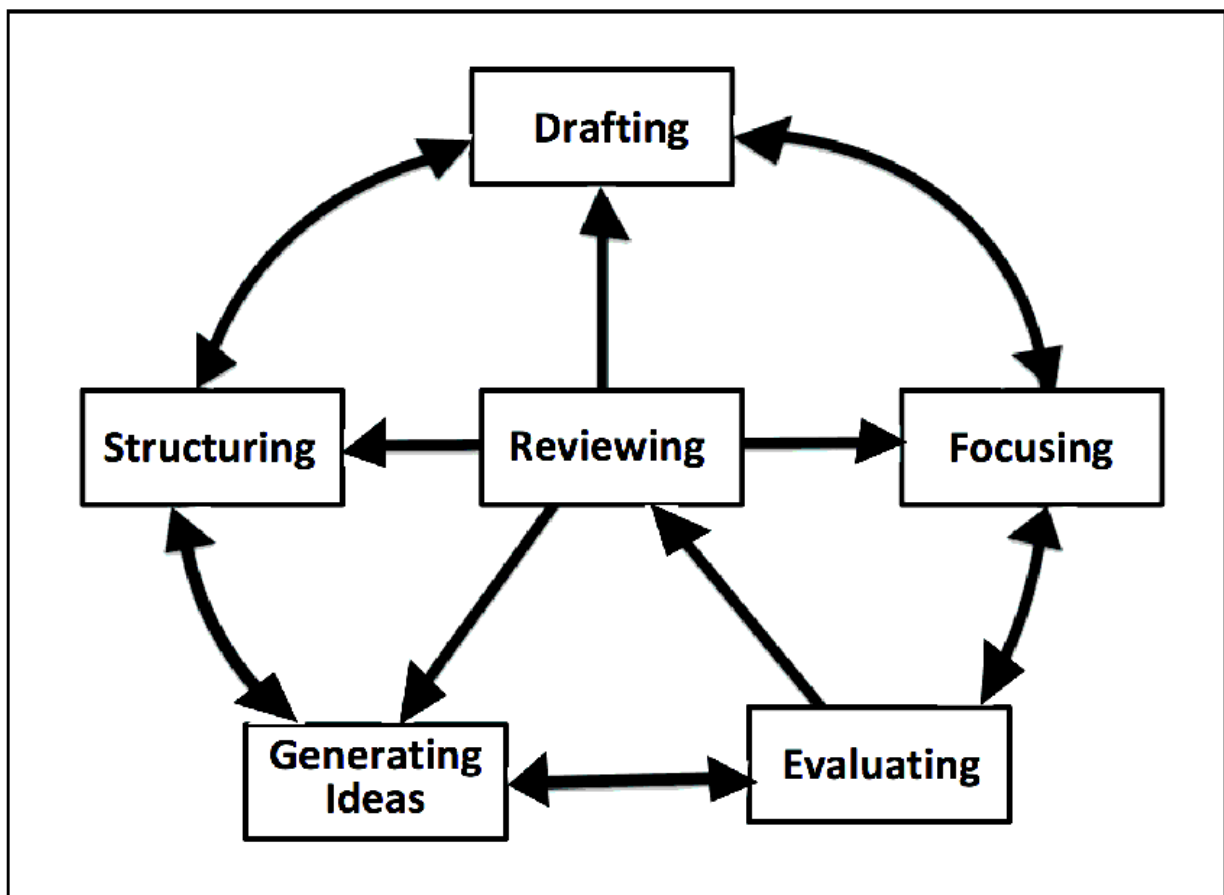
As shown in Figure 4, White and Arndt distinguished six main phases of the writing task, which are in constant interplay. The model presents five phases, namely drafting, structuring, generating ideas, evaluating, and focusing in a form of a wheel relating to each other with double headed arrows to indicate that the process of writing is a recursive one and students are

free to move backward and forward within the wheel's spokes to amend, change, delete, etc. Revising, however is placed in the centre of the wheel with arrows pointed to it from the other boxes. This indicates the crucial role the reviewing process plays within the framework of this model. White and Arndt (1991) identified three levels of the revising phase, namely auto evaluation, peer evaluation, and finally teacher evaluation, which assists each phase of the writing process.

2.5.4. The Model of Text Production Chenoweth & Hayes (2003)

Besides to the writing models previously provided, Chenoweth & Hayes (2003) developed also a model to explain the different cognitive and metacognitive steps the writer goes through before achieving a written text. In their model, they distinguished four processes: the proposer, the translator, the transcriber, and finally, the evaluator or reviser.

The proposer, as its name suggests, proposes ideas for expression. This component is assumed to involve the higher-order thinking stages (Bloom's taxonomies) and include the higher-level processes involved in planning and reflection, as characterized in global models of the writing process (Flower and Hayes, 1981, Breiter and Scardamalia, 1987, Hyland, 2003) and is responsible for creating an ideal package to be formulated in language. The proposer is a critical phase because it is responsible for deciding what to say next. The second process within the framework of the model at hand, the translator, is responsible for converting this message into linguistic strings. The transcriber, then, converts this linguistic string into a written text. Finally, the evaluator/reviser operates at two levels, evaluation and revision. The first is responsible for monitoring and evaluating word strings and text as they are produced, and the second is responsible for revising them when necessary.

Through the following illustration, creators of the model explain how the cognitive and metacognitive steps they named the proposer, the translator, the transcriber, and, the evaluator or reviser interact to produce a piece of writing.

Figure 4

The Model of Text Production Chenoweth & Hayes, 2003, p.113
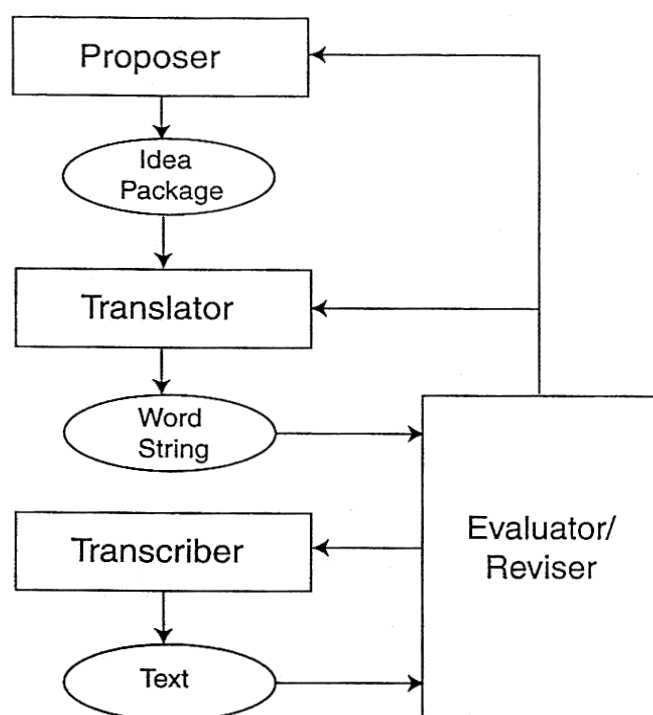
Again, in this model, through labelling the writing stages differently, Chenoweth & Hayes insist on the recursive aspect of the writing process and the way the proposer, translator, transcriber, and evaluator interact freely before producing the final text. The evaluator or reviser, like in the other models, is set apart and influences each phase of the process.

2.5.5. The Process Model of Writing Instruction (Hyland, 2003)

Like the previously cited researchers in the field, Hyland (2003) conducted research to discover the different cognitive stages the writer goes through to achieve a writing task.

Consequently, he proposed model he called the Process Model of Writing Instruction to explain the stages that student writers follow when preparing to write. In this model, Hyland, provided three cognitive significant stages a writer follows to achieve a writing task. He named: pre-writing / planning, drafting, and finally, reviewing. In fact, these are the terms adopted now whenever referring to the process approach of writing.

Figure 5

A Process Model of Writing Instruction (Hyland 2003, p. 11)
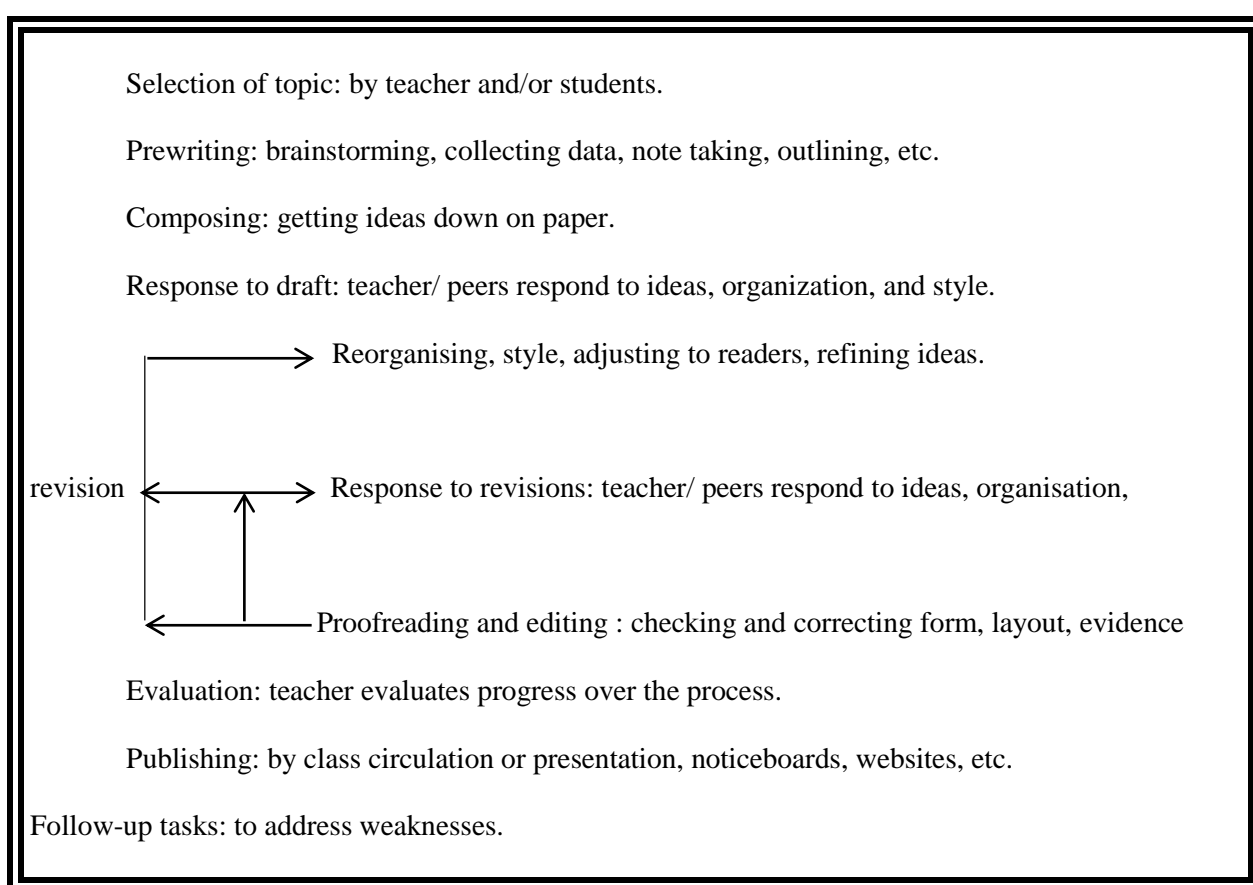
Hyland emphasised that the different stages of the writing process are not linear; they do not happen one after the other. Instead, they are recursive, and at any given phase, the student writer can freely go back and forth to move from one stage to another to make the necessary changes to come up with a final version of his written composition.

2.5.6. Zamel & Raimes (1983) Model of Skilled vs. Less-skilled Writers

In an attempt to identify the main features distinguishing skilled writers from their less-skilled peers, Zamel & Raimes (1983) provided a comprehensive list that encompasses behaviours skilled writers exhibit while undertaking the act of writing. In parallel, the same list contains actions less skilled writers exhibit while facing the composing stage. The researchers observed that skilled writers spend more time planning, revising and generating ideas while considering their audience. Less skilled writers were observed to make less use of their metacognitive skills and strategies since they seldom plan and revise and do not consider the needs of the audience they are writing to. Skilled writers have also been found to concentrate on ideas and their development. Less-skilled students, conversely, focus more on linguistic features and sentence structure. These differences between skilled and less-skilled writers in terms of cognitive and metacognitive decision making are summarised in Table 1:

Table 1.

Skilled and Less-skilled Writers (Zamel&Raimes, 1983, p. 57)

Skilled Writers	Less-skilled Writers
Consider purpose and audience.	Spend little time considering the reader.
Consider the text as a reader.	They cannot distance themselves from the text.
Constantly plan and revise.	Plan less and do less revising.
Consult their background knowledge.	Do not retrieve information from their background knowledge.
Constantly return to their higher level goals, which give direction and coherence to their next move.	It is fixed to low-level goals, such as linguistic structures.
Focus on meaning.	Focus on form.
Create goals as they compose while interacting with the text.	Subordinate their writing to plan.
Discover new ideas while writing.	More concerned with getting the language right.
Change their plans and goals to clarify their meaning	Seldom rework their plans.
Focus on big chunks of discourse.	Re-scan large segments of their plan less often, focusing mainly on the sentence level.
Let ideas incubate.	Do not spend time generating ideas.
Put their thoughts into words making use of the written language effectively.	Translate their thoughts into words by paying attention to the external features of the language
Re-read to see if the idea is well developed	Re-read to correct surface-level errors
Review to plan what is coming next or evaluate or revise what has been written.	Concerned with a local decision, at the sentence level and bound to the text.
Self-monitor the process and the progress of the text.	Do not assess the text.

2.6.Writing Process in the English Foreign Language Context

A significant finding of L2 composing process research is that when non-native learners write in the target language, they can transfer strategies from L1 writing. ESL/ EFL learners who are expert writers in L1 usually plan to reach their goals satisfactorily and, hence, seem to operate in the same way expert writers do (Cumming 1989).

Even though research in L2 is relatively recent and often limited to specific case studies adopted in different contexts and conditions, it was first and foremost spurred by research done in L1 composition. Depending chiefly on case studies with small groups of writers, findings from research on composing processes show that L2 students often act like less-skilled L1 writers, as depicted in L1 research (Raimes, 1985). Furthermore, it is stated that process-oriented teaching led to similar learner progress whether students are working on L1 or L2, specifically in the elementary grades (Hudelson, 1998).

In her research on L2 writing, Zamel (1983) studied the process of skilled and unskilled writers in L2 and compared them to behaviours of skilled and unskilled writers in L1. The results showed that writers share similarities while composing either in L1 or in L2. For instance, both L1 and L2 skilled writers refine their plans, go through several drafts and revise the final one. Significant findings of Zamel's research are summarized in the following table.

Table 2

Skilled and unskilled Writers in ESL/ EFL Contexts (Zamel, 1983, p. 58)

Skilled L1/ L2 Writers	Unskilled L1/ L2 Writers
Discovered ideas while writing	They did not explore their thoughts on paper
Reviewed and modified their plans	Fixed unflexible plans
Reconsidered the function of the text	Concerned with mechanics, correctness and form
Consider the text as readers	I did not have a sense of the audience
Concerned with ideas	Concerned with correction
Edited at the end of the process	Edited throughout the process
Rewrote several times, producing a change of context first, then changes in form	Rewrote less, producing change at the level of form
Re-read whole paragraphs	Re-read small bits of discourse

According to Zamel, skilled L1 and skilled L2 writers share similarities as both revise, edit and rewrite to make their texts match their plans which they constantly revise and edit through the process, taking into account their audience's needs. On the other hand, both L1 and L2 unskilled writers focus more on form rather than on content correcting mistakes of the surface features and paying little attention to the audience's needs.

Conclusion

Writing is an arduous mental activity, for it necessitates the orchestrating of both cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Consequently, the process approach to writing appeared to give credit to the cognitive stages writers go through while composing. Consequently, it substituted the product-approach in both native and non-native writing classes.

       This chapter explores the process approach to writing instruction, showing that it is more than simply the presentation of a written product. Instead, it is a complex, recursive, creative, and unpredictable progression of strategies whereby the writer has an evolving role. The chapter also discusses some of the predominant models of the process approach to write. The analysis of these models revealed an emphasis on the same writing phases but with different terminology. These stages were defined and discussed with a special emphasis on the pre-writing stage, the subject of inquiry in this research work.

       Finally, adopting the process-oriented approach for teaching writing is an adequate way to enhance learners' performance not only in EFL classes but also in the native language writing classes**,** as research showed that writers who master the writing processes tend to make use of them both in their native language as well as in the target language.

Chapter Three

Metacognition

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Introduction

It is assumed that harder than thinking is thinking about thinking. In recent years, metacognition has emerged and gained ground as a significant field of research interest in cognitive psychology. Recent research has seen a growing recognition that metacognition or self-awareness, including awareness of ourselves as learners, helps us to learn more effectively. However, how can metacognition be defined? How does it contribute to facilitate learning, and how can teachers use it to foster students' learning in their classrooms to enhance their achievements? The present chapter provides an answer to these questions besides various definitions of metacognition scholars have enriched the research field with.

3.1. Definition of Metacognition

A meta was one of the conical columns set on the ground at each end of the Circus in Rome to mark the turning point in the race. Similarly, meta-cognition can be seen as a turning point in our understanding of the mind. The prefix meta has come to refer to something that transcends the subject it is related to. What does it mean, then, to transcend cognition? (FIisher, 1998). The concept of metacognition, introduced in cognitive psychology more than thirty years ago, refers to knowledge about one's cognitive processes and strategies or anything related to. The term was coined by Flavell (1976) to refer to an individual's awareness of thinking and learning: what we are thinking, how we are thinking about a learning task or situation and why we are thinking in a particular way (Flavell, 1976). By this, Flavell pointed to metacognitive knowledge and thinking about it, referring to it as a uniquely human capacity of people for being self-reflexive, not just to think and know but to think about their thinking and knowing. He further explains cognition to be "knowledge that takes as its object or regulates any aspect

of any cognitive endeavour" (Flavell, 1978, p. 8). Psychologists such as James (1890) emphasised the importance of 'introspective observation', but Vygotsky (1962) was one of the first to realise that conscious reflective control and deliberate mastery were essential in school learning. He suggested that there were two factors in the development of knowledge. First, it is automatic, unconscious acquisition followed by a gradual increase in active conscious control over that knowledge, which essentially marks a separation between cognitive and metacognitive aspects of performance. Flavell argued that if we can bring the process of learning to a conscious level, one can help children to be more aware of their thoughts and processes and help them gain control or mastery over the organization of their learning (Flavel, 1995). Accordingly, effective learning is not the mere manipulation of information so that it is integrated into an existing knowledge base but involves, in addition to manipulation, directing one's attention to what has been assimilated, which includes understanding the relationship between the new information and what is already known, understanding the processes which facilitated this, and being aware when something new has been learned.

In another definition, metacognition refers to the knowledge and ability to understand and self-monitor the cognitive strategies used while learning (Schraw & Dennison, 1994). The term monitoring appears, in this definition, to stand for regulation of learning. Moore (1982) defined metacognition as an individual's knowledge about various aspects of thinking and it has also been described as "the abilities of individuals to adjust their cognitive activity in order to promote more effective comprehension" (Gavelek& Raphael, 1985, pp. 22-23). Gradually, the concept was broadened to include anything psychological, rather than just anything cognitive; For instance, if one has knowledge or cognition about one's own or someone else's emotions or motives, this can be considered as metacognitive knowledge.

Kluwe (1982) describes the activities involved in metacognition as "(a) the thinking subject has some knowledge about his own thinking and that of other persons; and (b) the thinking subject may monitor and regulate the course of his own thinking, i.e., may act as the causal agent of his own thinking" (p. 202). Moreover, Kluwe uses the term 'executive processes' to denote both monitoring and regulating strategies. Executive monitoring refers to the outcome of progress to be achieved; whereas executive regulation processes refer to those:

> that are directed at the regulation of the course of one's own thinking. They involve one's decisions that help (a) to allocate his or her resources to the current task; (b) to determine the order of steps to be taken to complete the task; and (c) to set the intensity or (d) the speed at which one should work at the task.

(Kluwe, 1982, p. 212).

It is then clear from the already stated definitions that there is an agreement among psychologists that metacognition means cognition about cognition. It, basically, refers to second-order cognition; that is thoughts about thoughts, knowledge about knowledge or reflections about actions. So, as cognition involves perceiving, understanding, remembering, and so forth, metacognition involves thinking about one's own perceiving, understanding, remembering, etc. However, recent definitions of metacognition exceed that basic meaning to include knowledge of one's knowledge, processes, and cognitive and affective states and to the conscious and deliberate monitoring and regulation applied to regulate them. Therefore, the terms metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation stem as key concepts in this field of research.

3.2. The Scope of Metacognition

Metacognition is the knowledge of and the ability to understand and to self-monitor the cognitive strategies used while learning (Flavell, 1979; Schraw & Dennison, 1994). Flavell (1981) pointed to an important distinction between metacognitive experiences and metacognitive knowledge. Metacognitive experiences are conscious feelings during some cognitive activity that relate to the process; for example, during a communication task, feeling of confusion or hesitation about the choice someone made. Metacognitive knowledge was described by Flavell (1981) as that part of the accumulated world knowledge, which has to do with people as cognitive agents and their cognitive tasks, goals, actions and experiences. Some examples of this kind of metacognition are when someone feels able to describe his understanding of what goes on, to explain and recognize feelings of uncertainty or confusion in some people, etc.

Wright (1992) distinguished between two levels of meta-reflection, namely low-level and higher-level reflections. The former involves the thinker: "reflecting on her means of coping in familiar contexts. However "… she is unlikely to be capable of reflecting about herself as the intentional subject of her actions" (pp. 60-61). The latter is what would generally be called metacognition. "Reflecting about one's knowledge or intentions involves an element which is absent from reflection about the surrounding world to reason about how I reason, I need access to a model of my reasoning performance". (Wright 1992, p. 61)

Brown et al. (1983) provided another dichotomy concerning metacognition, claiming that two versions of metacognition are often confused, namely the essential distinction between self-regulation during learning and knowledge of, or even mental experimentation with, one's thoughts. Adey &Shayer (1994) agreed with this distinction, which they have identified as going beyond and above the present learning behaviour. This can be equated with what Newman et al. (1989) called construction zone activity, which can be described as self-

awareness judgments related to monitoring and controlling one's cognitive processes. This accords closely with Brown's definition of metacognition as self-regulation during learning and Flavell's original definition of metacognition as an individual's conscious awareness of one's thoughts and processes. However, it is unclear whether going beyond and going above can be so clearly separated since if students have not learned how to go beyond, they do not have anything too abstract from experience. So, if teaching thinking is to include metacognitive components, it must include both going beyond and going above, which Fishers (1998) called cognitive extension (CE) and metacognitive thinking (MT). Note, however, that the reverse does not necessarily follow. That is, teachers may encourage going beyond in the sense of extending children's range of cognitive experience without any metacognitive going above (MT). It would be a mistake to believe that CE requires MT or any of the expanded consciousness of metacognitive activity. In this view, CE is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for MT.

It is clear from what has been reported so far that metacognition refers to thinking about thinking, which is harder than thinking itself. In the same line of thought, two levels of metacognition were identified by the cognitive psychologists (Flavell, 1979; Brown, 1983; Schraw & Dennison, 1994; Fischer, 1998) though they label them differently. They are metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation. However, they are often confused.

3.2.1. Metacognitive Knowledge

Metacognitive knowledge refers to individuals' knowledge of how they learn and process information (Flavell, 1987). It is also defined as knowledge about one's cognitive processes (Brown, 1987; Flavell, 1979). Flavell (1976) defined metacognition as knowledge about cognitive processes or products. He states:

Metacognition refers to one's knowledge concerning cognitive processes and products or anything related to them, e.g., the learning-relevant properties of information or data. For example, I am engaging in metacognition (metamemory, meta-learning, metacognitive-attention, Metalanguage, or whatever).If I notice that I am having more trouble learning A than B; if it strikes me that I should double-check C before accepting it as a fact; if it occurs to me that I had better scrutinize each and every alternative in any multiple choice type task situation before deciding which is the best one; if I sense that I had better make a note D because I may forget it…   (p. 232).

In his definition, Flavell defined metacognition as knowledge about cognitive processes or products, which may be in the form of metalanguage, metamemory, meta-learning or others. All of these involve an auto-evaluation to identify one's strengths and weaknesses to set a plan of action to monitor one's learning while facing a given learning situation.

Furthermore, Flavell provided a model in which he distinguished three main components of the metacognitive knowedge. They are person, task and strategy. As far as the person component is concerned, it relates to the individual's self-knowledge as well as the knowledge one can have about other individuals he knows or the learning situation in general. The person variable is further divided into three subcategories: 'Intra-individual differences', which concerns the individual's awareness of his own competences and limitations, 'inter-individual differences', which links the knowledge one has about himself with the knowledge he/ she has about others through comparisons, and finally 'universals of cognition'. It deals with the general view people have about the cognitive functioning and about what learning entails, such as the existence of long term and short-term memory. (Flavell, 1976).

 The second and the third components of Metacognitive knowledge are 'task' and 'strategy'. The former refers to how the task variables impact cognitive operations. Flavell asserted that when performing a given task, a related amount of information is available. That is, the understanding that individuals have about how the variety in information quality, quantity, clarity and organization will impact the task achievement. The third and last component in Flavell's model is the strategy variable. It refers to the knowledge of the different procedures and actions taken by the learner to facilitate the achievement of a given task. Doly (1998) explained that the difference between cognitive and metacognitive strategies lies in the fact that cognitive strategies may have been simply 'transmitted'while metacognitive ones are often more internalized and are specific to the learner. Flavell's model of metacognition can be represented through the following figure.

Figure 6

Flavell's Model of Metacognition (Flavell, 1979, p.10)
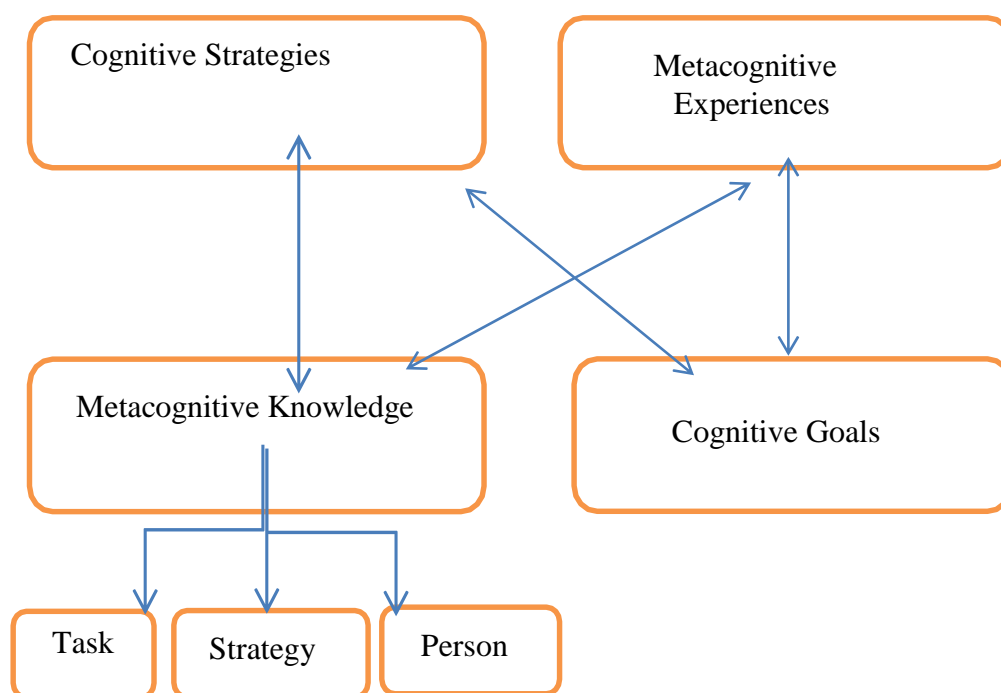
When students develop metacognitive knowledge, it can be expected that they are in control of their learning for now and for the future (Hacker, 1998; Paris & Winograd, 1990). Acquiring metacognitive knowledge requires the integration of understanding and access to one's cognitive processes.

In line with Schraw and Moshman (1995), metacognitive knowledge is required to make possible developments and changes in one's cognitive processes. Metacognitive knowledge includes what someone knows about his own thinking and what he knows about strategies he can apply to learn. Metacognitive knowledge includes three main components; declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and conditional knowledge. As far as Declarative knowledge is concerned, it involves knowing about oneself as a learner, the demands of the task, and the existing learning strategies that can contribute in performing the task. The second component, Procedural knowledge, involves the knowledge about the actual use of the identified learning strategies. Conditional knowledge involves knowing when and why to use particular learning strategies.

3.2.2. Metacognitive Regulation

Metacognitive regulation also known as metacognitive skillfulness refers to processes that coordinate cognition. These include both bottom-up processes called cognitive monitoring (e.g., error detection, source monitoring in memory retrieval) and top-down processes called cognitive control. (e.g., conflict resolution, error correction, inhibitory control, planning, resource allocation.) (Nelson &Narens, 1990; Reder & Schunn, 1996)

Brown (1982) who was among the first researchers interested in information processing theory, claimed that unlike metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive regulation is not age dependent since very young children are capable of self-correcting and self-regulating their

actions and language productions. She later explained that metacognitive regulation is a sequential strategy to control cognitive activities. (1987)

Brown (1982) divided metacognitive regulation (or executive processes) into three main phases: planning, monitoring, and evaluating. The first phase, planning, includes the preparatory operations concerning the task at hand, such as setting the goals, deciding on the time needed and the number of efforts required for the activity as well as the selection of the suitable strategy. The second phase, that is, monitoring happens in the actual progress of the task. It refers to the cautious awareness that manages the development of the activity on the one hand. On the other hand, it tests the actions taken with regard to the pre-set goals, and detects the emerging errors. Finally, evaluating deals with the outcomes of the cognitive process. It is concerned with the examination of the final results after achieving a given task using some strategies. The objective behind is to assess the learning process for necessary amendments to suit better other future tasks.

In order to explain metacognition, Shraw and Moshman (1995) provided a theoretical framework which divides metacognition into two components: metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation. Metacognitive knowledge was explained earlier, whereas metacognitive regulation encompasses three components: planning, monitoring, and evaluating as illustrated in Figure 7.

Figure 7

Metacognitive Knowledge and Metacognitive Regulation (Shraw and Moshman, 1995)
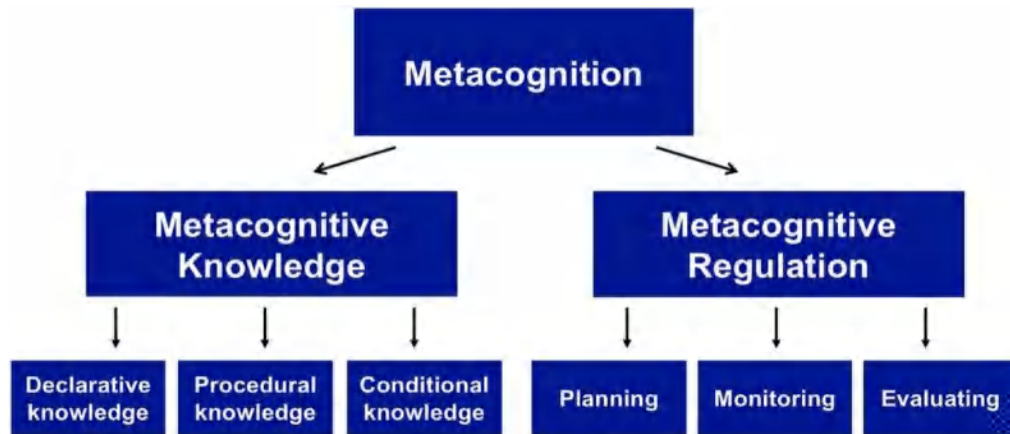
Metacognitive regulation includes the different actions the learner takes in order to learn and evaluate one's own learning. Metacognitive regulation includes also three phases. The first of which is Planning; it involves deciding what strategies to use for a future learning task and when they should be used. Monitoring involves assessing one's understanding of concepts and the effectiveness of the chosen strategies while learning. Evaluating involves appraising prior plan and adjusting it for future learning.

Flavell (1976) explained that monitoring of processes relates to some cognitive data to achieve a concrete goal. He says: "Metacognition refers, among other things, to active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes concerning cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective" (Flavell, 1976, p. 23). According to Flavell (1979), the monitoring of a wide variety of cognitive enterprises occurs through the actions and interactions among four classes of phenomena:

- Metacognitive knowledge;
- Metacognitive experiences;

- goals (or tasks);

- actions (or strategies).

Furthermore, Flavell provided a model of cognitive monitoring to illustrate the constant interaction among the four classes of phenomena, as illustrated in the following figure.

Figure 8

A Model of Cognitive Monitoring (Flavell, 1981, p. 40)
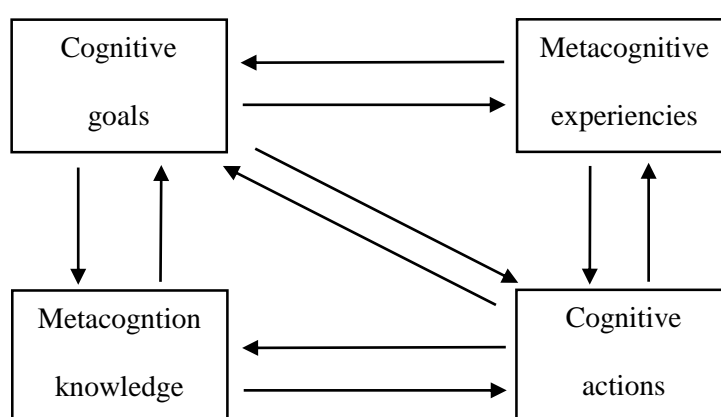
Flavell explained that besides to metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experiences, which have already been explained earlier, goals (or tasks) refer to the objectives of a cognitive enterprise, while actions (or strategies) refer to the cognitions or other behaviours employed to achieve them. These four classes of phenomena, according to Flavell, (1979) are in constant interplay.

3.3.   Metacognition and Academic Performance

If one wishes to develop intelligent behaviour as a significant outcome of education, instructional strategies intended to develop children's metacognitive abilities must be infused into our teaching methods, staff development, and supervisory processes (Costa, 1981, cited in Costa, 1987). Metacognition, like everything else, develops with practice, yet direct instruction in metacognition may not be beneficial. When strategies of problem solving are prescribed

rather than discovered by the students themselves, their performance may be hampered. Conversely, when students experience the need for problem solving strategies, they induce their own, discuss them and practise them to a degree that they become spontaneous and unconscious, their metacognition seems to improve (Sternberg & Wagner, 1982, cited in Costa, 1987). However, this is not obvious for all types of learners. Only outliers have been observed to develop their own metacognition. The trick, therefore, is to teach metacognitive skills without creating an even greater burden on students' ability to attend or to get bored.

Although the strong emphasis of metacognitive research was initially on the theoretical aspects of metacognition, recently an equally strong emphasis was created with respect to its educational application. As such, many researchers, convinced of the educational relevance that metacognitive theory has for teachers and students, have been shifting their attention from the theoretical to the practical, from the laboratory to the classroom. For example, Borkowski & Muthukishna (1992) argue that metacognitive theory has "considerable potential for aiding teachers as they strive to construct classroom environments that focus on strategic learning that is both flexible and creative" (p. 479). Paris & Winograd (1990), in their turn, explain that "students can enhance their learning by becoming aware of their own thinking as they read, write and solve problems in school. Teachers can promote this awareness directly by informing students about effective problem-solving strategies and discussing cognitive and motivational characteristics of thinking" (p.15). In a more practical form, teachers can use a variety of strategies to enhance metacognition, independent of grade level and subject area, but respecting age and maturation.

Accordingly, Koutselini suggests a series of such strategies, which help students to become conscious of the way in which they think, and consequently improve their metacognition:

- encourage the student to 'think aloud';

- focus his/her attention on understanding the way she/he thinks and the problems she/he has to solve;

- ask not only for the results, but also for the procedure of thought and strategy followed;

- teach strategies for overcoming difficulties;

- place each subject among its relevant ones and find connections among them;

- encourage the student to generate questions before, during and after the elaboration of a subject;

- help the student to perceive entities, connections, relations, similarities and differences;

- enable the student to become aware of the criteria for assessment.

(Koutselini 1991, pp. 52-53)

Koutselini provided a list of strategies that learners need to perform while having the necessary scaffolding of their teachers in order to develop their metacognition and be able to regulate their learning. The overall aim behind using these strategies is to engage learners in their learning by making them more active participants focusing on the mental strategies and decisions they make to achieve a learning task and asses it rather than on focusing on the learning outcome in itself. In their effort to promote metacognitive development in their students, teachers need to provide them with enough classroom practice opportunities for the fostering of metacognitive experiences, which, in turn, will provide input to permanent metacognitive knowledge.

Paris and Winograd, (1990) affirmed that cognitive monitoring enhances learning, while Butler and Winne (1995) asserted that there is agreement among theoreticians that the most effective learners are self-regulating. Self-regulation is often referred to as a synonymous to metacognitive strategies use (Boekaerts & Simons, 1995). In parallel, Schraw (1998) supported that academic performance is improved by metacognitive experience, which provides input for metacognitive regulation, as learners utilise resources and existing strategies better.

Recent research studies (e.g. The study conducted by Camahalan, 2006) provided that students' academic achievement as well as their learning abilities are more likely to improve when they are given the opportunity to self-regulate and are explicitly taught metacognitive learning strategies. Therefore, metacognitive teaching should be embedded within regular class material.

3.4. Regulation of Cognition in the Classroom

Metacognition is a skill set of planning, monitoring and evaluating cognitive strategies that allow learners to control and monitor their learning to complete a task. Planning is when students think about how they will accomplish a task, what relevant previous knowledge they may have, and what gaps in their knowledge may exist (Brown, 1987). Students' abilities to plan may affect their performance on a task. When monitoring, students self-assess their knowledge about the task and the strategies they use to perform it; eg. asking questions about their writing, using a checklist, or making a peer evaluation. Finally, evaluating is the step in which students reflect on the strategies and goals they used to complete the task and whether they could have used different strategies to complete it better. An example of this step is students' reflections on their procedure for writing a composition about what they learned and how they could improve their writing to achieve a better level.

Chamot et al. (1999) provided the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) model. It is a model designed "to increase the school achievement of students who are learning through the medium of a second language" (Rubin et al, 2011, p.142). It is one such model, which organizes learning strategies according to the metacognitive processes of planning, monitoring, problem-solving and evaluating. It "fosters language and cognitive development by integrating content, language and SBI" (Chamot, 2005a). This is shown in the following figure:

Figure 9

Metacognitive Model of Strategic Learning. (Chamot et al, 1999, p. 130)
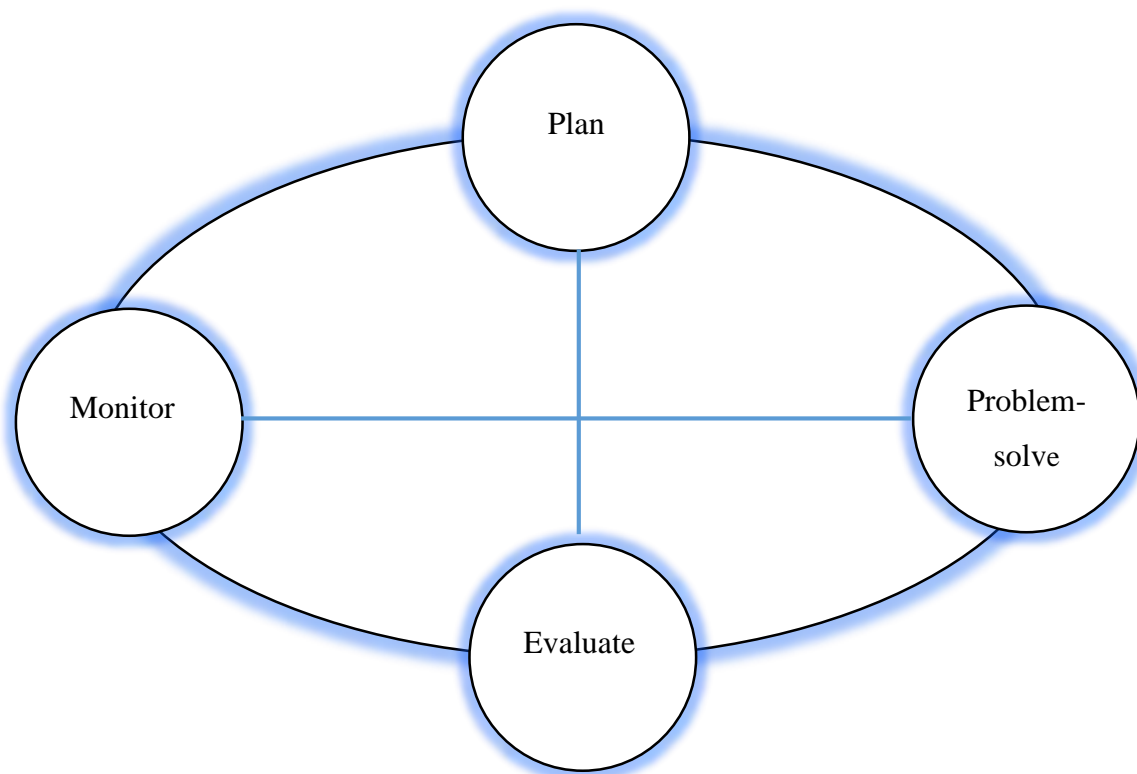
3.5.   The Effects of Metacognitive Instruction on Skill Development

Effective learning is not just a matter of innate intelligence. This may lead people to fall into the 'intelligence trap' (Bono, 1992) or the 'illusion of knowledge'(Boorstin1985), which is the greatest obstacle to discovery. In other words, quite frequently, people trust their knowledge and abilities, and thus, they may become trapped in what they already know and not open to new learning, leading them to ignorance. Accordingly, metacognitive instruction seems to be a key component in students' improvement and academic success.

Some children, who do not exhibit a high level of intelligence, are more competent at learning practical strategies and applying them appropriately. In contrast, others who seem more intelligent or knowledgeable can be remarkably unintelligent in their approach to learning. Binet argued that self-criticism is a central factor in intelligence, that it is not innate but must

be nurtured through education (Binet as cited in Barram, 2004). Flavell and his colleagues (1995) suggested that metacognitive ability changes with age and that older children are more successful learners because they have internalized more metacognitive information. The failure to use these strategies, however, may not be related so much to age but to experience, and teachers' interventions can help even young children to develop some of the meta-components that are the strategies of successful learning.

Metacognitive knowledge and skills are innate in humans; however, they do not fully form inherently (Brown, 1982). As children, metacognitive processes increase naturally, such as knowledge about one's memory abilities (Garner & Alexander, 1989). However, when moving into adolescence, people will develop further metacognition only if it becomes necessary to do so. For example, adolescent students may be able to perform a task using specific cognitive strategies, such as asking questions about a problem in order to learn more information. However, they may lack the ability to monitor that they are learning the new information unless the learning environment requires in some way that they do so. (Brown, 1982). Research supports that as students enter adolescence, they need to be taught how to recognize their memory capabilities and monitor their learning to become better problem solvers (Veenman, Elshout, & Meijer, 1997). Often, students are not explicitly taught these strategies, so they may not recognize these processes exist. Teaching students that they can know about and regulate their learning by providing an environment that encourages them to do so can help them move from thinking like novices to thinking more like experts. (Sternberg, 1998)

Recent investigation on second language education has seen a growing interest in investigating students' metacognitive awareness relevant to learning second language skills and the effects of metacognitive instruction on skill development. (Ruan 2014). Students'

metacognitive awareness of the underlying listening processes can be enhanced through explicit verbalisation of listening strategies through embedding metacognitive instruction into pedagogical tasks has proved effective in developing listening comprehension, as has been shown in the research works of Cross (2010). Research into metacognitive awareness of EFL students' reading strategies also found a strong relationship between metacognition and successful reading comprehension (Zhang, 2001). However, there is a lack of current research reports on the metacognitive awareness of EFL student writers in the literature on second language teaching and research. (Ruan 2014)

Expert learners exhibit high levels of metacognitive knowledge and skill use compared to novice ones because they have well-organized mental frameworks that recognize when their current level of understanding is insufficient and what remains for them to do to close that gap in understanding. Moreover, they are able to transfer these strategies to new learning situations. Oxford pointed to the transfer of learning strategies to other learning situations when she affirms that "language learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations." (Oxford, 1990, p. 8)

3.6. Strategies to Develop Metacognition

Scholars (Costa, 1984; Nisbet and Shucksmith, 1986; Blakey & Spence, 1990; Harri-Augstein & Thomas, 1991; Fisher, 1995; Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009) named a set of metacognitive strategies that ought to be developed in learners to bring about better learning.

Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986) suggested six strategies for successful learning: Asking questions, planning, monitoring, checking, revising, and self-testing. However, Harri-Augstein & Thomas (1991) felt such strategies do not go far enough since they do not verbalize internal experience or involve conversations among learners leading to knowledge discovery. Scholars

argued that learning depends on 'conversations', or the negotiation of personal meanings through dialogue with others, leading to understanding. These conversations can be internal but are particularly effective and carried out in pairs or groups where different ways of interpreting personal experiences can be explored to mutual benefit. Fisher (1995) also summarized some teaching to learn cognitive strategies identified in recent research, including 'discussing' and 'co-operative learning', among those that help develop metacognition.

According to Pramling (1988), teaching should not focus on cognitive skills training but on a metacognitive approach to thinking about curriculum content. He argued that metacognition depends on content and context in the sense that metacognitive strategies do not exist in general terms but only in a certain content (Pramling, 1988). He divided this process into three stages, which can be summed up as moving from the what level of cognitive description (CD), to the how level of cognitive extension (CE), to the why level of metacognitive thinking (MT):

• focus on what the child is thinking about a content (CD)

• focus on how the child is thinking about the content (CE)

• focus on the child's thinking about his/her thinking about the content (MT)

In parallel, Beeston (1973) offered a typology of three levels in learning:

• Level 1: First-order learning is confined learning, where facts or skills are defined by context, for example, and the classroom.

• Level 2: Second-order learning takes the learner outside a confining frame, enabling comparisons and connections to be made so that decisions are based on richer data, encompassing subjective factors and objective material. Learning by doing offers the opportunity for second-order learning.

• Level three: third order learning involves discovering the ability to doubt the validity of previously held perceptions, the learning being about learning itself. (Beeston, 1973).

Thus, Bateson, through his taxonomy, pointed to three levels of learning. The first one involves learning provided in artificial situations, namely the classroom. Then, learners are provided with the opportunity to learn in real-life situations where they can experience effective and lifelong learning. The last step involves evaluating previous learning experiences and previously held perceptions. That is learning about learning itself.

In their turn, Zimmerman and Moylan provided a set of metacognitive strategies that they framed in a model they called The Metacognition Cyclic Phases Model. The latter was developed by the scholars in 2009, It represents the Cyclic Phases which match the cognitive and metacognitive stages of human thinking. According to Zimmerman & Moylan, humans, during the learning process, go through three different phases, which they named: forethought, performance, and self-reflection. The first stage is Forethought or also known as the planning stage. It is a stage where the task is analyzed, goals and strategic planning are set. The second stage is Performance, refers to the phase where the task is carried out. It is monitored through self-control and self-observation strategies. The final stage, the self-reflection or regulating stage, is a stage in which the task is further refined. During this last step, the task performance is evaluated and feedback is reviewed to improve strategies use in future. The different phases of the Metacognitive Cyclic Phases Model are presented in the following figure.

Figure 10

Metacognitive Cyclic phases model (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009, as cited in Anthonysamy, 2021, p. 6884)

Performance Phase

Self- Control

Task Strategies

Self instruction

Imagery

Time Management

Environmental Structuring

Help Seeking

Interest Incentives

Self-consequences

Self-Observation

Metacognitive monitoring -Self-recording

Forethought Phase

Task Analysis

Goal Setting

Strategic Planning

Self- Motivation Beliefs

Self-efficacy Outcome expectation Task

Interest/value Goal orientation

Self-Reflection Phase

Self- Judgement Self-evaluation

Causal attribution

Self-Reaction

Self-satisfaction/affect

Adaptive/defensive

Other researchers (Costa, 1984; Blakey & Spence (1990); Brown, as quoted in Boekaerts & Simons, 1995) provided another taxonomy of metacognitive strategies which encompasses a large number of strategies, here is the definition of the most important ones:

3.6.1. Planning Strategies

At the beginning of a learning activity, teachers have to make learners aware of a set of strategies, rules and steps in problem solving activities; time constraints, objectives and basic rules associated with the learning activity. They should be made explicit and internalised by the learners. Thereby, they will keep them top of the mind throughout the learning activity and keep them as a baseline against which they would evaluate their performance. During the learning activity, teachers have to encourage learners to share their progress, as well as the cognitive processes and perspectives of their behaviour. As a result, they will become more conscious about their own behaviour and teachers will be able to identify issues and problematic areas intheir learners' thinking (Costa, 1984). Nevertheless, teachers have to lead learners to be conscious of how important is to plan for themselves because when learning is planned by someone else, it is difficult for learners to become self-directed (Blakey & Spence, 1990).

3.6.2. Generating Questions

Learners have to be able to monitor their own learning. In this respect, Blakey and Spence (1990) stated that learners should be aware of what they know and what they do not know at the beginning of a research activity. As the research activity progresses, their initial declarations about their knowledge of the research activity will be checked, clarified, refined, and broadened. Ratner (1991) argued that the questioning of given information and assumptions is a vital aspect of intelligence. He further explained that learners should pose questions for themselves before and during any activity and try to relate it to prior learning and extend it to further knowledge. For example, as far as the reading skill is concerned, learners, during the reading of any learning material, must pause regularly to determine whether they understand the concept; if they can link it with prior knowledge; if other examples can be given; and if they can relate the main concept to other concepts. Here, Muijs and Reynolds (2005) argued that the connection of prior knowledge and new concepts should take place during the lesson and not

only when a new concept is introduced. This integration of prior knowledge and new concepts enables the learner to understand the unified and interconnected nature of knowledge, while also facilitating profound understanding of subject matter. (Ornstein &Hunkins, 1998)

3.6.3. Choosing Consciously

Teachers should give floor to their learners to take decisions about their learning, and guide them to explore the results of their choices before and during the decision process. The aim behind is to lead learners to recognise underlying relationships between their decisions, their actions and the results of their decisions. However, teachers have to be cautious about hindering their learners' progress by any type of non-constructive feedback. Costa (1984) clarified that non-judgmental feedback to learners about the consequences of their actions and choices promotes self-awareness and enables them to learn from their mistakes.

3.6.4. Setting and Pursuing Goals

Setting goals and objectives are a crucial step in the learning process. In this respect, Artzt and Armour-Thomas define goals as "expectations about the intellectual, social and emotional outcomes for students as a consequence of their classroom experiences" (1998, p. 9). Self-regulating learners strive to achieve a self-directed goal, whereas, self-regulated behaviour can be tailored to changing circumstances. (Diaz, Neal, & Amaya-Williams, 1990)

3.6.5. Evaluating the Way of Thinking and Acting

Besides to setting goals and making choices about their learning, learners have to be self-evaluators of the learning situation and their learning outcome. Costa points to the necessity to identify criteria of evaluation. "Metacognition can be enhanced if teachers guide learners to evaluate the learning activity according to at least two sets of criteria" (Costa, 1984, p. 60). Guided self-evaluation can be introduced by checklists focusing on thinking processes and self-evaluation will increasingly be applied more independently. (Blakey & Spence, 1990)

3.6.6. Problem Solving Strategies

One area that has been researched much is problem-solving (Fisher, 1987). It has been noticed that unless educated persons do, ordinary people rarely approach a problem systematically and exhaustively. The most common reaction to a problem situation is a random hunt for solutions that sometimes results in success. However, in school or other learning situations where limited options for possible solutions are generally offered, frequent failure is likely to occur among learners. The need to avoid impulsivity and take time to consider options and alternatives has been identified as a critical strategy in overcoming learning failure (Feuerstein, 1980).

Moreover, in analysing Schoenfield's success in developing students' mathematical problem-solving ability, Perkins & Salomon noted the importance of fostering a general level of control that they call 'problem management'. They assert "Students learn to monitor and direct their progress, asking questions such as 'What am I doing now?', 'Is it getting me anywhere?'. 'What else could I be doing instead?' This general metacognitive level helps students avoid persevering in unproductive approaches, to remember to check ... and so on" (Perkins & Salomon, 1989, p. 21)

3.7. Effects of Metacognitive Instruction on the Writing Skill Development

The construct of metacognition has its origins in cognitive development research in the the late 1970s, when the American psychologist Flavell (1979) coined the term to describe the phenomenon of knowledge about cognition, which he defines as "knowledge or beliefs about what factors or variables act and interact in what ways to affect the course and outcome of cognitive enterprises" (p. 907). Metacognitive awareness is categorized in terms of person, task, and strategy variables, according to whether it is concerned with cognitive processor, cognitive task, or cognitive process (Flavell, 1979, 1987; Wenden, 1998), and has become a central concern in cognitive writing research. (e.g., Bereiter &Scardamalia,1 987; Flower, 1990; Hayes, 2006; Kellogg, 1994)

Writing spans both the mental or internal processes of writing related to the writer and aspects of the writing event related to the knowledge about the topic and the mechanics of writing. While the beliefs about writing and learning to write do not necessarily line up neatly, they belong to the same overarching discourse. (Ivannic, 2004). In the late 1970s, cognitive psychologists proposed a model of the composing processes involved in writing with three central elements: Planning, translating, and reviewing, and two factors that interact with these: the writer's long-term memory and the task environment (Flower & Hayes, 1980). This research shifted attention from the product to the writing processes and was concerned with processes in mind. At this time, possibly as a direct result of this research, teachers of writing began to pay more attention to the practical processes of planning, drafting and revising writing than to the characteristics of the final product. Stotsky (1990) sounded an important note of caution in her article 'On planning and writing plans – or beware of borrowed theories', warning that these two sets of processes – those in mind and those in practice – are not alike and that the cognitive theory should not necessarily be taken as the justification for the pedagogical approach which focuses on planning, drafting and revising, the process approach.

Syllabuses and text books since 1980, in many parts of the world, have incorporated this approach with chapters and activities devoted to generating ideas, planning, drafting, and various ways of providing and working with feedback on drafts, revising, and editing. This is where the focus on the mental and the practical diverges. In other words, these teaching approaches are explicitly concerned with teaching linguistic processes involved in writing, although developing cognitive processes may rarely appear in classroom practices.

It is, then, questionable whether this subsidiary aspect of writing can be assessed. Research supports that whenever the focus in lessons is so much on the process, it seems unreasonable for the assessment to remain on the product. Moreover, when the process is only a means to an end, the point of learning and improving the processes involved in writing is to improve the quality of the result, not for their own sake. Consequently, recent teaching approaches provided some assessment methods that attempt to divide the assessment for writing classes. These use process approaches between the quality of the cognitive stages of the writing process students go through and the quality of the end product. The learner may have engaged diligently and successfully in planning, drafting and revising but still not have produced discourses reflecting a high quality of writing. A compromise requires a written composition and a written reflection on the processes involved in producing it and assessing both.

In their cognitive writing model, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) stated that "metacognitive awareness is a basis for changing from knowledge telling to knowledge transforming" (p. 320). Flower's (1990) exploratory study revealed that college student writers' metacognitive awareness of the writing process of task representation, in particular, was limited. In theorizing the writer's knowledge domains, Kellogg (1994) categorized metacognitive awareness about the self, tasks, and strategies as part of writing knowledge. Research also demonstrated that the complexity of the writing process involves cognitive, metacognitive, and

affective dimensions (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006) and that typical to novice writers is a lack of metacognitive awareness about the purpose and demands of writing tasks and writing strategies (Durst, 2006; Troia, 2006).

Writers' strategy awareness and application have been extensively discussed in the literature of cognitive writing research. Torrance and Galbraith (2006) observed that writing strategies that divide a writing task into component tasks positively reduce the writer's processing demands. Hayes et al. (2006) advocated free writing as an up-and-coming area for future writing research. Free Writing helps the writer not only to reduce blocking but also to discover better ideas. Graham et al. (2006) provided a meta-analysis of studies on strategy instruction indicated that strategy instruction effectively improves students' writing performance. Such positive impact is maintained over time and generalized to new writing tasks and situations.

Recent studies on metacognition in students' academic writing suggest that metacognitive awareness of strategies has a strong relationship with task perceptions and students'development of writing approaches (Negretti, 2012). Metacognitive awareness of a person variables such as self-efficacy and writing motivation also significantly influence writing performance (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006; Pajares & Valiante, 2006).

3.8. Adequacy of Metacognitive Awareness and Foreign Language Learners' Writing Performance

Second language writing problems may arise from a lack of metacognitive awareness about the nature of the cognitive activity or unsuccessful monitoring required for the planning and evaluating of writing tasks. (Devine, Railey, & Boshoff, 1993). L2 writers' metacognitive awareness helps to develop their writing plans and goals, monitor their writing processes and trigger revisions at the different levels of the text (Schoonen, Snellings, Stevenson, & Van

Gelderen, 2009). Wenden's (2001) study explicitly focused on the task awareness role that metacognitive awareness plays in writing development, and little is known about the nature and constituency of student writers' metacognitive awareness in an EFL writing context.

Language writing research has long called for a focus on writer characteristics (e.g., Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008) and student writers' 'hidden transcripts' such as their conceptualizations of writing goals (Cumming, 2006), their voices and experiences in L2 writing courses (Leki, 2001), and their perceptions of L2 writing (Leki & Carson, 1997). Accordingly, metacognitive awareness about oneself as a writer, as well as metacognitive awareness about the writing task and how to plan it and revise it, besides how to monitor learning, should be made a priority in EFL writing classes to achieve better writing proficiency.

Concerning the Algerian EFL student writers, observation has shown their unfavourable perceptions and attitudes towards English writing and writing contexts underpin the writing problems they encountered. (Nemouchi, 2007). Interest in student writers' characteristics and conceptualisation of learning to write, a better understanding of various aspects of writers' metacognitive awareness about L2 writing, such as the nature of writing, writing strategies, and themselves as writers, is central to making appropriate pedagogical decisions in L2 writing instruction.

3.9. The Role of the Classroom Teacher in Teaching Metacognition

The Competency-based Approach (CBA) principles imply that teachers must do more than provide students with knowledge and information. The teacher's responsibility is to guide students and help them interpret and make sense of the information so they can go beyond. By asking questions that require students to address their learning styles, including strengths or weaknesses, the teacher provides an opportunity for them to monitor, control, and regulate their learning.

The results of several studies in the last decades support the use of metacognitive questioning to engage students in using that essential part of the brain, executive function, which helps students become productive learners who are more capable of assuming responsibility for their learning. Recent research has also called for metacognitive strategies instruction to introduce metacognitive strategies to students who are unaware of their presence and provide them with learning situations to practice their immediate learning and then extend it to new situations both in the learning context and outside the school (Chamot, 1999). It is also essential to take note of several conditions under which the use of metacognitive strategies instruction should take place as proposed by (Pintrich, 2002):

1. Metacognitive knowledge should be embedded within the usual content-driven lesson in different subject areas.

2. Teaching for metacognitive knowledge should be labelled explicitly for students.

3. Teachers should model and provide examples.

4. Assessment of metacognitive knowledge should be informal.

5. Metacognitive knowledge is positively linked to student learning, and using metacognitive questions provides a strategy to support student self-efficacy.

The data provided by Pintrich is congruent with other research findings (Flower and Hayes, 1980, Chamot, 1999; Cohen, 2000; Oxford, 2003). Teaching metacognition involves overtly engaging students in explicit metacognitive strategies-based instruction that calls upon embedding the strategies in question in class material or what Chamot et al. (1990) called "content-based instruction" (P.5). Consequently, learners should be encouraged by their teachers to be active participants and monitor their learning. This could be done through engaging learners in problem-solving activities to promote self-efficacy and self-confidence. Assessment at this level could be intimidating (Oxford, 2003) and, thus, should be delayed to later stages.

Through think-aloud protocols, the teacher can encourage learners to verbalize their experiences about their successes and difficulties with problems. Students can be encouraged to reflect on the thinking they were engaged in and to be conscious of those processes that were helpful or hindered their progress. This meta-discourse on the problem-solving process is an application of how Vygotsky (1978) described language as the mediator of learning.

Conclusion

Metacognition, or thinking about thinking which appeared in the late 1970s in cognitive psychology, gained considerable attention during the last decades and influenced the field language teaching and learning. This chapter provided a background knowledge to metacognition and distinguished between metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation. Moreover, it linked metacognition to language instruction and provided a list of metacognitive strategies, which would enhance students' learning if adequately implemented in the classroom.

As this research is about the improvement of students' writing proficiency, some light was shed on the usefulness of embedding the pre-writing strategies in the course content to provide for contextualised strategy practice and raising students' metacognitive awareness about the implementation of metacognitive knowledge while planning their writing. Efficient scaffolding provided by teachers of writing is a key component in students' success in implementing metacognitive knowledge, so as to monitor and regulate their learning and thus develop autonomy.

Chapter Four

Strategies-based Instruction and

Enhancing Learners' Learning and

Autonomy

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Introduction

From its early appearance as a distinct field of research, language learning strategies study main concern was to identify a wide range of strategies skilled writers use to apprehend the learning tasks, monitor their learning, and make it easier and more enjoyable. The field of research extended further to explore another area of research; that is of teaching and training less skilled learners on how to identify and use LLS to enhance their learning and improve their learning skills.

This chapter is about the discussion of significant elements concerning the best ways of strategy implementation in class, types and models of strategies-based instruction, the benefits gained from such kind of instruction as well as types of evaluation and the tools developed to assess the success of strategies intervention.

4.1. Background Knowledge of Language Learning Strategies Study and Research

Language Learning Strategies (LLS) are a crucial issue in a second and foreign language (L2 / FL) learning and teaching since they are among the main factors that help determine how and how well students learn a second or foreign language. Foreign language learners' expectations about academic success and their positive values about learning tasks and activities influence them to a great extent. However, they do not ensure intrinsically motivated in-depth learning, nor do they necessarily lead to outstanding academic achievements. Accordingly, if learners are highly motivated and value the learning tasks but lack the adequate skills and strategies to achieve them, their assertiveness would not guarantee successful performance. (Oxford 2003).

Language learning strategies are defined as "specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task used by students to enhance their learning" (Scarcella & Oxford,1992, p. 63). When the learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his learning style and the L2 task, these strategies become a helpful tool for active, conscious, and purposeful self-regulation of learning. The element of conscious choice is not only essential to Scarcella and Oxford but also to Cohen, who explained that learning processes are consciously selected by the learner and, further, argued that the element of choice is a crucial component because this is what gives a strategy its unique character. To put it simply, LLS are techniques that the learner is at least partially aware of, even if they are not subject to full attention. (Cohen, 1990)

With the development of strategy study, Cohen (1998) distinguished two main types of strategies, namely language learning strategies and language use strategies. While the former includes strategies for identifying the material to be learned, distinguishing it from others, grouping it for more accessible learning, committing the material to memory etc., the latter includes four subsets: retrieval, rehearsal, cover and communication strategies. Consequently, language learning and language use strategies can be defined as actions consciously chosen and undertaken by the foreign learner/ SL learner to tackle a given learning task. They may result in actions taken to enhance the learning or use of L2/ FL through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about the language. (Oxford, 2003)

The main objective behind strategy research is to create autonomous learners who can learn by themselves, monitor their learning and transfer what they have learned to new situations. Rubin (1975) identified characteristics of what she called 'good learners' and underlined their learning strategies to benefit their less able peers. The identified characteristics were studied, analysed and adapted by Naiman et al. They are listed as follows:

1. The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser.

2. The good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication. He is willing to do many things to get his message across.

3. The good language learner is often not inhibited. He is willing to appear foolish if reasonable communication results. He is willing to make mistakes in order to learn and to communicate. He is willing to live with a certain amount of vagueness.

4. In addition to focussing on communication, the good language learner is prepared to attend to form. The good language learner is constantly looking for patterns in the language.

5. The good language learner practises.

6. The good language learner monitors his own and the speech of others. That is, he is constantly attending to how well his speech is being received and whether his performance meets the standards he has learned.

7. The good language learner attends to meaning. He knows that in order to understand the message, it is not sufficient to pay attention to the grammar of the language or to the surface form of speech.

(Naiman, 1996, p. 228)

The above-listed characteristics show varied actions and behaviours 'good language learners' adopt to cope with different learning situations. These characteristics are of different natures namely cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective. Indeed, they reflect different types of learning strategies, which appeared later on in Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of language learning strategies. Oxford's model encompasses two main types, direct and indirect learning strategies.

The former includes memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies, while the latter includes metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

But all these characteristics will probably not apply to all 'good learners'. Presumably, the main objective behind Rubin's study is to identify the elements that result in a learner's fast and effective progress with a foreign language. The other learners, then, could be helped to reach the same level of mastery.

However, since the 1970s, it has become apparent to researchers that the task is far more complex than this. First, because learners are different, and second, because the number of learners has considerably increased in this globalised world, with a corresponding increase in the number and quality of factors influencing language learning. (Nicholas et al. 2001).

In recent times, researchers have avoided using the term 'good language learner', and used 'successful learner 'instead. Still, attempts to determine exactly what leads to success in language learning are still the subject matter of research queries.

4.2. The Role of Language Learning Strategies in Enhancing Learning

Researchers may not always agree as to what a learner strategy is, or what minimum attributes should be present in order to call a learning behaviour a strategy. However, most researchers in the field of LLS (Oxford, 1990; Chamot et al. 1999; Cohen, 2000) would probably agree that a strategy is a conscious, intentional, and effortful process that aims to approach learning problems and improve learning achievements. In this respect, Gu (2005b) proposes the following components to call for a prototypical or ideal strategy:

- Problem identification and selective attention

- Analysis of task, self, and learning context

- Decision making and planning

　　• Execution of plan

　　• Monitoring progress and modifying plan

　　• Evaluating result

<div align="center">(Gu, 2005b as cited in Gu, 2007, p.22)</div>

Gu emphasised the cognitive and metacognitive components to appeal for an optimal strategy, as he points to selection, analysis, planning, monitoring, and evaluation of a given task. Figure 9 shows the whole process of a strategic move. From selectively attending to a problem or a novel task; to the analysis of self, problem, and situation; to the making execution, and evaluation of a plan; all the way until the solution to the issue is found. Each step is an integral link in the strategy chain, and each step implies a strategic decision by the problem solver.

Figure 11

Strategies: Dimensions of Variability and Prototypical Features (Gu, 2007, p. 23)
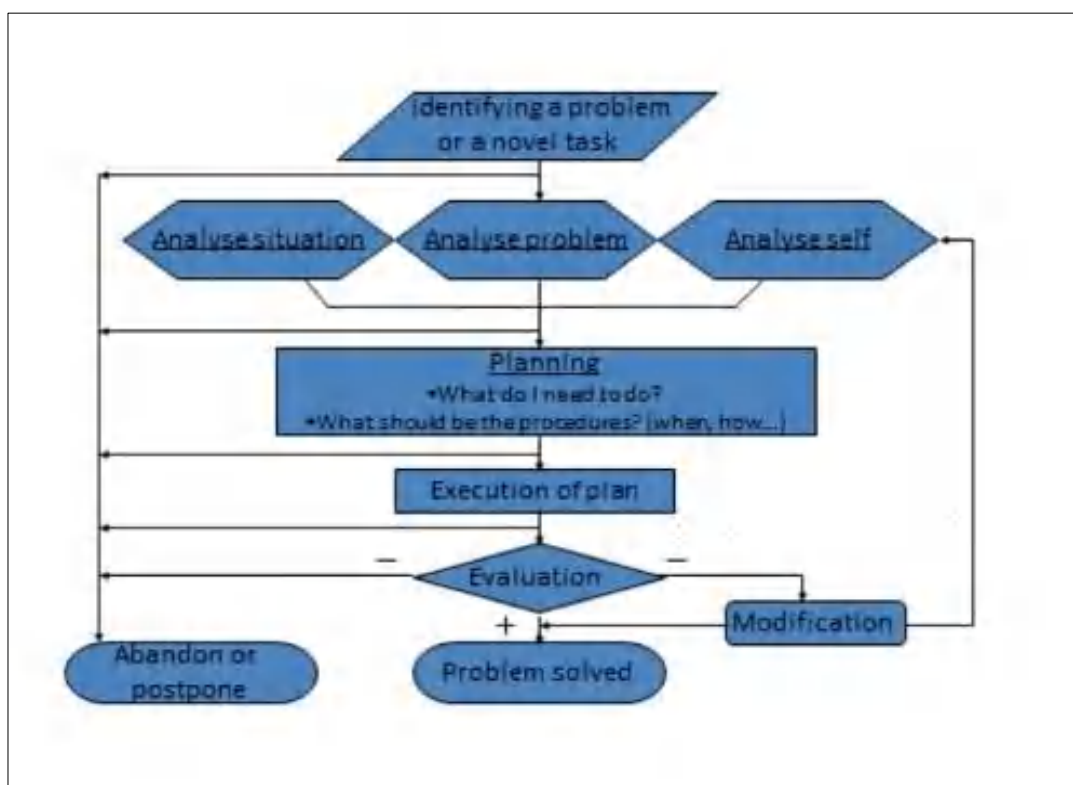
The dynamic nature of this strategic process is triggered by a learning problem being identified or when confronted with a new task. So, basically strategy use is a problem-solving activity, as strategic learners will immediately analyse the task (e.g., nature of task requirement, comparison of the new task to an already tackled one). Afterwards, the learner will check his repertoire of strategy tools that may help in the successful completion of the current task in the current learning situation. Once a decision is made, he sets a plan of action to be executed in the next phase. The whole process culminates by strategy evaluation, wherein the learner compares his achievement to a given standards to check whether it matches a set of criteria.

Strategic learners carefully monitor their progress and fine-tune their procedures in order to successfully achieve learning objectives and decide if further steps are necessary. The following figure illustrates how strategic learners adopt strategies to bring about their learning objectives. The pyramid identifies a set of strategies credited with a better retention rate after twenty-four hours of implementation with a given learning task. They are teaching others, practicing exercises, and discussing concepts.

Figure 12

The Learning Pyramid (Dale, 1957, p.43)

The Learning Pyramid
attributed to
National Training Laboratories Institute

Listening to lectures 5%
Audio learning
Reading texts 10%
Passive
Seeing & hearing 20%
Visual learning
Watching demonstrations 30%
Active
Discussing concepts 50%
Practice by doing exercises 75%
Kinesthetic learning
Teaching others 90%
Learning activity
Average learner retention after 24 hours

The National Training Laboratories Institute in Bethel, Main (USA) issued the learning pyramid

in the 1960s and acknowledged its original source to be to Edgar Dale (1754). The latter called

it the cone of learning or the cone of experience. He explained that learners' achievements

depend to a great extent on the learning strategies they adopt for the learning situations they

encounter. To regulate their behavioural decisions and action. That is to say, different kinds of

learning strategies adopted by learners lead to different learning outcomes in terms of learner

retention. The strategies represented at the bottom of the pyramid produce much greater

retention rates than those at the top. The diagram also shows that the bottom three strategies,

namely teaching others, practice by doing exercises, and discussing concepts involve active

learner participation, whereas the four at the top, to cite watching demonstrations, seeing and hearing, and listening to lectures have passive learner involvement. The researcher through this diagram, clearly illustrated that active participation in the learning process results in more effective uptake and retention of learning, which provides input for better academic achievements.

The question is how to benefit less skilled learners from the identified skills and strategies more successful learners tend to adopt to increase their engagement and enhance positive learning outcomes. In other words, how can less proficient learners become more active in terms of strategy use? They need to be taught and instructed on how to be proficient users of learning strategies.

4.3. Definition of Strategy-based Instruction

Strategy training or strategy-based instruction (SBI) is "teaching of how, when, and why students should employ language learning strategies to enhance their efforts at reaching language program goals" (Cohen, 2007, p. 20). It is a suggested solution to help less effective learners and even effective ones deal with daily learning problems.

It has been observed that less skilled learners are unaware of a wide range of learning strategies they are eager to use when they tackle different tasks; even when they are aware, they use them unexpectedly. Furthermore, they cannot select the appropriate strategy for a given task. Unlike effective learners who change helpless strategies according to the situation, less effective learners stick to the same strategy, repeating it several times, even if they feel its inappropriateness (Chamot et al., 1999; Oxford, 2002; Cohen 2007). Less successful learners often do not know how good they arrive at their answers and feel they can never perform as good learners do. By revealing the process, this myth can be demystified. (Rubin 1990 as cited in Rubin, Chamot, Harris & Anderson, 2007). Thus, teachers should identify and understand

their learners' differences, performances, and strategies to ensure effective learning. "Learner training in second and foreign language teaching is concerned with the ways of teaching learners explicitly the techniques of learning a language, and awareness of how and when to use strategies to enable them to become self-directed" (William& Burden, 1997, p. 147). Like William and Burden, many other scholars in the field of language teaching (Chamot et al., 1999; Cohen, 2000; Oxford, 2003) argue that once teachers can identify the types of LSs that excellent or successful language learners use, they can teach them to all learners in order to enhance their learning abilities and to achieve autonomy and directness. For this reason, many SBI models for conducting strategy training were introduced to suggest the notion of learning to learn, to include strategy and learner training within different teaching programs, and to help teachers in raising their students' meta-cognitive awareness of the appropriate and effective ways of learning and dealing with learning difficulties.

Chamot et al. (1999) pointed out that strategy instruction has a rationale in both cognitive and social cognitive theories. As far as the former is concerned, it includes information processing on how information is acquired, stored in long-term memory and retrieved, which has given birth to the Schemata theory-and Constructivism based mainly on the idea of building new information using the background knowledge. On the other hand, the latter was embedded in Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory, which emphasises the individual's motivation and self-efficacy to achieve success in learning. In its turn, it was at the origins of Self-regulated Learning theory which suggests that the source of motivation is the use of newly learned strategies. In a similar line of thought, Vygotsky's (1978) Social Cognitive theory claimed that autonomy is attained gradually and assisted by the teachers' monitoring and guidance.

4.4. Components of Strategy-based Instruction

Learning strategy-based instruction (LSBI) is a learner-centred approach to teaching that emphasizes both explicit and implicit integration of language learning strategies into the teaching material during the regular language classroom, with the aim of increasing learners' independence and competence of creating greater learner autonomy and increased proficiency (Cohen 1998; Brown 2001; Oxford, 2003). Strategy-based instruction helps students to identify the wide range of available language learning strategies, to understand how to organize and use them systematically and effectively, and to learn when and how to transfer them to new context to make learning easier and more enjoyable, and by the same token, create autonomous and self-reliable learners. (Brown, 2001; Yang et al 2002). Researchers (e.g., Weinstein & Underwood, 1985; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford 1990; Oxford, 1993) suggest a sequence of steps to follow when conducting learning strategy-based instruction. The general scheme is presented below:

❖ **Diagnosis:** Identifying and assessing students' learning strategies prior to the instruction through observation, interviews, questionnaires, diaries, or think-aloud procedures.

❖ **Preparation/Awareness-raising**: Developing students' awareness of different strategies; clarifying the theoretical concept of the learning strategies and explaining the importance of their actual use; developing goals for strategy use and affective control for individuals and the entire class.

❖ **Instruction**: Providing direct and structured instruction on learning strategies through explicit explanation using diversified material and media, modelling, practice, and integration; providing different practice opportunities with varied learning tasks to match learners' different learning styles.

❖ **Evaluation:** Helping students evaluate their own strategy use using checklists or other ways; evaluating the whole strategy training and revising the training component if necessary

through encouraging students to highlight stents and weaknesses of the instruction.

4.5. Strategies-based Instruction Effectiveness

The success of strategy training has not been consistent; some studies reported negative results (Oxford, 2002). Consequently, not all researchers agree on teaching strategies; some researchers (Abraham 1990; Kellerman 1991; Miller, 1993; McDonough, 1995) showed their scepticism about SBI as a risk since its effectiveness is not ensured; consequently, teachers should teach only language (Grenfell, 1999; Oxford 2002; Harris & Gnefell, 2004; Anderson 2005; Chamot 2008). However, the majority of researchers have defended the concept of SBI; Oxford (2002) argued that those negative results are caused by methodological problems summarised in the following points:

01-Strategy training period is short

02-Disproportionate case or difficulty of the training tasks.

03-Lack of training integration to normal language classroom.

04- Inadequate pertaining assessment of learners' initial strategy use and needs

(Oxford, 2002, p. 126)

In addition to what has been said, another review of language strategy instruction reveals that not all strategy interventions are truly experimental (Rubin, Chamot, Harris & Anderson, 2007). Reliable SBI results must be the outcome of a careful described research and a methodological design, providing a thorough description of what strategies to be taught, how they would be taught, the length of time needed for effective teaching, and finally, how they should be practised and evaluated considering both language proficiency and strategy use.

4.6. Factors Influencing Strategy-based Instruction Success/ Failure

As SBI is being conducted in pure pedagogical settings, it is influenced by many factors which lead to its effectiveness or failure. Chamot (2008) notes that SBI is never effective unless

conducted under the right conditions. The latter have been summarised in the main components: the learner, the teacher, the choice of the language to be used in SBI, and the instructional approach/ method.

4.6.1. The Learner

Chamot et al. (1999) described students as active partners in SBI workshops in the sense that their beliefs in the usefulness of SBI, strategy use, and their ability and willingness to be a responsible and independent contribute to a great extent to the effectiveness of SBI. Brown, on his turn described the learner's behaviour to ensure a SBI workshop's success and effectiveness. Accordingly, the learner should:

- Understand the strategy itself.

- Perceive it to be effective.

- Do not consider its implications to be overly tricky.

<div align="center">(Brown 2000, p. 131)</div>

4.6.2. The Teacher

Though, the teacher's role remains undeniable, his beliefs in SBI effectiveness, in learners' ability to succeed and be independent through strategy use, and his thoughtful guidance help and influence the success of SBI. The classroom context and the choice of language also lay as prerequisite components to SBI effectiveness. Learners should be allowed to be initiative and risk-takers without losing classroom management and order.

4.6.3. The Language of Instruction

It is unnecessary to speak about the language used in strategy instruction in the case of learning content subjects using the native language or in the case of advanced learners learning a second or foreign language with whom the target language is unproblematic. However, the use of the target language in teaching strategies to second/ foreign language learners with less

proficient levels, especially beginners, is useless and helpless; it may lead teachers to the abandonment of SBI because learners cannot understand and respond (Chamot, 2004), In parallel, the use of the native language to teach strategies causes a lack of exposure to the target language. It inhibits the acquisition of communicative competence (Chamot, 2004). Thus, Chamot et al. (1999) preferred using simple target language, with detailed explanations using gestures and repetition.

However, Grenfell (1999) and Grenfell & Harris (2004) argued for using both the target and the native languages providing that the target language is used as much as possible. LI is used in the case of beginners-in LLS presentation and learners' reflection on their learning- who should be taught gradually how to reflect on their learning using the target language. Macaro (2001) defended the use of Ll, arguing that excluding L1 from instruction is impossible, especially in resenting and monitoring strategy use because of learners' vocabulary shortage.

4.6.4. The Instructional Approach

Finally, the instructional approach is an important element in SBI. It refers to whether learners' mistakes are tolerated, whether strategy instruction is explicit or implicit, integrated or separate, and how strategies are presented to learners, practised and scaffold (Chamot et al., 1999). McDonough stated that teaching strategies is not universally successful but changed his position when the latest research on SBI showed that, in certain circumstances and modes, particularly when incorporated into the teachers' normal classroom behaviour and involving teacher training as well as learner, they turn out to be fruitful. (McDonough cited in Dörnyei 2005)

Many studies (Oxford 1990, Chamot et al. 1999) reported that LLS can be taught and promote learners' performance and that strategy training is successful across various populations and levels. Although most researchers agree on the usefulness of SBI, they disagree

on its implementation in class: Should SBI be explicit or implicit? Integrated or discrete? And what language of instruction should be employed?

The field of strategies training has received considerable attention, including mixed views from experts and professionals, mainly because, until recently, few empirical studies were conducted under certain conditions and demonstrated irrefutable benefits (Cohen, 1995, as cited in Cohen, 2000). In response to this criticism, Cohen experimented with fifty five students enrolled in intermediate-level foreign language classes at the University of Minnesota. The bring-about the experiment led to the identification of SBI's main characteristics that Cohen identifies as "a learner-centred approach to teaching that extends classroom strategy training to indicate both explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course content" (Weaver & Cohen,1994, as cited in Cohen, 2000). According to the experiment results, SBI has two major components: first, students are explicitly taught how, when, and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks. Second of which, strategies are integrated into everyday class materials and may be explicitly or implicitly embedded into the language tasks. "The component that makes SBI is the added element of explicit (as well as implicit) integration of the training into the very fabric of the instructional program" (Weaver & Cohen, 1994, as cited in Cohen, 2000).

4.7. Explicit Versus Implicit Strategies-based Instruction

In the field of strategies instruction, two types of strategy instruction were identified, implicit and explicit strategies training. In explicit strategy, trained learners are overtly informed about what and when to use strategies and how they can be transferred to other tasks and situations. In contrast, in implicit strategy instruction, learners use specific strategies without being informed (Oxford, 2002). Some researchers, including Eslinger (2000), argued for using

implicit strategy training because leaners naturally tend to use and develop their strategies (Eslinger as cited in Anderson 2005).

Although implicit instruction may be helpful, most researchers have agreed that explicit instruction is more beneficial in EFL classes. Strategy training is practical because it gives learners awareness of strategies they use, helps them practise new ones, evaluate and transfer them to new tasks and, thus, become autonomous learners. If learners are not exposed to the wide range of already existing learning strategies and explicitly taught how to use them adequately, they will not be able to know what, how and when to use strategies and how to transfer them to new situations inside and outside class. "Learners need to be metacognitively aware" (Anderson, 2005, p. 767).

Furthermore, the absence of an explicit explanation of strategy rationale makes some learners feel that it is useless. They are satisfied with what they are already doing, avoiding other helpful strategies because they conceive them as complex. (Chamot et. al. 1999, Chamot 2004, Chamot 2008). Chamot et al. (1999) noted that cognitive and social cognitive theories support explicit strategy instruction and argued for its effectiveness, explaining how strategies work and how they can be taught. They provided the following aspects of explicit strategy training that can be applied to the context of university level foreign language programmes:

1) Describe the goals of strategy training for foreign language learners.

1) Discuss insights from L1 and L2 research regarding strategy training.

2) Outline seven ways to provide strategy training.

3) Present suggestions for developing strategies-based instruction (SBI) seminars for FL teachers.

4) Consider evaluative research on strategy training programs.

5) Conclude with a step-by-step approach to the design of strategy training program.

4.8. Integrated versus Discrete Strategy-based Instruction

Embedding strategies teaching within the everyday language classrooms have a broad consensus among researchers (Cohen& Weaver, 2006; Chamot et al; 1999; Oxford, 2003). However, the way they should be interwoven is problematic. Should strategy instruction be integrated within classroom activities and language tasks, or should it be integrated as a separate course?

4.8.1. Integrated Strategy-based Instruction

Researchers supporting classroom integration (e.g. Chamot et.al. 1999, Cohen 1998, Grenfell & Harris 2004, Nunan 1997, and Oxford 1989) argued that this kind of instruction enables learners to practise strategies within authentic tasks. In addition, integrated SBI is more useful in the case of overloaded courses; instead of adding extra courses, strategies are interwoven within the already designed activities. Moreover, (Chamot, 2008) noted that learners' motivation plays a significant role in separate strategy courses and may turn into a major learning obstacle by raising other problematic questions about whether SBI should be before or in parallel with the content course. Oxford (1989) ensured that studies confirmed that SBI is more effective when strategies are woven into class activities. Nunan (2002), as a sample of these studies, provided strategy instruction to his learners in an attempt to bridge the gap between the secondary spoon-feeding teaching system and the university system based on learner autonomy. He concluded that language classrooms should focus on content and develop learning strategies to help learners learn more effectively and independently.

4.8.2. Discrete Strategies-based Instruction

Proponents of discrete SBI like Gu & Johnson (1996) demonstrated that integrating LLS into class activities may hinder their transfer to new tasks; and that providing a separate course

is easier than preparing all teachers for teaching strategies (Chamot, 2004). The disagreement about SBI implementation led to the emergence of different types of strategy training courses.

4.9. Models of Strategies-based Instruction

Various instructional LSs training programs attempted to teach embedded or explicit strategies through separated or integrated strategy training. Most of them share the same steps or phases of teaching strategies and the same aims, which centre around raising learners' awareness of their strategy use, presenting and modelling strategies for the students to know their ways of thinking and learning processes. Providing practice opportunities for the students and helping them to self-evaluate their strategy use by training them to use met-cognitive knowledge during the learning process are eagerly sought after.

4.9.1. Oxford's Model of Strategy Training (1990)

This model focuses on the teaching of learning strategies usually closely tied to regular language learning. The following table summarises the eight-step model for strategy training, which contains eight steps for conducting a strategy program. The first five steps involve planning and preparation, whereas the last three involve conducting, evaluating, and revising the strategy training programme.

Table 3

Steps in the Strategy Training Model (Oxford, 1990, p. 204)

1. Determine the learners' needs and the time available.
2. Select strategies well.
3. Consider integration of strategy training.
4. Consider motivational issues.
5. Prepare materials and activities.
6. Conduct "completely informed training".
7. Evaluate the strategy training.
8. Revise the strategy training.

Oxford (1990) announced that teachers need to determine learners' needs and characteristics by specifying the strategies used and determining the time available for the instructional program. Afterwards, the teacher provides students with a wide range of strategies and strategy groups and asks learners to rate subjectively the use of different strategies or strategy groups. Then, on the basis of these ratings, specific strategies are chosen for more focused training and assessment. "This is an excellent way to approach strategy training. It gives learners the 'big picture' at first, then moves into specific strategies which the learners have chosen themselves. The element of choice in structuring training is very important, since learning strategies are the epitome of learner choice self-direction." (Oxford, 1990, p. 206). The

selected strategies are then integrated within the content and tasks used in the regular language program while considering motivational issues.

Practice opportunities must be provided for learners, who are completely informed about the importance of LLS, how to use them in new situations and how to transfer them from task to task for better learning achievements on the one hand. On the other hand, learners should be encouraged to self-evaluate and monitor their use of the training strategies. Meanwhile teachers need to evaluate their process of SBI to fit the needs of the instructional method that suits all students.

4.9.2. Chamot et al. Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach Model (1990)

The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) is an instructional training program conceived by Chamot and O'Malley in 1986 and further developed by Chamot et al. in 1990. The model tends to develop the academic language skills of constrained EFL/ESL learners. It provides transitional instruction for upper elementary and secondary students at intermediate and advanced levels of English as a second language in order to improve their language and cognitive development by integrating content and SBI through its three components. The latter are the content-based curriculum, academic language development, and the direct LS instruction. All these components are incorporated in the CALLA lesson plan.

Figure 13

Strategy Instruction Framework (Chamot et al., 1990, P.46)

Figure 11 illustrates the teachers' role as well as the learners' role within the framework of the CALLA training model. The five recursive phases of the lesson: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion activities are teacher's responsibility. Students, on the counter part, are required to attend the training workshop, apply the strategies with sufficient scaffolding, assess them, use them independently, and transfer them to new tasks and new learning situations. Although initial instruction is heavily scaffolded, it is gradually lessened to the point that students can assume responsibility for using the strategies independently. (Chamot et al, 1999)

Chamot et al. (1990) explained to the teachers the ways of using this model in classroom practices by asking them to activate their students' background knowledge about the topic they are dealing with. Afterwards, they explain the objectives of the lessons, provide practice opportunities, and help their students evaluate and review what they have learned. In addition, teachers are required to give learners expansion activities that would make them apply what

they have learned and apply higher order thinking skills like self-monitoring, inferencing, note-taking, imagery, questioning for clarification, resourcing, grouping, deduction, and cooperation.

4.9.3.   Macaro's Learning Strategies Cycle (2001)

In trying to compare various instructional models that seek to train the students to use various learning strategies, Macaro (2001) proposed a Learning Strategies Cycle (LSs) to mention the most essential and common steps that need to be followed in conducting an instructional strategies training programme in various situations. This programme consists of six phases, namely: raising students' awareness, exploration of possible strategies available, modelling by the teacher and /or students, combining strategies for a specific purpose or task, application of strategies with scaffolded support, initial evaluation by students, gradual removal of scaffolding, finally evaluation by students. The following figure illustrates the cyclical model of direct strategy instruction.

Figure 14

Cyclical Model of Direct Strategy Instruction (as cited in Oxford, 2011, p. 1840)
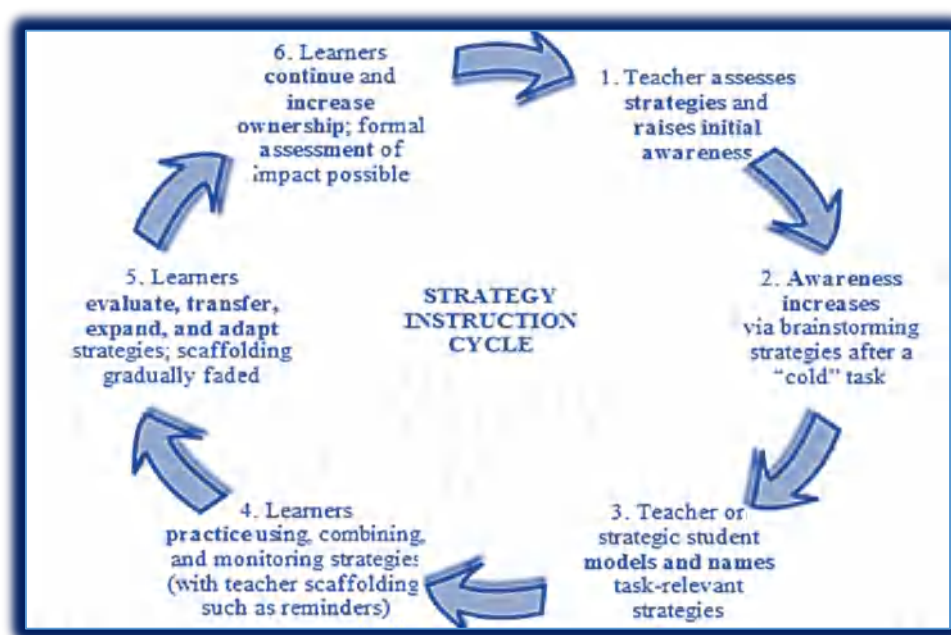
Though the models differ in numbers and names of activities they incorporate, they share the same steps, namely awareness raising, strategies presentation and practice, evaluation and revision of the integrated strategies, and finally expansion to new tasks

4.10. Evaluation of Strategies-based Instruction

Strategy training effectiveness and usefulness cannot be claimed unless issues concerning its assessment and evaluation are clearly explained, and the measurement tools consider the different variables that may bias results.

4.10.1. Quantitative and Qualitative Evaluation

Most methods used in measuring strategy training were quantitative; researchers relied on the learners' achievement in the learning tasks by interpreting test scores to judge the effectiveness of SBI. This kind of evaluation is product-oriented and gives only a partial truth (Chen, 2007; Macaro, 2006) because learners' improved achievement can result from other external factors rather than strategy training. Furthermore, strategy training aims to enhance learners' learning and to promote autonomy; its evaluation should be process-oriented or qualitative. This kind of evaluation provides information about learning behaviours resulting from SBI.

However, the shortcoming of the quantitative evaluation does not mean abandoning the use of test scores; research conductors should evaluate the task improvement together with strategy use, maintenance and transfer. Thus, both quantitative and qualitative evaluations are needed, and the results of the qualitative evaluation can be used to explain the results of test scores (Cohen. & Macaro, 2007). Macaro (2001) claimed that judgement about SBI effectiveness should not rely only on test scores or qualitative descriptions made at the end of the instruction. However, a description and measurement of learners' strategies used at the beginning of the instruction are inevitable to avoid biasing research results. Quantitative

evaluation is unproblematic, and the use of test scores is straightforward. However, qualitative evaluation depends on the use of other tools of measurement.

4.10.2. Tools of Measurement

One area of strategy research that attracted researchers' attention is the development of tools or techniques to measure LLS use. Researchers have used observations and verbal reports of strategy use.

4.10.2.1. Observations

This tool is used to elicit only observable strategies manifested in learners' behaviours like note-taking, mime gestures... (Oxford, 1990). When using observation, the researcher should decide about strategies to be observed by listing them and the way to report results, in other words, the extent to which details are going to be included, the focus of observation (individual, small group or whole class), the representation of the selected sample, the time available and possible redundancy. Videotaping the sample is very useful for the researcher. It enables him to reconsider unnoticed details (Oxford, 1990). Since most LLS are unobservable mental processes, observation is a limited tool (white, Schramm and Chamot, 2007). A better way to access learners' mental processes and strategies is by asking them to describe what they do. (Macaro, 2001)

4.10.2.2. Questionnaires

Questionnaires are instruments to collect data; they are also called "self-report surveys" (Oxford, 1990, p. 198). They can be less structured (subjective surveys) with open-ended questions to which learners respond by describing freely their strategy use; the results are rich but difficult to summarise, or more structured (objective surveys) in which data collecting and summarising is easier and more practical because of the use of standardised items. (Oxford, 1990)

Questionnaires are the most efficient and frequently used tool that has been used for broad areas of strategy use; they can be used to test the effects of different variables on strategy use, compare strategy use in LI and L2 or between skills, and measure the change in strategy use resulted from a period of training. They are not time-consuming, but they have three main limitations :

(a) Learners may not understand or correctly interpret strategy description,

(b) Learners may claim to use strategies they do not use,

(c) Learners may forget strategies they have used in the past (White, et al., 2007).

4.10.2.2.1. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

It was developed by Oxford (1990). It has two versions; version 5.1, with 80 items, designed for native English speakers, and version 7.0, with 50 items, designed for second/ foreign language learners. Both versions take about half an hour to be completed (Oxford, 1990). SILL is based on Oxford's taxonomy of language learning strategies. Thus, it consists of six categories: "remembering more effectively (memory strategies), using all your mental processes (cognitive strategies), compensating for missing knowledge (compensation strategies), organising and evaluating your knowledge (metacognitive strategies), managing your emotions (affective strategies), and learning with others (social strategies)" (Oxford. 1990, p. 299).

Learners are asked to answer the items on a scale ranging from 'never' or almost never true to me to 'always' or almost always true to me. A worksheet is linked to the questionnaire to enable test takers to count their average for each category. The overall average of strategy use, 3, 5, is defined as the high-frequency threshold. Oxford (1990) and Nyikos & Oxford (1993) reported on its validity and reliability. Similarly, White, Schramm &Chamot (2007),

Oxford & Burry-Stock (1995), and Oxford (1996) concurred with SILL reliability and claimed that its reliability increases when using L1.

It has been noticed that SILL is the most often used instrument in assessing strategy use. A few years after its appearance, it has become the most frequently used instrument in assessing the strategy use of more than ten thousand (10.000) learners (Grenfell &Macaro, 2007). Moreover, it has been translated into more than twenty (20) languages and proved to help raise learners' metacognitive awareness of their strategy use (Dörnyei, 2005). However, the latter has criticised SILL for being quantitative since it tests strategy quantity, while the research revealed that what matters is the quality of strategy use. Less successful learners may misuse many strategies, yet more successful learners may use a limited number of strategies efficiently.

4.10.2.2.2. Language Strategies Use Inventory and Index

It was developed by Cohen & Chi (2002). Based on the drawbacks of SILL, LSUI aims to help students find helpful strategies to master the target language and not strategy frequency. Learners respond according to the following scale 'I use this strategy and like it', 'I have tried this strategy and would use it again,' 'I have never used this strategy, but I am interested in it', and 'this strategy does not fit me'.

LSUI consists of six categories: listening (26items), speaking (18 items), reading (12 items), writing (10 items), vocabulary learning (17 items), and translation skills (6 items). Each consists of other sub-categories. The test conductor can use only one part depending on the class time available (Cohen & Chi, 2002). It was revised by Cohen, Oxford, and Chi (2003) and called "Language Strategy Use Survey".

4.10.2.2.3. Language Strategy Use Survey

The survey includes revised items from Oxford's *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning* (in R. L. Oxford. 1990. *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle), as well as strategies identified and described in Cohen's *Language learning: Insights for learners, teachers, and researchers*. NY: Newbury House / HarperCollins, 1990,

This model was created in 2002 by Cohen, Oxford, and Chi and given the name of Language Strategy Use Survey (LSUS). It contains ninety (90) items covering the same previous categories but with only a three-point scale:

I used this strategy and find it useful.

I have tried this strategy but welcome learning about it.

I have never tried it.

Then, Cohen, Oxford, and Chi (2003) developed a version of this survey for young learners with seventy-five (75) items, under the name of Language Strategy Use Inventory (LSUI). They claimed that it can be used for beginners and intermediate learners.

4.10.2.2.4. Self-Regulatory Capacity in Vocabulary Learning Scale

It was developed by Tseng, Dömyei and Schmitt (2006). It is applied for vocabulary but can be used in other learning domains. It focuses on five self-regulation facets: Commitment control, metacognitive control, emotion control and environmental control. The scale used ranges from strongly agree to strongly disagree. It is based on the self-regulation framework developed by Dörnyei (2001). The model "does not measure the strategy use but the underlying self-regulatory capacity that will result in strategy use" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 184). It enables

researchers to identify learners' strengths and weaknesses in terms of the five self-regulation facets in vocabulary or other areas of learning. Evidence of its validity and reliability was provided (Tseng, Dörnyei and Schmitt, 2006)

4.10.2.3. Interviews

Interviews are a far more personal form of research than questionnaires. In the personal interview, the interviewer works directly with the respondent. Consequently, he has the opportunity to ask follow-up questions to seek for more information or more clarifications. The interviewer has also the opportunity to redirect the interviewer toward the interview objectives if he feels he is deviating to other topics. Interviews are, generally, easier for the respondent, especially if what is sought is opinions or impressions. Interviews can be very time consuming and they are resource intensive. The interviewer is considered a part of the measurement.

4.10.2.3.1. Retrospective Interviews

Retrospective interviews are recorded among the first techniques used in investigating LLS use (Naiman, 1978) and continue to be considered necessary. Retrospective means learners think back and remember strategies they used during their past learning experiences. (Macaro 2001). They enable researchers to seek clarification from the learners and get closer -compared with questionnaires- to what they do. (White, Schramm & Chamot 2007)

Although interviewing learners is a very successful and productive tool that reveals strategy use, it is time-consuming. However, instead of interviewing the whole class, the teacher/ researcher can choose two successful learners, two least successful, two with middle level and so on depending on his research objectives.

Recording interviews is more valuable than taking notes during the discussion. Using Ll and L2 or other languages is possible in eliciting strategy data. (Chamot et al., 1999) Code-

switching makes learners feel at ease; the exclusive use of the target language may cause the abandonment of strategy description because of vocabulary shortage. (Macaro, 2001)

4.10.2.3.2. Totally Unstructured Interviews

The interviewer has to ask questions, listen to the responses, and asks new questions. If the interview format is relatively unstructured, then these questions have to be constructed 'on the fly. The interviewer may not only be listening to the verbal responses but also noting other elements of the interview process, such as the interviewee's body language. Hence, the conductor will face difficulties in summarising, analysing and interpreting results. (Oxford, 1990)

4.10.2.3.3. Semi-structured Interviews

Most interviews conducted in applied linguistics belong to the 'semi-structred interview' type, which offers a midline between the two extremes of close ended and open-ended question prompts. Accordingly, the researcher prepares some general open-ended questions which help him direct the interview. Learners can diverge from the original questions as long as this allows the researcher to fully elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner.

Semi-structured interviews are a very useful data collection instrument for gathering information on students'strategies. (Oxford, 1990). The researcher relies on topics and issues rather than on questions to determine the course of the interview. "The interviewer has a general idea of where he or she wants the interview to go, and what should come out of it, but does not enter the interview with a list of predetermined questions" (Nunan & Swan, 1992). Thus, being not restricted, the interviewees would provide much data about the topic of investigation and provide the necessary data for the research being conducted. Furthermore, Dowsett found it an

extraordinary data collection tool, for "the interactions are incredibly rich and the data indicate that you can produce extraordinary evidence about life you don't get in structured interviews or questionnaire methodology." (Dowsett, 1986, p. 53)

4.10.2.3.4. Stimulated Recall Interviews

The researcher records learners' performance and, then, asks the students to watch it and comment on what they were doing at specific moments. The recording is used as a stimulus to avoid learners' inaccurate reporting caused by task- attachment. This technique was developed by Grenfell and Harris (2004).

4.10.2.4. Think-aloud Protocols

A think-aloud protocol is a data collection technique that can be statistically and interpretively analysed. "It is a technique in which a person verbalises his or her thought processes while working on a task" (Chamot et al. 1990, p. 68). Learners report what they do, and the teacher observes and interprets strategies used through interviewing and asking questions to guide learners' think-aloud or just listens to what they say.

According to White, Schramm, and Chamot (2007), when using a think-aloud protocol procedure, researchers should consider the following points:

✓ Learners should be first trained to prompt their thinking aloud, especially young learners.
✓ The subject can use any language they prefer to manifest their thoughts, but using L1 is easier and allows for more processing capacity.
✓ The tasks to which learners are exposed should be authentic and contextualised.
✓ A skilful interpretation is needed, but with the research development, the transcription of think-aloud data is no longer restricted to what students say but extends to include features of oral speech (e.g. intonation, pauses, and variation in the rate of speech.), non-verbal communication

(e.g. hands movements, facial expressions, gestures, etc.), and physical action (e.g., using a dictionary, note taking, moving papers).

The above stated scholars Chamot et al. 1990; White, Schramm, and Chamot , 2007) provided guide lines on how to use a think-aloud technique. It consists of providing training to learners, especially younger ones, on how to verbalise their mental processes before implementing this technique. This verbalization may be in their L1 on any other language they choose about authentic contextualised tasks. Once it comes to data results interpretations, the researcher does not focus only on what learners say, rather he should be an alert to the body manifestation like non-verbal communication and physical actions.

It is the most complex method of data collection (White, Schramm, and Chamot, 2007) but a very useful one " because a think-aloud is in real time, students are not likely to forget their thoughts or make up false one; thus the technique has a high degree of validity in connection with the task ". (Chamot et al., 1990, p.68). Still, it has some limitations. Thinking-aloud quality is influenced by the type of task and how students are asked to respond. Therefore, one primary difficulty is selecting tasks that drive learners to employ strategies they know. Moreover, when learners do not use a strategy, it is challenging to state whether the cause is their lack of strategy mastery or their inability to verbalise it. (Macaro, 2001)

4.10.2.5. Diaries/ Journals

They are essential introspective self-report tools on which learners write their observations about what and how they learn. It is a data collection tool in which "students are asked to write about their experiences in using learning strategies with minimal direction from the teacher" (Chamot et al. 1999, p.127). Thus, researchers allow learners "to record their thoughts, feeling, and problems, as well as their impressions of teachers, fellow students and native speakers" (Oxford, 1990, p. 198); they help in developing metacognitive awareness about

learning (Chamot, 2004), help in promoting writing skills and encourage learners to be autonomous. (Harmer, 2007)

Dairies/journals are used in the case of collecting data over a period of time or training. They can be open-ended and free or guided. If the teacher/researcher suspects that learners may not mention everything or what is needed in the investigation, he provides guidelines or gets involved with them in ongoing dialogues to better explore interesting data (Macaro, 2001).

Diaries are often shared with the teacher who will not comment on everything but use them as a source for data. They can also be shared with peers (Oxford, 1990). E-Journals are used with learners involved in language learning in an area remote from the researchers (e.g., studying abroad, distance learning). Paige, Cohen, and Shively (2004) reported the usefulness of e-journals in assessing learners' reflections and experiences during their study abroad (White et al. 2007).

Conclusion

During the last few decades, language educators, linguists, syllabus designers as well as psychologists argued that foreign language learning will be facilitated if students become more aware of the existence of the wide range of strategies they can consciously select from while learning a foreign language to make learning easier, more enjoyable and transferable to new situations. Further research extended to explore the teach ability of LLS. The point was to make less able learners learn about strategy use and implement the appropriate strategies in the same way their proficient peers do. However, this could not be done unless learners benefit from a strategies-based instruction programs in which the teacher offers sufficient scaffolding. The objective of the program is to assist students in developing self-autonomy to control, monitor, and evaluate their learning endeavour to meet their own goals. In other words, they become increasingly independent and self-regulated learners.

To this end, various instructional models together with a number of research tools used in the field of strategy research were discussed in this chapter. As far as the former is concerned, that is to say the instructional models proposed by researchers in the field, most of them converge in scope, as they propose the same steps, sometimes labelled differently. They are awareness raising, presentation, practice, evaluation and revision, and finally expansion to new learning tasks and situations. Strategy assessment, on the other hand, is discussed in terms of data gathering tools used by researcher to collect data about the mental processes learners go through when they make use of the learning strategies. Some of the most important strategy assessment techniques were discussed, to name observations, questionnaires, interviews, 'think aloud' procedures, diaries and journals, and self-report surveys.

Chapter Five

The Field Work

Chapter Five

Research Methodology

Chapter five

Field Work

Introduction

This study explores the impact of SBI on students' writing proficiency. It seeks to investigate to what extent training students to use planning strategies would higher their metacognitive awareness, metacognitive knowledge, and metacognitive regulation and enable them to monitor their self-directed learning. By the same token, students would become more autonomous since they would be able to transfer their strategy use to other learning situations both inside and outside the classroom.

This chapter describes the methodology and inquires about the processes implied throughout the study to achieve the above mentioned objective. It, first of all, gives a rationale for the research paradigms adopted in the present research project and the way they line up with its goals. Then, it goes through a detailed explanation of data collection tools and data analysis procedures.

5.1.Research Design and Methodology

The present research adopts three steps design: exploration, action, and reflection. Within each of the three phases, a research tool is implemented to track the main research paradigms and collect either qualitative or quantitative data. The purpose behind this is to inquire about the success of SBI and answer a set of research questions.

During the exploration phase, a preliminary questionnaire is used to illicit data from teachers. Since the purpose of the present research is to shed some light on the effectiveness of explicitly teaching metacognitive learning strategies and embedding them within the official first-year writing course content, it is primary to ask writing teachers about their perceptions and attitudes concerning the overall level of students' writing, and how do they perceive the

whole teaching environment concerning the writing skill. Respondents' answers represent a consistent data that would help the researcher answer some exploratory research questions like: How do teachers perceive the place of pre-writing strategies in the writing task? What are the main planning strategies teachers teach to their students? What is the importance of embedding planning strategies within the first-year syllabus? And finally, to what extent, exposing students to strategy training in planning strategies would improve their writing proficiency?

The second phase, action, in the form of an experimental design constitutes the core of the present research work as it establishes a cause-and-effect relationship between the inferences from randomised experiments conducted within certain practical constraints of available data. In this respect Verner and Tate say: "A 'true' or randomised experiment is defined as an inquiry in which experimental units have been randomly assigned to different experimental treatments". (Verner &Tate, 1988, p. 94)

As this research project is a field experiment that involves making a change in the content of the first-year writing course, it is supposed to provide sufficient data to answer the following research questions: What is the impact of exposing first-year students to strategy-based instruction on their overall writing performance? What is the effect of exposing first-year students to strategies-based instruction on unity and ideas development? What is the impact of exposing first-year students to strategies-based instruction on creating well-structured topic sentences? How can SBI be helpful to students in the organisation of their paragraphs?

Finally, the research design culminates with a reflection phase through a semi-structured interview with key informants, as the researcher wanted to probe the views of a small number of elite individuals. A key informant interview is one directed at a respondent who has particular experience or knowledge about the subject being discusses" (Anderson, 1998, p. 191). As such, three participants in the intervention were selected on the basis of their statistically significant improvement reported by the post-test results to respond to the interview. The outliers were

encouraged to verbalize their experience and describe the different stages they went through to successfully achieve their writing task. Furthermore, they were invited to list the main gains they got from taking part in the SBI workshop. As such, the final two research questions, namely: what are the cognitive processes expert writers go through to achieve a good English paragraph? And what are the significant gains students could have from participating in the SBI workshop? Are meant to be answered in this last phase.

5.2. The Exploratory Phase/ the Preliminary Questionnaire

To gather data about the importance of strategies-based instruction in metacognitive pre-writing strategies in first-year EFL classes from teachers who are/ have been in charge of the writing skill course, a questionnaire was designed, administered, and analyzed. "The questionnaire has become one of the most used and abused means of collecting information. If well-constructed, a questionnaire permits the collection of reliable and reasonably valid data in a simple, cheap and timely manner". (Anderson, 1998, p. 170). The choice of this research instrument has been dictated by its wide use among researchers mainly because of its practicality, easiness to conduct, and the amount of data it affords in a limited time and with little money and effort. Accordingly, a nineteen (19) items questionnaire was prepared and distributed to fifteen (15) teachers at the ENSC. The respondents of the questionnaire were chosen according to their experience and expertise in teaching writing mainly to first-year students.

5.2.1. Aims of the Questionnaire

I have noticed through my ten years teaching writing to first-year groups at the ENSC, and from both the formal and the informal discussions I have been having with my colleagues in charge of the writing course, that there is neither consensus nor a clear vision about how to teach the first-year writing course. Every teacher has a special scope from which he approaches

the teaching of writing. Being influenced by different approaches, teachers adopt very different methods as well as different learning strategies from each other.

Thus, the main aim of this questionnaire is to inquire about teachers' attitudes and opinions about the approaches they adopt and the methods they implement to teach writing to first-year students at the ENSC. More importantly, it seeks to investigate how teachers perceive the importance of pre-writing strategies, how do they tackle them in the classroom, what are the planning strategies they might be teaching their students, if any. Through this questionnaire, the researcher also attempts to gain insights into teachers' perceptions of the importance of embedding pre-writing strategies in the first-year syllabus. This questionnaire, also attempts to inquire the readiness of teachers to conduct strategy training to help their first-year students achieve better writing performance. Researchers supporting classroom integration (eg. Oxford, 1989; Nunan, 1997; Cohen, 1998; Chamot. 1999, Grenfell & Harris 1999) argued that this kind of instruction enables learners to practise strategies within an authentic task.

5.2.2. Population

A questionnaire was prepared by the researcher and given to fifteen (15) ENSC teachers to be responded to during the academic year 2017- 2018. All the respondents are full-time teachers with considerable experience and expertise. To avoid any bias, a list containing names of teachers who taught/have been teaching writing for first-year students during the last fifteen years was thoroughly prepared for the sake of the research. The return rate was 100%. All the informants showed a great sense of cooperation and professionalism in answering the questionnaire and submitting it within a short time despite their numerous duties.

5.2.3. Description of the Questionnaire

The present questionnaire is used as a preliminary research tool to see first, if teachers use the process approach to writing. Second, it seeks to check whether they have an idea about

the pre-writing strategies (whether they know them, use them, train students to use them). Finally, it serves to question their attitudes and perspectives about the importance of embedding SBI on pre-writing strategies within the first-year official syllabus.

So, the questionnaire consists of nineteen question items (Appendix 2) varying from close-ended to open-ended questions. Nunan explains that "A closed item in which a range of possible responses is determined by the researcher … An open item is one in which the subject can decide what to say and how to say it" (Nunan, 2005, p. 143). The variety in question types motivates the respondents and engages them in seriously answering the questionnaire and moves them away from being bored.

The first section, devoted to informants' background information, seeks to obtain data about the respondents' academic qualifications, years of teaching experience and expertise in the first-year writing course. The data gathered from this section would allow us to trust the respondents' answers and to acknowledge to what extent their responses to the subsequent sections' questions are worthwhile and justify their valuable contribution to the present study.

Section two deals with teachers' perception of the ENSC students' level of proficiency in writing skills. This section contains three questions aiming at investigating the teachers' perception about the overall level of students' writing proficiency at all levels of instruction before moving on to investigating the reasons behind that. Then, respondents are given the opportunity, in a follow-up question, to express their viewpoint and name other problems they see relevant to the raised issue. The funnel approach to which the present questionnaire yields allows the latter to progressively narrow down to reach question 6 whereby respondents are asked to report where students find more difficulties while dealing with the writing task.

Section three contains five questions and targets the methods and approaches teachers adopt in their writing classes and their perception of the process writing steps, and whether or not first-year students have been instructed to use planning strategies during their previous instruction.

Section four, the last one in the questionnaire, contains eight question items that dig deeper and go straight to the main core of the research work, which is teaching metacognition to students through planning strategies and training learners to use them in different situations and with different writing assignments. Accordingly, on a five-point scale, teachers of writing had to report their perception of the planning strategies and identify the place of the planning strategies in the first-year written expression syllabus. Afterward, respondents are requested to name the planning strategies they teach to their students, in case they undertake this action as a personal initiative. The following question inquires about the importance of integrating planning strategies within the first-year syllabus. The subsequent questions are asked in a manner to elicit data about the importance of integrating SBI in the official syllabus in a detailed form and the possibility of embedding them within the everyday writing material. By the same token, informants are asked whether they already conducted SBI workshop in their classes before leaving them free space to add anything they estimate relevant to the research topic.

5.3. The Experiment as a Research Design

The researcher began collecting data curiously immediately after analyzing the questionnaire's findings, which results encouraged her to go further and dig deeper and lead the research from theoretical views and perceptions towards concrete observable evidence. Kaplan referred to the research setting and the relationship between observation and experiment while explaining that "creating circumstances especially conducive to observation is an experiment" (Kaplan, 1988, p. 90). This idea is thoroughly explained by Anderson who pointed to the

researcher's observation of the respondents' behaviour after implementing a given treatment. To put it simpler, an experimental design consists of manipulating the independent variable and verify any change in the dependent variable. Anderson acknowledges that "it has already been noted that in the simplest of experimental situations we manipulate one variable and observe the effect of this manipulation on another variable (….)The experimenter simply measures the subjects' responses, which are called dependent responses" (Anderson, 1990, p.12). Cohen et al., in their turn, (2006) asserted that any experiment involves manipulating or making a change in the value of the independent variable and observing the effect of that change or manipulation on the dependent variable.

From the aforementioned definitions, one can deduce that the experimental design, in its simplest forms, relies on manipulating an independent variable and observing or measuring the effect of that manipulation on a dependent variable through respondents' behaviour. In the present research, the independent variable is strategies-based instruction of four pre-writing strategies, namely brainstorming, mind-mapping, clustering and free-writing together with outlining. The manipulation of this dependent variable should be measured though the change which occurs in students' final written paragraphs set as a dependent variable.

5.3.1. Steps of the Experimental Design

The primary objectives of any experimental design in the field of education and language teaching be it L1 or L2 are the design of new teaching methods, trying new learning strategies and checking their efficiency in a particular teaching/ learning context, and piloting newly designed course books. In this respect, Singh pointed that in educational research, experimental design is, by large, carried out to find out the efficiency of new methods of teaching, try out different content types, and help design effective textbooks. (Singh, 2006).

All research involves certain common elements. The researcher starts, most of the time, his experimental research design by observing a phenomenon or a problem related to his field of research. After that, he sets a hypothesis, as a potential cause or solution to the problem/ phenomenon observed, in case of causal relationships and clearly defines the research variables about which he gathers theoretical data through a literature review of either conceptual literature or review of previous educational research. Following that, he chooses research methods that best answer his research questions. The researcher, then, selects a representative sample from the target population according to specific criteria of the research objectives and carries out his experiment on the sample study. Directly after, he measures the outcomes that he analyzes and draws related conclusions that he disseminates to a wider audience. In this line of thought, Singh says "The steps of experimental design involve selecting the problem, reviewing the literature, preparing the experimental design, defining the population, carrying out the experiment, measuring the outcomes, analyzing and interpreting the outcomes, drawing up the conclusions, and finally reporting the results." (Singh, 2006, pp.139-140)

This experimental design is an attempt to fill a gap in the research concerning the writing skill. Consequently, the present study follows the common research elements; that is to say, it started from a classroom observation about students' clear inability to produce well written English paragraphs. Repeated observation to students while responding to written assignments either during regular classes or during formal evaluation revealed obvious avoidance of the planning phase. This avoidance develops into serious resistance when students are asked to plan. This could be due to their lack of awareness of the crucial importance of the pre-writing stage and its impact on the subsequent phases. To remedy to this situation, an experimental design was set by the researcher and a sample was selected to participate in the experiment. A treatment was implemented preceded and followed by pre and post-test. Results of tests are analysed and conclusions are drawn to be disseminated to the concerned audience.

5.3.2. Population and Sampling

In order to answer the research questions, it is doubtful that a researcher would be able to collect data from all sources. Thus, there is a need to select a sample. The entire set of cases from which the research sample is drawn in called the 'population'. Since researchers neither have time nor the resources to analyse the entire population, they apply sampling techniques to reduce the number of cases. Dörnyei (2011) explains that "the sample is the group of participants whom the researcher actually examines in an empirical investigation and the population is the group of people whom the study is about" (p. 96). After the results' analysis, the researcher may generalize the findings drawn from his sample to a wider population exhibiting similar characteristics.

This research is experimental research which objective is to make observable improvement in first-year students' writing skills through explicit implementation of SBI of the pre-writing strategies during the daily writing classes by embedding them in the teaching material. Inevitably, first year students have to take part in this experiment. Consequently, participants to the experiment are selected from the larger population of ENSC freshmen.

The sample size in educational research depends on so many factors such as the style of the research, the nature of the population under scrutiny (its size and amount of heterogeneity), the purpose of the study, and cost in terms of time, money, stress, administrative support, the number of researchers, and resources (Cohen et al., 2000). As a sample for the present research, two groups of first year students were randomly selected to take part in the experiment. The groups in question are first year group one (1TC1) and first year group two (1TC2). Both groups were heterogeneous, yielding to the administrative requirements of pedagogical group creation, containing both genders and mixed abilities. Both groups contain twenty-five students each.

The sample was divided into a control group and an experimental one. The difference between the two lays in that the "experimental group of subjects is the group that receives the experimental treatment- that is, some manipulation by the experimenter. The control group of subjects is treated exactly like the experimental group except that they do not receive the experimental treatment" (Anderson, 1990, p 15). The researcher randomly settled on making 1TC1 the experimental group and 1TC2 the control one. Both groups sat for a pre and a post-test but only the experiment one received the treatment. Valette explains that "The pretest is given prior to teaching a course or a unit of instruction. It is similar in form and content to the post-test that is given at the end of the course or the unit. The scores on the pretest form a baseline against which one can measure the progress that students have made during the course." (Valette, 1977, p. 14)

5.3.3. Description of the Experiment

The experiment took place at the department of English at the ENSC, a national educational institution specialized in training teachers during the second semester of the academic year 2017- 2018.

The nature of the first-year Written Expression syllabus and the way it is dealt with at ENSC. requires the teaching of the paragraph in the second semester, as the first one is devoted to teaching grammatical notions related to the writing skill like types of sentences, phrases, clauses, sentence problems… etc. (Appendix 1). Inevitably, the experiment was supposed to take place in the second semester after students have had good mastery of the different types of English sentences and patterns that enable them to write structurally correct paragraphs. Once they finish with the grammatical notions related to sentence structure, they are supposedly ready to receive training in metacognitive learning strategies estimated to promote their planning skills and help them acquire an acceptable level of writing proficiency. However, students at

the ENSC together with their peers in all Algerian ENSs voted for an all-out strike, which lasted

four months, so the institution was closed. The staff had to resume on September to deal with

the second semester before starting the new academic year 2018-2019. Thus, the experiment

started on September 13,[th] 2018 and ended on November 9,[th] 2018.

The goal of the present research is to teach EFL students to use multiple strategies for

planning that have been shown to positively affect the writing performance of students

(Flowers, 1981; Breiter and Scardamalia, 1987, Leki, 1992). Over a period of nine weeks, the

students were explicitly exposed to a range of strategies to develop their metacognitive

knowledge and awareness of the writing task. Recent research came to a conclusion that

language should be taught hand in hand with strategies, which enhance its learning. Thus,

"learners should be taught not only the language but also directed toward strategies they could

use to promote more effective learning." (Oxford et al., 2011, p. 141)

The strategies in question, the pre-writing strategies, are explicitly integrated into the

official written expression course content and within instructional teaching materials adopting

the framework proposed in the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach model

(CALLA). "Effective strategies instruction is not an extra activity or even a separate part of the

regular language class. Rather, it is used to support language and content learning and to

accomplish the goals of the curriculum" (Chamot et al., 1999, p. 42). The following table reports

the unfolding of the treatment period week by week.

Table 4

The Intervention Schedule

Time allotted	The Instructional Framework
Week One	*Raising Metacognitive Awareness about LLS* -Identifying students' existing learning strategies. -Class discussion about learning strategies. -Providing an overview of LLS regarding the four skills
	-Introduction to the writing process -Introduction to the English paragraph -Different parts of the English paragraph, topic sentence, supporting details, concluding sentence -Practice
Week Two & Week Three	*Type one: The expository paragraph* Introducing the first expository paragraph and defining the paragraph type Discussing the expository paragraph Lecturing the expository paragraph pattern **Introducing The Outlining Strategy (deductive method)** **Preparation** Activating students' prior knowledge about the *pre-writing* strategies **presentation** -Teacher modeling. -Naming the strategy -Explaining the importance of its use. -Providing examples of the strategy use **Practice** *with heavy scaffolding* -Integrate strategy practice into regular -Encourage students to practise the strategy introduced on the expository paragraph dealt with in the classroom **Evaluation** : *Assess with reduced scaffolding* Peer evaluation of the deduced outlines Teacher evaluation. **Expansion** *free from scaffolding (Independent learners)* -Expanding the strategy practice to other course contents Linguistics, Reading Technics, and Civilization and Literature -Lecturing the transitional signals of the expository paragraph Practice
Week Four & Week Five	*Type two: The Narrative paragraph* **-**Introducing the first narrative paragraph and defining the paragraph type -Discussing the narrative paragraph -Lecturing the narrative paragraph pattern -Preparing to write a narrative paragraph *Introducing the brain-storming strategy/ mind mapping s* **Preparation** Correction of the homework on the outlining strategy **presentation** -Teacher modeling. -Naming the strategy brain-storming. -Explaining the importance of its use. -Providing examples of the strategy use **Practice** *with heavy scaffolding* - Students brainstorm different prompts on narrative topics

	Evaluation : *Assess with reduced scaffolding* -Use of learning strategy checklist. -Peer evaluation. -Teacher evaluation. **Expansion** *free from scaffolding (Independent learners)* -Expanding the strategy practice to other course contents Linguistics, Reading Technics, and Civilization and Literature
Week Six & Week Seven	**Type three: the process paragraph** Introducing the first narrative paragraph and defining the paragraph type -Discussing the process paragraph -Lecturing the process paragraph pattern -Preparing to write a process paragraph **Introducing the listing strategy** **preparation** Reviewing the previous planning strategies **presentation** -The teachers names and explains the new strategy, its importance and use **Practice** *with heavy scaffolding* - Teacher provides a writing prompt on the process type - Teacher encourages students to practise the strategy introduced - Teachers assesses students step by step - Students use their plans to write different drafts **Evaluation** : *Assess with reduced scaffolding* Use of learning strategy checklist. Use of writing checklist Peer evaluation. Teacher evaluation. **Expansion** *free from scaffolding (Independent learners)* -Expanding the strategy practice to other course contents Linguistics, Reading Technics, and Civilization and Literature.
Week Eight & Week Nine	**Type four: The descriptive paragraph** Introducing the descriptive paragraph -Discussing the descriptive paragraph -Lecturing the descriptive paragraph pattern -Preparing to write a descriptive paragraph *The Free-writing Strategy* **Preparation** Engaging students in a group discussion about the pre-writing strategies previously introduced to pave the way for the last planning strategy. **presentaion** -Teacher names, the, presents the freewriting strategy, - Teacher explains its importance and use and provides examples of its use. **Practice** *with heavy scaffolding* - Teacher provides topics for he writin practice - Encourages students to practise the strategy introduced **Evaluation** : *Assess with reduced scaffolding* -Use of learning strategy checklist. -Use of writing checklist. -Peer evaluation. -Teacher evaluation. **Expansion** *free from scaffolding (Independent learners)* -Expanding the strategy practice to other course contents Linguistics, Reading Technics, and Civilization and Literature

The students' progress is measured with grades on the overall writing performance besides to measuring their progress in three quality traits of writing namely unity and ideas development, correct topic sentences, and paragraph development. The main concern of the present research is to determine whether students would benefit from short-term, explicit strategies-based instruction in a set of writing skills that target some aspects of the meta-cognitive writing process and the characteristics of good writing.

5.3.4.   Description of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach Model (CALLA)

There are several SBI models developed by prominent teachers and researchers in the field of strategy research (e.g. Oxford, 1990; Chamot et al, 1990; Macaro, 2001), as it is explained in Chapter Four to meet both teachers' and learners' expectations of school achievement and academic success. Oxford and Leaver (1996) claimed that effective strategy instruction includes demonstrating and explaining when a given strategy might be useful, practicing, evaluating, and finally transferring it to other related tasks and situations.

The CALLA model was created by Chamot and O'Malley in 1986, then, developed by Chamot et al. (1990). Initially, this model was designed to foster academic achievement for English language-learning (ELL) students and has been applied in ESL/ EFL contexts. This instructional model is primarily designed to improve the school achievement of students who are learning different contents through the medium of a foreign language. The CALLA model fosters language and cognitive development by integrating content, language, and SBI (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994b; Chamot, 2005a).

As the researcher is not carrying out research in an independent setting; rather, it is in educational setting aiming to develop students' writing skills and competences traced in the official curriculum, the CALLA model is the appropriate model to this research because of

some reasons. First of all, it functions within a framework, which prioritizes the curriculum content. Second, it focuses on language development. Lastly, it encourages explicit SBI, as "The CALLA model provides explicit instruction in learning strategies that will assist students in meeting national curriculum standards, learning both language and content, and becoming independent learners who can evaluate their own learning" (Chamot et al.,1999, p. 7). Accordingly, the CALLA is a model in which declarative knowledge about learning strategies is taught, practised, transferred, and evaluated so that it gradually becomes procedural knowledge.

Designers of the model claim to have developed one with a social-cognitive theoretical framework learning that stresses three main components namely, the role of students' prior knowledge, the importance of collaborative learning, and self-reflection. (Chamot et al. 1990). Chamot and O'Malley explain that "While this structure is straight forward, integrating the three components in actual instruction can be difficult without the guidelines of an instructional framework. The framework developed for CALLA is designed to assist teachers in incorporating the components and theoretical principles in planning instruction." (Chamot& O'Malley, as cited in Chamot et al., 1999, p.7)

As such, teachers who adopt the CALLA instructional design in their EFL/ ESL classes need to be fully aware that the design in question is task-based and has five phases in which the three components; content, language, and learning strategies have to be combined. Oxford explains: "The CALLA model includes a generalized lesson plan, divided into five phases: Preparation, Presentation, Practice, Evaluation, and Follow-up Expansion" (Oxford, 1990, p. 216). The phases are presented through the following figure:

Figure 15

The CALLA's Five Recursive Phases. (Chamot et al, 1990, p. 45)
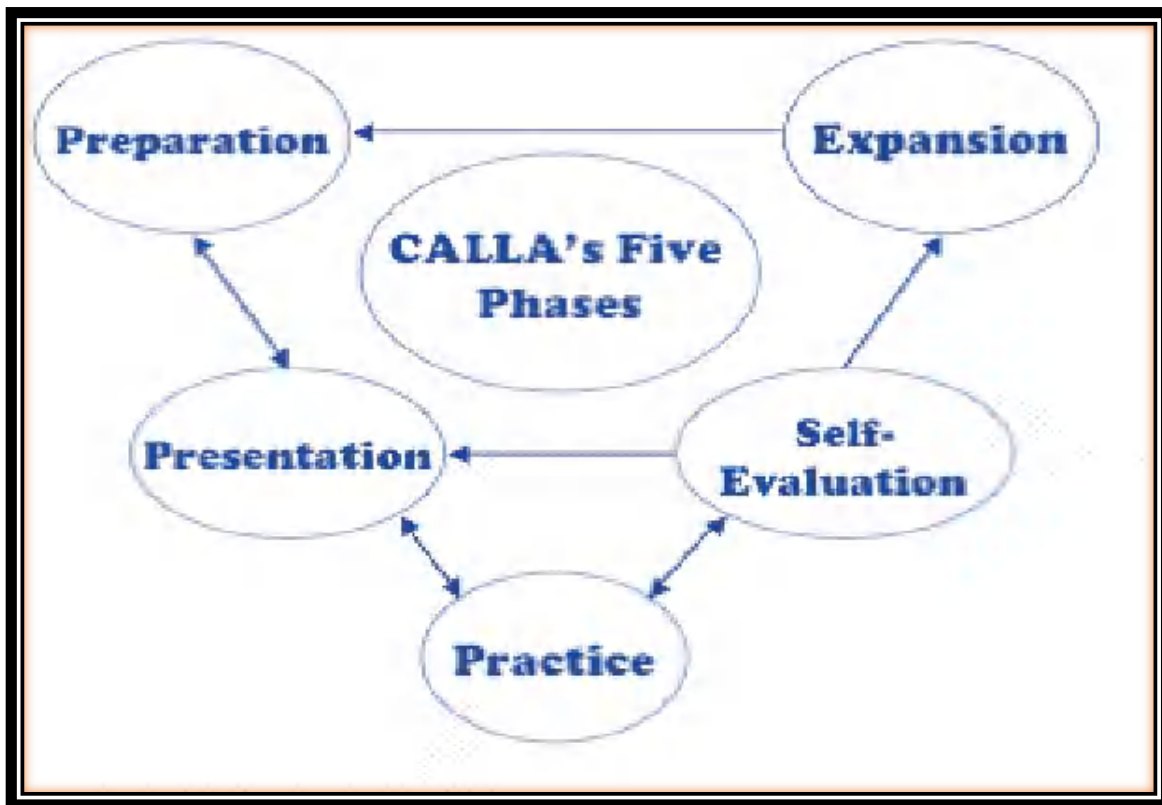
In the first phase, preparation, teachers focus on finding out what prior knowledge the students have about the content topic to be taught, their level of language proficiency, and their current learning strategies for this type of task. In the second phase, Presentation, teachers use a variety of techniques to make new information and skills accessible and comprehensible to students. These techniques include demonstrations, modelling, and visual support. This phase is followed by or integrated with the third phase, Practice. In this phase, the students use their new information and skills (including learning strategies) in activities that involve collaboration, problem solving, inquiry, and hands on experiences. The fourth phase, Evaluation, entails students to self-evaluate their understanding and proficiency with the content, language, and learning strategies they have been practising. Finally, in the fifth phase,

Expansion, the students engage in activities to apply what they have learned to their own lives, including other classes at school, their families and community, and their cultural and linguistic backgrounds. These five phases are recursive, thereby allowing for flexibility in lesson planning and implementation.

5.3.5. The Pre-intervention Phase

Before conducting the treatment, individuals in the sample groups sat for a pre-test to ensure homogeneity in participants' cognitive and metacognitive skills and abilities. Testing is very important to language teachers and serves diverse learning objectives. Valette acknowledges: "Testing is a topic of concern to language teachers, both those in the classroom and those engaged in administration or research; while classroom teachers usually have no intention of becoming measurement experts, they realize that tests can improve their teaching and stimulate student learning." (Valette, 1977, p. 3)

The first moment of the experiment took place on September, 13th, 2017, the first week when students resumed from the strike. Both groups were pretested on their writing ability to produce a well-developed and unified paragraph with a correct topic sentence. The pre-test was about paragraph writing on the following prompt:

"The best way to defeat AIDS is to know the ways it spreads through."

The experimental group, as well as the control one, responded to the writing instruction in the same conditions. That is in the morning within their habitual schedule and within time limits of one hour and half. The written paragraphs, set as a pre-test for both the experimental and control group, were collected and scored by two experienced teachers in teaching writing, a colleague from the department of English and the researcher herself using a scoring rubric developed by the researcher and inspired from Myskow's (2011) (See Appendix 5).

5.3.6. The Intervention Phase

After the pre-test, both groups were supposed to participate in twenty-seven one hour and half study sessions; however, because of the students' collective absences due to a few days off, the intervention period was reduced to twenty-four sessions, during which they dealt with lessons respecting the written expression syllabus: introduction to the English paragraph, the writing process, and then tackled the different paragraph types : the expository paragraph, the narrative paragraph, the process paragraph, and finally the descriptive paragraph.

At this moment, the experimental group started the treatment phase; whereas the control one was taught as the majority of the respondents to the questionnaire claim to teach the process-product approach to writing. That is to say, after giving a writing prompt to students, the latter are urged to plan, make drafts, revise, edit, then, give the final version to their teachers to correct it. Receiving no training in planning nor any sufficient scaffolding, the learners in different writing classes were supposed to plan and assist their plans and finally, submit their paragraphs to their teachers who correct the final form of the paragraph neglecting the cognitive processes the students went through to reach that form.

The experimental group, however, received an explicit SBI on the use of the pre-writing strategies with a focus on four strategies namely brainstorming, mind-mapping, listing, and free-writing within the framework of the CALLA Model on the one hand, and an explicit instruction on how to organize the ideas they got in a simple meaningful and helpful outline, on the other hand. Thereby, every strategy was developed in five recursive stages namely, Preparation, Presentation, Practice, Evaluation, and finally Expansion while being embedded within the regular class material.

The steps in the experimental group included thinking, verbalizing through group discussion, learning how to create ideas, classifying them, and then writing them down in a

simple outline to be used in writing the first draft. The topics for the writing assignments in both groups were the same. The topics were considered to suit students' interest, personal information with sufficiently related ideas and vocabulary. The learners participated constructively and enthusiastically in the classroom intervention and hold positive attitudes about it.

After receiving explicit instruction of the pre-writing strategies focusing on both levels: planning and outlining, the students cognitively get involved and write paragraphs based on their own plans of action. These plans are evaluated by the learners using a checklist prepared by their teacher for the sake of this research (See Appendix 7). They are, then, encouraged to go through different drafts and revise each one using a writing checklist (see Appendix 8) developed in the classroom with the active participation of the group members. The method of assessment used to assess students' written achievements used was portfolio assessment. (See Appendix 9). It is a method which helps both teachers and learners to conduct continuous assessment and witness concrete improvement in terms of the writing skills. It is defined as "the evaluation of collected, organized, annotated body of work, produced over time by a learner, which demonstrates progress towards specific objectives." (Barnhardt et al., 1997, p.3)

5.3.7. Models of Lessons of Strategies-based Instruction Implementation in the Writing Class

Before tackling the first planning strategy, it is necessary to raise the students' awareness about the importance of language learning strategies and activate their prior knowledge about the existing strategies. It is necessary, then, to ask them about the strategies that would help them in achieving a task. Activating metacognitive knowledge means raising learners' awareness about their metacognitive knowledge. The latter includes components of metacognitive knowledge, namely knowledge of the *person*, knowledge of the *task*, and

knowledge of the *strategy* Flavell (1979). To put it simpler, students need to be aware of their personal cognitive abilities concerning given tasks. They have to identify the learning strategies they already know and those they already use. They are also required to have knowledge about the existence of a range of strategies that would help them achieve some of the learning tasks in a more successful way. Accordingly, the following lesson addresses raising students' awareness about the LLS related to the four language skills.

Figure 16

A Script for Awareness Raising Lesson

Lesson 1: Awareness Raising about Students' Metacognitive Knowledge

Instructional Objectives

- Activate students' awareness of strategies they already *know.*
- Identify strategies students already *use*.

1. Preparation

Introduction of the notion of strategy

Teacher writes a sentence with unfamiliar words on the board and asks students to read it, understand it, and then, explain it to the class.

Teacher asks the students about the conscious actions they made to understand the sentence.

Students provide different answers:

- Use a dictionary.
- Use inferencing from the context.
- Ask a more knowledgeable person, the teacher.
- Ask a classmate.

2. Presentation

✓ **Naming and Explaining the Strategy**

The teacher introduces the term **strategy** and explains its use and usefulness and backs up the explanation with a lot of examples.

3. Practice

The teacher encourages students to think about strategies they use whenever dealing with a learning task and invites the students to fill the following table.

➢ What do you do to help yourself read in English

Strategy Description	Why this Strategy is Useful?	When is this Strategy Useful?

➢ What do you do to help yourself develop your listening skills in English?

Strategy Description	Why this Strategy is Useful?	When is this Strategy Useful?

➢ What do you do to help yourself write correct English?

Strategy Description	Why this Strategy is Useful?	When is this Strategy Useful?

➢ What do you do to help yourself speak fluently and compensate the language gaps?

Strategy Description	Why this Strategy is Useful?	When is this Strategy Useful?

Group Discussion

The teacher sets a healthy atmosphere for learning, a learner centred one, wherein she encourages students to engage in a group discussion about their prior experience with learning strategies. The discussion includes talking about how strategies work differently or similarly for the four modalities: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. She, then, explains the objective of the SBI the class is going to be engaged in, objectives and steps to be followed.

NB. Students are allowed, for this activity, to make use of the native language to name some LLS they use.

The pre-writing strategies are introduced in different tutorial sessions, wherein this stage is subdivided into two main parts namely planning and outlining. However, the researcher starts first with outlining and, then, goes through planning, exposing four different planning strategies. After that, she trains her students to implement them with the writing prompts. Accordingly, a theoretical background is first given to students to relate what has been driven

as knowledge from the paragraph to theory about the writing process. Focus is put on the importance of planning the writing text and how it helps to make it clear for the readers.

Following a deductive method, the students are introduced to the outlining strategy. In a first moment, a written paragraph is given to the students, so that they discover which type of rhetorical pattern of development it follows. Once they discover it, they are invited to go through the idea development. They are asked many questions to deduce the meaning and the structure of the paragraph.

At a second moment, the students with the help of the teacher and within the framework of the CALLA instructional procedure, go through the ideas development to discover how does the author develop the paragraph idea and reach the concluding sentence. The students, then, draw the preliminary outline the author has initially traced in order to reach what he has achieved. The teacher, then, names the strategy and explains its use and importance. This phase is followed by the practice wherein the teacher provides a number of paragraphs (See Appendix 4) and asks students to read, analyze them, and finally write a related outline to each one. After that, students evaluate their own plans and submit their plans to each other for peer evaluation. The last step is expansion. During this phase, the teacher asks learners to prepare outlines of texts learned in the Reading Technics Course. This challenging activity is set as homework.

Following are examples of scripts of lessons from the SBI instructional course content on outlining and planning strategies within the framework of the CALLA model. The participants are introduced to the pre-writing strategies, their use, and their importance. Further, they are introduced to the five phases of the CALLA instructional design, adopted in this research and how they are going to structure the lessons.

Figure 17

A Script for a Lesson Following the Five Phases of the CALLA Model

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Lesson 2:   Outlining

Behavioural objective: By the end of the lesson, students would be able to retrace an outline of a written passage.

1.   Preparation

Guided reading

Read the following paragraph and find out the topic it discusses

Now read again the paragraph and answer each of the following questions:

1. Look at the title; what do you expect the paragraph to discuss?

2. Look at the first sentence, what does it say about the topic?

3. How many points should the reader look for in this paragraph?

4. Name the points discussed

5. Now, look at the last sentence. Compare it to the previous sentences. What information does it repeat?

6. How did the writer end his paragraph?

The preparation phase is followed by the Presentation phase. The teacher smoothly moves from preparation to lesson presentation

2. Presentation

➢ **Teacher Modeling:**

The teacher demonstrates how a strategy is used by modelling it on similar tasks, so she provides the following example:

Gold

[1]Gold, a precious metal, is prized for two important characteristics.[2]First of all, gold has a lustrous beauty that is resistant to corrosion. [3]Therefore, it is suitable for jewellery, coins, and ornamental purposes. [4]Gold never needs to be polished and will remain beautiful for ever. [5]For example, a Macedonian coin remains as untarnished today as the day it was made 25 centuries ago.[6]Another important characteristic of gold is its usefulness to industry and science. [7]For many years, it has been used in hundreds of industrial applications, such as photography and dentistry. [8]The most recent use of gold is in astronauts' suits. [9]Astronauts wear gold-plated heat shields for protection when they go outside spaceships in space. [10]**In conclusion, gold is treasured not only for its beauty but also for its utility.**

So, the initial outline would look like the following:

Topic Sentence

Supporting Details

Concluding Sentence

➢ **Strategy Naming**

As we have seen earlier, prior to writing, a writer has to organize his ideas in a meaningful **outline** to eliminate non-related content details and thus ensures paragraph unity

➢ **Strategy Explaining**

Outlining is a tool we use in the writing process to help organize our ideas, visualize our paper's potential structure, and to further flesh out and develop points. It allows the writer to understand how he or she will connect information to support the topic sentence. An outline provides the writer with a space to consider ideas easily without needing to write complete paragraph.

A simple outline for a short paragraph might look like this:

Indent /

use

capital

No

number or

letter

Topic sentence: Topic sentence underlined

A-First Supporting Point

B-Second Supporting Point

C-Third Supporting Point

These are equal in importance and are written in parallel form

Concluding sentence: Concluding sentence underlined

 Of course, the number of main supporting points (A, B, C) will vary widely from paragraph to paragraph. This particular paragraph has three main supporting points; others may have only two or as many as ten or even, or twenty. Also, some paragraphs may not have a concluding sentence. And in others, the topic sentence may not be the first sentence.

3. Practice

Read the following paragraphs and find the initial outline traced by authors

Text 1:   Three Kinds of Dogs

A city walker will notice that most dogs fall into one of three categories. First there are the big dogs, which are generally harmless and often downright friendly. They walk along peacefully with their masters, their tongues hanging out and big goofy grins on their faces. Apparently they know they're too big to have anything to worry about, so why not be nice? Second are the spunky medium-sized dogs. When they see a stranger approaching, they go on alert, they prick up their ears, they raise their hackles, and they may growl a little deep in their throats. "I could tear you up," they seem to be saying, "but I won't if you behave yourself." Unless the walker leaps for their master's throat, these dogs usually won't do anything more than threaten, The third category is made up of the shivering neurotic little yappers whose shrill barks could shatter glass and whose needle-like little teeth are eager to sink into a friendly outstretched hand, Walkers always wonder about these dogs – don't they know that people who really wanted to could squash them under their feet like bugs? Apparently not, because of all the dogs a walker meets, these provide the most irritation. Such dogs are only one of the potential hazards that the city walker encounters.

4. Evaluation

Phase One: Peer evaluation

Students evaluate each other's outlines

Phase Two: One of the outlines is picked up and written on the board and   evaluated by the whole class

Phase Three: The teacher collects the works to correct them at home

5. Expansion

Students are asked to make the outlines of other texts treated in the Reading Techniques course and bring them to the classroom to be corrected.

In the subsequent lessons, the students are taught four types of pre-writing strategies reported in the literature to be the most beneficial ones for improving the learners' writing proficiency. The strategies in question are brainstorming, mind-mapping (or clustering), listing, and free-writing.

Brainstorming

Clustering

Planning

Listing
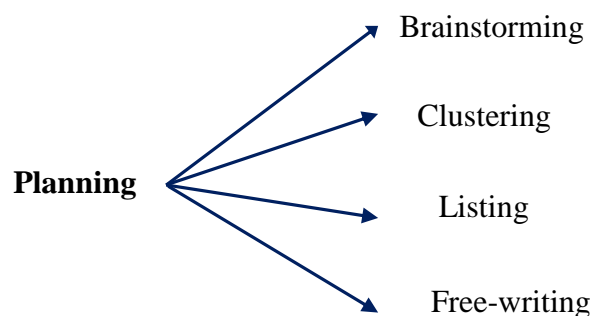
Free-writing

The students are first introduced to the pre-writing strategies and their importance to develop the writing skills. According to Cohen (2000), a strategy-based instruction is more beneficial if it is explicitly dealt with and embedded within the habitual class material.

Lesson 3: Planning Strategies

Behavioural Objective: By the end of the lesson, students would be able to plan their writing tasks using the brainstorming or clustering strategies

1.Prepparation

Correction of the homework:

A volunteer student writes the outline on the board, and the whole class comment on it.

2.Presentation

   ➢ **Teacher Modelling**

The teacher demonstrates how a strategy is used by modelling it on similar tasks. So, she starts where she stopped the previous time. She starts her lesson by listening, first to students' comments, then, gives her own.

So, this is the outline the author prepared to write, but what did he do to reach this organised version. Probably, he thought a lot, created ideas, sought for the appropriate vocabulary,

and finally organised his ideas in a well organised outline before he starts to write. This phase is called the pre-writing phase and a lot of strategies are used as pre-writing ones.

Wealth   women   mines   cinema   photography

Jewellery

Beautiful ←   **GOLD**   → useful

Decoration

Astronomy   science

industry

Palaces   economics

History   photography   dentistry
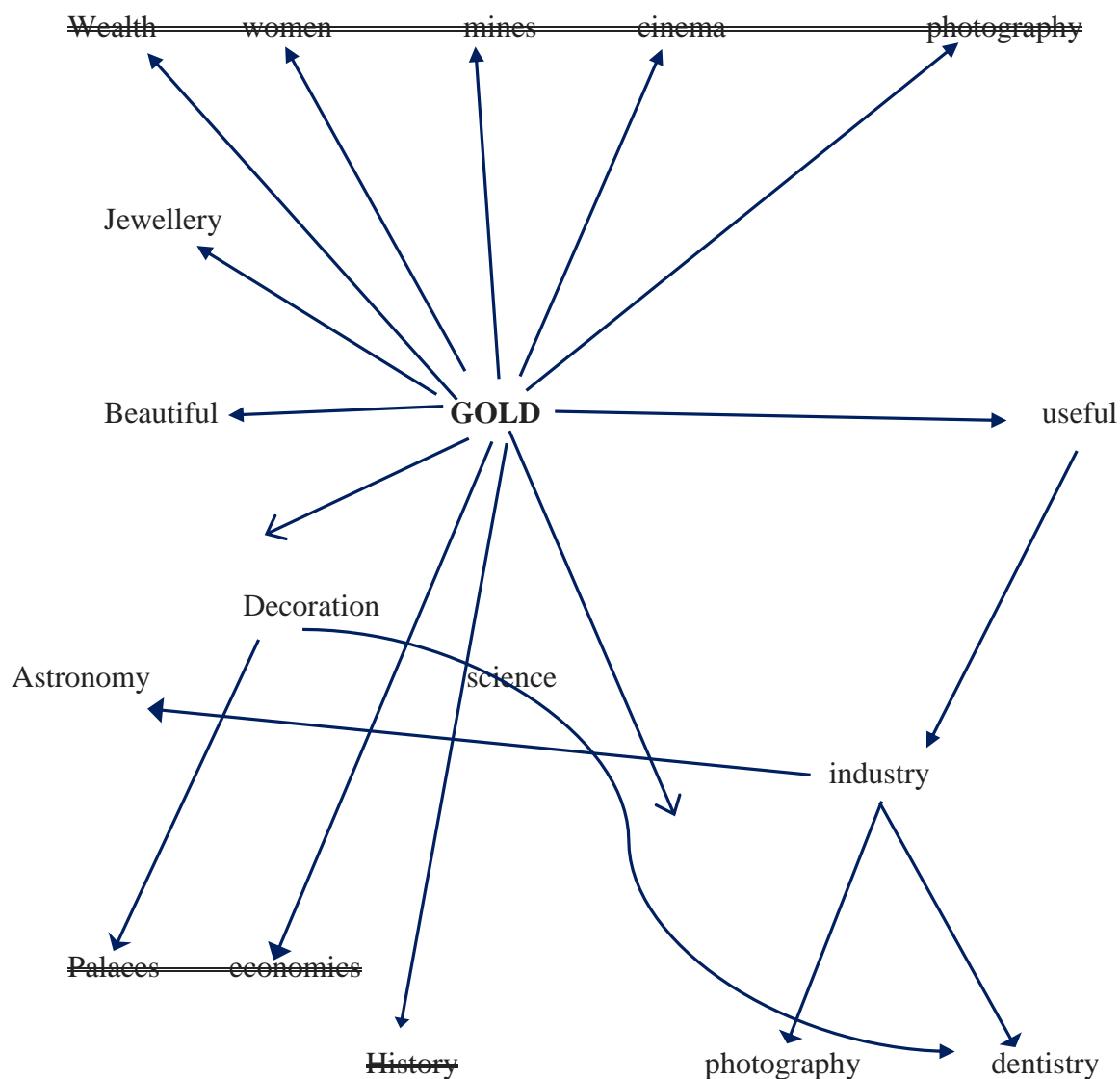
> **Naming the Strategy and Explaining its Importance**

a. Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a useful way of getting started or generating new ideas. It is a method that involves coming up with new ideas about a given topic. It be done individually or in a group where all participants are encouraged to think freely without any interruptions. Moreover, each participant shares his or her ideas as soon as they come to mind. And, at the end of the brainstorming session, each is categorised and ranked for follow-up action.

b. Clustering/ Mind Mapping

Clustering or Mind mapping is a pre-writing activity where you schematise, design, link, and process complex pictures. It is a generative, open-ended, nonlinear, visual structuring of ideas, events, and feelings. While composing, mind mapping is an effective method to brainstorm ideas and note them down paying little attention to structure and order. A mind map is a **diagram** that represents words, concepts, and items connected and arranged around a key concept using a non-linear layout. In other words, mind mapping involves noting down a central theme and thinking of new and related ideas that extend out from it. Focusing on that central theme will help the writer to better understand that information. Accordingly, mind mapping helps the writer to structure and organise the information to be used while composing.

Clustering is a pre-writing technique that helps you get ideas to write about. Here is how to do clustering for a job you prefer:

Begin by writing your choice of a job or profession in the center of a piece of paper.

Draw a circle around it then think about characteristics and ability is necessary for the job, and write down every idea that comes into your mind. Don't stop to worry if the idea is good or not.

Write words or phrases in circles around the main circle and, then, connect them to the main circle.

The draft would look like that:
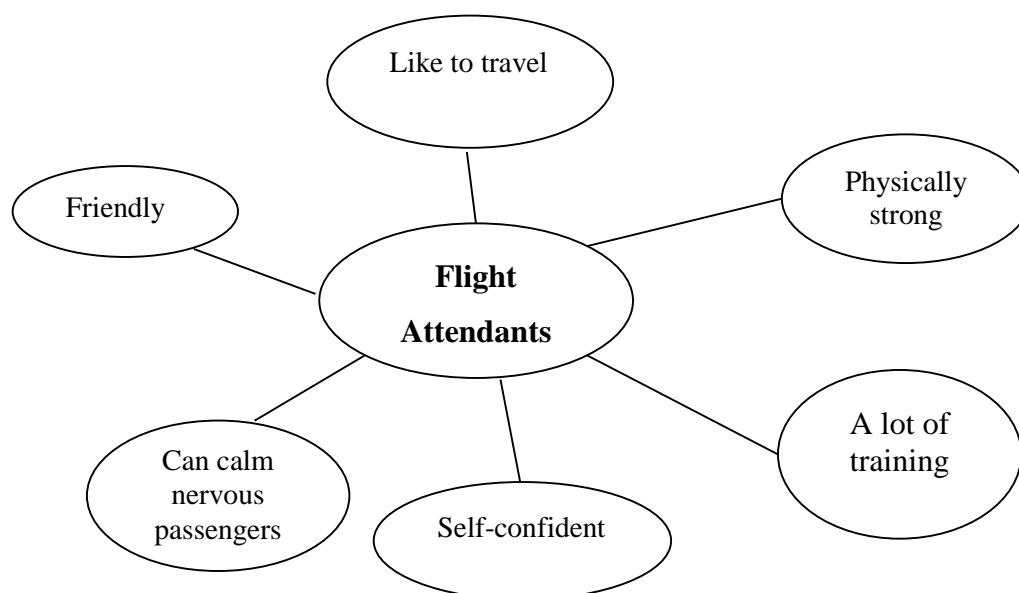
Next, think about the word or phrase in each circle. Try to think of something that illustrates the word or phrase, such as a situation when the person would need a certain characteristic or ability. Cross of circles that you also don't want.

Like to travel

Physically strong

Friendly

Flight Attendants

A lot of training

Foreign languages

Self-confident

Emergencies

Give orders to passengers

Get passengers to sit down

Explain noises
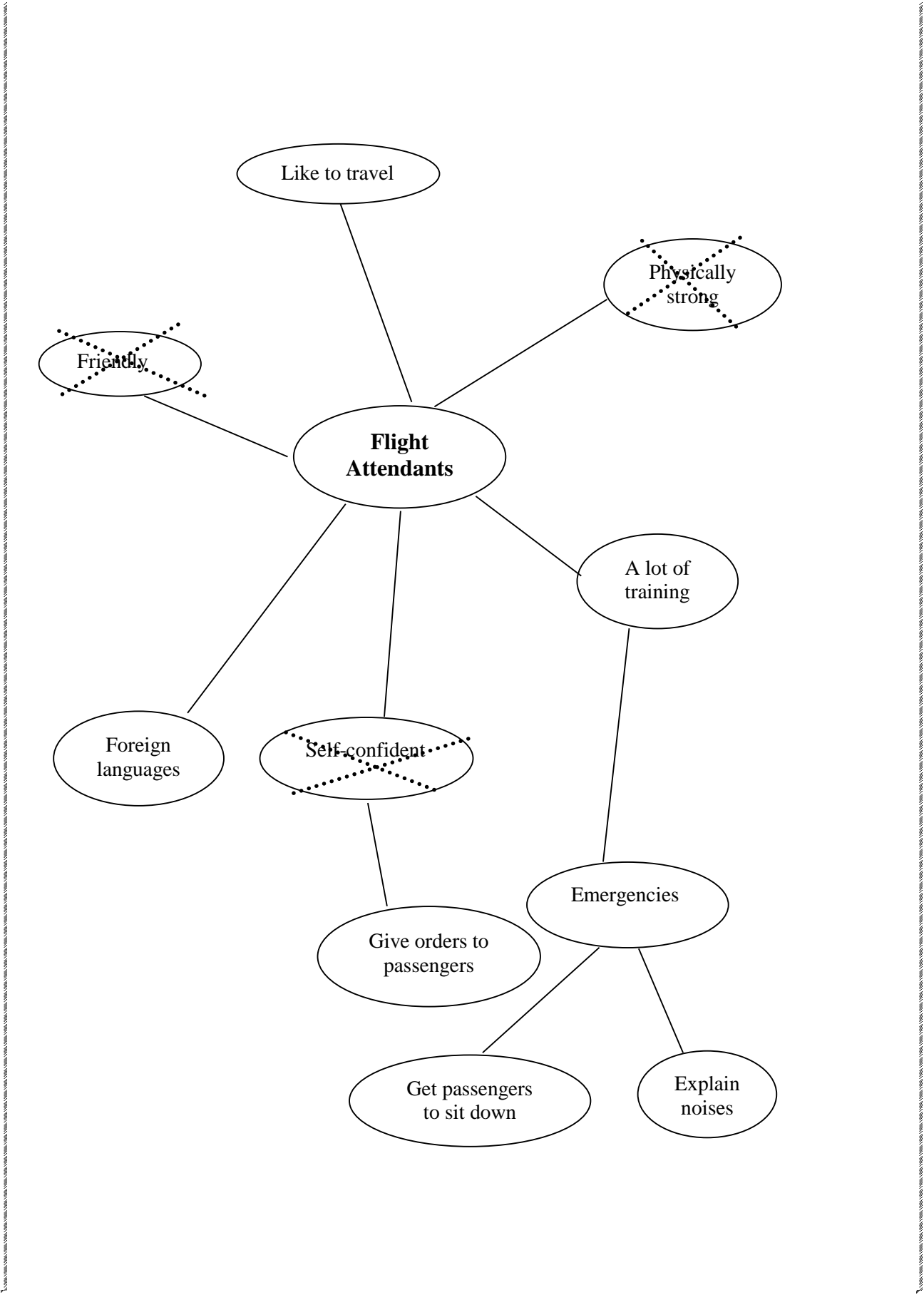
After presenting the strategy to the students, a very important phase has to follow this presentation, practice. Scholars like (Chamot et al., 1990; Cohen, 2000; Oxford, 2003) argued that while conducting SBI, students have to be provided with enough practice opportunities to make sure that these strategies are internalized by them and made part of their personal repertoire. Following is an example of the practice phase

Phase 3: Practice

Students are provided with a set of topics on which they are required to elaborate a plan then an outline using the strategy which best fits them and the task at hand.

Topics: -   *A memorable past event*
            -   *Your last family vacation*
            -   *The Algerian history is full of important events*

Phase 4: Evaluation

A this level of the experimental design, the teacher provides the participants with a planning strategy checklist to help them evaluate their written plans/outlines (See Appendix.7)

A gain in this lesson, the evaluation takes place at three levels:

- ✓ Auto-evaluation.
- ✓ Peer-evaluation.
- ✓ Teachers' evaluation.

Phase 5: Expansion

Students are given an assignment from the Linguistics course to which they are asked to brainstorm thoughts and ideas about and organize them in a simple outline.

The writing prompt:

Brainstorm all thoughts and related vocabulary and dates and organize them in an outline on the following topic:

The importance of studying traditional Linguistic

5.3.8. Examples of Students' Output Data

The intervention group individuals, and as part of their training, regularly worked on both planning and outlining. Some models of what they produced are as follows:

Figure 18

Students' Output for Planning and Outlining
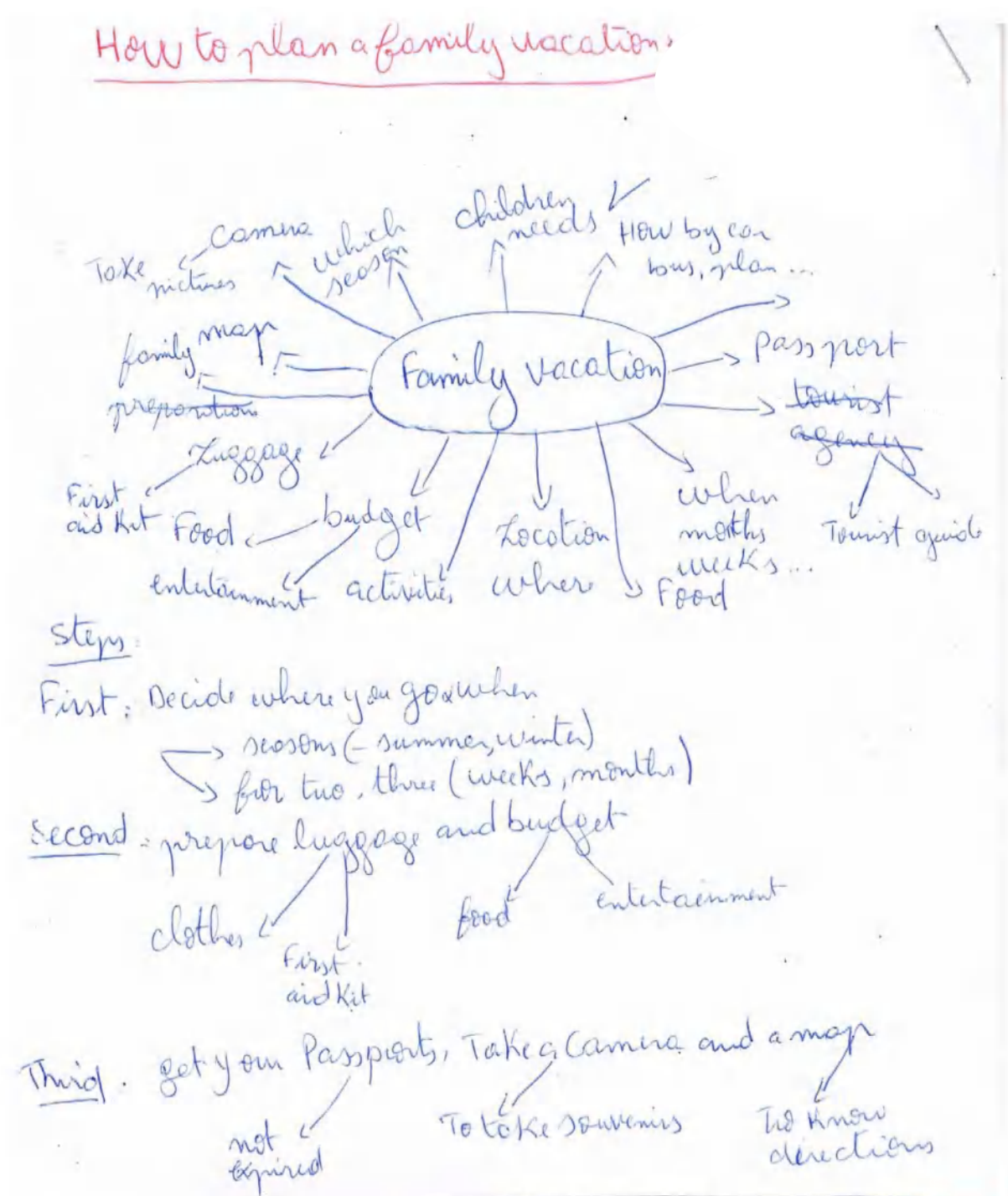
Planing:

topic: My first trip abroad was very exciting:

⇓

Brain storming:

discovering new places:
- visit monuments's space (museum) temples...)
- shopping in Big market and Moles.
- seeing new landscapes
- visit new city
- staying in some hotels.

discovering new culture:
- take new stories
- new knowledge
- seeing new customs
- new language.
- new foods

Big happiness:
- a new adventure
- entertainment
- spending amazing time.
- Siging and lot of laugh.
- exciting times with our famillies

traveling:
- plane
- Beauty of the landscaps from the plane.
- tiredness owing to the road
- sleeping in the plane

the out line:

T.S: Before a year; my trip abroad to the Europ was very exciting.

S.S: a. traveling:
- riding a plane
- seeing a Beautiful landscapes from the plane
- sleeping in the plane
- tiredness owing to the road.

b. Big happiness:
- spending amazing time
- new adventure
- siging and lot of laugh
- exciting time with our famillies

c. discovering new places

d. discovering new culture.

C.S: My first trip was unforgettable trip in my life.

October 3rd, 2018

Group : Gr01

The outlines :

1) The first trip :

Topic sentence :

I've travelled to many countries, but my first one to Paris was very special and exciting

Supporting sentence :

- I remember it was in December 2014, I was 15 when my father suprised us with a trip to Paris.

- After a month, we went to the airport and I was extremely exciting because it was the 1st time that I set in plan.

- By reaching there, we went to the hotel and put out baggage then we start visiting every single famous place in Paris

- Finally, we arrived to Eifl tower at midnight, and it was an amazing true; the lights in the dark with the beans of the smoot falling in from of it, and this is how we spent our time their.

Concluding sentence :

The trip to Paris is one of my unforgetable experiences in my life

Events from the Algerian history :

1f After my sister spends two hours get out her room looks's as if it had been hit 8.5 earthquake.

Brainstorm:

Stands of hair on the floor makeup palate.
scattered
hairdresser
The drawers are opent
The bed is messy
The wardrobe was was open
The smells of perfumes
messy → clothes everywhere
My sister's room
chaotic
nail polish was on the is spilled on the bed cover
dirty clothes floor
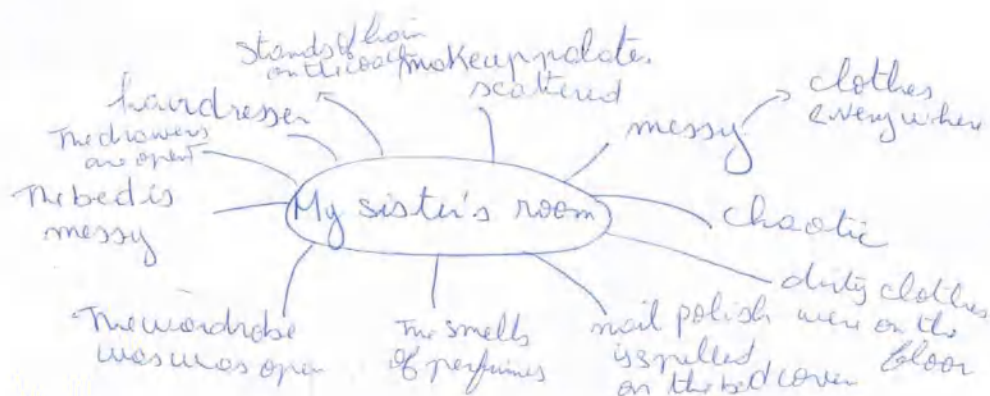
Outline:

T.S.
I've never seen such a messy as my sister's after two hours of getting ready to go out. room

Supporting Sentences:
- As you enter the room, a strong smell of different perfumes enter into your nose
- The first thing you will notice is a pile of heel shoes scattered behind the door
- In your left, you can see her clothes strewn all over the floor
- As you walk through the room, you could easily stamble by these little pearls of jewellery
- In the opposite side, her chaotic bed is completely covered by dresses, hair combs and nail polish.
- Against the bed, the mirror is stained with makeup.
- In front, the wardrobe is wide open; no clothes in it
- Under the bed, you can see the wire of the hairdresser is twisted with necklaces
- Near the bed, ruined makeup pallets on the small table.
- In the right side, the curtains were dirty spotted by lipstick and had print of lendation

After planning and outlining, the students engage in writing and revising their drafts

with continuous reference to their outlines. The students and the teacher combined their efforts

and prepared a checklist (See Appendix 8) inspired by Oshima's (2008) to guide them while revising their written paragraphs. Worth to mention that the teacher provides the necessary scaffolding to ensure success of the SBI. As such, she assists the students at all levels and provides help whenever needed. The teacher's assistance and guide are very heavy at the beginning, then, reduced throughout time.

After the treatment period was over, the sample individuals sat for a post-test, which consisted of writing a paragraph on the following prompt:

Write only **ONE** paragraph about one of the following topics:

- The best way to build a successful relationship with someone is to know about yourself.
- How to prepare for an earthquake
- A memorable experience

Again, the paragraphs of both groups were assessed by the same teachers using the same rubric designed by the researcher and used to correct the pre-test to have more consistency in the results. (See Appendix 6).

5.3.9. Testing the Experiment

As it has been clarified before, research, involving an experimental design, consists of manipulating an independent variable and observing the effect of such a manipulation on a dependent one by measuring the participants' responses, collected most of the time by means of a test that results primarily in numerical data that can be analysed using statistical methods. As such, the test plays a crucial role in the experimental design as it concretises the experiment outcomes and helps interpreting the results and drawing conclusions.

To collect data about the success of the experiment and the students' improvement, the researcher relied on a formative test to indicate whether those who received the treatment had met the pre-determined objectives and measure their strengths and weaknesses. Valette explains that "the classroom test should contribute to the learning process by enabling the students to demonstrate their acquisition of skill rather than impede it either by frightening them or by presenting them with test items that do not accurately reflect the course objectives." (Valette, 1977, p.35)

According to Brown (2004), there are three main approaches to scoring writing performance namely holistic, primary trait, and analytic scoring. The analytic scoring is adopted by the researcher to score both the pre and post-tests, for its numerous advantages. Brown explains that "classroom evaluation of learning is best served through analytical scoring, in which as many as six major elements of writing are scored, thus enabling learners to home in on weaknesses and to capitalize on strengths" (Brown, 2004, p.243). Therefore, the researcher designed a rubric of seven writing traits to evaluate the students' achievement in each of the writing dimensions. The paragraphs of both groups were assessed on the basis of the analytical scoring assessment using a rubric designed by the researcher and inspired from Myskow's, 2011. (See Appendix. 5)

5.4.The Interview

The third data gathering tool in the present research is the interview. The latter is used to gather qualitative data and answer the two last research questions**.**

5.4.1. Research Questions and Purpose of the Qualitative Investigation

The empirical study was followed by a follow-up qualitative study to get an in-depth understanding of metacognitive strategies used by EFL learners to enhance their writing quality. The post-treatment period was a convenient time to implement an interview to have better

insights into the internal system of the learners to discover how they approach the writing task. Consequently, the informants were encouraged to think aloud and verbalise their experiences in a way to report in detail each decision they made use of either in the creation phase or the organisation one. Moreover, they were encouraged to report the gains they have from the SBI course. In this particular case, interviews are the most suitable research tool as they allow extensive detailed data collected from a few specific people (Anderson, 1998). Diversifying tools of data collection in this research work permitted the investigation of different levels of research on the one hand. On the other hand, it helped to gain certainty about research findings and leave no room to doubt.

5.4.2. Research Setting

The present qualitative research took place shortly after the treatment was administered. The results of the post-test of both scorers were a valid source to build assumptions upon. The most prominent of which gave concrete credit to the effectiveness of embedding metacognitive strategies to the already existing course content and explicitly exposing first-year EFL students to strategies-based instruction. This content-based approach has shown effective results validated by the post-test results.

Through the overall improvement of the experimental group, the learners exhibited different levels and degrees of success with the strategies used. Accordingly, an urgent need is to investigate how the best achievers proceeded with the planning and outlining strategies that enabled them to reach that level of writing proficiency and benefit less proficient achievers from their peers' experience. Consequently, a sample from the experimental group was selected to be interviewed and encouraged to think aloud and report their experience and argue for the decisions they made.

5.4.3.   Research Sampling

Results of the post-test compared to those of the pre-test in the experimental group were the criterion upon which the selection of the participants to the interview was made. Three of the best achievers in the post-test who did not exhibit any writing proficiency in the pre-test were selected by the researcher. They are key informants, as each one of them is "a respondent who has particular experience or knowledge about the subject being discussed" (Anderson, 1998, p. 191). Some other participants who showed better achievement were excluded from the sample simply because when their post-test's achievements were compared to their previous ones in the pre-test, the difference was not too significant, as they were already good. The participants were selected on the basis of the improvement they made in the post-test as far as the quality of their writing is concerned.

5.4.4.   Description of the Students' Interview

The data collection instrument in this phase is a key-informant semi-structured interview. Anderson explains that the researcher uses a key informant interview when he "wants to probe the views of a small number of elite individuals" (Anderson, 1998, p. 191). Accordingly, outliers in the post-test have to share their experience via a semi-structured interview by responding to open-ended question prompts, which raise issues and topics about the treatment phase, rather than closed ended questions, which require confirmation or refutation. The present interview is structured around four main sections each of which contains four open-ended questions, which elicit learners to think aloud and report the cognitive decisions they were taking at each level of the planning phase to know how expert learners monitor their learning. The objective behind this is to benefit less able learners from best achievers' experience and generalize the research findings to a larger population. It would not be too ambitious to think of integrating the findings in future research.

5.4.4.1. Section One

Section one addresses the learners' experience in terms of learning strategies, in general and planning strategies, in particular. Through this first part, the researcher intended first to explore the students' background in terms of higher order skills and to check their prior readiness to instruction. Second, the researcher sought for congruence, if any between teachers' affirmations collected through the questionnaire data gathering tool about the subject matter and the students' declarations about what they experienced as active participants in the SBI course and their previous and actual perception of the writing situation, in general.

5.4.4.2. Section Two

Section two, evaluation of the treatment phase, provides space for the interviewees to answer four open-ended questions from question five to question eight. Interviews are invited to evaluate the treatment phase and report on the benefits of explicit strategies and training instruction. They are also encouraged to describe this new experience and report the challenges they encountered as well as their preferences in terms of the newly learned strategies

5.4.4.3. Section Three

Section three, verbalizing personal experiences, represents the main core of the present interview in that it requires interviewees to think aloud and report in verbal expressions the mental process and the cognitive decisions they made use during the pre-writing phase; how they plan and how do they outline, and the importance of the outline to revise the final draft.

5.4.4.4. Section Four

Section four, evaluation and recommendations of the learners, tackles strengths and weaknesses of the strategies-training programme. The students were asked to give a feedback and report their attitudes and perception about this experience (SBI course content). Besides,

interviewees were invited to provide their propositions and recommendations to both written expression teachers and students to benefit from such workshops.

Conclusion

Even though the process of data collection tends to be complicated, it is also one of the interesting parts of this thesis. The researcher adopted the triangulation strategy in mixed methods research. As such, data collected from the quantitative research paradigm was triangulated with that elicited from a qualitative research paradigm to enhance the validity and the credibility of the research findings and answer the research questions. This chapter provided a detailed description of the research design, participants, and data gathering instruments.

Testing the effectiveness of SBI in the pre-writing strategies started with a preliminary questionnaire to have an overview of teachers' perceptions and attitudes about teaching the writing skill at the ENSC and the place the planning strategies occupy in the first-year syllabus. Besides to the questionnaire, two groups of first-year students at the ENSC were randomly selected to participate in an experimental design, which lasted nine weeks. The total number of participants in the research was 40 students disposed in a control group and a treatment one. The latter received a metacognitive training implemented in teaching and training students to use four pre-writing strategies, namely brainstorming, mind mapping, listing, and free-writing. The instruction was integrated into the course content and explicitly embedded within the writing class materials to provide for a contextualised strategy training. Both groups were tested before and after the intervention on three writing traits: Unity and Idea Development, Topic Sentence, and Paragraph Organization. The pre and post-test of each group were corrected by two experienced teachers to ensure the tests' reliability. Shortly after the post-test's administration, three key informants were selected from the experimental group on the basis of

their statistically significant improvement in the post-test to take part in a semi-structured

interview to answer the last two research questions and validate the research findings.

Chapter Six

Analysis of the Quantitative Data

Chapter Six

Analysis of the Quantitative Data

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Analysis of the Quantitative Data

Introduction

This chapter displays results and analysis of results of quantitative data obtained through two different research tools and from two different sample groups. The research tools in question are a questionnaire and an experiment. The former, used to cover the exploration phase of the research, is answered by teachers of writing at the department of English at the ENSC.

The second data gathering tool is an experiment designed and carried out at the same pedagogical institution. It consists of the treatment preceded and followed by a pre and post-test. The same tests were taken by the intervention group and the control group. This one did not receive the treatment but served as a base-line to compare the obtained results mainly from the post test and acknowledge success/ failure of the treatment. The latter uncovers the effectiveness of SBI in pre-writing strategies on first-year students' writing proficiency.

Analysis of results followed by discussion of the findings are concrete as well as reliable source to draw conclusions. The latter would be a valuable resource to answer the research questions and test the research hypotheses.

6.1.Section One: Analysis of the Preliminary Questionnaire' Results

Before conducting the questionnaire with the targeted population, the researcher piloted it first on a small-scale population to check its validity

6.1.1. The Pilot Study

In social research, the term 'pilot studies' refers to specific mini versions of a full-scale study of a particular research instrument such as a questionnaire or interview schedule. Polit et al. explain that a pilot study can refer to so-called feasibility studies which are "small scale

versions, or trial runs, done in preparation for the major study" (Polit et al., 2001, p. 467). However, Baker clarified that a pilot study can also be the pre-testing or 'trying out' of a particular research instrument. (Baker, 199)

6.1.1.1. Objectives of the Pilot Study

Conducting a pilot study has numerous advantages; the most prominent of which is detecting weak areas of the research tool being implemented. In other words, a pilot study might reveal in advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, to what extent do the proposed methods or instruments fit the research design and whether they are inappropriate to answer the research questions that guide the research project. In this respect, De Vaus (1993, p. 54) says: "Do not take the risk. Pilot tests first."

6.1.1.2. Population of the Pilot Study

Before implementing the questionnaire, the researcher conducted first a pilot study. It was held at the Department of English at the teacher training school of Constantine during the first semester of the academic year 2017-2018**.** The questionnaire was piloted with five of the most experienced teachers at the ENC. This number is representative, as it represents more than the fifth of the whole sample who will respond to the main questionnaire, estimated to fifteen teachers. Besides to the sample size, years of experience and teachers' expertise in teaching the writing course content is a very important variable that would be of a great help to the researcher in shaping the final version of the questionnaire.

6.1.1.3. Implementation of the Pilot Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire was handed to teachers of writing from the department of English at the ENSC to be responded to. Their different responses and valuable feedback helped the researcher to detect weak areas and avoid potential failure. Thus, the questionnaire was

rewritten in a way to suit the research design and to answer the research questions. Then, respondents to the pilot questionnaire together with ten off their colleagues answered a final version of the questionnaire in a Google Forms format.

6.1.1.4. Detecting the Pilot Study Obstacles

The questionnaire initially contained twenty-five question items, which varied between open-ended and close-ended questions. It was piloted on five teachers of writing in the department of English at the ENSC to check its validity. The results of the analysis revealed that five questions should be omitted, for they do no compile with the purpose of the study. However, a sixth one should be amended to be appropriately answered by the target population.

1. Have you already been introduced To SBI models?

   Yes   ☐

   - No   ☐

   If your answer is yes, please name some of these models

   …………………………………………………………….

2. Have you already been introduced to the CALLA instructional model?

   Yes   ☐

   - No   ☐

3. Is it beneficial to use it in writing classes?

   Yes   ☐

   No   ☐

   I have no idea   ☐

4. Do you evaluate your students' plans?

- Yes   ☐

- No   ☐

5. Do you use rubrics

Yes   ☐

No   ☐

6. Would exposing students to explicit strategy instruction in planning and revising be

beneficial to them?

-Yes   ☐

- No   ☐

I have no idea   ☐

Table 5

Omitted Questions from the Main Questionnaire

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5
Yes					
No	5	5		5	5
I don't know			5		
Total Number	5	5	5	5	5
Percentage	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

The five questions displayed in the above table were omitted from the final

version, whereas the sixth one was amended to the following form:

Would exposing students to explicit strategy instruction in pre-writing strategies be beneficial to them?

6.1.1.5. Implications for the Main Study

Based on the outcomes and difficulties faced in the pilot study, the following decisions were taken to refine the final version of the questionnaire.

✓ **Length of the Questionnaire**

The questionnaire is too long and requires much time and energy to be answered. As such some questions with overlapping objectives should be fused. Besides the length constraints, some questions are stretched to cover other metacognitive strategies like revising, which is not the subject matter of the present study.

✓ **Improving the Open-ended Question prompts**

Some questions should be followed by open-ended follow-up questions to give the floor to the respondents to express themselves and provide answers, which did not appear in the list of choices.

6.1.2. Analysis of the Main Questionnaire's Results

The first section of the sixth chapter deals with reporting, analysing, and interpreting data elicited from the ENSC writing teachers who responded to the preliminary questionnaire.

I.   Background Information

Section one of the questionnaire includes factual data about respondents of the questionnaire**.**

1. What academic qualifications do you hold?

The teacher respondents to the present questionnaire are full-time teachers at ENSC. Fifty-three (53, 3) respondents hold a magister degree, and 26, 7% are PHD holders (doctorate). The remaining 20%, are senior lecturers.

Respondents to the questionnaire hold different degrees, which means that they have different theoretical backgrounds about diverse issues, so they probably would exhibit different attitudes and perceptions about the topic at hand.

Figure 19

Respondents' Academic Qualifications
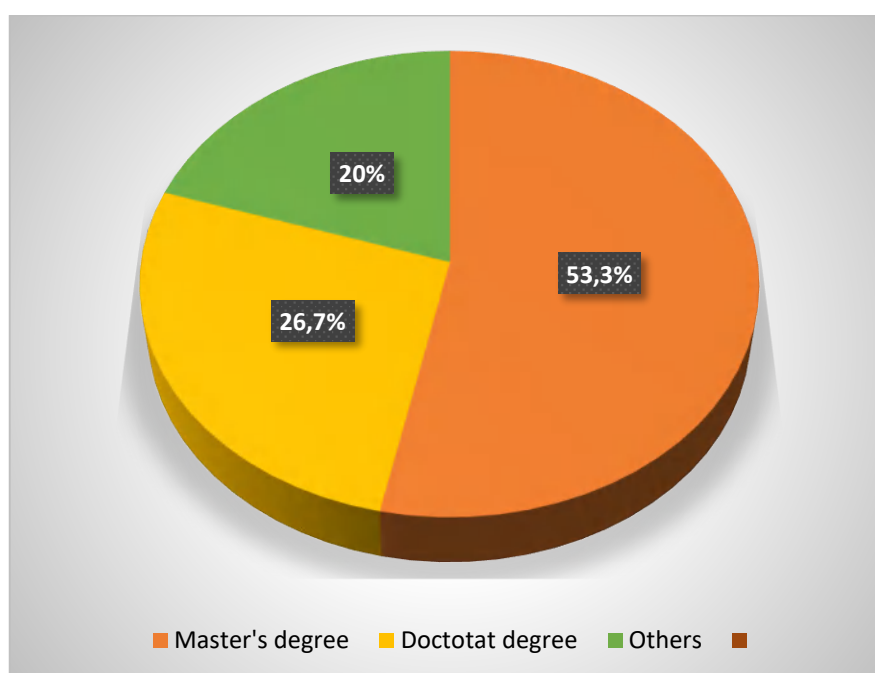
1.   How long have you been teaching at university?

Respondents to the questionnaire provided a variety of answers about their years of teaching experience at the university level. The most experienced teacher representing (6,66%) of the respondents to the questionnaire said to have been teaching for 21 years ago, and two others (13,3%) acknowledged 20 years of teaching experience. In comparison, the most novice

one (6, 66%) affirmed having taught for five years. Four respondents (26, 6%) reported fourteen years of teaching experience, while three others said they have taught for 12 years at the university level, which corresponds to (20%). The other teacher respondents varied between eleven, ten, nine, and eight years of teaching experience; against (6,66%) each category.

This indicates that the majority of the teachers at the ENSC are young teachers who have joined higher education teaching recently. In other words, they are still young and willing to learn and teach using the most recent approaches and methods.

Table 6

Years of Teaching Experience at the University Level

Years of teaching experience	21	20	14	12	11	10	9	8	5	Total
Number of teachers	1	2	4	3	1	1	1	1	1	15
Percentage	6,66%	13,3%	26,66%	20%	6,66%	6,66%	6,66%	6,66%	6,66%	100%

3. How long did you teach/ have you taught writing to first-year students?

The teachers have taught this module for several years, from 1 to 14 years. Two respondents representing 13, 33% reported having 14 years of teaching experience. Two other respondents (13, 33%) have ten years of experience teaching writing to first-year students. Only one teacher (6, 66%) reported having eight years of experience teaching writing to first-year students. Two informants representing 13, 33% have taught writing to first-year students for four years, while three others representing 20% reported three years of experience teaching the course in question to first-year students. The same number of teachers with the same percentage

level have taught the first-year writing course for two years. Finally, the two most novice teachers (13, 33%) at the ENSC course at hand taught it for a single academic year.

The diversity of answers would help the researcher to obtain different views about how novice and experienced teachers approach the teaching task and how it is dealt with in the foreign classroom contexts.

Figure 20

Teaching Experience with First-year Written Expression Course
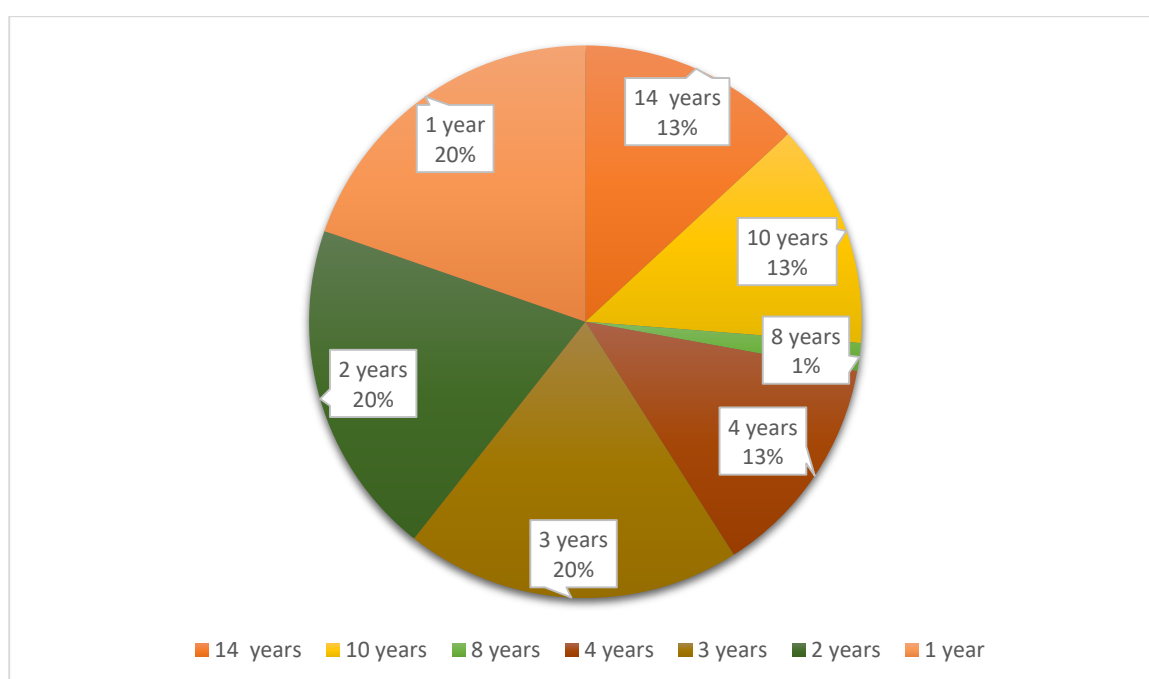
II.   **Teachers' Perceptions of ENSC Students' Level of Proficiency in Writing**

4. **Out of your experience as a teacher, a supervisor, and an examiner at the ENSC school, how do you rate the writing proficiency of most student?**

Figure 21

The Writing Proficiency Level of the Majority of ENSC Students
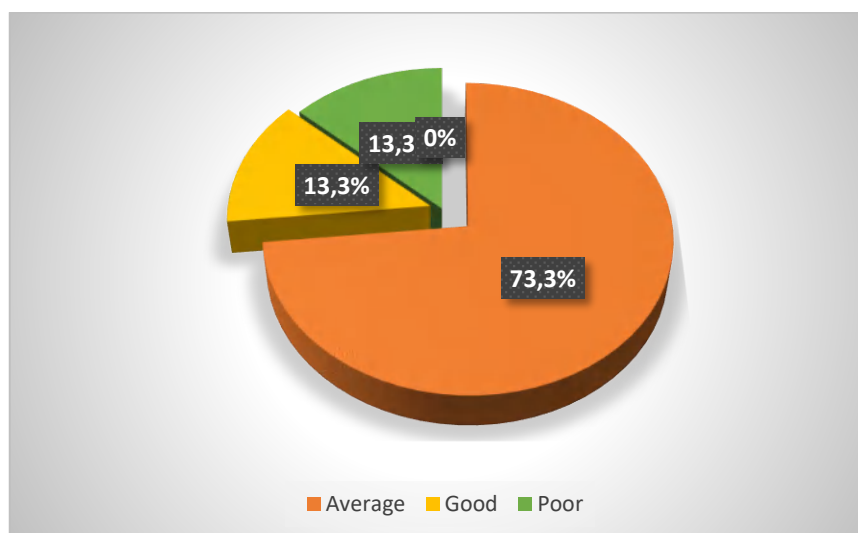
When asked to report about the ENSC majority of the students' overall level in writing proficiency, 11 teachers representing 73, 3% of the respondents, reported average, and 2 representing 13, 3%, said the level of proficiency is relatively poor; however, the two remaining ones who represent 13, 3% of the overall population are satisfied with the students' level of proficiency qualifying it good.

5. **In case your answer is average, poor, very poor. What is this due to?**

(In case you choose more than one option, rate the options from 1 to 4)

a. The inadequate teaching approach/ method

b. Teachers' personality and teaching style that does not match learners' expectations

c. Students' lack of motivation and interest in writing as a subject matter

d. Inadequate Syllabus

e.   Other, please, specify: ……

Figure 22

Causes of the Students' Low Level of Writing
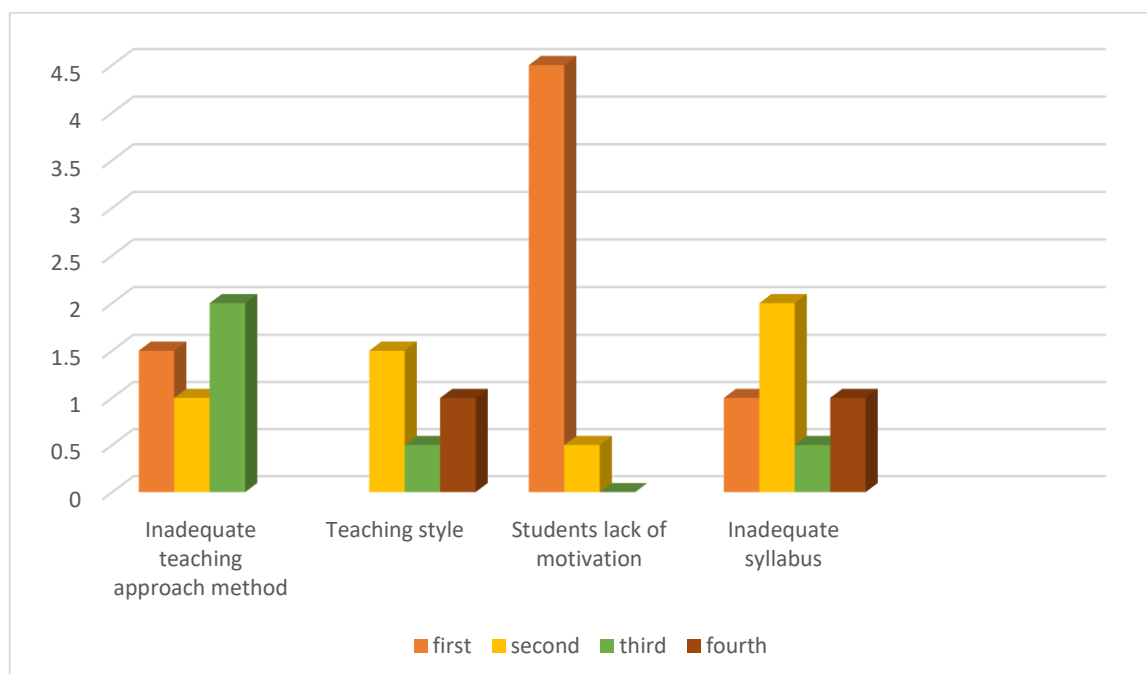
.Most respondents (11), representing 73, 33%, view that this unsatisfactory state of play is caused mainly by students' lack of motivation and interest in the writing task. Inadequate teaching methods and approaches together with the inadequate syllabus occupy the second place but with less emphasis in comparison with the first element of choice. Both present an equivalent response rate (2), representing 13, 33% for each element. In contrast, teachers are set free from the pedagogical burden.

Though motivation is an important element in the teaching/ learning situation, it cannot be at least the leading cause to this level of writing proficiency. This may reflect teachers' lack of experience teaching that course content, as 73% of the respondents have less than 5 years of teaching experience (Q.3).

6. Out of your experience as a teacher of writing, when your students write, they find more difficulties at the level of:

a. Style and ideas.

b. Syntax and sentence structure

c. Both

Figure 23

Students' Difficulties While Composing
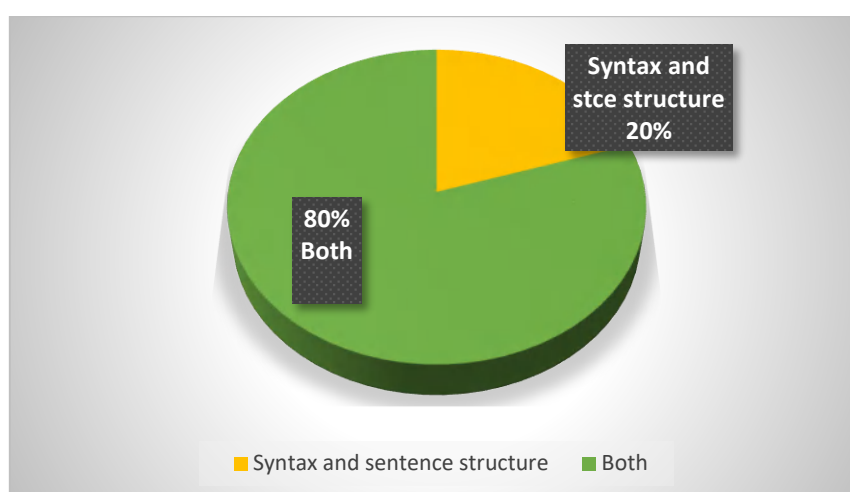
As most teachers are unpleasant with students' achievements concerning written tasks, 12 of them representing 80% reported that students find difficulties at the level of both style and ideas, syntax and sentence structure. Three teachers representing 20% responded to notice that students find more difficulties at the level of syntax and sentence structure.

This rate shows that both students and teachers at the ENSC are facing a critical pedagogical situation that needs to be inquired into to find out the causes in order to set a plan of action for remediation. One of the reasons could be the implementation of inadequate writing strategies to increase students' engagement and improve their writing proficiency.

III. Teaching Writing Using the Process Approach

7. Which approach do you adopt to teach writing in your EFL writing class?

a. Product approach   □

b. Process approach   □

c. Process-product approach   □

      Others,…………………………………………………….

Figure 24

Teaching Approaches Adopted by ENSC Teachers of Writing
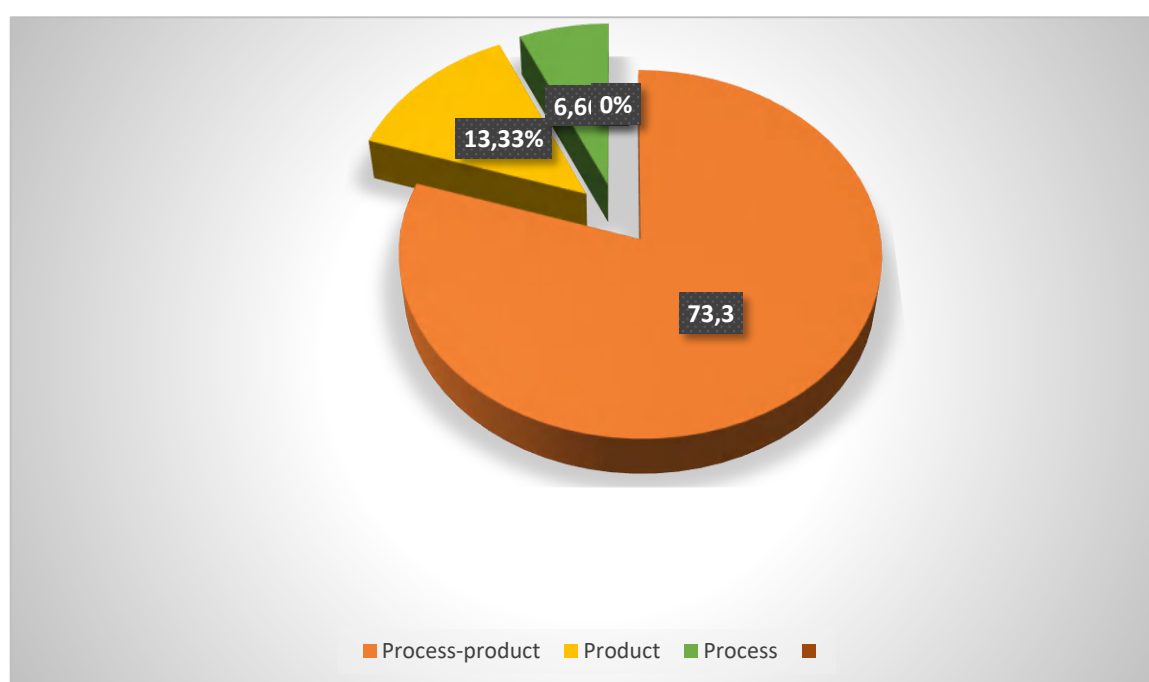
     Seventy-three percent of the informants reported using the process-product approach and 20%, reported using the product approach; while 6, 66%, refrained from answering this question.

     This reveals a high awareness ENSC teachers exhibit about the most prominent approaches/methods in the present era. Furthermore, by implementing the process-product

approach, teachers are expected to focus on the different stages of writing students go through and the final product, which has to match the conventional rules of grammar and spelling correctness and organizational patterns.

8. **Do you make your students go through the different stages of the process approach?**

a. Yes   □

b. No   □

Figure 25

Students' Engagement in the Process Approach to Writing
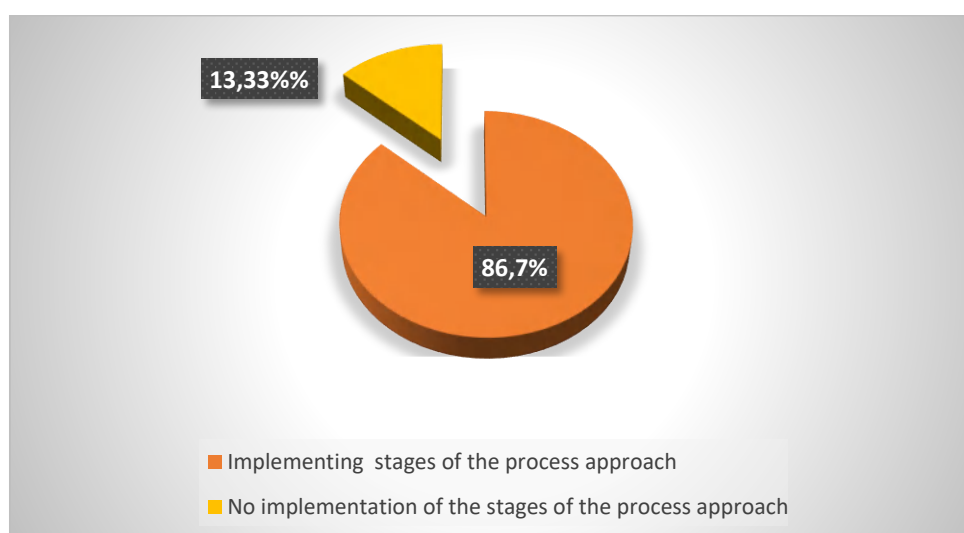
The majority of the respondents (86, 7%) stated that they make their students go through the different stages of the process approach. In comparison, the two remaining ones (13, 33%) had previously informed that they use the product approach, which focuses on the form rather than the cognitive stages students go through to achieve a writing task. This answer does not at all reflect the situation as the level of writing is not good.

9. **In your opinion, are all the stages equally important?**
a. Yes   □
b. No   □

Eight informants representing 53, 33% of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire conceived that all stages of the process approach are equivalently important, whereas six respondents corresponding to 40%, believe they are not; the remaining portion (6, 66%) abstained from answering this question.

The multiplicity of answers concerning this question is a backup to the claim that there is neither a consensus nor a clear vision about how to teach the first-year writing course at the ENSC. (p.135). Some teachers do not use at all the process approach to writing and those who make use of it do not perceive its stages in the same manner, which means that they teach writing in different ways.

Figure 26

Importance of the Writing Stages
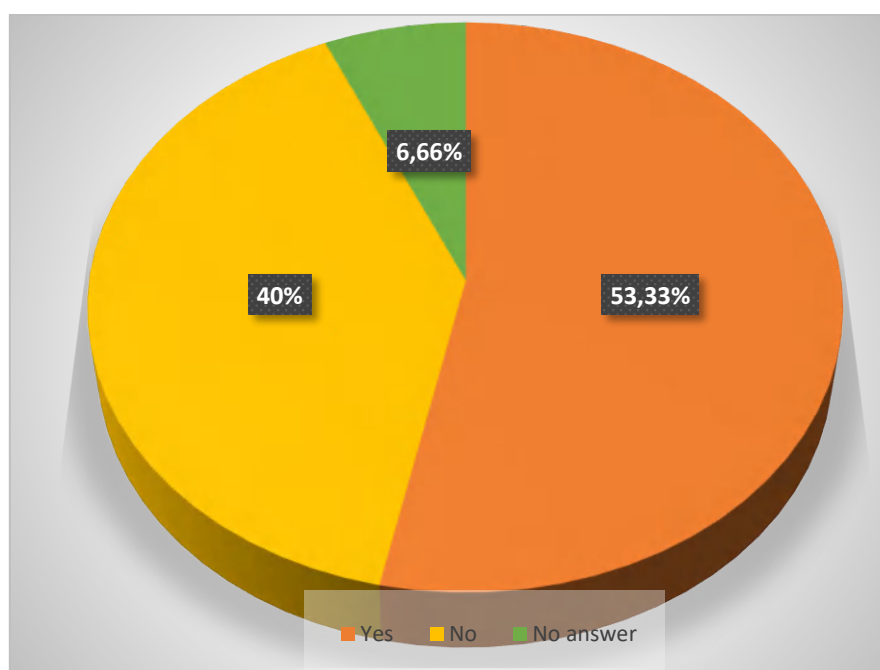
10. Order the following writing stages according to their importance, from the most to the least important

1= most important,…….4= least important

a. Planning   ………….

b. Drafting   ………….

c. Revising   …………..

d. Editing   ………….

Figure 27

Writing Stages Order of Importance
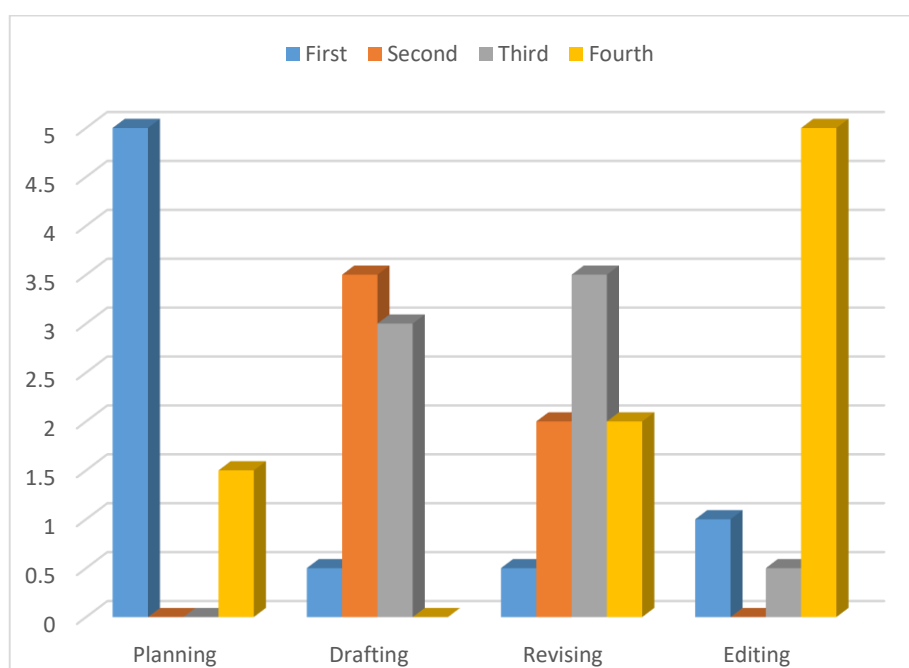
When the teachers were asked to rate the writing stages, namely planning, drafting, revising, and editing, according to their importance, the lion's share was granted to planning; this response shows that the teachers do perceive the importance of this meta-cognitive pre-writing stage and its direct relationship with students' written performance. Respondents award editing second place, which argues in favour of the process-product approach they

implement in their foreign writing classes though editing is about local revision like grammar and mechanics and not about content and ideas. Being given the third place, revising stage seems to be neglected as a metacognitive strategy reflecting the extent to which students can monitor their learning. Drafting, on the other hand, is the least important to ENSC teachers.

11. **Have your students been introduced to the planning strategies during their previous instruction?**

Figure 28

Students' Previous Instruction in Pre-writing Strategies
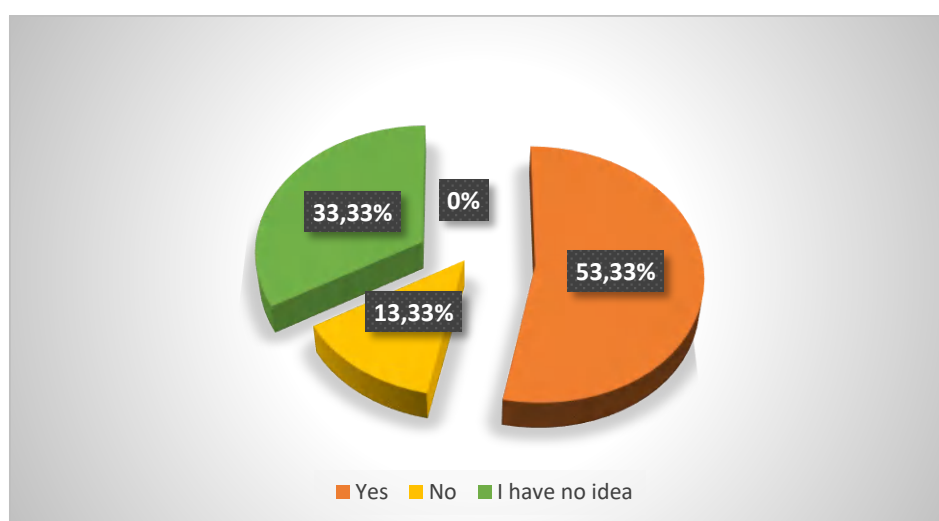
Eight informants representing 53, 33% of the sample declared that students have been previously instructed in using pre-writing strategies. Five teachers corresponding to 33, 33%, said quite the opposite, whereas the two remaining respondents (13, 33%) expressed their ignorance about the subject matter. As half of the respondents affirmed that students were already instructed in pre-writing strategies, this might imply that they took for granted that they already master them and need no further instruction.

IV.   Training Students to Use the Pre-writing Strategies.

12. **As a writing teacher, how do you evaluate the importance of pre-writing strategies?**

a. Extremely important   ☐

b. Important   ☐

c. Moderately/ of average importance   ☐

d. Slightly important / of little importance   ☐

e. e .   Not important at all

Table 7

The Importance of the Pre-writing Strategies

	Extremely important	Important	Moderately/ of average importance	Slightly/ of little importance	Not important at all
N	6	6	3	00	00
%	40%	40%	20%	00%	00%

Respondents agreed to various degrees on the importance of the pre-writing strategies; six respondents (40%) informed that planning strategies are extremely important on equal footing with their colleagues who found them important. However, three informants matching 20%, reported that they are moderately important.

The diversity of answers argues for the absence of clear vision on how writing should be dealt with. Respondents, previously acknowledged to be certified with high academic qualifications, many years of teaching experience and enough expertise, do not perceive the

paramount importance the planning stage occupies within the framework of the process approach to write.

13. Does the writing syllabus include mentions of these strategies?

a.   Yes   □
b.   No   □

    First-year writing syllabus does not mention the pre-writing strategies according to a large portion of respondents, (60%) on the one hand. On the other hand, (40%) acknowledged mentions of explicit pre-writing instruction in the writing course.

    The teachers' non congruence about the perception of the teaching approaches and importance of the process phases namely the planning one is extended to their use of different syllabuses, a one which contains planning strategies and another one which does not.

Figure 29

Pre-writing Strategies in the First-year Syllabus of Writing
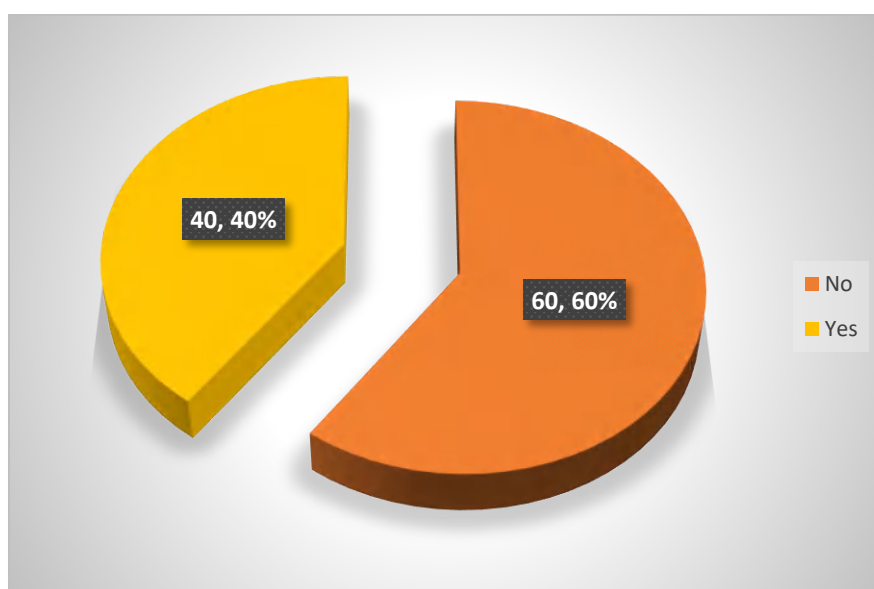
First-year writing syllabus does not mention the pre-writing strategies according to a large portion of the respondents, (60%) on the one hand. On the other hand, six informants (40%) acknowledged mentions of explicit pre-writing instruction in the writing course.

Teachers' non congruence about the perception of the teaching approaches and importance of the process phases namely the planning one is extended to their use of different syllabuses, one which contains planning strategies and another one which does not.

14. If the writing syllabus does not include these strategies in detail, do you teach a theoretical background about planning strategies as a personal initiative?

a. Yes   □

b. No   □

Sixty percent of the respondents said they teach planning strategies as a personal initiative; 26, 66%, stated the opposite; against 13, 33% who abstained from answering this question because they previously acknowledged adopting the product approach to writing. So, they do not teach the different phases of the process approach. Thus, they neglect the cognitive strategies writers use before and during writing.

Figure 30

Teaching Pre-writing Strategies as a Personal Initiative
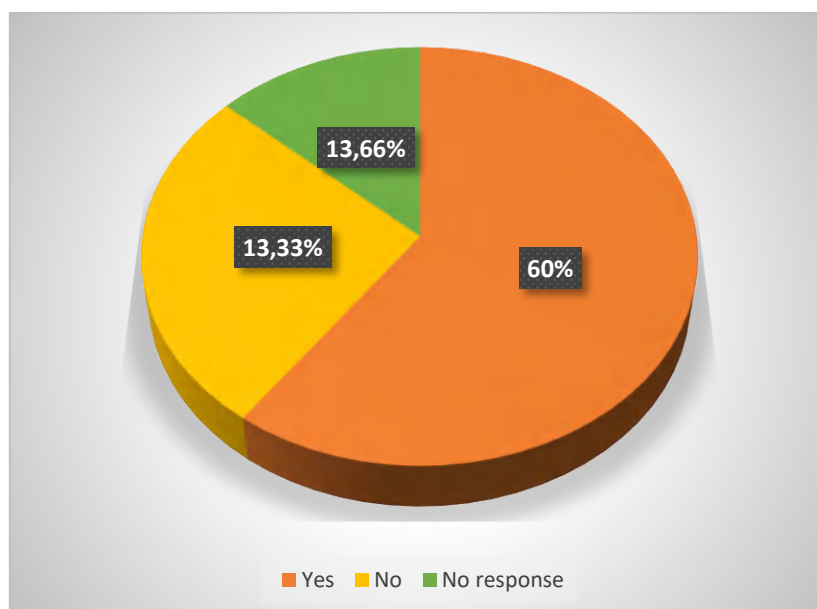
15. If you answer yes, name some strategies you teach your students.

The respondents provided a rich list of strategies they teach before tackling the first draft; *brainstorming, clustering, free-writing, reading, interviewing, fast-writing, mapping, mapping, listing, journalist questions, flaw-charting, mind mapping, fast-writing, diagrams speculating and outlining*.

16. In your opinion, should the planning strategies appear in the official syllabus in a detailed form?

a. Yes ☐

b. No ☐

Figure 31

Teachers' Expectations about the Planning Strategies in the Syllabus
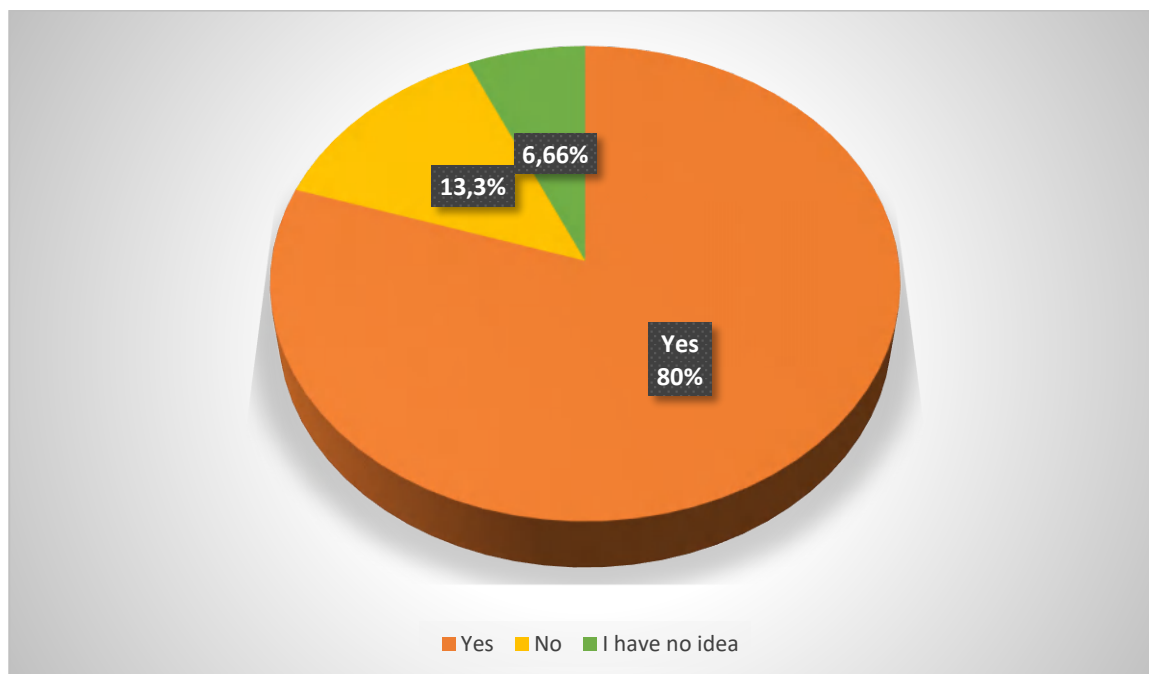
Emphasizing their significant importance, 80% of the informants believe that planning strategies must be part of the first-year writing syllabus to be dealt with in all the writing classes. However, (13, 33%) did not share the same opinion voicing their direct opposition to integrating the planning strategies into the writing syllabus. The remaining respondent matching 6, 66% of the overall percentage, was neither for nor against the already stated proposition and preferred to avoid answering this question.

17. **Do you believe training students to use pre-writing strategies is to be integrated into the everyday class material and embedded into language tasks implicitly and explicitly?**

a. Yes   □

b. No   □

c. I have no idea

Figure 32

Teachers' Perception of Integrating Pre-writing Strategies into Everyday Class Material
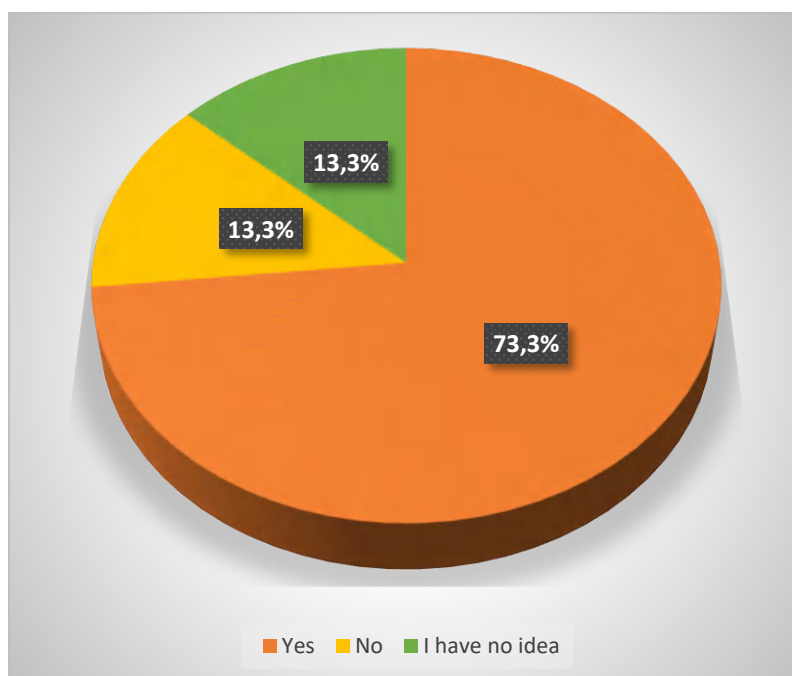
The large majority of the respondents (73, 3%) believe that training students to use the pre-writing strategies should be integrated into the everyday class material and explicitly embedded into the writing tasks. However, two respondents are against the integration of strategy training in the everyday class material. Two other respondents apparently using the product approach have no idea about the whole matter.

This is encouraging, because whatever their previous answers, teachers are in favour of integrating strategy instruction in the course instruction to better their students writing skills.

18. Have you ever conducted strategy training in your EFL class?

Yes

No

Figure 33

Teachers' Experience with Strategy-based Instruction
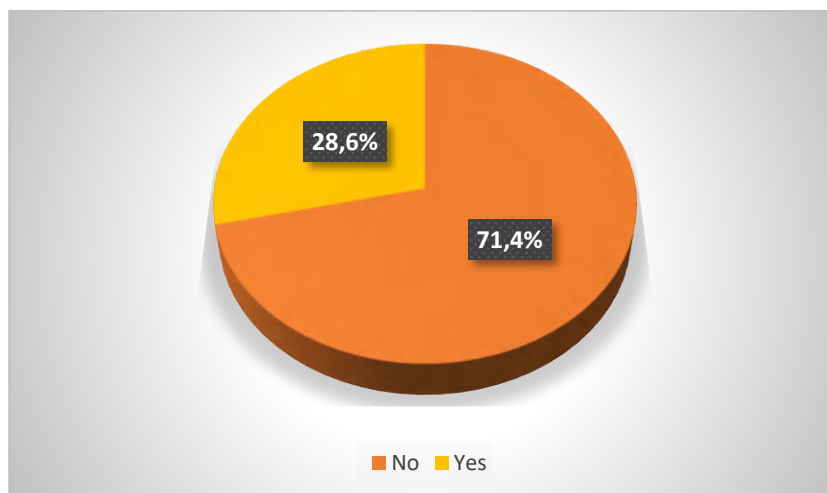
It seems that the teachers' responses are purely theoretical claims since they were reporting their speculations about the subject matter; however, this survey level represents a move from theory to a more practical classroom application.

Most respondents (71, 4%) argued that they never organized a strategy training workshop in their classes and the remaining portion (28, 6%) declared the opposite. In the previous question, they voiced their positive position about integrating SBI in the daily class material. But, their claims remain theoretical, as they never took a step forward to make it real.

19. Do you have any further feedback to add?

Most participants in this research project favoured organising strategy-based instruction in pre-writing strategies to enhance student's writing proficiency. This is obvious first in their answers to the direct question about its implementation and second when they were given the opportunity in an open-ended question to add any feedback related to the research topic.

One of the respondents reported that she introduces a strategy, in general first then in writing. Afterwards, she makes the students use it each time in a given writing assignment without being sure whether it is classroom strategy training or not. Another respondent suggested encouraging students to verbalize their writing experience. When writing strategies are explicitly taught, learners should be allowed to provide feedback about their writing process by sharing (orally or via writing) their challenges/or positive outcomes when using new strategies. In parallel, a respondent shared his/her experience revealing that he noticed that students do not particularly enjoy these strategies, and some students even see them as a waste of time. So, pre-writing strategies training should be accompanied with equal efforts to communicate their importance to students. Finally, teachers must expose their students to a wide range of strategies from which they can choose what matches their learning style, gender, and the topic itself (Oxford, 2003).

6.1.3. Discussion of the Results

This survey analyses and interprets quantitative data about ENSC teachers' views and perceptions of the role of strategies-based instruction in the pre-writing strategies in enhancing students writing proficiency. Furthermore, it seeks to question teachers' attitudes about the impact of explicitly embedding the pre-writing strategies into the writing tasks to provide for a contextualised strategy teaching in developing first-year EFL students' writing skills and strategies. As such, the present questionnaire is implemented to answer two of the research questions, which orient the present research design.

• **Q1.** *How do teachers perceive the importance of the pre-writing strategies with regard to the writing activity?*

All teacher respondents to the present questionnaire are full-time teachers at ENSC. Some of them hold magister degree (MA), others are either doctors or senior lecturers. Besides

the academic qualifications, they are acquainted with considerable expertise in teaching at the university level ranging from 5 to 21 years of teaching experience. They have been teaching the writing course to first-year students for several years, from 1 year to 14 years. The diversity of answers helped the researcher to obtain different views about how novice and experienced teachers approach the teaching task and how it is dealt with in foreign classroom contexts.

Most respondents to the questionnaire (73, 33%) are not satisfied with their students' level of proficiency in the writing skill reporting that they find difficulties at the level of both style and ideas and syntax and sentence structure. Moreover, they believe that this unsatisfactory state of play is caused mainly by students' lack of motivation and interest in the writing task. This rate shows that both ENSC students and teachers are facing a critical pedagogical situation that needs to be inquired into to determine the causes to set a plan of action for remediation.

However, before planning for any remediation, it is necessary to expose first the teaching/ learning situation and inquire about the approaches to writing ENSC teacher adopt in their classes. The emergence of new trends in cognitive psychology that considers the cognitive and metacognitive nature of text writing provided a solid background to the process approach crediting the different stages it encompasses and their recursive and interactive nature. Hyland says: "Planning, drafting, revising, and editing do not occur in a linear sequence, but are recursive, interactive, and potentially simultaneous" (Hyland, 2003, 11). Accordingly, it is crucial to explore teachers' perceptions about approaches to teach writing.

Eighty percent of the informants reported to use the process-product approach. This reveals a high awareness ENSC teachers exhibit about the most prominent approaches/ methods in the present era. Furthermore, by implementing the process-product approach, teachers are supposed to focus on both the different stages of writing students go consciously through and also the final product, which has to match the conventional rules of grammar and

spelling correctness and organisational patterns. Furthermore, they stated that they make their students go through the different stages of the process approach.

However, the clear vision, the teachers exhibit about the process approach seems to become blurry, as 53, 3% of the respondents are conceived that all stages of the process approach are equivalently important. However, when they were asked to rate the writing stages, namely planning, drafting, revising, and editing according to their importance from the most to the least important, the lion's share was granted to planning. Paradoxically, they agreed to varying degrees on the importance of pre-writing strategies; as 40% said that pre-writing strategies are extremely important. However, 20% reported that they are moderately important. Prominent researchers in the field of teaching writing (Flowers and Hayes, 1981, Breiter and Scardamalia, 1987, Hyland, 2003) argues on the importance of planning stage and the role it plays to facilitate the subsequent phases. Flowers (1982) acknowledged that expert writers spend more time planning their writings than their novice peers. This allows us to say that the situation is alarming since half of the respondents, previously acknowledged to be qualified with high academic qualifications, many years of experience and enough expertise, are unaware of the paramount importance the planning stage and the place pre-writing strategies occupy within the framework of the process to write.

The situation becomes more worrisome when teachers do not agree on whether the syllabus mentions or not the pre-writing strategies, as if they are using two different syllabuses in the same institutions. Their disagreement extends to their perception about students' previous instruction. Fifty-three of the respondents assured that their students had already been introduced to the planning strategies during their previous instruction. This assertion opposes the difficulty to do and the resistance students express whenever they are asked to plan for writing tasks. One of the respondents argues:

Despite the importance of pre-writing strategies within the writing process, most students skip it and start drafting directly. Consequently, they frequently have difficulties getting started with their first draft, and their final drafts lack a logical flow of ideas and may include many contradictions.

Accordingly, this leads to think that students may have been introduced to planning as a writing strategy in other subjects, but they were not adequately taught and trained to use and master it.

As the first-year writing syllabus does not mention the pre-writing strategies, according to (60%) of the respondents, (69, 2%) states that they teach planning strategies as a personal initiative. They provide a rich list of strategies they teach before tackling the first draft, which includes: *brainstorming, clustering, free-writing, reading, interviewing, fast-writing, mapping, listing, journalist questions, flaw-charting, mind mapping, fast-writing, diagrams speculating and outlining*.

From what has been said so far, the teachers do not have a clear vision about the process approach and the crucial importance of the planning phase. Their claims about the use of the process-product approach and the implementation of the diverse planning strategies seem just to match the social standards. (Anderson, 1998)

- **Q2.** *To what extent would training students to use planning strategies improve their writing proficiency?*

Eighty percent of the respondents (80%) seem to be convinced of how important is to integrate planning strategies within the official syllabus to develop students' writing proficiency. Thus, it seems urgent to expose first-year ENSC students to strategies-based

instruction in the pre-writing strategies to remedy to their unsatisfactory writing proficiency level. However, since it is time-consuming and needs much awareness and effort from both sides, the teacher and the students on equal footing, it is difficult to implement it as a personal initiative. A respondent pointed to time constraints in the last follow-up question. He says:

> *... the time allotted does not allow the teacher to integrate these strategies, which are already time-consuming daily; thus, they should be integrated into the official syllabus dispatching the pre-writing strategy training throughout the yearly schedule.*

Another one argues that:

> *As it is an essential element that enhances learners writing proficiency, making it part of the syllabus will attract both teachers' and learners' attention to its importance and oblige them to use these strategies.*

Accordingly, any Strategies-based Instruction course has to be integrated within the official syllabus and embedded into the class materials to help students generate ideas, focus their thinking, improve their writing, and reduce writing problems. Oxford (1989) asserted that studies have confirmed that SBI is more effective when strategies are woven into class activities. In parallel, Cohen (2000) argued for embedding SBI into the regular course content to bring about academic success.

Most respondents (73, 3) agree with Oxford's claim though they acknowledged that they never implemented a strategies-based instruction in their classes. They further argued in the last open-ended question that these strategies help students organise their ideas and develop the topic of writing, clear reasoning, organize their thoughts and diagnose weaknesses before beginning the first draft. Another respondent pointed to the psychological aspect of

students who master the pre-writing strategies saying that they gain self-confidence when writing and thus overcome the fear of writing 'scriptophobia'. On the other hand, only one teacher said to engage her students in a strategies-based instruction in a given topic without being aware that what she did is a SBI.

Transferability is one of the most significant gains of SBI, according to the respondents of the questionnaire, who explained that it develops an awareness of generating the needed information via pre-writing strategies. Moreover, integrating pre-writing strategies as part of the teaching material would allow students to understand their importance and experiment with the varied strategies and choose which one fits their style and which one is the most appropriate for different writing tasks and assignments and facilitates for them the other phases of the process on the one hand. On the other hand, they will automatically transfer these strategies to some other tasks. In this respect, Oxford (1990) asserts that "learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations." (p. 8)

Besides transferability, transmission is another crucial element raised by respondents in favour of SBI in two dimensions; in the short term, that will improve the quality of students' writing and, in the long term, it will help them know the intricacies of writing a subject they will teach once they graduate.

To sum up, if aspiring to a better quality of writing, mastering the pre-writing strategies in the first year should be a priority of the first-year syllabus objectives with emphasis on explicit integration of strategies-based instruction in the teaching material.

Based on the questionnaire results, the researcher decided to set a plan of action as a personal initiative to remedy to the actual situation. The plan involves exposing first-year

students to nine weeks of strategies-based instruction in using the pre-writing strategies. Following is the analysis and interpretation of the experiment results.

6.2. Section Two: Analysis of the Experiment Results

After collecting quantitative data via a pre and post-test about the experimental design, the researcher had to analyse it using a set of mathematical procedures called statistics. The present section will analyse and interpret descriptive and inferential statistics from test results before and after the treatment phase. To this end, the researcher used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26 (See Appendix 11) to perform the appropriate procedures dictated mainly by research questions and the data collection type. The ultimate objective is to answer the third, fourth, fifth, and seventh research questions and to test the research hypotheses.

6.2.1. The Experimental Data Analysis Procedure

Interval data is the most precise data. To select the most suitable statistical technique for our data, it is necessary to use 'parametric procedures, which require data to be normally distributed. Dörnyei says that "interval data is the most precise type of statistical procedure; it can be seen as ordinal data in which the various values are at an equal distance or intervals from each other on a continuum" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 208). This kind of data refers to the basic shape that tends to recur in the distributions of many different sorts of data and has "a symmetrical distribution as scores with most values falling in the central region of the curve (i.e., near the mean) and the frequency of scores falling off fairly rapidly on either side of the central area" (Miller, 1975, pp. 46-47). So, the first step taken by the researcher within the framework of the present research was to undertake a normality test on the sample individuals' results in both tests.

6.2.1.1. Homogeneity of the Sample's Individuals

To ensure the homogeneity of both samples' abilities and decide upon the appropriate statistical tools, be it parametric or non-parametric, data obtained from test results has been analysed using the **Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] and Shapiro-Wilk** softwares. The latter has revealed moderate data distribution of the test results.

Table 8

Test of Normality for Writing: Pre-test Scores across Groups.

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
TP_Pre_R1	,117	40	,181	,960	40	,167
TP_Pre_R2	,067	40	,200[*]	,976	40	,556

200[*]indicate a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

From the data in the table above, we conclude that the significance level of Kolmogorov-Smirnov for both the first and second scorers of the sample is between 0.181 and 0.200, which is not significant at the significance level $\alpha = 0,05$. The significance level of Shapiro-Wilk for both raters is between 0.068 and 0.556, which is higher than the significance level of 0.05. Therefore, it can be inferred that data were approximately normally distributed.

Data distribution is better seen when plotted in histograms wherein data appear in a bell-curve form. The following histograms clearly show the approximate data distribution.

Figure 34

Data Distribution for Rater One in the Pre-test

Figure 35

Data Distribution for Rater Two in the Pre-test
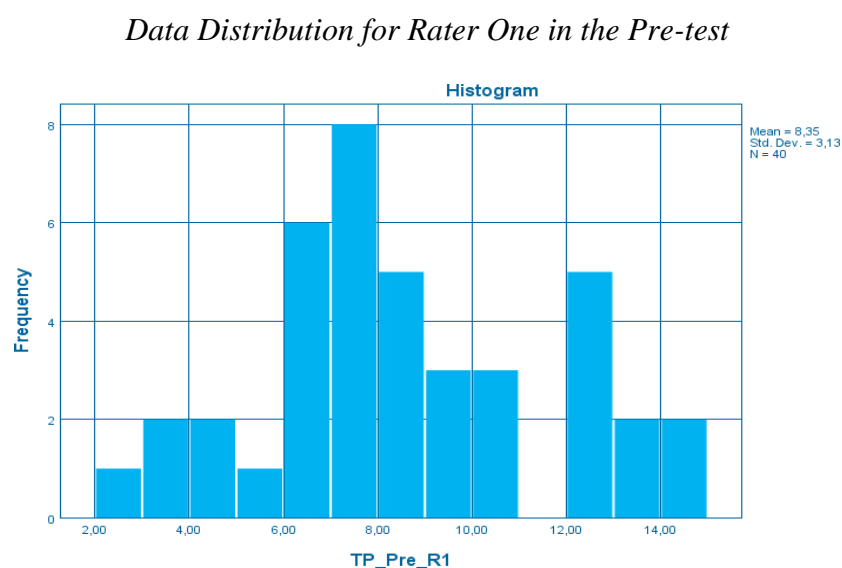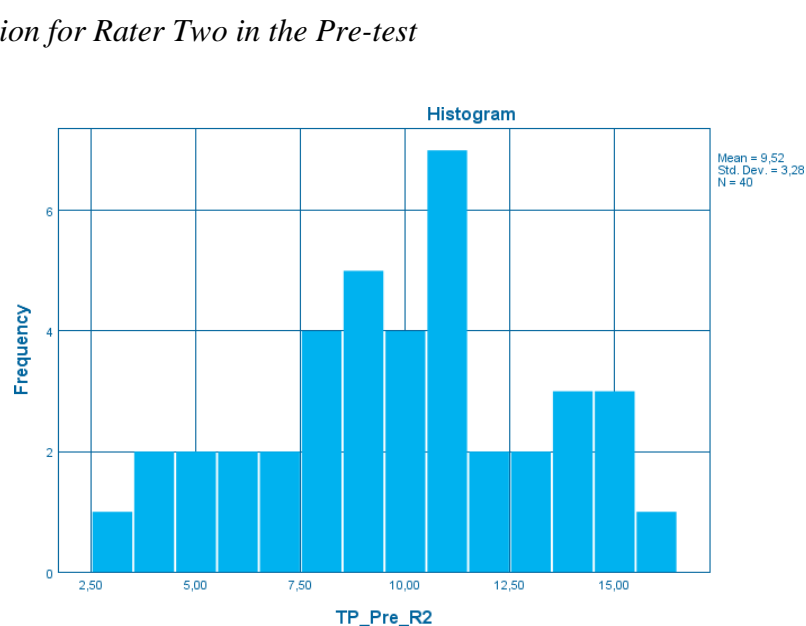
As far as rater two is concerned, we can notice a slight difference compared to rater one, as the former exposes the following results *M*=9.52 and *SD*=3.28.

From the data exposed and as clearly displayed in the above histograms, when the data was plotted the data, we got a symmetrical bell-shaped curve with the most significant frequency of scores in the middle and more minor frequencies towards the extremes. In other

words, the bulk of the values is centred around the middle, while some values are high and some others are low in the extremes. Consequently, it is essential to mention that data is approximately normally distributed; thus, one can conclude that the sample is homogenous regarding participants' cognitive abilities.

6.2.1.2. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis for Test Reliability

Having ensured the homogeneity of the sample groups, it was necessary to check the correlation between raters to allow saying that our test is valid and reliable.

This design yields to the pre-test and post-test rules. Indeed, both tests were subject to a detailed correction by two experienced teachers from the ENSC. Both teachers hold magister degree and have been teaching the Writing Course at the ENSC for ten years, so they are familiar with the course content and they have a clear perception about the writing intricacies. The objective behind this was to confirm test reliability. As such, it is essential to ensure a correlation between the pre and post-test scores for both raters. Consequently, the Pearson coefficient product test was conducted to check for the correlation between pre-test and post-test scores delivered by two different scorers. Results are presented in the following table.

Table 9

Results of Pearson Test for Correlations in the Overall Score

Total scores scorer one & two	Group	N	Pearson	Sig
	Pre-test	40	**0,978	0,01
	Post-test	40	**0,994	0,01

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From the above table, we notice that the value of the Pearson correlation coefficient in the total marks of all characteristics between the first and second corrector is $r (40)= 0,978^{**}$ in the pre-test and $r (40)= 0,994^{**}$ in the post-test. The probability value is $p = 0, 01$ which is a statistically significant, at $p> 0, 05$, which indicates that correlation is significant at $\alpha= 0.01$, i.e. a 2 tailed correlation. Consequently, we can say that there is a strong positive correlation between both scorers in both the pre and post-tests.

A positive correlation is a relationship between two variables that move in tandem; that is, in the same direction. It exists when one variable decreases as the other variable decreases or one variable increases while the other increases. Because these two different variables move in the same direction, they are theoretically influenced by the same external forces.

6.2.2. Analysis of the Experimental Design

Results obtained from using the Pearson Coefficient Product revealed a correlation in the test scores. Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed an approximately normal data distribution of the sample. They, thus, favoured the use of *t-test* to measure the differences between the first and the second scorer concerning the pre and post-tests as well as to measure the test results in terms of the three writing traits, namely unity and ideas development, topic sentence, and supporting details of both the experimental and the control groups in the pre and post-tests for the two scorers.

6.2.2.1. The Intervention Group Results in the Overall Writing Performance

An independent t-test was run to calculate the results at two distinct levels. The first of which is comparing the results in the overall writing performance (OWP) of the experimental group before and after the treatment period. The objective behind is to check for potential improvement and positive reaction of the sample individuals in the experimental group to the instruction. The latter lasted for nine weeks and consisted of explicit instruction in learning

when and why to use pre-writing strategies embedded in the regular teaching material. The

instruction culminated by a post-test for both groups, the experimental as well as the control

one. In order to ensure the validity of the experimental test results, the latter were compared to

those of the control group, set as a baseline for the intervention's success. Test results are

displayed below.

➢ **Descriptive Statistiques**

Table 10

Independent t-test Experimental group Total Points (TP) among Raters for the OWP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 TP Pre R1		8,6000	20	3,16477	,70766
TP Pre R2		9,8250	20	3,30977	,74009
Pair 2 TP Post R1		14,2250	20	1,20825	,27017
TP Post R2		14,5750	20	1,63252	,36504

From data displayed in Table 10, it is clear that the experimental group significantly improved after the treatment period, as the pre-test mean in the pre-test ($M = 8,600$, $SD = 3, 16$ and $M = 9, 82$, $SD = 3, 30$) has increased to ($M = 14, 22$, $SD = 1, 20$ and $M = 14, 57$, $SD = 1, 63$) for rater one and two respectively.

6.2.2.2. Significant Differences between the Sample Groups in the Overall Writing Performance

In any research design, we need to observe a measurable difference in terms of statistics. The following scatter plot shows statistical differences between the two sample groups.

Figure 36

Comparing Sample Groups Results in the OWP
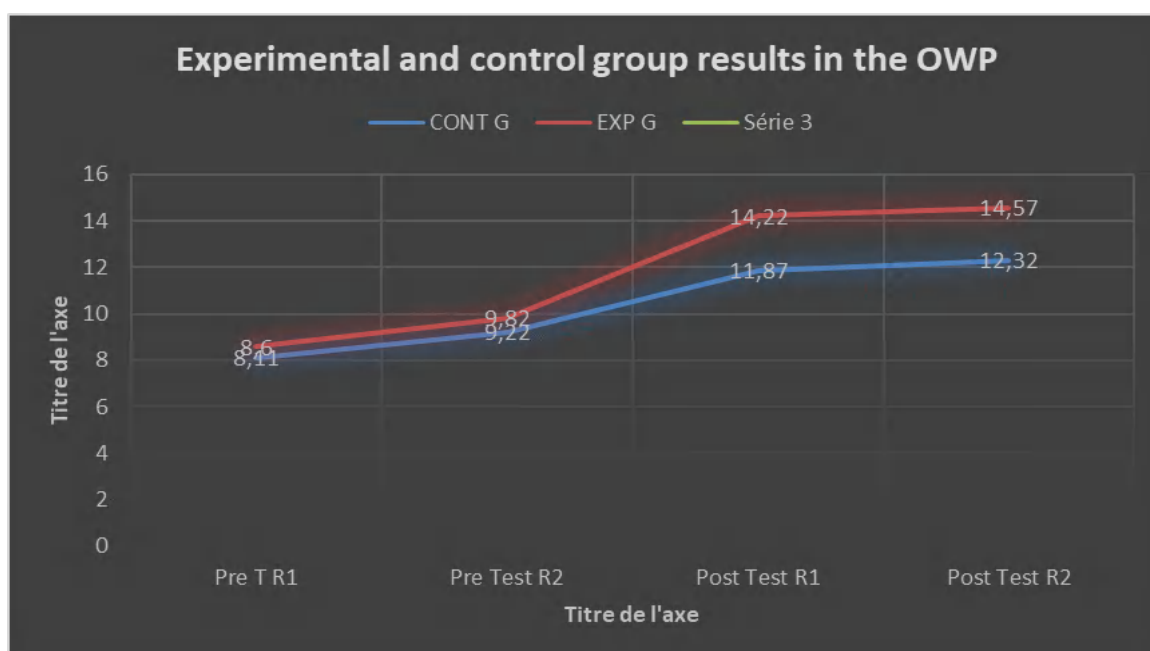
Though data in Table 10 together with the clear picture of the situation in Figure 36 show accurate results about the positive outcome from the intervention, it does not give statistical evidence to validate the hypothesis and thus does not allow us to generalize the

findings to a broader sample; accordingly, we need to report referential statistics, to confirm or disconfirm the research hypothesis.

> **Inferrential Statistiques**

       Inferential statistics help the researcher to make inferences about a population based on the sample subject of the research. Said differently, the researcher often compares the differences between the treatment groups using measurements from the sample of subjects in the experiment to compare the treatment groups and make generalisations about the larger population of subjects.

Table 11

T-test-Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair1TP_Pre_R1&TP_Pre_R2	20	,900	,000
Pair2 TP_Post_R1&TP_Post_R2	20	,585	,007

       Results in Table 11 indicate a paired correlation between ratters as far as the pre-test is concerned, $r(20)= 0,900$, $p = 0,001$, which is statistically significant at the level $p < 0,01$. The same table exposes results of the post-test indicating $r(20) = 0,585$, $p = 0,007$, i.e., statistically significant at $p<0,01$. Stated differently, results in the above table indicate a two-tailed correlation significant at $\alpha = 0.01$ level indicator indicating a high positive correlation.

Table 12

T-test-Paired Differences Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower Mean	Upper Mean			
TP_Pre_R1-TP_Pre_R2	-1,22500	1,45525	,32540	-1,90608	-,54392	-3,765	19	,001
TP_Post_R1-TP_Post_R2	-,35000	1,34849	,30153	-,98111	,28111	-1,161	19	,260

The formal study conducted to determine whether there are differences in the students' scores before and after the treatment has revealed that the mean of paired differences in the experimental group in the pre-test is M = -1,22500, 95% *CI* [- 1,9060, - 0, 5439 and t (19) = -3,765, p > 0.001 indicating a two-tailed correlation in contrast to the results obtained from the post-test revealing M = -0,35000,95%.*CI* [-0,9811, 0,2811] and (19) = -1,161, p = 0, 26> 0,05. Consequently, the researcher rejects the null hypothesis, which states that there are no differences between the students' scores before and after the treatment, and we accept the alternative hypothesis, which indicates a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group. Furthermore, confidence interval variances allowed generalisation to a wider population. So, at this level, one can confirm the research hypothesis which states that if first-year students are explicitly exposed to strategies-based instruction in pre-writing strategies, their writing proficiency will be improved.

6.2.2.3. Students' Improvement in the Three Writing Traits

The main objective of the present action research is to measure the impact of the pre-writing strategies-based instruction, set as an independent variable, on students' ability to achieve paragraph unity, write a correct topic sentence, and organise the supporting details in a logical order, meant as a dependent variables It is then of paramount importance to measure the success of this manipulation. Accordingly, a t-test-paired samples statistics of these three writing traits was conducted and provided the data displayed in the following table.

Table 13

T-test-Paired Samples Statistics of the Three Writing Traits of the Experimental Group

	Mean	N	Std. Deviaton
Pair1 UID_Pre_R1	1,8000	20	1,39925
UID_Pre_R2	2,6500	20	1,46089
Pair2 TS__Pre_R1	1,2750	20	,81878
TS_Pre_R2	1,3250	20	,43755
Pair3 PD_ Pre- R1	,7750	20	,44352
PD_Pre_R2	,9750	20	,54952
Pair4 UID_Post_R1 UID_Post_R2	4,1500	20	,36635
Pair5 TS_Post_R1	3750	20	,27506
TS_Post_R2	1,2000	20	,52315
Pair6 PD_Post_R1	1,6000	20	,38389
PD_Post_R2	1,625	20	,27506

As shown in Table 13, students improved their writing in terms of unity and ideas development (M = 1, 80, 2, 65 and SD = 1, 39, 1, 46) in the pre-test increased to (M= 4, 00, 4, 15 and SD = 0, 00, 0, 36) for rater one and two respectively. However, the second writing dimension, namely topic sentence (M =1, 27, 1, 32 and SD = 0, 81, 0, 43) did not improve as statistics show (M = 1, 37, 1, 20 and SD = 0, 27, 0, 52) in the post-test. The last writing trait, the logical organisation of supporting details (M = 0, 77 and 0, 97, SD =0, 44, 0, 54) in the pre-test improved to (M= 1, 60 and 1, 62, SD = 0, 38 and 0, 37) in the post-test for rater one and two respectively. These data show that students' positive reaction to the treatment mirrored their outcome, mainly in achieving paragraph unity and logically organizing the supporting details. However, as far as the topic sentence writing trait is concerned, no statistically significant improvement has been noticed.

➢ **Inferential Statistics**

Table 14

T-test-Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlations	Sig
Pair1	UID Pre T: R1& R2	20	,736	,000
Pair2	TS Pre T: R1&R2	20	,472	,06
Pair3	PD Pre T: R1&R2	20	,516	,00
Pair4	UID Post T: R1&R2	20	,517	,00
Pair5	TS Post T : R1& R2	20	,640	,002
Pair6	PD Post T : R1&R2	20	,498	,025

One can notice from Table 14 that the value of the correlation coefficient in the pre-test is so strong that the correlation coefficient in UID in the t-test is r (19) = 0,736, p< 0,01, r (19) = 0, 472, p< 0,05 in TS. Finally, r (19) = 0,516,p< 0,05 in SD and from which one can conclude that there is a correlation between the first and the second corrections and from which the marks can be said accurately. In parallel, a positive correlation was confirmed by the Pearson test in the post-test indicating: r (19) = 0,736, p< 0, 01 in UID, r(19) = 0, 640, p< 0,01 in TS, and (19) = 0,498, p < 0,05 in SD

6.2.2.4. Paired Differences in the Three Writing Traits between the Sample Groups

As researchers could not study a whole population, they used a sampling method to generalise results from the sample to the population they were studying. Hence, a confidence interval (CI) is just a way to measure how well the sample can represent the studied population. In fact, the confidence is in the method, not in a particular CI. If the same sampling method was repeated many times, approximately 95% of the intervals constructed would capture the true population mean. (McLeod, 2019)

Table 15

Paired Differences between the Sample Groups in the Three Writing Traits

			Paired Differences						
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)
					Lower Mean	Upper Mean			
Pair 1	UID Post T R1-R2	- ,15000	,36635	,08192	-,32146	,02146	-1,831	19	083
Pair 2	TS Post T R1-TS-R2	,17500	,40636	,09087	-,0151	8,36518	1,926	19	,069
Pair 3	PD Post T R1-R2	- ,02500	,34317	,07673	- ,18561	,13561	,326	19	,748

Data in Table 15 show that the formal study conducted to check the confidence intervals in the experiment revealed the mean of paired differences in UID to be -0,15000, 95% CI [-0,32146, 0,2146] and in the TS to be 0,17500, 95% CI [-0,01518, 0,36518]; consequently, we can be 95% confident that the population mean is similar to the sample mean. Conversely, the mean of SD does not fall within the range of intervals, -0, 02500, 95% CI [-0,18561, 0,13561]; thus, one cannot claim the same confidence.

Figure 37

Differences between the Sample Groups in the Three Writing Traits
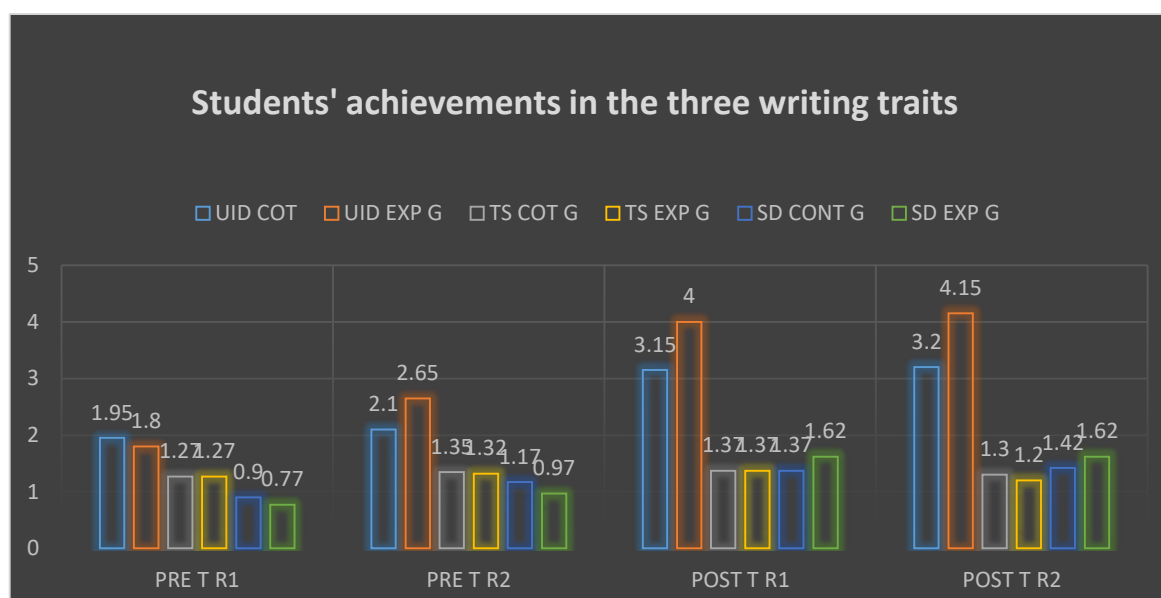
6.2.2.5. Discussion of the Experiment Findings

In this experiment is based on the criterion-referenced test, three writing traits, Unity and Ideas Development, Topic Sentence, and Paragraph Development, together with the Overall Writing Performance test score were taken as behavioural objectives of students' achievements. "The criterion-referenced test indicates whether the student has met pre-determined objectives or criteria….. The student's performance is typically graded on a pass-fail basis, and the opportunity of retesting is provided." (Valette, 1977, p. 11)

Some researchers (Flowers and Hays, 1981, Breiter and Scardamalia, 1987) pointed to the potential association and the existence of a positive and linear correlation between effective planning and writing proficiency. The search for the most instructional methods to enhance first-year students writing competence in the Algerian context led us to go a thorough quantitative analysis to investigate the impact of the pre-writing strategies on developing paragraph unity, writing a logical topic sentence, and finally organising logically the supporting details to come up with a well written English paragraph.

Accordingly, a statistical analysis of the student's results in written performance using SPSS was processed to the writing traits mentioned above and taken as dependent variables. The intervention was based on the CALLA model (Chamot et al., 1990), and the participants' performance was scored using a rubric developed by the researcher and inspired from Myscow's (2011). While the three criteria received 10 points out of 20, the other four criteria, form and layout, coherence and cohesion, language and style received the remaining 10 points. Worth mentioning that the four criteria were also noted to witness improvement. However, they were not the subject of the experiment, but inevitably students' successful improvement overwhelmed the whole written production to varying degrees.

➢ **Answering the Research Questions**

As mentioned in the General Introduction, the present research is meant to answer some research questions

• **Research Question Three**

What is the effect of explicitly teaching pre-writing strategies on students' overall writing proficiency?

Engagement scores (of the pre-test) for both sample groups were approximately normally distributed, as assessed by the Kolmongrove- Smirnov Shapiro-Wilks test ($p<0, 05$), and the Pearson Product Correlation Coefficient Test revealed a positive correlation coefficient in the total marks of all characteristics between the first ad the second correction, $r(20) = 0,978^{**}$ for the pre-test and $r(20) = 0,994^{**}$, $p< 0,01$ indicating a two-tailed correlation.

Afterwards, an independent t-test was run to determine the potential differences among the sample groups' individuals after the treatment period. There were essential differences in the data, as assessed by the post-test. In my sample, the pre-writing strategies have proved to have a positive effect on the sample individuals' overall performance as pre-test statistics of the experimental group increased from ($M = 8,600$, $SD = 3,164$. $M = 9,825$, $SD = 3,309$) to ($M = 14,225$, $SD = 1,208$. $M = 14,575$, $SD= 1,632$) in the post-test for scorer one and two respectively. Statistics also showed a less significant improvement in the results of the control group ($M = 8,600$, $SD = 3,164$. $M = 9,825$, $SD = 3,309$) to ($M = 14, 225$, $SD = 1,208$. $M = 14, 575$, $SD= 1,632$) in the post-test for scorer one and two respectively.

Actually, the improvement exhibited by the control group individuals is what used to be considered by Written Expression teachers as the instruction outcome after a period of serious instruction. The results of the experimental group, despite the short period of the SBI they had, showed that learners can reach more advanced levels of writing proficiency if they undertake explicit SBI.

Though the above statistics revealed a detailed description of the sample results, the latter cannot be generalised to a broader population, which is the researcher's primary objective, and Dornyei puts it "Descriptive statistics offer a neat way of presenting the data we have. The important thing, however, is to note that these statistics do not allow drawing any general conclusions that would go beyond the sample" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.209). It follows that we need

to compute inferential statistics because "inferential statistics are the same as descriptive statistics except that the computer also tests whether the results that we observed in our sample (for example, differences or correlations are powerful enough to generalize to the whole population." (Dörnyei, 2005, p.209)

The mean of paired differences in the experimental group in the pre-test is -1, 22500, 95% *CI* [- 1, 9060, - 0, 5439 in contrast to the results obtained from the post-test revealing   -0, 35000, 95%. *CI* [-0, 9811, 0,2 811]. All the above statistics represent an answer to the first research question; there is a causal relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. In other words, explicit teaching of pre-writing strategies inevitably leads to developing students' writing proficiency. Consequently, the main research hypothesis is confirmed at this level, and the null hypothesis is to be rejected.

- **Research Question Four**

What is the effect of exposing first-year students to strategies-based instruction on their written paragraphs in terms of unity and ideas development?

In parallel descriptive statistics showed significant differences as far as the first. Writing trait is concerned, namely unity and ideas development which concretely increased from (*M*= 1, 80, 2, 65 and *SD* = 1, 39, 1, 46) in the pre-test to (*M*= 4, 00, 4, 15 and *SD* = 0, 00, 0, 36) in the post-test for ratter one and two respectively. On the other hand, inferential statistics gave concrete evidence that the treatment has been not only beneficial but can be stretched to a wider population, as we are 95% confident that our results do not come from a mere coincidence but rather stem from a planned explicit strategy-based instruction deemed to empower students' metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive performance to bring about substantial gains concerning students writing proficiency.

- **Research Question Five**

What is the impact of exposing first-year students to strategies-based instruction on creating well-structured topic sentences?

However, in the second writing dimension, namely topic sentence, students did not exhibit a concrete improvement, as statistics in the pre-test (M =1, 27, 1, 32 and SD = 0, 81, 0, 43) did not increase in the post-test (M = 1, 37, 1, 20 and SD = 0, 27, 0, 52) for the two writers. Thereby, the answer to the research question is no. Pre-writing strategies do not have a direct impact on improving students' ability to write good topic sentences. Accordingly, the null hypothesis cannot be denied, as it is impossible to assume a causal relationship or any other relationship between explicit teaching of pre-writing strategies and students' improvement in writing well-developed topic sentences.

- **Research Question Six**

What is the impact of SBI in planning strategies mainly outlining on students' paragraph development?

As far as the last writing dimension is concerned; that is, the logical organisation of supporting details, descriptive statistics have shown students' positive reaction to the treatment mirrored in their writing outcome statistically reported as (M = 0,77 and 0,97, SD =0,44, 0,54) in the pre-test improved to (M= 1,60 and 1,62, SD = 0,38 and 0, 37) in the post-test for ratter one and two respectively. Conversely, though the descriptive statistics allow us to reject the null hypothesis and adopt the alternative hypothesis, this assumption remains bound to the sample at hand and, as we are not 95 % confident that we can generalise the results of the sample to a wider population since the mean does not fall between the range of variances,-0,02500, 95% CI [-0,18561, 0,13561]. Compared to their peers in the control group, descriptive statistics

showed, as the pre-test mean and standard deviation in the pre-test ($M = 8,100$, $SD = 3,15$ and $M = 9, 22$, $SD = 3, 30$) have increased to ($M = 11,87$, $SD = 1,78$ and $M = 12,32$, $SD = 1,77$ for rater one and two respectively.

In parallel, a t-test-paired samples correlations revealed a correlation between the three writing dimensions. The correlation coefficient between the first and second corrector is so strong that the correlation coefficient of the t-test is between $= 0,472$ and $r = 0,736$ in the three writing dimensions, and $p>0.05$ from which we conclude that there is a correlation between the first and the second corrections.

In the Control Group, descriptive statistics show a modest improvement, as the sample members were not exposed to treatment. However, they were making much effort to work with their peers in the experimental group. In the pre-test results equal ($M = 1, 95$ and $2, 10$, $SD = 1, 63$ and $1, 25$) increased the pre-test estimated at ($M=3, 15$ and $3, 20$, $SD = 1, 08$ and $1, 00$). As far as the topic sentence trait is concerned numerical statistics exhibit ($M=1, 27$ and $1, 35$, $SD= 0, 47$ and $0, 40$) in the pre-test and ($M =1, 37$ and $1, 30$, $SD = 0, 53$ and $0, 47$) in the post-test. The last writing dimension being analysed in the present research is the logical organization of the supporting details. As far as the latter is concerned statistics show ($M= 0, 90$ and $1, 17$, $SD =0, 5 9$ and $0, 51$) in the pre-test and ($M= 1, 37$ and $1, 42$, $SD = 0, 45$ and $0,24$) in the post-test. The key question is whether these differences reach statistical significance.

Conclusion

Chapter six is about a detailed explanation, analysis, and the interpretation of the quantitative data obtained via the implementation of two different research tools, namely a preliminary questionnaire and an experimental design. Accordingly, the chapter is structured in two sections following the order of organization of data gathering tools in the study.

The first section of the chapter, which describes the exploratory phase was devoted to the analysis of the preliminary questionnaire designed to elicit data from writing teachers at ENSC and to answer the two first research questions. Results obtained from data analysis revealed a distorted vision about the process approach and a non-agreement on teaching writing at the ENSC. It revealed also teachers' belief in the effectiveness of SBI in the pre-writing strategies to enhance students' writing proficiency. This result was encouraging enough to conduct an experiment with first-year students to try out how explicit teaching of pre-writing strategies would help them to enhance their writing skills and strategies.

The second section of the chapter was devoted to the analysis and interpretation of the results obtained from the post-test conducted after the intervention phase and comparison of the sample groups' results. The results obtained can be summarised in the effectiveness of SBI in the pre-writing strategies with the two levels planning and outlining to develop students' writing proficiency in terms of unity and ideas development and paragraph organisation. However, the intervention did not reveal any concrete results about developing students' ability to write logical and well-structured topic sentences.

Chapter Seven

Analysis of the Qualitative Data

Chapter Seven

Analysis of the Qualitative Data

Chapter Seven

Analysis of the Qualitative Data

Introduction

This research aims to investigate, using an experimental design, the impact of strategies-based instruction of metacognitive learning strategies explicitly integrated in the Written Expression material on students' writing proficiency. The results of the post-test have shown concrete improvement in students' quality of writing, especially in Unity and Ideas Development and the Paragraph Organisation writing dimensions of students in the experimental group. On this basis, three participants are selected from the experimental group to verbalise their thoughts and to describe their decision-making in terms of strategies and the different steps they undertook to achieve that level of proficiency. They are also invited to share the different gains form this instruction, if there are any.

The selection criterion was not participants' high grades in the post-test but significant positive variance between pre and post-test of some participants. That is to say, very low achievers in the pre-test who made statistically significant improvement in the post-test. As such, three key informants from the experimental group responded to a semi-structured interview. The latter included specific prompts to elicit further elaborative discussion on the topic in order to encourage participants bring about a direct and collaborative engagement during collection of data. Data coding and analysis are presented in this chapter.

7.1. Research Questions and Purpose of the Qualitative Investigation

A qualitative study followed the empirical study to get an in-depth understanding of metacognitive strategies used by EFL learners to better their writing quality. The objective of LLS research is to identify conscious moves and actions expert learners take to achieve a given task in relation to different skill areas. The objective of SBI is to benefit novice learners from

their expert peers' experience by instructing them on how to follow the same steps. In this respect, Rubin explains that "Often poor learners don't have a clue as to how good learners arrive at their answers and feel they can never perform as good learners do. By revealing the process, this myth can be exposed." (Rubin, 1990, p. 282)

The post-treatment period was a convenient time to implement an interview to have better insights into the internal system of learners in order to discover how they approach the writing task. They are also encouraged to think aloud and verbalise their experiences in a way to report in detail each decision they made use of either in the ideas' creation phase or the organisation one. In this case, interviews are the most suitable research tool as they allow extensive detailed data collected from a few specific people (Anderson, 1998). The triangulation of data collection tools in this research work permitted the investigation of different levels of research on one hand. On the other hand, it helped gain certainty about research findings.

7.2. Research Setting and Sampling

The study under discussion took place shortly after the treatment was administered. The post-test results of both scorers were a valuable source to build assumptions upon. The most prominent of which gave concrete credit to the effectiveness of embedding metacognitive strategies to the already existing syllabus and explicitly exposing first-year EFL students to strategies-based instruction. This content-based approach showed effective results validated by the post-test results.

However, through the overall improvement of the Experimental Group, the learners exhibited different levels and degrees of success with the strategies used. This generated a need to investigate how the best achievers proceeded with the planning and outlining strategies that enabled them to reach that level of writing proficiency. The resulting knowledge may benefit the less proficient achievers. Consequently, key informants were selected from the experimental

group to be interviewed and encouraged to think aloud to report their experience and argue for their decisions.

Results of the post-test compared to those of the pre-test in the experimental group were the criterion upon which participants were selected. The researcher selected three of the best achievers in the post-test who did not exhibit writing proficiency in the pre-test. Thus, the participants were selected based on the improvement they made regarding the quality of their writing. Some other participants who showed better achievement were excluded from the sample simply because when their post-test achievements were compared to their previous ones in the pre-test, the difference was not significant.

7.3. Description of Students' Interview

The data collection instrument in this phase is a semi-structured interview. Nunan (2005) explains that "in a semi-structured interview, the interviewer has a general idea of where he or she wants the interview to go, and what should come out of it, but does not enter the interview with pre-determined questions. Topics and issues rather than questions determine the course of the interview" (p.149). So, the researcher prepared an interview, which contains prompts to encourage informants relate their experience in terms of two main issues; the different cognitive strategies stages they went through together with the metacognitive decisions they took and the gains they have from participating in this content-based instruction.

However, as the targeted population of this interview is freshmen who are unexperienced with tackling topics and issues, the researcher managed to simplify topics for them. Accordingly, this interview is structured around four main sections covering four topics. Each section contains four open-ended questions that elicit learners to think aloud and report the cognitive decisions they were making at each level of the planning phase to know how expert

learners monitor their learning. The objective is to benefit less able learners from the high achievers' experience and generalise the research findings to a larger population.

The first section of the interview addresses learners' experience in terms of learning strategies, in general and planning strategies, in particular. In the second section, interviewees are invited to evaluate the treatment phase and report on explicit strategies instruction benefits. They are also encouraged to describe this new experience and report their challenges and preferences regarding the newly learned strategies. In section three, informants are required to think aloud and report in verbal expressions the mental process they went through and the cognitive decisions they took during the pre-writing phase; how they plan and how they outline, and the importance of the outline to revise the final draft. In the last section interviewees are invited to evaluate this experience and provide recommendations to teachers as well as students to ensure success of future SBI in the same department or elsewhere.

7.4. Data Coding and Analysis

Once data was collected and converted from recording into transcribed texts, verbatim, the first major step in the measurement process is data coding. It is a "critical aspect across all areas of second language acquisition (SLA) research" (Révész, 2012, p. 203). It consists of categorising the collected data into different themes to make the process of analysis and interpretation more accessible. Baralt explains that "Coding in qualitative research is the analytical process of organizing raw data into themes that assist in interpreting the data." (Baralt, 2012, p.222). In qualitative research, codes refer to "names or symbols used to stand for a group or similar items, ideas, or phenomena that the researcher has noticed in his or her data set" (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999, p.55). As such, researcher-imposed coding, which "entails categorizing data that have been collected in a qualitative form, often with the ultimate aim of preparing the data for quantitative analysis" (Révész, 2012, p. 209) was adopted in data

coding of the present research. A personal new coding system was developed to address the research questions.

An in-depth analysis of the key informants' different responses to the interview questions is presented hereby.

Section One: **Describing Previous Experience with the Use of Strategies, in General and Planning Strategies, in Particular**

In this section, the researcher seeks to investigate some background knowledge about students' experience prior to the SBI they had.

Q1: How did you use to approach the writing task?

The interviewees reported negative comments on their previous instruction (in high school) concerning their writing skills. The main problem was ideas generation. Informants reported being stuck at the pre-writing level, finding no idea to write about. As paragraph writing represents only one part of the formal evaluation tests, the students reported relying on the other sections at the expense of the free-writing part, as they used to find it very difficult.

This is the case in the three languages. One of the interviewees reported to avoid the writing task though she was an excellent student, and all her efforts to write good paragraphs went in vain. The second interviewee reported her previous fear and hatred to the writing skill, in general. On the opposite side, the third interviewee reported to like the writing task, but her writing was horrible despite her continuous efforts. The common point between the three interviewees is that they approached writing similarly. They reported to read the writing prompt, think for a few minutes and directly start to write the final draft.

Q2: What prior knowledge about learning strategies, in general and the planning strategies, in particular did you hold?

The three interviewees asserted to hold a knowledge of a wide range of learning strategies. However, they ignored their names and categories. The first interviewee says:

> *I used to know a lot of learning strategies and they were really helpful to me like using dictionnaries, asking questions, making google search to understand a particular notion, inferring the meaning from the context, but I did not that they were called language learning strategies until we were taught about them in this module.* (Interviewee one)

Two of the interviewees reported to know about the existence of the planning strategies from their teachers, but they did not use them. One of the interviewees voiced her total ignorance about the existence of the pre-writing strategies capable of making the writing task more accessible and enjoyable.

Q3: During your previous education, what instruction did you have in the pre-writing strategies?

All the informants confirmed that they have never received any instruction, neither explicit nor implicit about how to plan or outline a writing task in the high school.

Q4: What did you do before writing? Describe your thinking processes

The interviewees' responses to this question were varied and detailed but can be summarised in the following points.

- The students used to jump this stage and start directly drafting.

- Some other students spent much time trying to plan, and, finally failed to produce an acceptable outline for their writing compositions.

- They find planning a challenging and time-consuming activity without concrete results.

Section two: Evaluation of the Treatment Phase

This section seeks to elicit further elaborative discussion on the topic in order to encourage participants think aloud and report their engagement during the data collection phase.

Q5: How did you deal with the pre-test? How did you respond to the assignment, and how much time did it take for you to write your first paragraph at the university level?

Interviewees reported approaching writing in the same way they used to do during their previous instruction. They used to start writing their final draft immediately after reading the topic after devoting a few minutes for thinking.

Q6: Which phase was the most challenging for you: Planning or learning about planning?

Two respondents agreed that planning was much more complex than learning about planning, which was not a very difficult notion to grasp though a new one. However, when it came to planning their writing, it turned out to be very difficult, cognitively demanding and time-consuming. On the opposite side, only one interviewee reported that she found both planning and learning about planning very difficult and needed much time and continuous assistance inside and outside the classroom to master that crucial stage.

Q7: What is your impression about SBI course you had?

The respondents to the interview reported positive reactions about their contribution to the strategies-based instruction programme. The instruction they had, according to them, both raised their awareness about the existence of different types of strategies that would help them in achieving any learning task. It also attracted their attention to the crucial importance of the pre-writing stage and trained them to go through it successfully.

All of them reported to master the four planning strategies. However, they reported to have a particular preference for mind mapping/ clustering, except for one interviewee who reported that each strategy matches a given paragraph type. She backed her argument with the listing example, which matches the process paragraph.

There is a consensus on the mind mapping strategy, reportedly preferred among students given its appealing form. One of the respondents reported that she found this strategy some sort of game, and she was never fed up with playing it repeatedly until she became professional.

Q8: What is the impact of SBI you benefited from on writing good paragraphs in terms of unity, paragraph organisation, and topic sentence?

The key informants agreed that the instruction they had helped them a lot to enhance their writing style. Only now, they are able to write well organised and unified paragraphs with well-structured topic sentences though the teacher frequently had something to say about their topic sentences.

Section Three, Verbalising Personal Experience

In this section, respondents are encouraged to report the mental decisions they take while planning/ outlining after SBI they benefited from.

Q9: Describe in details how you proceed with planning using the strategy you like most.

One of the Informants reported that she reads the writing assignment and looks for keywords to determine the topic, the audience, and the purpose. Once she succeeds to determine the paragraph's topic, she could easily decide on the strategy to employ. In the second step, she looks for keywords, chooses the most prominent one that she writes in the middle of the sheet of paper, and jots out all the related ideas and vocabulary that come to her mind.

The second interviewee reported that she tries to write all that comes to her mind in terms of ideas or vocabulary and sometimes visualises the whole image and converts the image into either single words or complete sentences and relates them to the central topic with arrows as she learned during the SBI program. In a second moment, she omits any odd information or non-related vocabulary. Then, she joins numbers to the information she has written according to their order of importance, from the most to the least important. After she makes sure it is the final plan, she organises it in a simple outline: the topic sentence, supporting details, and concluding sentence. Once the outline is ready, she starts writing her first draft with a continuous reference to the outline. When she finishes the last draft, she compares it to the outline and checks for the writing criteria.

The third informant reported that mind mapping appeals much to her, for she feels it is a game and, thus, enjoys her time and does not get bored. So, she draws the diagram first, returns to the writing prompt that embodied the whole topic, and places it at the heart of the diagram. After deep thinking, she writes all what comes to her mind about it in the circles she has drawn. Once she finishes, she reviews the complete information in the diagram to omit the less related

topic information and keeps only the more related one. The latter is, then, organised in a meaningful outline with a logical topic sentence, a related concluding one, and supporting details are organised in a logical order.

Q10: Which is more challenging, planning/ generating ideas or outlining/organising?

The respondents to the interview agreed on the difficulty of the planning phase compared to the outlining one, as the former is time-consuming and requires much cognitive effort from the writer's side, involving: thinking, writing, selecting related vocabulary ideas, and omitting the less relevant ones. One of the interviewees argued that planning is much more complicated than outlining because it deals with imagination, creating abstract concepts and ideas, and putting them together to create a final concrete image. Once it is done, organising them in an order appropriate to a given paragraph type requirements would be easier.

Q11: When you start drafting, how often do you refer back to the outline to revise the different drafts?

This question expresses the move from one metacognitive level to another namely planning and revising. Within the framework of the CALLA model adopted in the present approach, the portfolio is used as an alternative assessment tool to assess the continuous writers' improvement. As such, students keep records of their writings to which they refer to evaluate their improvement. Chamot et al. say; "the teacher might decide to collect examples of student writing (..) in which students evaluate their own learning by indicating their strengths and areas of weakness" (Chamot et al., 1999, p.6)

One of the interviewees reported to refer back to the outline each time she revises her drafts to correct and amend her written paragraphs. Some other times, it is the outline itself which is amended. The process approach is built upon the idea that it is a recursive process with

different stages organised in the form of a wheel with spokes that allow the writer to move backwards and forward. (Harmer, 2004). The two remaining informants argued that keeping a continuous reference to the outline is safer to ensure paragraph unity.

Q.12: Would you describe how do you come up with the most appropriate plan and outline for the paragraph you are about to write.

The respondents informed to have different drafts before reaching either the final plan or the final outline. They further explained that they rarely achieve a plan from the first time. Rather, they go through different trials. They also confessed that the pre-writing stage is the most difficult, time-consuming, and a cognitively demanding phase of the whole writing process. They noted that succeeding in the subsequent stages depends to a large extent on succeeding in the pre-writing stage. They argued that once they come up with a final version of the paragraph outline; the other stages are easy to tackle, and the time invested in them is shorter than that spent on the pre-writing phase.

Section Four, Evaluation and Recommendations of Learners and Teachers

Participants are invited in this section to evaluate their experience with SBI and provide feedback.

Q13. What are the strengths of this instruction?

The students responded very positively to the SBI programme and announced to benefit from many gains, which are structured as follows:

• It made the act of writing a simple and a structured one. It is no more the colossal task students used to fear and escape.

• It raised their consciousness about the existence of LLS that facilitate the act of writing.

• It promoted autonomy and self-confidence.

• It destroyed the psychological barrier that used to stand between students and the act of writing.

• The act of writing is extended to writing outside the classroom

• Though it is difficult and time-consuming, it facilitates the other subsequent phases and saves time spent on them.

Q14: What are the weaknesses of this instruction?

The informants revealed that the instruction they received should be stretched over nine weeks. It is time-consuming and requires them to work at home and in the classroom. The success of this instruction was at the expense of the other modules, for students were used to devote all their time and efforts at home to the assignments of the written expression course.

Q. 15. What do you recommend to Written Expression teachers?

The students urged written expression teachers to prepare for strategies-based instruction programs if aspiring for a better level of writing proficiency. They further advised them to be patient, assist students, and give much homework and constructive feedback.

Q. 16. What do you recommend to first-year students?

Respondents, in the same vein, advised first-year students, in case they were engaged in the same experience,

• To take it seriously

• Do all the assignments,

- Be patient,

- Practice much,

- Do not seek immediate improvement

7.5. Data Interpretation: The Thematic Analysis

The procedure adopted in this research to analyse the interview transcript is the Thematic Analysis (TA) of the quantitative data defined by Braun & Clarke (2006) as "The first qualitative method that should be learned as (…)it provides core skills that will be useful for conducting many other kinds of analysis" (p. 78). Furthermore, being both dynamic and complex in its analytical process, Thematic Analysis could be taken as the foundation method in qualitative analysis (Holloway & Todres, 2003)

In thematic method, the themes and patterns within the data can be analysed inductively or deductively. The present study adopts the inductive approach. It is where the themes identified from data are strongly linked to the collected data set (Patton, 1990). In this sense, an inductive method can be claimed to be data driven. The inductive technique is, then, the type of thematic method where the coding process of research data, after its collection via interview does not try to suit any pre-existing frame or conception of the researcher. Rather it is deduced from data collection and not influenced by the analyst theoretical framework and research interests. (Patton, 1990)

In thematic analysis, the decision of theme identification majorly revolves around two levels. The first level is the Semantic or explicit level of themes, and the other is the Latent or interpretive level (Boyatziz, 1998). In Semantic Approach, the data is analysed at an explicit or surface level where the analyst is not looking beyond the statements delivered by the participants of the study. In contrast, Latent Approach, which adopted in this study, analyses data at much deeper level of the content. It is an interpretive work much deeper and more

rigorous in nature that not only involves description but is also justified with theoretical framework.

Braun and Clarke (2006) identified six major guiding steps of Thematic Analysis. They are getting familiarised with data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing, defining, refining, and naming themes, and producing final report. The researcher, in the present qualitative paradigm, followed these six steps and the final report exposes the following results.

Data gathered via the interview has shown the emergence of three major themes with twelve sub-themes from the respondents' attitudes and perceptions concerning the SBI they were subject to. Worth mentioning that the instruction was made at two levels. The first level concerned an explicit instruction in the pre-writing strategies, namely: brainstorming, clustering, free-writing, and listing. The second level was related to organising the emerging ideas in a simple outline. The two levels can be summarised in ideas creation and ideas organisation. They were discussed in three face-to-face interviews. The three emerging themes can be summerised as follows: development of writing skills, development of the metacognitive strategies, and development of affective strategies. The emerging themes from TA are illustrated in the figure below.

Figure 38

Emerging Themes from TA
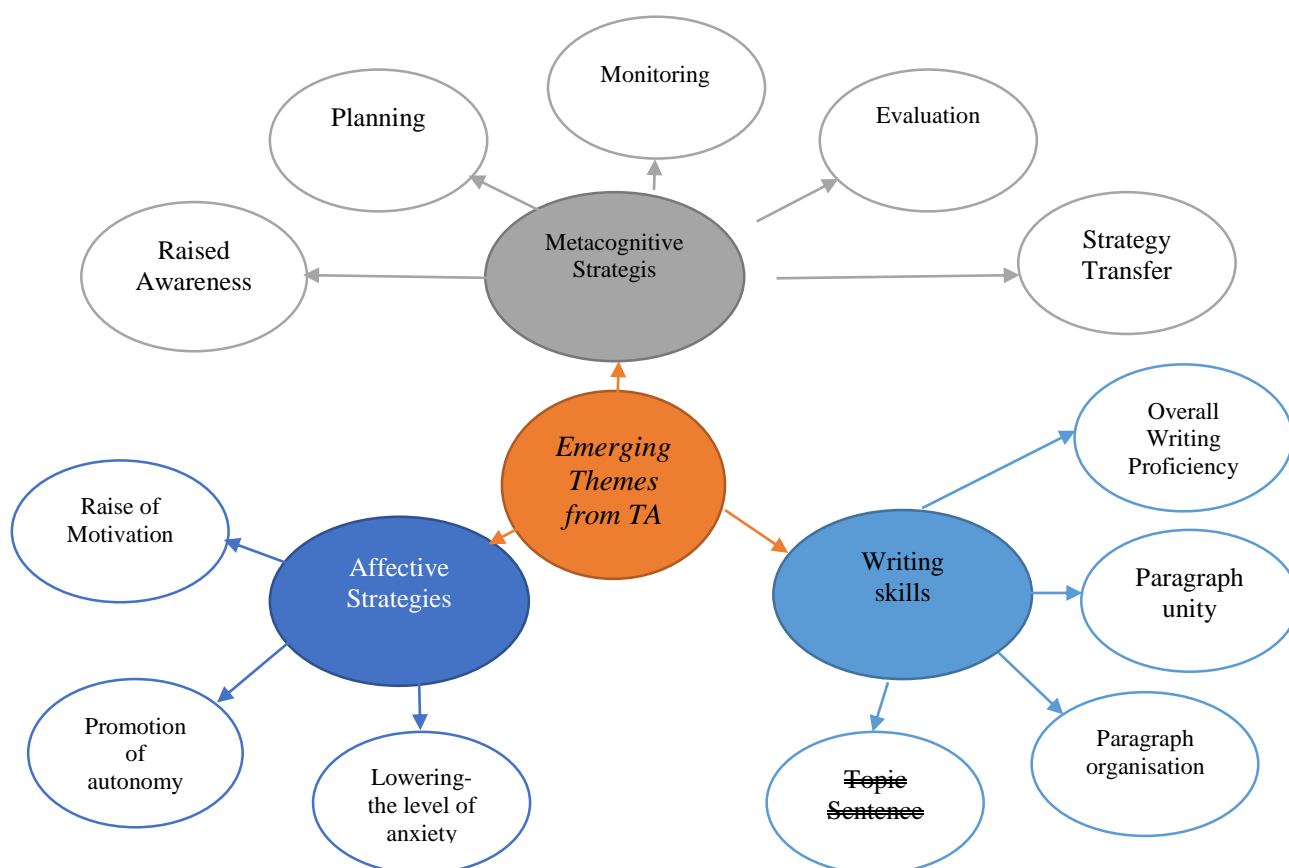
7.5.1.   Writing Skills Development

The dependent variable in the hypothesis which directs the present investigation is the development of students' writing proficiency, in general and in terms of unity and idea development, topic sentence and paragraph organisation, in particular.

7.5.1.1. Paragraph Unity and Ideas Development

The first consequence of the experimentation on participants is the development of their paragraphs in terms of unity and the way through which the idea smoothly develops.

Walker (2010), as cited in Nurul Fajri (2016), described paragraph unity as one of the five elements of good writing. Consequently, achieving paragraph unity means moving a step forward to the ultimate goal of achieving good writing.

> *I continuously go back to my outline to amend to revise my paragraph. It happens that very frequently I change sentences in my paragraph. In other moments, it is the outline which gets amended as the follow of ideas leads me to an area, I did not plan but makes my paragraph more accurate and meaningful. I just make sure that my paragraph is still unified*

(Interviewee one)

7.5.1.2. Paragraph Organisation

Another positive consequence of SBI on students is recorded in terms of paragraph organisation. The latter is rated among the salient components of a good paragraph. Nunan (2002) believes that some elements determine the quality of the paragraph. That is, the paragraph should have three main components to be achieved, i.e., unity, coherence, and adequate development.

One of the participants announces:

> *... In a second moment, I omit any odd information or non-related vocabulary. After that I join numbers to the information, I have written according to their order of importance from the most important to the least one. After I am sure it is the final plan, I organise it in a simple outline; That is to say the topic sentence, supporting details, and concluding sentence. Once the outline is ready, I start writing my first draft with a continuous reference to the outline.*   (Interviewee two)

7.5.1.3. Topic Sentence

　　One of the unexpected results of SBI revealed by the post test results and admitted by TA is participants' failure to achieve correct and logical topic sentences. The cause may be the specific structure of the English paragraph. The topic sentence does not exist neither in Arabic writing nor in the French one

Everything was fine with me except the topic sentence

(Interviewee two)

I could write a topic sentence, but you (the teacher) have always something to say about

it.   (Interviewee three)

7.5.1.4. Development of the Overall Writing Proficiency

　　An important consequence of SBI on students in terms the writing skills development is demystifying the myth of writing and transcending literacy to produce well-written paragraphs that convey meaning and match the conventions of rhetoric. Thus, improvement in the overall writing proficiency. Interviewees argued that the act of writing, which used to be thought of as a myth and a far-fetched skill to master, is now approached systematically, breaking it into distinct phases. The first is the pre-writing stage, whose existence was ignored by most interviewees. Students feel that now they have the necessary cognitive and linguistic tools to accomplish their paragraphs. Rubin explains that "often poor learners don't have a clue as to how good learners arrive at their answers and feel they can never perform as good learners do. By revealing the process, this myth can be exposed" (Rubin, 1990, p.282). Interviewees announced to fear no more the act of writing as they can generate topic-related ideas, perform content and organise ideas, and mainly ensure paragraph unity, most interviewees contended

that spider-mapping could help them organise ideas more quickly and systematically. It helped them also eliminate irrelevant ideas and no-related vocabulary.

> *The training was beneficial as we were assisted through the different sub-stages of the planning stages. We were introduced to the various types of pre-writing activities from which we chose what matched our learning style and the most appropriate topic at hand.*   (Interviewee one)

7.5.2. Development of the Metacognitive Strategies

The thematic analysis of data gathered via the key informants semi-structured interview revealed development in four metacognitive strategies. They are as follows: Raised Awareness, monitoring and self-regulation, planning evaluation, and strategy transfer.

7.5.2.1.   Raised Awareness

One of the expected gains of SBI revealed by TA is the learners' raised consciousness about the existence of the learning strategies. Rubin points out that "learner strategy instruction begins with helping students become aware of what strategies are and which strategies they are using. This consciousness-raising helps students begin to think about their own learning (Rubin et al., 2007 p.143). Any SBI has to follow some conventional steps, the first of which is raising awareness of the existence of a wide range of learning strategies susceptible of making a learning task easier (Chamot et al, 1999, Oxford, 1990). Accordingly, it falls on the teachers' shoulders to "first elicit students' prior knowledge about strategies and then help them identify their current strategies for different tasks" (Rubin, 2007, p. 143). Informants asserted that they already knew some of the learning strategies that they successfully implemented and found them very helpful. However, they were not aware that they were called LLS. Some examples

of these are using a dictionary, inferring meaning from the context, asking questions and others. One of the interviewees says:

> *I used to know a lot of learning strategies and they were really helpful to me like using dictionaries, asking questions, making google search to understand a particular notion, inferring the meaning from the context, but I did not that they were called language learning strategies until we were taught about them in this module.*

(Interviewee one)

7.5.2.2. Monitoring and Self-regulation

. Another important consequence of SBI on students is the development of students' ability to monitor and self-regulate their learning. Vygotsky (1962) pointed out that conscious reflective control and deliberate mastery were essential in school learning and Flavell (1995) argued that if one can bring the process of learning to a conscious level, one can help learners to be more aware of their thoughts and processes and help them gain control over the organization of their learning. In their turn, O'Malley and Chamot asserted that "knowledge of strategies, like L2 knowledge itself, moves from declarative to procedural through practice by the learner. 'Declarative knowledge' is defined more fully as conscious, fact-oriented, effortful knowledge (…) 'procedural knowledge', on the other hand, is knowledge that is unconscious, automatic, habitual, effortless, and implicit" (O'Malley and Chamot, as cited in Oxford and Shramm, 2007, p.50). Once strategies become proceduralised or automatic through continuous practice, they are known as processes. (Cohen, 1998)

The three respondents showed a deliberate and conscious monitoring in the actual progress of the writing task, as they could structure their learning in terms of phases. The latter

are the development of the activity, testing the actions in terms of the pre-set goals, and detecting the emerging errors.

A key informant reported that after she fininshes her planning, she reviews the complete information in the diagram to omit the less topic-related information and to keep only the more related one. Then, she starts writing with continuous reference to the outline to make sure she is faithful to the pre-test goals and, also, to detect errors, which require amendments or change. She says:

> *I continuously go back to my outline to amend to revise my paragraph. It happens that very frequently I change sentences in my paragraph. In other moments, it is the outline which gets amended as the follow of ideas leads me to an area, I did not plan but makes my paragraph more accurate and meaningful. I just make sure that my paragraph is still unified.*

> (Interviewee one)

Another interviewee reported that after retrieving the topic-related information from her long-term memory, she omits any odd information or non-related vocabulary. After she makes sure it is the final plan, she organises it in a simple outline. When she finishes the last draft, she compares it to the outline and checks for the emerging errors. She reveals:

> *… In a second moment, I omit any odd information or non-related vocabulary. After that I join numbers to the information, I have written according to their order of importance from the most important to the least one. After I am sure it is the final plan, I organise it in a simple outline; That is to say the topic sentence, supporting details, and*

concluding sentence. Once the outline is ready, I start writing my first

draft with a continuous reference to the outline

(Interviewee two)

7.5.2.3. Planning

The most significant impact SBI had on the students is raising their awareness about both the importance and constraints of the planning phase. This preparatory phase, according to Brown (1987), includes the preparatory operations concerning the writing task, like goal setting, deciding on the time needed, and selection of the he appropriate strategy.

Now, the student writers have understood that the composing act with all its phases depends on the planning and outlining phase, which is the backbone of the whole writing activity (Flower and Hayes, 1981). Though it is difficult and time-consuming, it facilitates the other subsequent phases and saves time spent on them. So, much time and concentration must be spent on it to ensure the success of the subsequent phases. The participants, now, have a complete mastery of this phase, as they perfectly know the metacognitive strategies, when, and how to use them to bring about a good plan/outline, on which they rely to produce their written products.

In short, the participants, now, hold metacognitive knowledge with its three components declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge (Schraw and Moshman, 195). This knowledge is implemented while planning a writing task. Thus, the students are able to set goals, select the suitable strategies, and decide on the needed efforts and time to accomplish the writing activity.

The first interviewee states:

The instruction we had benefited us greatly because it simplified the act of writing that used to be huge. Though it cognitively demanding and time-consuming, it facilitates the other subsequent phases… The training was beneficial as we were assisted through the different sub-stages of the planning stages. We were introduced to the various types of pre-writing activities from which we chose what matched our learning style and the most appropriate to the topic at hand.

(Interviewee One)

7.5.2.4. Evaluation

While the planning activities were appreciated in helping the interviewees generate a large number of ideas and interested them in writing, they were criticised for being challenging to the students since they were unfamiliar with their use; therefore, they could not get used to them quickly. All pre-writing activities were reported to cause missing ideas when students could not express their ideas in English words. This justifies the need for more time expressed by students in Q.13.

Sometimes I got almost no ideas about some topics. One word to say: Stuck! No image and no visual aids used limited the ideas

(Interviewee three)

They are time-consuming and cognitively demanding as we should find out   which strategy is more suitable for use regarding the topic at hand.

(Interviewee two)

From the participants' drafts, much evidence was also found about the strengths of planning on helping generate ideas and outlining on helping the organisation of ideas. However, evidence of students' confusion, challenge, and poor number of ideas with the planning was also noticed.

> *I mastered the creation and organising strategies; however, I am still reluctant, for I am not sure which strategy is better suitable for a particular task ... hhhhhh. We need further training.*
>
> (Interviewee one)

The second interviewee asserts:

> *Sometimes I got almost no ideas about some topics. One word to say: Stuck! No image and no visual aids used limited the ideas.*
>
> (Interviewee two)

7.5.2.5. Strategy Transfer

An interesting finding and probably the least expected one, concerns the transferability of strategies use to other learning situations both inside and outside the classroom. According to O'Maley & Chamot (1990), LLS research has shown that learners do not automatically transfer the strategies they learn in one context to a different situation. The CALLA model is such a model "in which declarative knowledge about strategies is taught, practised, transferred, and evaluated so that it gradually becomes procedural knowledge" (Oxford & Schramm, 2007, p.50). Strategies that have become 'proceduralised', according to Cohen (1998), are known as processes. It is crucial, then, to make the acquired LLS personal processes. This would create autonomous learners who are in charge of their learning and do not seek help and assistance from their teachers or other mentors. It is necessary to create independent future adults and

citizens who can take the initiative in taking responsible personal decisions. In this respect, one of the respondents informs that:

> *The instruction we had benefited us greatly because it simplified the act of writing (...) Now, I feel no more it is that big deal. I even enjoy it and feel I can write about any topic. Now I write my diaries at home. My writing in the other modules has noticeably improved, and my grades increased in parallel. It is excellent, isn't it ?*

(Interviewee two)

7.5.3. Development of the Affective Strategies

Besides to the writing skills, development of metacognitive strategies, participants developed also a range of affective strategies. They are explained bellow.

7.5.3.1. Increased Engagement and Motivation

Increased motivation to write is another important outcome of the SBI in the present work. In descriptive studies, motivation, among all learner variables, often had the strongest relationship with a foreign or a second language strategy use (Oxford ad Nyikos, 1989). Interviewees informed that the SBI in the pre-writing strategies motivated them to write and to engage more and more in the different writing tasks both in the classroom and at home.

One of the strong points of the SBI voiced by the interviewees was that the spider-gram dwelled on the draft motivated them to write, and listing awoke their memory skills and evoked their stronger sense of organisation developed in their paragraphs. A respondent announced that she found mind-mapping some sort of game and she never got bored of it. This enhanced their engagement and boosted their motivation to get more and more involved in the writing ask them. One of the informants states:

I liked all the planning strategies, but clustering was the most attractive one to me because it is very different and seems like a game, so whenever I was asked to plan it as if I were asked to play a game, so I enjoyed the task and learned how to generated topic-related ideas and eliminate the non-relevant ones and organise the others in terms of specific criteria. Listing also was very motivating and helped me to organise my ideas.

(Interviewees two)

7.5.3.2. Promotion of Autonomy and Self-confidence

This instruction has so many benefits on the participants. It destroyed the psychological barrier that used to stand between them and the act of writing and demystified the myth of the unreachable elite skill. Now, they insist on their freedom from any pressure when it comes to the act of composing. They no longer fear writing, and do not escape any writing assignment. On the opposite, they developed a great passion for writing. They write inside the classroom and in their diaries at home. They feel assertive and self-confident. The three informants insisted on self-confidence and autonomy they have developed during their instruction. The third participant says

Pre-writing helped me become more self-confident. The flow of ideas kept coming from my mind when I started writing. I am trying to say that I could have more and more ideas when I looked at my outline, so I felt interested in writing and even started to love writing. I used to be short of ideas, but now I find that there is enough to write about. Also, it saves time because the outline can create good order for the ideas. When the outline is good, it is brief, direct, precise, and straight to the point. (Interviewee three).

7.5.3.3. Lowering the Level of Anxiety

A very important outcome of participants' exposure to SBI is lowering the le level of their anxiety. Participants previously informed about how the myth of writing has been demystified since they were taught its different components and how to approach it step by step. Accordingly, they develop an affective strategy that of lowering down anxiety.

> *... it reduced my fear from writing. I used to feel really uncomfortable about any task of writing because I was not sure about how to deal with it. Now I feel very comfortable and even happy, as I know that I'm not supposed to deal with it as a whole but break it into some steps and then go on step by step. I think everyone in our class feels the same thing. We can apply the pre-writing strategies, while dealing with any writing task since we got familiar to them. I, personnally, liked learning about planning and outlining, as they prepare me for the main writing task.*

(Interviewee two)

7.6. Interview Findings and Discussion

Although participants' expressed preferences for brainstorming, free-writing, clustering, or listing varied to a large extent, the improvement was noticeably significant in their post-test results concerning the three writing traits, especially in paragraph unity and ideas development and paragraph organization. Students' topic sentences, however, did not witness any improvement. The post-test results have shown that participants in general benefited much from their training in pre-writing strategies; this could be easily noticed in their written performance. However, it is necessary to identify expert writers' different cognitive stages before achieving their successful final product to benefit their novice peers from their

experience, to follow their footsteps and achieve similar improvement. Accordingly, three top achievers in the post-test were selected from the experimental group to respond to the interview.

The informants expressed positive attitudes towards the four pre-writing strategies together with the outlining one since they were reported to trigger smooth flows of ideas from the mind, which could consequently create chances for the burst out of a significant number of both background knowledge and creative ideas, and then help to organise them in a simple outline.

Analysis of the interview was of great help to the researcher to draw conclusions and also to answer research question number seven raised at the beginning of this study.

What are the significant gains students had from this experience?

The findings from this qualitative study are in line with those of the previous studies (Flowers & Hayes, 1981; Chamot, 2008; and Cohen, 2002). Informants affirmed that explicit training on planning strategies helped them to discover the crucial importance of the planning phase, which is the backbone of the whole writing activity. Oxford (1989) assured that SBI is more effective when strategies are woven into class activities. Succeeding in this phase implies overall success in the writing performance. In this respect, Flowers and Hayes (1981) noticed that expert writers spend a very long time planning their writings, while their novice peers spend less time or neglect completely this stage. SBI, according to the informants, helped them not only to understand the undeniable importance of this stage but also to benefit from explicit training to master it and, thus, climb the scale of writing proficiency.

It can also be inferred from the participants' answers that mastering pre-writing strategies did not only affect their writing skills; it had also a positive effect on their metacognitive awareness, motivation, and self-confidence. It made them feel motivated and more self-

confident and reduced their anxiety since they effectively prepare student writers for the main writing task by helping them to generate ideas and organise them into a meaningful outline. This eventually clarifies their vision of how the final product would look like. Chamot (2008) pointed to the role of SBI in raising students' motivation, while Cohen, 2000 argued for students' self-confidence promoted by explicit SBI.

Conclusion

In a qualitative research design elaborated via a semi-structured interview, this chapter presented an in-depth study of the internal and mental processes through which learners go to make decisions about their writing. Hence, the main objective was to inquire about these mental processes and the cognitive decisions made by encouraging learners to verbalise their decisions and share their experiences. The objective behind this is to benefit novice learners and help them to imitate the outliers in taking the right metacognitive decisions to improve their writing skills.

Key informants reported important gains in terms of the writing skills. They also reported very interesting psychological gains summarised in a set of metacognitive and affective strategies. First of all, in terms of the three writing traits, they expressed their positive attitudes as they succeed to improve the two first writing qualities, paragraph unity and paragraph organisation but not the last one, the topic sentence.

Though other aspects like the affective strategies were not initially targeted by the researcher, the Thematic Analysis of data reported positive gains about these strategies. In terms of psychological gains, informants said that the strategy training course raised their awareness about the existence of a wide range of LSs and their importance in the learning process. Furthermore, SBI helped them to learn how to plan, monitor, evaluate their learning, and

transfer this knowledge to other learning situations. Moreover, it boosted their motivation to write, empowered their self-confidence, and lowered the level of their anxiety.

Chapter Eight

Implications and Recommendations

Chapter Eight

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Implications and Recommendations

Introduction

The results from the qualitative and quantitative analyses during the present research highlighted many shortcomings related to the writing skill course content at the ENSC. Consequently, some recommendations are suggested in the present chapter to improve the learners' use of the pre-writing strategies as a step towards developing their writing communicative competence. However, because the learner is just a member of the whole learning institution, his concrete improvement is tightly interwoven with a reform of the whole teaching/ learning situation. This chapter contains the researcher's contribution to improving the current situation. In this context, reforms and amendments ought to be undertaken at three levels: the learning environment, the writing class, and the planning strategies. The chapter ends with a proposition of a new writing course syllabus.

8.1. Implications for the Learners

Though first-year ENSC students have been taught throughout their twelve years of instruction following the Competency-based Approach (CPA) syllabi, which promote learners' independence, the latter have not developed higher order thinking skills, nor have they promoted autonomy and self-reliance. On the contrary, they exhibit apparent passiveness and reliance on their teachers, expecting blind guidance.

As far as the writing class is concerned, the learners expect ready-made models to imitate and, thus, return to a Product-based Approach undermining the significant gains of the cognitive approach that backs the Process Approach and Post-process Approach theories which bolster metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive awareness.

Furthermore, they show little awareness of the presence of a wide range of learning strategies that would help them learn better and faster. Accordingly, they must be aware of these learning strategies and regularly trained to use them. Regarding the writing task, the experiment and the interview results have shown a significant step forward in achieving paragraph unity and logical organisation. Thus, strategy training in planning strategies should be embedded within regular writing classes.

8.2. Implications to Syllabus Designers

As a result of globalisation, which has radically transformed the world in all domains, the Algerian society is witnessing a constant change in the all aspects of life as well as the as in the individual as the most important component of society. Globalisation improves learners' ability to access knowledge, adopt and adapt it, and assess it according to the situation. It also enhances learners to think independently, to exercise appropriate judgment and to collaborate with others to make sense of new situations. Accordingly, the teaching syllabuses should be changed, improved, or amended to meet the learners' new needs and match their new profiles and expectations.

As far as the first-year writing course syllabus is concerned, the official one (Appendix 1.1) has been readjusted by the teaching staff to be replaced by an amended one (Appendix 1.2) to meet both teachers' and learners' expectations. In its turn, the amended version has been reported by respondents to the questionnaire in the present research as unsatisfactory, bearing part of responsibility of students' failure to compose. Thereby, a direct action should be taken to revise the programmes in the framework of national workshops made of teachers, as practioners more informed by the intricacies of the pedagogical situation. Curriculum designers and material developers should also be engaged in these workshops as theorists trying to catch up with the prevailing teaching/ learning approaches and theories. The new syllabuses ought to

be built around teaching and enhancing the use of LLS likely to develop the language skills, in general and the writing skills, in particular.

8.3. Recommendations to Teachers

The results from the data analysis revealed a set of remarks among which we note the undeniable role of the teacher who has a tremendous role in training learners to be autonomous and self-reliable. In order to become an independent learner able to be in charge of his learning and transfer it to new learning situations in the school and outside the school, the learner has to be assisted by the teacher, who has to be present in all the learning phases, not as knowledge deliverer but as a helper to discover knowledge and as a mentor to assist learners during their learning journey. Thus, teachers remain the masters of the teaching/ learning whatever the approach, be it teacher centred or learner-centred. In a nutshell, it is put on the teacher's shoulders to:

8.3.1. Create a Healthy Environment of Learning

Teachers should create a healthy learning environment in all learning classes, mainly in writing. As writing is both a productive and creative activity, a motivating environment should be installed, encouraging students to take part in all phases of the writing task and write about all types of topics. The latter, however, should be engaging and up to date, providing learners with the opportunity to express themselves about all prompts.

8.3.2. Motivate Students to Write

Teachers should motivate and encourage their students to participate in classroom activities and interact with each other to make learning enjoyable and more beneficial. In this respect, Gardner affirm that motivation "involves four aspects; a good effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal, and a favourable attitude toward the activity in question" (Gardner, as cited in Gass and Selinker, 2001, p. 35). Nevertheless, some learners remain reluctant toward

the writing activity and exhibit deficient levels and no concrete improvement. Teachers should not neglect these cases and persist in encouraging them through different ways like constructive feedback, assisted writing, or involving them in group work to interact with their peers and voice with them what they cannot in their teacher's presence. The traditional writing class should also be substituted by a writing workshop wherein students are encouraged to write about a diversity of topics and dispose of their writings on posters, allowing the class members to read for each other and provide feedback.

8.3.3. Provide Different Types of Feedback

Feedback constitutes an essential element of developing students' writing. Teachers should concentrate on providing constructive feedback on the different drafts. The teacher should not provide feedback on every single mistake. On the opposite, he has to be selective; for example, he may provide feedback on each draft about only one type of error to avoid hindering students' learning process with harsh remarks and red-inked notes.

8.3.4. Real-life and up-to-date Topics

The writing topics should be varied, allowing students to express themselves in different ways and manipulating their linguistic skills with their learning skills and strategies. Likewise, they need to stimulate learners to make use of different types of strategies. Learners should be interested in practising the writing activities. They need to be exposed to topics which challenge their curiosity and stimulate their critical thinking. The topics should bridge the gap between real-life contexts and learners. In other words, the learners' needs and interests should be considered, such as their likes and dislikes. They need to be given motivating tasks to write about them. "To get a person to think in a foreign language and to use it in communication, he must be given something serious to think about" (Diller, as cited in Lengo, 1986, p. 43)

Motivation and interest are significant factors in the learning process. Learners would write better if they are interested in the topic or when they have what to say about the topic. Thus, the linguistic package is significant.

8.3.5. Promoting Writing through Integration of the Skills

Skills integration is a very important in the teaching of foreign languages, as it helps the development of students' communicative skills

8.3.5.1. Coordination between the Writing Course Teachers and Reading Teachniques Course Teachers

Since reading is one of the pre-writing activities many scholars advocate as a reliable strategy for ideas generation and vocabulary growth, coordination among teachers of the writing course and their colleagues in charge of the R.T. course should organise regular coordination sessions and come up with activities used interchangeably. Writing activities can be created out of texts, short stories, or even books and novels dealt with during the R.T. course. Doing so would save much time as learners would not spend time looking for ideas or related vocabulary. On the contrary, this technique would permit them to reinvest the vocabulary they learned and get it into their long-term memory, thus becoming part of their personnel linguistic package.

8.3.5.2. Coordination between the Writing Course Teachers and the Listening and Speaking Course Teachers

Regular coordination sessions should be organised among teachers of writing and those in the Listening and Speaking course. Consulting each other would allow the creation for some writing prompts about topics already heard about and spoken about during the S.L. course. In this way, learners are going not only to write about topics they already mastered in terms of vocabulary and ideas, but also they would avoid mother tongue and native culture interference and influence. On the opposite, their writings would sound more English and native-like.

8.4. Promoting Pre-writing Strategies

Promoting pre-writing strategies can be made through a set of classroom actions

8.4.1. Encouraging Interaction and Group Work

Getting started can be difficult, and students have been observed in almost all writing classes to be reluctant toward the writing task. Interviewees in this research have argued to find more difficulties while starting. Accordingly, teachers must create heterogeneous subgroups to encourage student interaction and promote group work. Students are divided into smaller groups and encouraged to start a discussion about the topic at hand.

8.4.2. Planning

Students make different plans for the assignments before they start writing. These plans can be compared and discussed in groups before writing takes place.

8.4.3. Questioning

In small groups, ask as many questions as possible about the writing prompt. The idea is to generate many questions about the topic at hand. This helps students focus on the audience and consider what the reader needs to know. The answers to these questions will form the basis for the composition.

8.4.4. Discussion and Debate

Debates help students to examine issues critically on the one hand. On the other hand they encourage problem solving and creative thinking. Accordingly, engaging students in debates would help them generate ideas in relation to topics they are to write about and create links between ideas and words that make concepts meaningful. As such, the teacher organises a mini-debate about a given writing topic to help students generate ideas positively and

encouragingly through the discussion. Thus, student writers would find many ideas to write about

8.5. The Need for a more Promising Syllabus

As the actual syllabus with both versions proved its ineffectiveness in improving students writing proficiency and developing their communicative competence in writing, the need to change towards a more promising syllabus seems to be urgent. This chapter presents some implications and recommendations to syllabus designers and the whole teaching staff to improve the unsatisfactory pedagogical situation.

8.5.1. The Current Syllabus

The current syllabus presents a language content displayed in two semesters. Wherein the first one, students are exposed to grammar lessons dealing with types of phrases, types of clauses, types of sentences, sentence problems, and punctuation rules. Students are introduced to the notion of paragraph only during the second semester, which is generally shorter than the first one and does not allow for many practice opportunities, nor does it offer much time for teachers to provide valuable feedback to their students' portfolios. Furthermore, because of time constraints, students do not go through more than two types of paragraphs on which they pass their final examination. During the second year, they find it challenging to catch up with the new syllabus.

Worth to mention that much emphasis is put on developing students' metacognitive skills through planning and revising together with cognitive skills involved in thinking about the topic

8.5.2. A Proposition of a New Syllabus

Lier (1996) proposed three possible options of the relationships between theory, research, and practice, as displayed in the Figure 38. The first of which is research being at the

service to theory, the second one is theory and research impose teaching approaches and methods on practitioners. The last option, according to Lier, is a pedagogical situation in which theory, research and practice are in constant interplay.

As far as the teaching-learning setting is concerned, the prevailing situation seems to be the first one where research has always been seen as a service to theory. Option II, however, "represents a more dogmatic or top-down situation in which theorists (fuelled by research) dictate to practitioners what they 'ought to know and what they ought to be doing, learning, or unlearning" (Lier, 1996, p.30). However, Lier neglected the two former views. He advocated option III, in which the three aspects, namely theory, research, and practice, are in balance, allowing free-flowing communication and interaction between them. Accordingly, the result of such a balanced view would be clearly expressed in the harmonious networking of academics, teachers, syllabus designers, material developers, and all those engaged in the field of education. Figure 38 illustrates the relationship between theory, research, and practice as proposed by Lier.

Figure 39

Relationships between Theory, Research, and Practice. (Lier, 1996, p. 30)
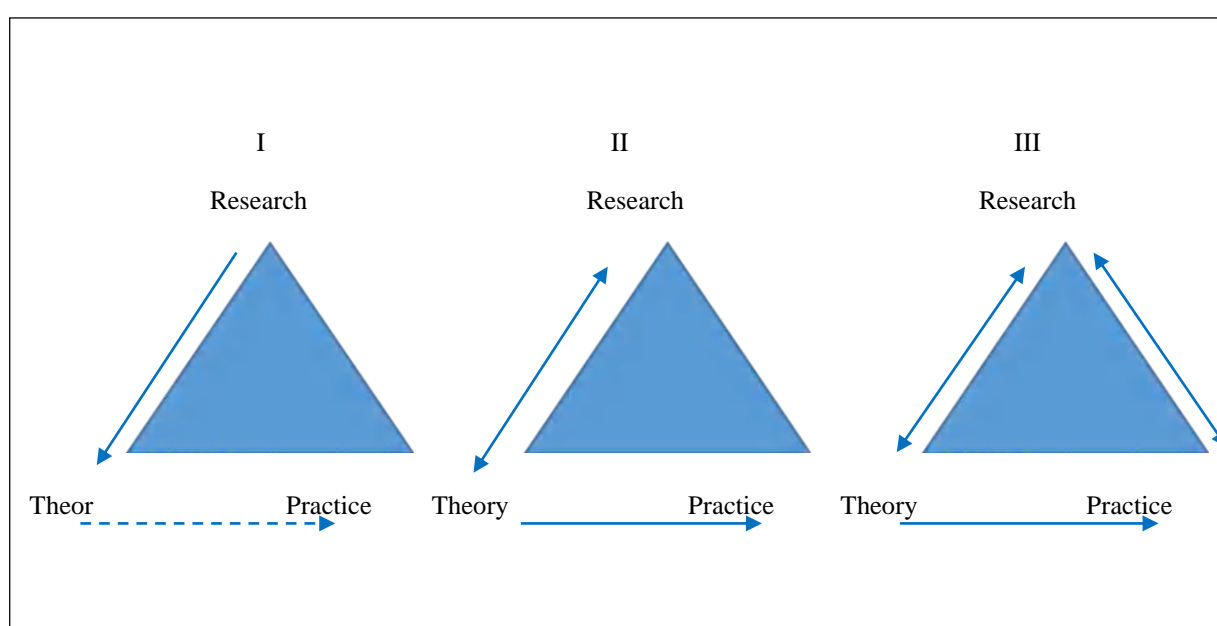
In higher education, the teacher as a researcher works with a model that may look more like a continuing spiral, where practice, research and theory continually reinforce one another.

The respondents to the questionnaire admitted that the syllabus contributed to the negative pedagogical situation both students and learners are facing. In this research, results of the questionnaire analysis congruent to those driven by the experiment findings backed by the interview informants' views about what they gained from their short experience with the strategies-based instruction, encouraged the researcher to propose a new syllabus susceptible to meet students' and teachers' expectations. Table 16 provides a new proposed writing syllabus for first-year students.

Table 16

The New Proposed Syllabus

The Proposed Syllabus; Firs-year Writing Course Syllabus

1st-year common core/ writing

Writing

Annual Hourly Volume : 135 hrs. Cohefficient 2

Description of the Course and Course Objectives

Introduction to the English Paragraph and its Different Parts

- Different parts of the English paragraph; topic sentence, supporting sentences, concluding sentence

- Different types of the English paragraph (briefly)

- Unity and coherence

- The simple sentence

- Sentence problems; Choppy sentences

- Punctuation rules; the full stop, the question mark, the exclamation mark

The Process of Writing

- Stages of the process approach to writing; planning, drafting, revising

Planning; strategies of the pre-writing stage; brainstorming, clustering, free-writing, listing/ outlining

  - Drafting stage

  - Revising stage; preparing appropriate checklists

The Narrative Paragraph

- The chronological paragraph

- Definition of a chronological paragraph

- Cohesive markers

- The tree-diagram planning strategy

- Planning a chronological paragraph

- Drafting a chronological paragraph

- Revising a chronological paragraph/ creation of a checklist

- Capitalisation, colon, dash

- Sentence problems; run on, comma splice

- The process paragraph

- Identification of the process paragraph

- Sentence connectors

- The listing planning strategy

- Planning process paragraphs

- Drafting process paragraphs

- Revising and editing process paragraphs

- Compound sentences

- Punctuation rules; the semi-colon

 - Sentence problems; faulty subordination

The Descriptive Paragraph

- The spatial development

- Identifying descriptive paragraphs

- Sentence connectors

- Brainstorming strategy

- Planning descriptive paragraphs

- Drafting/ revising descriptive paragraphs

- Complex sentences

- Adverbial clauses

- Relative clauses

- Punctuation rules; the comma

- Sentence problems; stringy sentences

The Portrait

- Identifying portrait paragraphs

- Sentence connectors

- Free-writing strategy

- Planning portrait paragraphs

- Drafting/ revising portrait paragraphs

- Phrases; noun, prepositional, adjectival, adverbial, infinitive

- Punctuation rules, the parenthesis, square brackets

- Sentence problems; the fragment

 The Expository Paragraph Developed by Examples

- Introduction to the expository paragraph

- Sentence connectors

- Planning expository paragraphs

- Drafting / revising drafts of expository paragraphs

- Compound-complex sentences

- Sentence problems; parallelism

- Review of punctuation rules

The Comparison and Contrast Paragraph

- Introduction to comparison and contrast paragraphs

- Sentence connectors

- Planning comparison and contrast paragraphs

- Drafting / revising comparison contrast paragraphs

- Compound-complex sentences

- Sentence problems; wordiness

- Review of sentence types

Conclusion

The objective of the present research in SBI, which targets metacognitive learning strategies is to promote participants' self-regulation and to monitor their cognitive learning strategies to reach a higher level of writing proficiency and enhance learners' awareness about the importance and usefulness of the LLS. Applying metacognitive pre-writing strategies in the writing class is an effective way to make learners more aware and self-directed about their thinking processes. It is also helpful to teachers to understand more their students' problems imposed by the intricacies of writing.

Learners' autonomy can be attained in a democratic framework that depends enormously on a number of agents in the teaching/learning environment, namely syllabus designers, material developers, teachers, and learners. As the teacher is the most important agent in the leaching / learning situation, it falls on his shoulders to create a healthy environment of learning and help learners achieve their cognitive and metacognitive goals. Consequently, this chapter provides a set of recommendations mainly to teachers to improve the current pedagogical

situation. The chapter culminates with the researcher's proposition of a new writing course content syllabus.

General Conclusion

The pre-writing stage has been considered, within EFL research studies, and more precisely within the writing class, very significant as it enhances learners' writing performance and enables them to take risks with the language, they do not have a clear vision about on the one hand. On the other hand, they plan, outline, and organise their ideas with a little idea about what the final product would look like. In parallel, during this stage, students can discuss with the teacher and their peers or work individually to prepare themselves for writing.

The review of previous studies has shown that the pre-writing stage has a crucial place within the writing process. It may even be seen by some scholars and practitioners as the most important phase, as it facilitates the subsequent phases. Furthermore, it is of paramount importance for writers, as it is supposed to improve their writing skills, reduce anxiety and promote their self-confidence. However, since the strategies employed in this stage are not innate for a large portion of students, they need to be learned in artificial teaching/ learning situations. Moreover, students are believed to develop their writing skills and communicative competence if they are explicitly trained to use metacognitive pre-writing strategies and employ them in their writing activities.

Considering the pre-writing strategies, it can be observed that they stimulate students' thinking and enable them to create ideas and organise raw material in a logical order. Essentially good pieces of writing do not fall from the sky. On the contrary, they result from a successful process that begins with thinking. Since writing is a way of expressing thinking; consequently, good writing comes from good thinking. Before students start writing something, it is reasonable to offer them the opportunity to think and have sober reflection about the topic in question. This is a vital stage at which students activate prior knowledge and skills to apply to the writing task and find out what information they already have and still need.

However, students usually do not know how to exploit this stage, and the ideas obtained at this level may not be directly related to the topic; consequently, students fall into the trap of non-unified written production. Therefore, their urgent need is not to be acquainted with enough time to think, nor are they in need of explicit writing instruction. On the opposite, they need explicit direct instruction on how to go through different pre-writing strategies to organise their ideas into a precise order and monitor their thinking. By mastering the planning strategies, students are involved in the writing process from the beginning, can improve their composition content, and explore more appropriate ways to express themselves.

Strategies-based instruction on pre-writing strategies is intended to help students to move from the product-based-approach to the process-product based approach and master the most critical stage of the process approach. According to 67% of the questionnaire respondents, planning is the most important phase within the writing process.

The students' most critical phase is idea creation and information sharing. Thereby, the present research work proposes a SBI workshop in a set of pre-writing strategies namely brainstorming, clustering, listing, and free writing to enable them create ideas individually or in a group. All students can expect to have a rich resource to draw upon for their writing in the first phase. In the second phase, students are taught how to arrange the ideas they have created in a meaningful outline and use the appropriate expressions available to develop their ideas in the way they desire. Finally, when learners succeed in extending their use of the planning strategies to new situations by choosing the most suitable one to be applied to the different writing assignments proposed by the writing teacher or other course teachers, it can be then assumed that they reached a stage of both metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive awareness.

Accordingly, the CALLA model developed by Chamot et al., 1990 has been adopted by the researcher. This model has been chosen among others because it suits the research design and objectives. The CALLA model is an instructional model that integrates current educational trends in standards, content-based language instruction, learning strategies, and portfolio assessment. It prioritizes content, language, and learning strategies. Technically speaking, it contains five instructional recursive phases as a layout of SBI workshop.

The first phase is preparation, in which students are put in the position of activating their cognitive faculty. Students are first given a paragraph to read and then, with their teacher's help, draw the initial plan the writer has used to write the paragraph at hand. At this stage, students discover the notion of planning strategies. Afterwards, the teacher engages them in the second phase of the model, namely the presentation in which she presents a theoretical background of the planning strategies and their importance to developing writing proficiency mirrored in a unified paragraph with a correct topic sentence supporting details. Then, the teacher provides a list of planning strategies and focuses on four, brainstorming, clustering, free-writing, and listing. Students are then engaged in practice followed by evaluation that takes place in three forms, personal evaluation using a planning checklist to evaluate their outlines, then, a writing checklist, prepared by the students with the help of their teacher, to evaluate their written drafts. Afterwards, students exchange their papers to go through a peer review, and finally, the teacher collects the papers to correct them and give her feedback on the final products. Finally, students are invited to expand their knowledge about the planning strategies to other contents like linguistics and literature and come up with correctly written paragraphs built upon well-constructed plans/ outlines. The learning journey starts with a heavy scaffolding, which is reduced throughout time. Students are masters of the class, while the teacher, instead of dominating the class, works as a facilitator or guide for developing students' potential. In this way, students become more self-confident and productive.

As this research, through quantitative and qualitative research paradigms, attempts to study the effect of explicitly training students to use metacognitive writing strategies, argued by respondents of the preliminary questionnaire, to improve their writing proficiency, it is necessary to analyse their written products to evaluate the experiment's success. However, as the whole research design yields to the process-product approach, it is more logical to accompany it with a study of the internal mental process through which learners go to take decisions about their writing. Hence, encouraging learners to verbalise their decisions and share their experiences would benefit their novice peers.

There was a significant difference in the sample groups' performance at the level of the three writing traits; to name Topic Sentence, Unity and Ideas Development, and Paragraph Organisation. The experimental group made noticeable improvement in both UID and PO. However, the first writing trait, TS, did not witness any improvement. The improvement of students' writing in the two writing dimensions influenced their ovelall writing skills. That is to say, the writing macro-rhetorical skills and patterns are in constant interplay and influence each other. In this respect Robinson (2001) explained that the writing dimensions are mutually supportive in a way that an improvement in one writing dimension may lead to an improvement in another writing dimension. This enabled the researcher to confirm the general hypothesis, which states that: If ENSC. students were explicitly taught pre-writing strategies integrated into the writing course content and embedded within the regular teaching material, their level of writing proficiency would be improved in their overall writing performance.

Two other hypotheses were also confirmed. The first of which states that: If ENSC. students were taught pre-writing strategies and trained on how and when to use them, they would be able to write unified paragraphs. The second is formulated as follows: If pre-writing strategies were taught at two distinct levels, namely planning and outlining, students could write

different types of paragraphs with well-organised and logically ordered supporting details. However, the same training has no significant effect on respondents' ability to write adequate topic sentences. Thus, the research did not succeed to confirm the following hypothesis: If ENSC. teachers organised strategies-training workshops in using pre-writing strategies for their students, the latter would be able to produce English paragraphs with well-stated and original topic sentences. This culture-based-macro rhetorical pattern needs to be subject of further research.

In a key-informant semi-structured interview, outliers reported so many gains in terms of the writing skills, metacognitive, and affective skills. They expressed the impact of SBI on raising their awareness about the importance of the planning strategies and the causal relationship with the improvements of their writing quality, especially in terms of the two writing traits. Informants liked the four planning strategies they were taught, namely mind-mapping, listing, brainstorming, and free-writing. However, each time one strategy proved to be superior to the others, depending on the rhetorical pattern of writing topics and the different writing contexts. For instance, when participants wished to achieve a high level of organisation of ideas, or a systematical outline, they would prefer mind-mapping. yet, they would decide on brainstorming to ensure more good ideas or overcome communication breakdowns caused by their vocabulary shortage.

Informants reported their ability to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning and their ability to transfer their ability to plan and to write to other learning situation inside and outside the School. They also reported different affective gains, such as their high self-confidence related to the demystification of the myth of writing, which resulted in their improvement in the writing skills and lowering the level of anxiety.

In summary, the results from the interview are congruent with the experiment's results and the questionnaire's. Applying the pre-writing strategies, participants generated a more significant number of ideas about the topics to write about and organised them according to the demands of the paragraph type. The main reason was the use of different techniques, namely mind mapping, brainstorming, listing and free-writing In other words, engaging students in the pre-writing strategies encourages their active involvement in the classroom activity. By making them also aware of which strategies can be used for different tasks and, then, letting them try out what works best for a given writing assignment in the writing class or elsewhere, students gain besides to linguistic knowledge, metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive awareness, motivation, and self-confidence, which result in their ability to monitor their learning. Furthermore, pre-writing strategies make students aware of their strengths and weaknesses. Being involved in the different planning strategies, students activate their schemata about diverse tasks and keep them mentally alert and direct them to act no more as a novice but as an expert and overcome their limitations and think about how to improve their writing ability in future practice.

The implementation of this strategy is not a big challenge for teachers; however, the critical principle may lie in the teacher's job. It is simple but needs caution whether the teacher can make it friendly, fun and comfortable in the classroom. Succeeding in doing this, teaching pre-writing strategies would become a delightful step in composing and a valuable tool for generating appropriate and relevant ideas for many students.

As such, before conducting Strategy-based Instruction in any of the language skills or aspects, teachers need to read a lot and attend workshops and conferences with prominent figures in the domain to learn how to make strategy training easy, beneficial, enjoyable, and transferable to new learning situations both inside and outside the classroom.

➢ **Limitations of the Study**

As there is no perfect research work, and although this study has got some encouraging results, there are still some limitations because of some restrictions and constraints. The present study is a tentative one, so it is far from perfection owing to some objective and subjective limitations.

❖ First, the study has somewhat limited sample size and limited training length, which might have diminished the generalisation of the research results. Only 40 students from only one teaching institution (ENSC) were randomly chosen as subject samples which is a quite limited and far from typical population, as students enrol in ENSC with high average at the standardized test BAC; thus, can't represent the general conditions of EFL students in all the Algerian universities.

❖ Second, the training period, which lasted only nine weeks, was not enough to conduct a proficient training on metacognitive strategies, as the latter require much endeavour. Third, in this study, the researcher did not take other factors into account like students' individual style of cognition, affection, motivation, or social environment, etc.

❖ Fourth, this study only explores the effectiveness of metacognitive strategies-training and students' writing performance. The relationship between metacognitive strategies and English proficiency is somehow ignored.

❖ Fifth, the interview was also administered two weeks after the post-test took place; therefore, this may also have limited the number of viewpoints given about the use of outlining and planning since information could be lost due to a distance in the time as participants were asked to answer the interview questions retrospectively.

➢ **Suggestions for Further Research**

This research is not a breakthrough but a mere contribution in the field of language teaching/ learning research, more precisely teaching writing in EFL classes. It succeeded to answer some research questions but failed to answer one and revealed some short comings. Thus, it leaves a number of venues open for further research studies.

✓ The first suggested research would be to explore the causes behind students' failure to write correct and logical topic sentences.

✓ Second, in future research, there is a need to have a larger subject sample size and longer training period. The more subjects and the longer the experiment lasts, the greater reliability and validity it will have.

✓ Third, unlike the present study which only investigates the effect of metacognitive strategy training on writing performance, later research can focus on the impacts on overall English proficiency; and the training can also be carried out in other aspects including vocabulary, listening, speaking and reading so that the influence of metacognitive strategies can be maximally highlighted.

✓ Fourth, future research should be directed to investigate the effect of metacognitive strategies on other writing traits like coherence, cohesion, and style and quality of writing.

✓ Fifth, many different variables of cultural background, students' individual personality, style of cognition, affection, motivation, or social environment, learning style, attitudes and beliefs may affect the use of metacognitive strategies, so future training should take these variables into account and it should be thoroughly investigated with other learning strategies together, such as cognitive strategies as well as social strategies.

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Appendices

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Appendices

Appendices

Appendix 1

The Writing Course Syllabus

1.1.The Actual (Official) 1st Year Writing Course Syllabus

Writing

(Annual Hourly Volume : 135hrs. Coefficient 2)

- Process of writing.
    - Brief introduction to the paragraph.
        - Planning.
        - Drafting.
        - Revising.
- Types of construction
    - Phrase.
    - Clause.
    - Sentence
- Subordination – Co-ordination – Capitalization.
- Outlining.
    - vertical list.
    - tree diagram.
- The English paragraph.
    - indentation and topic sentence.
- The narrative paragraph.
    - (process – Chronology) the semicolon.
- Guide writing.
    - (The narrative paragraph) the colon.
- The descriptive paragraph.
    - spatial development.

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- Free writing.
    - punctuation review.
- Expository paragraph by examples.
- Parallelism.
    - Vocabulary growth.
- Summarizing and paraphrasing.
- Free writing activities.
- Wordiness.
    - The apostrophe.
- Note taking.
- Sentence openings.
- Spelling.
- Parentheses – Dash – End Marks.
- Connectives.
- Punctuation review.
    - Comma splice ; run-on sentences.
- Vocabulary Growth.
    - Using idioms.
- Force in writing.
    - General review.

1.2.The Actual (Unofficial) 1st Year Writing Course Syllabus

1ˢᵗ Year

Common Core / Writing

Chapter one: Structure of the English sentence

Types of constructions

- Finite verb
- Phrase
- Clause
- Sentence

Types of phrases (noun, prepositional, gerund, …)

Types of clauses (Dependent, Independent)

Types of sentences

- Simple
- Compound
- Complex
- Compound-complex

Type of dependent clauses

- Adverbial
- Relative
- Noun
- Conditional

Punctuation

Parallelism

Wordiness

Sentence problems (Choppy, Stingy, Run-on, Faulty subordination,…)

Chapter two: Introduction to the paragraph

What is a paragraph?

Structure of the paragraph

- Topic sentence
- Supporting sentences

- Concluding sentence

Paragraph outline

Paragraph unity

Paragraph coherence

Chapter Three: Types of paragraphs

1. Narrative paragraph
2. Descriptive paragraph
3. Expository paragraph developed by Examples
4. The Comparison and contrast paragraph

Appendix 2

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear Teacher,
You are kindly invited to answer this questionnaire. It is part of a research project carried out at the Department of English at ENS- Constantine on the effect of strategy-based instruction to enhance students' writing proficiency. There is no correct/ wrong answer; the information you provide will be of great help to the researcher to achieve the objective of the investigation at hand. Your responses will remain anonymous. Thank you in advance.

I. **Background Information**

1. What academic qualifications do you hold?

   a. Master's degree □

   b. Doctorat degree □

   c. Others □

2. How long have you been teaching at the university?

   How long did you teach/ have you taught written expression to first-year students?

II. **ENSC students' Level in Writing**

3. Out of your experience as a teacher, a supervisor, and examiner at the school, how do you rate the writing proficiency of the majority of students'

   a. Very good □

   b. Good □

   c. Average □

   d. Poor □

   e. Very poor □

4. In case you think the students' level in writing is unsatisfactory, it is so because of:

   a. The inadequate teaching approach/ method □

   b. Teachers' personality and teaching style that does not match learners' expectations □

c. Students' lack of motivation and interest in writing as a subject matter □

d. Teaching conditions: lack of class practice opportunities due to time constraints □

e. Inadequate Syllabus □

f. Other, please, specify: …………………………………………………………..

5. Out of your experience as a teacher of writing, when your students write, they find more difficulties at the level of:

a. Style and ideas. □

b. Syntax and sentence structure □

c. Both □

III. Teaching Writing Using the Process Approach

6. Which approach do you adopt to teach writing in your EFL writing class?

a. Product approach □

b. Process approach □

c. Process-product approach □

d. Others,………………………………………………………………………….

7. Do you make your students go through the different stages of the process approach ?

a. Yes □

b. No □

8. In your opinion, are all the stages equally important?

a. Yes □

b. No □

9. Order the following writing stages according to their importance from the most to the least important

   1= most important,…….4= least important

a. Planning ………….

b. Drafting ………….

c. Revising …………..

d. Editing ………….

10. Have your students been introduced to planning strategies during their previous instruction

a. Yes ☐

b. No ☐

c. I have no idea ☐

IV.   Training Students to Use the Pre-writing Strategies

11. As a teacher of writing, how do you evaluate the importance of prewriting strategies

a. Extremely important ☐

b. Important ☐

c. Moderately/ of average importance ☐

d. Slightly important / of little importance ☐

e. Not important at all ☐

12. Does the writing syllabus include mentions of these strategies?

a. Yes ☐

b. No ☐

13. In case the writing syllabus does not include these strategies / If your answer to question 13 is no, do you teach theoretical background about planning strategies as a personnel initiative?

a. Yes ☐

b. No ☐

14. In your opinion, should the planning strategies appear in the official syllabus?

a. Yes ☐

b. No ☐

Why?

15. Do you believe that embedding writing strategies both implicitly and explicitly within the actual teaching would help students improve their writing?

a. Yes ☐

b. No   ☐

c. I have no idea

Why?

Would exposing students to explicit strategy instruction in planning strategies be

beneficial to them?

a. Yes   ☐

b. No   ☐

c. I have no idea

16. Have you ever conducted strategy training in your EFL class
    a.Yes
    b.No

19. Do you have any further feedback to add?

Thank you

Appendix 3

Outliers' Interview

Objective of the Interview

This interview is part of a research project carried out at the Department of English at ENS- Constantine on the effectiveness of strategies-based instruction to enhance students' writing proficiency. There is no correct/ wrong answer; the information you provide will be of great help to the researcher to achieve the objective of the investigation at hand. Your responses will remain anonymous. Thank you in advance.

Section One: Describing Previous Experience with the Use of Strategies, in general and Planning Strategies, in particular.

Q1: How did you use to approach the writing task?

Q2: what prior knowledge about learning strategies, in general and the planning strategies, in particular did you hold?

Q3: During your previous education, what instruction did you have on the pre-writing strategies?

Q4: What did you do before writing? Describe your thinking processes

Section two: Evaluation of the Treatment Phase

Q5: How did you deal with the pre-test? How did you respond to the assignment, and how much time did it take you to write your first paragraph at the university level?

Q6: Which phase was the most challenging for you: planning or learning about planning?

Q7: What is your impression about SBI you had?

Q8: What is the impact of SBI you benefited from on writing good paragraphs in terms of unity, paragraph organisation, and topic sentence?

Section Three: Verbalising Personal Experience

Q9: Describe in details how you proceed with planning using the strategy you like most.

Q10: Which is more challenging, planning/ generating ideas or outlining/organising?

Q11: When you start drafting, how often do you refer back to the outline to revise the different drafts?

Q.12: Would you describe how do you come up with the most appropriate plan and outline for the paragraph you are to write.

Section Four, Evaluation and Recommendations of Learners and Teachers

Q13. What are the strengths of this instruction?

Q14: What are the weaknesses of this instruction?

Q. 15. What do you recommend to written expression teachers?

Q. 16. What do you recommend to first-year students?

Thank you

Appendix 4

Texts used in the outlining phase

Text 2:   **Similarities between Work and School**

Work and school are very much alike in at least five ways. First, both require an early start. Going to work requires getting up early to avoid the traffic rush, and going to school requires getting up early to be assured of a parking space. Second, promptness is important in both places. Being at work on time pleases the employer; being in class on time pleases the instructor. Third, both involve quotas. A job imposes various quotas on a worker to ensure maximum production--for example, a certain amount of boxes must be filled on an assembly line, or a designated number of calls must be made by a telephone solicitor. Likewise, school imposes quotas on a student to ensure maximum effort--for instance, a certain number of essays must be written in an English composition class or a specific number of books must be read in an American Novel course. Fourth, both work and school deadlines must be met. On the job, the boxes would have to be filled and the telephone calls made by a certain time; in a class, the essays would have to be submitted and the books read by a certain date. Finally, both work and school benefit society. Workers produce useful and entertaining items for people to use, such as refrigerators and televisions. Similarly, students prepare themselves to enter fields like medicine and law, fields which serve society. It is not surprising that work and school share these five similarities, since one of the purposes of school is to prepare a student for the job of his choice.

Text 3: **Racists**

A racist can be defined as a prejudiced person who discriminates because of another individuals outer appearance or race. Racism can all start as a child being raised with negative thoughts, or can be brought upon by personal reasons. For example, growing up in a racist family will give adolescent awful thoughts about a race without even experiencing how they really feel first hand. A different example of how one might unfortunately choose to be racist would be if a person visits a country, and a negative event took place; this person might become racist toward a group of people that lived there all because of one personal event that happened. This is not a type of person that treats people like how they want to treated, but it is a form of hatred toward a set of people. This kind of person might use mental abuse, or they can even get physically abusive toward the kind of race they are discriminate towards. They also can have a type of attitude that thinks that they are better than certain groups and cultures. Racism is a negative concept that put down people for no real reason. Racism is a form of ignorance and inequity and only one could wish for this discrimination to stop all together in order for everybody to get along.

Text 4: **Amtracks**

An amtrack is not a boat; however, it is a military vehicle that moves on the ocean as well as on land. It's an armored vehicle that weighs twenty-six tons. An amtrack's job is to carry troops from ships off shore onto the beach in an amphibious assault. It's made out of aluminum, with steel suspension. It has a tracked suspension, much like a bulldozer. Its front end slopes upward toward the headlights in an effort to give it greater ground clearance. It's propelled on land by its tracked suspension; however, in the water it uses two water jets. It has a turret that holds a fifty caliber machine gun, and a forty millimeter, fully automatic, grenade launcher. It has a ramp on the back that can be raised

or lowered for the easy loading and unloading of troops. There is a door built into this ramp so that when the ramp is up, people can still get in and out through the back. It has three hatches behind the turret that can be opened to allow the dropping of supplies into the vehicle, or to allow embarked infantry a means of looking out. The driver looks out of a hatch on the front left side of the vehicle, while the troop commander sits just behind him. The vehicle commander, sits in the turret of the vehicle, and mans the machine guns. The amtrack is fully amphibious.

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Appendix 5

Paragraph Scoring Rubric.

Evaluation Criteria	C	E	M	L	A
Form and Layout	Paragraph is correctly formatted: -Presence of a title, indentation.-Absence of headers, numbers, and signs. **1,25**	Paragraph correctly formatted: -Presence of title and indentation. -No headers but frequent use of numbers and signs **1**	Paragraph written with: -title and indentation, - but contains headers, numbers , and signs **0,75**	Paragraph written: without a title and indentation, - but does not contain headers, numbers , and signs **0, 5**	Paragraph formatted in an incorrect manner: -Absence of title and indentation. -Presence of headers, numbers or signs **0,25**
Unity and ideas' development	Paragraph centered around a significant idea or topic. -clear, focused, and engaging with relevant vocabulary. **5**	Evident main idea with some support which may be general or limited **4**	Main idea may be cloudy because supporting details are too general **3**	Main idea may be confusing because supporting details are off-topic **2**	-Purpose and main idea may be unclear and cluttered by irrelevant details -May be unclear because paragraph has competing ideas **1**
Topic Sentence	-Interesting, original topic sentence; -reflecting thought and insight; -focused on one interesting main idea **2,5**	-Clearly stated topic sentence -presents one main idea. **2**	Presents one idea but which is too general or too specific **1,5**	-Ambiguous topic sentence which does not limit the idea **1**	Missing, invalid, or inappropriate topic sentence; main idea is missing. **0,5**
Paragraph Development	-Interesting, concrete details with rich and pertinent examples	-Examples and details relate to the topic and some explanation is included	-Insufficient number of details and examples that relate to the topic	-Sufficient number of examples and details that do relate to more than one idea	-Ideas not developed at all:-Insufficient, vague,

	and with explanations that relate to the topic. **2,5**	**2**	**1,5**	**1**	-or undeveloped examples and/ or details. **0,5**
Coherence/ Organization and Transitions	-Logical progression of supporting examples; Original transitions that structure the paragraph -Adequate use of pronouns and reference nouns **3,75**	Details are arranged in a logical progression; appropriate transitions; correct grammatical and lexical substitution **3**	Acceptable arrangement of examples (with minor errors) -Transitions may be weak. -Sometimes ambiguous word reference **2,25**	Acceptable arrangement of examples (with myriad errors) -Absence of/ abusive transitions -often use of ambiguous word reference **1,5**	-No discernible pattern of organization; -Unrelated details; no / inadequate transitions used; -misuse/ abusive use of pronouns **0,75**
Mechanics/ Cohesion	No spelling, punctuation or grammatical errors **2,5**	-A few spelling and punctuation errors, -Minor grammatical errors **2**	-Many spelling, punctuation or grammatical errors **1,5**	-A lot of spelling, and punctuation errors which do not hinder the meaning **1**	-So many spelling, punctuation and grammatical errors that interfere with the meaning **0,5**
Style/ Quality of Writing	- The piece was written in a high academic style and voice -Very informative and well-organized -Effective variation in sentence patterns **2,5**	-The piece was written in an appealing style and voice -Somewhat informative and organized -Lacks variety in length and sentence structure **2**	-The piece has a simple style or voice -Gives some new information but poorly organized -Common simple sentence pattern used. Several sentences begin the same way **1,5**	-The piece has an uninteresting style or voice -Gives some new information but very poorly organised -No sentence variation Incorrect sentence structure **1**	-The piece has no style or voice -Gives no new information and very poorly organized -Often choppy monotonous sentence patterns -Frequent run-on sentences -Some sentence fragment **0,5**

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Scoring Guide
Complete= All Features Present   **Extensive**= Most Features Present   **Moderate**= Some Features Present
Limited = Few Features Present   **Absent**= No Features Present

Appendix

Pre and Post-test Paragraphs

Appendix 6.1: Examples of the Experimental Group Paragraphs

S.17   pre-test

first year, G3o1.

The strongest weapon we can use against AIDS is knowledged of the way it spreads. In one way, AIDS can easily destroy the body's ability to fight infection; therefore, we should look for the main reason of this illness. In another way, we have to make the medical tests and anlysis obligatory. for escomple, doctors can vist same public places and try to convince people about the importance of medical tests. Social medea and the press can play a main role in publishing the danger and the facts about the Aids and its reasons. indeed schools and every public place should at least contains medical instruction about this illness. To sum up, Knowing what the AIDS is can be saficiant to stopes it.

S 17. Post test   Gr. 04

- How to be successful in your relationships?

The ideal way to choose a friend or even to build a successful relationship is to know yourself well. First, you should know which genre of people are you. i.e are funny, calm, noisy. Second, you need to know your virtues, bad habits, weak and your strong points because they are the bases of any relationship. Third, you must make sure that you know yourself well, and don't try to imitate someone else in order to attract people. Then you have to love yourself and believe in it, that will make confidant. Finally, no matter you look, you should know that relationships are built because of personalities and well-known self, and not for the beauty of the body, and try to be trustworthy, honest, and optimistic. It just attract people toward you. I'm short, knowing yourself well is the key to succeed in your relationships.

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S4   pre. test

groupe : 01

Practice:

A United and coherent paragraph about weapon we can use against AIDS.

AIDS is a serious illness. It appear recently in some parts of the world. And the strongest weapon human can use against it is immaculateness, because after all we are the doctors of our selves. We must be careful about our health. For example, we ought to use individual things as well as tooth-brushes, razor blades, and so on, also we have to see doctors regularly to check our bodies. Health is a treasure which cannot. we must protect it from illnesses

Topic: How to prepare for an earthquake. Post 1.1

An earthquake is a destructive natural disaster so there are several things you can do to prepare for an earthquake before it happens, to reduce or minimize the damage in your home.
- You should turn off the gas, water, and electricty. also, don't leave heavy objects on shelves. Put furniture, cupboards, and appliances to the wall or floor. another thing be careful ~~of these~~ and follow the emergency plans ~~on the~~ ~~xxxx~~ If you are in a car stop and stay inside. and Finally stay calm! and don't move till the ground ~~xxx~~ stops shaking. (First essay)
draft

The paragraph:
An earthquake is a destructive natural disaster, So there are several things and steps you should follow in order to be prepared for an earthquake ~~&~~ To reduce or minimize the damage in your home and to be safe you should be ready before it happens. The first step, try to turn off all the sources of gas, water, and electricty because they may leak during the earthquake. The second step, don't leave heavy objects on shelves, and put furniture, cupboards, and appliances to the wall or floor. The third thing be careful and follow the emergency plans and if you are outside or in a car stop and stay inside. Finally, Stay calm! And don't move till the ground stops shaking.

Appendix 6.2: Examples of Control Group Achievements

SS2   pre-test

Free practice:

Write a paragraph about the following topic:

The strongest weapon we can use against AIDS is knowledge of the ways it spreads through. First of all AIDS can spread by illegal relashions between men and women. Second, when couple decide to get marry they neglect that it is possible that one of them could possess this illeness and he or she will pass it to his or her future children. Third people who go to give a volent blood for example in hospital they may use materials that they are not sterilized. Finally we can have animals like dogs, cats that live with us at home it could possess AIDS. To sum up we should know the ways to protect our self from this dangerous illeness.

post-test

The day of the result of the baccalaureat examination was unforgetable. The Minister of Education announced that the result will be at 20:00 next day. It was a long day, finally it is time. I was very afraid and stressed. My brother tried to see the result, but it was impossible because the site was hacqered. I was panic and my feet terrified. At 22:00 my cousin from France called and told that I got my exam with a good average and my family was very happy and proud of me and I was crying I don't know why but it was a mixed feelings. In conclusion it was a difficult and an unforgetable day in all my life.

SS 20   Pre-test

Avoiding Aids

The most appropriate way to avoid HIV is to have a strong awareness about the way it moves. First of all, we have to know that AIDS spread through direct contact with bodily fluids. Next, the virus moves through sexual contact with infected persons, which is the most common way. In addition, people should avoid transfusion of contaminated blood and blood products. Moreover, sharing inflected needles as in the case of intravenous drug abusers, which effect persons very fast. Furthermore, it can be transfered from inflected mother to her child through placenta. In short, once a person is effected, he will be unable to protect himself against any infections, the thing that contributed to kill over than twenty five million person all over the world; so, people should be aware

about the disease in order to avoid it.

5/20 post-test

A strong relationship

the best way to choose or to built a successful relationship with someone is to know about yourself. First of all, you have to know the type of personality you have, because it is the most important base in the construction of relationships. you should know whether you are strong or weak, an extrovert or an introvert in order to cohabit and live in harmony with the other part. Second, the nucleus of the relationships is sharing, So if you were a stingy person you won't get far in any relationship. thirdly, try to appoint what do you love and what do you hate; it is necessary to know the things that make you satisfied and happy and also the things that may disturbe you or sadden you. It helps a lot in choosing the right partener. Next, look for your weakness points and work on it, because the weaker you are the sooner people leave you. Then, try to figure out if you are able to cope with

the other part's situation, because if you are not patient enough, your relation would be ruined by time. After that, you be better identify whether you are a good communicator or listener, because people who own a listening skills would easelly make strong relationship and also good speakers, who are the leaders of relations. Also, you must determine whether you can control your anger or surrender to it, since getting into silly conflicts or saying unappropriate words which may destroy a relation of years. In short, you should know the nature of yourself in order to pick the right person that will fit you and build up a long term relationships.

Appendix 7

Strategy Planning Checklist

Planning Strategy Checklist

- My topic is clearly stated ☐

- My purpose is clearly defined ☐

- My audience is clearly targeted ☐

- My key points are clearly identified ☐

- My keywords will be working with my topic ☐

- I have planned enough details ☐

- My details follow a logical organization ☐

- I am organizing my information in a clear graphic organizer ☐

- It is too technical ☐

- Can anything be omitted that doesn't quite fit? ☐

- This plan will help me to clearly convey my message ☐

Appendix 8

Writing Checklist

Writing Checklist

Paragraph Form

➢ My paragraph has a title. ☐
➢ The title is representative. ☐
➢ The title is centered. ☐
➢ The first line is indented. ☐

Paragraph Organization

➢ My paragraph begins with a topic sentence and ends with a concluding sentence. ☐
➢ My topic sentence has both a topic and a controlling idea. ☐
➢ My paragraph is centered around a significant idea or topic, clear, focused, and engaging with relevant vocabulary. ☐
➢ All sentences relate to the topic. ☐
➢ Original transitions that structure the paragraph. ☐
➢ Adequate use of pronouns and reference nouns. ☐

Paragraph development

➢ My topic is supported by interesting, concrete details. ☐
➢ My topic is supported with explanations that relate to the topic. ☐
➢ My topic is supported with rich and pertinent examples. ☐
➢ The examples follow a logical progression of supporting examples. ☐

Punctuation, Capitalization, and spelling.

➢ I put a period after every sentence. ☐
➢ I used capital letters correctly. ☐
➢ I checked my spelling. ☐

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

Appendix

Examples of Portfolio Evaluation

AIDS is a very dangerous disease, and to fight it we have to know the way it spreads.

First, the human body gets this virus either by Injenction which contain blood of a sick person, or by Sexual connection or even shaking hands with sick persons.

Second, once the person got the virus, It begins to spread in all over the Organism starting by the cellules and blood.

third, the human body won't be able to defeat it unless we discover it earlier and we know the symptoms of it.

In short, the best way to stop or reduce a disease AIDs is to have knowledge about the way it spreads and how it works inside the human organism.

how many { §

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

How to study for a test:

Everyone's aim is to succeceed in his test and to do so you have to find a system to make your studies easier.

First, organize you study space; do not choose a dark cold room and avoid revising on bed, also try to arrange your room in order to feel at ease.

Second, use charts and diagrams the best thing that you can use is diagrams and charts to make things clear and easy to understand and to keep it in your mind. You can even use small pieces of paper to mark your own notes.

Third, assemble a study group. According to Duke university the most effective study group have 3 or 4 people and it really helps because you are going to share ideas and information with each other so you gain more knowledge and even your friends can explain the lesson to you better than your teacher.

As a conclusion, Start as soon as possible and don't let your studies get Accumulative

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

How to learn a new language.

Learning a new language is a passion and desire to most people who adores languages.

The First step to learn a new language is to set goals for what you want to acheve. For example : you have to pick the languge First of All and to be sure that you'll do whatever it takes to learn it.

The Second step, is to learn the right words, try to write the words you learn everyday and Pronounce them correctly. you can use the youtube channel to get more and more videos that may help you to achieve your goal.

the Third step, Start using the languge all day. Try to use it while talking to family members, to friends, and even to yourself just to make your languge better and better. and that comes only by practice. ? ? ? you can also Know about the culture of the languge and have a brief knowledge about it In shart, you can test yourself to know your level and do not forget to have fun.

How to plan a family Vacation

Planning for a family Vacation is a very pleased task we all enjoy doing it. First, you have to put your clothes, money and all the things you need in your bag. don't forget anything especially the small details like: teethbrush shampoo, soop ... ext

Second, make sure that you know the place that you going to. if you don't know try to check the internet before you visit that place at least to have a clear idea about the regions, monuments, family spaces ... ext ??

third, don't forget to define your budget because you can waste money unnecessary and the vacation can be more affordable than you think so make your expections to everything

To conclude, during all this planning to the family vacation do not forget to have fun and enjoy your vacation as much as possible

Revise for punctuation & capitalization

Our neighbour's burned house.

One of the most scored expriences in my life was the burning house of my grondmother's neighbour. I was at my grondmother's house. Everything was normal. Suddenly, I started looking at the flame coming from the neighbour's window. I started shouting and yelling to tell my family that there was something wrong. After few minutes, the flame covered the whole house and the spread all over the region. Then, we moved outside where we saw all the other neighbours setting on the floor. Then, one of the neighbours called the emergency. Next, the Fire men come and they stopped the fire and they took the neighbour to the hospital who was ~~reformldthe~~ unconscious. days after, the neighbour recovered and everyone was happy for him. However, this exprience will not be forgotten and I feel ofraid in each time I remember it.

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

How to Impress your boss:

Every worker nowaday is looking for his best satisfaction, but not all of them can achieve it because they don't know how to make it.

First, Do your job and do it as well as you can. of course your boss will get impressed and he'll give you complements. and what is more Joyfull then having complements from your boss.

Next, Be loyal to your boss and seek solutions to the Problems. always be faithfull to him and do not cheat him and try to find solution to fix all the Problems that you may have.

Then, Try to know your boss – try to know his favorite kind of employer, his favorite kind of workers personalities just get closer to him and find out his personality that will help you.

Also, make your boss' priorities. your priorities help him whenever you can and Act gentle and do not let him face the Problems alone but take the responsibility with him.

Finally, impressing your boss depends on your good behaviour, your good experience, your humble attitude, and your attractive Character and good job.

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

If you want to chose a friend or to built a successful relationship then you have to know your character. First, try to know to which category of people you belong for example, are you shy, nervous or calm ... in order to choose the suitable friend for you. Second, being gentel an honest can earn people's hearts and honesty is also the secret behind building successful relationships. Third, having a good attitude and a strong personality is also way to get a good friend. in short, the more you know about your self the sooner you got many friends and relationships.

Appendix 10

Participants' Scores in the Pre-test and Post-test- Scorer1 and Scorer

Group one		pre-test		scorer one				
	Form and layout	Unity and ideas development	Topic sentence	Paragraph developmentls	Coherence / organisation and transititions	Cohesion/ mechanics	Style/ quality of writing	Total points
Student 1	0	1	4	0,5	2,5	1,5	1	10,5
Student 2	0,5	4	1,5	1	2,5	1,5	1	12
Student 3	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	1,5	1,5	0,5	7
Student 4	0,5	2	0,5	0,5	1,5	1,5	2,5	9
Student 5	0,5	1	0,5	0,5	2,5	2	1	8
Student 6	0,5	1	1,5	1	1,5	2	1,5	9
Student 7	0,5	1	0,5	0,5	1	2	0,5	6
Student 8	0,5	4	1,5	0,5	2,5	2	1	12
Student 9	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	2,5	1,5	1	8,5
Student 10	0,5	2	1,5	1	1,5	0,5	0,5	7,5
Student 11	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	3	2	1	13,5
Student 12	0,5	2	1,5	1,5	2,5	0,5	1	9,5
Student13	2	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	14
Student 14	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	1,5	0,5	1	6,5
Student 15	0,5	0	0,5	0	1	0	0,5	2,5
Student 16	0,5	4	1	1,5	2,5	1,5	1,5	12,5
Student 17	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	1,5	0,5	1	6,5
Student 18	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	3	2	1,5	10
Student 19	0,5	1	0,5	0,5	1	1,5	1	6
Student20	0	0	0	1	1,5	0,5	0,5	3,5

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

Group one		pre-test		Scorer two				
	Form and layout	Unity and ideas development	Topic sentence	Paragraph develpment	Coherence / organisation and transititions	Cohesion/ mechanics	Style/ quality of writing	Total points
Student 1	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	2	1,5	13,5
Student 2	0,5	4	2	1	3	1,5	1,5	13,5
Student 3	0,5	2	2	1,5	1,5	0,5	1	9
Student 4	0,5	4	0,5	1	2,5	0,5	0,5	9,5
Student 5	0,5	4	1	1,5	2,5	0,5	1	11
Student 6	0,5	2	1,5	0	3	2	1,5	10,5
Student 7	0,5	2	1	1	2,5	0,5	0,5	8
Student 8	0,5	4	1,5	1	3	1,5	1,5	13
Student 9	0,5	2	1,5	0,5	1,5	0,5	0,5	7
Student 10	0,5	4	1,5	1	1,5	0,5	0,5	9,5
Student 11	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1,5	15
Student 12	0,5	2	1,5	1,5	1,5	2	1,5	10,5
Student 13	2	4	1	1,5	1,5	0,5	1	11,5
Student 14	0,5	1	1,5	1	2,5	0,5	1	8
Student 15	0,5	2	0,5	0	0	0,5	0,5	4
Student 16	0,5	5	1,5	2	3	2	1,5	15,5
Student 17	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	1,5	1,5	1	7,5
Student 18	1	1	1,5	0,5	3	2	1,5	10,5
Student 19	0,5	1	0,5	0,5	1,5	0,5	0,5	5
Student20	0	0	1,5	0,5	1,5	0,5	0,5	4,5

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

Group two		pre-test		Scorer one				
	Form and layout	Unity and ideas development	Topic sentence	Supportingdetails	Coherence / organisation and transititions	Cohesion/ mechanics	Style/ quality of writing	Total points
Student 1	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	12,5
Student 2	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	2,5	0,5	0,5	7
Student 3	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	2,5	0,5	0,5	7
Student 4	0,5	4	0,5	1,5	1,5	0,5	0,5	9
Student 5	0,5	2	1,5	1	1,5	0,5	0,5	7,5
Student 6	0,5	0	1,5	0	1,5	2	1	6,5
Student 7	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	12,5
Student 8	0,5	1	1,5	1,5	1,5	1,5	1	8,5
Student 9	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	1,5	1,5	0,5	7
Student 10	0,5	1	0,5	0,5	1,5	0,5	0,5	5
Student 11	0,5	0	0,5	0	1,5	0,5	0	3
Student 12	0,5	0	0	0,5	2,5	0,5	0	4
Student13	0,5	4	1,5	2	3,5	1,5	1,5	14,5
Student 14	0,5	0	1,5	0,5	1,5	0,5	0	4,5
Student 15	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	2,5	0,5	0,5	7
Student 16	0,5	4	1,5	0,5	1	0,5	0,5	8,5
Student 17	0,5	2	1,5	0,5	1	0,5	0,5	6,5
Student 18	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	1,5	0,5	0,5	10
Student 19	2	1	1,5	1,5	1,5	0,5	0	8
Student20	2	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	0,5	13,5

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

Group two		pre-test		Scorer two				
	Form and layout	Unity and ideas development	Topic sentence	Paragraph development	Coherence / organisation and transititions	Cohesion/ mechanics	Style/ quality of writing	Total points
Student 1	0,5	2	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	10,5
Student 2	0,5	2	1,5	1	2,5	0,5	1	9
Student 3	0,5	4	1	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	12
Student 4	0,5	4	1	1,5	1,5	0,5	0,5	9,5
Student 5	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	12,5
Student 6	0,5	1	1,5	0	3	2	1,5	9,5
Student 7	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1,5	13,5
Student 8	0,5	1	1,5	1,5	1,5	1,5	1	8,5
Student 9	0,5	2	1,5	1	2,5	0,5	0,5	8,5
Student 10	0,5	2	1	1	0	0,5	0,5	5,5
Student 11	0,5	0	1,5	1	1,5	0,5	0,5	5,5
Student 12	0,5	1	0	0,5	0	0,5	0,5	3
Student13	2	2	2	1,5	3	2	2	14,5
Student 14	0,5	1	1,5	0	0	0,5	0	3,5
Student 15	0,5	1	1,5	1	2,5	0,5	0,5	7,5
Student 16	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	0,5	0,5	11
Student 17	0,5	1	1,5	1,5	1,5	0,5	0,5	7
Student 18	0,5	2	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	10,5
Student 19	0,5	2	1	1	2,5	0,5	1	8,5
Student20	2	2	1,5	2	3	2	2	14,5

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

Group one		post-test			Scorer one				
	Form and layout	Unity and ideas development	Topic sentence	Supporting details	Coherence / organisation and transititions	Cohesion/ mechanics	Style/ quality of writing	Total points
Student 1	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	3	2	1,5	14
Student 2	2	4	1,5	3	1,5	1,5	1,5	15
Student 3	0,5	4	1	1,5	2,5	2	1	12,5
Student 4	0,5	4	1	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	12
Student 5	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	2	1	15
Student 6	2	4	1,5	2	3	2	2	16,5
Student 7	2	4	1	1,5	3	1,5	1,5	14,5
Student 8	2	4	1,5	2	3	1,5	1	15
Student 9	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1,5	13,5
Student 10	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1	14,5
Student 11	2	4	0,5	1,5	3	1,5	0,5	13
Student 12	0,5	4	1,5	1	2,5	2	1	12,5
Student13	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	2	1	15
Student 14	0,5	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	12,5
Student 15	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1,5	15
Student 16	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	2	1,5	15,5
Student 17	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	2	1,5	15,5
Student 18	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1	14,5
Student 19	2	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	14
Student20	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1	14,5

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

Group one / Group two	Form and layout	Unity and ideas development	Topic sentence	Paragraph developments	Coherence / organisation and transititions	Cohesion/ mechanics	Style/ quality of writing	Total points
Student 1	0,5 / 2	4 / 5	1,5 / 1	1,5	3 / 2,5	2 / 1,5	1,5	14 / 16
Student 2	0,5 / 2	4	1,5 / 0	1,5	2,5 / 1,5	1,5 / 0,5	1 / 0,5	11,5
Student 3	0,5 / 2	4 / 1	1,5	0,5	3 / 2,5	2,5	1,5 / 2,5	14
Student 4	0,5 / 2	4	1,5	1,5	3 / 2,5	2,5	1,5	14
Student 5	2	5 / 4	1,5	2 / 1,5	3 / 1,5	3,5	1,5	18
Student 6	2	4 / 2	2 / 0,5	1,5	3 / 1,5	0,5	1	12
Student 7	2	4 / 2	1,5	2 / 1,5	3 / 2,5	2,5	1,5	18
Student 8	1,5 / 2	4	1,5	1,5	3 / 2,5	2,5	1,5	14
Student 9	2	4 / 2	1,5	1,5	3 / 2,5	1,5	1,5	13
Student 10	2	4	1,5 / 0,5	1,5	3 / 1,5	1,5	1	13,5
Student 11	2	4 / 2	1,5	1,5	3 / 1,5	2,5	1,5	15,5
Student 12	1,5	4	1,5	2,5	3 / 1,5	2	1	13
Student 13	0,5 / 2	4 / 2	0 / 0,5	0,5 / 2	3 / 2,5	0,5 / 2	1 / 1,5	8,5 / 13,5
Student 14	1,5 / 0,5	4	1,5	1,5	3 / 2,5	1,5	1	12,5
Student 15	2	5 / 4	1,5	2 / 1,5	3 / 2,5	2 / 1,5	1,5	14,5 / 17
Student 16	2	4 / 2	1,5 / 0	1,5 / 0,5	3 / 1,5	0,5	1 / 1,5	12 / 7,5
Student 17	2	4	1,5	1,5	2,5 / 0	2,5 / 0,5	1,5	15,5 / 10,5
Student 18	2	4	1,5	1,5	2,5 / 1,5	1,5	1,5	14,5
Student 19	2	4 / 2	1,5	2 / 1	1,5	0,5	1,5	13 / 10
Student 20	2	4 / 2	1,5	2 / 1	1,5	0,5	1,5	13

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

Group two		post-test			Scorer two			
	Form and layout	Unity and ideas development	Topic sentence	Paragraph develpment	Coherence / organisation and transititions	Cohesion/ mechanics	Style/ quality of writing	Total points
Student 1	2	2	1	1,5	1	1,5	1	10
Student 2	0	2	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	1,5	10,5
Student 3	2	2	1,5	1,5	2,5	1,5	0,5	11,5
Student 4	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	0,5	0,5	13
Student 5	1	4	1,5	1	2,5	1,5	1	12,5
Student 6	2	2	0	1,5	2,5	1,5	1	10,5
Student 7	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	0,5	1	13,5
Student 8	2	4	1,5	2	3	3	1,5	17
Student 9	1	2	1,5	1	1,5	2	1,5	10,5
Student 10	1,5	4	1	1,5	2	1,5	1	12,5
Student 11	2	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	0,5	1	13
Student 12	2	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	0,5	1	13
Student13	2	2	1,5	1,5	2,5	0,5	0,5	10,5
Student 14	1,5	4	1,5	1	2	1,5	1,5	13
Student 15	2	4	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1	14,5
Student 16	1,5	4	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1,5	14,5
Student 17	2	4	0	1	2,5	0,5	0	10
Student 18	1,5	4	1,5	1,5	2,5	0,5	1	12,5
Student 19	2	2	1,5	1,5	3	1,5	1	12,5
Student20	2	2	1,5	1,5	3	1	0,5	11,5

Appendix 11

Verbatim

11.1 Verbatim 1

Interview One

Section One: Describing Previous Experience with the Use of Strategies, in General and Planning Strategies, in Particular.

Question one: **How did you use to approach the writing task?**

L: well hhhhhh

T: Did you like to write?

L: No

T: Why?

L: First because I find it very difficult, and whatever efforts I furnished; the results are the always the same. So, I used to escape the whole task.

T: How did you do in formal evaluation and test?

L: Well, I used to rely on the other tasks to get a good mark, and once I reach the production phase I totally avoid it.

T: Is it the case of English or all the other subjects

L: Actually, all of them. That is to say Arabic and French and some other subjects that require free production.

Question Two: What prior knowledge about learning strategies, in general and the planning strategies, in particular did you hold?

L: I used to know a lot of learning strategies and they were really helpful to me like using dictionaries, asking questions, making google search to understand a particular notion, inferring the meaning from the context, but I did not that they were called language learning strategies until we were taught about them in this module.

T: but there are cases where you wrote. In these cases, how did you use to approach the writing task?

L: Well, of course, there are many situations where I had to write. I hhhh…. I Used to read the topic carefully, then, start to write any related information that came to my mind

T: Was it difficult or easy?

L: Very difficult and even embarrassing

T: At which level is it more difficult?

L: At the right beginning where I used to feel myself stuck and my mind was totally empty; that moment was really hard, for I used to spend much time thinking how to start.

T: Why is it so?

L: I do not know and asked myself the same question repeatedly without any logical answer

T: Did your teachers teach you how to plan your writing?

L: We were told about the importance bout planning and urged to plan but not taught how to plan. Particularly, all teachers criticized us for writing directly on the exam paper and asked us to use the rough, but what we do is that we start directly writing down the paragraph…

Question Three During your previous education, what instruction did you have in the pre-writing strategies?

L: I did not get you

T: Have you ever been taught on how to plan?

L: No, as I have already said, we were explained the importance of these strategies and advised to use them but never taught how they should be implemented in concrete writing.

Question four What did you do before writing? Describe your thinking processes

L: Well, hhhhmmmm. Honestly, I used to read carefully the topic and start to think in Arabic and start translating from Arabic to English. All my ideas are formulated first in Arabic and then I used to find the equivalent words in English.

Section Two: Evaluating the Treatment Phase

Question Five: How did you deal with the pre-test? How did you respond to the assignment, and how much time did it take for you to write your first paragraph at the university level?

L: It was quite difficult because as I have already said I rarely find ideas to start writing on, so the first step is always very difficult to achieve. I thought a lot and was short of ideas, especially it is the first time we are asked to write directly a paragraph without a reading material and questions to help us understand that text from which we select ideas and vocabulary. As far as time is concerned, one hour and half was not enough at all, and as you have noticed I could not even finish writing the paragraph, especially that I was thinking in Arabic and translating to English.

Question Six: Which phase was the most challenging for you: planning or learning

about planning?

L: As I have said, in our previous studies, our teachers explained us the importance of planning and its effectiveness on writing; however, I do not remember that I have been taught what is planning or even that there are various kinds of planning strategies. But the most difficult to me was planning my own paragraph

T: And now?

L: Look, now … only now, things are quite different for me. I learned how to plan and how to organize my planning, so as to write purposefully.

Question Seven: What is your impression about SBI you had?

L: Well, mind mapping is the planning strategy I liked more, but I have learned also that it is not applied with all types of texts; Listing, for example, is more helpful with the process paragraph. All planning strategies are very useful

Question Eight: What is the impact of SBI you benefited from on writing good paragraphs in terms of unity, paragraph organisation, and topic sentence?

The instruction we had benefited us greatly because it simplified the act of writing that used to be huge. Though it is cognitively demanding and time-consuming, it facilitates the subsequent phases. The training was beneficial as we were assisted through the different sub-stages of the planning stages. We were introduced to the various types of pre-writing activities from which we chose what matched our learning style and the most appropriate topic at hand. Once we mastered the strategies, we could use them interchangeably or depending on the topic specificities. For example, for the process paragraph, as I have already said, I use listing. For the other types of paragraphs, I use mind mapping.

Section Three: Verbalizing Personnel Experience

Question Nine: **Describe in details how you proceed with the planning using the strategy you like most**

Well, first of all, I read the writing assignment and looked for key words to determine the topic, the audience, and the purpose. Once I determine the topic of the paragraph, I could easily decide upon the type of strategy to use. In a second step I look for key words and choose the most prominent one, I write it in the middle of the sheet of paper and I jot out all the related ideas and vocabulary…..

T: Sorry, which language you are using?

L: Ah, English only. I followed the instructions you told us the first time when you said that we should to think in English and write in English.

T: Ok, carry on, please.

L: … As I have said, I try to write all what comes in my mind in terms of ideas or vocabulary. I, sometimes, visualize the whole image and convert the image into either single words or

complete sentences and relate them to the centered topic with arrows as you taught us to do. In a second moment, I omit any odd information or non-related vocabulary. After that I join numbers to the information, I have written according to their order of importance from the most important to the least one. After I am sure it is the final plan, I organize it in a simple outline; That is to say the topic sentence, supporting details, and concluding sentence. Once the outline is ready, I start writing my first draft with a continuous reference to the outline. When I finish with my last draft, I compare it to the outline and check for unity

T: Do you change things if you notice a mismatch between the final paragraph and the outline?

L: Of course I do.

T: Why?

L: Because it would be a sign of a non-unified paragraph

T: Great.

Question ten: Which is more challenging, planning/ generating ideas or outlining/organising?

L: As far as I am concerned, and I think most of my classmates, planning is more challenging than outlining because creation of ideas and selection of the vocabulary is a very difficult and time-consuming matter. Once I successfully succeed it, I can easily organize it in a meaningful outline.

Question Eleven: When you start drafting, how often do you refer back to the outline to revise the different drafts?

L: I continuously go back to my outline to amend and revise my paragraph. It happens that very frequently I change sentences in my paragraph. In other moments, it is the outline which gets amended as the follow of ideas leads me to an area I did not planned but makes my paragraph more accurate and meaningful. I just make sure that my paragraph is still unified.

Question Twelve Q.12: Would you describe how do you come up with the most appropriate plan and outline for the paragraph you are to write

L: Reaching a final plan and then a final outline comes after hard job and series of trials. I draft my plan and outline more than I do for my paragraph, and I find this stage more difficult and time consuming, but once I finish doing it, I take shorter time to write my paragraph drafts.

Section Four: Evaluation and Recommendations of Learners

Question Thirteen

T: What are the strengths of this instruction

L: Instruction in prewriting helped me become more self-confident. The flow of ideas kept coming from the mind when I started writing. What I'm trying to say is that I could have

more and more ideas when I looked at my outline...., so I felt interested to write and even started to love writing. I used to be short of ideas, but now I find that there is enough to write about. Also, it saves time because the outline can create good order for the ideas. When the outline is good, it's brief, direct, straight to the point, clear, and [using gestures and facial expressions indicating satisfaction can be easily understood]. It presents the ideas systematically. It can be applied by everyone in the class since we got familiar to it. I liked the pre-writing activities. They prepared me for the main writing task. Everything was fine with me except the topic sentence. I mastered the creation and organising strategies; however, I am still reluctant, for I am not sure which strategy is better suitable for a particular task … hhhhh. We need further training

Question Fourteen: What are the weaknesses of this instruction?

L: Though it is very beneficial to us, it was very hard and time consuming. We used to work both in the classroom and at home. We could not at all revise or do the homework of other modules

Question Fifteen: **What do you recommend to written expression teachers?**

L: First of all, to teachers, I recommend them to expose their students to the same instruction we had and to be patient with them because it will promote their students writing proficiency. I also urge them to give them much homework on that.

Question Sixteen

T: **What do you recommend to first-year students?**

 I encourage them to take part in strategies-based instruction in the planning and do not seek immediate improvement, for mastering the use of these strategies is time consuming process and cognitively demanding task that requires much efforts and patience from both sides.

11.2. Verbatim 2

Interviewee Two

Section One: Describing Previous Experience with the Use of Strategies

Question one: How did you use to approach the writing task?

I did not like it

T: Why?

L: Because of its difficulty, so I avoided whenever I could

Question Two: **what prior knowledge about learning strategies, in general and the planning strategies, in particular did you hold?**

L: My previous teachers used to urge us to use some strategies like; check this word in the dictionary, or read the text and explain these words according to the context. However, we were not directly informed that they are strategies and there are more than these ones.

T: I Mean during your previous instruction, have you ever been introduced to the planning strategies?

L: Never. It is only when you taught us that came to know about them. They are totally knew to me. For me writing used to be the most hatred skill not only in English but also in French and Arabic. Whatever efforts I did, I received negative criticism and very low marks. This is why I have developed this negative feeling towards it.

T: At which level is it more difficult?

L: When I start.

T: Why is it so?

L: Sometimes I got almost no ideas about some topics. One word to say: Stuck! No image and no visual aids used limited the ideas

T: Weren't you aware of the existence of the planning strategies that could help you in dealing with the writing task?

L: No, at all. I was urged just to think a lot about the topic and to make much more efforts

but not provided with any sort of help

Question Three During your previous education, what instruction did you have in the pre-writing strategies?

L: None, as I have already said I knew this term from you

Question four: What did you do before writing? Describe your thinking processes

L: Nothing. I used to read the topic and start immediately writing.

T: How many drafts did you use to have

I: Only one

T: How much time did you spent on writing your composition

I: Few minutes

T: Really!!

I: yeah, This is what used to happen, honestly.

T: OK

Section Two: Evaluating the Treatment Phase

Question Five: How did you deal with the pre-test? How did you respond to the assignment, and how much time did it take you to write your first paragraph at the university level?

L: In the same way I explained a couple of minutes ago. I read the topic and wrote what came in my mind. If you remember I was the first one to submit my assignment. hhhh

Question Six: Which phase was the most challenging for you: planning or learning about planning?

L: Both were very hard to me, and it was totally a new experience that required from me much efforts both inside and outside the classroom

Question Seven: What is your impression about SBI you had?

L: I liked all the planning strategies but clustering was the most attractive one to me because it is very different and seems to me a game, so whenever I was asked to plan is as if I am

asked to play a game, so I enjoyed the task and learned how to generated topic-related ideas and eliminate the non-relevant ones and organize the others in terms of certain criteria either importance hhhh or other types of orders. Also, listing was very motivating and helped me to organize my ideas; nevertheless, they were very tiresome

Question Eight: What is the impact of SBI you benefited from on writing good paragraphs in terms of unity, paragraph organisation, and topic sentence

The instruction we had was very fruitful to us, though, time-consuming and tiresome. I learned how to write a good English paragraph, well developed, well organised, and unified. I could plan and outline easily. Now, my writing is more logical. The only bad comments I still have are about the topic sentence, but I'm sure it will be fixed soon.

Section Three: Verbalizing Personal Experiences

Question Nine: **Describe in details how you proceed with the planning using the strategy you like most.**

L: As I have already explained, mind mapping appeals much to me, for I feel it a game and thus I enjoy my time and do not get bothered. So, the first think I do is that I drew the diagram first and go back to the writing assignment, which I read carefully to extract the main key word that embodies the whole topic that I place at the heart of the diagram I have drawn. Afterwards, I deeply think about and write all what comes in my mind about it in the circles. Once I finish, I review the whole information in the diagram. In a second moment, I omit any odd information or non-related vocabulary. After that I join numbers to the information, I have written according to their order of importance from the most important to the least one. After I am sure it is the final plan, I organise it in a simple outline; That is to say, the topic sentence, supporting details, and concluding sentence. Once the outline is ready, I start writing my first draft with a continuous reference to the outline. The latter is, then, organized in a meaningful outline with a logical topic sentence, a related concluding one, and supporting details organized in a logical order. After that I start writing my first draft;

Question Eleven

 Q11: When you start drafting, how often do you refer back to the outline to revise the different drafts?

L: Since I write many drafts, I revise many times. And whenever I revise, I refer to the

outline I have elaborated. As long as I find myself faithful to my outline, I feel comfortable.

T: Why?

L: It means that my paragraph is unified

T: but adding more details doesn't necessary mean irrelevant ones

L: mmmm, yes, but if I do not stick to my outline I may add a new idea or irrelevant details and consequently harm the paragraph unity.

Question Twelve

Q.12: Would you describe how do you come up with the most appropriate plan and outline for the paragraph you are to write

L: Generally, I draft my plan and outline more than I draft the paragraph itself. This is the hardest phase upon which rely the other phases. After a series of drafts, I succeed to write a good outline. I use the checklist you provided us with, then, I start immediately writing my paragraph.

Section Four: Evaluation and Recommendations of Learners

Question Thirteen

T: What are the strengths of this instruction?

The instruction we had benefited us a lot because it simplified the act of writing that used to be a huge one. Though it is time consuming, it facilitates the other subsequent phases.. The instruction also reduced my fear from writing. I used to feel really uncomfortable about any task of writing because I was not sure about how to deal with it. Now I feel very comfortable and even happy, as I know that I'm not supposed to deal with it as a whole but break it into some steps and then go on step by step. Now, I feel no more it is that big deal. I even enjoy it and feel that I can write about any topic; I write my diaries at home, now. My writing in the other modules has noticeably improved and my grades increased, in parallel. It's great, isn't it.

Question Fourteen

T: What are the weaknesses of this instruction?

L: It is very hard and time consuming but only at the beginning, then, it turned to be a real pleasure.

Question Fifteen

T: **What do you recommend to written expression teachers?**

To my best knowledge, we are the only group who has been taught in this way. I think all written expression teachers should do the same thing with their students and assist them at all levels.

Question Sixteen

T: **What do you recommend to first year students?**

L. I encourage learners to take part in strategies-based instruction programmes in pre-writing strategies. I advise them to be strong and patient and never give up. By the way, they need to do all their assignments and practice as much as possible

11.3. Verbatim 3

Interviewee Three

Section One: **Describing Previous Experience with the Use of Strategies, in General and Planning Strategies, in Particular.**

Q1: How did you use to approach the writing task?

L: My preferred skill is writing. I have always dreamt to be a writer. I try to write short stories in Arabic, but no one encouraged me to carry on. My teachers used to say that my writing contained too much details. Most of them were irrelevant. In English it was worse because of the vocabulary shortage and a non-mastery of the grammar rules. Although I never got good marks, nor did I have been praised for any of my written achievements, writing has always been my preferred subject

Question two: what prior knowledge about learning strategies, in general and the planning strategies, in particular did you hold?

I did not know about their existence, and no one during my previous instruction directly talked to us about them

Question Three During your previous education, what instruction did you have in the pre-writing strategies?

Just general knowledge about the existence of these strategies, but we did not know how to use them in real situations. Our teachers used to say: plan your writing and use drafts. But, we were not taught how to plan and why is it important to draft. I personally used to think that good students can make it from the first time. Now, I have learned that good learners never start directly to write.

Question Three: Have you ever received a strategy training in the planning strategies during your previous instruction?

L: No, never

Question four: What did you do before writing? Describe your thinking processes

L: Deep thinking … I used to think a lot before I write any word. I used to have a problem

about how to get ideas related to the topic I am required to write about

T: How many drafts did you use to have?

I: I used to write directly my final draft

T: How much time did you spend on writing your composition

I: long time. I always exceeded the allotted time

T: why?

I: I like writing and used to make much efforts to get good marks and to be praised by my teachers, which never happened. Hhhh

Section Two: Evaluating the Treatment Phase

Question Five

T: How did you deal with the pre-test? How did you respond to the assignment, and how much time did it take for you to write your first paragraph at the university level?

L: After reading the topic, I took my pen and start writing my first and final draft.

Question Six:

T: Which phase was the most challenging for you: planning or learning about planning?

L: The whole notion was totally new to me, as I completely ignored that writing starts before the actual writing. So, learning about pre-writing was a bit difficult for me, and planning was the most difficult part. When I tried to put theory into practice I found that it was not that easy, especially at the beginning. However, if we compare the two stages, the planning phase is more difficult because it requires me to think much about the topic and create ideas about it. When I finish this phase, organizing the already existing ideas becomes a very easy matter to me.

Question Seven: What is your impression about SBI you had?

It has a lot of benefits. First of all, I learned about the strategies that I can use not only in writing but in all the other subjects. Furthermore, I learned about the planning strategies and how to use them. I, think that learning the two stages of the pre-writing stage is very helpful in our instruction, especially that we would use it in the other modules.

Question Eight What is the impact of SBI you benefited from on writing good paragraphs in terms of unity, paragraph organisation, and topic sentence

Now, I can write easily. The paragraphs I write are unified and logically organized. For the first time in my life, I have good grades in the writing tasks and my teacher is satisfied with my achievements. I learned how to create ideas and organize them in a meaningful pattern. Furthermore, I could write a topic sentence, but you (the teacher) have always something to say about it.

Section Three: Verbalizing Personnel Experiences

Question Nine; Describe in details how you proceed with planning using the strategy you like most.

L: I have always been criticized for writing much details and non-relevant details, but no one of my teachers told me that this should be fixed prior to writing. Now, I fix all my problems before I start writing the first draft.

T: How?

L: Well, first, I start by reading carefully the assignment. Second, I narrow down the topic and focus on one key word. After that, I write close words and ideas related to that key word, then, I try to find new ideas and vocabulary related to each of the found word and so and so forth till I have a whole chart. After that, I read the whole map and drop all what I think unnecessary. Then, I put numbers next to each idea according to their importance and immediate relation to the topic. Once I finish working on planning, I organize the information I gathered in an outline using the central information as a topic sentence, the supporting details will be written using the information in the chart following the same order of importance or occurrence, as in the narrative and process paragraph. Finally, I write a concluding sentence, which can be a piece of advice, a reformulation of a topic sentence, or….

Question then: Which is more challenging, planning/ generating ideas or outlining/organising?

L: The planning phase is more difficult and time consuming, as it deals with imagination and creation of ideas and sentences in relation to a specific topic and domain. It is difficult because we create abstract ideas about imaginative things in a stream of a given type of

paragraph.

Q11: When you start drafting, how often do you refer back to the outline to revise the different drafts?

L**:** Personally, I keep my outline in front of me when I write all my drafts. I refer to it each time I write a sentence.

Q.12: Would you describe how do you come up with the most appropriate plan and outline for the paragraph you are to write

L: I write a lot of plans before I write an outline and a lot of outlines before the first paragraph draft and a lot of drafts before a final version.

Section Four: Evaluation and Recommendations of Learners

Question Thirteen : **What are the strengths of this instruction**

L**:** The instruction helped me to answer my questions and know my problems and fix them. I used to be criticized for redundancy, but no one told me how to avoid it. Now, I come to understand that it is because I did not use to plan my writing. Now, I plan and eliminate unnecessary details at the planning phase. I also learned to be patient and draft a lot before I reach a final version. Writing is not easy to learn and master.

Question Fourteen: What are the weaknesses of this instruction?

L: It is tiresome and time-consuming. We focused on it and forget about the other modules. I think in first year, it would be better to have very few modules and to focus only on writing and speaking and listening as they are very time consuming.

Question Fifteen: **What do you recommend to written expression teachers?**

L: All teachers should teach planning and outlining and train their students to plan and outline because it is very beneficial. I also advise them to encourage their students and give pieces of advice and help them surpass their weaknesses.

Question Sixteen: **What do you recommend to first-year students?**

L: All students have to learn planning and outlining and be patient because it time consuming, especially at the beginning. When they get used to, they will find it easy. They have also to write a lot in the classroom and at home.

Appendix 12

SPSS Output Data

Correlations

Correlations - Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Form and Layout_Pre_R1	,5875	,42195	40
UID_1_Pre_R1	1,8750	1,50533	40
TS_1_Pre_R1	1,2750	,65974	40
SD_1_Pre_R1	,8375	,52364	40
COT_1_Pre_R1	1,9375	,66204	40
CM_1_Pre_R1	1,1000	,63246	40
SQW_1_Pre_R1	,7375	,40805	40
TP_Pre_R1	8,3500	3,13009	40
FL_Pre_R2	,6500	,46959	40
UID_Pre_R2	2,3750	1,37165	40
TS_Pre_R2	1,3375	,41429	40
SD_Pre_R2	1,0750	,53768	40
COT_Pre_R2	2,0750	,90971	40
CM_Pre_R2	1,0500	,63851	40
SQW_Pre_R2	,9625	,48553	40
TP_Pre_R2	9,5250	3,27960	40
FL_Post_R1	1,6875	,60646	40
UID_Post_R1	3,5750	,87376	40
TS_Post_R1	1,3750	,41986	40
SD_Post_R1	1,4875	,43097	40
COT_Post_R1	2,3375	,71061	40
CM_Post_R1	1,4375	,45556	40
SQW_Post_R1	1,1500	,32423	40
TP_Post_R1	13,0500	1,91753	40
FL_Post_R2	1,6250	,58562	40
UID_Post_R2	3,6750	,88831	40
TS_Post_R2	1,2500	,49355	40
SD_Post_R2	1,5250	,27619	40
COT_Post_R2	2,6750	,48767	40
CM_Post_R2	1,5250	,65974	40
SQW_Post_R2	1,1750	,38481	40
TP_Post_R2	13,4500	2,03432	40

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

Test

PairedSamplesStatistics

	Mean	N	Std.Deviation	Std.ErrorMean
Pair1 FL_Pre_R1	,5250	20	,37958	,08488
FL_Pre_R2	,6500	20	,48936	,10942
Pair2 UID_1_Pre_R1	1,8000	20	1,39925	,31288
UID_Pre_R2	2,6500	20	1,46089	,32667
Pair3 TS_1_Pre_R1	1,2750	20	,81878	,18308
TS_Pre_R2	1,3250	20	,43755	,09784
Pair4 SD_1_Pre_R1	,7750	20	,44352	,09917
SD_Pre_R2	,9750	20	,54952	,12288
Pair5 COT_1_Pre_R1	1,9750	20	,67814	,15164
COT_Pre_R2	2,1250	20	,82518	,18452
Pair6 CM_1_Pre_R1	1,3250	20	,65444	,14634
CM_Pre_R2	1,0750	20	,67424	,15077
Pair7 SQW_1_Pre_R1	,9250	20	,33541	,07500
SQW_Pre_R2	1,0250	20	,44352	,09917
Pair8 TP_Pre_R1	8,6000	20	3,16477	,70766
TP_Pre_R2	9,8250	20	3,30977	,74009
Pair9 FL_Post_R1	1,5500	20	,70524	,15770
FL_Post_R2	1,5500	20	,64685	,14464
Pair10 UID_Post_R1	4,0000	20	,00000	,00000
UID_Post_R2	4,1500	20	,36635	,08192
Pair11 TS_Post_R1	1,3750	20	,27506	,06151
TS_Post_R2	1,2000	20	,52315	,11698
Pair12 SD_Post_R1	1,6000	20	,38389	,08584
SD_Post_R2	1,6250	20	,27506	,06151
Pair13 COT_Post_R1	2,8000	20	,37697	,08429
COT_Post_R2	2,8500	20	,36635	,08192
Pair14 CM_Post_R1	1,7000	20	,25131	,05620
CM_Post_R2	1,8250	20	,51999	,11627
Pair15 SQW_Post_R1	1,2000	20	,34028	,07609
SQW_Post_R2	1,3750	20	,22213	,04967
Pair16 TP_Post_R1	14,2250	20	1,20825	,27017
TP_Post_R2	14,5750	20	1,63252	,36504

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

T-Test

T-Test-PairedSamplesCorrelations-July29,2022

PairedSamplesCorrelations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair1	FL_Pre_R1&FL_Pre_R2	20	,687	,001
Pair2	UID_1_Pre_R1& UID_Pre_R2	20	,736	,000
Pair3	TS_1_Pre_R1&TS_Pre_R2	20	,472	,036
Pair4	SD_1_Pre_R1& SD_Pre_R2	20	,516	,020
Pair5	COT_1_Pre_R1& COT_Pre_R2	20	,500	,025
Pair6	CM_1_Pre_R1& CM_Pre_R2	20	,240	,308
Pair7	SQW_1_Pre_R1& SQW_Pre_R2	20	,721	,000
Pair8	TP_Pre_R1&TP_Pre_R2	20	,900	,000
Pair9	FL_Post_R1&FL_Post_R2	20	,658	,002
Pair10	UID_Post_R1& UID_Post_R2	20	.	.
Pair11	TS_Post_R1&TS_Post_R2	20	,640	,002
Pair12	SD_Post_R1&SD_Post_R2	20	,498	,025
Pair13	COT_Post_R1& COT_Post_R2	20	-,038	,873
Pair14	CM_Post_R1& CM_Post_R2	20	,383	,096
Pair15	SQW_Post_R1& SQW_Post_R2	20	,348	,133
Pair16	TP_Post_R1&TP_Post_R2	20	,585	,007

T-Test

T-Test-PairedSamplesTest

PairedSamplesTest

		PairedDifferences					t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
					95%ConfidenceInterval oftheDifference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. ErrorMean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	UID_1_Pre_R1-UID_Pre_R2	-,85000	1,03999	,23255	-1,33673	-,36327	-3,655	19	,002
Pair 2	TS_1_Pre_R1-TS_Pre_R2	-,05000	,72366	,16182	-,38868	,28868	-,309	19	,761
Pair 3	SD_1_Pre_R1-SD_Pre_R2	-,20000	,49736	,11121	-,43277	,03277	-1,798	19	,088
Pair 4	UID_Post_R1-UID_Post_R2	-,15000	,36635	,08192	-,32146	,02146	-1,831	19	,083
Pair 5	TS_Post_R1-TS_Post_R2	,17500	,40636	,09087	-,01518	,36518	1,926	19	,069
Pair 6	SD_Post_R1-SD_Post_R2	-,02500	,34317	,07673	-,18561	,13561	-,326	19	,748

IBM SPSSWebReport-Output3

T-Test

T-Test - Paired Samples Statistics -

Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 FL_Pre_R1	,6500	20	,46169	,10324
FL_Pre_R2	,6500	20	,46169	,10324
Pair 2 UID_1_Pre_R1	1,9500	20	1,63755	,36617
UID_Pre_R2	2,1000	20	1,25237	,28004
Pair 3 TS_1_Pre_R1	1,2750	20	,47226	,10560
TS_Pre_R2	1,3500	20	,40066	,08959
Pair 4 SD_1_Pre_R1	,9000	20	,59824	,13377
SD_Pre_R2	1,1750	20	,51999	,11627
Pair 5 COT_1_Pre_R1	1,9000	20	,66094	,14779
COT_Pre_R2	2,0250	20	1,00623	,22500
Pair 6 CM_1_Pre_R1	,8750	20	,53496	,11962
CM_Pre_R2	1,0250	20	,61719	,13801
Pair 7 SQW_1_Pre_R1	,5500	20	,39403	,08811
SQW_Pre_R2	,9000	20	,52815	,11810
Pair 8 TP_Pre_R1	8,1000	20	3,15645	,70580
TP_Pre_R2	9,2250	20	3,30659	,73938
Pair 9 FL_Post_R1	1,8250	20	,46665	,10435
FL_Post_R2	1,7000	20	,52315	,11698
Pair 10 UID_Post_R1	3,1500	20	1,08942	,24360
UID_Post_R2	3,2000	20	1,00525	,22478
Pair 11 TS_Post_R1	1,3750	20	,53496	,11962
TS_Post_R2	1,3000	20	,47016	,10513
Pair 12 SD_Post_R1	1,3750	20	,45523	,10179
SD_Post_R2	1,4250	20	,24468	,05471
Pair 13 COT_Post_R1	1,8750	20	,66639	,14901
COT_Post_R2	2,5000	20	,53803	,12031
Pair 14 CM_Post_R1	1,1750	20	,46665	,10435
CM_Post_R2	1,2250	20	,65845	,14723
Pair 15 SQW_Post_R1	1,1000	20	,30779	,06882
SQW_Post_R2	,9750	20	,41279	,09230
Pair 16 TP_Post_R1	11,8750	20	1,78351	,39881
TP_Post_R2	12,3250	20	1,77908	,39781

T-Test

T-Test - Paired Samples Correlations -

Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 FL_Pre_R1 & FL_Pre_R2	20	,444	,050
Pair 2 UID_1_Pre_R1 & UID_Pre_R2	20	,567	,009
Pair 3 TS_1_Pre_R1 & TS_Pre_R2	20	,716	,000
Pair 4 SD_1_Pre_R1 & SD_Pre_R2	20	,609	,004
Pair 5 COT_1_Pre_R1 & COT_Pre_R2	20	,301	,198
Pair 6 CM_1_Pre_R1 & CM_Pre_R2	20	,687	,001
Pair 7 SQW_1_Pre_R1 & SQW_Pre_R2	20	,658	,002
Pair 8 TP_Pre_R1 & TP_Pre_R2	20	,845	,000
Pair 9 FL_Post_R1 & FL_Post_R2	20	-,065	,786
Pair 10 UID_Post_R1 & UID_Post_R2	20	,404	,078
Pair 11 TS_Post_R1 & TS_Post_R2	20	,105	,661
Pair 12 SD_Post_R1 & SD_Post_R2	20	,148	,534
Pair 13 COT_Post_R1 & COT_Post_R2	20	-,147	,537
Pair 14 CM_Post_R1 & CM_Post_R2	20	,379	,099
Pair 15 SQW_Post_R1 & SQW_Post_R2	20	-,394	,086
Pair 16 TP_Post_R1 & TP_Post_R2	20	,615	,004

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

T-Test

T-Test - Paired Samples Test

<div style="text-align:center; color:#2E75B6;">Paired Samples Test</div>

| | | Paired Differences | | | | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	FL_Pre_R1 - FL_Pre_R2	,00000	,48666	,10882	-,22777	,22777	,000	19	1,000
Pair 2	UID_1_Pre_R1 - UID_Pre_R2	-,15000	1,38697	,31014	-,79912	,49912	-,484	19	,634
Pair 3	TS_1_Pre_R1 - TS_Pre_R2	-,07500	,33541	,07500	-,23198	,08198	-1,000	19	,330
Pair 4	SD_1_Pre_R1 - SD_Pre_R2	-,27500	,49934	,11166	-,50870	-,04130	-2,463	19	,024
Pair 5	COT_1_Pre_R1 - COT_Pre_R2	-,12500	1,02437	,22906	-,60442	,35442	-,546	19	,592
Pair 6	CM_1_Pre_R1 - CM_Pre_R2	-,15000	,46169	,10324	-,36608	,06608	-1,453	19	,163
Pair 7	SQW_1_Pre_R1 - SQW_Pre_R2	-,35000	,40066	,08959	-,53751	-,16249	-3,907	19	,001
Pair 8	TP_Pre_R1 - TP_Pre_R2	-1,12500	1,80551	,40372	-1,97000	-,28000	-2,787	19	,012
Pair 9	FL_Post_R1 - FL_Post_R2	,12500	,72321	,16171	-,21347	,46347	,773	19	,449
Pair 10	UID_Post_R1 - UID_Post_R2	-,05000	1,14593	,25624	-,58631	,48631	-,195	19	,847
Pair 11	TS_Post_R1 - TS_Post_R2	,07500	,67424	,15077	-,24056	,39056	,497	19	,625
Pair 12	SD_Post_R1 - SD_Post_R2	-,05000	,48395	,10822	-,27650	,17650	-,462	19	,649
Pair 13	COT_Post_R1 - COT_Post_R2	-,62500	,91587	,20479	-1,05364	-,19636	-3,052	19	,007
Pair 14	CM_Post_R1 - CM_Post_R2	-,05000	,64685	,14464	-,35274	,25274	-,346	19	,733
Pair 15	SQW_Post_R1 - SQW_Post_R2	,12500	,60426	,13512	-,15780	,40780	,925	19	,367
Pair 16	TP_Post_R1 - TP_Post_R2	-,45000	1,56357	,34962	-1,18177	,28177	-1,287	19	,214

The Effectiveness of SBI on Students' Writing Proficiency

Résumé

Cette recherche vise à investiguer l'efficacité des méthodes éducatives qui s'appuie principalement sur l'Entrainement des Stratégies de l'Enseignement (ESE), notamment, les stratégies de la préparation à l'écrit dans le développement de la production écrite des étudiants de première année universitaire au département d'anglais de l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Constantine (ENSC). La maîtrise des stratégies de l'entrainement à l'écrit est supposée amener les étudiants à améliorer leur capacité à construire des paragraphes unifiés, bien structurés et logiquement développés. A cet effet, l'hypothèse suivante a été élaborée : Les étudiants en première année anglais acquereraient une meilleure maîtrise de l'écriture et serait en mesure de produire des paragraphes en bon anglais, après avoir été explicitement enseignés à appliquer des stratégies métacognitives. Pour vérifier la validité de l'hypothès sur-mentionnée, une étude quantitative et qualitative a été réalisée. Un questionnaire pour les enseignants et une interview pour les étudiants ont été utilisés pour la collecte des données. Aussi, un plan d'action a été mis en œuvre basé principalement sur l'approche cognitive de l'apprentissage des langues académiques (CALLA) developpée par Chamot et al. (1999), qui privilégie le contenu des programmes d'études, le développement des langues académiques en mettant l'accent sur l'alphabétisation, et des stratégies d'apprentissage explicites encadrant chaque leçon en cinq phases récursives. Ces cinq phases sont la préparation, la présentation, la pratique, l'évaluation et l'expansion. Les résultats obtenus ont indiqué que l'ESE des techniques employées dans la phase de la préparaation à l'écrit contribue à améliorer les compétences des étudiants en rédaction et à renforcer leur conscience métacognitive. En outre, l'analyse quantitative des données a révélé que le ESE favorisait la confiance en soi, accentuait la motivation des participants et réduisait leur anxiété.

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الملخص

الهدف من هذا البحث هو دراسة فعالية الأساليب التعليمية التي تستند أساساً إلى تدريس استراتيجيات التعلم (SBI) وعلى وجه الخصوص، استراتيجيات التحضير للكتابة في تطوير الإنشاء الكتابي لطلاب السنة الأولى من الجامعة في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية في المدرسة العليا لتكوين الاساتذة بقسنطينة من المفترض أن يؤدي إتقان استراتيجيات إالتحضير للكتابة إلى دفع الطلبة إلى تحسين قدراتهم على كتابة نصوص موحدة ومنظمة جيدًا ومتطورة منطقيًا. لهذا الغرض، تم وضع الفرضية التالية يكتسب طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية في السنة الأولى إتقانًا ملموسا للكتابة يتجلى في قدرتهم على إنتاج نصوص باللغة الإنجليزية مترابطة فكريا و متسلسلة منطقيا، بعد أن يتم تدريسهم وتدريبهم على استخدام استراتيجيات التعلم المعرفي الفعال والعملي. وبالتالي، تم تنفيذ خطة عمل تستند أساساً إلى النهج المعرفي لتعلم اللغات الأكاديمية (CALLA) الذي وضعته شاموت وآخرون. (1999)، الذي يعتمد على تفعيل محتوى المناهج الدراسية، تطوير اللغات الأكاديمية مع التركيز على رفع مستوى اللغة. يتم ادراج استراتيجيات التعلم الصريح لكل درس في خمس مراحل متكررة يجمع فيها المعلمون بين العناصر الثلاثة للمحتوى؛ استراتيجيات اللغة واستراتيجيات التعلم. وهذه المراحل الخمس هي التحضير؛ العرض؛ الممارسة؛ التقييم؛ والتوسع. وللتحقق من صحة الفرضية المذكورة أعلاه، أجريت دراسة كمية ونوعية. لتثمين نتائج البحث. أشارت النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها إلى أن SBI بشأن استراتيجيات التجضير للانشاء االكتابي يساهم في تحسين المهارات الكتابة لدى الطلاب وتعزيز وعيهم المعرفي. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، كشفت الدراسة التحليلية للبيانات ان SBI رفعت ثقة الطلبة المشاركين بانفسهم وقللت مستوى القلق المرتبط بنسبة الانجاز المعرفي.