University Mentouri Brothers, Constantine 1

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of Letters and the English Language

N°ordre: 03/D3C/2024
N°serie :03/Ang/2024

Fostering Learner Autonomy and Attitudes through Creative Writing: Metacognitive Perspectives

The Case of Third-Year English Language Students, University of Constantine 1

Thesis submitted in candidacy for the degree of Doctorate '3 éme cycle' in English Applied Language Studies

Submitted by
Mr Djalal Tebib

Supervised by
Prof. Nacif Labed

Board of Examiners

Chairperson:	**Prof. Riyad Belouahem**	**(University of Constantine 1)**
Supervisor:	**Prof. Nacif Labed**	**(University of Constantine 1)**
Member:	**Prof. Madjda Chelli**	**(University of Constantine 1)**
Member:	**Prof. Nadir Kaouli**	**(University of Batna 2)**
Member:	**Dr Tareq Boujadar**	**(ENS Sétif)**
Member:	**Dr Boudjamaa Denden**	**(ENS Sétif)**

21/10/2024
2024-2025

Dedication

To the only woman I truly admire and venerate, my mother;

To my caring and reassuring father;

To my loving wife;

To my siblings;

To my supportive relatives, bosom friends, and inspiring colleagues,

I dedicate this work.

Acknowledgments

My eternal and heartfelt gratitude is due to my distinguished supervisor, Prof. Nacif Labed, without whom I would have raised the white flag in the middle of the road. I truly thank him for his outstanding competence, valuable guidance, unremitting support, insightful feedback, and unfailing forbearance. I am indeed honoured to have worked under his supervision.

I would also like to extend my sincere gratitude to the board of examiners, Prof. Riyad Belouahem, Prof. Nadir Kaouli, Prof. Madjda Chelli, Dr Tareq Boujadar and Dr Boudjamaa Denden, who have kindly accepted to examine this thesis, for any feedback and recommendations they would put forward.

A special ‘thank you’ goes, furthermore, to my treasured friends and devoted colleagues: Mrs Abir Tebib, Mrs Kaouter Khouatba, Dr Rym Chelbi, Dr Samira Chaibeddra, Mrs Imen Yahou, Mr John Rogers, Dr Christian Ludwig, and Mr Hichem Belghit for their heart-warming solicitude and never-ending support.

I would also like to thank the teachers and students who have participated in this study for their time, collaboration and thoughtfulness.

Abstract

The present study aims primarily at fostering learner autonomy and positive attitudes among Algerian learners of English through an extracurricular creative-writing project. Thus, it has been hypothesised that if English language learners are engaged into an extensive creative-writing project, which is characterised by a metacognitive training, they will develop a certain degree of autonomy. To verify such a premise, a group of third-year students of English at the University of Constantine has been involved into a multiphase, story-writing project in an out-of-classroom setting, namely a writing centre. The Learner Autonomy Profile Short-Form (LAP-SF) was the instrument used prior and subsequent to the experiment to measure the subjects' degree of autonomy. The obtained results showed that the students who had received the experimental treatment became relatively autonomous, while those who had not undergone the experiment remained largely non-autonomous. Therefore, these findings confirm the aforementioned hypothesis. Furthermore and as the present study comprises a second hypothesis, another experiment was conducted, a year later, on another sample of third-years at the same university. This time the subjects were engaged into various original writing activities for a six-month period in a writing centre. The second experiment was built around the hypothesis that students' negative attitudes towards writing can be adjusted through a series of innovative and varied writing activities in an out-of classroom setting. A student questionnaire and teacher observation reports have been employed for data collection before and after the experimental intervention. The obtained results showed that only the students within the experimental group could positively change their attitudes towards writing; the second hypothesis is thus valid.

Keywords: learner autonomy, learner attitudes, creative writing, metacognition

List of Abbreviations and Coding Conventions

AMVQ: Alfresco writing, Music-stimulated writing, Video-Stimulated writing, and Quote-generative writing

Df: Degree of Freedom

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

LA: Learner Autonomy

LAP S-Form: Learner Autonomy Profile Short Form

SD: Standard Deviation

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

$\bar{X}$: Mean

List of Tables

List of figures

Table of Contents

Chapter Two

The Writing Skill and Writing Centres

Chapter Three

Learner Attitudes and Metacognition in Language Teaching and Learning: An Overview

Chapter Four

Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Data

Relevant to Experiment One

Chapter Five

Description, Analysis and Discussion of the Second Experiment's Results

General Introduction

Learner autonomy and attitudes are widely deemed crucial for the formation, evolution and achievements of students within and beyond academic circles. In effect, there has been a noticeable shift towards learner-centred approaches in the sphere of language education over the last few decades, especially in Western Europe (Campos, 2014). This major and gradual change has led to an increased focus on learner autonomy, a new concept at that era, as a critical factor for learner growth and success. Accordingly, a growing body of literature has explored the notion learner autonomy in foreign language education, and several approaches and ideas to fostering it have thereupon emerged. Many scholars (e.g. little, 2008; Palfreyman & Smith, 2003; Dam, 2001; Sinclair, 2000) argued that autonomy is an effective component in the development of language learners, and that it is both a means to an end and a goal in itself. These researchers and others have suggested several ways through which autonomy could be promoted in various settings and environments. Yet, the notion learner autonomy is still largely unexplored in the Algerian EFL context. Likewise, considerable attention has been devoted to learner attitudes as a key dimension of research pertaining to foreign language education. In similar vein, this research work seeks to promote both learner autonomy and positive attitudes among Algerian EFL learners through an extensive, out-of-classroom, creative-writing project.

1. Statement of the Problem

Foreign language learning is unequivocally a challenging and laborious undertaking, for it entails various mental and psychological abilities. Thus, a great number of students appear to encounter a range of hindrances while learning; some of which may even cause the learner to fail within academia. These obstacles often vary in nature and degree; some are related to the curriculum, others to the cultural and social environment of learners,

while further issues could be linked to the students' psychology, mental state and willingness to learn. The latter seemingly requires further and in-depth exploration within the Algerian context of foreign language learning.

Through extended and frequent teacher observation and based upon this study's pre-test findings, scores of students of English at the University of Constantine seem to exhibit negative attitudes towards learning in general and writing in particular. In fact, they appear to be passive, demotivated, unconfident, and rather teacher-dependent. And such unfavourable attitudes are likely to exert a huge and far-reaching impact on their overall competence and academic achievements. Put differently, our students' low language proficiency and academic failure is probably the after-effect of such inapt and destructive attitudes, alongside numerous other pedagogical and non-pedagogical shortcomings.

2. Aims of the Study

The aim of the present study is twofold. First, it aspires to foster learner autonomy among EFL learners through an extensive, creative-writing project during which a metacognitive training is administered. Second, the study seeks to adjust students' negative attitudes towards writing through a series of innovative writing activities. In doing so, this study aims to highlight the significance of writing centres and extracurricular activities. Furthermore, the study seeks to promote self-directed and lifelong learning to empower the learners and help them develop their skills and persevere as knowledge seekers. That is, if students are endowed with autonomous learning skills, they are expected to overcome any challenges that would hinder their learning. In this respect, the present research work advocates autonomous learning to boost the teaching and learning outcomes of teachers and learners respectively.

3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present research work sets out to answer the following questions:

- How can an extensive creative-writing project be effective for implementing learner autonomy among EFL students?
- To what extent could learner autonomy lessen students' passivity?
- Can students' negative attitudes towards foreign language writing be adjusted?
- Would a series of extra-curricular writing activities entice students to become metacognitive learners and achieve better in writing?

Based on the above-stated questions, the following hypotheses can be advanced.

Hypothesis One

If third-year students of English at the University of Constantine are engaged into an extensive creative-writing project as an extracurricular activity, they will develop a certain degree of autonomy.

Hypothesis Two

Algerian EFL students' negative attitudes towards English language writing can be adjusted through a series of innovative activities in an out-of classroom setting, viz. a writing centre.

4. Population and Sampling

In 2013, a sample of fifty-six mixed-gender students was randomly chosen from the parent population of third-years at the Department of English, University of Constantine 1. Adequate sampling ensures that every individual in the parent population had an equal chance of being selected as a subject for the planned research.

5. Research Tools and Methodology

To test the hypotheses upon which the present study is based, two questionnaires, a measurement tool, and teacher observation reports have been employed together with the experimental treatment. The methodological procedure of this study could, therefore, be described as mixed or multi-method. In fact, investigating two hypotheses, seeking accuracy, orchestrating two experiments, and dealing with complex concepts are the chief motives behind the adoption of diverse tools for this research.

One of the questionnaires was administered to sixteen teachers of English at the University of Constantine to examine their views about and understanding of the concept 'learner autonomy'. The researcher sought also to determine whether teachers, at the Department of English, have ever attempted to promote autonomous learning in their classrooms. The questionnaire contains fifteen Likert-scale statements that revolve around learner autonomy and its implementation among foreign language learners. The other questionnaire was administered to the sampled students to discern their attitudes towards writing, as well as to evaluate their awareness as regards the prominence of writing within and beyond the classroom walls. In support of this questionnaire, teacher observation reports have been exploited, at a certain phase, to examine whether the subjects' attitudes have started to change.

To measure the participants' degree of autonomy before and after the experimental intervention, *The Learner Autonomy Profile Short Form* (LAP S-F) has been used. This computerised tool of measurement is a kind of extended and comprehensive questionnaire developed by a group of experts, at George Washington University, specifically to measure autonomy among learners.

6. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is of five chapters; three of which cover the theoretical matters, while the other two deal with the practical issues.

Chapter One begins with a definition of the notion learner autonomy' within the spectrum of foreign language education to dismiss any conceptual or terminological uncertainty. Subsequently, the chapter sheds light the common misconceptions about the learner autonomy as well as on the main approaches to fostering it, and introduces Nunan's method of autonomy implementation from which the experimental treatment of the present study was inspired. A brief history of learner autonomy is also included within this chapter, alongside a discussion about assessment in learner autonomy and the on-going challenges it poses. Moreover, the chapter looks into the association of learner autonomy with the writing skill, which is central in this study. The chapter concludes with a review of the types of autonomous learners and the significance of autonomy in language education.

Chapter Two, of two sections, deals mainly with the writing skill and writing centres. Section one opens with a definition of writing as both a human intellectual activity and major language skill in academia. Afterwards, a thorough description of the main approaches to teaching writing to EFL learners is provided, alongside the fundamental components of writing. Furthermore, the section offers a thorough discussion about the factors that render the task of writing challenging for learners. It also highlights the connection between writing and thinking, on creative writing and related issues .Section two comprises a presentation on writing centres, their history, modus operandi, and significance. The section deals also with the principles of writing centre worldwide, and exhibits a few examples and statistics to demonstrate the significance and utility of such centres.

Chapter three, of two sections as well, encompasses an overview on attitudes and metacognition within the scope of EFL education. Section One covers issues and discussions related to attitudes. It includes a description of attitudes and shows their functions, formation, and the way they are often changed. The first section ends with a discussion on the association of attitudes with the writing skill. Section Two presents a comprehensive definition of the notion meta-cognition and associated terms, along with an overview about metacognitive strategies, awareness, and styles. A discussion on the relationship of metacognition with both learner autonomy and writing is also included within the confines of this section.

Chapter Four draws upon the practical procedures and embarks with a detailed presentation of the methodological measures and techniques adopted for the first experiment of this study. In addition, it delineates the experimental design and treatment, and demonstrates its significance and affiliation to the main autonomy-related approaches that the chapter are found in the relevant literature. Likewise, the chapter presents the pilot study procedures and findings along with the t-test and associated computations. The chapter also includes the description, analysis and discussion of the results pertaining to the pre-test and post-test of the first experiment.

Chapter Five discusses the portrayal of the research procedures, instruments and experimental treatment pertaining to the second experiment that sought to adjust third-year students' (and by extension the other students, too) attitudes towards the writing skill through a series of innovative writing activities. Moreover, the chapter comprises the presentation, analysis, and discussion of findings yielded from both the pre-test and post-test questionnaires. The data are tabulated, described and discussed to verify the second hypothesis. The chapter concludes with a general conclusion and a set of recommendations.

Chapter One

Learner Autonomy in Language Education

Chapter One

Learner Autonomy in Language Education

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to delineate the notion learner autonomy and explore its background, expansion, procedures, theories and underpinnings in the field of language teaching and learning. Accordingly, this chapter includes a thorough discussion of the nature, history and versions of autonomy as well as its implementations in foreign/second language education and the major approaches to fostering it both inside and outside the language classroom. The chapter presents also a discussion on the association of learner autonomy with writing and brings to light teacher autonomy as a crucial aspect in the practice of autonomy in language education. Likewise, the issue of assessment in autonomy is examined, alongside the common distinctive features of autonomous learners.

1.1. The Nature of Learner Autonomy

A proliferation of definitions for the notion 'learner autonomy' has unfolded through the years, as many researchers and educators have attempted to describe it from a multiplicity of perspectives (Gremmo, 1995 & Blin, 2004). Yet, the debate on its exact meaning is still open and intense among experts and educators (Benson, 2013). It seems, indeed, that the philosophical nature of autonomy in language education has made it difficult for academics to provide a satisfactory and extensive definition for the concept. Hence, learner autonomy, as a notion, is quite controversial (Little, 2002), and teachers or researchers who have an interest in autonomous learning seem to be compelled, in a way or another, to opt for one category of definitions or get bewildered somewhere in between.

Holec (1981), who coined the term, described it as "the ability to take charge of one's learning." (p. 3). To put it differently, autonomy in learning refers to learners' capacity and

readiness to shoulder responsibility for their learning, thereby demonstrating less reliance on the teacher. Holec's definition, which is apparently the most frequently cited of all definitions existing in the autonomy literature, encompasses four major characteristics of autonomy in language education. First, autonomy is related to learners' beliefs and attitudes towards learning and not to the setting and mode of learning. Second, it is not a single behaviour, but a set of interrelated behaviours that are manifested, by learners, throughout the learning process. Third, it is not an innate skill but one that is acquirable and can be implemented in learners through various means and in different contexts. Last, and just as important, the idea of autonomy embraces the learners' right to make choices and reflections at the level of the content being taught to them as well as the method adopted by their teachers or institutions (Benson & Voller, 1997). In a similar vein, Little (1991) defined autonomy in language learning as a learner's capacity to produce critical reflections, make decisions, and act independently to enhance both the process and outcome of his own learning.

Dam (1990 & 1995), who has made major contributions to the realm of language learner autonomy, casted light upon "willingness" as a key factor in the development of autonomy among learners. She explained that fostering any learner's autonomy depends crucially on his readiness and willpower to assume responsibility for his own learning. This indicates that learners are prominent partners in the road towards scholastic autonomy. Littlewood (1996) also highlighted "ability" and "willingness" as crucial constituents in the autonomy development. According to Littlewood, ability refers to the knowledge and skills that a learner need to employ while exercising autonomy, whereas willingness denotes learners' motivation and confidence as regards their learning.

One of the few definitions which seemingly summarises the mainstream of the above-stated definitions is that of Little (2007, p. 6) who defined autonomy as "a learner's

willingness and ability to take responsibility, to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate his/her learning with tasks that are constructed in negotiation with and support from the teacher." Little's definition, adopted as a working definition for the present research, covers almost all the essential components of autonomy, namely capacity, readiness, responsibility, involvement, evaluation and self-direction, with a clear recognition of the teacher's role as a counsellor and facilitator. Furthermore and in agreement with this account of what autonomy is, Lamb & Reinders (2008, p. 242) stated that "autonomy is a capacity for making informed decisions about one's own learning, and that this capacity needs to be developed through introspection, reflection, and experimentation in the form of 'learner training' or some other kind of intervention by a facilitator."

In an attempt to ensure a better interpretation of autonomy in language learning, Benson (1997) invited scholars to consider three main versions of autonomy in language education: technical, physiological, and political.

- *Technical autonomy:* the capability of learning a language outside the formal educational institutions and without the assistance of a teacher. This version of autonomy has roots in the theory of "positivism".
- *Psychological autonomy:* the skills and readiness of learners to take [more] responsibility on their learning. There is a certain relationship between psychological autonomy and the school of "constructivism".
- *Political autonomy:* the willingness of education providers and regulators to allow learners to make choices concerning the content and methods of learning. Some of the philosophies of the "critical theory" are found within this category of autonomy.

Alongside the technical, psychological and political perspectives of autonomy, there is a sociocultural perspective for autonomy. Little (1996) and Raya (2005) argued that the learners' social interactions have a great influence on their development as autonomous learners. In furtherance of such views, Cotterall (1998) pointed out that certain cultural backgrounds and beliefs may hinder the process of fostering autonomy among learners who do not have a cultural predisposition to it. That is, autonomy cannot be fully understood and effectively implemented if the cultural perspectives are overlooked.

On his part and in an attempt to delineate the concept learner autonomy, Littlewood (1999, p. 75) proposed two levels of autonomy: "proactive" and "reactive". The former involves the learner's capacity to manage the direction and objectives of his own learning, as well as his evaluation of and reflection upon the leaning process. The 'reactive' autonomy is limited to control over methods and refers to the learners' positive reaction and attitudes to autonomy when offered to them.

Dickinson (1988), on the other hand, adopted a completely different viewpoint and excluded the teacher's role, educational settings and formal learning materials (e.g. course-books) from the gist of autonomy, when a learner reaches what Dickinson called "full autonomy". In simpler terms, autonomy in learning, for him, has to be developed by the learner himself and in total independence of a teacher and any formal institution of education.

It is noteworthy that up till now, there has been no clear consensus among educators and theorists on the nature and characteristics of autonomy due to its close association with other complex and philosophical notions (e.g. freedom, independence and control), educational terms (e.g. self-access, out-of-classroom learning) and attitudes (e.g. reflection and evaluation). In reference to this issue, Benson (1996) stated that:

> Autonomy can also be described as a capacity to take charge of, or take responsibility for, or control over your own learning. From this point of view, autonomy involves abilities and attitudes that people possess, and can develop to various degrees. There are different points of view, though, on what these abilities and attitudes are (and even whether abilities and attitudes are the right words!). There are also different points of view on whether or not autonomy also involves a 'situational' element (i.e., the freedom to exercise control over your own learning). These differences explain why it is so difficult to explain exactly what autonomy is (p. 1).

In conclusion, despite of the complexity of learner autonomy as a concept and the evident and enduring disagreement on its meaning (s) and characteristics, the vast majority of educators have a consensus on its importance for the development of learners. They also seem to agree on the fact that autonomy in education is an attribute to the learner who is the focal point of learning.

1.2. Misconceptions of Leaner Autonomy

As expounded in the previous section, the term learner autonomy is quite problematic and the lack of consensus among scholars on its nature and practices has generated many misconceptions about the concept. These mistaken beliefs, in turn, have brought more ambiguity to the idea of autonomy in language education (Everhard, 2016). For this reason, pinpointing those wrong assumptions is necessary and aims essentially to help the readers construct a clear image concerning autonomy within educational circles. In this regard, Little (1995, p. 3-4) identified five main misconceptions:

- autonomy is the same as self-instruction, and learning should take place in the absence of the teacher;
- it is something teachers provide for their learners;

- it is a single, easily described behaviour;
- it is a steady state achieved by certain learners, and
- somehow requires the teacher to relinquish all initiative and control in the classroom context.

As mentioned above, there is a 'mistaken' yet common belief among some educators that autonomy entails a total absence of the teacher, and should take place outside the formal educational frameworks. In fact, the teacher's role as a counsellor, guide and negotiator is crucial for the development of autonomy among learners (Raya & Vieira, 2015). The second misconception is that of some teachers who tend to believe that autonomy in language education refers to a certain method of teaching in which the teacher transfers the responsibility and control over learning to the learners. This misguided belief might well be the reason behind some teachers' reluctance and disquietude towards the idea of learner autonomy (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012). There is, moreover, a lack of understanding when it comes to the behaviours and attitudes associated with autonomy. In effect, many teachers consider autonomy as a single clear-cut behaviour that a learner exhibits while learning. The last misconception, suggested by Little (1995), is the assumption that autonomy is a stable state, in the sense that it never decreases or increases no matter how distinct and complex the task and situation of learning might be.

Aoki and Smith (1999), furthermore, casted light on two further misconceptions: a) autonomy involves no collaboration; b) autonomy is greatly influenced by the emotional and mental state of individuals, as well as by the ideas and social behaviour of a society. Indeed, many scholars (e.g. Lamb & Reinders., 2008; Murphy, 2015) seem to support this opinion as they emphasised the importance of collaboration and cooperative competition for the proper development of autonomous learning among students. This implies that learner autonomy is not synonymous with solitary or private learning.

To conclude with, learner autonomy is a multidimensional concept that calls for a contemplation, in-depth research and extensive reading to be accurately comprehended. Otherwise, it will not serve the purpose for which it has been initially conceived. Therefore, to put an end to the aforementioned misinterpretations, learner-autonomy researchers and advocates are urged to reach an agreement as regards the nature and implementations of autonomy in the field of language education.

1. 3. The Origins of the Learner Autonomy

To arrive at a thorough and proper understanding of the notion learner autonomy, it is probably important to look into its origins and trace back the changes it has undergone over the time. So far, only a few researchers (e.g. Smith 2008a; Dam, 2001) have written about the history and origins of learner autonomy, which, as a concept, has been widely discussed by numerous educators over the last few decades (Everhard, 2016). To put it otherwise, there is a gap in the relevant literature concerning the history of the notion learner autonomy. Smith (2008a) pointed out that it is both difficult and too early to talk about a "definitive history" of learner autonomy. As an alternative, he suggested viewing learner autonomy from a historical perspective just to gain more insights into the concept, thus enhance its practices and procedures in language education.

According to Benson (2013), the term 'autonomy' had been first used in politics and moral philosophy so long ago before it made its way to the sector of language education through the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project that was launched in the early 1970s. The foremost objective of such extensive educational project was to offer learners the chance and atmosphere to boost their English language skills and develop as lifelong learners in the process. Shortly after and as an outgrowth of the aforementioned project, the *Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues* (CRAPEL) was established at the University of Nancy (France) under the leadership of Yves Chalon who is considered, by

many scholars, to be the godfather of learner autonomy (S. Smith, 2015). To put it simply, Chalon laid the early groundwork for what is now known as autonomous or self-directed learning. In 1972, Chalon died, at an early age, and Henri Holec was designated director of the CRAPEL ("Historique Crapel", 2016). In 1981, Holec wrote a project report, to the Council of Europe, in which he used the term learner autonomy in relation with language education (Benson, 2013). Although the basic idea of learner autonomy came to existence in the early 1970s as an outcome of the numerous researches conducted by CARPEL, it remained unnamed until the early 1980s when Holec and his team decided to coin an umbrella term that would describe one's ability of directing and controlling his own learning (Smith 2008b). In fact, Holec's report was first published in 1979 by the Council of Europe (Little 1999), but it was republished in 1981 in Holec's book '*Autonomy and Language Learning*" which has been widely cited in the literature of learner autonomy since then.

To recap, the idea of learner autonomy emerged nearly four decades ago as an outgrowth of an educational project that aimed at supporting independent language learning. From that time onwards, it has never ceased to evolve, inspire research, and influence teaching across the globe.

1.4. Learner Autonomy and Associated Terms

Throughout the last four decades or so, the idea of 'learner autonomy' has been repeatedly associated, and even confused, with other notions that have close ties with language education, such as *individualisation*, *self-access*, *independence* and *learner training* (Mynard & Stevenson, 2017). That being the case, scores of papers (e.g. Lamb & Reinders, 2008; Everhard, 2016) have attempted to draw a distinction between all the aforementioned concepts, thereby helping educators adjust and deepen their understanding of autonomy in language learning.

According to Little (2008), autonomy is mistakenly thought to be "synonymous" with self-instruction; the latter refers to a situation where learning takes places without the presence of a tutor. Little (2008) highlighted the teachers' role in the autonomy practice and argued on their immense and practical value in the autonomous classroom. Autonomy, he claimed, transcends the idea of how and where people learn around which the concept self-instruction is framed. That is, learner autonomy is more or less about abilities and attitudes that qualify learners to take charge of their own learning with the encouragement and assistance of a teacher (Littlemore, 2001).

Out-of-classroom learning has also been closely associated with learner autonomy, when, in fact, they are quite distinct concepts, and educators should pay attention to that (Reinders, 2010). More specifically, autonomous learning, which can happened in various contexts and settings, differs fundamentally from out-of-classroom learning, which is mainly a mode of studying that takes place beyond the classroom walls and without a teacher. Nevertheless, this does not mean that these notions should not be connected or exploited simultaneously in research and practice; but it does mean that they should not be judged identical and of corresponding effect.

Furthermore and as it involves self-directed and sensible use of learning resources, learner autonomy is often associated with self-access language learning centres (Bordonaro, 2014). In fact, many studies (e.g. Law, 2017; Moore & Reinders, 2003; Miller, 2000) have attempted to foster autonomous learning through self-access centres using a variety of techniques and procedures. This indicates that these kinds of centres are essentially potential channels through which learner autonomy could be promoted. In other terms, self-access centres are just one possible setting where autonomy could be supported, for those centres seem to offer an autonomy-supportive atmosphere (Darasawang et al., 2013). To elucidate, self-access centres are well-equipped and

contemporary educational facilities where students could learn independently (Wichayathian & Reinders, 2015). On the relationship between self-access learning centres and learner autonomy, Maynard and Stevenson (2017) stated:

> Depending on the age of a center, its mission, and institutional priorities, the focus may vary, but one goal of any SALC should be to promote language learner autonomy. The way this is done may also vary, for example, through orientations, workshops, and materials. We argue that any approach to promoting autonomy in a SALC should come under the umbrella term of SALC curriculum for two reasons: (1) to make the approach more systematic and transparent, and (2) to enable us to evaluate how we promote learner autonomy, which implies that we can always strive to improve what we do (p.02).

The above-stated quotation outlines, or so it seems, the practices, procedures and beliefs that led to the establishment of a long-lasting relationship between learner autonomy and self-access learning centres. It also implies why this connection is attracting increased attention.

With relevance to the foregoing discussion, many educators and researchers tend to use independent learning and self-directed learning interchangeably with learner autonomy, and this is seemingly inaccurate. Indeed, although these concepts share a few characteristics, they are not identical and should be distinguished (Little, 1991). Self-directed learning refers to "any increase in knowledge, skill, accomplishment or personal development that an individual selects and brings about by his or her own efforts, using any method, at any circumstances, at any time" (Morrison, 2002). By all accounts, this widely cited definition does not mention, at least not explicitly, the role of a teacher within this mode of learning. On the contrary, as the existing literature on autonomy indicates, the majority of learner autonomy advocates emphasise, to varying degrees, the importance of

the teacher for the promotion of autonomy-oriented learning. Likewise, independent learning, which could be described as a mode of learning where a student employ his own efforts and practices to autonomously attain certain educational achievements (Hurd, 2011), seem to overlap, yet is not identical, with learner autonomy. Perhaps, just a quick review of the literature is enough for anyone to notice that, by far, there is no agreement among scholars as regards the conceptual nature of independent learning and whether the teacher, with any role, should be part of it or not.

Distance learning, lifelong learning, independence, freedom, motivation, learner training, learner strategies, and learner choice are but examples of other academic terms that have been relatively linked with autonomy in language learning (Schwienhorst, 2012; Lamb et al., 2011; Smith, 2008; Chamot & Keatley, 2003; Candy, 1991). This might well imply that autonomy is complex, inclusive, debatable, and significant.

As mentioned previously, the notion learner autonomy is frequently associated with a range of educational terms, which seemingly share several characteristics. Such association might even turn into a terminological confusion and uncertainty. Thus, parallel to any other multifaceted concepts, autonomy will most probably continue to attract attentions, stimulate investigations, provoke controversies, and evolve.

1.5. Approaches to Fostering Learner Autonomy

To simplicity the process of promoting autonomy among language learners, Benson (2013) collected a wide range of autonomy-related practices, tools and procedures under six major categories. He, accordingly, put forward six types of approaches to fostering learner autonomy in formal institutions. This section brings to light all those approaches and discusses them in the light of the existing autonomy literature.

1.5.1. Resource-based Approaches

These approaches focus principally on providing learners with the opportunity to self-direct their learning through an independent use of resources and learning materials (e.g. podcasts, workbooks and learning apps) inside specific educational premises. Facilities that provide such options are widely known as self-access centres, and they often offer counselling services performed by trained tutors as well. Cognizant of the worth of self-directed learning, numerous institutions, mainly in Asia and Europe, have established well-equipped and spacious self-access centres for their learners (carter, 2006).

Self-access centres are deemed effective for promoting learner autonomy as they create atmospheres and circumstances where learners make major decisions and varied choices as regard their learning (Gardner & Miller 2014). These centres are thriving and attracting growing attention to the extent that they now have their own practices, procedures, and theories (ibid). Tomlinson (2003), for instance, pointed out that the promotion of independent learning through self-access centres necessitates raising learners' awareness about themselves, as effective learners, and about their learning needs and objectives. Tomlinson put forward two suggestions regarding the materials of learning and the role of teachers in the learning that takes place in self-access centres. For her, the materials used in self-access centres should be effortlessly accessible, and always seek learners' feedback. The second suggestion urges teachers to support their learners in identifying the needs and objectives of their own learning.

The merit of the resource-based approaches, it seems, lies in their advocacy for extra-classroom learning that involves the use of diverse materials and educational appliance in autonomy-friendly settings. These settings, namely self-access centres, are progressively gaining the attention of more educators and researchers (Morrison, 2008).

1.5.2. Technology-based Approaches

The emergence of the internet and the rapid development of technology have made it possible for learners around the world to learn a language in either the absence or presence of a teacher through a wide range of means and in several contexts. Accordingly, the technology-based approach advocates the integration of technology in the teaching and learning of languages. As far as autonomy is concerned, this approach aims at providing learners with opportunities to use the educational technologies independently, both inside and outside the classroom, to learn, explore and interact with each other. Computers, CDs, DVDs, Tablets, dictionaries, blogs, websites, e-books, projectors, podcasts, and software are the main materials and tools employed in the pedagogy pertaining to the technology-based approaches.

Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL) is probably the major form of these category of approaches, for it is gave rise to the use of software, computers, multimedia, and the like within language education circles (Corder & Waller, 2006). In fact, the rapid development of computers and the internet have reshaped the way teaching and learning are oriented (Beatty, 2003). Computer-assisted Language Learning is esteemed beneficial for second language learning as it supports autonomous learning, saves time and energy, and enhances communication and the storage/display of information (Stockwell, 2012). For instance, many studies (e.g. Vurdien & Puranen, 2016; Zhao, 2016; Reinders, 2010; Jones, 2001) have attempted to foster language learner autonomy through CALL, and those attempts were mostly successful.

Online tandem language learning is another important method within technology-based approaches. Little (2003) argued that in technology-oriented tandem language learning, learner autonomy is incorporated into the learning process right from the beginning because learners themselves have to show a degree of autonomy through

making important decisions throughout the learning process. The meta-cognitive awareness begins, he explained, when learners are involved in higher levels of thinking such as reflecting, evaluating and monitoring learning experiences in a technology-supportive setting. This means that learner autonomy could be fostered through online language exchange projects and activities.

Reinders & White (2016) provided a thorough discussion concerning the relationship between learner autonomy and technology, which, according to them, started two decades ago with the emergence of the Internet. They suggested what they called "five autonomy-related themes" through which the aforementioned relationship is manifested (p. 144). What follows is a summary of those themes.

- ***Learner training and strategies***: This theme embraces mainly ideas and procedures (e.g. online training programs) associated with computers, tablets, smart phones and similar technology-related tools that have opened new horizons for autonomous and self-directed learning.
- ***Teacher Autonomy***: This section describes how technology advocated new ways of learning, and thereby pushed teachers to adopt new roles (e.g. a counsellor) and procedures (e.g. web conferencing) to meet their learners' needs and expectations. Such significant shift gave rise to what is referred to as 'teacher autonomy' (to be discussed later in this chapter).
- ***Technology in self*-access *and Language advising***: This rubric refers to the emergence of self-access centres and explains how they could provide both learners and teachers with valuable opportunities, such as online counselling, to boost the practices related to learner autonomy. Self-access facilities are typically tech-equipped, thus encourage autonomous learning through a range of technological options such as iPad stations.

- ***Tele-collaboration***: As the heading may suggest, this theme draws upon communications technologies, which generated various tandem learning projects and programmes across institutions worldwide. This kind of collaborative learning supports autonomy in many ways. For instance, during a telecollaborative exchange project students are expected to make decisions, provide feedback, use resources independently, solve problems, etc.
- ***Social technologies for learning***: Within this item, social media networks are described as effective platforms where autonomous learning could be developed. Sharing thoughts and experiences, reflecting upon various issues, and managing time and tools are but three examples on how social media channels may reinforce learner autonomy.

The above-stated views and examples indicate that technology, in its broad sense, is an effective channel though which autonomy could be actively promoted within and beyond the classroom. This; however, does not mean that the task would always be uncomplicated and fruitful.

1.5.3. Curriculum-based Approaches

The curriculum-based approaches, also known as process syllabus, revolve around the principle of partnership and shared control among teachers and learners regarding the syllabus. These approaches focus on providing learners with opportunities to make choices and decision related to the content, methods and materials used for learning. Under these approaches, learners are typically given a limited control over the curriculum, course design, and course objectives (Nunan, 2003). More precisely, learners are often urged to make informed choices and careful decisions, in negotiation with their teachers, concerning the content (what to learn), mode (how to learn) and procedures (where and using what tools) related their curriculum. The process syllabus, inquiry-

based learning, project-based learning, and task-based learning are the main techniques and methods adopted by the adherents of this category of approaches (Benson, 2011).

The efficiency of curriculum-based approaches relies on teachers' assistance and attitudes towards their learners. So far, researches related to these approaches have put emphasis mainly on understanding learner responsibility, beliefs and attitudes towards autonomy (Cotterall, 2000; Young, 2002). Positive feedback and the learning behaviours, which learners would acquire through the implementation of the curriculum-based approaches, are deemed crucial for learner development (Lier, 2014).

It is worth mentioning that the curriculum-based approaches are relatively controversial as scores of educators and education policy makers tend to resist to the idea of giving learners the right and the opportunity to 'contribute' to the curriculum (Benson, 2013). The opponents of these approaches claim that students are unqualified to make choices and decisions as regards the curriculum adopted by their institutions. The proponents, nonetheless, have different views, and they trust the learners to make significant contributions to the curriculum design, as they are the ones who would receive the knowledge transmitted via those curriculums (Barnett, 2013; Kleiman, 2009; Dam, 1995).

1.5.4. Classroom-based Approaches

As the heading may imply, these approaches place emphasis on the classroom as an essential context for the promotion of autonomy among learners mainly by engaging them in several decision-making and reflection related to their learning (Smith, 2015). Put differently, within the bounds of these approaches, teachers tend to share responsibility and control with their students concerning the management, direction and evaluation of daily classroom activities and tasks to nurture those students' capacity to take charge of their own learning (i.e. student-centeredness). Planning, monitoring, sharing, and self-evaluating are the core of classroom-based approaches (Miller, 2007).

Outwardly, these approaches bear a close similarity to the curriculum-based ones, but, in reality, they are quite different. More accurately, the classroom-based approaches advocate the decisions and choices regarding daily classroom tasks, and not the ones related to the curriculum as a whole (Benson, 2013). On a related account, Vieira (1997 & 2009) and Smith (2003b) suggested the term "pedagogy for autonomy" to describe the teaching methods and practices that are principally designed to promote autonomy in the classroom. Such procedures include encouraging learner involvement in classroom tasks and decisions, promoting critical thinking and self-regulation habits, accepting teacher-learner partnership, and raising awareness about the notion 'responsibility' and what it entails (Jiménez Raya & Lamb, 2008). That is, encouraging learners to get actively involved in the management of the various aspects of their learning is likely to result in a favourable atmosphere for the promoting of learner autonomy.

In short, classroom-based approaches refer simply to the in-classroom autonomy-supporting practices, attitudes, and beliefs that a teacher may adopt and habitually exploit. The instruction that is characterised by such aspects is often termed 'pedagogy for autonomy'.

1.5.5. Learner-based Approaches

These approaches, unlike the previous ones that focus on self-directed learning, deal mainly with adjusting learners' beliefs and attitudes towards learning to help them become better learners, thereby pushing them towards autonomy. This indicates that the emphasis of the learner-based approaches is essentially placed on learner development. The latter is described as "cognitive and affective development involving increasing awareness of oneself as a learner and increasing willingness and ability to manage one's own learning" (Sheerin, 1997, p. 59). This definition seems to imply that there is a strong relationship between learner autonomy and learner development, and that one could support the other.

In the light of these approaches, teachers are expected to instil in their students a set of learning strategies, which in turn would help them develop a learning autonomy (Griffiths, 2014). Hence, learner training is considered effective for the development of learner autonomy (Darasawang, 2000). Therefore, learner development activities, strategies and techniques, learner preferences, learner style, learner motivation and learner psychology are at the heart of these approaches (Raya & Vieira, 2015). Moreover, learner training and development are likely to include a range of practices (e.g. making informed choices and choosing relevant learning materials) that are liable to the underpinnings of autonomy (Barfield & Brown, 2007).

As discussed above, the shift towards learner-based approaches in language education has influenced many aspects of foreign language instruction. For instance, increased attention has been paid to the learner, and that gave rise to new educational conceptions such as learning to learn and learning to think.

1.5.6. Teacher-based Approaches

This category of approaches, which put emphasis on teacher autonomy, development and potential roles, deems teachers' knowledge about and attitudes towards autonomy crucial for the successful implementation of autonomy in the language classroom (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Holec, 2007; Sinclair, 2006). Teacher autonomy refers to the teachers' capacity and determination to make autonomous choices as regards the content, methods, and outcomes of their teaching (Aoki, 2002). With regard to this account, it has been argued that there is a significant relationship between learner autonomy and teacher autonomy (Nakata 2011; La Ganza 2007; Little, 1995). This relationship is thought to be complex, for it depends on how autonomy and education are viewed and what teacher freedom and control actually means (Vieira, 2009). Correspondingly, Little (2004, p. 1) claimed that 'learner autonomy depends on teacher autonomy." This implies that a

teacher who is not autonomous himself is unlikely to be able to foster autonomy among his learners and vice versa.

Voller (1997) identified three main roles of a teacher in an autonomous classroom: facilitator, counsellor and resource (reference). Therefore, teachers are expected to let go of their traditional role as the controllers of everything in the classroom and adopt a relatively modern role, which might well ease their mission and enhance the outcome of their teaching. In fact, teacher professional development has become a main concern of scholars and institutions alike, especially over the last few decades (McLaughlin, 2013). This is quite evident since adequate teacher development is found to have a positive impact on the overall achievements of learners (Cohen, 2014; Hafner & Young, 2006; Smith, 2001). Although somewhat problematic, the relationship between teacher autonomy and learner autonomy seems to be crucial for the evolvement of autonomy-characterised language education. Such a relationship should indeed be thoroughly investigated and profitably exploited.

It is noteworthy that the above-discussed approaches, which appear to overlap slightly, share many features, procedures and tools. This may well cause slight conceptual and terminological confusion, which fortunately could be cleared up through extensive reading and research. What is important; however, is that those approaches are esteemed inclusive, wide-ranging, pragmatic, and flexible.

1.6. Nunan's Five Levels of Implementing Autonomy in Classroom

Nunan (1997, p. 195) suggested a series of procedures and attitudes that any teacher can adopt to help learners move from a total or limited dependence on the teacher to a certain degree of autonomy. His approach to implementing learner autonomy in the language classroom is widely known as ‘Nunan’s five levels of implementation’. The first level is “awareness”, and it refers to the teacher’s efforts and readiness to keep their

students informed about the content, methods and resources used in the classroom. The second level focuses on the decision and willingness of teachers to provide learners' with a choice of options from which they can select their own objectives as regard their learning. The third level, in a similar vein, revolves around allowing learners to have a voice and take decisions at the level of the modification and adaptation of the content and objectives of learning. The forth level put emphasis on giving learners the chance to construct their own learning activities and objectives. The fifth level, on the other hand, calls attention to the significance of building a bridge between the classroom content and the world in order to push learners to take their learning beyond the classroom walls and explore their world. The following table comprises a summary of the five levels put forward by Nunan (1997).

Level	Learner Action	Content	Process
1	Awareness	Learners are typically made aware of the pedagogical and content of the materials that they are using.	Learners identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks and identify their preferred learning styles /strategies
2	Involvement	Learners are involved in selecting their own goals from a range of alternatives on offer	Learners make choices among a range of options
3	Intervention	Learners are involved in modifying and adapting the goals and content of the learning programme	Learners modify/adapt tasks
4	Creation	Learners create their own goals and objectives	Learners create their own tasks
5	Transcendence	Learners go beyond the classroom and make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond	Learners become teachers and researchers

Table 01: Nunan's Levels of Implementing Learner Autonomy (1997, p.195)

Nunan (2003) went back to the above model and developed it into a nine-step approach to promoting learner autonomy in classroom –perhaps to make things easier for teachers, and provide new insights and thoughts. In fact, the 9-step model can be viewed as

a revised version or a new edition of the 5-level model. Below are the nine steps Nunan (2003) recommended, along with a brief explanation of each step:

- ***Make instruction goals clear to learners:*** Teachers are urged to explicitly inform their learners about the objective and plans of each lesson, activity and/or project. The importance of this technique lies in raising learners' awareness about what, why and how they learn.
- ***Allow learners to create their own goals:*** Teachers are also advised to provide their learners' with real opportunities to suggest, modify, adapt and even create the content of their learning. This step is crucial because it recognises the learner as an important partner in the learning process.
- ***Encourage learners to use their second language outside the classroom:*** Teachers are expected to think of ways and design activities that would stimulate learners to practice the target language beyond the classroom and in a variety of contexts.
- ***Raise awareness of learning processes:*** Teachers should keep in mind that making students aware of their learning styles and strategies is essential in the language classroom.
- ***Help learners identify their own preferred styles and strategies:*** Teachers are also expected to coach their learners on how to discover the learning strategies or styles that suit them and meet their learning goals. Teachers are, thus, urged to offer to their learners a chance to adopt the learning strategy and/or style they prefer.
- ***Encourage learner choice:*** Teachers are encouraged to gradually engage their learners in a process of making choices as regards their learning. For instance, learners can choose the activity they want do the first in a grammar lesson or the kind of tasks they favour in order to achieve the objectives of that lesson.

- ***Allow learners to generate their own tasks:*** Students should be allowed, under the supervision of the teacher, to alter, adjust and/or make adaptations to the learning tasks to satisfy their learning styles and objectives. However, the modifications and/or adaptations, the learners would suggest, should not blemish the technical identity of the tasks.
- ***Encourage learners to become teachers***: Taking into consideration the idea that teaching is one of the best ways of learning; teachers are advised to motivate their students to learn through teaching. Teacher may assign tasks that require learners to prepare certain materials, on a given topic, and present them to their classmates, at a later stage.
- ***Encourage learners to become researchers:*** Doing research is often regarded as an effective mode of learning due to a variety of factors, and thus teachers are invited to engage their learners in a repeated process of research to boost their learning experience and outcome. The collection, interpretation, comparison and classification of data and facts are but a few examples of the essential tasks in any kind of research.

It can be noticed that there is a little intersection between some of the above-listed steps (from 4 to 9) due to their common characteristics (Nunan, 2013). In fact, the reason behind expanding the 4-level model is to help educators comprehend Nunan's approach, and not to cause confusion. With respect to the existing literature on learner autonomy, this approach is probably one of the few approaches that endow teachers with a detailed account of how to implement and encourage autonomy in the foreign language classroom (Everhard & Murphy, 2015).

1.7. Learner Autonomy and Writing

Although writing, as a language skill, appears to be the most self-directed of all language skills, little has been written in the specialised literature about the potential relationship between the writing skill and learner autonomy (Dam, 2015). Nevertheless, based on the present researcher's review of literature, a few studies (e.g. Yeung, 2015;

Bagheri & Aeen, 2011; Vickers & Ene, 2006; Cotterall, 2002) have attempted to promote learner autonomy through writing activities such as peer feedback and student journals.

Foster (2006), in a similar vein, pointed out the importance of autonomy in the writing development of young learners and invited the American universities and educators to regard learner autonomy as an essential component for the growth of student-writers. He stated that:

> To develop creativity and voice in their writing, we believe children should not only be introduced to a rich range of existing expressive domains, but should also be given the time and the space to explore these for themselves, making choices, taking risks, and developing their preferences and independence as writers (p. 28).

Foster argued that the majority of children, who took part in a survey he conducted to investigates young learners' beliefs and needs in the writing class, showed a strong desire for decision making, monitoring, evaluating and taking control over their learning in the writing classroom. To put it differently, Foster brought to light autonomy as a crucial element for the successful writing classroom, and urged writing teachers to allow their students some freedom, agency and responsibility that are pivotal to the development of students as writers.

Another example of the researchers who have exploited the writing skill to foster autonomous learning is that of Yeung (2015) who attempted to foster autonomous learning through the writing process. More precisely, Yeung conducted a study that looked into the effectiveness of "a multiple three-peer-review programme" in developing learner autonomy among a group of ESL learners. The obtained results, according to

Yeung, showed that adequate peer-reviewing activities could promote autonomous learning skills among second language learners.

Contemplating Little's (2007, p. 27) definition of learner autonomy as "the ability to take responsibility, to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate his/her learning," one could effortlessly notice that it covers all the major steps of the writing process; from planning, through monitoring to revising. One may deduce, therefore, that there is a potential relationship between autonomy and the writing process, and that the former seems to help students perform better at the latter. However, without the support of empirical data our deduction remains invalid.

The above-discussed examples indicate that the connection between leaner autonomy and writing is worth investigating, for it seemingly comprises valuable insights concerning the learning and teaching of foreign languages. In view of that, the present research work aimed to shed light on that very relationship.

1.8. Teacher Autonomy in Language Education

Although some scholars (e.g. Mitra, 2013; Dickinson, 1992) tend to neglect the teacher's role in the development of autonomy among learners, the majority of them (e.g. Benson, 2011; Little, 2001; Sinclair, 1999; Dam, 1995) expressed a total agreement about the major role the teacher plays in the autonomous classroom. Hence, these researchers draw attention the notion 'teacher autonomy" as an essential element for the promotion of autonomy within language education circles (Smith, 2008).

Little (1995, p.75), for instance, stated that "since learning arises from interaction and interaction is characterised by interdependence, the development of autonomy in learners presupposes the development of autonomy in teachers." This indicates that there is a strong relationship between learner and teacher autonomy, in the sense that if a teacher in not

autonomous himself, he is likely to fail at developing his student's autonomy. In a similar vein, Smith (2008, p.3) defined teacher autonomy as "the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others." This description seems to imply that, from the autonomy perspective, teachers are expected to acquire a set of skills, adopt a range of behaviours and broaden their knowledge about teaching to boost their performance in the classroom. Furthermore, Lamb (2010) described teacher autonomy as the ability to regulate and self-direct one's own teaching. In this regard, autonomy in teaching advocates self-direction, and thereby calls for a more personalised mode of instruction. Likewise, Aoki (2000, p. 19) defined teacher autonomy as "the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one's own teaching". Aoki's account emphasised that teacher autonomy, just like that of learners, denotes a capability, independence and willingness to "make choices" (e.g. what to teach) and decisions (e.g. how to teach) pertaining to teaching.

It is evident that there is a close resemblance between the previously stated definitions and the ones describing learner autonomy. More precisely, teacher autonomy, similarly to learner autonomy, is an attribute of the teacher and denotes his willingness and capacity to shoulder [more] responsibility for his own teaching and professional development. In this respect, autonomous teachers are thought to be reflective, supportive, spontaneous, independent, communicative, and self-directed (Dikilitaş & Griffiths 2017; Bond, 2014).

Vieira (2009) deemed teacher autonomy to be a matter of independence from external control imposed by administrators and/or teacher-development programmes. From a similar outlook, McGrath (2000) proposed two different dimensions of teacher autonomy**:** "self-directed action or development" and "freedom from control by others" (p.08). Put differently, a teacher's autonomy could be manifested through two main channels: independent action as regards teaching and professional development, and self-control

concerning the management of teaching and the decisions associated with it. Similarly, Smith (2003) highlighted the multidimensional nature of the term 'teacher autonomy', which might be employed differently by language education scholars. The following table presents the different dimensions of teacher autonomy suggested by Smith (2008, p. 4):

In relation to professional action:	
A. Self-directed professional action	i.e. 'Self-directed teaching'
B. Capacity for self-directed professional action	i.e. 'Teacher autonomy (capacity for self-direct one's teaching)'
C. Freedom from control over professional action	i.e. 'Teacher autonomy (freedom for self-direct one's teaching)'
In relation to professional development:	
D. Self-directed professional development	i.e. 'Self-directed teacher-learning'
E. Capacity for self-directed professional development	i.e. 'Teacher-learner autonomy (capacity for self-direct one's learning as a teacher)'
F. Freedom from control over professional development	i.e. 'Teacher-learner autonomy (freedom to self-direct one's learning as a teacher)'

Table 02: Dimensions of Teacher Autonomy (from Smith, 2008)

The above summary provides new insights into the notion 'teacher autonomy' as it covers six possible dimensions, which are associated with the concept. Smith's account might indicate, furthermore, the ways in which "the pedagogy for learner autonomy" is associated with teacher autonomy. In furtherance of this outlook, Vieira (2009) put forward multiple methods and practices for autonomous learning that highlights the relationship between teacher training and that of the learner based on the idea that reflective teaching and learner autonomy are, to a certain extent, interdependent. Vieira explained that reflective and self-directed teaching was not only the means to the development of learner autonomy, but its outcome as well.

1.9. Assessment of Language Learning Autonomy

Similar to the debate on its conceptual and terminological nature, the assessment and measurement of learner autonomy within the domain of language education has been

provoking many controversies (Nunan, 2013). Yet surprisingly, giving the theoretical and practical implications of the issue, no major contributions have been made to accurately describe the connection between autonomy and assessment (Everhard et al., 2015).

In fact, assessment, in relation to learner autonomy, can be viewed from two main perspectives: assessment as a means or technique through which learner autonomy could be promoted, and as a measurement tool with which autonomy might be evaluated (Lamb, 2010). Seemingly, for this reason, many educators adopt the term 'self-assessment' when referring to assessment as a key practice within the process of autonomous learning. Self-assessment is simply the process of evaluating one's own achievements and growth (Thornbury, 2006). Due to its potential benefits, self-assessment is considered an essential component of the process leading to learner autonomy (Gardner, 2000).

The alternative meaning of assessment in this context (viz. measurement) seems; however, to pose various complications because learner autonomy is a controversial and multidimensional concept whose measurement is, if ever possible, extremely challenging (Mynard, 2016). Concerning this critical issue, Everhard and Murray (2015) stated that although "learner autonomy may be a measurable construct, the idea of measuring [it] is still regarded as problematic. The problem here lies in the *purpose* of measurement, which inevitably reflects how we see the construct." In simpler terms, even if the quantified assessment of learner autonomy is achievable, the idea itself might be, according to Everhard and Murray, unsuitable because autonomy comprises various interconnected behaviours and attitudes.

Although quite challenging, several attempts have been made over recent decades to come up with a measurement tool for learner autonomy (Sercu & Paran, 2010). What follows is a brief overview on major contributions towards the measurement of autonomy.

- ***Learner Autonomy Profile Short Form*:** Is a widely-used tool of measurement invented by Gary Confessore, a leading learner autonomy expert, in 2004 at the University of George Washington, USA. This instrument, a computer-based questionnaire, comprises 66 items clustered under four major inventories, namely desire, resourcefulness, initiatives, and persistence. Each inventory measures certain dimensions of learners' views of themselves and their environment, along with their intentions and attitudes towards a range of learning processes and practices (Confessore and Park 2004). Given the fact that this is the tool of measurement adopted for the present study, further details about it are provided in chapter four.

- ***Measuring Instrument for Language Learner Autonomy (MILLA)*:** This tool comprises a total of 113 items that purportedly assess learner autonomy based on four major dimensions: a) technical; deals with behavioural and situational aspects, b) psychological; investigates motivational, metacognitive, and affective aspects, c) political and philosophical; focuses on factors related to group/individual word and freedom, and d) sociocultural; considers social interactive, and cultural factors. MILLA, a self-completion questionnaire, is the outgrowth of an extensive experimental study conducted at a Japanese university by Fumiko Murase in 2010 (Everhard & Murphy, 2015).

- ***The Dynamic Model with Descriptors*:** This is a tool for self-reflection and self-assessment used generally in self-access learning and language advising. This instrument assesses learner autonomy from several dimensions, namely cognitive and metacognitive, affective and motivational, and action-oriented dimensions. Structurally and functionally dynamic, this tool includes 118 descriptors concerning learner beliefs, attitudes, competencies and experiences (Tassinari, 2012).

- ***Formative (self-) Assessment Tool:*** Based on a number of statements and learner profiles, this instrument evaluates learner autonomy according to a range of elements including metacognitive awareness, learner control, critical reflection, motivation, confidence, and information literacy. This learner-generated tool for self-assessment and development was developed by Lucy Cooker ((Everhard & Murphy, 2015).

As outlined above, learner autonomy could be relatively measured using a few tested tools of measurements. The value of such tools lies in the fact that they render the empirical researches on learner autonomy feasible. They could also be used in the evaluation of the different methods and practices that aim principally at promoting autonomous learning. However, more instruments are needed to ensure highly accurate measurements of the construct learner autonomy.

To sum up, assessment, in its comprehensive sense, is an integral part of autonomous learning procedures, for it could yield valuable insights about both learning and teaching. By all accounts, without proper assessment, autonomy risks to be regarded as vague and unrealistic.

1.10. The Significance of Language Learner Autonomy

There are certainly many factors based on which leaner autonomy is esteemed a significant notion within language education circles, otherwise why would it attract the attention of scores of scholars and teachers worldwide for nearly four decades? The following discussion attempts to respond to this question.

To begin with, autonomous learners are widely regarded to be better that non-autonomous ones (Sinclair, 2000). This suggests that, promoting autonomy in language education is an effective approach towards enhancing the learning and teaching outcomes of learners and teachers, respectively. Oxford (2003) seemed to support the

aforementioned conjecture, when she pointed out that the development of learner autonomy in language education has led to better learning.

Furthermore, Little et al., (2017) argued that autonomous learners are more likely to become good individuals in society subsequently, for the skills they would develop as lifelong learners are useful for growth of their society. What this means is that autonomy has also a moral and social impact since it is thought to be effective for preparing learners for the beyond-university life, thereby helping them become better individuals. From a psychological perspective, learners are likely to perform better at school when they are in charge of their education (Cotterall, 1995). Besides, involving learners in the management of their learning could motivate them and enhance their self-confidence, and this doubtless has positive effects on their overall all achievement (O'Rourke & Carson, 2010).

The rapid expansion of technology and internet communications calls for contemporary skills and knowledge. Thus, students need to be empowered with the necessary skills and attitudes with which to take their learning outside the classroom and bring the outside world to their classroom (real-world experiences). This is, according to many experts (e.g. Little, 2004, Smith, 2003), achievable through autonomy. Specifically, if autonomous enough, learners are likely to link the classroom to the outside world and benefit from both spaces in a number of ways.

In sum, learner autonomy has been proved beneficial in a number of ways, and this could well explain the increased attention given to it over recent decades. Nowadays, numerous academic events are being devoted to learner autonomy per se (Everhard, 2016). Simultaneously, more research is being done, and is needed, in this area.

1.11. Types of Autonomous Learners according to LA Dimensions

Similar to autonomy, autonomous learners vary in categories and degrees. Hence, learners could be clustered with accordance with several factors such as responsibility and independence. The following table, adapted from Nugyen 2009, presents a comprehensive summary of the most common types of autonomous learners as discussed in the literature associated with learner autonomy.

Types of learners	Descriptions	Examples
1	▪ total independence (no teacher) ▪ complete volition and proactive engagement in learning a full self-control and direction	A self-taught writer who do not need teachers to develop his writing skills.
2	▪ a limited dependence on the teacher ▪ volition and proactive involvement in learning a full self-control and direction	A learner in a formal classroom where teachers have a higher degree of control over learning.
3	▪ Partially independent from teachers ▪ volition and proactive involvement in learning a full self-control and direction	A hard-working student who is able to study on his own but refers to the teacher whenever needed.
4	▪ independent from teachers little or no interest and proactive involvement in learning a full self-control and direction	A good student who does only what is needed. And who shows little or no interest in learning, in general.
5	▪ Full dependence on the teacher High interest and proactive engagement in learning Luck of self-control or direction	A student who shows great interest in but do not have the necessary knowledge of how and what to learn.
6	▪ dependent on teacher no volition, passive engagement in learning self-control and management	A good yet bored and lazy student who might deem himself better than the rest of the class.
7	▪ independent from teachers little or no interest , passive engagement in learning Luck of self-control or direction	A distance student who is distracted by distance modes of learning.
8	▪ totally dependent on teachers ▪ little or no interest, passive engagement in learning Luck of self-control or direction ▪	A student, who shows little or no interest in the subject, never studied it before but finds himself obliged to study it by his parents.

Table 03: Types of Autonomous Learners (Adapted from Nugyen, 2009)

As the foregoing table displays, there are various types of autonomous learners educed from the autonomy-related literature. The difference between the above-listed types of

learners lies in the degree to which they are independent, involved, and self-regulating. The presence, absence, and assistance of the teacher is also considered. This indeed highlights the idea that autonomy is a multiplex conception (Paiva, 2008).

1.12. Characteristics of Autonomous Learners

According to (Hedge, 2000), there are certain characteristics that distinguish autonomous learners from those who are not. Below is a list of those features according to the existing literature on learner autonomy. In fact, the majority of scholars (e.g. Candy, 1991; Dam, 1995; Little, 2003; Reinders, 2008; Vieira, 2009; Murray et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2015; Jiménez Raya et al., 2017) describe autonomous learners are ones who:

- Assume and shoulder responsibility for their own learning
- Learner within and beyond the classroom walls homogeneously
- Good at exploiting learning materials and resources
- Flexible and able to adjust their learning strategies and preferences to the task in hand
- Actively engaged in there learning
- Willing to take educational risks and persistent enough to finish difficult tasks
- Reflective and ready to assess themselves and the tasks assigned to them
- Think of teachers as counsellors, guide, negotiators, and intellectual assistants
- Critical thinkers who can manage their time effectively and learn in various settings

The above list indicates clearly that autonomous learners are intelligent and cognizant individuals who are well able to self-direct their learning and adapt to contemporary academic undertakings, and who are collaborative in many ways. With such qualities and skills, autonomous learners are likely to become autonomous citizen in the future.

Conclusion

This chapter addressed major issues and debates associated with learner autonomy in language education. On top of those matters come the terminological, conceptual, and procedural controversies surrounding the notion learner autonomy. As explained, by far there is no consensus on what learner autonomy really means and how or where it should be promoted. The discussion is on-going and many more methods are emerging, especially that autonomy is increasingly being associated with other terms such as self-access and personal leadership. In fact, the lack of highly accurate instruments for the measurement of learner autonomy has brought more confusion to the field. Many contributions, nevertheless, have been made to the ever-growing realm of learner autonomy, which is, for many educators, still a mystery.

Chapter Two

The Writing Skill and Writing Centres

Chapter Two
The Writing Skill and Writing Centres

Introduction

Writing, in all genres, has long been deemed a complex and laborious task, for it involves a set of interconnected processes, which in turn require certain aptitudes to be successfully executed. In the sphere of language education, writing is esteemed a prerequisite skill that every learner should to a certain extent master to meet the desired academic objectives .This chapter, of two sections, presents the main approaches to teaching EFL writing alongside the basic components of writing. It, moreover, introduces the challenge of writing, and describes how this language skill is associated with cognition within the spectrum of foreign language education. The chapter casts light also on creative writing, which is of interest to the present research. Its second section, furthermore, offers an overview on writing centres and related matters; it comprises a definition and brief history of the concept, along with its modus operandi. A discussion on the importance, development, and reputation of writing centres is also included within the confines of this section.

2.1. Section One: The Writing Skill

2.1.1. Writing Defined

As writing is a multifaceted and deep-rooted concept, the following presentation of definitions is limited to only two perspectives, namely the educational and cognitive ones. Other perspectives might, nevertheless, be implicitly mentioned.

From an academic perspective, writing, a fundamental productive skill, is the medium through which knowledge and understanding are exhibited and evaluated within academic circles (Weigle, 2002). Put otherwise, writing is what teachers often examine to assess

their students understanding, development and competency. Besides, writing is the channel whereby students express their ideas and demonstrate their linguistic competency (Clark & Mecca, 2007, p. 4). Writing could also be described as the elaborate practice that helps students learn a language and grow intellectually (Harmer, 2006). In short, and as Nunan (2015) put it, "writing has two purposes: express and impress" (p. 78). The preceding descriptions clearly imply that writing is of paramount importance in academia; it is indeed a potent tool for learning and intellectual interaction.

Furthermore and from a cognitive viewpoint, writing is defined as "a "non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meanings" (Zamel, 1983 as cited in Manchón, 2011, p. 18). In simpler terms, writing is some sort of a recursive cognitive process through which thoughts are assimilated, reshaped and expressed. In fact, writing is conceived as both a physical and mental process (Sokolik, 2003). That is, in addition to being an act that involves certain manual activity, writing is a cognitive experience wherein thoughts are created and reformulated before they are transformed into meaningful words. Further and in a similar vein, Tyner (2007) stated:

> Writing is a process of discovery. Writers seldom know everything they are going to write before they begin. The writing act itself helps writers to discover things they want to say, and to find new ideas and connections they had not thought of. The process of writing helps writers discover meaning that they may have never consciously considered. This occurs because the act of writing encourages writers to focus on and think more deeply about their writing subject (p. 3).

In the light of the preceding accounts, writing could be defined as the physical and mental process of expressing ideas through various types of texts to attain a specific

communicative purpose in a certain context. Writing is, hence, a long-established and powerful means of communication.

2.1.2. The Challenge of Writing

It is broadly acknowledged (e.g. Sides, 1999; Gregg & Steinberg, 2016) that writing, especially in academia, is quite challenging, for it requires a set of cognitive and linguistic skills, broad knowledge, intensive practice, and a sense of endurance. Our review of the relevant literature revealed that there are at least five prominent factors that make of writing an intricate task, namely psychological, cognitive, linguistic, pedagogical, and socio-cultural factors (Hinkel, 2015; Clark, 2014; Smith, 2013; Rose, 2009; Harmer, 2006; Hamilton, 2003; Ryan, 2000).

2.1.2.1. Psychological Factors

This cluster includes, but is not limited to, the student's reluctance, uncertainties, self-esteem, experiences, attitudes and beliefs regarding the concept and practice of writing. According to Harmer (2004), students may display reluctance, concerns and some kind of aversion towards writing caused by their self-doubt, lack of practice, and narrow knowledge. In fact, many students tend to express low self-esteem as writers due to many reasons (e.g. poor vocabulary), thereby appearing to be demotivated, despondent and perplexed (Cumming, 2006). Seemingly, the intricacy of writing - alongside other factors- makes them feel repetitive, incompetent and inexperienced. Students might even develop a writing anxiety and jeopardise their learning process (Cumming, 2006). Hence, the overall psychological state of the learner is likely to have a significant impact on his beliefs, attitudes, expectations, and proficiency as regards the writing skill in particular and learning by large (Charles et al., 2016).

2.1.2.2. Cognitive Factors

Writing is widely conceived to be a cognitively demanding task because it involves a lot of thinking and rethinking (Kellogg, 1994; Yagelski, 2016). That is, cognitive processes and abilities are essential for the activity of writing. More precisely, writing requires attention, memory, reflection, critical thinking, imagination and other mental activities; this makes it truly difficult. Further, writing involves the transformation and visualisation of ideas, along with the retrieval and repossession of information (Williams, 2012). This means that translating thoughts into paper or screen is a complex cognitive process, which may cause the writer to encounter a range of difficulties. Student writers could experience the writer's block or a writing anxiety, for instance. Hence, both cognitive and metacognitive skills and strategies are key elements in the successful writing experience (Torrance et al., 2012). It seems, in fact, that if well explored such mental elements could make writing look easy and not the other way around.

2.1.2.3. Linguistic Factors

This category of factors is connected to the student's linguistic skills, knowledge, and experience. According Timothy and August (2007), "proficiency in writing probably requires a host of skills, including good spelling skills; decontextualised language skills that enable the writer to express abstract, complex ideas, (…) and familiarity with writing different text genre" (p. 85). It is, in fact, evident that without good language skills and relevant knowledge, writing would seem extremely difficult or even impossible. For instance, as Fowler (2006) explained, the accurate choice of words is crucial for the clarity, coherence, and finesse of any written product. This indicates that students with a narrow vocabulary are likely to struggle while writing; and they either abandon the task, or produce ambiguous and incoherent paragraphs or texts (Hinkel, 2015). In short, writing is a laborious activity that needs all sorts of skills, particularly the linguistic ones.

2.1.2.4. Pedagogical Factors

Some teachers, or curriculums, make writing appear to be boring and more difficult (Babbage, 2010). That is, the methods and the circumstances pertaining to writing instruction are very important, in the sense that they either encourage the learner to practice writing more or cause him to develop negative attitudes towards literary in general (Williams, 2013). In plain words, some students are not taught well, and yet they are expected to write well! According to (Bazerman, 2009), teachers should keep their students motivated to write by giving them interesting topics and urging them to take risks, try new things and be creative even if this entails making mistakes. For instance, if students are given a humdrum and uninspiring topic, they are likely to feel unable to write; they simply have nothing to say. Student self-confidence as writer is, thus, crucial and needs to be maintained through positive feedback, encouragement, and effective classroom coaching (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). In fact, the teacher-learner relationship could have a great impact on the learner's beliefs and attitudes towards writing (Jones, 2014). In a word, teachers and their method of instruction could make writing appear either tedious and intricate or exciting and not that hard.

2.1.2.5. Socio-cultural Factors

In a society that does not advocate writing and reading, it is difficult to make writing, which is in this case underestimated, looks easy and worthwhile (Bazerman, 2016). To put it differently, there are certain social and cultural aspects that render the practice of writing challenging for some students. According to Cohen & Cowen (2007), the students' social and cultural backgrounds are likely to play a significant role in the formation of either positive or negative attitudes towards writing and reading. That is, students who come from a social or cultural community whereby writing is undervalued or neglected are expected to feel unqualified and unmotivated to write. In short, writing seems to pose a

challenge for learners who have had a limited exposure to writing and reading, and whose social or cultural community is disadvantaged in terms of literacy (McCarty, 2004).

2.1.3. Basic Elements of Effective Writing

For any piece of writing to be appealing and successful, it has to comprise certain elements and criteria at the level of both the form and content (Seely, 2013). There are, according to the relevant literature, more or less five basic components for effective writing: coherence and cohesion, organisation, content, style, and accuracy.

2.1.3.1. Organisation

Organisation refers to the structural aspect of writing; how ideas are arranged and chained within a set of structured paragraphs (Tyner, 2007). For instance, an organised essay is most likely to include a clear introduction, an adequate thesis statement, a coherent body of paragraphs, and a succinct conclusion (Cutts, 2020). To produce a well-organised composition, according to (Hyland (2013), students should make sure that their ideas are comprehensible, ordered and beautifully connected. They also need to verify whether their thesis statement is clear and relevant, and whether their paragraphs are united and consistent. Hence, organisation is critical for the clarity and smoothness of any written product, for it is the road map with which the reader tails the chain of thoughts.

2.1.3.2. Coherence and Cohesion

Coherence and cohesion are two essential properties of written products. Coherence describes the semantic connection and flow of ideas (i.e. whether they make sense together), whereas cohesion denotes the unity of sentences through explicit linguistic links (Yagelski, 2016). That is, coherence is related the logical arrangement of ideas, while cohesion to the linguistic interconnection of sentences. According to Owtram (2010), cohesion is often achieved through cohesive devices and techniques, such as conjunctions,

repetition, substitution, back referencing, etc. Coherence, in contrast, can only be attained through the good organisation of ideas (Allan & Jaszczolt, 2012). In fact, a cohesive text is not necessarily coherent, because unconnected ideas can be placed together in a grammatical manner but still make no sense (Cruse, 2006). Yet, a coherent piece of writing is likely to be cohesive. Hence, student writers should pay a close attention to these two elements throughout the writing process (Sarada, 2003). Indeed, coherence and cohesion are key features, which guarantee the organisation, flow, and unity of any written product.

2.1.3.3. Content and Form

In writing, content is the sum of ideas, examples, and similar materials that constitute a written product, whereas form is the entirety of superficial features (e.g. punctuation) of that product (Hyland, 2003). To put it simply, content is the essence of a text (i.e. ideas), while form is the figure (i.e. punctuation and mechanics). Therefore, thoughts are the core of writing and should be good enough to ensure the effectiveness of any written composition. Form is also important as it contributes to the overall presentation, appearance, and illegibility of the text (i.e. content). Actually, as Elbow (2000) put it, "form and content are linked – indeed, they are often functions of each other: change in one often entails in the other (p. 60)." Hence, both content and form are essential components of good writing.

2.1.3.4. Style

Writing style is the particular manner in which a writer writes; his distinctive way of arranging words and sentences to express thoughts and emotions. More accurately, "style is the literary element that describes the ways that the author uses words — the author's word choice, sentence structure, figurative language, and sentence arrangement all work together to establish mood, images, and meaning in the text." ("Defining style," 2017). Style is also idiosyncratic in the sense that every writer has his own way of writing that

often reflects his personality and philosophy (Zane, 2015). For instance, Hemingway and Joyce have different writing styles: the latter is characterised with complexity, the former with simplicity. Moreover, style is in some ways influenced by the purpose and context of writing because different genres call for different styles (Williams, 2002). A research article, for example, is expected to be academic, not poetic in terms of diction. In essence, style in writing refers to the student's choice of words, sentence structure, expressions, tone and similar elements. In this regard, effective writing stands in need of good style.

2.1.3.5. Accuracy

In this context, the term accuracy covers the overall correctness and appropriateness of a written product in terms of form and content. More specifically, an effective piece of writing is anticipated to include correct grammar, adequate spelling and punctuation, good vocabulary, clear ideas and elucidating examples, and appropriate structure (Crusan, 2010). This clearly indicates that accuracy is the foremost criteria against which students' written compositions are oftentimes assessed (Kroll, 2003). Therefore, accuracy is a substantial feature that should not be overlooked while producing any written products, as it serves to enhance the general quality of writing. It is worth noting, however, that accuracy is rather an ambiguous term because it is not always clear whether certain aspects of writing (e.g. comma, coherence, and style) are perfectly correct, especially that there are assorted conventions bound to writing (Manchon, 2011).

The above-discussed elements of writing comparatively what foreign language students supposed to master to produce good written products, and what teachers need to teach to ensure the effectiveness of their instruction. Reasonably, if such aspects are not well understood or neglected, students are likely to produce very poor writings. And success in academia requires effective writing, next to other educational ingredients.

2.1.4. Main Approaches to Writing Instruction

The significance of the writing skill in language education have stimulated the emergence of various approaches to teaching it. Those approaches were principally designed to serve both the teachers and learners, for writing is a complex process. Raimes (1993) clustered the main approaches to teaching second language writing into three main categories: product-oriented, process-oriented and the genre-oriented. These approaches focus on the text or language, the process, and the reader, respectively. In addition, Badger and White (2000) suggested the process-genre approach, which emphasises both the process and purpose of writing, thus the act of writing and its prospective readers.

2.1.4.1. The Product-Oriented Approach

Traditionally, writing was viewed as a product; a matter of correct syntax and linguistic knowledge (Hyland, 2002). That is, in the past, writing instruction was limited to teaching vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, and mechanics. In this respect, the product-based approach, places heavy emphasis upon the form, grammar, and lexis as the basic components of a text, i.e., the final product of writing (Nunan, 1999).

Under this approach, students are often trained through four major stages: a) familiarised writing, b) controlled writing, c) guided writing and d) free writing (Hyland 2003). During the first stage (i.e. familiarisation), students are provided with model sentences, paragraphs or texts to examine how writing is done, and learn – mainly through observation – how to arrange words and sentences according to a set of grammar and punctuation rules. This phase aims essentially to prepare students for the act of writing. In the second stage (i.e. control), students are urged to practice certain features of writing (e.g. capitalisation) that they have examined in the first phase. Thus, the controlled writing stage is devoted to exploring grammar and vocabulary through language drills such as substituting exercises. The third stage (i.e. guidance) focuses on the organisation of ideas

and text structure through teacher-assisted paragraph writing. The guided writing phase aims at teaching students how to arrange ideas in a cohesive manner; the content is not a main concern (Nunan, 1999). The fourth stage (i.e. freedom) revolves around producing a written product using of the previously acquired knowledge and skills. During this phase, students are stimulated to write on their own. Hence, in the product-oriented approach, accuracy and correctness in form, spelling, grammar and lexis are the criteria against which the students' written materials are assessed (Cumming, 2000).

Furthermore, the role of teachers, under the product-based approach, is limited to pinpointing students' weaknesses and inaccuracies in terms of grammar, spelling, and punctuation, i.e., prioritising form over content (Silva, 1990). Put otherwise, teachers who adopt this approach tend to focus on the product and its surface features and, in some ways, neglect the content, ideas, and purpose of writing.

In fact, the product-oriented approach has received considerable criticism due to certain deficiencies. One major shortcoming, according to Silver and Leki (2004) is the approach's evident negligence of the readers, ergo the purpose of writing. It has also been criticised for overlooking the process of writing, which is very important (Badger & White, 2000:157). Nonetheless, the product-oriented is deemed effective for teaching beginners or low-level students; it is suitable for the scaffolding stage during which form, grammar and syntax are much of a priority (Hyland, 2003).

2.1.4.2. The Process-Oriented Approach

The process approach was first introduced to first language writing instruction in the late 1960s and early 1970s as an alternative to the product approach that was repeatedly criticised at that time (Tomlinson, 2013). The process approach, as the appellation suggests, places emphasis on the process through which writers go when creating a piece

of writing (Oxford, 2016). The writing process involves a set of interrelated steps that typically lead to the production of a written product (Elbow, 1998). Hence, the process-oriented approach, according to Badger and White (2000), prioritise the writing skills (planning, drafting, and reviewing) over the linguistic knowledge (spelling, grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation).

According to Hyland (2015), the wiring process comprises at least four main stages: (1) prewriting, (2) composing /drafting, (3) revising and (4) editing. These stages, which take in various tasks and techniques, are not rigid, and thus the process of writing is "recursive" in nature (Hillocks, 2002). To put it simply, the writer does not move from one stage to another in a linear manner until a text is produced, but rather keeps swinging back and forth. In this vein, Donohue (2009) stated:

> The writing process is recursive. This means that the writer is constantly revisiting the previous stages and finding new ways of refining a piece of writing in order to improve it. Writers do not wait until they have completed their first draft to begin revising (p. 09).

Indeed, many educators emphasised the non-linear nature of the writing process to urge student writers to oscillate back and forth between the stages (Bright, 2002). To put it differently, throughout the process of producing a piece of writing, the writer might go backwards and forwards between stages to enhance the quality of the text being written. For instance, writers can edit in the prewriting phase or revise in the editing stage. The following figure illustrates how the writing process functions.

Figure 01. The Steps of the Writing Process (Bright, 2012, p. 5)

As the figure demonstrates, ideas are first generated, planned, and organised. Then, those ideas are transformed into words and sentences making up a first draft. Afterwards, the initial draft is revised and corrected through editing and proofreading. Subsequently, a final polished piece of writing is produced and then shared (Kroll, 2003).

2.1.4.2.1. The Main Stages within the Writing Process

As noted earlier, the writing process constitutes of several stages; and the splitting up of those stages as well as their designation differs from one theorist to another. Prewriting, composing, revising and editing are yet the most commonly reported ones in the relevant literature (Silva & Mastuda, 2012; Williams, 2003).

2.1.4.2.1.1. Prewriting

The term 'prewriting' denotes all the tasks and preparations a writer would set up before starting to write. During this stage, writers generate, plan and frame their ideas, envisage their audience, and establish a clear purpose for their writing (Tribble, 2003). This implies that it is crucial for writers to think about the gist, purpose and potential

readers of their writing at the earliest stage of the writing process. Thus, prewriting is essentially planning; it is where ideas are born, and preparations for the drafting and post-writing stages are made (Hyland, 2003).

The prewriting stage comprises many strategies and techniques such as brainstorming, clustering, and free-writing (Caswell & Mahler, 2004). Brainstorming refers to the process of generating plentiful terms and expressions that seemingly have a connection with the general topic of writing; this strategy is also known as listing (Pottle, 2000). In a similar vein, clustering (also called ideas mapping) describes the task of producing words, phrases, and expressions out of a particular subject (i.e. a stimulus) and assembling them into distinct clusters or groups (Salomone& McDonald, 2010). For instance, if the stimulus/topic is music, the clusters might be 'benefits', 'types of music', 'favourite songs', and 'music-related souvenirs and anecdotes'. Clustering, in fact, helps the student writers to establish a relationship between ideas, thereby planning their writing properly and effectively (Bahls, 2012). Free writing is another technique that writers deploy during the prewriting phase. It is, as the designation tends to imply, a form of unrestricted, rapid and continuous jotting of words on paper or screen to create sentences and paragraphs without any consideration to spelling, grammar and mechanics (Elbow, 2000). For this reason, freewriting is considered a good way of initiating the writing task, as it helps the student writers generate abundant ideas and overcome the psychological hurdles concomitant with writing (Baig, 2010). In short, "freewriting allows the memory to be emptied on the page, regardless of the value of its contents; it is the dumping itself that is of value" (Rider, 2013, p.103).

2.1.4.2.1.2. Drafting

This is the stage where the actual act of writing takes place. Drafting involves putting words and sentences onto paper or screen, without necessarily revising them, to

communicate a set of ideas (Donohue, 2009). Thus, drafting is concerned with creating a raw text that would be revised and enhanced at a later stage. In this regard, Cohen and Cowen (2007, p. 290) stated that:

> The drafting stage uses the results of the prewriting stage to have students begin writing a rough draft of their piece. In this stage, the focus should be on getting the message across with regard to purpose, audience, content, and organization, not on conventions of writing such as spelling and sentence structure.

The quote suggested that that the main concern of the drafting stage is putting ideas on paper or screen in a relatively organised manner without much attention to spelling, grammar, and mechanics. Instead, the attention should be directed to the content and its potential readers. Drafting helps students write without the anxiety of making mistakes, and this allows them to focus on the act of writing itself (Tribble, 2003).

2.1.4.2.1.3. Revising

During the revision stage, student writers focus on examining and improving the content rather than the form to ensure the coherence and organisation of ideas, and thus enhance the overall quality of the text (Bright, 2002). In other terms, when revising, writers generally scan and evaluate the ideas in terms of structure, unity, clarity, and relevance. In a word, they comprehensively check the quality of the content (Kissel, 2005). Revising is, therefore, a perquisite for effective writing. It is also a good opportunity for self-evaluation, critical thinking, and collaborative learning (Donohue, 2009).

The revision stage entails the implementation of various techniques (e.g. peer review and reading aloud) for altering, amending, and upgrading the draft (Hyland, 2013). That is, revising could be done in many ways and through several simple procedures. Grenville (2001), for instance, proposed what she called “two-steps revising” as a possible method

for effective revision; those two steps are identifying the problem and then correcting it (p.137). Furthermore, Fry (2002, p. 67) suggested that every student writer should ask himself a few questions concerning the unity, lucidity, structure, and flow of ideas during the revision phase. Revision rubrics and checklists are also commonly used in this stage, along with reviewing, peer feedback, and reading aloud (Bright, 2007).

2.1.4.2.1.4. Editing

During this stage, the writer devotes much attention to sentence structure and word choice to ensure the coherence and organisation of ideas alongside the overall quality of writing. Editing involves deleting, replacing, relocating and adding words or phrases to improve the accuracy and clarity of a text (Hatcher et al., 2005). This means that in editing the form is prioritised over the content. Further, editing encompasses a corresponding juncture called 'proofreading' which is utterly dedicated to the correction of grammar, punctuation and mechanics (Bratcher, 2012). To put it otherwise, student writers are often urged to scrutinise the paper word by word and rectify any inaccuracies they would spot, thereby polishing their writings. Hence, editing and proofreading are crucial for ensuring the lucidity and correctness of any written product (Sabrio & Burchfield, 2008).

2.1.4.3. The Genre-oriented Approach

The genre-based approach to teaching writing made its first appearance in the late 1980's in Australia before spreading to other countries like New Zeeland and Singapore (Knapp & Watkins, 2005). According to Swales (1990: 58), "genre is a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes." That is, texts that belong to a certain genre (i.e. category) typically share many features in terms of structure, jargon, audience and purpose. For instance, letters of all types share certain characteristics such as greetings and valedictions. In this regard, the

genre-oriented approach focuses on teaching students how to produce various types of texts by examining a variety of genres and linguistic patterns (Bruce, 2008).

The genre approach aims essentially to teach students how to communicate effectively through writing (Hyland, 2003). To elucidate, teachers adopting the genre-based approach tend to focus on the communicative nature of writing by exposing students to a range of linguistic patterns that belong to different genres. Thus, students are encouraged to look beyond the content level and use writing as a means to achieve specific goals (e.g. convincing or informing) in certain social contexts (Hyland, 2003). According to Badger and White (2000), learning to write through the genre-based approach consists of three major phases. First, students examine models or examples of a given genre (e.g. an email) to have an idea about the structure and language used. After that, they manipulate the "language features" of those exemplary texts with the teacher's help. Finally, students produce paragraphs and short texts (e.g. a complaint letter) without the assistance of a teacher (p. 156).

It is noticeable that the procedures employed in the genre-oriented approach bears a resemblance to the ones associated with the product approach such as familiarisation and imitation (Tribble, 2003). However, the genre-based approach admits the purpose and context in which a piece of writing is produced (Tribble, 2003). It also offers students the opportunity to get familiar with the different genres of writing (Hyland, 2003). The main problem with this approach, according to Fox and Street (2007), is that it does not allow space for creativity due to its rigid nature and heavy dependence on model texts.

To recap, the genre-based approach acknowledges that writing takes place in a social context (e.g. law) and reflects a particular purpose (e.g. appealing a conviction). It also

suggests that learning to write well is achievable through the analysis and the imitation of model texts and linguistic patterns affiliated to various genres.

2.1.4.4. The Process-genre Approach

As the label suggests, this approach is a blend between the process-oriented and genre-based approaches to writing instruction. More specifically, the process-genre approach, which adopted the essential features of each of the approaches, places a particular focus on the process, language, context, purpose, and audience associated with writing (Yan, 2011). Accordingly, teaching under this approach involves fostering students' linguistic knowledge and skills as well as directing their attention to the contexts, genres and functions of writing (Oxford, 2016) .In description of the process-genre approach, Badger and White (2000, p. 157-158) pointed out:

> In process genre approach, writing is viewed as involving knowledge about language (as in genre and product approaches), knowledge of context in which writing happens and especially the purpose for the writing (as in genre approaches), and skills in using language (as in process approaches). The process genre approach model also describe that writing development happens by drawing out the learner potential (as in genre approaches) and by providing input to which the learner respond (as in product and genre approaches).

The preceding quote indicates that the process genre approach emphasises both the category of texts (i.e. genre) and the process of composing them (i.e. linguistic skills), alongside the context and purpose for which the different types of texts are produced. Hence, this approach is deemed effective for helping students observe the relationship between form, language, and purpose of writing within the framework of the process approach (Rusinovci, 2015).

2.1.4.4.1. Implementation of Process-genre Approach in the Classroom

According to Badger and White (2000), the process-genre approach comprises six stages: (1) preparation, (2) modelling and reinforcing, (3) planning, (4) joint constructing, (5) independent constructing, and (6) revising. What follows is an overview of these steps.

2.1.4.4.1.1. Preparation

In this preparatory stage, the tutor introduces the topic by describing a given situation where a text is required, and then places that situation within the confines of a specific genre. For instance, a medical student wants to pursue his studies abroad (i.e. the situation) needs to send an email of inquiry to a renowned university (e.g. a written text is required). This step aims to direct the students' attention to the scope of the genre and prepare them for the following stage.

2.1.4.4.1.2. Modelling and Reinforcing

During this step, the instructor provides the student with a model text of a specific genre and asks them to examine the purpose and potential readers of the text in hands. For example, the main purpose of a love letter is to express emotions and longing. Subsequently, the teacher highlights the structural features (e.g. the complimentary close) of the genre being examined, and explains how those structures help achieving a specific purpose. The aim of this stage is to help students gain familiarity with the genre under discussion and its essential features.

2.1.4.4.1.3. Planning

At this point, students are encouraged to generate further information about the chosen topic by means of brainstorming, clustering, discussing, or reading analogous materials. The role of the teacher here is to highlight the importance of planning, and urge the

students to focus on it. This stage aims at engaging students into the task, and getting them ready for the production phase.

2.1.4.4.1.4. Joint Constructing

This stage pivots on a collaborative writing between the instructor and his students. Typically, the teacher stimulates the students to come up with ideas/information, and then he records their thoughts and suggestions on the board. This technique helps the students understand how to construct certain texts. The draft produced during this stage serves as a model for the students who are expected to write independently in the succeeding stage, i.e. without the assistance of the teacher.

2.1.4.4.1.5. Independent Constructing

Reaching this juncture, the students are asked to produce their own texts based on the models they have examined and the drafted they have produced with the teacher. In a word, students are urged to apply what they have learned. Hence, this stage is where the biggest part of writing takes place. The teacher's role, during this phase, is limited to monitoring the process and clarifying any potential misperceptions.

2.2.4.4.1.6. Revising

Finally, the teacher asks the students to revise what they have written and make the necessary changes to enhance the overall quality of the text. Revision is an opportunity for the teacher to pinpoint the students' mistakes and explain how to avoid them. This stage includes peer feedback, self-evaluation, proofreading and similar techniques.

2.1.5. Writing and Cognition

Contemporary research on writing instruction has devoted much attention to the various cognitive processes involved in the act of writing (Gregg & Steinberg, 2016). In fact, at first glance, the relationship between writing and thinking seems reasonable and

uncomplicated, for writing, by nature, involves certain cognitive process. Yet, in reality, this relationship is more complex than it appears to be (De Kerckhove, 2013).

The Cognitive theory that advocated teaching writing as a process triggered a continuing investigation into the thinking patterns and mechanisms of writers in an attempt to explore how thoughts are born, shaped, and transformed into visual graphics (Gregg & Steinberg, 2016). Such investigations permitted theorists and scholars to establish a strong connection between thinking and the physical act of writing (Flower, 1994). In this respect, writing instruction has been revolutionised with the tendency to prioritise the process of writing (i.e. thinking) over the final product of composition (i.e. language), and so instructors focused on engaging learners in thinking through the medium of writing (Lynn, 2010; Park, 2005; Wallace et al., 2000). In other words, writing, which was viewed from a cognitive perspective, has been exploited as a powerful tool for learning, remembering, and reasoning. In effect, reasoning abilities are found to be crucial for the intellectual growth of language learners (Robinson, 2011), and as McCullough (2003) put it "writing is thinking. To write well is to think clearly. That's why it's so hard (para. 65)." In this vein, learning to write entails learning to think.

Furthermore, viewing writing from a cognitive perspective gave rise to an increasing interest in what is now known as 'writing for learning' as an alternative to 'writing for writing.' The latter refers to the traditional understanding of writing as an activity that is solely performed for specific communicative purposes and functions such as informing, persuading, and instructing (Manchón, 2011). To put it differently, writing for writing (i.e. learning to write) represents the dimension of writing as a tool of expressing thoughts through various types of texts. Writing to learn, on the other hand, transcends that traditional view and describes writing as a means of learning (Zinsser, 2013). That is, the craft of writing is adequate to serve as a practical medium for learning a variety of

scholastic subjects (Wolsey & Grisham, 2012). More specifically, engaging students in writing about a given topic is thought to help them grasp the various scopes of that subject. For instance, writing is esteemed a powerful tool for learning the many aspects a foreign language such as syntax and lexicon (Harmer, 2004). Therefore, writing to learn entails activities and tasks that promote students' reasoning, comprehension, creativity and intelligence in general. Apropos of the association of writing with thinking, Forsman (1995) pointed out:

> As teachers, we can choose between (a) sentencing students to thoughtless mechanical operations and (b) facilitating their ability to think. If students' readiness for more involved thought processes is bypassed in favor of jamming more facts and figures into their heads, they will stagnate at the lower levels of thinking. But if students are encouraged to try a variety of thought processes in classes, they can, regardless of their ages, develop considerable mental power. Writing is one of the most effective ways to develop thinking (p. 162).

Forsman explained that certain writing-oriented activities are useful for stimulating students' thinking mechanisms, thereby effective for developing their overall intellectual competence. This view seems to support the belief that writing is a unique mode of thinking and learning (Manchón, 2011).

To sum up, the contemporary view of writing as process shifted the focus from writing as a product to the process involved in the production of texts. This shift has led to an increased attention to the mental processes underpinning the craft of writing. Thus, writing is conceived to be a process of discovery and learning. Perhaps, what is essential here is the recognised bond between thinking and writing as complementary human performances.

2.1.6. Creative Writing in Foreign Language Pedagogy

Like beauty, art and other intangibles, the concept creativity is extremely difficult to be defined with precision, yet we usually recognise creative things when we perceive them (Neira, 2009). There are even those who claim that creativity is indefinable, for it is too abstract (Amabile, 2012). Notwithstanding this conviction, creativity is commonly described as "the use of imagination or original ideas to create something; inventiveness" (Oxford Dictionary, 2017). Accordingly, from a broad perspective, creative writing could be defined as an artistic genre of writing that is characterised with originality. In a similar vein, "creative writing is considered to be any writing, fiction, poetry or non-fiction that goes outside the bonds of normal professional, journalistic, academic and technical forms of literature "(Bliss & Burgess, 2012, p. 342). This indicates that creative writing is an umbrella notion under which a range of literary genres could be placed. Further, the concept creative writing is used to describe the entirety of literary genres (e.g. poetry and drama), and so it is considered synonymous with literature (Dawson, 2005).

In language education, creative writing is not much of a focus in comparison to academic writing, which is the core of university instruction (Bland & Lütge, 2013). In reality, there is no consensus amongst writers and educators on how, what, and why creative writing should be taught (Harper, 2006). The abstract nature of creative writing, it seems, have caused confusion and disagreement within educational circles. Many scholars; however, believe that creative writing is teachable, and hence they suggested a range of programmes and course designs which aim at invigorating creativity in student writers (May, 2007). In fact, a quick search on the internet revealed that there are, as Neira (2009) mentioned, scores of courses dedicated to creative writing per se, mainly in Europe and North America. In the United Kingdom, for instance, there are at least 150 creative writing courses across universities available for aspiring writers (Master's Degrees, 2017).

Actually, the teaching of creative writing is relatively new in the United Kingdom in comparison to the United States where courses of creative writing date back to the early 1950s (Harper, 2006). In other parts of the world, creative writing is probably still unpopular due to many reasons including lack of funding (Donnelly & Harper, 2012). In other words, faint attention is being paid to creative writing within the sphere of foreign language education in many countries. In Algeria, for instance, there are no courses or programmes dedicated to teaching creative writing at the tertiary level. This is, in fact, one reason why the present research deals with creative writing explicitly.

Although the teaching of creative writing is not as popular as that of academic writing, there is seemingly a consensus among researchers and educators regarding the potential benefits of integrating creative writing activities in the teaching of foreign language writing (Hinzpeter, 2012). Since it entails a structured and extensive exposure to a range of literary texts, creative writing is esteemed to motivate students, stimulate their imagination, enrich their vocabulary, and broaden their linguistic and cultural knowledge (Morley, 2007). Creative writing is also deemed effective for breaking the rigidity and monotony that writing instruction may generate (Morley, 2007). That is, teachers might exploit creative writing to bring some amusement and charm into the classroom. Furthermore, creating writing may well adjust students' attitudes towards literature and encourage them to read (Torrance et al., 2012). This means that after being exposed to stories and similar genres of writing, students are likely to go and check other literary works and attempt to read them. Likewise, the classroom activities that revolves around reading excerpts from the literature are a good opportunity for students to enhance their reading skills and critical thinking alongside their writing abilities (Zhao, 2015).

It is worth noting that there is an enduring debate about the nature of creative writing, its emergence, and its teachableness (Ritter & Vanderslice, 2017). Yet, what is probably important, at least from an academic point of view, is that creative writing could be perceived, fostered, and appreciated.

2.2. Section Two: Writing Centres

2.2.1. A Writing Centre Defined

The term writing centre refers to educational settings where all students can get help with any aspect of their writing mainly through one-to-one tutoring sessions (Harvard College, 2017). To put it otherwise, writing centres are library-like spaces, which offer students a range of services such as one-to-one consulting and writing-related workshops (Kent, 2006). Further and in a rather poetic manner, Valentine (2009, p.7) described the writing centre as "a space where stories about learning are told and retold." This seems to imply that writing centres are not free-service places where only grammar, punctuation, and mechanics are reviewed and improved (Barnett & Blumner, 2008), but also established spaces where writing could be discussed, nurtured and improved (Murphy & Law, 2013). Apropos of the mission of the writing centres, Bernoff (2017) stated that "writing center coaching sessions typically have two goals: to improve the specific document being edited and to train the writer in better techniques so that their writing improves over time (para. 5)." In fact, writing centres has for long been mistakenly considered some kind of student-staffed proofreading centres visited by weak writers only (Pemberton & Kinkead, 2003). Although it has been repeatedly disproved, this assumption appears to persevere, particularly in countries where writing centres are not common (ibid).

To recap, writing centres are well-equipped and properly staffed educational facilities that offer a variety of services and resources to students of any discipline who seek assistance with their writing, free of charge. This kind of centres is widespread in North America across universities, prestigious ones like Harvard and Stanford included.

2.2.2. Brief History of Writing Centres

To understand the idea of writing centres, it is necessary to trace back its roots, and observe its development over the course of time. It is equally important to contemplate the purposes for which these centres were fundamentally created.

Many accounts ascertain the fact that writing centres have deep roots into the laboratory-oriented method of the early 1970s whose objectives were to help weak and underprepared students, as well as to boost the teaching of writing in general, especially at the tertiary level (Carino, 1995). This implies that early writing centres were simply writing laboratories that served as an extension to the classroom work; a place where incompetent students should go to fix their writing (Boquet, 1999). Put differently, contemporary writing centres are more or less the modern version of writing labs or clinics with new horizons, advances tools and a broader scope in terms of missions and procedures.

Furthermore, writing centres are believed to be a part of the reform movement that emerged in the 1970s as a reaction to what was then known as "the literacy crisis" in the United States of America (Harris, 2012). The latter is a situation where a drastic decline in literacy skills, manifested through a wide-ranging sharp decline in tests scores, had been noticed and became a concern of the mainstream of Americans (Pemberton & Kinkead, 2003). This somewhat imply that writing centres have become quite popular in the 80s and 90s. According to Lerner (2003), it is until the 20th century that writing centres have become widespread and valued within the American universities. In the light of preceding

points and with reference to the history, mission and challenges of writing centres, Waller (2002) stated:

> If writing centers are going to finally be accepted, surely they must be accepted on their own terms, as places whose primary responsibility is to talk to writers. That is their heritage, and it stretches back farther than the 1960s or the early 1970s, or to Iowa in the 1930s (…). In fact, to Athens, where in a busy marketplace a tutor called Socrates set up the same kind of shop: open to all comers, no fees charged, offering, on whatever subject a visitor might propose, a continuous dialectic that is, finally, its own end. This heritage of conversation is what makes the writing center such a rich and integral part of the university community today. (p. 3)

As it can be inferred from the above-stated quotation, the creation of writing centres is often met with various obstacles including financial support and institutional integration as major hindrances (Horan, 2006). More precisely, writing centres are difficult to be financed as many faculties seem to struggle with finances, and writing centres are not a main concern, at least in the minds of the directors of those institutions (Horan, 2006). Consequently, writing centres often rely on voluntary work to fulfil their mission and attain their objectives (Murphy & Stay, 2012). Although the situation has positively changed and thousands of writing centres, mainly in the USA, are getting the required financial support, many writing centres around the world are struggling to survive (Harris, 2011).

To end with, writing centres have come a long way and exhibited great perseverance along with a remarkable sense of growth. If properly advocated and esteemed, writing centres are anticipated to evolve, spread and assist millions of students across the globe that need educative sustenance and, more importantly, inspiration.

2.2.3. Importance of Writing Centres

Over the last few decades, considerable attention has been devoted to writing centres as important educational facilities that provide learners with support regarding all aspects of writing (Lerner, 2003). The significance of writing centres could be observed through many channels; namely, their services, contributions as an educational facility, influence on students, and their convenience.

Writing centres, it seems, inherited their worth from the importance of writing itself as a perquisite for success in the scholarly world (Elmborg & Hook, 2005). Indeed, without good writing skills, students are likely to fail at achieving their academic objectives. Thus, writing centres are useful facilities that students of all disciplines can exploit to attain their educational endeavours (Moss et al., 2014). Writing centres could also contribute to the intellectual growth of students by providing them with adequate assistance throughout the year in their different assignments (Barnet & Blumner, 1999). That is, during each one-to-one tutoring session, students often get the chance to discuss their ideas with a qualified tutor and receive considerable input in the process, thereby deepening their knowledge and upgrade their competence. Likewise, writing centres are useful for promoting students' thinking skills by making them pay attention to the process of writing and the planning, revision, and evaluation techniques associated with it (McKinney, 2013).

Writing centres, furthermore, seek to change students' attitudes towards writing by helping them perceive the importance of writing within and beyond the academic world (Kent, 2006). In other words, writing centres offer the students who dislike writing some sort of a psychological support through many channels such as individual tutoring, workshops or awareness talks to urge those students to end their adverse attitudes towards writing. Moreover, the writing centre can be the space where students overcome their insecurities and develop their self-esteem as writers by working in collaboration with

trained tutors who know how to motivate students and make them feel comfortable and positive (Harris, 2011). Similarly, writing centres are considered useful for supporting autonomous learning because such learning spaces permit students to make major decisions and choices as regards all aspects of their writing assignments (Benjamin, 2013).

Furthermore, from a social perspective, writing centre may well be a suitable setting where students can talk about writing and related issues with tutors or fellow students, and boost their social growth accordingly (Archer & Richards, 2011). More specifically, in a writing centre, students might create opportunities for socialising, building relationships, and improving their interpersonal and communication skills. Writing centres are, in fact, build around the objective of providing learners with opportunities to talk about their writing and discuss their ideas. In this regard, Grimm (2006) stated:

> "The 'help' writing centers provide is not simply fixing a comma splice like using spit to pat down an unseemly cowlick. Rather, the work of a writing center is a matter of being available mentally and emotionally to engage in the mutual construction of meaning with another (p. 3)."

Grimm's purport highlights the fact that both the mission of writing centres is far beyond rectifying the surface features of written products; it is instead more about providing students with the opportunities for collaborating, learning, thinking, and growing. Hence, writing centres can be described as social spaces within university (Montgomery, 2017). In fact, social spaces (i.e. places where people gather and interact) are likely to motivate language learners, enhance their linguistic skills, and ease their learning process (Littlefield, 2012).

On the whole, writing centres are advantageous educational spaces where students of all disciplines and levels can get linguistic, intellectual, psychological, cultural and social

support. For this reason, the role writing centres play in any academic institution is judged worthwhile and wide-ranging.

2.2.4. Modus Operandi of Writing Centres

Although writing centres worldwide differ in facilities, services, and resources, they all appear to adhere to relatively the same methods and procedures (Harris, 2006). The following is an overview on the main approaches adopted by the mainstream of writing centres around the globe.

2.2.4.1. Offering One-to-one Tutoring Sessions

Writing centres are built upon the concept of one-to-one sessions. The latter refers simply to a mini symposium during which only one student receives a support from a tutor. (Bruce & Rafoth, 2009). To put it simply, one-to-one sessions are some sort of individual student-tutor meetings. Typically, a student gets an appointment via phone or email, and then walks in the writing centre to sit with a trained tutor and get assistance pertaining to writing and related issues such as dissertation format and conventions (Murphy & Stay, 2012). At times, writing centres operate on a walk-in scheme i.e., on a first-come, first-served basis (Kent, 2006). Such sessions last ordinarily from fifteen minutes to an hour, and they are attended by students of all levels and academic affiliations. Nowadays, many writing centres are trying online one-to-one consultations to reach to more students, to save time as well as to upgrade the quality of services a writing centre provides (Breuch, 2012). In 2016, for instance, the writing centre at Brown University in the USA offered more than three thousands tutoring sessions to students across disciplines (Annual Report, 2017).

2.2.4.2. Staffed by Tutors, Coaches, and Collaborators

Writing centres are generally staffed by full-time tutors who are trained to provide writing-related assistance (Murphy & Law, 2013). Moreover, some writing centres employ

postgraduate students as part-time consultants in addition to permanent tutors (Bean, 2011). Yet, some other centres, especially new ones, are fully staffed by postgraduate students mainly due to the lack of financial support (Bean, 2011). According to Harris (1996), the instructors who work in writing centres do not serve as teachers, but rather as tutors, coaches or simply collaborators. In fact, tutors working in a writing centre do not offer any kind of explicit lecturing or evaluation, they instead focus on assisting students in enhancing the overall quality of their written products (Harris, 1996). Students are not required to go to the writing centre with a final draft, as they can get help at all stages of the writing process from 'planning' to 'editing'. They might even sit with a consultant only to come up with a topic for their research or assignment (Murdick, 2011).

2.2.4.3. Encourage Experimentation and Practice

Convinced that learning to write entails practice and experiment, writing centre instructors tend to repeatedly urge students to try new ideas and approaches, make mistakes, ask trivial questions, and write without the anxiety of being graded, evaluated or blamed (Kent, 2006). Accordingly, writing centres often organise a variety of activities and workshops (e.g. writing book reviews or composing creative emails) that aim essentially to boost the students writing skills through practicing and experimenting (Barnet & Blumner, 1999). This demonstrates that writing centres have a tendency to foster thinking, creativity, and experiential learning (i.e. learning through doing).

2.2.4.4. Available to Students of all Levels and Across Disciplines

Writing centres are open to all students no matter what level, affiliation and major they might be (McKinney, 2013). In a word, any registered students can go to the writing centre of his university and get assistance free of charge. In fact, the services the writing centres are not devoted to a certain category of students; instead, there are courses, sessions, and workshops for everyone (Breuch, 2012). The work of writing centres is guided by the

conviction that writing is a primordial skill that learners of all disciplines need to accomplish their academic objectives (Bruce & Rafoth, 2009). For this reason, writing centres are gaining increasing popularity worldwide (ibid).

2.2.4.5. Focus on the Students' Individual Needs

The work of writing centres is individual -oriented, in the sense that during every one-to-one tutoring session the tutor tries to address the specific needs that would be expressed by the student attending the session (Barnet & Blumner, 2008). That is, students often visit the writing centre at their university for different purposes, and the tutor is there to meet all their needs. In short, tutors offer a customised assistance to students. Hence, writing centres encourage the students to visit the writing centre with any problem regarding their writing, from an ambiguous thesis statement to a writer's block (Bean, 2011). This implies that the assistance that students receive in a writing centre is unrestricted, comprehensive and personalised.

In the main, writing centres methods revolve around offering all students, registered at the university where the centre is located, one-to-one tutoring sessions during which students get the assistance they need. Writing centres are also spaces where students can think, learn and talk about matters pertaining to writing. Further, writing centre are free of charge and could be student-staffed.

2.2.5. Examples and Statistics Related to Writing Centres

According to the International Writing Centers Directory, there are more than a thousand of writing centres spread all over the world, with approximately 700 of them within the premises of the American universities alone. The writing centre at the University of Harvard and that of Stanford University are but examples of those centres. In the United Kingdom, For instance, there are roughly 20 centres, while only half of them

exist in France. This clearly indicates that writing centres are widespread in the United States exclusively. In fact, the concept of writing centres is of American of origins, and has been strongly advocated within the American educational institutions since its emergence (Boquet, 1999). In other countries, writing centres are still a mystery and no one knows why (ibid).

In Algeria, to the best of the present researcher's knowledge, there are only two modest and student-staffed centres: a writing centre at the university of Mostaghanem (created in 2012), and the UC Writing Centre at the University of Constantine (created in 2013 as a part of the present study). Both centres do not receive any financial support from the universities within which they operate, and rely uniquely on volunteers to perform certain tasks such as organising workshops and writing activities or games. In terms of premises, those two centres use the facilities and resources of their university's library. For instance, the writing centre is located within the American Corner at the central Library of Constantine University. Inconveniently, instead of having their own professional websites, the Algerian writing centres have only Facebook pages through which they keep in touch with their potential visitors. Nonetheless, the Algerian writing centres are striving to survive.

To conclude with, although they have been proven effective in helping students succeed in academia, writing centres are still not prevalent out of the United States where they were born. Perhaps, educators and theorists should raise more awareness about the importance of writing centres and advocate their philosophy and underpinnings.

Conclusion

The foregoing chapter comprises a range of approaches, practices, and writing-related issues that have shaped and influenced the teaching of foreign language writing over the years. Likewise, the chapter called attention to the relationship between writing and

thinking as well as to creative writing as influential constructs in the contemporary writing instruction tenets. Furthermore, the chapter sheds some light particularly on the notion of 'writing centre,' and observed its emergence, struggle and evolution. Writing centres have gone all the way from being considered places where only weak students go to get free proofreading services to becoming established and highly valued educational settings that advocate writing and thinking.

Chapter Three

Learner Attitudes and Metacognition in Language Teaching and Learning: An Overview

Chapter Three

Learner Attitudes and Metacognition in Language Teaching and Learning: An Overview

Introduction

Learner attitudes and metacognitive abilities are two constructs that have been thoroughly investigated in recent decades, for they esteemed to yield various insights about learners and the behavioural patterns that characterise their learning. In this regard, the first section of this chapter offers an overview on the concept 'attitude' and associated matters. It embarks with a definition of the notion attitude, and then provides a description of its structure, functions, and measurements. Afterwards, the section summarises the main theories of attitude change and sheds some light on the formation of attitude. Furthermore, a discussion on the relationship between attitudes and the writing skill in foreign language education is presented at the end of section one. In a similar fashion, section two begins with a definition of the terms cognition and metacognition before casting light on metacognitive strategies and their impact on learning. Subsequently, the section highlights the relationship between metacognition and learner autonomy, and metacognition and writing. The section concludes with a discussion on the worth of metacognition in foreign language learning.

3.1. Section One: Learner Attitudes

3.1.1. Attitudes Defined

In social psychology, an attitude is commonly defined as “one’s view toward a person, object, or concept; can be positive, negative, neutral, or ambivalent (a simultaneous positive and negative bias toward the same attitude object)” (Grinnell, 2016 para.1). That is, the term attitude refers to a person’s opinions, feelings, and beliefs about subjects,

objects, events, and ideas. Those opinions and beliefs could be favourable, unfavourable, unbiased, or mixed and equivocal. Accordingly, attitudes are described as "a relatively enduring organisation of beliefs, feelings, and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols" (Hogg & Vaughan, 2005, p.150). In fact, the forgoing definitions tend to suggest that the construct 'attitude' is rather an umbrella term comprising a number of other interconnected concepts such as feelings, beliefs and behaviours. In this vein, Carono and Prisilin (2006) highlighted the concept "evaluation" when they explained attitudes as "the evaluative judgment that integrates and summarises (…) cognitive/affective reactions" (p.347). This implies that the human attitudes are often manifested through a person's mental, emotional, and behavioural reactions to a certain object, subject, idea or situation. Thus, attitudes, as Eagly and Chaiken (1993) described them, are "tendencies to evaluate an entity with some degree of favor or disfavor ordinarily expressed in cognitive, affective and behavioral responses" (p.155). The previously stated explanations suggest that attitudes are wide-ranging, multiplex and interdisciplinary. On this very issue, Baker (1992) pointed out that "the notion of attitudes has a place in psychology, sociology, anthropology, education, history, human geography and creative arts".

3.1.2. Structure of Attitudes

According to the relevant literature, the anatomy of attitudes consists of three major components represented in what is known as the *ABC Model of Attitudes* or *The Tripartite Model*. The ABC model, which was designed by Rosenberg and Hovland in 1960, is fundamental to the study of attitudes (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). This systematic modelling of attitudes includes three quantifiable components, namely affective, behavioural, and cognitive (Sutton & Douglas, 2013).

- *Affective component*: Refers to a person's feelings or emotions about a giving object, subject, situation or event. For example, students do not like to write essays.
- *Behavioural component*: Denotes the how a person behaves towards certain entities (e.g. a person). For example, students do not practise writing at home.
- *Cognitive component*: Involves a person's beliefs, opinions and knowledge about an attitude object (can be a person, idea, place or item). For example, students believe that writing is a tedious task.

Overall, as the Tripartite Model suggests, the human attitudes can be divided into three main constituents. The first component is affective-based, and it represents how a human being would feel about a specific person, object, place, space, or concept (in psychology, each of these elements is called an 'attitude object'). The second one, behaviour-based, involves how a person would act, react or behave towards an attitude object. The third one is cognitive-based and refers to the human opinions, beliefs, expectations, and knowledge about potential attitude objects.

3.1.3. Function of Attitudes

There is a consensus among scholars on the theory, which suggests that attitudes carry out specific functions for every human being (Erwin, 2014). Those psychological functions are key to interpreting the human attitudes and, more importantly, to changing them (Shupe & Bradley, 2011). On that basis, many theorists (e.g. Katz, 1960; Kelman, 1961) have attempted to interpret the various human reactions towards people, things, ideas or concepts (Shupe & Bradley, 2011). Katz (as cited in Fiske et al., 2010) laid the ground for research in this area when he suggested a functional approach to understanding attitudes. More specifically, Katz (1960) proposed four functions that attitudes could perform, namely 1) utilitarian function, 2) the ego defensive function, 3) the value expressive function and the 4) knowledge function.

3.1.3.1. The Utilitarian Function

This type of attitude (also referred to as *adaptive* or *instrumental*) is useful for general life approaches as well as for avoidance techniques and tendencies (e.g., avoiding unrewarding situations). That is, a utilitarian attitude helps an individual adjust to different circumstances and situations that he might experience in their daily life. For instance, if a student is treated with respect and friendliness in the classroom, they are likely to develop positive attitudes towards 'the teacher' or 'the classroom', and vice versa. More specifically, based on previous experiences, this type of function directs individuals towards rewarding entities (e.g. a comedy show; an activity that generates laughter and excitement), and keep them away from unsatisfying attitude objects (e.g. queuing up at the post office; a task that may result in discomfort and tediousness).

3.1.3.2. The Ego-defensive Function

Attitudes under this heading serve at protecting the human self-esteem and views of the self. This means is that certain attitudes could be used as a protection to a person's self-esteem, and in some ways justify the deeds that would make the individual feels remorseful. This type of function involves the use of several defence mechanisms that an individual activates to shield himself from psychological impairment (i.e. external annoyance). For example, if a teacher makes a mistake and a student corrects him publically, the teacher might activate certain defence mechanism (e.g. denial, repression, projection, etc.) and accuse the student of being impolite and interrupter. In this case, the teacher protected his ego by using 'denial' as a protection mechanism.

3.1.3.3. The Value-expressive Function

This category of attitudes performs as a medium of expressing one's beliefs and convictions. To put it simply, unlike in the ego-defensive function, the value expressive attitudes allow the individual to express his principles, views and persuasions, thereby

showing who he really is. For instance, a Muslim father would most likely express joy, if he sees his young daughter wearing a veil. He would even reward her for that. Such a positive behaviour/reaction that the Muslim parent would display reflects his conviction that covering the head is a good deed. Conversely, a European father would deem that outfit uncivilised and against the human rights. He would even take his daughter to a psychologist in reaction. This type of function reflects the individual's views about self.

3.1.3.4. The Knowledge Function

The main function of this cluster of attitudes is to help individuals maintain general perceptions and stable thoughts about the world around them. More precisely, this function performs as a guide in a variety of situations and spaces by permitting the individual to predict what would happen and whether it would be useful or harmful to him. This type of attitudes makes the world around us more meaningful and relatively predictable. Thus, stereotyping is an instance of the knowledge function of attitudes as it involves having a general idea and predictions about people, things or concepts. For instance, a person who has been brought up in a conservative or religious family is predicted to consider drinking alcohol a very bad deed; whereas, a liberal person would view it pleasurable in many ways. Briefly, the knowledge function is driven by the people's need to know about their milieu to make their life easy.

In the main, attitudes are functional of nature and the functions they perform vary and, at times, overlap. These functions help us not only understand ourselves, but anyone around us as well. As teachers or researchers, this four-function taxonomy of attitudes makes it possible for us to know more about our students, decipher their equivocal reactions, and adjust their attitudes accordingly.

3.1.4. Theories of Attitudes Change

Adjusting or changing people's attitudes is unquestionably a complicated and a challenging task, for attitudes are closely associated with the human beliefs, feelings, and psychology in general (Bull & Rumsey, 2012). Yet, many theorists have developed a set of theories to ease the mission of understanding and subsequently changing an individual's attitudes towards certain attitude objects (Maio & Haddock, 2009). What follows is an overview of the main theories pertaining to attitude change.

3.1.4.1. Cognitive-consistency Theories

This cluster of theories suggests that people have a tendency to seek consistency in their attitudes and behaviours to maintain a sense of stability and coherence in everything they feel, think and do (O'Keefe, 1990). That is, human beings generally try to keep their attitudes, beliefs, and actions consistent and balanced to avoid discomfort and instability. Therefore, achieving such consistency, as Oskamp & Schultz (2005) explained, entails adjusting certain attitudes to fit within a larger coherent scheme of attitudes. In simpler terms, attitude change may occur due to the need of human beings to make the entirety of their attitudes harmonised. According to (Baumeister & Bushman, 2007), there are at least four major theories within the cognitive-consistency category: balance theory, congruity theory, affective cognitive theory, and cognitive dissonance theory.

3.1.4.1.1. Balance Theory

According to Colman (2008), the balance model of attitude change focuses on the individual's need to maintain consistency in relations between three elements: The person/observer (i.e. the individual himself), another person, and an object. More specifically, the balance theory claims that a person's necessity to preserve consistency in his beliefs and conducts is a strong motive for him to change some of his attitudes (Colman, 2008). Such an alternation in attitudes is likely to result in a state of

psychological balance (Ajzen, 2005). That is, people might attempt to change some of their attitudes towards certain subjects or objects to create some sort of equilibrium at the levels of their feelings, beliefs and behaviours.

Heider (as cited in Cobley & Schulz 2013), who developed this theory, suggested that attitude change could be explored through three elements, namely the person/perceiver (P), another person (O), and an attitude object (X). The relationships between these elements are either positive or negative according to the person's (perceiver) cognitive perceptions (i.e. feelings, views, and beliefs). For instance, if John loves Jessy (positive), and Jessy likes to play tennis (positive), but John does not (negative); John might either change his opinion about playing tennis, or try to make Jessy dislike tennis to become like him. In doing so, John is expected to reach a balance, and feel comfortable in consequence (Cobley & Schulz 2013). The following POX triangle (also known as the triad) shows how these three elements are linked.

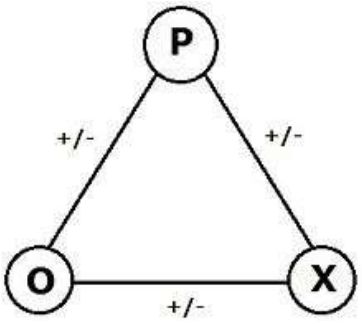
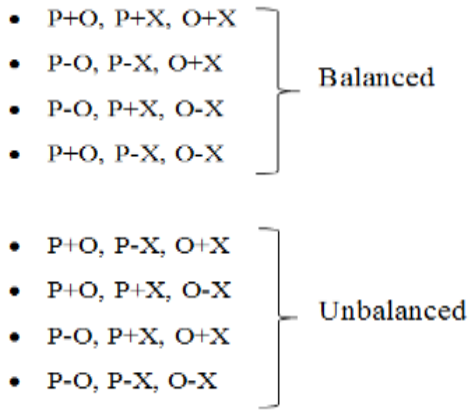


Figure 02. Heider's POX Model (Heider, 1958)

As Figure 01 displays, the three elements are represented by the letters P, O, X in each corner of the triangle; the person (P) on the top, another person (X) and an attitude object (O) on the lower sides of the triangle. The relationships between the three elements can be positive (+) or negative (–) depending on the person's (P) perceptions (i.e. liking and disliking) (Colman, 2008). Three positive relationships, or at least two negative and one positive, among the elements P, O, and X result in a psychological balanced state (psychological comfort), while three negative relationships, or at least two positive

and one negative, lead to an unbalanced state (psychological discomfort) (Colman, 2008). For example, if someone (P) likes (+) reading (O) and he (P) loves (+) his wife (X) but she (X) does not like (–) to read (O), the relationship between P, O, and X is considered unbalanced (P+O, P+X, O–X). This indicates that the person (P) is likely to feel uncomfortable due to the existence of two positive relationships (P+O, P+X) along with a negative one (O–X) in a single situation. In fact, there are eight possible sets of relationships: four of them balanced and the other four unbalanced (Norman and Doreian, 2003).



It is noteworthy that unbalanced relationships are likely to be turned into balanced ones when an individual attempts to achieve consistency in his likes and dislikes, thereby feeling psychologically comfortable (Cobley & Schulz 2013). In this respect, the balance theory of attitude change have been criticised for not explaining how a balance in attitudes could be restored, as well as for assuming that the balance is limited to only three elements or entities (Read & Miller, 2014).

3.1.4.1.2. Congruity Theory

This model of attitude change, proposed by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) to improve on the balance theory, advocates the need of the human mind to maintain harmony, and highlights communication and persuasion as fundamental units in attitude change (Gross, 2014). That is, a change in an individual's attitude could occur when that

individual becomes persuaded by a given idea; persuasion is often achieved through communication (i.e. a message). For instance, a leader of a political party convinces the audience through a series of speeches (communication/ message) to vote for him (i.e. changes their attitudes towards him/his party). Accordingly, as a replacement for the POX model (the person, another person, and an attitude object), Osgood and Tannenbaum (as cited in Crisp, 2015) suggested 'audience', 'source of a message, and 'concept', respectively. In detail, the person (P) in the balance theory is replaced with the element 'audience', and the other person (X) by 'a message source', while the attitude object (O) is substituted with 'concept'. Apropos the relationship between the aforementioned elements, (Cobley & Schulz 2013) pointed out:

> Thus, the theory concerns situations in which a Source makes an assertion about a Concept, and the audience has attitudes toward the source and the concept. The only relationship that remains the same is that the assertion of the source about the concept is either positive (associative) or negative (disassociative). This theory holds that incongruity (like imbalance) is unpleasant and motivates audiences to change their attitudes (p. 276).

Cobley and Schulz (2013) explained that the congruity model of attitude change is essentially concerned with the people's (i.e. audience) evaluation of a message sender/issuer (i.e. source) and a certain topic/object (i.e. concept). The evaluation is expected to establish whether the message and the concept (two objects) are linked and whether the link is positive or negative. A positive bound between objects, as the quotation suggest, denotes congruity (a balance in 'likes') and vice versa. This implies that attitudes could be adjusted in reaction to certain persuasive communications.

In the congruity theory, the potential relationships between the three entities (audience, source, and concept) are represented by a seven point scale (-1, -2, -3, 0, +1, +2, +3) to determine the degree of attitude change and minus and plus signs (+ or –) to determine the

direction of that change (Gross, 2014). For example, an individual is likely to buy the jacket that their best friend would recommend because people love (+3) their best friend, and since that friend likes the jacket (+2); the individual is expected to adopt positive attitudes towards that jacket (+1). Three positive bounds result in a state of congruity (i.e. psychological balance and comfort) (Colman, 2008). In the preceding example, the individual is the 'audience', and the friend is the 'source of the message/assertion', saying that the jacket is stylish and well-made is the 'assertion', while the jacket is the 'object/concept'. Further, if the individual likes the jacket whereas his friend does not and argues against it, the individual might change his opinion or evaluation with accordance to his friend's assertion (becomes convinced that the jacket is not a good choice).

Unlike the balance model of attitude change that overlook measurement matters, the congruity theory introduced a procedure for predicting the direction and amount of attitude change (Reddy, 2004). More precisely, the congruity model suggests that attitudes vary in degree and direction depending on the audience's perceptions of both the assertion made by the 'source' and the target 'concept' (Reddy, 2004).

3.1.4.1.3. Affective-cognitive Theory

According to (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007), this theory focuses on the consistency between an individual's feelings (i.e. affection) towards people, things or ideas and his system of beliefs and thoughts (i.e. cognition). This means that the human emotions and beliefs are tightly related, and they influence each other (Tiberius, 2010). Accordingly, the affective-cognitive model suggests that if a change occurs in the cognitive side (i.e. thoughts/knowledge), an alteration is likely to take place in the affective side (i.e. feelings/attitudes) (Chitale, Mohanty, and Dubey, 2012). In this regard, for a person to feel psychologically comfortable (stable), there should be a certain balance among his attitudes towards a subject or object and his beliefs about that attitude object (a person,

thing, or idea) (Hewstone, 2011). For instance, if a teacher convinces his students of the value of the writing skills in academia and beyond (cognitive change), they are likely to change their attitudes towards writing (affective change).

The affective-cognitive theory, developed by Rosenberg in the late 1950s, was based on experimentation, and it employed a set of correlation tests (Baum, 1997). More precisely, the theory was formulated upon a series of empirical researches that explored the relationship between people's beliefs and attitudes. In a word, Rosenberg's theory of consistency fulfils the criterion of testability.

3.1.4.1.4. Cognitive Dissonance Theory

This model, suggested by Leon Festinger in 1957, assumes that cognitive inconsistency among human attitudes, beliefs or behaviours often generates a psychological contradiction and pressure (i.e. dissonance) (Cooper, 2007). Thus, the need to reduce such dissonance pushes the individual to adopt new attitudes towards certain people, things, and ideas (i.e. attitude objects) (Sanderson, 2009). For instance, a student who does not revise his lessons (behaviour), even though he knows that he would not succeed without revising (beliefs); this situation is likely to create psychological discomfort for the student. Such a mental conflict might lead the student to revise his lessons to end the psychological dissonance (i.e. a change of attitude).

Roeckelein (2006) explained that in the cognitive dissonance model, the strength of the dissonance is measured against two main factors: the number of inconsistent (i.e. dissonant) beliefs, and the significance attributed to each of those beliefs. Accordingly, the dissonance could be eliminated in three ways: (a) reduce the importance of the inconsistent beliefs, (b) build on the consistent beliefs to overshadow the dissonant ones, or (c) alter the dissonant beliefs to eliminate the inconsistency they generate.

Since its emergence, the cognitive dissonance theory of attitude change has inspired a large number of empirical studies (Reddy, 2004). This implies that Festinger's theory has laid the ground for other theories and approaches, and so had a considerable impact on the field of attitude research (Cooper, 2007). On this matter, Greg, Chung-Yan, and Towson (2011) stated:

> In short, cognitive dissonance theory provides an excellent example of how theory serves three main functions: (a) organizing the existing literature, (b) providing direction for the testing of hypotheses derived from the original theory and for the generation of new hypotheses and new theories, and (c) suggesting many possibilities for intervention (p. 33).

The above-stated quotation casts light on the advantages of the cognitive dissonance theory and its contributions to the sphere of social psychology. The main contribution of this theory is probably the introduction of what is known as the 'induced compliance' paradigm (O'Keefe, 2002). The latter denotes a situation in which an individual is forced to behave in a manner that is inconsistent with his beliefs and personality due to an external inducement (O'Keefe, 2002). In fact, the induced compliance model allowed scholars to explore attitudes from a new perspective, and accordingly they gained new insights into the attitude patterns of individuals (Sanderson, 2009).

3.1.4.2. Functional Theory

As elucidated earlier in this chapter, attitudes are thought to be functional of nature. In this regard, the functional attitude theory proposes that attitudes perform a range of cognitive functions such as protecting oneself from external psychological harm (Erwin, 2014). In simpler terms, the various personality attitudes a person may adopt are essentially motivated by certain needs and goals (e.g. expressing one's values) that human beings need to satisfy. Therefore, as Baker (1992) pointed out, attitude change is greatly

influenced by the various purposes, which attitudes tend to accomplish. That is, attitude changes are related to the basic personality functions of attitudes because each function calls for a particular set of behaviours. Katz (as cited in Fiske et al., 2010) argued that attitudes could serve various mental and emotional functions. He summarised those functions into for main categories: Instrumental, ego-defensive, value expressive, and knowledge.

- **Instrumental Function** (also *utilitarian*): This function helps the individual intensify gratification and reduce displeasure in almost everything he does through a set of integration and avoidance predispositions. For instance, children tend to eat chocolate unceasingly (reward), and avoid medications persistently (punishment).
- **Ego-defensive Function**: This function serves as a shield to the individual's self-worth and social status. In other words, certain attitudes are exploited as a defence mechanism to stop any potential psychological harm from an external entity. For example, a student may attribute his failure to the teacher's incompetence to attain psychological comfort.
- **Value-expressive Function**: This function serves as a means of expressing one's beliefs and convictions; our behaviours often reflect who we are. For instance, Muslims celebrate Ramadan and do not eat pork.
- **Knowledge Function**: Attitudes within this cluster enable the individuals to perceive the world around them in a meaningful, organised, consistent and predictable manner. For example, a football player tends to buy Nike products because they are expected to be of high quality.

To recap, the functional theory proposes that attitude change (i.e. persuasion) entails understanding why those attitudes were adopted in the first place. In this respect, attitudes

are thought to perform various functions for the individual, and manipulating those functions and the associated matters is likely to cause an alternation in the attitudes.

3.1.4.3. Social Judgment Theory

Developed by Muzafer Sherif and his colleagues in the early 1960s, the social judgment theory suggests that people tend to evaluate every new idea, person or object by comparing it to their current cluster of beliefs (O'Keefe, 2002). In doing so, people determine where to place that new object or subject within their attitude scheme. That is, the social judgment theory is mainly concerned with how an individual perceives a particular social situation (e.g. greeting strangers). More specifically, the core idea of the social judgment model is that persuasion (i.e. attitude change) is attribute to a set of judgmental processes and effects (i.e. evaluations) (Littlejohn & Fross, 2008). In other words, attitude change could occur following an evaluation of certain subjects or objects based on the evaluator's current attitudes.

According to Gass and Seiter (2015), the social judgment model claims that an individual's attitudes towards an attitude object (i.e. person, object, or concept) are influenced by three elements.

- The person's most preferred position (e.g. for or against) regarding a certain issues (i.e. the anchor point).
- The message that the person receives in a particular situation (i.e. the stimulus).
- The person's involvement with and knowledge about the communicated message (i.e. the ego-involvement).

Gass and Seiter (2015) explained that these points of evaluation determine where a new 'message' (e.g. authorising polygamy) would be placed within an individual's continuum of beliefs. That is, the message/topic to be evaluated is either positive, negative

or neutral, depending on the evaluator's anchor point and degree of involvement (the importance of the issue to him). To be precise, the continuum of beliefs, as O'Keefe (2002)

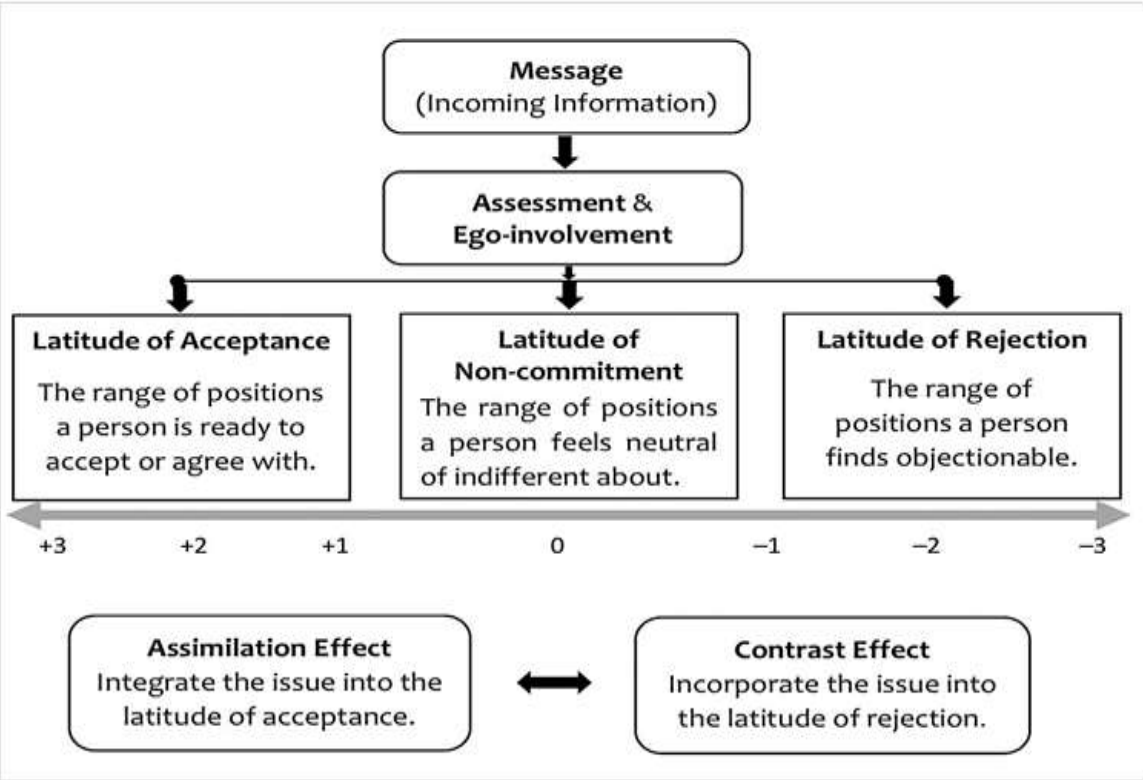


Figure 03. Social Judgment Process (Adapted from Sherif, 1960)

described, is marked by three points known as latitudes, namely latitude of acceptance, latitude of rejections, and latitude of non-commitment. The following figure demonstrates how these latitudes work.

Littlejohn and Fross (2008) explained that the ego-involvement of a person enlarges the latitude of rejection and constricts that of non-commitment. Hence, the distance between the anchor point of judgment (i.e. the person's most preferred position) and the main message (i.e. stimulus) determines whether the issue under evaluation is favourable or not (Fross, 2008). Put differently, a close distance symbolises an assimilation effect (i.e. acceptance), while a distant position denotes a contrast effect (i.e. rejection).

The social judgment theory is commonly exploited in the field of marketing, as it focuses on persuasion and explains how people perceive messages differently in a communication process (Burgoon, 2011). That is, people have a tendency to evaluate what they see, hear and feel based on their own beliefs, preferences, and level of involvement in the issue being evaluated. For this reason, the social judgment model of attitude change has inspired numerous researches over the recent decades (Wahl, 2016).

To recap, the attitude change theories deal with the potential discrepancy that may characterise the beliefs, evaluations, judgements, and behaviours of an individual. Although these theories differ in details, they all seem to agree that inconsistency leads to anxiety and anxiety induce attitude alteration, and the latter results in a state of psychological equilibrium.

3.1.5. Formation of Attitudes

Attitudes are not inherited, but acquirable and can develop out of a multiplicity of sources (Sutton & Douglas, 2013). The literature dealing with social psychology identifies six main sources for attitudes, namely personal experiences, association, family and friends, neighbourhood, social status and professions, and mass communication.

3.1.5.1. Personal Experience

An individual's personal experience with a certain subject, object or concept could influence his behaviour towards that attitude object in the future (Maio & Haddock, 2009). That is, bad experiences are likely to result in negative attitudes while good experiences in positive ones. For instance, a tourist who has been brutally attacked in Cairo is likely to develop unfavourable attitudes towards that city. In this case, the individual (i.e. a tourist) had a bad personal experience in a particular city and formed negative beliefs about it in consequence. This also indicates that engaging people into favourable experiences is one way of adjusting their attitudes towards other people or things (Vogel & Wänke, 2016).

3.1.5.2. Association

Certain people develop favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards things or individuals just by associating those attitude objects with other people or things (Colman, 2008). That is, at times people adopt certain attitudes about subjects or objects only by linking them to other subjects or objects. For instance, many people tend to associate Italians with elegance; other people might link Italians to the Mafia. In short, feelings and beliefs could be copied or generated by means of connotation (Sutton & Douglas, 2013).

3.1.5.3. Family and Friends

Like ideas and convictions, attitudes could be transmitted to people from their parents, family members and long-standing friends (Pastorino & Doyle-Portillo, 2012). That means that there is a possibility that an individual adopts certain attitudes towards someone or something only because his parents possess the same attitudes towards that very person or object. This implies also that attitudes are imitative (Pastorino & Doyle-Portillo, 2012). For example, some people have a phobia about planes (aerophobia) merely because their parents dislike flying.

3.1.5.4. Neighbourhood

The neighbourhood where one lives or spends most of his time is believed to have an impact on his attitudes (Maio & Haddock, 2009). In fact, almost all sorts of social environments (e.g. the university) seem to influence the beliefs and behaviours of their native members (Maio & Haddock, 2009). For instance, people who live in a chic neighbourhood tend to be well dressed and well spoken; the vast majority of such a neighbourhood is expected to adopt similar attitudes.

3.1.5.5. Social Status and Occupations

Another source for attitudes could be people's social status and professions (Aquinas, 2006). That is, the respect accorded to an individual in a society and his professional

affiliation might push him to acquire certain attitudes. For instance, the majority of doctors tend to be clean, meticulous, tranquil, polite and intellectual. These traits might well reflect those doctors' beliefs and moralities. In a word, our socioeconomic status affects the way we feel and thinks about things and people (Erwin, 2014).

3.1.5.6. Mass Communications

It is widely agreed upon that mass media and public speeches or events influence how people think, feel, and behave (Gass & Seiter, 2015). To put it differently, television channels, newspapers, magazines, social media are believed to be source of attitudes. For example, televised speeches and interviews are thought to induce people's choices and preferences (Grossberg, 2006). Advertising commercials are another example of the media products that could persuade some individuals (i.e. the audience) to embrace certain attitudes towards specific products. Indeed, as Biagi (2016) argued, the human beliefs, feelings, and behaviours are open to manipulation and alteration through the craft of persuasion.

3.1.6. Measurement of attitudes

Similar to any other abstract and multidimensional concepts, the measurement of attitudes is intricate and relatively imprecise due to many factors, including the arbitrariness of attitudes and their hypothetical nature (Shupe & Bradley, 2011). Nevertheless, many researchers have attempted to measure attitudes using a range of instruments. Self-reports and behavioural observations are the main methods employed in the measurement of attitudes (Wegener, 2013; Maio & Haddock, 2009; O'Keefe, 2002).

3.1.6.1. Self-reports

As the title tends to suggest, self-reports refers to a set of data collection methods (e.g. survey) that involve asking the subjects to provide information about their feelings, beliefs, behaviours and the like (Mackey & Gass, 2015). Self-reports can be either written (e.g.

questionnaires) or spoken (e.g. interviews), as they can be distributed either in print or online (Hall & Hall, 2008). There are two main types of self-reports that researchers commonly adopted for the assessment of attitudes: questionnaires, and rating scales (ibid).

Self-completion questionnaires, which are composed of a series of questions or statements, are commonly employed as a data collection tool in the measurement of attitudes. Easy to administer and analyse, cost effective, and relatively standardised, questionnaires has gained popularity over the long years across disciplines (Dörnyei, 2014). Questionnaires, of all types, are essentially designed to gather information about a particular subject from respondents for statistical analysis and interpretation (Gillham, 2008). There are four main types of questionnaires: structured, unstructured, mixed, and pictorial. The main problem with questionnaires is the respondents' potential dishonesty, inaccuracy and carelessness (Mackey & Gass, 2015).

Rating scales are also a commonly used data-gathering technique in social studies (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). A rating scale is a data collection instrument that requires the respondents to assign a value (e.g. important/unimportant) to the object being rated (McBurney & White, 2009). In simpler terms, the concept rating scales refers to any technique that elicits information from respondents by means of a scale-based evaluation. Although there are many types of rating scales (e.g. semantic differential scale and Stapel scale), the Likert scale is presumably the most commonly used attitudinal scale in the fields of education and social psychology (Cargan, 2007). In fact, the notion 'Likert scale' has been increasingly used to designate all forms of attitudinal rating scales (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). To put it otherwise, many educators tend to refer to any scale-based questionnaire as a Likert scale. In description of the Likert scale, Brace (2008) stated:

> The Likert scale (frequently known as an 'agree-disagree scale) was first published by psychologist Rensis Likert in 1932. The technique presents respondents with a series of attitude dimensions (a battery), for each of which they are asked whether, and how strongly, they agree or disagree [with the proposed statements], using a five-point scale [viz., strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, and strongly agree] (p. 73).

Overall, rating scales are deemed relatively cost-efficient and easy to administer, complete and collect (Dörnyei, 2014). However, they are not considered highly reliable because the accuracy of the collected data could be influenced by many factors including the mood of the respondents and their social desirability (Kamphaus & Mays, 2013). Another problem with rating scales is that the questions might appear ambiguous and generate inaccurate responses (ibid).

3.1.6.2. Behavioural Observations

Behavioural observation is an assessment method used in clinical and educational settings (e.g. the classroom) to describe, evaluate, explain, and predict behaviour (Olsen, 2012). More specifically, behavioural observations involve watching and recording the behaviour of a person or group of people in a particular environment such as a library or classroom (Jex, 2002). According to (Gillham, 2008), there are two main categories of observational methods: structured and unstructured. An observation is described as structured when the observer predetermines, with precision, what behaviours to observe and how to record those observations (Bailey, 2007). Conversely, unstructured observations designate an observational situation in which a researcher attempts to observe all the potential behaviours that the subjects under observation might display (ibid).

The strength of the behavioural observation method lies in its unobtrusive nature (McBurney & White, 2009). That is, during an observation task, the subjects are often unaware of the fact that they are being observed. Hence, such type of observations is

deemed effective at yielding relatively reliable findings (ibid). However, the major weakness of such tool of measurement is that it probably cannot assess attitudes with high accuracy and precision because attitudes are inconsistent and difficult to be measured systematically (Gillham, 2008).

3.1.7. The Importance of Attitudes in Foreign Language Education

The study of attitudes is central to the field of social psychology, for attitudes are believed to influence the overall social structure of any community, including the academic one (Hogg & Vaughan, 2013). In effect, attitudes are receiving an increased attention from scores of scholars in the field of foreign language education (Heinzmann, 2013). With reference to the relevant literature, the importance of attitudes in foreign language education could be perceived through three major points.

First, attitudes provide teachers with insights into their learners' psychology and cognition (Gardner, 2010). This implies that English language teachers could explore their learners' beliefs and observe their behaviours to understand how they feel and think about learning. In doing so, teachers would gain ample information about the learners and accordingly introduce the appropriate set of methods and procedures to enhance the students' learning outcomes (McKenzie, 2010). For instance, a writing teacher would replace traditional vocabulary exercises with vocabulary games or contests, if he notices that his learners find pleasure in game-based learning. In a similar vein, Tomlinson (2011) pointed out that teachers should pay attention to their learners' needs and expectations by listening to them as well as by observing their learning attitudes. In fact, students' attitudes towards the various tasks comprising a course are some sort of a feedback (ibid). This suggests that students have a habit of expressing their favour or disfavour of certain teaching materials and methods through a set of behavioural patterns such as checking their watches repeatedly.

Second, good attitudes help students advance in their academic pathway. Many scholars (Schmid, 2016; Dörnyei, 2014; Randall, 2007) argued that the better students are psychologically and cognitively prepared, the more achievements they would attain in educational circles. This indicates that if students possess negative beliefs about both themselves and their learning experience, they are most probably going to fail at achieving the desired academic goals. Indeed, self-esteem, motivation, awareness, learner autonomy, and learner involvement are thought to influence the overall learning experience and accomplishments of students (Hall, 2016; Ushioda, 2013; Jenkins, 2007). For example, students who consider the teacher entirely responsible for their growth as learners are expected to encounter a wide range of learning obstacles. In a word, success in foreign language learning calls for a set of informed beliefs, well-adjusted feelings and favourable behaviours.

Third, positive attitudes could make the classroom inviting and keep the teacher-learner relationship harmonious and healthy (Carter, 2006). That is, a successful classroom requires the students to hold the right set of attitudes and conducts with which to keep themselves organised, active, motivated, pleased and esteemed (ibid). To put it otherwise, students who hold negative attitudes towards a particular subject/course might end up disliking the teacher who teaches that subject. In this manner, students risk jeopardising the entirety of their learning enterprise because a negative teacher-student relationship is likely to hinder both the learning and teaching processes (Ellis, 2012). In fact, even teachers are likely to give less than their best, if they deem the students passive, unwilling, and indolent (Dörnyei, 2001). Hence, adopting positive classroom behaviour is perquisite for the learners' success in the journey of foreign language learning.

To conclude, attitudes could serve as a feedback tool and insight provider for teachers, and as a mental vehicle for students to attain their aspirations in the academic

sphere. In the light of these considerations, attitudes should be explored extensively and systematically.

3.1.8. Learner Attitudes and the Writing Skill

As noted earlier, in social psychology, attitudes are described as "tendencies to evaluate objects favourably or unfavourably "(Oslan & Maio, 2003, p.299). On this basis, attitudes towards writing could be described as the learners' cluster of beliefs, gamut of feelings, and behaviours patterns associated with the construct 'writing'. Hence, it is through observing the learners' attitudes that teachers determine if their students favour or disfavour the process of writing (Bartram, 2010). In short, attitudes are esteemed to provide writing teachers with assorted insights are regards their students' psychological dispositions. Those insights could well be exploited to boost the students' learning experience, and thereby help them attain their academic objectives (ibid).

Firstly, many studies (e.g. Hashemian, 2013; Aljumah, 2012; Petric, 2002) have investigated the impact of students' attitudes towards writing and academic achievements, and they have found a strong relationship between the two variables. In detail, those studies revealed that students who possess negative towards writing are likely to perform poorly in a writing task. This implies that unless students hold writing in favour or are aware of its value, they are unlikely to spend time or energy in enhancing their writing skills. More than that, they are even expected to avoid it because human beings in general tend to stay away from the entities that they find psychologically unrewarding (Colman, 2008). In this respect, adjusting students towards writing entails convincing them that writing is significant, pleasurable and more importantly rewarding (Baker, 1992). Briefly, attitudes can be a shortcut to enhancing students' writing skills and autonomous learning tendencies (Bartram, 2010).

Secondly, attitudes are argued to affect motivation as well as to determine how much involvement the students would manifest in the writing classroom (Heinzmann, 2013; Manchón, 2011). To illustrate, students who mistakenly believe that they are poor writers or that writing is a tedious activity and would eventually develop a writing anxiety (Kroll, 2003). The latter would in turn cause the students' motivation to weaken and their learning process to breakdown consequently (ibid). That is, anxiety is likely to hold the students back from participating or taking risks in the classroom, and thereby keeps them within a narrow zone of learning passivity. Put otherwise, enhancing ones writing skills within or beyond the classroom premises calls for self-motivation, patience, practice, and persistence (King, 2009). In short, without the appropriate attitudes and conducts, students risk undermining their learning process and diminishing its outcomes.

Thirdly, learner attitudes, as Garrett (2010) explained, have an impact on the teacher-leaner relationship, thus on the overall pleasantness and atmosphere of the classroom. That is, the attitudes and behaviours that the students frequently display in the classroom influence the way in which the teacher deals with those students (e.g. tough or friendly). In fact, the relationship between teachers and their students is considered significant since it contributes to the classroom ambiance; this latter is deemed crucial for the success of both the teaching and learning undertakings (Hamilton, 2013). For instance, in a classroom where the majority of the students exhibit positive attitudes towards writing, the teacher is likely to spare no effort to help those students excel. On their part, the students are most probably going to ease their teacher's mission by being collaborative, resourceful and autonomous. In short, a fruitful classroom necessitates favourable attitudes and conducts from both the teachers and their students.

To end with and as explained in the previous section, attitudes and writing are arguably connected. Their connection, which manifests itself in a variety of situations, is

deemed complex and worth exploring. In this sense, what is probably important for English language teachers is that attitudes could be exploited in pushing their students to boost their writing skills autonomously.

Section Two: Metacognition

3.2.1. The Nature of Cognition

To gain a proper understanding of what metacognition is, it is important to review the nature of cognition. In psychology, the concept cognition refers to the various mental processes associated with thinking and reasoning in general. These processes include understanding, knowing, remembering, memorising, comprehension and production of language, problem solving, and decision-making (Revlin, 2012). More accurately, cognition is defined as "the mental action or process of acquiring knowledge and understanding through thought, experience, and the senses "(Cognition', 2016). Put differently, cognition is the term used by theorists and educators to describe the various intellectual activities that the human mind repeatedly initiates to obtain, process, store, retrieve and manipulate knowledge through several channels such us listening and observing. Thus, cognition is considered an ordinary way of thinking, whereas metacognition a higher order course of thinking (Baker, 2011).

3.2.2. Metacognition Defined

The expression ‘thinking about thinking' is probably the simplest definition of the concept 'metacognition' available in the relevant literature. The wording of this definition implies that metacognition refers some sort of a second or upper level of thinking that is initiated by the human mind to monitor, regulate, and direct another stream of thinking. Flavell (1979), who coined the term, describe it as "knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena" (p. 906). That is, metacognition refers to the human awareness and

understanding of his own thinking processes. Likewise, Chambon et al. (2014) defined as "the general ability to monitor mental states and processes" (p. 323). This description indicates that monitoring is a key concept for understanding what metacognition is. In this respect, ‘thinking about thinking' entails observing, monitoring and regulating processes (Reeves, 2015).

3.2.3. Components of Metacognition

Awareness about the components constituting the human mental processes (e.g. cognition and metacognition) is esteemed essential for learning how to learn and how to think (Nosich, 2014). According to Flavell (1979), metacognition is made up of two major components: metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experiences.

3.2.3.1. Metacognitive Knowledge

Metacognitive knowledge (also known as metacognitive awareness) refers to a learner's general understanding of his own thinking skills, a certain task, and the way in which that specific task could properly be accomplished (Hartman, 2013). In detail, metacognitive knowledge consists of three main elements, namely declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge (Wong, 2013).

- ***Declarative Knowledge***: This element denotes an individual's awareness of his thinking mechanisms and competences. For instance, an English language learner knows that he can write a coherent essay on a wide range of topics. He is also aware that he can enhance his English writing skills.
- ***Procedural Knowledge***: This type of knowledge refers to what a learner would know about a certain task before undertaking it (i.e. his familiarity with the task in hands). For example, a learner knows how to write a formal email in two different languages. This means that he has enough information about email writing.

- ***Conditional Knowledge*** (also strategy knowledge): This component describes what a learner knows about the potential strategies with which to perform a given task successfully. That is, conditional knowledge entails knowing what strategy to use in solving a particular task as well as how to use that strategy. For instance, a student of English would prefer to prepare for his speaking examination by listening to a series of British political speeches.

3.2.3.2. Metacognitive Experiences

Metacognitive experiences (also known as metacognitive regulation) are those feelings and mental impressions that a person might experience before, during, or after a thinking task (Tarricone, 2011). That is, a metacognitive experience is any mental and emotional activity (e.g. questioning or reflecting) that would accompany a cognitive task. For instance, feeling that what you are reading is inappropriate or worthless and wondering why you are reading it. In this example, there are three thinking processes: one cognitive and two metacognitive. The cognitive task is the act of reading something, while the metacognitive ones are feeling that the book are inappropriate and asking yourself what holds you from ending the reading task. Hence, metacognitive experiences are some sort of mental regulatory mechanisms that coexist with thinking (Efklides, 2001). In the same vein, Larkin (2015) described metacognitive experiences as follows:

> Metacognitive experiences include feelings of confidence and puzzlement; monitoring of progress and judgments of success or failure including the feelings which accompany them. Whether conscious or not, metacognitive experiences can influence progress on a task or to abandonment of the task ... Metacognitive experiences give rise to cognitive strategies and play a part in monitoring cognition through the interaction of metacognitive strategies, metacognitive knowledge and task goals (p. 191).

Larkin (2015) explained that metacognitive experiences may cause a task to continue longer or end before the planned time, and that those experiences are likely to instigate what is known as metacognitive strategies. Accordingly, it could be inferred that metacognitive experiences, which involve monitoring and evaluating, are the stimulus of metacognitive strategies.

3.2.4. Metacognitive Strategies

In foreign language education, metacognitive strategies denote a set of techniques and mental processes (e.g. planning and self-evaluation) that a learner might employ while learning (Cohen, 2014). In other terms, metacognitive strategies are the skills that enable learners to plan, direct, monitor and evaluate a learning task in an effort to enhance its outcome. O' Malley & Chamot (1990) described metacognitive strategies as "higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity" (p.44). In fact, O' Malley & Chamot (1990) distinguished metacognitive strategies from the cognitive ones, which are more direct and involve ordinary thinking skills such as summarising, guessing, and note-taking. Likewise, Oxford (2013, p. 45) identified eight metacognitive strategies:

- Paying Attention to Cognition
- Planning for Cognition
- Obtaining and Using Resources for Cognition
- Organizing for Cognition
- Implementing Plans for Cognition
- Orchestrating Cognitive Strategy Use
- Monitoring Cognition
- Evaluating Cognition

The list provided by Oxford (2013) demonstrates that metacognitive strategies are higher order thinking mechanisms, which serve as a regulator of thinking (i.e. cognition). Hence, empowering foreign language learners with such strategies is a challenging yet worthwhile undertaking (Chamot, 2005). Indeed, making students aware of how they think, learn, and reflect upon their own cognitive tasks is deemed essential for their intellectual growth and academic success (Anderson, 2002). The following figure shows how metacognitive strategies are related to other learning strategies.

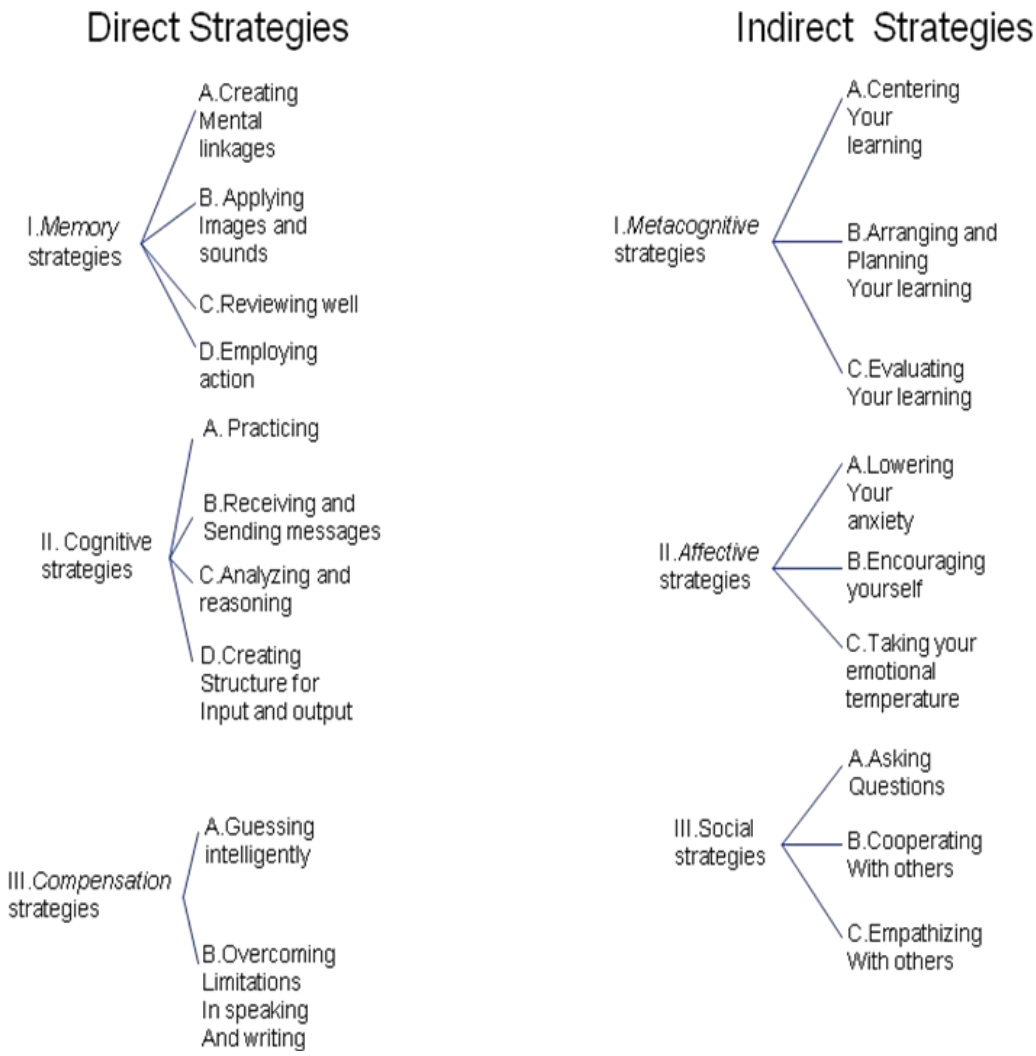


Figure 04: Diagram of the Direct and Indirect Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p. 17)

As the preceding figure (04) illustrates, Oxford (1990) suggested two classes of learning strategies (direct and indirect) each of which comprises three groups of strategies. Memory, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies belong to the category of direct strategies, while metacognitive, affective, and social strategies to the class of indirect strategies. It could be noticed that metacognitive strategies deal mainly with planning, monitoring, and evaluating one's learning (Cohen, 2014). This implies that metacognitive learners are those who think carefully before acting, set short-term objectives and plan for meeting them, seek opportunities for practice and development, and evaluate themselves regularly and critically (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014).

3.2.5. The Impact of Metacognitive Strategies on Learning

Many scholars (e.g., Harris, 2006; Tarricone, 2011; Metcalfe, 2009) have argued for the usefulness of metacognitive strategies in helping learners to meet their academic objectives. With reference to the relevant literature, the significance of metacognitive strategies in learning could be summarised in three main points.

First, as students develop a set of metacognitive skills, they are expected to feel more confidence, more motivated and thus more persistent to learn (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). For instance, a student who is able to identify his learning problems would effortlessly change his learning strategy or resources to overcome any potential hindrances while preparing for an exam. Conversely, if a student is willing to learn, but he is unable to detect the problem that hinders his comprehension, he would probably get bored, lose hope and end the learning task. Indeed, good learners are those who remain on task until the pre-set goals are attained (e.g. a student writer keeps proofreading until the essay is mistake-free). In short, metacognitive strategies seem to influence students' beliefs, behaviours, and eventually their success (Hartman, 2013).

Second, applying metacognitive strategies frequently might lead to learner autonomy (Gardner, 2000). The latter is the capacity and willingness to direct and improve one's own learning (Dam, 2001). To put it, otherwise, metacognitive strategies contribute to learner growth at both the personal and intellectual levels by permitting learners to adopt an active and influence role in the learning enterprise. In this regards, Wenden (1991) explained that autonomous learners are those who are actively engaged in their learning; who learn within and beyond the classroom walls homogeneously; and who continuity reflect up on all aspects of their learning. In short, learners with metacognitive skills are more or less learners with autonomous skills (ibid).

Third, metacognitive strategies are thought to enhance students' creativity by pushing them to pay close attention to their thinking as well as to their intellectual productivity (Runco, 2010). That is, when learners attempt to regulate their thinking through planning, monitoring, problem solving, and evaluation; they are expected to learn how to think resourcefully and innovatively (ibid). For instance, a student writer who evaluates his first draft critically is likely to unlock his imagination while producing a second draft to come up with fresh and ingenious ideas. On metacognition and creativity, Charyton (2010) asserted, "Psychology is valuable for addressing creativity in education by promoting learning through metacognition and self-reflective activities" (p. 1). This account indicates that creativity, in its simplest forms, is a potential outcome of the learning activities that involve evaluating one's thinking (i.e. metacognition).

To recap, metacognitive strategies, if well employed, could promote self-confidence, awareness, independence, and creativity. In this sense, learners with metacognitive skills are in all likelihood successful learners.

3.2.6. Metacognition and Learner Autonomy

Based on the relevant literature, there is a wide consensus among scholars and researchers on the close relationship between metacognition and learner autonomy. In fact, the shift from teacher-centred approach to teaching to learner-centred ones has directed the attention of many educators to the cognitive nature of learning (Harris et al., 2006). In effect, several studies (e.g. Cheng & Zheng, 2004; Guo & Yan, 2007; Yanjun, 2004) have attempted to encourage learner autonomy through metacognitive trainings. Such teachings involve training students on how to regulate their learning through a variety of metacognitive strategies as monitoring and self-evaluating. Accordingly, metacognitive strategies are deemed essential for developing students' autonomous and lifelong learning skills (Candy, 1991). For instance, many studies (e.g. Tamjid & Birjandi, 2011; Gardner, 2000) reported that learner autonomy could be successfully implemented through self-assessment practices. Yet, more research is needed in this area to fully understand the impact of learner autonomy and metacognitive strategies on each other.

The main link between metacognition and learner autonomy are the three elements 'planning, monitoring, and evaluating', which are fundamental components of both metacognition and autonomy (Chamot, 2005). In fact, research dealing with learner autonomy is thought to be complicated because there is little agreement among scholars on what autonomy in learning truly is (Everhard, 2016). For this reason, many issues pertaining to learner autonomy and metacognition such as the difference between an autonomous learner and a metacognitive one have remained unexplored (Benson, 2013). Nevertheless, both the domains of metacognition and that of learner autonomy are steadily expanding and simultaneously inspiring theorists, researchers, and teachers worldwide.

Metacognition is described as interdisciplinary, for it has been exploited in a variety of field as mathematics, physics, and psychotherapy (Cohen, 2014). A similar description has been attributed to learner autonomy, which has been used in a wide range of disciplines, including computing studies, management, and political sciences (Benson, 2013). That is, metacognition and learner autonomy share the feature of being introduced to many academic sphere for a variety of purposes. This distinctive feature seems to emphasise the importance and practicality of metacognition and learner autonomy in learning almost anything.

3.2.7. Metacognition and the Writing Skill

Following the late 1960s trend of viewing writing as a process, theorists (e.g. Flower and Hayes, 1981; Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Hayes, 1996) began to explore writing from cognitive and metacognitive perspectives. Their studies revealed that writing, as a process, is typically a metacognitive task. That is, while writing, students generate idea (think), put them on paper or screen (perform) and then revise those ideas (think about thinking) in a recursive manner until the task of writing is finished. This implies that writers tend to employ a series of metacognitive strategies when producing a piece of writing (Wenden, 1991).

Furthermore, learning to write well in a foreign language is characterised by meta-cognition, in the sense that monitoring one's cognition is most likely to yield good thinking (Anderson, 2002). More specifically, teaching writing entails empowering students with a set of metacognitive skills (e.g. self-assessment) with which they organise their thinking and boost its productivity to produce coherent essays.

Many researchers (e.g. Graham, 2006; Harris, 2006; Wong, 1999) have investigated the impact of exploiting metacognitive knowledge during a writing task on the overall

quality of writing and found a correctional between the two variables. More precisely, the conducted studies confirmed that second language students' writing development and performance is comparatively influenced by the students' level and use of metacognitive knowledge. This tends to imply that urging foreign language learners to exploit their metacognitive knowledge and strategies each time they write is likely to cause their writing to improve and their thinking patterns to develop. In this respect, Sitko (2009) pointed out that training students metacognitively is crucial for their development as writers because planning, monitoring, and evaluating are the basic skills of successful student writers. In fact, contemporary theories of writing instruction seem to deem writing a powerful tool for thinking, learning, and communicating.

Metacognition, in its broad sense, is regulatory of nature (Baker, 2011). This means that it serves as a thinking-regulating device, which ensures the proper performance of cognition. For this reason, metacognition is considered essential for both the teaching and learning of writing. On this matter, Locke (2014) pointed out: "In the classroom as writing community, there is no more powerful demonstrator of metacognition than the teacher herself. There is no aspect of the writing process that does not benefit from metacognitive reflection" (p. 150). Indeed, unlike in the past when the focus was essentially on language skills, teaching writing in this era entails equipping learners with what is known as '21st century skills (e.g. critical thinking and creativity) to prepare them for a 'high-tech' globe. In this sense, Harris et al. (2009) argued that metacognitive knowledge and strategies are efficacious in teaching the writing process to children. Based on the previously mentioned instances, one could deduce that metacognition has contributed to the evolution of second/foreign language writing instruction in recent decades.

Overall, the relationship between metacognition and writing has not been explored extensively due to a variety of factors including the complexity of both concepts and the

controversies they oftentimes provoke (Veenman, 2012). Yet, the benefits of exploiting metacognition in the teaching of writing are increasingly emerging in the relevant literature. In a word, metacognition and writing are interconnected.

3.2.8. The Significance of Metacognition in Learning

Over the last four decades or so, numerous scholars (e.g. Hartman, 2013; Dunlosky & Metcalfe, 2009; Anderson, 2002) have conducted scores of studies to argue for the worth of metacognition in [foreign language] learning. In effect, the idea of metacognition has been exploited in several disciplines including social psychology, mathematics and foreign language education (Chamberlin, 2012; Oxford, 1990).

In an attempt to highlight the importance of metacognition in learning, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) pointed out: "students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to plan their learning, monitor their progress, or review their accomplishments and future learning directions (p. 561). This indicates that metacognition involve planning, direction, monitoring and evaluation of one's learning processes and outcomes. These metacognitive tasks and skills are considered crucial for the promotion of autonomous learning among EFL learners (Little, 2004). That is, encouraging language learner autonomy entails engaging students in planning, directing, monitoring, and evaluating their learning. Thus, metacognition is valued for its role in building learners' awareness about their learning abilities, challenges, styles, preferences, and strategies (Beishuizen, 2004; Tarricone, 2011).

Furthermore, metacognition is thought to enhance students' speaking, reading and writing skills, along with critical thinking, and creativity (Baker, 2011; Magno, 2010; Boulware-Gooden, 2007). In detail, teachers could exploit metacognition in teaching literacy skills as well as in improving students' overall competence by providing

opportunities for self-assessment, decision-making, collaboration, inquisitiveness, and creativity. For example, a teacher may ask his students to write an essay and subsequently urges them to contemplate over the choice of words and explain why they have chosen the words they would have used and not others. Such an activity is likely to engage learners in a process of self-reflecting and critical thinking; evaluating their own thinking patterns and choices. Hence, metacognition is largely esteemed a fundamental component of successful teaching and learning enterprises (Magno, 2010).

Moreover, students endowed with metacognitive strategies (e.g. monitoring and problem solving) are often deemed better learners because such strategies allow students to regulate and evaluate their own learning, thereby enhancing its outcome (Metcalfe, 2009). In other words, students who are actively engaged in their learning process and who are more aware of their strengths and weaknesses are likely to improve their academic achievements autonomously. Likewise, students who possess adequate metacognitive skills (e.g. planning effectively) are expected to be decision makers, problem solvers, and self-directed learners (Hartman, 2013; Ku & Ho, 2010; Wenden, 1991). For instance, allowing students to make choices and evaluations regarding the materials and methods pertaining to their learning will probably induce them to accept responsibility for their own learning (Cotterall, 2000). In short, metacognition fosters both learner development and independence.

To recap, metacognition is argued to play an important role in learning due to its regulatory and intellective nature. This role could be perceived in three main areas: learner skills, learner achievements, and learner autonomy.

Conclusion

The first section of this chapter, comprising an overview on learner attitudes, demonstrated that learner beliefs, feelings and behaviours have an impact on the students'

academic achievement and experience. With reference to major theories, the section explained how attitudes are formed, influenced, changed and measured. It also highlighted the relationship between attitudes and the writing skill within the scope of foreign language education. In a similar vein, section two dealt with metacognition as a thinking enterprise and demonstrated its importance and association with the teaching and learning of foreign language writing. Likewise, the section cast some light on metacognitive knowledge, experience and strategies, which are deemed the core elements of metacognition. A discussion on the association of metacognition with writing as well as with learner autonomy was also offered at the end of the chapter.

Chapter Four

Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Data Relevant to Experiment One

Chapter Four
Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Data Relevant to Experiment One

Introduction

This chapter includes a detailed presentation of procedures, experimental design, and experimental treatment pertaining to the first experiment, which aimed at fostering learner autonomy among a group of third-year English language students. The chapter encompasses also the analysis and discussion of data obtained from the teacher questionnaire, the pre-test, and the post-test. Furthermore, the chapter comprises the description and discussion of a pilot study that was conducted to examine overall parameters the experimental design.

4.1. Methodology of Research

4.1.1. Research Population and Sample

The target population of the present study consists of adult learners attending educational institution in their final undergraduate year at the tertiary level. Using a probability sampling technique, a sample of 56 third-years of Applied Language students has been randomly chosen from the parent population at the Department of English at Mentouri Brothers University in Constantine. For randomisation, two teachers of English Written Expression were asked to pick up 56 names (each teacher selected 28 students from different groups) from the list of third-year students using a mobile application called *Randomly For Educators* (available in the app store of Apple Inc.)

The sample has, then, been divided into Control and Experimental groups of 28 students each. In addition to their ordinary classes, the participants within the Experimental Group have received an experimental treatment over a period of seven months in a writing centre, while the Control Group continued to attend regular classes.

4.1.2. Pretest-posttest Design of the Control Group

Both the treatment and control groups are measured prior to the experimental treatment. At the end of the experiment, the two groups are post-tested for comparison purposes, i.e. to examine whether a change has occurred in the experimental group due to the treatment it has received. Afterwards, a t-test or one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is conducted to measure the difference between the means (Burke & Christensen, 2010). In fact, pretest-posttest control-group design is the most common type of true experimental design (Jackson, 2015).

4.1.3. Tools of Research

The Learner Autonomy Profile Short-Form (LAP-SF) was the instrument used prior and subsequent to the experiment to measure the subjects' degree of autonomy. The statistical analysis of the LAP responses was calculated via the IBM SPSS Statistics, version 24. Additionally, a teacher questionnaire has been employed to examine their opinions about and understanding of the concept learner autonomy, as well as to check whether they have ever attempted to foster their learners' autonomy.

4.1.3.1. The Learner Autonomy Profile Short Form

The Learner Autonomy Profile Short Form (LAP S-F) is constructed upon the idea that learner autonomy can be interpreted through the learners' behavioural intention. In this computerised instrument of research, respondents are asked about their perception of self, and how they would react to various selected situations associated with learning. A Likert scale (ranging from 0 = never to 10 = always) is used to determine the respondents' degree of agreement with the 66 items which the LAP-SF comprises. On a scale of 10, the mean of the scores obtained in each construct represents the degree of autonomy of each participant (Confessore, 2004).

The LAP S-F is composed of four main constructs: (1) desire to learn, (2) resourcefulness, (3) initiatives and (4) persistence. Each of these inventories assesses a number of different dimensions of learners' perceptions of themselves and the world around them, as well as their intentions and attitudes towards learning processes and practices. The inventory of desire describes the learners' aspirations and behavioural intention as regards learning, while the inventory of resourcefulness gauges the learners' intention and readiness to exploit both the internal and external resources connected to learning practices, methods and procedures. Moreover, the inventory of initiative evaluates their willingness and capacity to independently initiate various learning processes. The inventory of persistence, furthermore, assesses the learners' inclination to preserve until a learning task/objective is satisfyingly accomplished (Confessore and Park 2004). The reliability alpha estimates for the Learner Autonomy Profile as measured by Cronbach's alpha (a measure of internal consistency) are as follows:

1- Desire to learn (.9406)

2- Resourcefulness (.9655)

3- Initiative (.9599)

4- Persistence (.9678)

The Learner Autonomy Profile Short Form was designed in 2003 by Gary Confessore and his fellow assistants at the University of George Washington. It is licenced to the Human Resource and Development Enterprises (HRDE), and is accessible through their website (Paran & Seru, 2010). (c.f. appendix 01)

4.1.3.2. The Questionnaires

Self-completion questionnaires, consist of a set of questions or statements, are widely employed as a data collection instrument in educational research disciplines. Easy to administer and analyse, cost effective, and relatively standardised, questionnaires has

gained popularity over the long years across disciplines (Dörnyei, 2014). Questionnaires, of all types, are essentially designed to gather information about a particular subject from respondents for statistical analysis and interpretation (Gillham, 2008).

For the present study, two Likert-scale questionnaires were used; one for teacher and serves the purpose of the first experiment, and one for students; used for data collection in the second experiment. Further details about both the teacher and student questionnaires are provided in this chapter and chapter five respectively.

4.1.4. Experimental Design and Treatment

In the light of the existing literature on language learner autonomy and the various approaches to implementing it within and beyond the language classroom, an extracurricular writing project, labelled *iStory*, has been carefully designed and implemented at the University of Constantine. Before that, a writing centre had been created to host the aforementioned project, which is the experimental treatment of this research. Within the premises of the writing centre, the experimental group received four hours of tuition every week (2 hours per session) for a period of seven month (a total of 28 weeks/112 hours).

4.1.4.1. The Setting of Research: The Writing Centre

In October 2013, a writing centre has been launched at the central library of the University of Constantine in collaboration with the American Corner Constantine. The latter is a free library, established and financed by the American embassy in Algeria, in which students can attend workshops and tutorial classes in addition to borrowing books and using the internet. The American Corner bears a resemblance to writing centres available in universities and colleges worldwide.

The creation of the UC (*University of Constantine*) Writing Centre was motivated by two main objectives. Firstly, it would host the experimental treatment through which we aim to nurture a learning autonomy among EFL learner. Secondly, the writing centre was a serious attempt towards helping students become better writers/learners by adjusting their attitudes towards foreign language writing and pushing them to enhance their writing skills accordingly. And as there are thousands of writing centres around the world, and prestigious universities like Harvard University comprise a writing centre, the researcher wished the University of Constantine to have its own writing centre too.

Launching a writing centre for the first time has indeed come with its own set of challenges, including pedagogical, institutional, financial, and even cultural ones. The UC Writing Centre, according to the students' feedback forms, has helped many students to enhance their skills, change attitudes towards learning and find their path as learners. It is, furthermore, worth mentioning that the UC Writing centre have been indexed in the International Directory of Writing Centres. The latter was established by the ST. Cloud State University (USA) and the International Writing Centers Association (IWCA), and it includes at least 1200 writing centres spread over the four continents. (cf. appendix 02).

Furthermore and to keep the participants connected, involved, informed, and inspired, the UC Writing Centre has been present on social media platforms, namely Facebook and twitter. The Facebook page contains roughly 1000 fans, while the Twitter account has 400 followers. The vast majority of those fans and followers, orderly, are students of English in both the University of Constantine and other universities across Algeria (cf. appendix 03).

The UC Writing Centre has been run by the leading researcher and a few doctoral teaching assistants. More accurately, the researcher served as the director and the principal tutor who delivers the experimental treatment, while the other teachers acted as assistants

in major stages. Typically, the writing centre organised a couple of workshops/lessons per week during which the experimental group was engaged into the iStory Project (viz., the experimental treatment). Far from that, the centre often organises a series of other workshops, tutoring classes, and one-to-one appointments to help students with their writing. In a word, it offers the services of an ordinary writing centre.

To conclude with, it is important to mention that the leading researcher has been awarded a symbolic reward from the Middle East-North Africa Writing Centers Alliance (MENAWCA) for the efforts of the UC writing centre in adjusting students' attitudes towards foreign language writing. (c.f. appendix 04). Likewise, the American Embassy in Algiers appreciated the work of the centre. (c.f. appendix 05).

4.1.4.2. The Experimental Treatment: The iStory Project

The iStory Project is as an extensive extracurricular activity or enterprise that revolves around engaging a group of EFL learners in a seven-month, story-writing process. The project was designed to foster learner autonomy among the participants within the experimental group of this study. The procedures and pedagogies underpinning the construct of autonomy (e.g. self-assessment, decision-making, feedback, collaboration, and metacognitive strategies) were carefully interwoven within the design of this experimental intervention. The iStory project consists of six major phases; it also characterised by evaluation and reflection breaks (ERB) along with awareness raising speeches (ARS).

4.1.4.2.1. Phase One: Creating a Bank of Words

After introducing the student participants to the project and raising their awareness about its significance and potential outcomes, they were divided into small groups of three. Afterwards, each group was asked to collect words/expressions connected to story-writing in particular and creative writing by large, under such headings as 'action verbs',

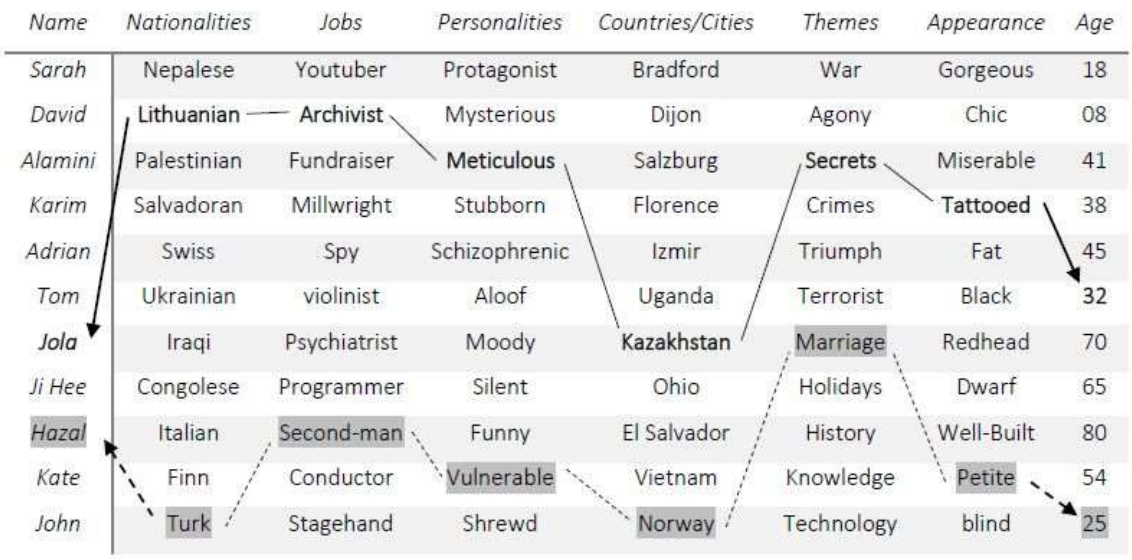
‘adjectives’, ‘speech tags’, ‘character traits’, ‘idioms’, ‘literary devices’, ‘names’, ‘nicknames’, ‘professions’, ‘countries’, and ‘psychological/mental disorders’. The collected lists were, then, categorised and stored on a computer -at the writing centre- for later access. Each of the students got a digital copy of all the assembled lists. Actually, the students could assemble over a thousand of words in a fortnight’s time, and they have enriched their vocabulary in the process. They even started to mention newly acquired knowledge (e.g. history of towns) in their discussions. Researching is doubtless a crucial factor for the development of language learners (Allwright & Hanks, 2016).

Furthermore and to nurture a learning autonomy among the student participants, the teacher allowed considerable freedom of choice concerning the space, time and methods used in this task. To put it otherwise, students were explicitly urged to self-direct their learning and make key decisions and choices. The first stage lasted roughly a month. Examples of the lists that make up the learner-created bank of words are provided in appendix 06.

4.1.4.2.2. Phase Two: Making Creative Choices

At this stage, the students started planning their stories by making creative choices and decisions concerning the genre, target reader-age/culture, moral of the story and so forth. Using examples from literature, the participants were taught how to use the ordinary (words) to create the extraordinary (art), and they seemed to have greatly enjoyed it. They were particularly impressed by the power of words and the charm of details in the works of Charles Dickens and James Joyce. In fact, the participant students were directing, monitoring and reflecting upon their learning both independently and cooperatively with a limited assistance from the teacher/researcher. That is, they were engaged both cognitively and meta-cognitively; in two crucial processes for the development of autonomy. For instance, they discussed many idea and cultural issues collaboratively, and each student

argued for his choices and suggestions sensibly. As expected, the students came up with scores of creative plots and interesting cast of characters. A neurologist who falls in love with a religiously different bus driver in an Italian museum while discussing a surreal Russian painting is not an ordinary story, is it? Or the story of a brilliant computer programmer who invented a new-fangled device for interpreting people's memories through verbal and psychosomatic stimulations, and turned out to be a notorious British spy undertaking a complicated mission in France. These are just two examples of the many ingenious plots that the students constructed during this stage, which lasted a month (16 hours) as well. The following figure illustrates how the students used the lists from the word bank to plot their stories.



Name	*Nationalities*	*Jobs*	*Personalities*	*Countries/Cities*	*Themes*	*Appearance*	*Age*
Sarah	Nepalese	Youtuber	Protagonist	Bradford	War	Gorgeous	18
David	**Lithuanian**	**Archivist**	Mysterious	Dijon	Agony	Chic	08
Alamini	Palestinian	Fundraiser	**Meticulous**	Salzburg	**Secrets**	Miserable	41
Karim	Salvadoran	Millwright	Stubborn	Florence	Crimes	**Tattooed**	38
Adrian	Swiss	Spy	Schizophrenic	Izmir	Triumph	Fat	45
Tom	Ukrainian	violinist	Aloof	Uganda	Terrorist	Black	**32**
Jola	Iraqi	Psychiatrist	Moody	**Kazakhstan**	Marriage	Redhead	70
Ji Hee	Congolese	Programmer	Silent	Ohio	Holidays	Dwarf	65
Hazal	Italian	Second-man	Funny	El Salvador	History	Well-Built	80
Kate	Finn	Conductor	Vulnerable	Vietnam	Knowledge	Petite	54
John	Turk	Stagehand	Shrewd	Norway	Technology	blind	25

Figure 05: Example From Phase Three: Making Creative Choices

4.1.4.2.3. Phase Three: Reading for Writing

Reading for writing is simply reading with the purpose of learning how to write. This stage, therefore, pivots on exposing the participants to a wide range of stories as a way of inspiring them before they actually start writing their own stories. To ensure a degree of freedom and foster autonomy, the student participants were motivated to select the stories or novels they want to examine. Reading is tightly related to writing, and is one of the

effective ways of teaching the language (Kemper et al., 2015). Further, the students were encouraged to ask questions such as, why did the author choose certain expressions, adjectives, or verbs? How did he emphasise that idea? What makes a description vivid and appealing? What was written and what was actually communicated? Such questions were expected to help students detect the best aspects of each story and try to incorporate those elements into their own writings. The students were also urged to choose best line(s), the most inspiring character(s), catchy quotes, new words, etc. Below is a list of the short stories and novels employed during this stage, which took approximately two months.

Title	Author	Category
The Rocking-Horse Winner	*D.H. Lawrence*	Short Story
The Snows of Kilimanjaro	*Ernest Hemingway*	Short Story
A Rose for Emily	*William Faulkner*	Short Story
The Lottery	*Shirley Jackson*	Short Story
The Death	*James Joyce*	Short Story
The Father	*Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson*	Short Story
Symbols and Signs	*Vladimir Nabokov*	Short Story
A Haunted House	*Virginia Woolf*	Short Story
Shooting an Elephant	*George Orwell*	Short Story
Three Questions	*Leo Tolstoy*	Short Story
The Diamond as Big as the Ritz	*F. Scott Fitzgerald*	Short Story
Heart of Darkness	*Joseph Conrad*	Novel
Anna Karenina	*Leo Tolstoy*	Novel
Pride and Prejudice	*Jane Austen*	Novel
To kill a Mockingbird	*Harper Lee*	Novel
Les Misérables	*Victor Hugo*	Novel
The Road	*Cormac McCarthy*	Novel
The Sense of an Ending	*Julian Barnes*	Novel
The English Patient	*Michael Ondaatje*	Novel
The Known World	*Edward P. Jones*	Novel
The Kit Runner	*Khaled Hosseini*	Novel
The Fault in Our Stars	*John Green*	Novel
The Notebook	*Nicholas Sparks*	Novel

Table 04: List of Literary Works Examined in Phase Three

It is worth mentioning that the above-listed literary works were chosen by the students themselves with the assistance of the teacher who had provided a longer list alongside a summary of each work. Involving students in such major decisions aimed at

instilling in them the habit of playing pivotal roles in the classroom as influential partners in the learning enterprise. By making decisions as regards the methods, settings, pace and time of learning, students are meta-cognitively engaged in the process, and thereby prepared to direct their learning and boost its potential outcomes (Nunan, 2003). In fact, decision-making is one of the core principles underlying the pedagogy and procedures pertaining to autonomy.

4.1.4.2.4. Phase Four: Writing the story

During this two-month stage, students began to write their stories by describing characters, creating dialogues, narrating and so forth. It was up to students to select what task comes first and how long would it last; the teacher's role was limited to guiding, counselling, and negotiating. Hence, the major part of the learning and teaching took place during this phase. The teacher had the opportunity to teach tenses, word choice, punctuation, sentence structure and similar constructs along with the narrative techniques. The researcher allocated 20 min every session to explain one aspect of writing such as coherence. The students, on the other hand, went through the unique experience of writing a whole story; they set short-term goals (e.g. finishing the first draft in two weeks) and worked hard to meet them. According to the feedback and reflection forms, this stage was challenging, enjoyable and worthwhile. In fact, the students were urged to take charge of their own learning by making choices as regards what, how, and when to write. They were, furthermore, encouraged to write at home and anywhere possible. Below is the list of the short stories produced by the experimental group throughout the iStory Project alongside the synopses of those stories. The full list of the student-written stories is available in appendix 07, and excerpts from those stories in appendices 08, 09, 10.

Title of Story	Synopsis	Word count
The Pursuit of Memory	A recently graduated computer geek was spotted by MI6 after he had invented a new-fangled headset, which is able to read human memories. They contacted him to help them stop a major terrorist attack on the British soils. After hesitation, the alarmed nerd agreed to cooperate. However, Mike, the geek, is not what he appeared to be. He had some other plans in mind; a complicated mission to carry out as a deep cover KGB operative. He was secretly chasing the memories of the MI6 agents themselves, including high-ranked officers. Surprisingly, in the middle of the operation, he decided to abandon everything, and that was almost impossible and deadly.	**2000**
Project Oxford	A mysterious interpreter underwent a secret brain surgery during which a language-equipped chip has been installed in his brain to give him ultimate knowledge and extraordinary linguistic skills. This was a part of an advanced academic experiment called 'Oxford Project'. He soon became famous worldwide, and thus he was recruited at the white house. Unexpectedly, someone hacked that chip and made the interpreter kill the American President and escape in a blink of an eye. Wanted all over the world, that perplexed interpret embarked on a long and tough journey to find out who was behind the project to prove his innocence. After a long and exhausting search, he found out that he was at the heart of an ingenious massive plan whereby three countries were involved.	**2400**
Makenna	A British geography teacher decided to move to Madagascar to teach children in poor villages, after watching a heart-rending documentary about the hard life of children in Africa. There he has gone through hard times, and changed completely. After a couple of weeks in a small village south Antananarivo, Stephen met a great woman called Makenna who was herself trying to help those children and make a difference. They both aspired to build a school for the children to teach them English and other subjects. Local militia did not like this humanitarian project because they often use those kids as soldiers in their dirty war. Consequently, Makenna was raped and killed in a violent attack against the village. After a long bloody journey, the school was finally built and named after her. Makenna was not the only victim in this story; many people have lost their lives for the sun to shine again on that village. The story was leaked to the press and Makenna became a heroine.	**2200**
The Scarf	After a successful art exhibition in Milan and following the suggestion and encouragement of an elderly art devotee, an inexperienced Italian painter flies to London to participate in a renowned artistic contest. He must come up with an original portrait to win the reputed trophy. While drinking his morning coffee behind a bow window, he noticed the recurrent presence of a mysterious lonely girl in the mini park in front of the house where he was staying. That young lady got his attention and he decided to paint her. But before that and to breathe life into the portrait, he must know her story. And that was not easy at all. She was withdrawn and quiet. She wears a unique burgundy neck-scarf, which would later be the focus of the painting and the reasons behind its success and his. Indeed, much of art is born within the confines of love and pain.	**2400**

Table 05: The List of Student-written Stories and their Synopses

4.1.4.2.5. Phase Five: Revising

Revision is a major step in the writing process, and is beneficial to both the writer and his product (Park, 2005). Therefore, the student participants were repeatedly engaged in this task through various methods (e.g. peer-review) to enhance the overall quality of their writing. Editing, proofreading, peer reviewing and reading aloud are a few techniques that the students have employed at this stage. The students were in total charge of the reviewing task, which comprises monitoring, reflection and evaluation as key elements. Actually, the revision process is cognitive of nature, and helps students develop a learning autonomy (Vieira, 2009). To push the students to enhance the quality of their stories, we kept reminding them that Earnest Hemingway admitted to rewriting the ending of 'A Farewell to Arms' 39 times! After several revision processes, the students could collaboratively locate the majority of inaccuracies and corrected them. It is noteworthy that the student writers were surprised that each time a revision is made new mistakes are detected. This phase was two-week long.

4.1.4.2.6. Phase Six: Sharing

This is an indispensable stage in the iStory Project, for it is the ultimate goal behind writing a story. Hence, when the stories were ready, the students were motivated to share them with their friends, family, other students and anyone who would appreciate the product of an aspiring student-writer. Moreover, the best stories were collected in booklets, published online, and shared with other teachers in and out of the country. In fact, the students felt so happy to see the fruits of their hard work and appreciated the fact that they were openly praised for what they did. Appreciating students achievements is deemed favourable, motivating, and contributes to the psychological development of learners (McCallum & Price, 2015) .Furthermore, the students were continuously urged to take part in national or international story writing competitions; some them did and felt enormously

proud of themselves. The students received very positive feedback from their readers, and were encouraged to write more stories. They seemed to have restored their self-confidence and esteem. Indeed, learner development is crucial for the proper promotion of autonomous learning (Barfield, 2003).

4.1.4.3. The Evaluation and Reflection Breaks

The iStory Project was characterised by regular intervals of evaluation and reflection after the end of each stage. Questions such as: what have you learned? How it is relevant to your overall learning experience/plan/goals? What was worthwhile? What seemed to be unnecessary? How can you do it better? What was not interesting to you? The answers were often given in a form of reports to make it possible for the researcher to analyse them carefully, and for the learners to go back to them, as learning records, when necessary. These forms were also exploited to embolden the participant students to monitor their learning and remain actively engaged in it. In short, evaluation and reflection procedures are crucial for fostering learner autonomy (Irie & Stewart, 2011).

The ERBs, as we often refer to them, were an excellent opportunity for learners to exercise a sense of autonomy. It was also their chance to have a voice, to express themselves as influential partners in the learning process. In other words, the project has not neglected the affective domain as a key factor in the development of learners.

4.1.4.4. Awareness Raising Speeches

Owing to the fact that awareness is crucial to the promotion of autonomous learning (Scharle & Szabo, 2000), ample time has been allocated to what is called 'Awareness-Raising Speeches' (ARS). The ARS are some sort of intermissions or pauses that the researcher has exploited to raise the participants' awareness about the significance of accepting responsibility for their own learning. Such intermissions offered the researcher a

good chance to highlight the importance of the project and its potential outcomes to reassure and urge the student participants to persist and devote extra efforts to the mission.

4.1.4.5. The Significance of the Project

The strengths of the iStory project could be perceived through four main aspects: namely, inclusiveness, flexibility, innovativeness, and relevance or foundation. It is inclusive as it touches upon many skills (e.g. writing, reading, reasoning, planning, evaluating, etc.) and various areas (e.g. out-of-classroom learning, creative writing, leaner awareness, project-based learning, etc.) associated with foreign language learning. It is also flexible in the sense that it can be adopted, by any teacher, of any language, anywhere in the world; it could also be shortened or even extended. Further, some phases (e.g. reading for writing and creating a bank of words) can be changed, adapted or developed. Furthermore, the project can be deemed innovative, as it comprises new procedures and techniques (e.g. reading for writing and awareness-raising speeches). Finally, yet importantly, the project is well established in the theory of learning autonomy. That is, this experimental treatment has rooted into the main approaches to implementing autonomy. More precisely, it is related to the resource approach in that it makes use of resources (viz., the student-created word bank, dictionaries, novels, and short stories). It is also related to the technology approach in that it comprises computer usage, internet and it exploited a Facebook page. It is, moreover, associated with the learner- based approach as it focuses on the learner and his development through awareness, metacognition and training. The treatment also has deep roots in Nunan's (2003) approach in the sense that it places focus on awareness are a critical step in the autonomy enterprise. In addition, it gives students the chance to direct, monitor and make decisions concerning their learning. Furthermore, the project urges collaboration and peer feedback, which are essential elements in the practices related to learner autonomy.

4.1.4.6. Potential Drawbacks

Similar to any innovative educational project or design, the iStory project has few possible hindrances. That is, if not well explained, implemented and maintained such a project may backfire. Some students may lose interest, get frustrated and confused, develop negative attitudes towards writing, and thus reduce their classroom involvement. Students, or some of them, may also deem the project unimportant, time-consuming, and irrelevant to their educational goals. To avoid the above-mentioned likely drawbacks, the student participants have been kept motivated, interested, involved and rewarded. In addition to organising many interesting competitions and language games, we gave the students certificates of recognition and excellence (c.f. appendix 11). Furthermore, the subjects' needs, expectations, preferences and culture have not been ignored.

4.2. The Pilot Study

In preparations for the experimental design, a pilot study had been conducted, one month prior to the administration of the main experimental treatment, to examine the overall parameters of the study design and experiment. In this respect, a group of 12 third-year students were invited to attend a series of workshops and mini lessons (e.g. email writing & flash fiction) over a period of five weeks (07 sessions in total) in the writing centre, which would host the principal experiment. Accordingly, the following observations have been concluded.

- Students were curious to know more about the writing centre.
- Although they showed interest in joining the centre, the majority of participants were worried about their tight schedule.
- Many of them seemed to have enjoyed the workshops.
- There were many absences during the first two sessions, but this situation did not persist.

- They showed preference for flash-fiction workshops.
- They liked the writing centre (layout, resources and the whole conception).
- They did not exhibit any autonomy-related behaviours (e.g. initiative, planning, critical thinking, reflection, academic awareness, etc.).
- Their writings were, in the main, remarkably poor (e.g. ambiguity, wordiness, spelling mistakes, narrow vocabulary, inadequate punctuation, etc.)

The above-stated points and others provided the researcher with general idea vis-a-vis the configurations of the study design. Furthermore and to have an idea about the learners' and teachers' perceptions of extracurricular activities, out-of-classroom learning, and writing centres, a series of interviews have been made. Below is a summary of those interviews.

4.2.1. Interviews with Teachers

Seven 10-minute individual interviews were conducted with a group of teachers from the Department of English at the University of Constantine over a period of two days at the American Corner Constantine. Five major questions were asked in every interview.

4.2.1.1. The Questions

- In your opinion, would students take part in an extracurricular activity such as a writing club?
- Are your students generally active or passive learners? Explain.
- According to your experience, can Algerian students of English 'become' autonomous learners (*the interviewer explained the notion*)?
- Are your students aware of the importance of out-of-classroom learning?
- Do you often urge your students to make choices and decisions as regards their learning (e.g. what to learn and how)?

4.2.1.2. Summary of Responses

The interviewed teachers admitted to have done little efforts as regards urging their students to learn independently and beyond the classroom. Likewise, they hardly ever allow their students to make choices and decision related to classroom materials, tasks, and procedures. Furthermore, teachers asserted that they deem their students very passive, and do not expect them to do anything to enhance their skills. That is why, they, teachers, did not ever bother to motivate their learner to take their learning outside the classroom. “They do not even learn inside the class, let alone learning outside it,” said one of the teachers. In the main, teachers deem the mainstream of their students to be passive and careless.

It is important to note that many teachers, as the results showed, exhibited a striking sense of pessimism that a teacher, of any subject, in any country, should not have. Teachers are indeed the ones who keep others optimistic in the times of hardship and despair. This, nevertheless, indicates that the situation is critical, and that the learners’ inactiveness is deep-seated and enduring.

4.2.2. Interviews with Learners

A series of 5-minute interviews were conducted with 15 English language students at the University of Constantine at the American Corner Constantine. The interviewees were requested to reply at seven different questions associated with their learning.

4.2.2.1. The Questions

- Do you often learn outside the classroom (e.g. go to libraries, attend online course, write poems, etc.)
- Would you like to participate in an English-oriented extracurricular activity?
- Have you ever heard of the notion “writing centre”?
- Have you ever tried to join writing or speaking clubs?

- Do your teachers encourage you to seek learning opportunities beyond the classroom walls?
- Do you often evaluate yourself and your learning?
- Do you usually participate in class?

4.2.2.2. Summary of the Responses (Learner Interviews)

The answers elicited from the learner interviews revealed that the majority of the interviewed students have a noticeable resistance to the idea of learning beyond the classroom walls. They mistakenly believe that learning starts and ends in the classroom, and they seemed to be satisfied with the 'minimum-effort' approach that they were adopting as learners. In plain words, they seemingly do not want to do more than what is, in their view, required of them. The surveyed students also confirmed that their teachers were of limited help and faint encouragement when it comes to motivating them to take part in extracurricular activities. Further, the students showed some sort of an aversion towards classroom participation due to various reasons including low self-esteem and indifference. It has also been inferred that the interviewed students hardly ever reflect upon their learning practices and outcomes. In fact, the way in which the students talked about their learning gave the impression that they need to learn how to learn!

In conclusion, the pilot study has helped the researcher to verify and evaluate the feasibility, practicality, and potential shortcomings of the experiment, and thereby introduce improvements to the study design. Further, it provides the researcher with important insights about the learners and their attitudes towards autonomous and independent learning.

4.3. Teacher Questionnaire

4.3.1. Description and administration of the questionnaire

The teacher questionnaire (c.f. appendix I), of two sections and Likert-scale organised, was administered to 16 teachers in the Department of English at the University of Constantine. Section one consists of four questions and seeks to determine the teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom and the ways in which this implementation is performed by the teachers – if they have ever attempted to do so. Alternatively, section two comprises fifteen statements that attempt to assess the teachers' knowledge, understanding and familiarity with learner autonomy as a relatively new concept in the field of language education.

4.3.2. Analysis of Teacher Questionnaire

Section 1: Teachers' Practices and Attitudes towards Implementing Learner Autonomy

Question 1: What Academic Degree do you hold?

Bachelor Degree	Master Degree	Doctorate Degree	Total
00	10	06	16
00%	62.5%	37.5%	100%

Table06. Degree Held by the Participant Teachers

The majority of teacher respondents (62.5%), hold a Master Degree, while the rest of them (37.5%) are Doctorate holders. None of the surveyed teachers holds a BA degree.

Question 2: How long have you been teaching English?

01-05 years	05-10 years	10- 20 years	+ 20 years	Total
08	05	02	01	16
50%	31.25%	12.5%	06.25%	100%

Table 07. The Teachers' Experience

(50%) of the teachers have a relatively short experience in teaching, ranging from 1 to 5 years, against 31.25% who have more experience, as they have taught between 5 and

10 years so far. Five teachers, representing 12.5% of the total number of informants (N =16), have a long experience of more than 10 years. Only one informant has been teaching English as foreign language for more than 20 years.

Question 3: How would you describe your teaching method/approach in general?

Learner-centred	Teacher-centred	Total
05	11	16
31.25%	68.75%	100%

Table 08. The Teaching Approach Adopted

As Table 3 indicates, the majority of respondents (68.75%) deemed their teaching method to be teacher-centred in the main, against 31.25% who described their method of instruction as learner-centred.

Question 4: Have you ever attempted to implement learner autonomy in your classroom?

Never	Once or twice	A few times	Many times	Total
12	02	01	01	16
75%	12.5%	06.25%	06.25%	100%

Table 09. The Teachers' Attempts to Implement Learner Autonomy

(75%) of the teachers have never attempted to promote autonomy through their teaching. A minority of roughly (12.5%) said that they have tried once or twice only. (06.25%) claimed that they attempt a few times to foster autonomous learning in his classroom. Only a single teacher seemed to have made efforts to foster autonomy among his students.

Section 2: Teachers' Beliefs and Familiarity with Autonomy in Language Education

Statement 1: *Learner autonomy means that the teacher is no longer important.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	00	12	02	02	16
00%	00%	75%	12.5%	12.5 %	100%

Table 10. The Significance of the Teacher in the Autonomous Classroom

The vast majority of teacher informants (75% & 12.5%), as the figures show, disagree with the 'misguided' belief that learner autonomy is all about learning without a teacher. Only (12.5%) of the teachers showed uncertainty as regard the statement.

Statement 2: *Learner autonomy can only be developed outside the classroom.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
02	05	06	00	03	16
12.5%	31.25%	37.5%	00%	18.75%	100%

Table 11. Learner Autonomy beyond Classroom Walls

Many teachers (37.5% & 12.5%) said that learner autonomy is not an extra- classroom practice, while (31.25%) seemed to think otherwise; they consider autonomy as an out-of-classroom procedure. Two teachers appeared to be fully convinced that autonomy is something that students develop independently and beyond the classroom walls. Only (18.75%) of teachers said that they did not know whether the statement is true or false.

Statement 3*: There are degrees of Learner Autonomy.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	02	02	00	12	16
00%	12.5%	12.5%	00%	75%	100%

Table 12. On the Degrees of Autonomy.

Of all the respondents (N = 16), 75% expressed that they do not know whether there are degrees of learner autonomy, against (12.5%) who agreed with the statement. An equal number of teachers (12. 5%) assumed that there no degrees of autonomy.

Statement 4*: Cooperative learning is the opposite of autonomous learning.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	12	04	00	00	16
00%	75%	25%	00%	00%	100%

Table 13. Cooperative Learning vs. Learner Autonomy

Three quarters of the informants (75%) indicated that autonomy is the opposite of cooperation. That is, autonomous learning is some kind to ‘solitary’ learning (i.e. studying alone). Conversely, the remaining quarter (25%) confirmed that autonomous learning is not an antonym of cooperative learning.

Statement 5*: Learner autonomy is a teaching method.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	05	09	00	02	16
00%	31.25%	56.25%	00%	12.5%	100%

Table 14. Learner Autonomy as a Teaching Method

For many informants (31.25%), autonomy is more or less a method of instruction; yet for a considerable number of them (56.25%), it is not. Only (12.5 %) of teachers, as the figures display, had no answer.

Statement 6*: In an autonomous classroom, learners make choices about how and what to learn.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	12	04	00	00	16
00%	75%	25%	00%	00%	100%

Table 15. Autonomy and Learner Choice

(75%) of the participants showed agreement with statement 6; against (25 %) who do not consider choice making as a characteristic of the autonomy-friendly classroom. It seems that many of the teachers are ready to allow their students to make choices.

Statement 7*: Autonomy in learning refers to the ability of learners to take charge of their own learning.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	01	14	00	01	16
00%	06.25 %	87. 5%	00%	06.25%	100%

Table 16. Description of Learner Autonomy

(87.5%) of the teachers expressed disagreement with Holec's definition of learner autonomy, which is the basic of all definitions available in the relevant literature. In fact, as the table exhibits, only one of the informants (6.25%) accepted the description as correct. Another one (6.25%) opted for 'I do not know' as an answer.

Statement 8*: By encouraging learner autonomy, teachers evade responsibility on their learners' learning.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
03	00	10	00	03	16
18.75%	00%	62. 5%	00%	18.75%	100%

Table 17. Teacher Responsibility in the Autonomous Classroom

(62.5%) of the teachers expressed disagreement with the idea that 'learner autonomy entails throwing all the responsibility on the learner', against (18.75%) who deemed the statement accurate. An equal number of teachers (18.75%) said that they completely disagree with the belief of evading responsibility by promoting learner autonomy.

Statement 9*: Autonomous classrooms are better than traditional ones.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	05	06	03	02	16
00%	31.25%	37.5%	18.75%	12.5	100%

Table 18. Autonomous and Traditional Classroom

Table 32 displays that (31.25%) of the respondents preferred autonomous classrooms over traditional ones, against (37.5%) & (18.75%) who showed a preference for traditional methods and procedures of instruction. Only few teachers (12.5%) expressed uncertainty regarding the statement; they had no answer.

Statement 10*: Learner autonomy is a new (emerged 10 years ago or so) concept in foreign language education.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	00	14	00	02	16
00%	00%	87.5%	00%	12.5%	100%

Table 19. The Notion of Learner Autonomy

(87.5 %) of the participant teachers considered learner autonomy a relatively old notion in the field of language instruction. Only (12.5%) of them had no idea as regards the emergence of learner autonomy as an educational construct.

Statement 11*: Learner autonomy is all about learning at home with a computer or any smart devices.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	04	07	03	02	16
00%	25%	43.75%	18.75%	12.5%	100%

Table 20. On Understanding Learner Autonomy

(43.75%) of participant teachers were against the belief that learner autonomy is a matter of non-classroom independent learning which involves the use of technology. Likewise, (12.5%) of the teachers showed strong disagreement with the statement, against (25%) who agreed with it. Only (18.75 %) of the informants had no answer.

Statement 12*: Autonomy is a method of language learning.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	09	06	00	01	16
00%	56.25%	37.5%	00%	06.25%	100%

Table 21. On Autonomous Learning

(56.25%) of the informants deemed learner autonomy a language learning method, against 37.5% of them who disapproved the statement. Only one teacher was not sure about the nature of learner autonomy.

Statement 13*: Learner autonomy is a set of interrelated behaviours associated with learning.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	03	08	00	05	16
00%	18.75%	50%	00%	31.25%	100%

Table 22. On the Nature of Learner Autonomy

(50%) of the teachers were in disagreement with the statement that describes learner autonomy as a set of interconnected learning behaviours, while 18.75% were in favour. The rest of teachers (31.25%), were uncertain.

Statement 14*: I have never heard of the notion 'learner autonomy'.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	04	12	00	00	16
00%	25%	75%	00%	00%	100%

Table 23. The Teachers' Cluelessness about Learner Autonomy

The majority of teachers (75%) affirmed that they were familiar with the notion learner autonomy. Only 25% of the informants admitted to have never heard of the concept.

Statement 15*: I have heard of the concept 'learner autonomy' but I do not know what it truly means.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I do not Know	Total
00	13	03	00	00	16
00%	81.25%	18.75%	00%	00%	100%

Table 24. The Teachers' Familiarity with the Concept 'Learner Autonomy'

In response to a follow up statement, (81.25%) of the teachers confessed that they do not fully understand the notion learner autonomy. Only (18.75%) seemed to have a clear idea about the construct learner autonomy.

4.3.3. Discussion of Results of the Teacher Questionnaire

The findings yielded from the analysis of the teacher questionnaire provided significant insights regarding the teachers' practices, familiarity with, and beliefs about the construct learner autonomy. The surveyed sample included inexperienced (50%), experienced (31%) and highly experienced teachers (19%); many of them (37.5%) hold a PhD, while the majority (62.5%) are MA holders, as shown in Tables 6&7. The responses obtained from this sample generated the following conclusions.

First, the participant teachers' familiarly with the concept learner autonomy is very limited and unpremeditated, as inferred from the responses to statements 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, and 13. This clearly indicates that the teachers' understanding of autonomy in language education is superficial, unfounded, and inadequate. In fact, according to the figures displayed in Table 24, the majority of teacher respondents (81.25%) confessed that although they had heard of the notion learner autonomy, they did not know what it truly means. This matter could be attributed to the lack of reading and extensive research among less experienced teachers, as it could be linked to the multifaceted nature of the construct learner autonomy and the disagreement amid scholars about its exact meaning. Furthermore, the vast majority of the teacher respondents (81%), as shown in the results pertaining to statement 7, considered Holec's widely cited definition of autonomy to be

'wrong' – Holec (1981) was the one who coined the term learner autonomy. Likewise, the majority of teachers (87.5%) showed uncertainty (75%) and ignorance (12.5%) as regards the degrees and dimensions of learner autonomy, as Tables 12 & 20 indicate. These instances, therefore, endorse the deduction that teachers' knowledge regarding autonomy in language learning is remarkably narrow.

Second, as exhibited in Table 09, the vast majority of the teacher informants (75%) have not considered implementing learner autonomy in their classroom practices. This seems to imply that teachers are in the main unaware of the significance of learner autonomy. It also suggests that learner autonomy is probably not a priority for the mainstream of the surveyed teachers, and thus they have never attempted to promote it among their learners. One more reason why teachers appeared careful with learner autonomy is that the majority of them (75%) consider it an antonym for collaborative learning, when in fact is it not. Indeed, the relevant literature emphasised cooperative learning as an essential element for the promotion of learner autonomy (see, Jacobs et al., 2006; Murray, 2014). In other words, an autonomous learner is he who effectively fulfils his role within a team and is aware of the importance of collaboration. In fact and based on the responses to Q4, only a few short-termed attempts have been made towards implementing learner autonomy in the English language classroom. This is definitely not enough because fostering autonomous learning is a complex undertaking that needs time, patience and persistence (Nunan, 2012). That is, as noted in the theoretical part, learner autonomy is a multifaceted construct that requires exhaustive exploration and extensive reading to be fully grasped and properly implemented.

Third and as could be inferred from the figures exhibited in Table 08 and 18, teachers tend to stick to traditional approaches to teaching whereby learners are not the focal point. Specifically, the mainstream of teacher respondents (68.74%) described their teaching

method as teacher-centred, against only (31.25%) who seemingly adopt a learner-centred approach to teaching, as exhibited in Table 08. This denotes that the vast majority of teachers have a habit of employing traditional procedures and methods of instruction (e.g. teachers direct all the learning and do most of the talking), which do not fully support learner choice, involvement, responsibility, self-evaluation, and learner-teacher partnership (Boyle, 2012). This inclination towards old-style approaches could be associated with the overall policy of the Algerian educational system, which is teacher-centred in the main (Lakehal-Ayat, 2008). Hence, it is understandable why learner autonomy is not a prime concern for the vast majority of the surveyed teachers. Nevertheless, as shown in table 18, a considerable number of them (31.25%) expressed a preference towards autonomous classrooms (i.e. learner-centred pedagogy).

Finally, what could be described as positive among these findings is that the great majority of teachers (87.5%), as table 10 indicates, seemed cognizant of the fact that language learner autonomy do not entail excluding or devaluing the role of the teacher in the language classroom. The teachers, a majority of 75%, were also enlightened about the principle that the promotion of learner autonomy pivots on allowing and urging the learners to make choices related to the manner, duration, space and materials of learning (Sinclair, 2008). Likewise, nearly all the teachers (15 out of 16) were aware that learner autonomy is not a decade-old notion, but rather a relatively old concept in the sphere of foreign language education. Another important point is that a significant number of teachers (56.25%) knew that learner autonomy is by no means a teaching method, as shown in Table 14. It is also favourable that half of the participant teachers (50%) do not view learner autonomy as solely an out-of-classroom practice. This indicates; however, that many teachers (31.25%) deem learner autonomy a simple extracurricular mode of learning, and consequently it is among neither their duties nor their instruction goals.

4.4. Administration, Analysis and Discussion of the Pre-test

4.4.1. Administration of the Pre-test (Whole Sample)

The pre-test was administered to both the control and experimental groups to measure their autonomy and see whether they are autonomous or not. The participants' were informed a few days earlier about the test, and were given enough details about it, along with clear instructions on how to accomplish the task. Table 25 displays the scores of the whole sample (N = 56) as measured by the Learner Autonomy Profile Short-Form (LAP S-F). In the table, the subjects within the control group were assigned odd numbers, while those within the experimental group even numbers.

As explained earlier in this chapter, the LAP S-F consists of four main constructs: (a) desire to learn, (b) resourcefulness, (c) initiatives and (d) persistence. Each of these inventories assesses a series of assorted dimensions of learners' perceptions of themselves and the world around them, and their intentions and attitudes towards learning processes and practices. More specifically, the inventory of *desire* describes the learners' aspirations and behavioural intention as regards learning, while the inventory of *resourcefulness* gauges the learners' intention and readiness to exploit both the internal and external resources connected to learning practices, methods and procedures. Moreover, the inventory of *initiative* evaluates their willingness and capacity to independently initiate various learning processes. The inventory of *persistence*, furthermore, assesses the learners' inclination to preserve until a learning task/objective is satisfyingly accomplished (Confessore and Park 2004).

Participants N56	*Desire*	*Resourcefulness*	*Initiative*	*Persistence*	*Mean*
S1	2.1	3.2	1.9	3.2	2.6
S2	2.3	2.9	2.7	2.2	2.52
S3	2.5	3.2	3.4	3.7	3.2
S4	2.3	3.1	3.8	3.3	3.12
S5	2.1	2.5	2.6	1.9	2.27
S6	1.9	1.9	2.4	2.6	2.2
S7	4.1	3.2	2.7	2.7	3.17
S8	3.2	3.0	2.3	3.4	2.79
S9	3.4	1.1	4.3	4.1	3.22
S10	2.6	2.0	5.6	2.8	3.25
S11	2.5	3.6	3.7	4.1	3.47
S12	2.3	3.1	4.3	3.3	3.25
S13	2.1	2.5	2.6	1.9	2.27
S14	1.9	1.9	2.8	2.9	2.37
S15	4.1	3.2	2.7	2.7	3.17
S16	2.3	4.3	4.5	2.9	3.5
S17	2.7	3.2	3.6	3.4	3.22
S18	2.9	1.9	2.4	1.9	2.27
S19	3.0	4.2	2.9	1.7	2.95
S20	4.1	3.2	5.6	3.2	4.02
S21	2.1	1.9	2.3	2.6	2.22
S22	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
S23	2.7	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.5
S24	1.6	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.47
S25	2.1	3.2	1.9	3.2	2.6
S26	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.3
S27	3.3	3.6	3.7	4.1	3.67
S28	2.7	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.5
S29	2.0	1.6	1.7	1.9	1.80
S30	2.1	3.2	1.9	3.2	2.6
S31	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.3
S32	2.5	3.6	3.7	4.1	3.47
S33	2.3	3.1	4.3	3.3	3.25
S34	2.1	2.5	2.6	1.9	2.27
S35	1.9	1.9	2.8	2.9	2.37
S36	4.1	3.2	2.7	2.7	3.17
S37	3.2	3.0	2.3	3.4	2.97
S38	3.4	1.1	3.3	4.1	2.97
S39	2.6	2.0	3.6	2.8	2.75
S40	2.1	2.0	3.2	3.2	2.62
S41	3.0	2.8	2.3	3.1	2.8
S42	3.2	2.7	3.1	2.3	2.82
S43	2.3	3.0	1.4	2.9	2.4
S44	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.1
S45	2.3	4.3	4.5	2.9	3.5
S46	2.7	3.2	3.6	3.4	3.22
S47	2.9	1.7	2.4	1.9	2.22
S48	3.0	4.2	2.9	1.7	2.95
S49	4.1	3.2	5.6	3.2	4.02
S50	1.6	3.9	5.2	3.2	3.47
S51	2.3	2.8	3.1	2.4	2.65
S52	2.8	2.6	2.9	2.1	2.6
S53	3.5	3.1	3.4	2.8	3.2
S54	2.9	3.6	3.1	3.0	3.15
S55	2.7	3.1	2.9	2.3	2.75
S56	2.4	2.8	3.2	2.5	2.72
Total Mean	***2.63***	***2.77***	***3.07***	***2.79***	***2.81***

Table 25. The Participants' Level of Autonomy in the Pre-test as Measured by the LAP

4.4.2. Analysis of the Pre-test Findings

The figures, displayed in Table 25, illustrate that none of the subjects scored higher than or equal to 5.0 (i.e. the average) in any of the four inventories upon which the Learner Autonomy Profile is built, namely Desire, Resourcefulness, Initiative, and Persistence. In detail, the subjects' average score was 2.63 in 'desire', 2.77 in 'resourcefulness', 3.07 in 'initiative', and 2.79 in 'persistence'. Accordingly, the total mean recorded by the participants was 2.81 out of 10. The table indicates also that (58.92%) of the participants got a total score lower than 3.0, while only (33.92 %) scored higher than that but less than 4.0. Solely, two subjects, representing (3.57 %), achieved a score of 4.0. In contrast, an equal number of subjects (3.57 %) recoded a score lower than 2.0.

At the level of the constructs (i.e. Desire, Resourcefulness, Initiative, and Persistence), the vast majority of participants got comparatively low scores. More specifically, in *Desire*, the mainstream of the participants (62.5 %) scored between 2.0 and 2.99, against (17.85 %) who scored between 3.0 and 3.99, and (8.92 %) who recorded a score of 4.0. The remaining (10.71%) of subjects got less than 2.0. In *Resourcefulness*, alternatively, a considerable number of the test-takers (42.85 %) scored between 3.0 and 3.99, while (32.14 %) obtained less than 3.0 as a score. (10.85 %) got less than 2.0, whereas (7.14 %) received a mark between 4.0 and 4.50. In *Initiative*, a few subjects (7.14%) scored higher than 5.0 but less than 6.0, against a majority of (46.42 %) who received a score between 2.0 and 2.99. Only (8.92 %) of the participants achieved a score ranging from 4.0 to 4.99 compared to (26.78 %) who scored from 3.0 to 3.99. The remaining participants (10.71%) scored lower than 1.99. In *Persistence*, furthermore, (44.64 %) of the subjects got between 2.0 and 2.99, while (30.35 %) between 3.0 and 3.99. Only a minority of (8.92 %) scored between 4.0 and 4.99, against (16.07%) of the test-takers who got a mark ranging from 1.0 to 1.99.

4.4.3. Discussion of the Pre-test Results

The preceding table exhibits the data collected through a pre-test conducted in mid-October 2013 to measure the degree of autonomy of the subjects (N = 56) within both the control and experimental groups (i.e. whole sample). The pre-test aimed to diagnose the participants' state before the experiment as well as to check parity among the samples. In this regard, the pre-test findings brought forth the following interpretations.

(97%) of the subjects, as the figures in Table 25 suggest, obtained very low scores of autonomy (total mean = 2.81/10) as measured by the Learner Autonomy Profile Short Form. This could be linked to a variety of factors including the shy presence of learner-centred approaches in the Algerian EFL context within which the pedagogical tenets pivot on traditional methods of instruction (Lakhal-Ayat, 2008). In fact, it is commonly acknowledged that in the traditional approaches to teaching, teachers are often made fully responsible for nearly all the aspects of their learners' learning. And this is exactly what learner autonomy is not. To put it otherwise, autonomy in learning refers to the learners' capacity and willingness to shoulder responsibility for their own learning (Dam, 1995). Therefore, it is logical and predictable that learners who are taught in teacher-centred classrooms exhibit very low degrees of autonomy.

Another reason behind the subjects' weak autonomy might be the students' learning passivity and unawareness as inferred from the teachers' responses in the pilot study. That is, according to the interviewed teachers, many students of English at Constantine University appear to be unmotivated to learn, lackadaisical, and tend to avoid shouldering responsibility for their own learning by relying on the teacher to do things for them. A few studies (e.g. Labed, 2007), the in-teachers-room informal conversations, and the extended observation approve the aforementioned assumption. Similarly, the findings of this study's

pre-test support the teachers' claim that the mainstream of their students could be described as passive and indolent. For instance, in the construct of *Desire*, as shown in Table 25, the bulk of subjects (62.5%) scored between 2.0 and 2.99, against only 8.92% who recorded a score of 4.0 out of 10. Likewise, the majority of participants (75%) scored less than 4.0 in *Persistence*.

The pre-test results indicate, furthermore, that the participant students do not often engage in behaviours or attitudes (e.g. think critically and participate voluntarily) that reflect their willingness to play an active role as learners. Such conclusions are supported by the figures displayed in Table 25 and pertaining to the subjects' intentions and readiness to initiate learning tasks without being asked to do so (Desire + Initiative), as well as to employ varied resources to support their learning and keep themselves motivated and engaged (Resourcefulness + Persistence). In short, the great majority of the test-takers seem to be unaware of the benefits of autonomous learning. This does not mean that Algerian students cannot be autonomous; it rather indicates that there is something (e.g. the teaching methods) hindering them from becoming autonomous. Or perhaps, they have never been given a real opportunity to develop their learning autonomy. Indeed, the latter is an acquirable capacity and practice that is often manifested in everyday life (i.e., people keep making choices and decisions), and probably a basic human aptitude that needs continuous scaffolding to yield satisfactory results (Little, 2007). Even babies display a sense of autonomy in almost everything they do (Salmon, 1998). That is, autonomy in language learning is an achievable goal and many educators have succeeded at developing it in their learners (Dam 1995, 2001; Thomsen 2000, 2003; Aase et al. 2000; Little, 2004, 2009). Therefore, the participants constituting the experimental group are expected to attain significant degrees of autonomy after receiving the treatment.

4.5. Administration, Analysis and Discussion of the Post-test

4.5.1. Administration of the Post-test

After having received the experimental treatment for a period of seven months, the experimental group undertook a post-test alongside the control group, which has not received any particular treatment, to examine whether there was an impact on the experimental group. That is, a post-test was conducted to check, by means of comparison, whether engaging learners in an extensive creative-writing project as an extracurricular activity was effective for fostering those learners' autonomy. The participants within both groups were informed a few days earlier about the test, and were offered all the necessary details including clear instructions on how to accomplish the task. The following Tables (26 and 27) display the scores of the control and experimental groups respectively.

4.5.1.1. The Control Group

Participants (N 25)	*Desire*	*Resourcefulness*	*Initiative*	*Persistence*	*Mean*
S1	2.3	1.7	2.6	2.0	2.02
S2	2.3	2.1	2.7	2.9	2.50
S3	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.50
S4	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.75
S5	2.1	2.2	1.9	2.7	2.22
S6	2.7	2.3	2.8	2.2	2.50
S7	2.8	3.1	3.4	3.0	3.07
S8	2.3	3.1	3.3	3.0	2.92
S9	2.7	2.3	2.6	1.9	2.37
S10	2.1	1.9	2.8	2.9	2.42
S11	4.1	3.2	2.7	2.7	3.17
S12	3.2	3.0	2.3	3.4	2.97
S13	3.4	1.9	3.3	3.1	2.92
S14	2.6	2.5	4.6	2.8	3.12
S15	2.1	2.0	3.0	3.2	2.75
S16	3.0	2.8	2.3	3.1	2.80
S17	3.2	2.9	3.8	2.3	3.05
S18	2.3	3.0	1.8	2.8	2.47
S19	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.07
S20	3.3	4.3	4.5	2.9	3.75
S21	2.7	3.2	3.6	3.4	3.22
S22	2.9	1.9	2.4	1.9	2.27
S23	3.0	3.2	2.9	1.7	2.70
S24	3.1	3.2	3.6	3.2	3.27
S25	2.6	3.9	4.2	3.2	3.47
S26	2.8	2.9	3.1	2.7	2.87
S27	3.1	3.3	2.9	3.4	3.17
S28	2.8	3.0	2.9	2.7	2.85
TOTAL MEAN	***2.69***	***2.68***	***2.95***	***2.69***	***2.75***

Table 26: The Control Group's Level of Autonomy in the Post-test as Measured by the LAP

4.5.1.1.1. Analysis of the Post-test Findings of the Control Group

According to the figures shown in Table 26, the Control Group received low scores pertaining to the degree of autonomy of those subjects. In detail, the participants scored a total mean of 2.75 out of 10 and roughly 2.69 as a mean in each of the constructs constituting the Learner Autonomy Profile Short-Form: Desire (mean = 2.69), Resourcefulness (mean = 2.68), Initiative (mean = 2.95), and Persistence (mean = 2.69). More precisely, the bulk of the test-takers (64.28%) scored between 2.0 and 2.99, while (32.14%) got a score ranging from 3.0 to 3.99. Only one participant (3.57%) got 1.75 as a mean. This clearly shows that the subjects' level of autonomy is very low. .

4.5.1.1.2. Discussion of the Post-test Findings of the Control Group

Table 26 indicates that the subjects' making up the Control Group and who continued to attend regular classes (i.e. have not received the treatment) remained mostly non-autonomous with a total mean of 2.75/10. More accurately, 68% of them scored lower than 2.99 and 32% lower than 3.99 as a degree of autonomy (complete autonomy = 10). This implies that many students of English at Constantine University are comparatively passive learners, and that the teacher-centred approaches adopted by the mainstream of teachers – as revealed in the teacher questionnaire – are unproductive when it comes to promoting learner autonomy. To put it otherwise, the promotion of learner autonomy entails offering the learners the opportunity to make major choices and decisions, in negotiation with the teacher, concerning all aspects of their learning including what to learn (content), how (method), when (space) and for what reason (purpose). It also requires urging learners to direct, monitor and reflect upon the process of learning, thereby remaining engaged in it.

It is important, furthermore, to note that a few participant students (viz., *S14, S24 and S25*) scored higher than they did in the pre-test. For instance, S14 got 2.37 in the pre-test

and 3.50 in the post-test. In other words, students may decide, on their own, to shoulder responsibility and play a more dynamic role as learners; thereby developing a learning autonomy within themselves. Another possible explanation for this slight change in the control group's degree of autonomy might be the results of certain autonomy-supportive practices such as peer-feedback, self-evaluation and group discussions, which a teacher may adopt for various reasons, not necessarily to promote learner autonomy. That is, some teachers may introduce many activities or practices , such as evaluation, reflection, peer assessment, and collaboration, into their classrooms for different reasons (e.g. to enhance students' writing skills) and without necessarily being aware of the fact that those very practices can help at nurturing or developing a learning autonomy among students.

4.5.1.2. The Experimental Group

Participants (N 25)	*Desire*	*Resourcefulness*	*Initiative*	*Persistence*	*Mean*
S1	4.0	5.1	6.6	6.4	5.52
S2	5.2	4.9	6.9	6.2	5.80
S3	6.0	5.9	5.4	5.8	5.77
S4	4.9	4.2	4.4	3.8	4.32
S5	5.9	6.1	7.0	6.8	6.45
S6	5.4	4.9	5.8	4.7	5.20
S7	4.7	5.6	5.2	6.2	5.42
S8	5.5	5.4	6.5	5.7	5.77
S9	4.2	5.2	5.8	4.4	4.90
S10	3.9	3.3	4.2	4.1	3.87
S11	5.7	5.4	5.7	5.9	5.67
S12	5.1	5.2	5.9	6.3	5.62
S13	5.3	4.2	5.2	6.7	5.35
S14	5.6	4.7	6.0	4.8	5.27
S15	3.9	4.1	5.2	4.9	4.52
S16	4.3	4.5	4.4	5.5	4.67
S17	4.6	4.4	4.9	5.0	4.72
S18	5.0	5.3	4.7	5.4	5.10
S19	4.5	4.3	4.5	4.1	4.35
S20	4.5	5.6	6.1	6.2	5.60
S21	4.7	5.4	5.0	4.4	4.87
S22	5.1	3.8	5.5	4.9	4.82
S23	5.7	6.5	6.3	5.7	5.92
S24	6.2	5.3	5.9	6.2	6.05
S25	5.2	5.6	4.4	4.8	5.0
S26	5.3	5.7	5.9	6.1	5.75
S27	5.8	6.1	6.4	5.6	5.97
S28	5.9	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.67
TOTAL MEAN	***5.07***	***5.09***	***5.54***	***5.42***	***5.28***

Table 27. The Control Group's Level of Autonomy in The Post-Test as Measured by The LAP

4.5.1.2.1. Analysis of the Post-test Findings of the Experimental Group

As Table 27 shows, (97 %) of the subjects within the Experimental Group obtained relatively higher scores (total mean = 5.28) in comparison to their pre-test scores (total mean 2.81). That is, the bulk of the participants (89.28 %) scored between 4.0 and 5.99. Only a few subjects (7.14%) got a mark ranging from 6.0 to 6.99, against 3.75 % of them who scored between 3.0 and 5.0. The construct of *Initiative* came on top with a total mean of 5.54, followed by that of *Persistence* with 5.42, then *Resourcefulness* with 5.09, and finally the construct of *Desire* with a total mean of 5.07.

To delineate, in *Desire*, (53.57 %) of the participants received a score between 5.0 and 5.99, against 32.14 % who scored between 4.0 and 4.99. A few subjects (7.14 %) got a mark equal to or above 6.0, in contrast to an equal number (7.14 %) who scored between 3.0 and 3.99. In *Resourcefulness*, moreover, (46.42 %) of the test-takers scored between 5.0 and 5.99; whereas 32.14 % achieved a score ranging from 4.0 to 4.99. Alternatively, 14.28 % of the participants got a mark between 6.0 and 6.99, against 7.14 % who received a score between 3.0 and 3.99. As for *Initiative*, a considerable number of the subjects (46.42 %) scored between 4.0 and 4.99, while 25 % of the participants achieved a score between 5.0 and 5.99, and another 25 % between 6.0 and 6.99. Only one student, representing 3.57 %, received a score of 7.0. In persistence, on the other hand, 32.14 % of the test-takers scored between 6.0 and 6.99, while another 32.14 % of them got a mark between 5.0 and 5.99. An identical number of subjects (32.14 %) scored between 4.0 and 4.99. Only one participant scored 3.80 in the inventory *Persistence*.

4.5.1.2.2. Discussion of the Post-test Results of the Experimental Group

The figures in Table 27 demonstrate that (97%) of the subjects within the experimental group achieved a mean score equal to or higher than 5.0. More specifically, the participants obtained a total mean of 5.54 in the construct of *Initiative* followed by 5.42 in *Persistence*,

then 5.09 in *Resourcefulness*, and finally 5.07 in the inventory of *Desire*. This means that the subjects' overall degree of autonomy is slightly above average since 10.0 denotes full autonomy. Therefore, the post-test results confirm that the experimental treatment was effective for developing the learners' autonomy. In other words, the student participants' autonomy has been successfully fostered through an extracurricular creative-writing project. In view of that, the following conclusions have been drawn.

First, as the results evidence, engaging the participant students in a multiphase story-writing project beyond the classroom walls has intensified their desire for learning. In detail, the figures in Table 27 indicate that the vast majority of subjects (85.5%) achieved a score between 4.0 and 6.0 in the inventory of *Desire*, besides 7% who scored higher than 6.0 but less than 7.0. These score are much higher than the ones the subjects scored in the pre-test (mean score for *Desire* = 2.63). It could, therefore, be concluded that the students' feelings, motivation, and aspirations towards the various aspects of learning (e.g. management and evaluation) have been strengthened through the experimental treatment (i.e. the iStory Project). Probably offering the students' the opportunity to plan, direct, monitor, and reflect upon the various tasks and procedures pertaining to the iStory Project has positively changed their beliefs and attitudes towards learning.

Second, the subjects within the experimental group became better in terms of 'resourcefulness', as the data in Table 27 suggest. More precisely, the bulk of the students (78.5 %) scored between 0.4 and 6.0, along with 14.28 % who got a mark ranging from 6.0 to 7.0. On the contrary, almost all of the participants (93%) scored between 1.0 and 3.99 in the pre-test, as shown in Table 25. Accordingly, it could be inferred that the subjects making up the experimental group developed a capacity and willingness for employing both internal (e.g. self-motivation and problem solving skills) and external (e.g. libraries and websites) resources to boost their learning outcomes. That is, after being engaged in a

lengthy creative writing project, the students learnt how to use their skills and the materials available to them to support and enhance their learning. In fact, all the stages of the iStory Project (i.e. creating a word bank, making creative choices, reading for writing, composing, revising, and sharing) stimulated the participants to exploit both the internal and external resources accessible to them to accomplish a range of tasks such as collecting words and expressions associated with story writing.

Third, the students who have received the experimental treatment, as it could be deduced from the figures displayed in Table 27, exhibited positive intentions and behaviours linked to the construct 'initiative'. To be more specific, virtually all the subjects (96.5%) scored between 4.0 and 6.99 in *Initiative* during the post-test, as opposed to their scores in the pre-test which were much lower than that (total mean in *Initiative* = 2.95). This demonstrates that the readiness of the student participants to undertake initiatives associated with their learning (e.g. suggesting an alternative way of performing certain tasks, writing essays or poems without being asked to do so, bringing learning materials into the classroom, etc.) was among the outcomes of the treatment introduced in this study. Indeed, throughout the different stages of the iStory Project, the subjects were encouraged to take initiatives such as organising student-led workshops to learn collaboratively.

Finally and just as important, the treatment made the students more persistent in comparison to their state prior to the experiment. In detail, 64.28 % of the subjects scored between 5.0 and 6.99, while 32.14 % of them achieved a score between 4.0 and 5.99 in the inventory of *Persistence*. Conversely, they scored lower than 3.0 in the pre-test (total mean = 2.69). In fact, during the project within which the experimental treatment was encapsulated, the students were often instructed to stay on task until the learning goals are accomplished (i.e. do not give up or get bored easily). They were repeatedly told to keep themselves motivated by thinking about the potential satisfying outcomes or rewards that

the learning task may bring. Likewise, the student participants were constantly urged to watch motivational speeches and read about success stories to develop some sort of a stamina, which would in turn help them persevere as learners. In time and as it could be inferred from the scores pertaining to the inventory of *Persistence*, those students have seemingly realised that perseverance is a distinctive feature of successful learners. In other terms, they developed a habit of sticking to the various learning tasks long enough to properly complete them.

Overall, the treatment had a positive impact on the subjects by pushing them to adopt favourable attitudes towards learning in general, and so make substantial contributions to the learning process. Indeed, by the end of the project, the participating students appeared to be more motivated, more focused and more cognizant of their learning processes and mechanisms. In a word, they became independent and active learners.

4.6. The t-test

To examine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means obtained by the control and experimental groups, a t-test for independent samples (i.e. only one group receives the experimental treatment) was conducted. The t-test is a widely used statistical procedure that permits researchers to check whether there is a significant difference between the means of two research groups (Urdan, 2011). What follows is a delineation of the independent samples t-test formula, which has been employed in this study:

$$t = \frac{\overline{X}_1 - \overline{X}_2}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{(N_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (N_2 - 1)s_2^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}\right)}}$$

$\bar{X}_1$ = the total mean of the first group

$\bar{X}_2$ = the total mean of the second group

N_1 = the number of subjects in the first group

N_2 = the number of subjects in the second group

S_1 = the standard deviation (also sample variance) of the first group

S_2 = the standard deviation (also sample variance) of the second group

In this study, the independent samples t-test will precisely determine whether the treatment (i.e. the iStory Project) was truly effective in fostering learner autonomy among third-year English language students at the University of Constantine. The test is one-tailed of nature because the prediction of the difference between the groups is directional and predetermined. In simpler terms, the researcher expected the treatment to make an impact on the Experimental Group. The level of significance (also known as Alpha) is 0.05. This denotes that there is a 5% risk of mistakenly concluding that there is a significant difference between the research groups.

4.6.1. Computing the t-test

The computation of the t-test was performed via IBM SPSS Statistics software, version 24. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is a statistical software that is commonly used in the calculations associated with the t-test. The following table displays the results of the t-test computation.

	Group One	Group Two
Mean	*2.*7557	5.2836
SD	0.4656	0.6117
SEM	0.0880	0.1156
N	28	28
	$S^2_{1 = 0.22}$	$S^2_{2 = 0.37}$
Intermediate values used in calculations:		
t = 17.40		
df = 54		
Standard Error of Difference = 0.145		
The p-value is < .00001. The result is significant at p < .05.		

Table 28: t-test Computations

As displayed in Table 28, the obtained value of t is 17.40 with 54 degrees of freedom and a standard error of difference equal to 0.145. The level of significance (alpha) is set to 0.05 and the p-value is < .00001. This denotes that the difference between the population means (i.e. the Control and Experimental Groups) is statistically significant. Accordingly, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H_1) accepted instead.

4.7. General Discussion of Results

As Tables 25, 26, and 27 demonstrate, the findings of the pre-test and post-test yielded significant insights regarding the development of autonomy among EFL learners. More precisely, while the pre-test results showed that all the surveyed students were largely non-autonomous (total mean of autonomy = 2.81), the post-test findings revealed that the subjects who have received the treatment have developed a certain degree of autonomy (total mean of autonomy = 5.28). The post-test results showed also that the members of the control group, who did not receive the experimental treatment, remained mostly non-autonomous. The post-test findings, therefore, go in line with this study's premise that engaging English language students in an extensive story-writing project could help them develop a capacity for taking control over their learning, and more importantly, accept responsibility as learners. In the light of these outcomes, the following conclusions have been extracted.

The teacher questionnaire reported that (85 %) of the surveyed teachers do not possess enough knowledge about learner autonomy and its implementation in the English language classroom. Accordingly, they have never attempted to promote it in their learners. In fact, the mainstream of those teachers (68 %) asserted that they favour traditional approaches to teaching that give the instructor a total control over the learning process. Hence, such approaches do not advocate learner autonomy, at least not explicitly. On the other hand, a

few teachers (32 %) showed interest in language learner autonomy and learner-centred approaches of instruction.

The pre-test findings revealed that the subjects within both the control and experimental groups (N= 56), possessed very low degrees of autonomy (total mean = 2.81/10). To be precise, nearly all the surveyed students (97%) displayed weak desire (total mean = 2.63), limited resourcefulness (total mean = 2.77) shy initiative (total mean = 3.07), and faint persistence (total mean = 2.79) as regards learning. With reference to the Learner Autonomy Profile, these scores indicate that the participant students were demotivated, inactive, dependent, and irresolute. These issues could be linked to the teacher-centred classrooms where those students have long been taught, as they could be attributed to the educational system and curriculums adopted by the Algerian universities. The students' weak autonomy could also be associated with the learners' long-lasting and deep-seated passivity as claimed by their teachers and observed by the researcher.

In contrast to the members of the Control Group who obtained low scores in both the pre-test and post-test (total mean = 2.84 and 2.75 respectively), the subjects within the Experimental Group performed much better and achieved relatively higher scores (total mean of autonomy = 5.28) in comparison to their scores in the pre-test (total mean = 2.79). As tables 25 and 27 exhibit, the Experimental Group scores were doubled after receiving the research treatment. Hence, the post-test results confirm that the treatment was highly effective. In other words, the student participants' autonomy has been successfully fostered through a multiphase creative-writing project. The t-test computation ($t = 17.40$ & $df = 54$), as Table 28 shows, confirmed the accuracy of the preceding results from a statistical perspective.

As demonstrated earlier in this chapter, the treatment addressed various aspects of learning to ensure that learners are well equipped with a set of practical skills (e.g. planning, monitoring, evaluating, and collaborating) to response to the challenges that foreign language learning may pose. To put it differently, throughout the phases constituting the iStory project (i.e. the treatment), the participant students had the opportunity to plan, organise, direct, monitor and reflect upon their learning. This denotes that they were engaged in the process of learning both cognitively and meta-cognitively. It also implies that they have developed certain autonomous skills such as initiating learning tasks independently and using a variety of learning recourses effectively. Indeed, towards the end of the project, the participating students appeared to be more mature as learners, motivated, focused and cognizant of their learning processes and mechanisms.

. 4.9. Conclusion

This chapter included a presentation of the research methodology, experimental design and treatment, data, statistics, and findings pertaining to both the pre-test and post-test of Experiment One. The obtained results went in line with the research hypothesis and demonstrated that learner autonomy could be fostered by means of a well-designed, extensive, creative-writing project. They also indicated that a great part of foreign language learning and intellectual growth could occur beyond the classroom walls in different settings including writing centres. Hence, the study emphasised the significance of learner autonomy in foreign language education.

Chapter Five

Description, Analysis and Discussion of the Second Experiment's Results

Chapter Five

Description, Analysis and discussion

of the Second Experiment's Results

Introduction

This chapter comprises a comprehensive description of the research methodology, tools and experiment that sought to change English language students' attitudes towards the writing skill through a series of innovative writing activities. The chapter includes also the presentation, analysis, and discussion of the pre and post questionnaires findings. It, furthermore, presents a summary of the teacher-observation reports, as well as a general conclusion and a series of recommendations.

5.1. Methodology of Research

5.1.1. Research Population and Sample

Using a probability sampling technique, a sample of 56 Applied Language Studies students has been randomly selected from the parent population of third-years at the Department of English Language at the University of Constantine 1. Two teachers of Written Expression were asked to pick 28 names form the list of students using the alphabetical order. After that, the selected groups (N=56) have been divided into two equal groups: one *control* and the other *experimental*.

5.1.2. Tools of Research

Two Likert-scale questionnaires were used in this experiment to examine the students' attitudes towards English language writing prior to and subsequent to the experimental intervention. In addition, teacher-observation reports were employed to support the data to be obtained from the post-test questionnaire (i.e. after the administration of the experimental treatment).

5.1.2.1. The Questionnaire

Self-completion questionnaires, consist of a set of questions or statements, are widely employed as a data collection instrument in educational research disciplines. Easy to administer and analyse, cost effective, and relatively standardised, questionnaires has gained popularity over the long years across disciplines (Dörnyei, 2014). Questionnaires, of all types, are essentially designed to gather information about a particular subject from respondents for statistical analysis and interpretation (Gillham, 2008).

5.1.2.2. The Teacher-observation Reports

To gain insights into the attitudes of the subjects during the experimental treatment and support the data to be collected via the post questionnaire, a group of five teachers took part in the writing activities and wrote reports on the students' attitudes and reactions to the various tasks and activities constituting the experimental treatment.

5.1.3. Setting of Research: The Writing Centre

As explained in chapter four of the present thesis, a writing centre has been launched within the premises the Central library of Constantine University to host both experiments. All the necessary details pertaining to this centre were offered earlier in the previous chapter (cf. 4.1.4.1).

5.1.4. The Treatment

In October 2014, the Experimental Group has received a treatment that consists of four writing activities for a period of six months in the writing centre. To be precise, the Experimental Group received four hours of tuition every week (2 hours per session) for a period of six month (a total of 24 weeks/96 hours). The aim this time was to adjust students' attitudes towards English language writing. The following section presents an overview of the four activities constituting the treatment, namely Alfresco Writing, Music-

stimulated Writing, Video-inspired Writing, and Quote-generative Writing (AMVQ). These activities, which are referred to as the AMVQ project, were designed by the researcher conducting the present study.

5.1.4.1. The Activities (The AMVQ Project)

5.1.4.1.1. Alfresco Writing

As the designation tends to suggest, this writing activity takes place outside the classroom walls – typically in the university's garden. In detail, the instructor takes the students to a garden or any other green space within the campus to enjoy an open-air writing session. Instead of using chairs and tables, the students sit on the grass in a casual manner (i.e. in almost any way they want) within a certain area to be able to see and listen to the teacher. Further and to help them relax and take delight from the event, the participant students are permitted to have refreshments, wear sunglasses if they wished to, or even listen to music (by means of earphones). Moreover, the researcher writes alongside the students to motivate them as well as to boost teacher-learner relationship and partnership. Likewise, students are strongly encouraged to work collaboratively (e.g. exchange ideas and feedback) throughout the activity. By the end of the two-hour activity, a few students are asked to stand in front of their classmates and read aloud what they have written. For this reason, the students are oftentimes urged to write creative and emotional letters, speeches, poems, and similar writing materials.

Alfresco writing aims essentially to break the classroom monotony and demonstrate that writing is pleasurable, comforting, and contemplative. It also seeks to show the students that writing could be practiced independently in a multiplicity of spaces. Furthermore, the activity attempts to place the students in a mood of inspiration

and creativity, thereby pushing them to focus on the act of writing itself and the content without worrying much about the mistakes or the number of lines they would produce.

5.1.4.1.2. Music-stimulated Writing

Inspired by Lozanov's Suggestopedia (1978), this activity revolves around engaging students into writing while listening to a piece of classical music to evoke relaxation and mental comfort. Hence, high-quality audio equipment (e.g. laptop and HD speakers) are perquisite for the music-stimulated writing. To provoke their profound thoughts and emotions, the students are typically given an expressive topic of writing such as 'if you are ever offered the opportunity, what would you say to a person who left you or passed away'. Before doing so, the instructor induces the students to meditate on the music and bring out the deepest of their fears, regrets, wounds, and wishes. In this manner, the teacher places the students in the appropriate frame of mind to encapsulate their thoughts and feelings into strong, honest, and expressive chain of words.

The music-stimulated writing activity aims particularly at invigorating the students' linguistic skills and creativity by stimulating them to think, feel, and express deep thoughts. The activity seeks also to exhibit the prestigious side of writing, and demonstrate that practising writing can be truly entertaining and soothing. In this respect, the teacher highlights the self-directed nature of writing (i.e. students can do it whenever and wherever they want). Below is a list of all the pieces of music employed in this activity.

- Vivaldi – The Four Seasons, Op. 8, "Spring": Allegro
- Bach - Orchestral Suite No. 3: II. Aria
- Debussy – Suite bergamasque, L 75 : Clair de Lune
- Grieg – Peer Gynt Suite No. 1, Op. 46: Morning Mood
- Chopin – Nocturne No. 2 In E-Flat Major, Op. 9

- Pachelbel – Canon in D major
- Bach – Brandenburg Concerto No. 3
- Jules Massenet – Thaïs: Meditation
- Beethoven – Symphony No. 5, "Fate": I. Allegro Con Brio
- Wagner – The Valkyrie: Ride of the Valkyries
- Barber – Adagio for Strings

5.1.4.1.3. Video-stimulated Writing

This activity focuses on exposing the students to a set of thought-provoking short videos before asking them to produce short pieces of writing in reaction to what they would watch. More specifically, the video-stimulated writing involves engaging the students into some kind of reflective writing after watching and discussing a short inspirational video (generally between 5 and 20 minutes long). Additionally, a few questions like 'how this is related to you', 'what has caught your attention,' and 'what would you remember' are often suggested to help the students reflect upon the video to be watched. Short drama films, motivational speeches, and TED talks are the major types of videos exploited during this activity. The following is a list of those videos per category.

A. Short Drama Films

- 'Gift' *by Daniel Yam*
- 'Removed' *by Nathanael Matanick*
- 'My Father is a Liar' *by MetLife Hong kong*
- 'The Most Beautiful Thing' *by Cameron Covell*
- 'My Shoes" *by Nima Raoofi*

B. Motivational Speeches

- 'Can We Auto-Correct Humanity?' by *Prince Era*
- 'Living with Depression' by *Kat Napiorkowska*

- ‘Mindshift’ by *Ping Pong Studio*
- ‘The Meaning of Life’ by *Kamal Saleh*

C. TED Talks

- ‘Do Schools Kill Creativity?’ *Ken Robinson*
- ‘How to Live Before You Die’ by *Steve Jobs*
- ‘My Stroke of Insight’ by *Jill Bolte Taylor*
- ‘The Magic Washing Machine’ by *Hans Rosling*
- ‘The Surprising Science of Motivation’ by *Daniel Pink*
- ‘Your Body Language Shapes Who You Are’ by *Amy Cuddy*

Through the above-listed videos, the researcher seeks to nurture a love for writing in the students as well as to develop their knowledge, culture, and social awareness. In this regard, the video-stimulated writing activity aims to demonstrate that writing is a powerful tool of thinking, reflecting, and learning. Likewise, the activity attempts to positively change the students’ beliefs about the nature and utility of writing.

5.1.4.1.4. Quote-generative Writing

In this activity, the students are encouraged to write catchy powerful short sentences or paragraphs in the form of literary quotations. That is, instead of producing essays, the students are invited to write only a few lines on a certain theme (e.g. sacrifice). Habitually, the teacher introduces the activity and emphasises its importance. Afterwards, together with the students, the instructor comes up with a series of themes (e.g. friendship, love, hope, pain, etc.). Subsequently, the students commit themselves to thinking and constructing their quotation-like sentences. Towards the end of the session, the students read their quotes and the teacher chooses the best quote; the winner is designated the writer of the week.

The foremost goal of this activity is to boost the students' self-esteem as writers, thereby pushing them to adopt a set of positive attitudes towards writing. Further, the activity sets out to give the students a voice and make them feel like real writers by appreciating and publishing their writings (e.g. posting their quotes on Facebook and similar platforms). Below are a few examples of the student-written quotes.

"Those who love truly, remember eternally." By N. Amira

"And what appeared to be the end was just a new beginning." By K. Nouha

"Courage is not fighting to die, but smiling when everyone else expects you to cry." By A. Lina

"Happiness should be recognised as an international language." By F. Houssem

5.2. The Questionnaires

5.2.1.1. Description and Administration of the Pre-test Questionnaire

The pre-test questionnaire was administered to the samples in early October 2014. The questionnaire consists of twenty Likert scale questions that revolve around learners' attitudes towards writing. (cf. appendix II)

5.2.1.2. Analysis of the Pre-Test Questionnaire

Statement 1: *Writing is the most difficult of all language skills*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
26	24	2	4	00	56
46.42%	42.85%	03.57%	07.14%	00%	100%

Table 29. On the Intricacy of the Writing Skill

(88%) of the participants (46% & 42 %) deemed writing the most complex and intricate of language skills, while (7.14%) of them thought otherwise; against (7.69%) seemed undecided apropos of the intricacy of writing. The students appear to be aware of the intricate nature of writing.

Statement 2*: I can succeed at university even though my English writing is poor*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
28	17	4	7	00	56
50%	30.35%	07.15%	12.5%	00%	100%

Table 30. Good Writing Skills and Success at University

(80.35%) of student respondents (50% & 30.35%) claimed that they could advance in their academic pathway without necessarily having good writing skills. Conversely, (12.5%) admitted to feeling unable to succeed at university without a good command over the writing skill. Others, (7.15%), appeared uncertain as to whether they can make it to the graduation year without decent capacities as regards writing.

Statement 3: *Writing is of great importance in my academic world.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
30	16	2	08	00	56
53.57%	28.57%	03.57%	14.28%	00%	100%

Table 31. The Importance of Writing in Students' Academic Life

(88%) of the surveyed students (60% & 28%) agreed on the fact that writing is substantial in their learning world. (14.28%) considered writing unimportant in academia; against (03.57%) who were undecided.

Statement 4: *Writing will no longer be important when I graduate from university.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
24	20	02	10	00	56
42.85%	35.71%	03.57%	17.85%	00%	100%

Table 32.The Significance of Writing Skills beyond the Academic World

The majority of the participants (42% & 35%) assumed that the importance of writing would diminish when they graduate. (17.85%), in contrast, asserted that writing would remain important for them after their graduation. (03.57%) were unable to predict.

Statement 5: *I do not practise English language writing outside the classroom.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	50	00	06	00	56
00%	89.28%	00%	10.71%	00%	100%

Table 33. Practising Writing beyond the Classroom Walls

As the figures in Table 5 indicate, (89.28%) of the students admitted that they do not practise English writing beyond the classroom walls; against (10.71%) who said they do.

Statement 6: *I only write when I am obliged to do so.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
48	00	00	08	00	56
85.71%	00%	00%	14.28%	00%	100%

Table 34. On Writing Voluntarily

(85.71%) of participants confessed that they write only when compelled to; against (14.28%) who confirmed that they often commit themselves to writing even without being asked to do so. The vast majority

Statement 7: *I like to write.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	11	10	35	00	56
00%	19.64%	17.85%	62.5%	00%	100%

Table 35. Thinking Well of Writing

(62.5%) of the surveyed students acknowledged that they do not like to write. Nevertheless, many of the informants (19.64 %) said that they do. Others (17.85%) indicated they are indifferent to writing.

Statement 8: *I am bad at writing.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
30	12	06	08	00	56
53.57%	21.42%	10.71%	14.28%	00%	100%

Table 36.The Students' Self-evaluation as Writers

When stimulated to evaluate their level in English writing, almost (75%) of students (53.57% & 21.42 %) thought of themselves to be bad writers, while (14.28%) deemed themselves relatively good writers. Only few respondents were undecided.

Statement 9: *I like to share my written products with others (e.g. classmates).*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
04	06	04	36	10	56
07.14%	10.71%	07.14%	64.28%	17.85%	100%

Table 37.On Sharing the Students' Writings with Others

(64.28%) & (17.85%) of the surveyed students hardly ever share the texts they write with others, including their friends and family members. (18%) revealed that they oftentimes show what they write to others; against (07.14%) who seemed neutral.

Statement 10: *My teachers do not like what I write.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
42	08	00	06	00	56
75 %	14.28%	00%	10.74%	00%	100%

Table 38. Teacher Feedback on the Students' writings

(89.28%) of the surveyed students asserted that their teachers tend to dislike the writing materials students produce in various educational events. However, some students (10.74%) indicated that their teachers think well of their writing.

Statement 11: *In general, I prefer expressing my ideas through speaking.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
12	30	04	06	02	56
21.42%	56.60%	07.14%	10.71%	03.57%	100%

Table 39. Writing vs. Speaking as Mediums of Communication

(78%) of the participant students asserted that they have a preference to speaking against writing, when it comes to expressing oneself. Other students, a minority of (14.28%), think otherwise; they opted for writing as their favourite means of communication. Yet, few students (07.14%) offered no answer.

Statement 12: *I worry when my teachers evaluate my writing.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
38	10	02	06	00	56
67.85%	17.85%	07.14%	10.71%	00%	100%

Table 40.On the Students' Self-esteem as Writers

A large number of respondents (67.85%) & (17.85%) seemed to have insecurities concerning the evaluation of their writing by teachers. On the contrary, a few students (10.71%) appeared sure of themselves as writers; they probably trust their writing skills to impress their teachers. Solely two informants, making up (10.71%), expressed undecidedness.

Statement 13: *I would love to take part in a writing club.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	11	00	17	28	56
00%	19. 64 %	00%	30.35 %	50 %	100%

Table 41. The Students' Willingness to Join Writing Institutes

When asked about participating in writing-related extracurricular activities or organisms, the majority of students (50%) & (30.35%) showed a solid unwillingness to do so. Conversely, (19. 64%) of participants exhibited readiness for joining a writing club or a similar educational entity.

Statement 14: *I think I need roughly ten year to learn how to write well in English.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
40	12	01	03	00	56
71.42%	21.42%	01.78%	05.35%	00%	100%

Table 42. The Students' Expectations concerning their Development as Writers

Almost all the students (71.42%) & (21.42%) supported the assumption that they would need a decade to learn how to write exquisitely. Only a few respondents (05.35%) seemed to have better expectations, at least in association with the time needed for their growth as student writers. One of the respondents showed uncertainty concerning the statement.

Statement 15: *Writing is boring by nature.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
34	14	00	08	00	56
64.15%	26.41%	00%	14.28%	00%	100%

Table 43. The Students' Opinion on the Nature of Writing

As table 43 exhibits, (90.56%) of the student respondents admitted that they consider writing tedious. No more than (14.28%) of the informants thought of writing to be not boring. This does not necessarily mean that they find it interesting.

Statement 16: *Some teachers make writing more boring.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
49	07	00	00	00	56
87.5%	12.5%	00%	00%	00%	100%

Table 44. Some Teachers Make Writing Seem Tedious

Figures in Table 44 illustrate that all the participant students (100%) adopted the claim that some teachers make writing (more) boring. The way writing is taught and the method exploited are certainly crucial for the success of a writing classroom.

Statement 17: *Writing in Arabic (L1) is more enjoyable that writing in English (FL).*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
05	23	00	26	02	56
08.92%	41.07%	00%	46.42%	03.57 %	100%

Table 45. Writing in Arabic vs. Writing in English

The Data in Table 45 show that the students were divided into two almost equal groups as regards whether or not writing is a foreign language is less enjoyable that writing in the mother language.

Statement 18: *Those who write well are gifted.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
28	12	03	16	00	56
50%	21.42%	05.35%	28.57%	00%	100%

Table 46. On Writing Being an Inborn Skill

According to (71.42%) of the participants, good student-writers are innately talented (i.e. born with the skills). Alternatively, (26.41%) indicated that the statement that writing could be learned and developed through practice and other techniques.

Statement 19: *Academic writing is not enjoyable.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
36	16	00	04	00	56
64.28%	28.57%	00%	07.14%	00%	100%

Table 47. The Students' Views on Academic Writing

As exhibited in the preceding table, the great majority of students (64.28%) & (28.57%) claimed that academic writing is boring; against just (07.14%) who deemed it pleasurable, or at least ordinary.

Statement 20: *Creative writing is not boring.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
06	17	14	19	00	56
10.71%	30.35%	25%	33.92%	00%	100%

Table 48. The Students' Perception of Creative Writing

Table 48 shows that in contrast to their thoughts about academic writing, (41.06%) of the students regarded creative writing as less boring. (33.92%), on the contrary, considered creative writing uninteresting. However, (25 %) of them seemed to have vague and unclear perceptions regarding the issue in question.

5.2.1.3. Discussion of the Pre-test Results

The results obtained from the pre-test questionnaire offered significant insights as regards the participant students' attitudes towards the writing skill. In detail, the pre-test findings revealed that the majority of the surveyed students (i.e. both control and experimental groups) have negative attitudes towards English language writing. Indeed, this general conclusion has been extracted from the following findings.

To begin with, (86%) of the participant students exhibited some sort of an aversion towards the writing skill, alongside a range of misconceptions or invalid assumptions regarding the worth of writing within and beyond academia. To delineate the situation, (89.28%) of the students confessed that they do not practise writing neither within nor outside the classroom unless they (85.71 %) are compelled to do so, as shown in Tables 33 and 34. Furthermore, the vast majority of the surveyed students (92.85 %) deem writing, especially the academic one, to be boring. They attributed a great deal of that boredom to the nature of writing, as displayed in Tables 43 and 44, and to some teachers who, in the students' view, make the writing class tedious, monotonous and uninviting. This assumption could be, in fact, true due to many reasons including the observable monotony of the curriculum associated with the writing skill and a lack of competence among some inexperienced teachers. In fact, teaching foreign language writing is a laborious undertaking that calls for a set of skills (MacLusky & Cox, 2011).

The analysis of the pre-test data revealed, furthermore, that (74 %) of the students think of themselves as 'bad writers'. This unfavourable view of self could be linked to many factors, including the (71%) students who believe that writing is an innate skill that not every student has, as Table 46 indicates. Perhaps that is why 92 % of the students assumed that they would need years and years to learn how to write well in English. In fact, it would have been reasonable, if those students said so because they were aware of the intricacy and demanding nature of foreign language writing. That is, by being aware of such an important fact, the students would give more importance to writing and double their efforts to enhance their skills. However, as Tables 38 and 40 corroborate, (90 %) of the students seem to hold low expectations of themselves as writers, and so do their teachers, apparently. In this vein, the mainstream of the surveyed students (89.28%) asserted that their teachers do not like what they write. This might well explain why (82.16%) of the students displayed unwillingness to share their writing with others. Furthermore, (79 %) of the students expressed preference for speaking as a medium of expressing one's thoughts.

The examination of the pre-test input showed also that the greater part of the subjects (77%) tie the importance of writing to the academic world, as indicated in Table 32. In other words, they believe that writing is significant within the university circles only. This denotes that the majority of the students are unaware of the fact that the prominence of writing transcends the academic sphere to the professional one. Indeed, it is widely acknowledged that adequate language skills are advantageous both within and beyond academia. In the same vein, the majority of the surveyed students (79%) claimed that they could progress in their academic career without necessarily having a good command over writing. This clearly contradicts the students' assumption that they are cognizant of the status and dominance of writing in the academic world.

To end with, it is worth noting that a few students (15 %) expressed a general interest in English language writing and willingness to practise it both inside and outside the classroom. They also displayed self-confidence as student writers along with an awareness of the significance of writing. In short, that minority of students seems to possess positive attitudes towards writing.

5.2.2. Description and Administration of the Post-test Questionnaire

The post-test questionnaire, which is identical to the one employed in the pre-test, was distributed to the sample to check whether there is any significant difference among them. That is, the post questionnaire is expected to confirm whether the treatment (i.e. the AMVQ project) had an impact on the Experimental Group in comparison to the Control Group.

5.2.2.1. Analysis of the Post-test Questionnaire of the Control Group

Statement 1: *Writing is the most difficult of all language skills*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
16	08	02	02	00	28
57.14%	28.57%	07.14%	07.14%	00%	100%

Table 49. On the Intricacy of the Writing Skill of the Control Group

(85%) of the respondents opted for writing as the most complicated language skill, against only (07.14%) who seemed to have different estimations. Only two students (7.69%) could not decide.

Statement 2*: I can succeed at university even though my English writing is poor*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
04	20	01	03	00	28
14.28 %	71.42%	03.57%	10.71%	00%	100%

Table 50. Good Writing Skills and Success at University of the Control Group)

As Table 50 indicates, the mainstream of respondents (71.42 % & 14.28%) claimed that they could do well at university despite their weak writing skills. On the contrary, a few

students (10.71%) showed awareness concerning the significance of writing abilities in ensuring adequate academic achievements. One student, representing (03.57%), expressed uncertainty.

Statement 3: *Writing is of great importance in my academic world.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
04	10	03	11	00	28
14.28%	35.71%	10.71%	39.28%	00%	100%

Table 51. The Importance of Writing in Students' Academic Life of the Control Group

Nearly half of the student respondents (35.71% & 14.28%) seemed aware of the importance of writing in academia. On the other hand, (39.28%) of the students exhibited a lack of awareness concerning this matter. Only three informants (10.71%) were undecided.

Statement 4: *Writing will no longer be important when I graduate from university.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
11	08	04	06	00	28
39.28%	14.28%	14.28%	21.42%	00%	100%

Table 52. The Significance of Writing Skills beyond University of the Control Group

The bulk of the respondents (39.28%) & (14.28%) purported that writing is unimportant outside the educational circles. Only a minority of 21.42% indicated that writing would important beyond academia as well. The rest of the students (14.28%) opted for 'undecided' as a response.

Statement 5: *I generally do not practise writing outside the classroom.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	25	00	03	00	28
00%	89.28%	00%	10.71%	00%	100%

Table 53. Practising Writing beyond the Classroom Walls of the Control Group

Nearly all the respondents (89.28%) confessed that they hardly ever practice writing outside the teaching space. Only a few of them (10.71%) expressed positive attitudes towards practicing writing beyond the classroom.

Statement 6: *I only write when I am obliged to do so.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
16	07	00	06	00	28
57.14%	25%	00%	17.85%	00%	100%

Table 54. On Writing Voluntarily of the Control Group

As shown in Table 54, the vast majority of the respondents (57.14% &25%) admitted that they do not write unless it is compulsory. In contrast, a few of them, representing (17.85%), implied that they write voluntarily.

Statement 7: *I like to write.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	04	04	20	00	28
00%	14.28%	14.28%	71.42%	00%	100%

Table 55. Thinking Well of Writing of the Control Group

(71.42%) of the surveyed students expressed dislike towards writing, against (14.28%) who seemingly like to write or at least do not hate to do so. Others (14.28%) seemed indifferent to writing.

Statement 8: *I am bad at writing.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
17	05	02	04	00	28
60.71%	17.85%	07.14%	14.28%	00%	100%

Table 56.The Students' Self-evaluation as Writers of the Control Group

When requested to form an opinion of their English writing proficiency, (78.56%) of the respondents deemed themselves weak writers, while (14.28%) considered themselves average or good writers; against (07.14%) who had no clear evaluation of themselves as writers.

Statement 9: *I like to share my written products with others (e.g. classmates).*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	03	03	16	06	28
00%	10.71%	10.71%	57.14%	21.42%	100%

Table 57. On Sharing the Students' Writings with Others of the Control Group

As the figures in Table 57 show, (78.56%) of respondents dislike to share their writings with others such as friends and family members. (10.71%) said that they enjoy sharing their written products with others, while (10.71%) expressed indecision or neutrality.

Statement 10: *My teachers do not like what I write.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
18	04	00	06	00	28
64.28%	14.28%	00%	21.42%	00%	100%

Table 58. Teacher Feedback on the Students' writings of the Control Group

(78.56%) of the students asserted that their teachers dislike their written products. Some respondents (21.42%) assumed that their writings generally please their teachers.

Statement 11: *In general, I prefer expressing my ideas through speaking.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
04	17	02	05	00	28
14.28%	60.71%	07.14%	17.85%	00%	100%

Table 59. Writing vs. Speaking as Mediums of Communication of the Control Group

Of all the respondents (74.79%) affirmed that they prefer speaking to writing as a medium of expression, while (17.85%) showed preference for writing instead. The rest of informants (07.14%) seemed to have no predilection.

Statement 12: *I worry when my teachers evaluate my writing.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
16	04	04	04	00	28
57.14%	14.28%	14.28%	14.28%	00%	100%

Table 60. On the Students' Self-esteem as Writers of the Control Group

(61.11 %) of the respondents confirmed that they feel anxious when their teachers assess their written products. Conversely, (14.28%) implied that they are feel relaxed in that very situation; against (14.28%) who could not or refused to describe their reactions to teacher evaluation of their writings.

Statement 13: *I would love to take part in a writing club.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	06	04	12	06	28
00%	21.42%	14.28%	42.85%	21.42%	100%

Table 61. The Students' Willingness to Join Writing Institutes of the Control Group

Concerning taking part in extracurricular writing activities or projects, (64.27%) of students exhibited a remarkable reluctance to do so. In opposition, (21.42%) showed

willingness and enthusiasm for getting involved in a writing club or a matching learning space. (14.28%) of the students were indifferent.

Statement 14: *I think I need roughly ten year to learn how to write well in English.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
16	06	02	04	00	28
57.14%	21.42%	07.14%	14.28%	00%	100%

Table 62. The Students' Expectations about their Development of the Control Group

The vast majority of the respondents (57.14%) & (21.42%) supported the supposition that it would take them so many years to learn how to write well. A few respondents (14.28%), in contrast, refused the assumption, and thereby expressed positive anticipations concerning the development of their writing skills. Only two students (07.14%) had neither expectations nor despair.

Statement 15: *Writing is boring by nature.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
17	03	02	06	00	28
60.71%	10.71%	07.14%	21.42%	00%	100%

Table 63. The Students' Opinion on the Nature of Writing of the Control Group

As exhibited in Table 63, (60.71% & 10.71%) of the student informants admitted regarding writing as monotonous, opposed to (21.42%) of the respondents who expressed disagreement with the statement. This, however, does not necessarily mean that they find it interesting. Two respondents (07.14%) were undecided.

Statement 16: *Some teachers make writing more boring.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
21	06	00	01	00	28
75%	21.25%	00%	03.75%	00%	100%

Table 64. Some Teachers Make Writing Seem Tedious of the Control Group

Nearly all the students (96.25%) showed agreement concerning the presumption that some teachers make writing (more) boring. Writing instruction poses a set of challenges, and making the task of writing enjoyable is one of them.

Statement 17: *Writing in Arabic (L1) is more enjoyable that writing in English (FL).*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	13	09	06	00	28
00%	46.42%	32.14%	21.42%	00%	100%

Table 65. Writing in Arabic vs. Writing in English of the Control Group

As Table 65 displays, (46.42%) of the students deemed writing in their first language (Arabic) is more pleasurable than writing in English, against (21.42%) who regarded writing in English as more satisfying. (32.14%) remained undecided.

Statement 18: *Those who write well are gifted.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
20	04	00	04	00	28
71.42%	14.28%	00%	14.28%	00%	100%

Table 66. On Writing Being an Inborn Skill of the Control Group

(85.70%) of the surveyed participants seemed to be convinced that good student-writers are naturally talented. A few informants (14.28%) think otherwise.

Statement 19: *Academic writing is not enjoyable.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
21	05	00	02	00	28
75%	17.85%	00%	07.14%	00%	100%

Table 67. The Students' Views on Academic Writing of the Control Group

Figures in Table 67 illustrate that **(**92.85%) of respondents presumed that academic writing is tedious, opposed to (07.14%) who considered writing ordinary, and maybe pleasurable.

Statement 20: *Creative writing is not boring.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	09	09	10	00	28
00%	28.57%	35.71 %	35.71 %	00%	100%

Table 68. The Students' Perception of Creative Writing of the Control Group

As demonstrated in Table 68, a number of students (35.71%) esteemed creative writing interesting. On the contrary, many of them (32.14%) found no pleasure in creative writing.

An equal number of informants (32.14%) did not make any choice; they appeared uncertain.

5.2.2.2. Discussion of the Post-test Results of the Control Group

The analysis of data collected via the post-test questionnaire pertaining to the control group, revealed that the majority of the subjects (86 %) hold negative attitudes towards writing. This means that the subjects remained as they were found in the pre-test. More precisely, the bulk of the students (80 %) within the control group, and who have not received the research experiment, still dislike writing and underestimate its value within and beyond the academic circles. In this regard, the mainstream of the respondents (85 %) believe that they are able to succeed at university even without possessing good writing skills. These findings tend to imply that both the teaching and assessment methods adopted by the teachers of writing at the Department of English at Constantine University are not entirely adequate. Otherwise, the students would not have remained largely passive.

Furthermore and as displayed in Table 56, the majority of the surveyed students (78%) consider themselves incompetent writers and have low expectations regarding the development of their writing skills. Accordingly, as shown in Table 62, the greater part of the students (79%) assumed that it would take them a decade to learn how to write properly in English. This means that they probably have never tried to develop their writing skills because they seem convinced they would fail. In fact, the bulk of them (82%) confessed that they do not commit themselves to writing unless they are compelled to do so, as Table 54 shows. Hence, it could be deduced that the mainstream of the respondent students write only for examinations or compulsory assignments. Moreover, (78 %) of the respondents displayed reluctance towards joining a writing-devoted club or group. As for sharing their

writings with others, the majority of the surveyed students (87%) said that they prefer to keep the things they write, if they ever do, for themselves.

(72 %) of the respondents deem the craft of writing to be naturally boring, especially academic writing in comparison to creative writing. In like manner, as exhibited in Table 64, almost all the students (97.42%) claimed that the teaching method and style of some teachers make writing look more tedious. This indicates that the teaching approaches adopted by teachers are not inviting and possibly old-fashioned. Even teachers, according to (78.56 %) of the students, as shown in Table 58, seem to regard the students' writing as poor. For this reason, (71.42%) of the surveyed students asserted that they get anxious whenever their teachers evaluate their written products.

Unlike the majority, (15%) of the participants seemed to have favourable or at least normal attitudes towards writing. For instance, as Tables 54, 60, and 61 indicate that the students do not mind joining a writing club, practising writing independently, or sharing their writings with others. Likewise, (14.28 %) do not worry when their teachers examine their writings because those students, as shown in Table 56, trust their writing skills.

5.2.2.3. Analysis of the Post-test Questionnaire of the Experimental Group

Statement 1: *Writing is the most difficult of all language skills*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
06	19	00	03	00	28
21.42%	67.85%	00%	10.71%	00%	100%

Table 69. On the Intricacy of the Writing Skill of the Experimental Group

(89.27%) of the respondents selected writing as the most laborious of the four language skills. The rest of the informants (10.71%) had different estimations.

Statement 2*: I can succeed at university even though my English writing is poor*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	02	00	09	17	28
00%	07.14%	00%	32.14%	60.71%	100%

Table 70. Good Writing Skills and Success at University of the Experimental Group

The vast majority of the surveyed students (92.86%) appeared to be cognizant of the fact that writing is perquisite for academic achievements: against (07.14%) who seemed convinced that poor writing skills would not cause them to fail at university.

Statement 3: *Writing is of great importance in my academic world.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
20	07	00	01	00	28
71.42%	25%	00%	03.57%	00%	100%

Table 71. The Importance of Writing in Students' Academic Life of the Experimental Group

Almost all the respondents (71.42%) & (25%) expressed an awareness about the worth of writing in their educational sphere. Only one student (3.47 %) thought that writing is not very important in academia.

Statement 4: *Writing will no longer be important when I graduate from university.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	00	02	11	15	28
00%	00%	07.71%	39.28%	53.57%	100%

Table 72. The Significance of Writing Skills beyond University of the Experimental Group

(92.85%) of the respondents showed that they were convinced that the importance of writing transcends the academic world to the professional one, while (07.71%) of them had no definite answer regarding this matter.

Statement 5: *I do not practise writing outside the classroom.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	04	00	13	11	28
00%	14.28%	00%	46.42%	39.28%	100%

Table 73. Practising Writing beyond the Classroom Walls of the Experimental Group

The mainstream of the respondents (46.42%) & (39.28%) confirmed that they often practice writing beyond the classroom walls, against 14.28% who said they do not.

Statement 6: *I only write when I am obliged to do so.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	02	00	16	10	28
00%	07.14%	00%	57.14%	35.71%	100%

Table 74: On Writing Voluntarily of the Experimental Group

(92.85%) of the surveyed students asserted that they sometimes produce written products without being asked to do so. Conversely, few of them (07.14%) said they only write when it is mandatory, i.e. a classroom task, an assignment or examination.

Statement 7: *I like to write.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
14	12	01	01	00	28
50%	42.85%	03.57%	03.57%	00%	100%

Table 75. Thinking Well of Writing of the Experimental Group

(92.85%) of the respondents expressed that they enjoy writing, against (03.57%) who professed that they do not like writing; others (03.57%) ticked the 'undecided' box.

Statement 8: *I am bad at writing.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	05	03	09	11	28
00	17.85%	10.71%	32.14%	39.28%	100%

Table 76. The Students' Self-evaluation as Writers of the Experimental Group

As shown in Table 76, (71.42%) of the students deemed themselves good writers, opposed to a few respondents (17.85%) who thought themselves to be bad writers. The remaining (10.71%) expressed neutrality concerning this statement.

Statement 9: *I like to share my written products with others (e.g. classmates).*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
09	14	03	02	00	28
32.14%	50 %	10.71%	07.14%	00%	100%

Table 77. On Sharing the Students' Writings with Others of the Experimental Group

(82.14%) of the student respondents represented confirmed that they often share their writing with others such as their friends and family members. (10.71%) of the informants refused to reveal their feelings regarding this matter or perhaps they felt indifferent. However, (07.14%) of them said that they dislike sharing their written materials.

Statement 10: *My teachers do not like what I write.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	02	02	14	10	28
00%	07.14%	07.14%	50%	35.71%	100%

Table 78. Teacher Feedback on the Students' writings of the Experimental Group

(85.71%) of the surveyed students asserted that their teachers often like their writings. Only (07.14%) of the respondents confessed that their teachers seem to dislike what those students write, and another (07.14%) who opted for the undecided option.

Statement 11: *In general, I prefer expressing my ideas through speaking.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	07	03	10	08	28
00%	25 %	10.71%	35.71%	28.57%	100%

Table 79. Writing vs. Speaking as Mediums of Communication of the Experimental Group

(63%) of the students implied that that they favour writing over speaking as a medium of expression. Other students, making up (25%), seemed to prefer speaking when it comes to expressing their thoughts. Conversely, few students (10.71%) showed no preference.

Statement 12: *I worry when my teachers evaluate my writing.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	04	02	14	08	28
00%	14.28%	07.14%	50 %	28.57%	100%

Table 80. On the Students' Self-esteem as Writers of the Experimental Group

Table 80 indicates that (79 %) of the respondents confirmed that they do not feel worried when their teachers assess their written products; against (14.28%) who seemed to have concerns regarding this matter and (07.14%) who appeared to be indifferent.

Statement 13: *I would love to take part in a writing club.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
13	14	00	01	00	28
46.42%	50%	00%	03.57%	00%	100%

Table 81. The Students' Willingness to Join Writing Institutes of the Experimental Group

As Table 81 exhibits, almost all the surveyed students (96%) showed eagerness for joining a writing club, against only (3.57%) who expressed opposition to this idea.

Statement 14: *I think I need roughly ten year to learn how to write well in English.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	00	01	14	13	28
00%	00%	03.57%	50 %	46.43%	100%

Table 82. The Students' Expectations about their Development of the Experimental Group

The vast majority of respondents (96, 43 %) refuted the assumption that they would need a decade of training to enhance their writing skills. Only one student (03.57%) showed agreement with the statement.

Statement 15: *Writing is boring by nature.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	05	04	15	04	28
00%	17.85%	14.28 %	53.57%	16%	100%

Table 83.The Students' Opinion on the Nature of Writing of the Experimental Group

Table 83 shows that (69.57%) of the students affirmed that they do not think of writing as boring, opposed to (17.85%) who associated writing with boredom. Other respondents (14.28%) did not express their opinion.

Statement 16: *Some teachers make writing more boring.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
06	14	02	06	00	28
21.42%	50%	07.14%	21.42%	00%	100%

Table 84. Some Teachers Make Writing Seem Tedious of the Experimental Group

(71.42%) of the surveyed students approved the assumption that some teachers make the writing class uninteresting; against (21.42%) who seemed to think otherwise. Two students, representing (07.14%), were undecided.

Statement 17: *Writing in Arabic (L1) is more enjoyable that writing in English (FL).*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
02	10	02	06	08	28
07.14%	34.61%	07.14%	21.42%	28.57%	100%

Table 85. Writing in Arabic vs. Writing in English of the Experimental Group

Almost (50%) of the respondents implied that they deem writing in Arabic is less pleasurable when compared to composing in English; against (41.75%) who showed preference to Arabic. (07.14%) of the students appeared to have no definite inclination.

Statement 18: *Those who write well are gifted.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
04	02	00	18	04	28
14.28%	07.16%	00%	64.28 %	14.28%	100%

Table 86. On Writing Being an Inborn Skill of the Experimental Group

(78.56%) of the informants did not support the claim that good student writers are talented by nature. Conversely, (21.44%) of them deemed good writing skills to be innate of nature.

Statement 19: *Academic writing is not enjoyable.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	06	07	15	00	28
00%	21.42%	25%	53.57%	00%	100%

Table 87. The Students' Views on Academic Writing of the Experimental Group

The figures in Table 87 show that (53.57%) of the respondents regard academic writing as interesting; against (21.42%) who said it was tedious. On the other hand, (25%) of the informants opted for 'undecided' as a reaction to the statement.

Statement 20: *Creative writing is not boring.*

S. Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	S. Disagree	Total
00	00	01	11	16	28
00%	00%	03.57%	39.28%	57.14%	100%

Table 88. The Students' Perception of Creative Writing of the Experimental Group

As exhibited in Table 88 above, (96.42%) of the surveyed students esteemed creative writing to be pleasurable. Solely (03.57%) seemed to have no clear opinion pertaining to the nature of creative writing.

5.3.2.4. Discussion of Post-test Findings of the Experimental Group

The examination of the Experimental Group's post-test data generated significant findings pertaining to the students' attitudes towards English language writing. More specifically, (94.42 %) of the students exhibited a love for writing and appeared cognizant of its prominence in their academic life and the professional one subsequently. This clearly indicates that the experimental treatment, which consists of four innovative writing activities, had a positive impact on the subject. In other terms, the students' negative attitudes towards the writing skill have successfully been changed. This general conclusion has been drawn from the following results.

First, (92.85%) of the respondents asserted that they enjoy writing in English, and that they often practise it outside the classroom walls and without being requested to. Besides, (88.75%) of those students deemed writing an interesting and powerful tool for both learning and amusement. This denotes that the experimental treatment was effective for nurturing a love of writing among the subjects. That is, the four activities making up the treatment, namely alfresco writing, music-stimulated writing, video-stimulated writing, and quote-generative writing (i.e. the AMVQ Project) offered the students the opportunity to see another side of writing. For instance, the music-stimulated writing allowed the students to focus on the act of writing itself and nothing else (e.g. finishing the task quickly). They relaxed, expressed their thought, and enjoyed listening to renowned pieces of classical music while writing. That is one possible reason why they now believe that writing could be pleasurable. In other words, the writing activities exploited during the experimental intervention could meet both the students' needs and expectations (i.e. learning and pleasure).

Second, the vast majority of the students (92.85 %) seemed aware of the fact that writing is important both in university circles and beyond. In fact, within academia,

students of English are often required to produce various materials such as essays, reports, exam-answers, and dissertations. Out of the academic settings, they are likely to write emails, letters, conference papers, research articles, lesson plans, etc. In a capsule, the importance and utility of writing, especially for learners of English, transcends the university walls. And unless students are fully aware of this fact, they are unlikely to spend ample efforts on learning to write properly. In this respect, nearly all of the students (92.85%) affirmed that they are persuaded that without good writing skills, their academic achievements would be incomplete. This cognizance could be one of the outcomes of exposing the students to a series of awareness-raising videos, especially TED talks, during the video-stimulated writing activity. 'Do Schools Kill Creativity?' by Ken Robinson is an example of those videos. Furthermore, (89.27%) of the participant students displayed awareness regarding the sophistication of writing as a skill, and that it is a challenging task that needs patience and persistence.

Third, (92.85%) of the students displayed high self-esteem as writers. They consider themselves good writers, and feel happy when people, including their teachers, read of evaluate their writings. This indicates the students' self-confidence has been strongly reinforced via the treatment (i.e. the AMVQ activities). In fact, an activity such as quote-generative writing (see title 5.2.4.1.4. for details) aimed essentially at making the students feel like professional writers whose quotes are inspiring and appealing. For instance, the student-produced literary quotations were often posted on the Facebook page of the UC Writing Centre; the latter is the experimental setting of the present study. In this respect, (82.14%) of the respondents showed eagerness towards sharing their written products with their teachers, classmates, friends, family members and anyone who would appreciate their efforts and encourage them. Praise and positive feedback is likely to reinforce the esteem of student writers (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Furthermore, almost all of the students (96%)

expressed willingness for adhering to a writing-dedicated club and the like. This tends to imply that their experience in the UC writing centre (i.e. the experimental setting and treatment) was mostly positive and rewarding.

Forth, the overwhelming of the participant students (96.43%) hold positive expectations about their growth as student writers, as Table 82 indicates. In other words, they believe they could enhance their English language skills in a relatively short time (e.g. six months) not a decade as they used to think in prior to the experimental intervention. This demonstrates, indeed, that the treatment (i.e. the four writing activities) has effectively changed some of the students' convictions. In a word, the students realised that 'practice makes perfect'. Furthermore, the bulk of the students (75%) seemed to have optimistic anticipations regarding the impact of their writing on others. That is, the surveyed students appear to trust their writing to impress their potential readers. Concerning this matter, the mainstream of the students (79 %) asserted that the hardly ever feel anxious when their teachers evaluate their written products. This indicates that the AMVQ Project (i.e. the experimental treatment) have helped the students to get rid of their anxiety by pushing them to share or read aloud their writings in front of the others. For instance, during both the alfresco and quote-generative writing activities, the students were oftentimes invited to stand and read aloud what they would have written and they were explicitly rewarded for that. The reward could be a broad smile, warm praise, genuine appreciation, a symbolic prize (e.g. chocolate or a keepsake), or even a standing ovation!

Finally and just as important, a few students (07.14%) remained relatively passive and could not adopt positive attitudes towards writing as indicated in the Figures pertaining to statements 5, 6, 7, 9, 13 and 15. Perhaps they need more time, a better training or they truly dislike all sorts of writing no matter how rich and enjoyable the programme might be.

It is, furthermore, worthy of note that (71.42%) of the students did not change their opinions as regards the claim that some teachers make the writing craft looks boring.

5. 3. Teacher Observation Reports

To better evaluate the activities and methods employed during the experimental treatment and support the post-test findings, a group of five teachers were kindly invited to take part in the activities and write reports concerning the students' attitudes and reactions to the task. The teacher observers were English language teachers at the Department of English, University of Constantine with at least three years of teaching experience. Typically, before the beginning of the activity, the researcher introduces the observer (sometimes two observers) as a guest who would participate in the task and assist the researcher/teacher if needed. It is noteworthy that these observations were recorded during the final phase of the AMVQ Project, i.e. the last two months, during which a change in the students' attitudes towards writing was expected. The following comments were extracted from the seven teacher-observation reports produced during five different sessions (cf. appendix 11)

5.3.1. Summary of the Reports

- Students were getting pleasure from the activity; they were smiling, giggling and joyful all the time.
- The participants were working cooperatively. They sought each other's' assistance many times throughout the activity.
- The students were deeply engaged in the activity. They hardly ever checked their watches or were engaged in lengthy and non-academic side conversations.
- The atmosphere was positive and students seemed relaxed and happy. They even laughed so hard over their mistakes and slips of the tongue.

- Students were very creative, and, more importantly, sure of themselves. They were neither reluctant nor afraid of expressing their ideas creatively.
- Students were calm and appeared to be comfortable.
- They were drinking juice and lemonades during the 'alfresco writing' session while sitting casually on the ground under shade trees. This was unique.
- The vast majority of the student participants were obviously getting gratification from the classical music-based writing.
- Students were emotionally engaged into the task to the point that they shed a few tears. The short drama film talked about parents and the students found themselves relating and personalising. Personalisation is very important in the language classroom, especially when dealing with the productive language skills.
- I have to admit that writing alongside a group of nice students in the university's garden was a unique experience to me. I was highly impressed by the performance of the students, not because they have written good pieces, but because they have used writing to truly express themselves.

5.4. General Discussion of Results

The analysis of the pre-test and post-test questionnaires along with the teacher observation reports yielded significant insights pertaining to the surveyed students' attitudes towards English language writing. The findings of both questionnaires confirmed that it is possible to nurture a love for writing in Algerian EFL students. One way to do so is to engage them into a variety of innovative writing activities as an extracurricular project. To see more into the issue, it is important to explore and compare the results obtained prior and subsequent to the experimental treatment (i.e. the AMVQ Project.) employed in the second experiment of the present study.

The pre-test findings pertaining to both the control and experimental groups revealed that of the total respondents (N=56), (86%) exhibited some of an aversion towards writing. In detail, (89.28%) of them confessed that they do not like to write and that they (85.71%) do not commit themselves to writing unless their teachers oblige them to do so. Moreover, the vast majority of the participants (92 %) deemed writing tedious and exhausting. They associated this tediousness with the nature of the writing craft as well as with the teaching styles and methods of some teachers. Likewise, the bulk of the respondents (77%) appeared unaware of the significance of writing as a skill; they assumed that writing is only important within academia and that it would become irrelevant to them when they graduate. Furthermore, the analysis of the pre-test data showed that (74%) of the students hold low esteem for themselves as student writers; they consider their writing skills poor and ineffective. In fact, they affirmed that their teachers hardly ever like what they write. Accordingly, the mainstream of the students experience anxiety whenever their teachers attempt to assess their writings.

The students' overall negative attitudes towards writing could be linked to several factors, including the students' psychology and beliefs, the teaching methods or curriculum, and the students' past learning experiences. More precisely, the students' misguided beliefs that writing is boring by nature and that it would take them more at least a decade to learn how to write well because, in the students' opinion, only gifted people can write handsomely, as shown in Tables 42, 43, and 46, could be the reason behind the students' aversion towards writing. In addition, the teaching methods and styles adopted by some teachers and the curriculum dedicated to writing could cause the students to hold writing in disfavour. That is, foreign language students in general are unlikely to esteem a laborious undertaking such as writing unless they find pleasure, meaning and value in it. In fact, (100 %) of the surveyed students asserted that some teachers make the writing

enterprise feel ‘more’ boring. This tends to imply that the teaching style and methods adopted by some teachers are seemingly inadequate or at least not good enough to meet the students’ expectations, needs, and weaknesses. Furthermore, it is quite common for students, and people in general, to dislike the things and events that are associated with their unpleasant past learning experiences (Hamblen, 2012). To simplify it, some of the surveyed students might have developed negative attitudes towards writing in particular and learning by large after being harshly criticised or publically ‘humiliated’ by a [writing] teacher or so.

It is noteworthy that the above-discussed factors and others have all been taken into consideration during the design of the four writing activities constituting the experimental treatment (i.e. The AMVQ Project). Indeed, to nurture a love of writing in students, we should build their awareness, capture their attention, add pleasure to their learning experience, treat them with kindness and respect, appreciate their efforts and tolerate their weaknesses, give them a voice and listen to them attentively, and so gain their trust. Perhaps, this is what teaching is all about: making a difference.

In the light of the foregoing discussion, the post-test findings showed that the subjects within the control group, who have not received any particular treatment in addition to their ordinary classes, held tight to their unfavourable attitudes towards English language learning. Conversely, as the findings corroborate, (94.42%) of the experimental group members, adopted positive attitudes towards the writing skills. This conclusively demonstrates the effectiveness of the AMVQ Project (i.e. the four writing activities together) in ending the students’ aversion and misconceptions regarding English language writing. Hence, the second hypothesis of this study – engaging the students into an extensive creative writing project would change their attitudes towards writing - is confirmed. Such a major conclusion is supported by the following results.

Unlike the case of the control group, the analysis of the post-test data pertaining to the experimental group revealed that the greater majority of the subjects (92.85%) asserted that they like to write, especially the creative one, and they often practise writing both inside the classroom and independently. This major change at the level of the students' attitudes is clearly linked to the experimental treatment, which focused on providing the students' with pleasurable learning experiences. Alfresco writing which involves taking the students to the universities garden to enjoy an open-air writing session is on example of those gratifying learning situations. The teacher-observation reports showed that the students had a real fun during alfresco sessions. Furthermore, and based on the post-test findings, the great majority of the subjects (90.85) displayed awareness of the value of writing and its implications on their lives as learner and as professionals later on. Before receiving the research treatment, (77%) of the students believed that they could advance in their academic pathway without necessarily possessing good writing skills. if such an assumption is valid, then attention must be directed to the assessment techniques and practices adopted by the teachers. In this respect, an important question had to be answered: 'how could students succeed with poor writing skills, knowing that the overwhelming majority of their examinations are written of nature?

Furthermore, the results obtained from the experimental group's post-test indicated that the majority of the students (79%) deem themselves competent writers and expect their writing to impress any potential readers. Thus, the bulk of the students (75%) asserted that they enjoy sharing their writings with other. This is also a possible outcome of the AMVQ Project (i.e. the treatment), which placed emphasis on sharing to reinforce the students' self-confidence and motivation. For instance, the members of the experimental group were often engaged in peer-reviewing tasks to urge them to compare their written products to those of their classmates and learn a great deal in the process. In fact, self-

esteem and self-confidence have a great influence upon the students overall attitudes towards writing, as the findings of the present study revealed. That is, if the students feel weak and underestimated, they are likely to hold back and dwell in a narrow zone of comfort.

To end with, it is important to note that students, this study attested, would not abandon old habits and attitudes until new ones are instilled in them. It is equally important to point out that learner attitudes are a potential shortcut to enhancing the students' writing skills. In fact, without a set of positive attitudes towards the writing skill, the learning process of any learner is expected to breakdown and exhibit a battery of shortcomings, which, if not well addressed, diminish the learners' overall competency.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the second experiment and presented the research methodology, experimental design and treatment, data and findings yielded from the pre-test and post-test respectively. The obtained results confirmed this research's second hypothesis that engaging the students into a series of well-designed and innovative writing activities, would adjust the students' attitudes towards writing. In view of that, teachers are invited to employ similar activities to nurture a love of writing in their students, thereby pushing them to develop their writing skills autonomously. Indeed, when EFL students find genuine pleasure in practicing any of the four key language skills, they will most likely make diligent efforts to master it.

General Conclusion and Recommendations

The principal aims of the present study were, first, fostering learner autonomy through a multiphase story-writing project, and, second, adjusting EFL attitudes towards English language writing through a series of innovative writing activities. These two objectives were successfully achieved as the study results evidenced.

Looking at the results of both the first and second experiments, one could conclude that learner autonomy and learner attitudes are closely related and can both be promoted through extra-classroom creative writing projects and programmes. It could furthermore be deduced that learning English does not end in the classroom, but it rather continues 'over there'. To put it otherwise, language learners at the Department of English at the University of Constantine 1 should be offered ample opportunities to learn and to practise their skills outside the classroom. Writing centres and self-access facilities are but two examples of such opportunities. In this respect, the present research demonstrated that creating a writing centre could boost the learning of English in the Algerian universities. A writing centre, as the present study established, is a favourable setting for the development of learner autonomy and literacy skills.

Contemplating over this research's findings, one feels as if the mainstream of Algerian learners of English has thrown the responsibility of their learning upon their teachers. And that is exactly what learner autonomy is not! Therefore, it is of utmost importance that the students' passivity receives the necessary treatment. In this regard, we suggest changing their deep-rooted beliefs about the role of a learner and teacher in the learning enterprise. To be more precise, our students need to be ’re-indoctrinated' with relevance to the contemporary philosophies of learning within which learner-created approaches are central. Teachers also are invited to revise their teaching methods and practices and upgrade them to meet today's educational endeavours and trends.

Although implementing the principles of autonomous learning in the Algerian EFL context could be challenging, it is highly recommended; particularly in today's world where autonomy is becoming both a requirement and a privilege. Indeed, as there are smart phones that can perform various tasks and make our life easier and more enjoyable, we aspire to see a generation of 'smart-learners' who display a set of skills and empowerments in completing tasks, directing and monitoring their learning, and overcoming any potential challenges of the learning enterprise. In doing so, those learners are likely to make their teachers' professional life easier and their mission nobler and more efficacious.

Teachers are invited to adopt learner-centred approaches of teaching, for on the stage of pedagogy, students are not the audience, but the main characters. Teaching is by no means a monologue, it is rather a dialogue; a healthy relationship of interaction, negotiation and exchange of knowledge. Hence, teachers are urged to spare no effort to convince their students to accept responsibility for their own learning and eventually for their choices and conducts. Indeed, we aspire to see those learners, in the future, abiding by the law because it protects them and keeps things in order, not because they would get punished. We want them to be responsible, independent, creative, self-reflective, and socially elegant.

The bottom line is that the aim of this study is to see learners grow into thinkers, critics, and why not language philosophers. The aim is not to see them still passive learners when opportunities of autonomous learning have grown in importance in tertiary education.

Bibliography

Ajzen, I. (2005). *Attitudes, Personality, and Behavior*. UK: McGraw-Hill Education.

Allan, K. & Jaszczolt, K. (2012). The Cambridge Handbook of Pragmatics. Cambridge University Press.

Allford, D.,& Pachler, N. (2007). *Language, Autonomy and the New Learning Environments* (1st Ed.). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Amabile, T. M. (2012). The Social Psychology of Creativity. Springer.

Anderson, N.J. (2002). *The Role of Metacognition in Second/Foreign Language Teaching and Learning*. In ERIC Digest. Retrieved from www.cal.org/resources/digest/110anderson.html

Annual Report (2017). *2017-18annualreport*. Available at: https://browncrc.wixsite.com/17-18annualreport (Accessed: 18 November 2018).

Aoki, N. (2000). *Aspects of Teacher Autonomy: Capacity, Freedom, and Responsibility*. In P.Benson, & S. Toogood (Eds.), Learner autonomy 7: Challenges to research and practice (pp. 110-123, 132-135). Dublin: Authentik.

Aoki, N. (2002). Aspects of teacher autonomy: capacity, freedom, and responsibility. In P. Benson & S. Toogood (Eds.), *Learner autonomy 7: Challenges to research and practice* (110-124). Dublin: Authentik.

Aoki, N., & Smith, R.C. (1999). *Learner Autonomy in Cultural Context: The Case of Japan*. In S. Cotteral, & D. Crabbe (Eds.), Learner autonomy in language learning: Defining the field and effecting change (pp.19-28). Frankfurt: Peter Lang

Aquinas, P.G. (2006). *Organizational Behaviour: Concepts, Realities, Applications and Challenges*. New Delhi: Excel Books India.

Armstrong, T. (2003). *The Multiple Intelligences of Reading and Writing: Making the World Come Alive*. USA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Babbage, K. (2010). *Extreme Writing: Discovering the Writer in Every Student*. London: Rowman & Littlefield.

Badger, R and White, G. (2000). *A Process Genre Approach to Teaching Writing*. ELT Journal, 54, 153-160.

Bagheri, M. S., & Aeen, L. (2011). The impact of practicing autonomy on the writing proficiency of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 15(1), 1-13.

Bahls, P. (2012). *Student Writing in the Quantitative Disciplines: A Guide for College Faculty*. San Francisco: Jossy Bass Publishing.

Bailey, C. (2007). *A Guide to Qualitative Field Research*. CA: Pine Forge Press.

Baker, C. (1992). *Attitudes and Language*. Avon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Baker, L. (2011). *Metacognition*. G.V. In Aukrust, (Ed.), Learning and Cognition Education. Oxford: Elsevier (pp. 128-.135).

Bardonaro, K. (2013). *The Intersection of Library Learning and Second-Language Learning: Theory and Practice*. New York: Rowman & Littlefield.

Barell, J. (1992), "*Like an Incredibly Hard Algebra ¨Problem: Teaching for Metacognition"* In A. L. Costa, J. A. Bellanca, & R. Fogarty (eds.)*If minds matter: A foreword to the future, Volume I* (pp. 257–266). Palatine, IL: IRI/Skylight Publishing.

Barfield, A. (2003). Routine reflections on developing autonomy? In A. Barfield & M. Nix (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy in Japan 1: Autonomy you ask!*. Tokyo: Learner Development Special Interest Group of the Japan Association of Language Teachers.

Barfield, A., & Brown, S. (Eds.). (2007). *Reconstructing Autonomy in Language Education: Inquiry and Innovation*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Barnett, R. & Blumber, J. (1999). *Writing Centers and Writing Across the Curriculum Programs*. USA: Greenwood Press.

Barnett, R. & Blumner, J. (2008). *The Longman Guide to Writing Centers. Theory and Practice*. USA: Pearson Longman.

Barnett, R. (2013). *Imagining the University*. London:Routledge.

Bartram, B. (2010). *Attitudes to Modern Foreign Language Learning: Insights from Comparative Education*. London: A&C Black.

Baum, A. (1997). *Cambridge Handbook of Psychology, Health and Medicine*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Baumeister, F.R. & Bushman, B. (2007). *Social Psychology and Human Nature: Brief Version*. Boston: Cengage Learning.

Baumeister, R. F. and Vohs, K.D. (2007). Encyclopaedia of Social Psychology. Sage Publications.

Bazerman, C. (2016). What do sociocultural studies of writing tell us about learning to write. In C. A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), Handbook of writing research (2nd ed., pp. 11–23). The Guilford Press.

Bean, J. (2011). *Engaging Ideas: The Professor's Guide to Integrating Writing, Critical Thinking, and Active Learning in the Classroom* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossy Bass.

Beatty, K. (2003). *Computers in the Language Classroom*. In D. Nunan (Ed.), Practical Englisha Language Teaching (pp. 247-266). McGraw-Hill Contemporary

Benjamin, A. (2013). *Writing in the Content Areas* (3rd ed.). UK: Tylor & Francis.

Benson, P. & Voller, P. (2014). *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*. London: Routledge.

Benson, P. & Voller, P. (Eds.). (1997). *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*. London: Longman.

Benson, P. (1996). *Concepts of Autonomy in Language Learning*. In R. Pemberton, E. & H. D. Pierson (Eds.), Taking Control: Autonomy in Language Learning (pp. 27-34). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Benson, P. (1997). *The Philosophy and Politics of Learner Autonomy*. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), Autonomy and independence in language learning (pp. 18-34). London: Longman,

Benson, P. (2001), *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*. Harlow: Longman.

Benson, P. (2006). *Autonomy in Language Teaching and Learning*. Language Teaching, 40(1), 21-40.

Benson, P. (2007). *Teachers and Learners' Perspectives on Autonomy*. In T. E. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and Teacher Autonomy: Concepts, Realities and Responses*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Benson, P. (2009). *Making Sense of Autonomy in Language Learning*. In R. Pemberton, S. Toogood & A. Barfield (Eds.), Maintaining control: Autonomy and language learning (pp. 13-26). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Benson, P. (2010). *Measuring Autonomy: Should We Put our Ability to the Test*. In A. Paran & L. Sercu. (Eds.), *Testing the untestable in language education* (77-97). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Benson, P. (2011). *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Longman.

Benson, P. (2013). *Teaching and Researching: Autonomy in Language Learning* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

Bereiter, C., & Scardamalia, M. (1987). *The Psychology of Written Composition*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Biagi, S. (2016). *Media/Impact: An Introduction to Mass Media* (12th ed.). Boston: Cengage Learning.

Blidi, S. (2016). *Collaborative learner autonomy: A mode of learner autonomy development*. Singapore: Springer.

Blin, F. (2004) '*CALL and the Development of Learner Autonomy: Towards an Activity-theoretical Perspective' ReCALL* 16 (2): 377–395. Cambridge. CUP.

Bordonaro, K. (2014). *The Intersection of Library Learning and Second-Language Learning: Theory and Practice*. Lanham, Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield.

Borg, S. & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). *English Language Teachers' Beliefs and Practices*. British Council ELT research paper. 12-07.

Boud, D. (2013). *Enhancing Learning through Self-assessment*. UK: Taylor & Francis

Boulware-Gooden, R., Carreker, S., Thornhill, A., Joshi, R.M. (2007). *Instruction of Metacognitive Strategies Enhances Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Achievement of Third-Grade Students*. The Reading Teacher, 61(1), pp. 70-77

Boyle, J. (2012). *It's All about People's Skills: Surviving Challenges in the Classroom*. Plymouth: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Brace, I. (2008). *Questionnaire Design: How to Plan, Structure and Write Survey Material for Effective Market Research (2nd ed.).* London: Kogan Page Publishers.

Breen, M. P. & Littlejohn, A. (2000). *The process syllabus: Negotiation in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bright, R. (2002). *Writing from the Start: Writers Workshops for the Primary Grades*. Canada: Portage & Main Press.

Brown, P. C. (2002). *Project-based Teaching Promotes Autonomy in L2 Learning*. In A. S. Mackenzie & E. McCafferty (Eds.), *Developing autonomy* (89-96). Proceedings of the JALT CUE Conference 2001. Tokyo: The Japan Association for Language Teaching College and University Educators Special Interest Group.

Bruce, I. (2008). *Academic Writing and Genre. A Systematic Analysis*. London: Continuum.

Bruce, S. & Rafoth, B. (2004). *ESL Writers: A Guide for Writing Center Tutors*. USA: Portsmouth Publishing.

Burgoon, M. (2011). *Communication: Yearbook 6*. . New York: Routledge.

Burke, K. (1999), "*The Mindful School: How to Assess Authentic Learning*" (3rd ed.). USA. SkyLight Training and Publishing.

Camilleri Grima, A. (2007). *Pedagogy for Autonomy, Teachers' Attitudes and Institutional* Change: A case study. In M. Jimenez Raya & L. Sercu (Eds.), Challenges in teacher development: Learner autonomy and intercultural competence. (pp. 81-102). Frankurt: Peter Lang.

Camilleri, G. (1999). *Learner Autonomy: The Teachers' Views.* Retrieved 20 January 2012, from http://archive. ecml.at/documents/pubCamilleri

Campos, J. (2014). *The Learner-Centered Classroom.* USA: Association for Talent Development.

Candy, P.C. (1991). *Self-Direction for Lifelong Learning*. San Fransisco: Jossey Bass.

Cargan, L. (2007). *Doing Social Research*, USA: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Carter, B. A. (2006). *Teacher-student Responsibility in Foreign Language Learning*. Berlin: Peter Lang.

Chamberlin, A.S. (2012). *Serving the Needs of Intellectually Advanced Mathematics Students*. USA: Pieces Learning.

Chambers, A. & G. Davies (Eds.) (2001). *ICT and Language Learning: A European Perspective*. Lisse: Swets & Zeitlinger.

Chambon, V., Filevich, E. & Haggard, P. (2014). *What is the Human Sense of Agency, and is it Metacognitive?* In S. Fleming & C. Frith (Eds.). The Cognitive Neuroscience of Metacognition. New York: Springer

Chamot, A. U. (2005). *Language Learning Strategy Instruction: Current Issues and Research.* Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 25, 112-130.

Chamot, A. U., & Keatley, C. W. (2003). Learning strategies of adolescent low- literacy Hispanic ESL students. Paper presented at the 2003 Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Chanock, K. (2003). *Autonomy and Responsibility: Same or Different? Proceedings of the Independent Learning Conference 2003*. Australia: University of Melbourne.

Charyton, C. (2013). *Creative Engineering Design Assessment: Background, Directions, Manual, Scoring Guide and Uses*. USA: Springer Science.

Cheng, X. T. & Zheng, M. (2004). *English Learning Strategies*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching & Research Press.

Chitale, A., Mohanty, P. & Dubey, N. (2012). *Organizational Behaviour: Text and Cases*. New Delhi: PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd.

Clark, R. (2014). *Help! for Writers: 210 Solutions to the Problems Every Writing Faces (2nd ed.).* New York: Little, Brown and Co.

Cobley, P. & Schulz P. J. (2013*). Theories and Models of Communication*. Berlin: Walter De Gruyter.

Cognition. (2016). In Oxford Online Dictionaries. Retrieved from https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/cognition

Cohen, D. A. (2014). *Strategies in Learning and Using a Second Language (2 nd ed.).* London: Routledge.

Cohen, V. & Cowen, J. (2009). *Literacy for Children in an Information Age: Teaching Reading, Writing, and Thinking (What's New in Education) 2nd Ed.* New York. Wadsworth Publishing.

Colman, A. M. (2008). *A Dictionary of Psychology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Comterall, S. (2000). *Promoting Learner Autonomy through the Curriculum: Principles for Designing Language Courses*. ELT journal, 54(2), 109-117.

Confessare, GJ. & Park, E. (2004) *Factor Validation of the Learner Autonomy Profile: Version 3.0 and Extraction of the Short Form*. International Journal of Self-Directed Leaming, Vol. 1(1), 2004, 3858.

Cooker, L. (2012). *Assessment as Autonomous Learning. Assessment for Learner Autonomy Symposium, LATEFL 46th Annual Conference*. Glasgow, UK.

Corder, D. & Waller, G. (2006). Using a CALL package as a platform to develop effective language learning strategies and facilitate autonomous learning. In L. Miller (Ed.), *Learner autonomy 9: Autonomy in the classroom* (7-26). Dublin: Authentik.

Cotterall, S. (1995*). Readiness for Autonomy: Investigating Learner Beliefs*. System, 23, 195 206.

Cotterall, S. (2000). *Promoting Learner Autonomy through the Curriculum: Principles for Designing Language Courses*. ELT Journal, 54(2), 109–117.

Cotterall, S. (2002). Promoting learner autonomy through an academic writing course. In *Proceedings of the 5th Biennial Tertiary Writing Network Colloquium* (pp. 76-83), Auckland University of Technology, 5-6 December 2002.

Cotterall, S., & Crabbe, D. (1999). *Learner Autonomy in Language Learning: Defining the Field and Effecting Change*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Coulmas, F. (1999). *The Blackwell Encyclopaedia of Writing Systems*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Cowan, A. (2022). Against Creative Writing. Taylor & Francis.

Cramo, W.D., & Prislin, R. (2006). *Attitudes and Persuasion*. Annual Review of Psychology, 57,345-374.

Creativity. (2015). In Oxford Online Dictionaries. Retrieved from https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/creativity.

Crisp, J. R. (2015). *Social Psychology: A Very Short Introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cruse, A. (2006). A Glossary of Semantics and Pragmatics. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Cutts, M. (2020). Oxford guide to plain English. OUP.

Dam, L. (1990), *Developing Awareness of Learning in an Autonomous Language Learning* Context. In R. Duda & P. Riley (Eds.), *Learning Styles* (pp. 189-97). Presses Universitaires de Nancy.

Dam, L. (1994). "*How to Recognise the Autonomous Classroom*". *Die Neueren Sprachen* 93. pp.503-527.

Dam, L. (1995). *Learner Autonomy: From Theory to Classroom "Practice*. Dublin: Authentik.

Dam, L. (2001). *Learner Autonomy: New Insights/Autonomy de L'apprenant: Nouvelle Pistes*. Special Issue of AILA Review, 15.

Dam, L., R. Eriksson, D. Little, J. Miliander, & T. Trebbi. (1990). '*Towards a Definition of Autonomy'* in T. Trebbi (ed.). Third Nordic Workshop on Developing Autonomous Learning in the FL Classroom.Bergen: University of Bergen. http://www.warwick.ac.uk/go/dahla/archive/trebbi_1990.

Dam, L. (2000) "*Why Focus on Learning Rather than Teaching? From Theory to Practice"*. In: Little, D. L. Dam, & J.Timmer (Eds.). Focus on Learning rather than Teaching: Why and How? Dublin: Authentik, pp. 38-55.

Darasawang, P. (2000). Developing learner autonomy through the use of a revised learner training programme (RLTP) in King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi. PhD thesis. Edinburgh: The University of Edinburgh.

Darasawang, P., Chamot, A.U. & Cooker, L. (2013). *The Story of a Self-Access Centre: Reflections on Challenges and Success (Chapter 8).* In A. Barfield and N. Delgado (eds), Autonomy in Language Learning: Stories of Practices (pp. 87-96). United Kingdom: IATEFL Learner Autonomy SIG.

Defining Style, (2005). *In Readwritethink.org*. Retrieved from http://www.readwritethink.org/files/resources/lesson_images/lesson209/definitionstyle.pdf

Dickinson, L. (1992). *Learner Training for Language Learning*. Dublin: Authentik.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2014a). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research*: Construction, Administration, and Processing: New York: Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z. (2014b). *The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Routledge.

Dunlosky, J. & Metcalfe, J. (2009). *Metacognition*. London: Sage.

Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The Psychology of Attitudes*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Efklides, A. (2001). *Metacognitive Experiences in Problem Solving: Metacognition, Motivation, and Self-regulation*. In A. Eſklides, J. Kuhl, & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), Trends and Prospects in Motivation Research (pp. 297-323). The Netherlands: Kluwer.

Efklides, A. (2006). *Metacognitive Experiences: The Missing Link in the Self-Regulated Learning Process.* Educational Psychology Review, 18(3), 287–291.

Elbow, P. (2000). Everyone Can Write: Essays towards a Hopeful Theory of Writing and Teaching Writing. Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring Language Pedagogy through Second Language Acquisition Research.* Oxon: Routledge.

Ellis, R. (2012). *Language Teaching Research and Language Pedagogy*. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons

Elmbrog, J. & Hook, S. (2005). *Centers for Learning: Writing Centers and Libraries in Collaboration.* USA: Association of College and Research Libraries

Erwin, P. (2014). *Attitudes and Persuasion* (2nd ed.). London: Psychology Press.

Evans, C. J., Kirby, J. R., & Fabrigar, L. R. (2003). *Approaches to Learning, Need For Cognition, and Strategic Flexibility among University Students*. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 73(4), 507–528.

Everhard, C. (2016). *What Is this Thing Called Autonomy? Finding a Definition and a Model*. Selected papers on theoretical and applied linguistics, v 21.

Everhard, C. J. and Murphy, L. (2015). *Assessment and Autonomy in Language Learning*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Figura, K. and Jarvis, H. (2007) '*Computer-Based Materials: A Study of Learner Autonomy and Strategies' System* 35 (2007) 448–468.

Flavell, J.H. (1979). *Metacognition and Cognitive Monitoring: A New Area of Cognitive Developmental Inquiry.* American Psychologist, 34(10), 906-911.

Flower, L. & Hayes, J.R. (1981). *A Cognitive Process Theory of Writing.* College Composition and Communication, 32, 365-387.

Foster, D. (2006). *Writing with Authority: Students' Role as Writers in Cross-national Perspective*. USA: National Council of Teachers of English.

Fox, C. and Street, B. (2007). *Rethinking English in School: Towards a New and Constructive Stage*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Gammil, D. (2006). *"Learning the Write Way*". The Reading Teacher 59 (8): 754–762.

Gardner, D. & Miller, L. (2014). *Managing Self-Access Language Learning*. Hong Kong: City University of Hong Kong.

Gardner, R. (2010). *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition: The Socio-educational Model*. New York: Peter Lang.

Garrett, P. (2010). *Attitudes to Language: Key Topics in Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gass, R. & Seiter, J. (2015). *Persuasion: Social Influence and Compliance Gaining*. London: Routledge

Gillham, B. (2008). *Observation Techniques: Structured to Unstructured*. UK: Bloomsbury Academic.

Graham, S. (2006). *Strategy Instruction and the Teaching of Writing: A Meta-Analysis*. In C. A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), Handbook of writing research (pp. 187-208). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Mason, L. (2005). *Improving the Writing Performance, Knowledge, and Self-Efficacy of Struggling Young Writers: The Effects of Self-Regulated Strategy Development.* Contemporary Educational Psychology, 30(2), 207–241.

Granello D. H. (2001). *Promoting Cognitive Complexity in Graduate Written Work: Using Bloom's Taxonomy as a Pedagogical Tool to Improve Literature Reviews*. Counselor Education & Supervision, 40, 292-307.

Greg, A., Chung-Yan, and Towson, M. J. (2011). *"Social Psychological Theory*". In, Schneider, W. F., Gruman, A. J. & Coutts, M. L. (eds.). Applied Social Psychology: Understanding and Addressing Social and Practical Problems (2nd ed.). USA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Gregg, L. & Steinberg, E. (2016). *Cognitive Processes in Writing*. New York: Routledge.

Gremmo, M.-J., & Riley, P. (1995). *Autonomy, Self-Direction and Self-Access In Language Teaching and Learning: The History of an Idea*. System, 23(2), 151-164.

Griffiths, C. & Dikilitas, K. (2017). *Developing Language Teacher Autonomy through Action Research*. Switzerland: Palgrave Macmillan.

Griffiths, C. & Oxford, R. (2014). *Twenty-First Century Landscape of Language Learning Strategies*. System, 43, 1-10. DOI: 10.1016/J.System.2013.12.009

Griffiths, C. (2013). *The Strategy Factor in Successful Language Learning*. UK: Multilingual Matters.

Grimm, N. (2003). *In the Spirit of Service: Making Writing Center Research a "Featured Character."* In M. Pemberton & J. Kinkead (eds.) The Center Will Hold: Critical Perspective on Writing Center Scholarship. USA: USU Press Publications.

Grinnell, R. (2016). *Attitude. Psych Central*. Retrieved on September 20, 2017, from https://psychcentral.com/encyclopedia/attitude/

Groß, A. & Wolff, D.(2001) *'A Multimedia Tool to Develop Learner Autonomy'*, Computer Assisted Language Learning, 14: 3, 233 — 249.

Gross, P. (2014). *Growing Brands through Sponsorship: An Empirical Investigation of Brand Image Transfer in a Sponsorship Alliance*. Hanover: Springer Gabler.

Grossberg, L. (2006). *Media Making: Mass Media in a Popular Culture*. London: Sage Publications.

Guo, X. Y. & Yan, H. (2007). *Impact of Learner Autonomy on Metacognitive Strategies and English Achievement: A Study of College Non-majors in China*. CELTA Journal 30/3, 45-53.

Haddock, G & Maio, G. (2009). *The Psychology of Attitudes and Attitude Change*. USA: Saga Publications.

Hafner, C. & Young, J. (2006). *From Teacher to Facilitator: Developing Perspectives*. In L. Miller (Ed.), Learner autonomy 9: Autonomy in the classroom (103-126). Dublin: Authentik.

Hall, G. (2016). *The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teaching*. New York: Routledge.

Hall, N. & Hall, R. (2008). *Applied Social Research*. Australia: Macmillan Education, AU.

Hamilton, M. (2013). *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning in a Virtual Learning Environmen*t. London: A&C Black.

Harmer, J. (2001). *New Beginner Cambridge English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Harmer, J. (2004). *How to Teach Writing*. London: Pearson Longman.

Harris, J. M. (2006). *Three Steps to Teaching Abstract and Critique Writing*. International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education 2006, Volume 17, Number 2, 136-146.

Harris, K. R., Graham, S., Mason, L. H., & Saddler, B. (2002). *Developing Self-regulated Writers. Theory into Practice*. 41(2), 110–115.

Harris, M. (1995). *Talking in the Middle: Why Writers Need Writing Tutors*. Vol. 57, No. 1, pp. 27-42: National Council of Teachers of English.

Harris, R. K., Graham, S., Brindle, M. & Sandmel, K. (2009). *Metacognition and Children's Writing*. In D. Hacker, J. Dunlosky & A. Graesser (eds.), Handbook of Metacognition in Education. 131-150. New York: Routledge.

Hartman, J. H. (2013). *Metacognition in Learning and Instruction: Theory, Research and Practice*. USA: Springer.

Hayes, J. R. (1996). *A New Framework for Understanding Cognition and Affect in Writing*. In C. M. Levy & S. Ransdell (Eds.), The science of writing: Theories, methods, individual.

Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom. Oxford*: Oxford University Press.

Heider, F. (1958). *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relationships*. New York: Wiley.

Heinzmann, S. (2013). *Young Language Learners' Motivation and Attitudes: Longitudinal, Comparative and Explanatory Perspectives.* London: A&C Black.

Hewstone, M. (2011). *Understanding Attitudes to the European Community: A Social-Psychological Study in Four Member States*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Historique Crapel, (n.d.). In ATILF. Retrieved from http://www.atilf.fr/spip.php?article811

Hogg, M. & Vaughan, G. (2005). *Social Psychology*. USA: Prentice Hall.

Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamum. (First published in 1979), Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Holec, H. (2007). A brief historical perspective on learner and teacher autonomy. In T. E. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities and responses*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Hurd, S. (2011). Research methods to investigate emotions in independent language learning: A focus on think-aloud verbal protocols. In Morrison, B. (Ed.), *Independent Language Learning: Building on Experience, Seeking New Perspectives* (87-100). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Hyland, K. & Hyland, F. (2016). *Feedback in Second Language Writing: Contexts and Issues*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2003). *Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and Second Language Writing*. USA: University of Michigan Press.

In M. Bray & T. Kehle (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of School Psychology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jackson, S. L. (2010). *Research Methods: A Modular Approach (2nd ed.).* USA: Cengage Learning.

Jaszczolt, K. M. (2005). *Default Semantics: Foundations of a Compositional Theory of Acts of Communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a Lingua Franca: Attitude and Identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jex, M. S. (2002). *Organizational Psychology: A Scientist-Practitioner Approach*. USA: John Wiley & Sons.

Jimenez Raya, M. & Lamb, T. (eds) (2008). *Pedagogy for Autonomy in Language Education: Theory, practice and teacher education*. Dublin: Authentik.

Johnson, B. & Christensen, L. (2010). *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Approaches (4th ed.)*. Los Angelese: Saga Publications.

Johnson, B. & Christensen, L. (2014). *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Approaches (5th ed.)*. USA: Sage Publications.

Jones, J. (1995) '*Self-access and Culture: Retreating from Autonomy' ELT Journal* Vol. 49/3 Oxford University Press.

Jones, S. (2014), *Writing and Teaching to Change the World*. USA: Teachers College Press.

Kamphaus, W. R. & Mays, L. K. (2013). Assessment of Externalizing Behavioral Deficits.

Katz, D. (1960). *The Functional Approach to the Study of Attitudes*. Public Opinion Quarterly, 24: 163-204.

Kellogg, R. (1994). The Psychology of Writing. Oxford University Press.

Kelman, H.C. (1961). *Processes of Opinion Change*. Public Opinion Quarterly, 25:57-78.

Kennedy, P. (2002) *Learning Cultures and Learning Styles: Myth-understandings about Adult (Hong Kong) Chinese Learners* INT. J. of lifelong education, vol. 21, NO. 5 430–445.

Kent, R. (2006). *A Guide to Creating Student-staffed Writing Centers: Grades 6-12*. New York. Peter Lang.

King, G. (2009). *Improve Your Writing Skills*. London: Collins.

Kissel, J. (2005). *Improving Writing through Revision*. USA: Teacher Created Resources, Inc.

Kleiman. P (2009) *Design for Learning* 2nd edition. Lancaster: PALATINE

Kroll, B. (2003). *Exploring the Dynamics of Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ku, K. L. & Ho, 1. T. (2010). *Metacognitive Strategies that Enhance Critical Thinking. Metacognition & Learning*, 5, 251-267.

La Ganza, W. (2007). Learner autonomy and teacher autonomy: Interrelating and the will to power. In T. E. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities and responses*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Labed, N. (2007). "*Learning to Learn and Learning to Think: Investigating Compensation System 2nd-years' Learning Capacities at the University of Constantine*." Unpublished Doctoral Thesis.

Lakehal-Ayat, K. (2008). *"Is the Algerian Educational System Weakening?"* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis.

Lamb, T. & Reinders, H. (2008). *Learner and Teacher Autonomy: Concepts, Realities, and Responsibility*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin's Publishing.

Lamb, T.E. (2010). *Assessment of Autonomy or Assessment of Autonomy? Evaluating Learner Autonomy for Formative Purposes*. In A. Pran, & L. Sercu, (Eds.) Testing the Untestable in Language and Education. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 98-119.

Larkin, S. (2015). *Metacognitive Experiences: Taking Account of Feelings in Early Years Education.* In S. Robson, & S. F. Quinn (Eds.). The Routledge International Handbook of Young Children's Thinking and Understanding. London: Routledge.

Law, E. Y. Y. (2017). *Promoting Learner Autonomy through a Self-Access Language Learning Component of a Taught English Course*. unpublished PhD thesis. Hong Kong:

Lemmer, N. (2009). *The Idea of a Writing Laboratory*. USA: Southern Illinois University Press.

Lier, L. (2014). *Interaction in the Language Curriculum: Awareness, Autonomy and Authenticity*. London: Routledge.

Little, D. & Dam, L. (1998) *Learner Autonomy: What and Why*? *The Language Teacher Online* Language Teacher -Kyoto- JALT- 1998, Vol 22; Number 10, Pages 7-8

Little, D. (1991). *Learner Autonomy 1: Definitions, Issues and Problems*. Dublin: Authentik.

Little, D. (1995). *Learning as Dialogue: The Dependence of Learner Autonomy on Teacher Autonomy*. System, 23, 175-182.

Little, D. (1996). *The Politics of Learner Autonomy. Learning*. Language Learning, 2, 7-10.

Little, D. (2001) '*Learner Autonomy and the Challenge of Tandem Language Learning via the Internet'*. In A. Chambers & G. Davies (Eds.), *ICT and Language Learning: a European Perspective*, Lisse: Swets & Zeitlinger, pp. 29-38.

Little, D. (2004). "*Democracy, Discourse and Learner Autonomy in the Foreign Language Classroom"*. Utbildning and Demokrati 13.3: 105-126.

Little, D. (2005). "*The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and the European Language Portfolio: Involving Learners and their Judgements in the Assessment Process*". Language Testing. 22, pp.321-336

Little, D. (2007). *"Language Learner Autonomy: Some Fundamental Considerations Revisited*", Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching. 1.1, pp.14-29.

Little, D. (2009). "*Learner Autonomy in Action: Adult Immigrants Learning English in Ireland'*. In F. Kjisik, P. Voller, N. Aoki and Y. Nakata (eds), Mapping the Terrain of Learner Autonomy: Learning Environments, Learning Communities and Identities, pp.51-85. Tampere: Tampere University Press.

Little, D. G. (1995). *Definitions, Issues and Problems*. Dublin: Authentik Language Learning Resources.

Little, D., Dam, L. & Legenhausen, L. (2017). Theory, Practice and Research. UK: Multilingual Matters.

Littlejohn, W. S. & Foss, A. K. (2008). *Theories of Human Communication*. USA: Cengage Learning. 201.

Littlemore, J. (2001). *Learner autonomy, self-instruction and new technologies in language learning: Current theory and practice in higher education in Europe*. In Chambers, A. & G. Davies (Eds.) (2001). *ICT and language learning: A European perspective*. Lisse: Swets & Zeitlinger. 39–52.

Littlewood, W. (1996). "Autonomy": An Anatomy and a Framework. System, 24, 427-435.

Littlewood, W. (1997) *Self-access: Why Do We Want It and What Can It Do?* in Benson, P. & Voller, P. (Eds.) *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*. London: Longman pp 79-91.

Littlewood, W. T. (1999). Defining and Developing Autonomy in East Asian Contexts. Applied Linguistics, 20, 71-94.

Locke, T. (2014). Developing Writing Teachers: Practical Ways for Teacher-Writers to Transform their Classroom Practice. New York: Routledge.

Lozanov, G. (1978) Suggestology and Outlines on Suggestopedy. Gordon and Breach, New York.

Mackey, A. & Gass, S. (2015). Second Language Research: Methodology and Design (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Maclusky, J. & Cox, R. (2011) *Teaching Creative Writing in the Primary School: Delight, Entice. Inspire*! Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Magno, C. (2010). *The Role of Metacognitive Skills in Developing Critical Thinking*. Metacogn. Learn. 5(2), 137-156

Manchón, R. (2011). *Learning-to-write and Writing-to-learn in an Additional Language*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Marine Y. (2015). *Fostering Learner Autonomy Using the Process Writing Approach: Exploring the real Strenths of the process writing approach*. Omniscriptum & company.

McBurney, D.H. & White, T. L. (2009). *Research Method (8th ed.).* USA: Cengage Learning.

McDonald, E. S., & Hershman, D. (2010). *Classrooms that Spark! Recharge and Revive Your Teaching.* San Francisco: Jossy-Bass Publishing

McKenzie, R. (2010). *The Social Psychology of English as a Global Language: Attitudes, Awareness and Identity in the Japanese Context*. New York: Springer Science & Business Media.

McKinney, J. (2013). *Peripheral Visions for Writing Centers*. USA: Utah State University Press.

McLaughlin, C. (2013). *Teachers Learning: Professional Development and Education*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Metcalfe, J. (2009). *Metacognitive Judgments and Control of Study. Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 18, 159-163.

Miller, L. (2000). *What Have you Just learnt? Preparing Learners in the Classroom For Self-Access Language Learning*. Modern English Teacher (Keynote paper), 9(3), 7-13.

Miller, L. (2007*). Autonomy in the Classroom*. London: Authentik.

Mitra, S. (2013). *Build a School in the Cloud*. In Ted Talk. Retrieved from www.ted.com/talks.

Moore, N. & Reinders, H. (2003). *Teaching for Self-study in the Self-access Centre.* Modern English Teacher, 12(2), 48-51.

Morrison , B. (2008). The role of the self-access centre in the tertiary language learning process. *System,* 36(2), 123-140.

Morrison, B. (2002). The troubling process of mapping and evaluating a self-access language centre. In P. Benson & S. Toogood (Eds.), *Learner autonomy 7: Challenges to research and practice* (70-84). Dublin: Authentik.

Murphy, C. & Law, J. (2013). *Landmark Essays on Writing Centres*. New York: Routledge.

Murphy, C. & Stay, B. (2012). *The Writing Center Director's Resource Book (3rd ed.).* New York: Routledge.

Murphy, L. (2011). '*Why am I Doing This?' Maintaining Motivation in Distance Language Learning'*. In Murray, G., Gao, X. & Lamb, T. (Eds.), *Identity, Motivation and Autonomy: Exploring their Links* (107-124). Great Britain: Multilingual Matters.

Murphy, L. (2012). *Supporting Self-Evaluation: Helping Language Learners Take Control of the Assessment Process*. In R. Arntz, H. P. Hans, & B. K¨uhn (Eds.), Autonomie und Assessment: Ertr¨age des 3. Bremer Symposions zum autonomen Fremdsprachenlernen (pp. 150-161). Fremdsprachen in Lehre und Forschung, AKS-Verlag Bochum.

Murphy, L. (2015). *Autonomy in assessment: Bridging the gap between rhetoric and reality in distance language learning context*. In C. J. Everhard & L. Murphy

(Eds.), *Assessment and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 143–166). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Murray, R. (2014*). Writing in Social Spaces: A Social Processes Approach to Academic Writing*. UK: Tylor & Francis.

Mynard, J., & Stevenson, R. (2017). *Promoting Learner Autonomy and Self-Directed Learning*: The Evolution of A SALC Curriculum. Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal, 8(2), 169-182.

Neira, A. (2008). *Creative Writing*. New Delhi: Pearson Education Publishing.

Nguyen T. C. (2009). *"Learner Autonomy and EFL Learning at the Tertiary Level in Vietnam*." Unpublished Doctoral Thesis.

Niemi, H. (2002). *Active Learning—A Cultural Change Needed in Teacher Education and Schools.* Teaching and Teacher Education, 18, 763-780.

Norman, P.H. & Doreian, Patrick, D. (2003). *"Some Dynamic of Social Balance Processes: Bringing Heider Back into Balance Theory*". Social Network 25: 17-49. Elsevier Science.

Nosich, M. G. (2014). *Learning to Think Things Through: A Guide to Critical Thinking Across the Curriculum* (4th ed.). USA: Pearson College Division.

Nunan, D. (1997). *Designing and Adapting Materials to Encourage Learner Autonomy*. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), Autonomy and independence in language learning (pp.192-203). London: Longman.

Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Nunan, D. (2012). *Learner-Centered English Language Education: The Selected Works of David Nunan.* New York: Routledge.

Nunan, D. (2015). *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages: An Introduction*. New York: Routledge.

O'Keefe, D. (1990). *Persuasion: Theory & Research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

O'Keefe, D. (2002). *Persuasion: Theory & Research* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Olsen, W. (2012). *Data Collection: Key Debates and Methods in Social Research*. Los Angeles: Sage.

O'Malley, J. M. Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J.M. and A. Chamot. (1990). *Strategies Used by Second Language Learners*. Cambridge: CUP.

O'Rourke, B. & Carson, L. (2010). *Language Learner Autonomy: Policy, Curriculum, Classroom*. Bern: Peter Lang AG, International Academic Publishers.

Osgood, C. E., & Tannenbaum, P. H. (1955). *The Principle of Congruity in the Prediction of Attitude Change*. Psychological Review, 62(1), 42-55.

Oskamp, P. S. & Schultz, W. (2005). *Attitudes and Opinions*. New York: Psychology Press.

Owtram, N. T. (2010). The Pragmatics of Academic Writing. Peter Lang.

Oxford, R. (1990). *Teaching and Researching Language Learning Strategies (2nd ed.).* London: Routledge.

Oxford, R. (2016). *Teaching and Researching Language Learning Strategies: Self-Regulation Context (2nd ed.).* New York: Routledge.

Oxford, R. L. (2003). *Toward a more Systematic Model of L2 Learner Autonomy*. In D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.), Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives (pp. 75-91). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Palfreyman, D. and Smith, R.C. (Eds.), (2003) *Learner Autonomy Across Cultures: Language Education Perspectives*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Park, J. (2005). *Writing at the Edge: Narrative and Writing Process Theory*. New York: Peter Lang.

Pastorino, E.E. & Doyle-Portillo, M. S. (2012). *Cengage Advantage Books: What is Psychology? Essentials (2nd ed.).* Canada: Wadsworth.

Peary, A. & Hunley T. (2015). *Creative Writing Pedagogies for Twenty-First Century.* USA: Southern Illinois University Press.

Pemberton, R. & Barfield, A. (2009). *Maintaining Control: Autonomy and Language Learning.* Aberdeen: Hong Kong University Press.

Pennycook, A. (1997) *Cultural Alternatives and Autonomy* in Benson, P. & Voller, P. (Eds.) (1997) *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*. London: Longman.

Perkins, D. (1992). *Smart Schools: Better Thinking and Learning for Every Child*. New York: Free Press

Peterson, S. (2008). *Writing Across the Curriculum: All Teachers Teach Writing*. Canada: Portage & Main Press.

Phil, B. (2013). *Autonomy in Foreign Language Education*: Methods and Practices. UK: Authentic.

Randall, M. (2007). *Memory, Psychology and Second Language Learning*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Rasekh, Z., & Ranjbary, R. (2003). *Metacognitive Strategy Training for Vocabulary Learning*. TESL-EJ, 7(2), 1-18.

Raya, M. J. (2005). *Autonomy Support through Learning Journals*. In T. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), Supporting independent learning: Issues and interventions. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Raya, M. J., & Vieira, F. (2015). *Enhancing Autonomy in Language Education: A Case-Based Approach to Teacher and Learner Development*. : Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co KG.

Read, S. J. & Miller, C. L. (2014). *Connectionist Models of Social Reasoning and Social Behavior*. London: Psychology Press Ltd.

Reddy, R. J. (2004). *Organisational Behaviour*. New Delhi: APH Publishing.

Reevse, W. J. (2015). *Thinking about Thinking: Studies in the Background of Some Psychological Approaches*. New York: Routledge.

Reinders, H. (2008). Technology and second language teacher education. In A. Burns & J. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Language Teacher Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Reinders, H. (2010). Towards a classroom pedagogy for learner autonomy: A framework of independent language learning skills. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(5), 40-55.

Reinders, H., & White, C. (2016). 20 years of autonomy and technology: How far have we come and where to next? *Language Learning & Technology*, 20(2), 143-154.

Revlin, R. (2012). *Cognition: Theory and Practice*. UK: Worth Publishers.

Roeckelein, J. E., (2006). *Elsevier's Dictionary of Psychological Theories*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Sanderson, C. (2009). *Social Psychology*. USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Sarada, M. (2003). The Sterling Book of Paragraph to Essay Writing. Sterling Publishers.

Scharle, A & Szabo, A. (2000), *Learner Autonomy: A Guide to Developing Learner Responsibility*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schmid, H. (2016). *Entrenchment and the Psychology of Language Learning: How We Reorganize and Adapt Linguistic Knowledge*. Berlin: De Gruyter.

Schwienhorst, K. (2003a). *Learner Autonomy and Tandem Learning: Putting Principles into Practice in Synchronous and Asynchronous Telecommunications Environments.* Computer Assisted Language Learning, *16* (5), 427-444.

Schwienhorst, K. (2003b). *Neither here nor there? Learner autonomy and intercultural factors in CALL environments.* In D. Palfreyman & R. Smith (Eds.), *Learner autonomy across cultures: language education perspectives* (pp. 164-179). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Seely, J. (2013). Oxford guide to effective writing and speaking: How to communicate clearly. OUP

Sharma, P. and Barrett, B. (2007) *Blended Learning: Using Technology In and Beyond the Language Classroom*. Thailand: MacMillan Education.

Sheerin, S. (1991). *Self-access*. State of the art. Language Teaching. 24, 3, 143-157

Sherif, C. W. & Sherif, M. (1976). *"Attitude as the individuals' own categories: The social judgment-involvement approach to attitude and attitude change*". Attitude, ego involvement, and change (Reprint [der Ausg.] New York 1967. ed.). Westport: Greenwood Press.

Shimamura, A. P. (2000). *"Toward a cognitive neuroscience of meta-cognition"*. *Consciousness and Cognition* **9**: 313–323.

Shupe, A. & Bradley, C. (2011). *Self, Attitudes and Emotion Work: Western Social Psychology and Eastern Zen Buddhism Confront Each Other*. USA: Transactions.

Sides, C. (1999). *How to Write and Present Technical Information* (3rd ed.). UK: Cambridge University Press.

Sinclair, B. (1999). *Survey Review: Recent Publications on Autonomy in Language Learning*. ELT Journal, 53(4), 309-329.

Sinclair, B. (2000). *Learner Autonomy: the Next Phase?* In B. Sinclair, I. McGrath & T. Lamb (Eds.), Learner autonomy, Teacher autonomy: Future directions (pp. 4-14). Harlow: Longman.

Sinclair, B. (2006). *Multiple Voices: Negotiating Pathways towards Teacher and Learner Autonomy.* In T. E. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities and responses. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Sinclair, B., McGrath, I., & Lamb, T. (Eds.). (2000). *Learner Autonomy, Teacher Autonomy: Future Directions,* London: Longman.

Sitko, M. B. (2009). *Knowing How to Write: Metacognition and Writing Instruction*. In D. Hacker, J. Dunlosky, & A. Grasser (Eds.), Metacognition in Educational Theory and Practice. New York: Routledge.

Smith, R. (2001). Learner and teacher development: connections and constraints. *The Language Teacher*, 25(6), 43-44.

Smith, R. (2003). *Pedagogy for Autonomy as (Becoming-) Appropriate Methodology*. In D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.), Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives (129-146). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Smith, R.C. (2000*). Starting with Ourselves: Teacher-Learner Autonomy in Language Learning*. In B. Sinclair, I. McGrath and T. Lamb (eds.) Learner autonomy, teacher Autonomy: Future Directions. London: Longman.

Spolsky, B. & Hult, F. (Eds.) (2008). *The Handbook of Educational Linguistics*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Stockwell, G. (2012). *Computer-Assisted Language Learning: Diversity in Research and Practice*. Cambridge:CUP.

Sutton, R. & Douglas, K. (2013). *Social Psychology*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Tamjid, N. & Birjandi, P. (2011). *Fostering Learner Autonomy through Self- and Peer-assessment*. International Journal of Academic Research, 3(5), 245-251.

Tarricone, P. (2011). *The Taxonomy of Metacognition*. New York: Psychology Press.

Tassinari, Maria Giovanna (2012). A dynamic model for learner autonomy: raising awareness through self-assessment. In A. Heim, Katja, B. Rueschoff, Bernd (Eds.), *Involving Language Learners: Success Stories and Constraints* (63-76). Duisdburg: Univ.-Verl. Rhein-Ruhr.

Tayner, P. (2007). Writing Voyage: A Process Approach to Writing. Cengage Learning.

Thornbury, S. (2006). An A-Z of ELT: A Dictionary of Terms and Concepts Used in English Language Teaching. Macmillan.

Tiberius, V. (2010). *Deliberation about the Good; Justifying what We Value*. UK: Taylor & Francis.

Tomlinson, B. (2003). *Developing Principled Frameworks for Materials Development*. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), Developing materials for language teaching (pp. 107-129). London, UK: Continuum

Tomlinson, B. (2011). *Materials Development in Language Teaching (2nd ed.). Cambridge*: Cambridge University Press.

Tomlinson, B. (2013). *Applied Linguistics and Material Development*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Torrance, M., Waes, L. V. & Galbraith, D. (2007). *Writing and Cognition*. UK: Emerald.

Urdan, T. (2016). *Statistics in Plain English* (4th ed.). New York: Psychology Press.

Ushioda, E. (2013). *International Perspectives on Motivation*: Language Learning and Professional Challenges. UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Vaughan, M. G. & Hogg, A. M. (2005). *Social Psychology* (4th ed.). USA: Prentice Hall.

Vaughan, M. G. & Hogg, A. M. (2013). *Social Psychology* (7th ed.). Australia: Pearson Higher Education AU.

Veenman, V. M. (2012*). Metacognition in Science Education*: In A. Zohar & Y. J. Dori,(Eds.), Metacognition in Science Education: Trends in Current Research. 31-35. USA: Springer Science.

Vickers, C. and Ene, E. (2006). Grammatical accuracy and learner autonomy in advanced writing. *ELT journal*, 60(2), 109-116.

Vieira, F. (1997). Pedagogy for autonomy: Exploratory answers to questions any teacher should ask. In M. Müller-Verweyen (Ed.), *Standpunkte zur Sprach- und Kulturvermittlung 7. Neues Lernen, Selbstgesteuert, Autonom* (pp.53-72). Goethe Institut.

Vieira, F. (2009). *Struggling for Autonomy in Language Education*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Vogel, T. & Wänke, M. (2016). *Attitudes and Attitude Change* (2nd ed.). Berlin: Psychology Press.

Vurdien, R., & Puranen, P. (2016). A Spanish-Finnish telecollaboration to develop intercultural competence and learner autonomy. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching (IJCALLT)*, 6(3), 36-53.

Wahl, S. (2016). *Persuasion in Your Life*. New York: Routledge.

Wegener, B. (2013). *Social Attitudes and Psychophysical Measurement*. USA: Psychology Press.

Weigle, S.C. (2002). *Assessing Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wenden, A. L. (1991). *Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy*. London: Prentice-Hall.Williams,J.

Wichayathian, N., & Reinders, H. (2015). *A Teacher\'S Perspective on Autonomy and Self-Access: From Theory to Perception to Practice*. Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 0, 1-16.

Williams, J. (2003). *Promoting Independent Learning in the Primary Classrooms.* Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Wilson, M. & Gerber, L. (2008) *How Generational Theory Can Improve Teaching: Strategies for Working with the 'Millennials'* Currents in Teaching and Learning Vol.1 No. 1, FALL 2008.

Winch, C. (2006). *Education, Autonomy and Critical Thinking*. London: Routledge.

Wong, B. (1999). *Metacognitive in Writing*. In R. Gallimore, L. P. Bernheimer, D. L. MacMillan, D. L. Speece, & S. Vaughn (Eds.), Developmental perspectives on children with high-incidence disabilities (pp.183-198). Mahwah, NJ: ijawrence Erlbaum

Wong, K. O. (2013). *An Instructor Primer for Adjunct and New Faculty*: Foundations for Career Success. USA: Rowman & Littlefield.

Yagelski, R. (2016). The Essentials of Writing: Ten Core Concepts. Cengage Learning.

Yanjun, Z. (2004). *An Experiment on the Development of Learner Autonomy through Learner Training*. Foreign Language World, 22-36.

Yeung, M. (2015). *Fostering Learner Autonomy Using the Process Writing Approach: Exploring the Real Strengths of the Process Writing Approach*. Germany: Omniscriptum Gmbh & Company.

Young, M. (2002). *The Curriculum of the Future: From the 'New Sociology of Education' to a Critical Theory of Learning*. London: Routlege.

Zamel V. (1983). *The Composing Processes of Advanced ESL Students: Six Case Studies*. TESOL quarterly. 17. 2. 165-187.

Zane, (2015). *Infinite Words: A Comprehensive Guide to Writing and Publishing*. New York: Atria Books.

Zhao, K. (2016). Enhancing metacognitive language learning strategy use and business language proficiency in technology-enhanced collaborative learning environment. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching (IJCALLT)*, 6(3), 68-78.

.

Appendices

Autonomy Familiarity Survey # I

We are interested in assessing EFL teachers' familiarity with the concept "learner autonomy" in language education in order to enhance the teaching/learning experience of both teachers and learners.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	I don't know
1. **Learner autonomy means that the teacher is no longer important**	1	2	3	4	5
2. **Learner autonomy can only be developed outside the classroom**	1	2	3	4	5
3. **Learner autonomy cannot be promoted in young learners**	1	2	3	4	5
4. **Cooperative learning is the opposite of autonomous learning**	1	2	3	4	5
5. **Learner autonomy is a teaching approach**	1	2	3	4	5
6. **In an autonomous classroom, learners make choices about how and what to learn**	1	2	3	4	5
7. **Autonomy in learning refers to the ability of learners to take charge of their own learning**	1	2	3	4	5
8. **By encouraging learner autonomy, teachers evade responsibility on their learners' learning**	1	2	3	4	5
9. **Autonomous classrooms are better than traditional ones**	1	2	3	4	5
10. **Learner autonomy is a new concept in language education**	1	2	3	4	5
11. **Learner autonomy is all about learning at home with a computer or any smart devices**	1	2	3	4	5
12. **Autonomy is a method of language learning**	1	2	3	4	5
13. **Autonomy is a set of interrelated behaviours associated with learning**	1	2	3	4	5
14. **I have never heard of the notion 'learner autonomy'**	1	2	3	4	5
15. **I have heard of the concept 'learner autonomy' but I do not know what it means.**	1	2	3	4	5

EFL Writing Attitudes Survey # II

Please circle the answer that best represents your agreement / disagreement with each item. Please answer as honest and accurate as possible to help us conduct a comprehensive study about EFL learners' attitudes towards writing. Thank you!

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. **Writing is the most difficult of all language skills**	1	2	3	4	5
2. **I can succeed at university even though my English writing is poor**	1	2	3	4	5
3. **Writing is of great importance in my academic world**	1	2	3	4	5
4. **Writing will no longer be important when I graduate from university**	1	2	3	4	5
5. **I don't practice writing outside the classroom**	1	2	3	4	5
6. **I only write when I am obliged to**	1	2	3	4	5
7. **I like to write**	1	2	3	4	5
8. **I am bad at writing**	1	2	3	4	5
9. **I like to share my writings with others (e.g. classmates)**	1	2	3	4	5
10. **My teachers don't like what I write**	1	2	3	4	5
11. **I prefer expressing my ideas through speaking**	1	2	3	4	5
12. **I worry when my teachers evaluate my writing**	1	2	3	4	5
13. **I would love to take part in a writing club**	1	2	3	4	5
14. **I think I need 10 year to learn how to write well in English**	1	2	3	4	5
15. **Writing is boring by nature**	1	2	3	4	5
16. **Some teachers make writing more boring**	1	2	3	4	5
17. **Writing in Arabic (L1) is more enjoyable that writing in English (FL).**	1	2	3	4	5
18. **Those who write well are gifted**	1	2	3	4	5
19. **Academic writing is not enjoyable**	1	2	3	4	5
20. **Creative writing is not boring**	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix #01

The Provider of the Learner Autonomy Profile Short-Form

HRDE Human Resource Development Enterprises
facilitating learning since 1989

Home About Us Instruments LAP Login Learning Contact Us

Login Register Guest

HRDE has developed and validated a series of inventories designed to produce precise understanding of an individual's level of autonomy as a learner. Completion of the five inventory battery yields a Learner Autonomy Profile (LAP). The individual's LAP provides specific information that can be utilized to increase reliance upon strengths and overcome weaknesses related to learner autonomy.

- The Inventory of Learner Desire (ILD) - 33 items, est. 5 mins.
- The Inventory of Learner Resourcefulness (ILR) -- 53 items, est. 9 mins.
- The Inventory of Learner Initiative (ILI) - 44 items, est. 7 mins.
- The Inventory of Learner Persistence (ILP) - 34 items, est. 6 mins.
- The Appraisal of Learner Autonomy (ALA) -- 9 items, est. 2 mins.

Respondents need not complete more than one inventory at a time, but once each is started it must be completed in a single session. A Learner Autonomy Profile is produced for each inventory, but all five inventories must be completed before profiles can be produced.

The Inventory of Learner Desire (ILD)

The Inventory of Learner Desire assesses seven dimensions of the respondent's world- view and view of self. The profile produced identifies issues and attitudes that contribute or detract from the individual's capacity to form intentions related to learning.

The Inventory of Learner Resourcefulness (ILR)

The Inventory of Learner Resourcefulness assesses seven dimensions of the respondent's intention to engage in behaviors that constitute essential resources in learning. The profile produced identifies issues and attitudes that contribute or detract from the individual's intention to mobilize both the internal and external resources associated with learning processes.

The Inventory of Learner Initiative (ILI)

The Inventory of Learner Initiative assesses five dimensions of the respondent's intention to engage in behaviors associated with initiation of learning processes. The profile produced identifies issues and attitudes that contribute or detract from the individual's intention to take appropriate initiatives associated with learning processes.

The Inventory of Learner Persistence (ILP)

The Inventory of Learner Persistence assesses three dimensions of the respondent's intention to engage in behaviors associated with persistence in learning processes. The profile produced identifies issues and attitudes that contribute or detract from the individual's intention to persist in learning processes until appropriate personal satisfaction is reached.

The Appraisal of Learner Autonomy (ALA)

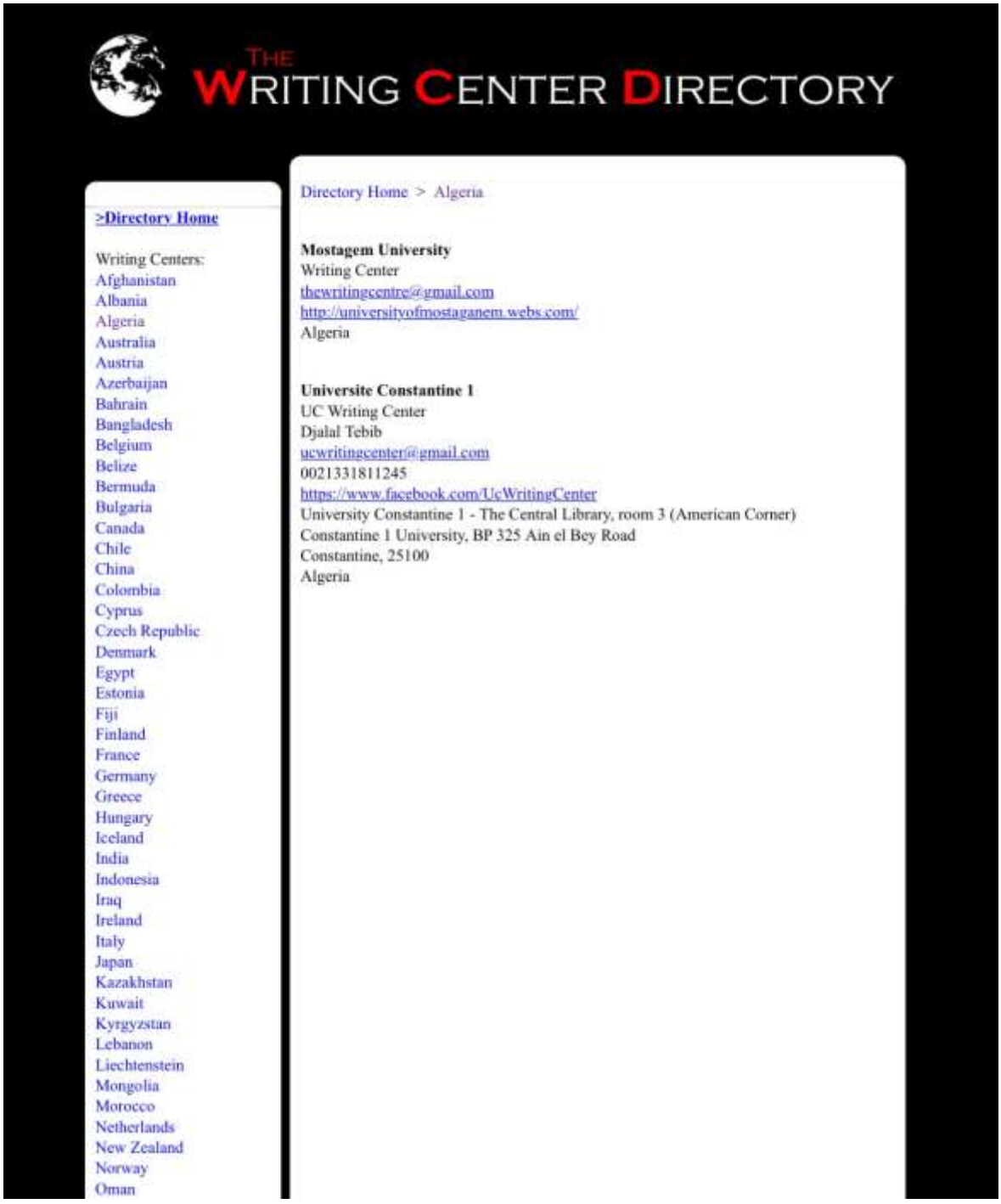
The Appraisal of Learner Autonomy assesses the respondent's general beliefs concerning the ability to act intentionally with reference to learning activities. The scale was derived from Professor Albert Bandura's (Stanford University) exercise self-efficacy scale with his permission.

Page 1 Page 2

visitors since January 2000

Appendix #02

The UC Writing Center in the International Writing Center Directory



Appendix #03

The Facebook Page of the UC Writing Center

UC Writing Center

530 likes · **526** followers

The UC Writing Center (re) is a library-like space where students of English at the University of Co

Message | Liked | ...

Posts | About | Photos | More

Details

Page · Community

031 81 12 45

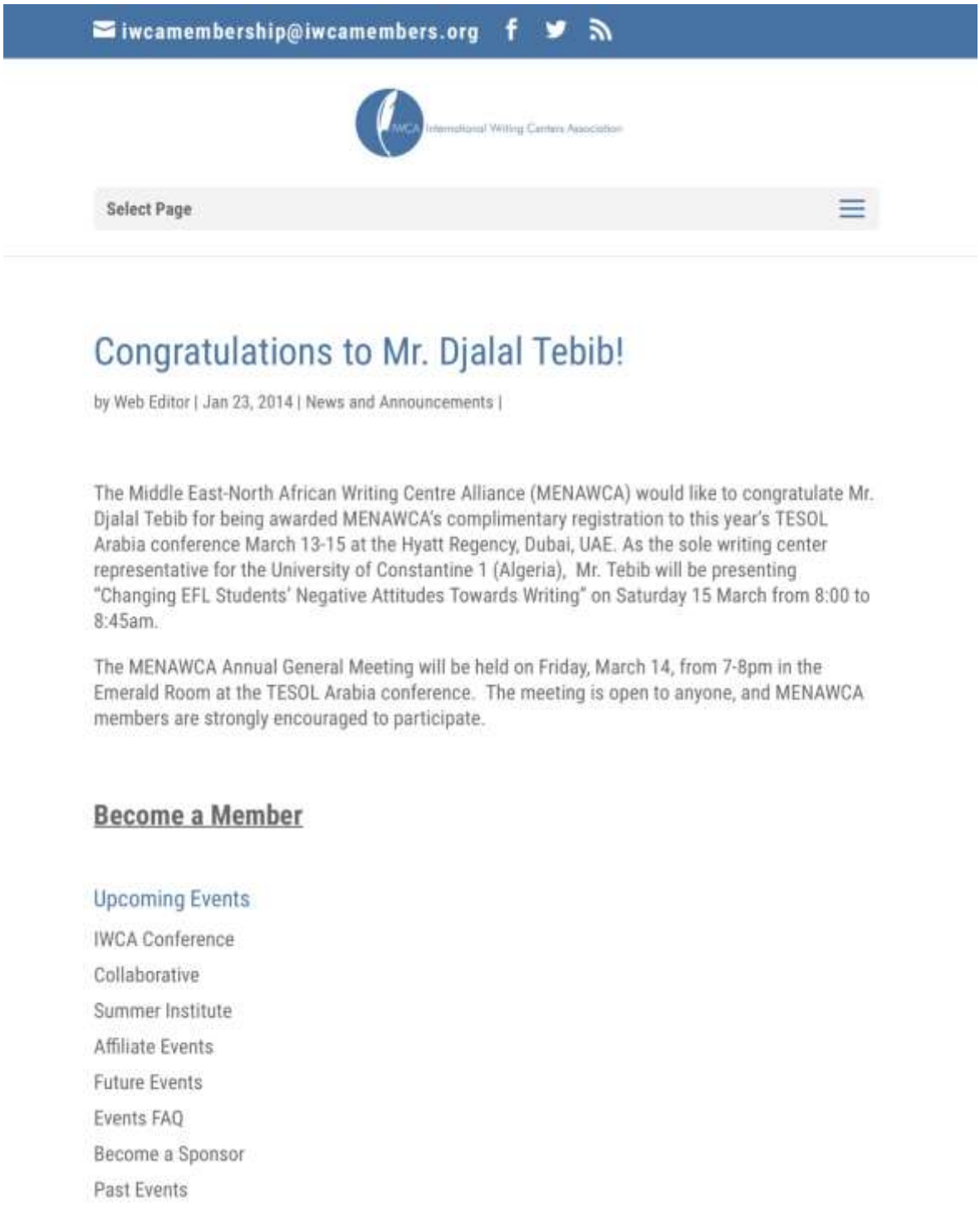
Ucwritingcenter@gmail.com

See UC's About Info

...

Appendix# 04

The Researcher's Reward from MENAWCA



iwcamembership@iwcamembers.org

Select Page

Congratulations to Mr. Djalal Tebib!

by Web Editor | Jan 23, 2014 | News and Announcements |

The Middle East-North African Writing Centre Alliance (MENAWCA) would like to congratulate Mr. Djalal Tebib for being awarded MENAWCA's complimentary registration to this year's TESOL Arabia conference March 13-15 at the Hyatt Regency, Dubai, UAE. As the sole writing center representative for the University of Constantine 1 (Algeria), Mr. Tebib will be presenting "Changing EFL Students' Negative Attitudes Towards Writing" on Saturday 15 March from 8:00 to 8:45am.

The MENAWCA Annual General Meeting will be held on Friday, March 14, from 7-8pm in the Emerald Room at the TESOL Arabia conference. The meeting is open to anyone, and MENAWCA members are strongly encouraged to participate.

Become a Member

Upcoming Events

IWCA Conference

Collaborative

Summer Institute

Affiliate Events

Future Events

Events FAQ

Become a Sponsor

Past Events

Appendix #05

A certificate of appreciation from the American Embassy in Algiers to the researcher in appreciation of the work done in the UC Writing Center.

U.S. EMBASSY ALGIERS

presents this

Certificate of Appreciation

to

Djalal Tebib

for outstanding contributions to the American Corner – Constantine.

Many thanks for the great work on the Writing Center

December 02, 2013

Henry S. Ensher, Ambassador
U.S. Embassy Algiers

Appendix #6

An Example of the Lists Compiled by the Students

TOUCH WORDS

Cushioned	Hairy	Pocked	Soapy	Tough
Damp	Heavy	Pointed	Soft	Velvety
Downy	Hot	Pulpy	Sopping	Warm
Drenched	Humid	rocky	soupy	Waxy

TASTE AND SMELL WORDS

Acid	Doughy	Minty	Rank	Sweaty
Acidic	Earthy	Moist	Raw	Sweet
Acrid	Floury	Moldy	Rich	Tangy
Alkaline	Flowery	Musky	Rotten	Tasteless
Aromatic	Fresh	Musty	Salty	Tough
Biting	Fruity	Oily	Scented	Vile
Bitter	Garlicky	Perfumed	Sharp	Vinegary
Bland	Hearty	Pickled	Sour	
Burnt	Hot	Piny	Spicy	
Butterfly	Lemony	Plastic	Spoiled	
cold	Medicinal	Pungent	Stagnant	

SIGHT WORDS

Abrasive	Feathery	Knobbed	Sandy	Spongy
Biting	Fine	Lacy	Scalding	Steamy
Boiling	Fluffy	Leathery	Scorching	Steely
Bubbly	Foamy	Light	Scratchy	Sticky
Bulky	Freezing	Lukewarm	Scummy	Stifled
Bumpy	Furry	Matted	Shaggy	Stinging
Burning	Fuzzy	Metallic	Sharp	Stony
Bushy	Glassy	Moist	Silky	Stubby
Clammy	Gluey	Mushy	Slimy	Tangled
Coarse	Grainy	Numbing	Slippery	Tender
Cool	Greasy	Oily	Sloppy	Tepid
Cottony	Gritty	Piercing	Smooth	Thick
Crisp	Gushy	Plastic	Smothering	Tickling
	Hairy	Pocked	Soapy	Tough
	Heavy	Pointed	Soft	Velvety
	Hot	Pulpy	Sopping	Warm
	Humid	Rocky	Soupy	Waxy

Appendix#07

The full list of some student-written stories (synopses)

Title of Story	Synopsis	Word count
The Pursuit of Memory	A recently graduated computer geek was spotted by MI6 after he had invented a new-fangled headset, which is able to read human memories. They contacted him to help them stop a major terrorist attack on the British soils. After a remarkable hesitation, the alarmed nerd agreed to cooperate. However, Mike, the geek, is not what he appeared to be. He had some other plans in mind; a complicated mission to carry out as a deep cover KGB operative. He was secretly chasing the memories of the MI6 agents themselves, including high-ranked officers. Surprisingly, in the middle of the operation, he decided to abandon everything, and that was almost impossible and deadly.	**2000**
Project Oxford	A mysterious interpreter underwent a secret brain surgery during which a language-equipped chip has been installed in his brain to give him ultimate knowledge and extraordinary linguistic skills. This was a part of an advanced academic experiment called 'Oxford Project'. He soon became famous worldwide, and thus he was recruited at the white house. Unexpectedly, someone hacked that chip and made the interpreter kill the American President and escape in a blink of an eye. Wanted all over the world, that perplexed interpret embarked on a long and tough journey to find out who was behind the project to prove his innocence. His biggest problem was that he is only able to control himself in places where there no network and signal. After a long and exhausting search, he found out that he was at the heart of an ingenious massive plan whereby three countries were involved.	**2400**
The Black Owl	A young boy noticed that a mysterious black dove followed him everywhere. He shortly got scared and started to experience some eerie events and situations. Hopeless and tired of psychiatrists, his mum decided to take him to an old exorcist in a remote cottage, northern Germany. The exorcist told the mother that her son was spiritually hurt by some evil powers during a mass slaughter festival somewhere in Africa, and to be cured he has to return there and take a holy shower. The mother fall down of despair, because only her husband knows the place of that festival; he took his son with him many years ago to Africa. Tragically, the father died two	**1900**

	years before the appearance of the doomed dove. Jake and his mother went to Mali with the hope they would locate the festivals; yet the journey was burdensome, hazardous and life changing.	
Makenna	A British geography teacher decided to move to Madagascar to teach children in poor villages, after watching a heart-rending documentary about the hard life of children in Africa. There he has gone through hard times, and changed completely. After a couple of weeks in a small village south Antananarivo, Stephen met a great woman called Makenna who was herself trying to help those children and make a difference. They both aspired to build a school for the children to teach them English and other subjects. Local militia did not like this humanitarian project because they often use those kids as soldiers in their dirty war. Consequently, Makenna was raped and killed in a violent attack against the village. After a long bloody journey, the school was finally built and named after her. Makenna was not the only victim in this story; many people have lost their lives for the sun to shine again on that village. The story was leaked to the press and Makenna became a heroine. Millions of people around the world read about her and glorified her in so many ways. She had a dream, and that dream had her.	**2200**
The Village of Rabbits	The fall of a giant meteor caused a mass animal stampede. Rabbits worldwide gathered and established the kingdom of 'Rabitland' in the northwest Highlands. Tirelessly, they excavated an extensive and elaborate network of tunnels along with hundreds of snug little houses The kingdom comprised everything needed for the welfare of rabbits. For some reason, however, Rabbitland had no system in defence; a flaw they would soon regret. Their king received an alarming letter from the kingdom of deer saying that a colossal earthworm was heading to Rabbitland. Hence, an ingenious plan has been immediately put to save the kingdom. Everyone was ready to sacrifice his soul for his people. After meticulous preparations, the big day arrived and the fierce battle began. Shrewdly, the rabbits could bail the hefty earthworm into a huge fire hole. They killed him, saved their kingdom, celebrated their victory and mourned their treasured victims.	**1800**
Emily's Explorations	A 9-year old Emily met a graceful talking butterfly that had survived a mass gas attack conducted by large groups of masked men. Yola, the graceful butterfly, is then an orphan. Emily took care of the butterfly and so they became friends. Overcoming all the obstacles and with remarkable persistence and devotion, Emily and Yola travelled long distances to warn the butterflies and help them escape the massacre. Together they could put an ingenious plan to save the rest of butterflies	**2600**

	in the Swedish midlands. Emily was later crowned queen of butterflies and her parents were truly proud of her, while Yola, the talking butterfly, found love and started a family.	
The Scarf	After a successful art exhibition in Milan and following the suggestion and encouragement of an elderly art devotee, an inexperienced Italian painter flies to London to participate in a renowned artistic contest. He must come up with an original portrait to win the reputed trophy. While drinking his morning coffee behind a bow window, he noticed the recurrent presence of a mysterious lonely girl in the mini park in front of the house where he was staying. That young lady got his attention and he decided to paint her. But before that and to breathe life into the portrait, he must know her story. And that was not easy at all. She was withdrawn and quiet. She wears a unique burgundy neck-scarf, which would later be the focus of the painting and the reasons behind its success and his. Indeed, much of art is born within the confines of love and pain.	**2400**

Appendix #8

An Excerpt from the Students-written Short Story “The Village of Rabbits”

… After reading that distressing letter, Buckus went to his room, locked the door and spent the whole night thinking. His infertile wife, Doety, kept her lips sealed, for her calm husband had never appeared that concerned. She was certain something terrible was about to happen.

By daybreak, Buckus summoned his prime counsellor, Shrewd, and said:

"I summoned you so early today to discuss a serious matter."

"At your service, my king," said Shrewd, carrying a walking stick in his left hand.

"Yesterday, I received a letter from the Village of Deer warning me of a deadly threat. A colossal earthworm and his army, the letter said, are on their way to butcher the Village of Rabbits," explained the king.

"Oh, Lord of heavens!" shouted Shrewd with praying hands.

At that moment, Buckus walked a few steps, placed his hand on Shrewd's shoulder and said: "Protecting this village is a noble duty of ours."

"How much time do we have?" asked Shrewd, eyes full of disquiet.

"Less than a month," replied Buckus, his voice thickened with concern.

"We have no army, and we ought to stop Gizzard," he added.

"We will find a way, Sir," breathed Shrewd.

"I thought we would never be in need of an army," he added, walking forward and backward.

"Let me think it over, my king," said Shrewd, "and I will get back to you before noon."

"Alright, counsellor, come up with a plan, and we will discuss it with the board of counsellors after lunch," said Buckus as he walked Shrewd to the front door.

Appendix #9

An Excerpt from the Students-written Short Story 'Mackenna'

"A group of terrorists came to abduct girls and children to turn them into sex slaves and fighters," replied the old man.

"Oh, Lord!" cried mum with clasped hands.

The old man told us heartbreaking stories about similar attacks that had occurred in other villages. At those moments, I realized how safe my country was and how ill-fated and frantic people in poor and unstable African countries were.

After a two-hour drive, we left the old man and his wife in a safe place and continued the last leg of our eventful journey.

"Oh, God!" shouted mom, her face contorted with anger.

"What's wrong, mum" I shouted back as Djibril pulled over.

"We left the bag that contains the holy water at the house!" she whimpered.

"And what should we do now?" asked Djibril.

"I have no bloody idea," replied mum angrily.

"Maybe we can find another exorcist in that village," I suggested.

Oh, yes! That's a brilliant idea, how I missed it! Said mum, eyes sparkling of hope as she cuddled me.

After breathing hope in my mum's heart, I put my head on her lap and drifted off to sleep.

It was around midday when we arrived to the village. The streets were empty and houses were far from each other. Everything was yellowish and no tree seemed to exist. It looked like a ghost village. There was only a small untidy shop hung in a little hill not far from where we parked. There we went to ask about the cow festival. The shopkeeper assured that we were in the right place. He advised us to visit the local mosque to find the sole exorcist in the village after he had knew that we were not tourists; no one would spend his holidays in the middle of nowhere anyway.

As we stepped inside the mosque, an old man came towards us and quietly said; "excuse me, madam, you have to cover your head before entering here."

Appendix #10

An Excerpt from the Students-written Short Story "Emily's Explorations"

So many years, on the beautiful hills of Nailsworth, northern England, there was a little girl called Emily. She lived there with her mother in a charming cottage. Emily was fond of butterflies, birds, flowers and nature in general. The window of her bedroom gives a view of some fantastic green fields and hills. That was her favourite morning scenery.

In a refreshing spring morning, Emily was in her small bedroom playing with her dolls when she noticed a little blue butterfly scratching the glass of her window. Right away, Emily put down her dolly and run towards the window. She kept staring at the graceful butterfly which was not afraid of her. Moments later, Emily opened the window and let the blue butterfly in.

The butterfly flitted from one place to another as Emily was trying to catch it. Trying so hard, Emily couldn't take hold of the butterfly because it was flying far above her head. After a while, Emily jumped on her bed and remained quiet, gazing at the butterfly which did not want to go out of the room, even though the window was wide open.

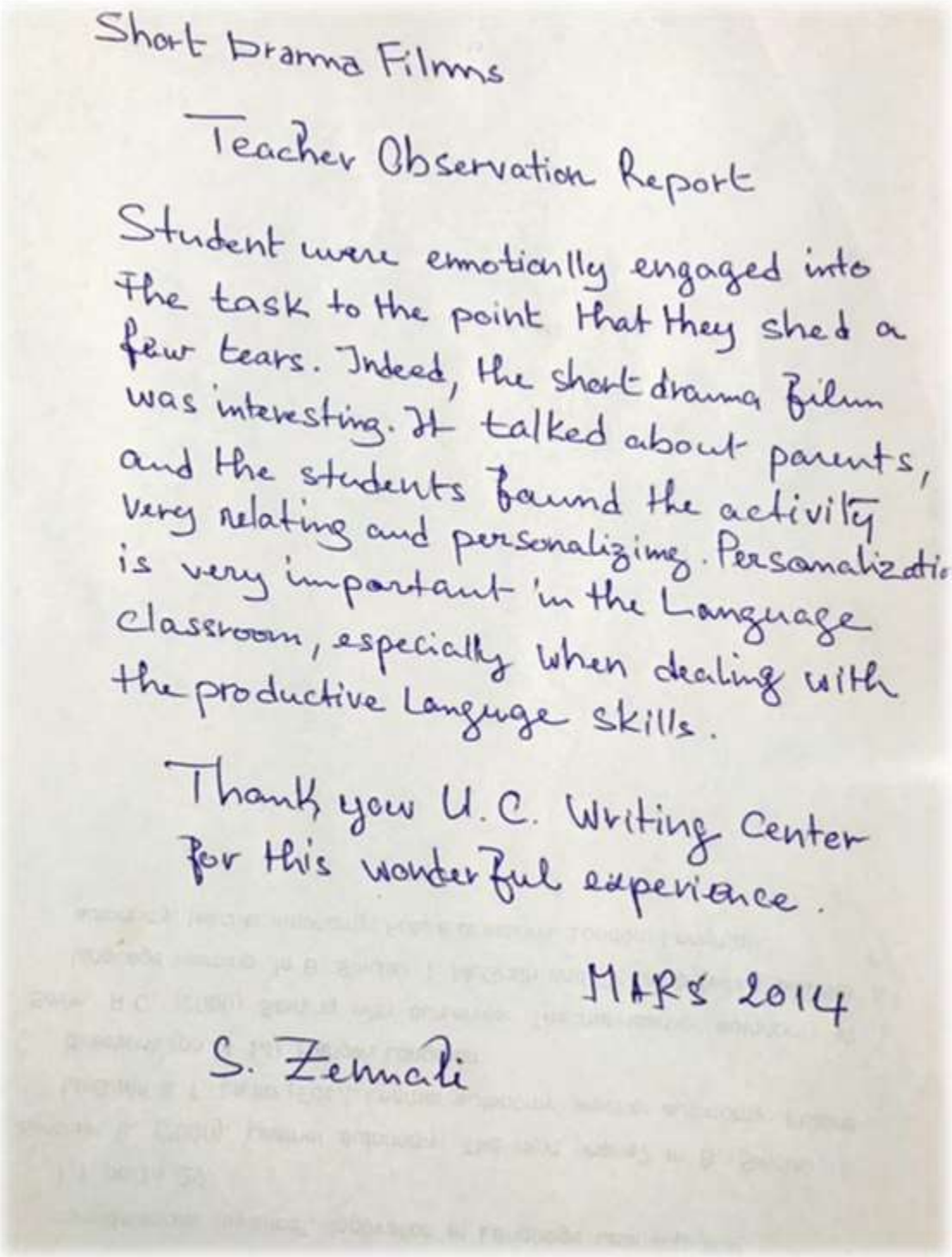
"What's wrong with this butterfly? It should be out with her friends dancing over the flowers, not in my room," wondered Emily.

Appendix #11

The Type of Certificate Awarded to Students

Appendix #12

An Example of the Teacher Observation Reports



Short Drama Films

Teacher Observation Report

Student were emotionally engaged into the task to the point that they shed a few tears. Indeed, the short drama film was interesting. It talked about parents, and the students found the activity very relating and personalizing. Personalizatio is very important in the Language classroom, especially when dealing with the productive Language skills.

Thank you U.C. Writing Center for this wonderful experience.

MARS 2014

S. Zemali

الملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تعزيز ثقافة الاستقلالية والاعتماد على النفس في التحصيل العلمي في أوساط طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة الاخوة منتوري بقسنطينة. ولتحقيق هذا المبتغى، تم إشراك مجموعة من طلبة السنة الثالثة لغة إنجليزية في مشروع اكاديمي، طويل المدى، يتمحور حول كتابة القصة والكتابة الإبداعية بشكل عام. لقد تم استعمال أدوات وتقنيات دقيقة وحديثة لتنفيذ المشروع و لجمع المعطيات وتحليل النتائج قبل وبعد التجربة أو العلاج التجريبي الخاص بهذا البحث. وبعد التحليل والاستنتاج، أثبتت النتائج صحة الفرضية الاولى والمتمثلة في فعالية مشروع الكتابة الإبداعية المقترح في زرع ثقافة الاستقلالية في تطوير الذات. وتؤكد هذه النتائج صحت الفرضية وتبين أن استقلالية المتعلم يمكن أن تعزز بنجاح من خلال مشاريع الكتابة الإبداعية. ولأن هذا العمل يتضمن فرضية ثانية، شاركت مجموعة اخرى من الطلبة في تجربة ثانية تهدف الى زرع حب الكتابة في قلوب و عقول طلبة اللغة الانجليزية. في الواقع لقد كان لمشروع الكتابة الإبداعية نصيب كبير في تحسين نظرة الطلبة للتعبير الكتابي بشكل عام وتطوير سلوكياتهم كطلبة لغة اجنبية، لهذا فان الفرضية الثانية تم اثباتها.

الكلمات المفتاحية: استقلالية المتعلم، سلوكيات الطلبة، الكتابة الابداعية، التفكير الميتامعرفي

Résumé

Cette étude vise pertinemment à stimuler une autonomie d'apprentissage et des attitudes positives chez des étudiants algériens de la langue anglaise, en prenant appui sur un projet extracurriculaire de rédaction. Partant de l'hypothèse que les apprenants peuvent développer un certain degré d'autonomie d'apprentissage à travers la réalisation d'un projet extensive de rédaction créative comme activité extra académique. Pour vérifier une telle hypothèse, un groupe d'étudiant, de troisième année de langue anglaise à l'Université de Constantine, était impliqué dans un projet multiphasique de rédaction d'une nouvelle (histoire) précisément au centre de rédaction de l'Université. Un instrument était par conséquent nécessaire pour mesurer le degré d'autonomie des apprenants au début et à la fin de l'expérimentation, il s'agit en l'occurrence d'un formulaire court contenant le profil d'autonomie de chacun. En effet, les résultats obtenus ont démontré cependant que les étudiants qui ont reçu le traitement ont pu développer, dans une large mesure, leur autonomie, par contre ceux qui ne l'ont pas sont restés en grande partie non autonomes. Ces résultats viennent donc confirmer la pertinence de l'hypothèse initiale. Par ailleurs, et comme cette recherche s'appuie sur une deuxième hypothèse, une autre expérimentation a été faite sur un autre échantillon de troisième année dans la même université. Cette fois ci, les sujets étaient impliqués dans plusieurs activités de rédactions originales pendant six mois dans le même centre de rédaction. Cette deuxième expérimentation était fondée principalement sur l'hypothèse que les attitudes négatives des apprenants vis-à-vis la rédaction peuvent être ajustées par le biais d'une série variée d'activités de rédactions. Ainsi, le questionnaire des étudiants et le rapport d'observation de l'enseignant ont été impliqués dans la collection de donnés en amont et en aval de l'expérimentation. Les résultats obtenus ont démontré que seuls les étudiants du groupe expérimentale ont pu changer positivement leurs attitudes vis-à-vis la rédaction; la deuxième hypothèse est donc valide.

Mots-clés : l’autonomie de l'apprenant, les attitudes, l’écriture créative, la métacognition