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Department of English Language and Literature

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**Motivating First Year Students of English as a Foreign Language  
through Effective Learning Strategies to Improve their Writing Skills  
(Department of English, University of Batna)**

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**Thesis submitted to the department of English in partial fulfillment  
for the requirements of Doctorat Sciences in Didactics of English**

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### **Statement of Originality**

*This work has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.*

Nawel KISSOUM

Date: December 2020

## ABSTRACT

The present study aims at investigating the effect of teaching learning strategies on students' written productions. The target population is all first-year students (673) at the department of English language and literature in Batna 2 University, during the second semester of the academic year 2016-2017. However, our sample comprises two groups forming a total of sixty (60) students. Our problem consists in finding a solution to the students' poor writing performance using a quasi-experiment. The present research attempts to show that there is an effective relationship between writing and learning strategies, and subsequently proposing a course that would hopefully promote students' writing performance. At the outset of the study, we hypothesize that it would appear that first-year EFL students at the department of English in Batna 2 University do not use learning strategies in their writing. Besides, motivating students through teaching learning strategies would likely improve students' writing scores. To gather the data and analyze them, we opted for a process of triangulation by using different research tools and procedures. A preliminary questionnaire is administered at the beginning of the study to answer the first research question: do first-year students at the department of English in Batna 2 university use learning strategies in their writing? And its sub-question: if yes, what are they? The results revealed that (73.33 %) of the students do not use learning strategies in their writing. Then, the students have to fill in a questionnaire (using a Likert scale) to measure the frequency of their use of the four types of learning strategies, i.e. cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective strategies. This questionnaire is administered twice: at the beginning and at the end of the study to see whether there is an improvement in students' frequency of using these strategies due to the strategy instruction. The results show that students' frequency in using all types of strategies moved from "sometimes" to "often" with a difference of (0.04) in the mean. The third questionnaire given to students is a motivation questionnaire, which shows that they are intrinsically motivated, and this contradicts the results found in the teachers' questionnaire, which divulged that the learners are extrinsically motivated. The last research tool is the use of students' writing scores before and after the study, which shows that students' written performance has improved. This result is checked using the paired-sample  $t$ -value at 59 degrees of freedom ( $t=10.179$ ), which is significant at the alpha level (0.025) for a one-tailed hypothesis. Overall, the present investigation is an attempt to show that there are appropriate learning strategies to improve students' writing skills.

**Key words:** *learning strategies, writing, motivation, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, social and affective strategies*

## **DEDICATION**

To the memories of my grandparents

To my parents, my sisters and my brothers

To my husband and my son

And to my real friends

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS, SYMBOLS AND ACRONYMS

$\mu d$ : The Mean Difference

2-tailed: Two-tailed Hypothesis

AMTB: Attitude/Motivation Test Battery

CALLA: Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

*df*: Degrees of Freedom

EBD: Students with emotional and behavioural disabilities

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

H<sub>0</sub>: Null Hypothesis

H<sub>1</sub>: Upper-tailed Alternate Hypothesis

L2: Second Language

LD: Students with a learning disability only

LLS: Language Learning Strategies

LMD: Licence Master Doctorat

MH: Students with mild handicapping conditions, such as learning disabilities or speech and language difficulties

N: Number of Subjects

*p*: Probability of Error

*r*<sup>2</sup>: Effect Size

RQ: Research Question

*SD*: Standard Deviation

SDT: Self-Determination Theory

*Sig*: Significance of results



SILL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SRSD: Self-Regulatory Strategy Development

$t^2$ : the  $t$  Value Square

TAP: Think-Aloud Protocols

TEAL: The Teaching Excellence in Adult Literacy

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

TPR: Theory of Planned Behaviour

TRA: Theory of Reasoned Action

$\alpha$ : Alpha Level

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## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

People, in general, and students, in particular, communicate both their ideas and thoughts through speech and writing. Writing is a highly complex cognitive activity, which requires writers to set goals and consider the audience they are writing for. Also, it is a process that involves a number of cognitive and metacognitive activities, such as, brainstorming, planning, outlining, organizing, drafting, and revising; therefore, it is best seen as a series of activities that range from the more mechanical or formal aspects of writing to the more complex act of composing.

To master the skill of writing, learners must make use of a variety of sub-skills such as planning, drafting, revising, editing, and in some cases, publishing. Skillful learners know how to transform their ideas into harmonized texts by using a multitude of effective writing strategies. They recognize how to plan, write, revise, and edit their composition bearing in mind their objective and the audience they are writing for.

The role of teachers is to help students become independent writers by teaching them strategies to carry out the steps of the writing process. Moreover, they should support students in using these strategies until they become comfortable in writing. Those independent learners will develop their own strategies to overcome other language difficulties.

Learning to write is a difficult task, especially for learners writing in a second or a foreign language in academic contexts, since they do not possess the appropriate knowledge about how to generate ideas for their compositions. Because effective writing presents a challenge to EFL learners, teachers should use adequate approaches that can help learners improve their writing performance.

## **I.1. Background of the Study**

Despite the extensive curriculum devoted to writing at university level, learners, in general, continue to produce ineffective texts due to many reasons. These reasons include: their limited knowledge of good writing, their use of an ineffective approach to writing, their poor planning, their lack of ideas, their limited revisions, and their poor mastery of spelling (Santangelo, Harris & Graham, 2008)

According to the above-mentioned authors, skilled writers have many strategies that they employ, among them:

- They have great knowledge about rhetoric genres, conventions and devices.
- They master the elements and characteristics of good writing.
- They use the different steps of the writing process, i.e. planning, writing, and editing.
- They spend a long time in planning and setting goals.
- During brainstorming they produce more ideas than they require, then they exclude extra information in the process of editing.
- They revise and evaluate their own compositions to improve them.
- And finally, they dedicate their time and energy to improve their writing skills.

Santangelo et al. (2008, p. 79)

Moreover, experienced writers use many activities in the writing process, such as the planning of ideas, the generation of text, and the reviewing of ideas and text (Hayes & Flower, 1980; Kellogg, 1996). In order to be a good writer, the learner must have the ability to control the cooperation among planning, generation, and reviewing in order to write well. On the other hand, less skilled writers fail to express their ideas through

writing. They have problems with word spelling, capitalization and punctuation. Besides, they devote little time and energy to improve their compositions.

Writing is one of the most powerful forms of communication (Santangelo et al., 2008). Moreover, it is a very important skill at all levels of studies for a variety of reasons. First of all, it requires the use of other sub-skills such as spelling, vocabulary, punctuation, capitalization, grammar and other strategies (planning, organizing and editing). Also, it serves as a medium of knowledge to learn other subjects.

For Horvath (2001) “writing is among the most complex human activities- It involves the development of a design idea, the capture of mental representations of knowledge, and of experience with subjects” (p. 5).

Teachers’ goal, according to Kroll (1991, p. 261)

is to gradually wean our students away from us, providing them with strategies and tools for their continued growth as writers and for the successful fulfillment of future writing tasks they might face once they have completed their writing course with us. (Cited in Horvath, 2001, p. 18)

Writing well is a major cognitive challenge because it makes use of memory, language, and thinking ability. Moreover, it requires a rapid retrieval of domain-specific knowledge about the topic from long-term memory (Kellogg, 2001). Writing ability also depends on the ability to think clearly about substantive matters (Nickerson, Perkins, & Smith, 1985). Finally, working memory is highly used in the production of extended texts.

Learning how to write a coherent, effective text is a difficult task that relates to cognitive development and that differs enormously with the acquisition of speech.

Kellogg (2008) maintains that when writing a text at an advanced level, expert writers not only use the language system but also use their cognitive systems for memory and thinking as well. These writers must use virtually all the information that they have learned and stored away in long-term memory. However, they can only retrieve this information if their knowledge is accessible, either by rapidly retrieving it from long-term memory or by actively maintaining it in working memory.

Thinking and writing are interrelated, especially in mature adults that the two are practically “twins” (Kellogg, 2008). Individuals who write well are seen as genuine thinkers. Also, writing is viewed as a form of problem solving, whether at the level of the problem of content - what to say – or at the level of the problem of rhetoric-how to say it -. Finally, the written text is considered as an external form of memory since the audience can read and reflect upon it.

Learning how to write an effective extended text, therefore, is not an extension of our apparent biological predisposition to acquire spoken language. Nonetheless, it is more similar to learning how to type, how to play chess or how to play a musical instrument (Kellogg, 2008). Becoming an expert typist, chess player, or violinist, requires a minimum of 10 years of intensive learning and strong motivation to improve and so is writing.

Learning to become an expert writer is similar to becoming an expert in other complex cognitive domains. This process may require more than two decades of maturation, instruction, and training. The expert writer must gain executive control over cognitive processes so that s/he can respond, in the right way, to the specific needs of the task at hand, just as a concert violinist or grand master in chess must do.

According to Santangelo et al. (2008), writing is viewed by students as burdensome and frustrating because they are unable to master it. In order to help these struggling

writers become experienced, we need to teach them effective writing strategies. A strategy is defined as “a set of operations or actions that a person consciously undertakes to accomplish a desired goal” (Alexander, Graham & Harris, 1998, cited in Santangelo et al., 2008, p. 81).

Strategy instruction has been proven to be an effective teaching approach in a variety of academic settings. It has been shown to be more beneficial in the writing context for a variety of reasons. First, it helps to both simplify and organize the difficult tasks of planning, generating and revising a composition. Second, it shows students how to successfully complete all, or part, of a writing assignment. Third, it makes the mental operations that are used during planning, writing, evaluating, and revising visible and concrete. Finally, it increases students’ knowledge about writing genres, the writing process, and their abilities as writers.

## **I.2. Statement of the Problem**

As a teacher of written expression for first year since 2005, I have noticed that the students’ writing shows many deficiencies, among them: the use of inappropriate vocabulary and grammatical structures, a high frequency of grammatical errors, an inadequate understanding of the topic, poor spelling, punctuation and handwriting, a limited range of vocabulary, and a deficiency in clear self-expression.

Writing in a second or foreign language appears to be the most difficult language skill for language learners to acquire and master in academic contexts (Negari, 2011). It has been argued that explicit instruction of strategies, which is not a usual practice in foreign language classrooms, is beneficial for language learners (ibid.).

Teaching writing skill in a second or a foreign language went through different time spans, each of which has had advantages and disadvantages. For instance, process-writing

arose in the late 1960s and the early 1970s as a reaction to the product-centered pedagogy, and was considered to be important because it brought meaningfulness to learners who wrote while making personal connections to the topic and the processes related to it. The process of writing starts with brainstorming and prewriting activities to organize the ideas and activate the schemata, which refers to all the knowledge that a person has of the world and which enables him/her to relate background experience to the topic and discover everything he/she intends to say (Tribble, 1996 as cited in Negari, 2011).

The writer was considered as creator of text since writing was seen as a creative process that led to new classroom activities characterized by the use of journals and portfolios, peer collaboration, revision, and attention to content before form. The process approach considers the writer as an independent producer of texts, so the teacher's job is to help the learners develop their abilities to plan, define a problem and suggest and evaluate solutions (Hyland, 2003). A problem with the process approach is that writers emphasize fluency rather than accuracy (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005).

To master academic writing, students must do much effort and practice in composing, organizing, and analyzing ideas. To these sub-skills, EFL students should also cope with cognitive problems that are related to language learning. Sturm and Rankin-Erickson (2002, as cited in Negari, 2011) state that writing is an advanced academic task which raises students' difficulties in applying various cognitive strategies. Sturm and Rankin-Erickson further argue that strategy instruction is a teaching approach which helps students in developing appropriate strategies for all steps of the writing process, by breaking down writing tasks and making the sub-processes and skills much more explicit. In this respect, teachers may model and explicitly teach the strategies used by more skillful writers. Through the explicit teaching of learning strategies, learners will discover how to learn, and so become independent and autonomous learners.



Students face many challenges when writing in English. These challenges constitute the problem we want to tackle in the present investigation. Such challenges can be displayed at two levels: (a) lower level-including grammar, punctuation and spelling; and (b) higher level-including audience awareness, content generation and revising. Throughout our experience as a writing instructor, we observed five areas of competence that are highly problematic for students when composing in English: (a) creating content, (b) organizing structure for compositions, (c) setting goals, (d) practicing the mechanical aspects of writing simultaneously while composing, and (e) resetting goals. Moreover, many students do not consider strategies in the prewriting stage as precious devices, and fail to use them to become successful writers. In addition, these students are unable to integrate the mechanical aspects of writing quickly and effectively. These mechanical aspects cover spelling, punctuation, capitalization and handwriting. Also, certain students find problems on the level of sentence formation. They often write short and choppy sentences, fragments, comma-splices or run-on sentences. Finally, these students face challenges in the revision of their writing. They often correct only mechanical and spelling mistakes.

### **I.3. Aims of the Study**

This study aims at investigating the effect of learning strategies on students' written performances. For this end, we set two objectives for the present research, which are:

1. To establish a relationship between writing and learning strategies
2. To propose a framework that would motivate students and improve their writing performances through a learning and writing strategies-based instruction

It can be said that these proposed writing strategies have an overall aim to try to remedy to students' poor written performances.

#### **I.4. Research Questions**

The present study is based on some research questions which constitute the ingredients of the hypotheses set for the study. These research questions are:

1. Do first-year EFL students at the department of English in Batna 2 University use learning strategies in their writing? And if yes, what are they?
2. How would motivation and teaching learning strategies to students affect their writing?

#### **I.5. Hypotheses**

1. It would appear that first-year EFL students at the department of English in Batna 2 University do not use learning strategies in their writing.
2. Motivating students through teaching learning strategies would likely improve students' writing scores.

#### **I.6. Methodology: Method, Population, Tools, and Place of the Study**

To answer the research questions and to fulfill the research objectives, we opted for the quasi-experimental design. A quasi-experimental design is, like a true experimental design, looking for a cause-and-effect relationship, except that it lacks randomization and the control for extraneous (or irrelevant) variables, since there is no manipulation of the independent variable (which requires the elimination of the irrelevant variables through homogenization in human and social sciences). In such a design, we are expecting, globally speaking, an effect of the strategies being taught (a positive effect) without truly manipulating an independent variable, thing which requires the techniques we talked about.

The target population is all first-year students who are enrolled in the department of English in Batna 2 University during the academic year 2016-2017. They form 673

students constituting fifteen (15) groups. And as it is impossible to work with all of this population, we need to choose a random sample constituted of two intact groups; each one with a total of 30 learners. Hence, our sample is made of sixty (60) students forming two groups.

The research tools that are used in this study are questionnaires and students' writing scores. The students answered a preliminary questionnaire at the beginning of research beside a questionnaire (using a Likert-scale), which evaluates their frequency of using learning strategies in their writing, and which is administered twice: before and after the quasi experiment. In the middle of the study, they have to fill in a motivation questionnaire, which aims at evaluating their motivation level. Finally, their written productions are analyzed twice: in the pre-test and also in the posttest.

We have also to take teachers' opinions into consideration when devising this study by giving them a questionnaire to evaluate their students' level of motivation, and to give their point of view concerning the use of learning strategies to teach writing.

The present research involves, then, a quasi-experimental design including the teaching of learning strategies to two groups of students during the second semester of the academic year (2016-2017). The objective of the study is to find out the effect of the learning strategies, as the independent variable, on students' written performances, as the dependent variable, using motivation, as the moderator variable. To achieve this goal, triangulation has been used. This triangulation process includes different research tools, which are a preliminary questionnaire, a Likert-scale questionnaire, a motivation questionnaire and a scores' analysis for students' written performances, beside a questionnaire designed for teachers of written expression who evaluate their students' motivation, and give their opinions concerning the suggested approach. These investigative

procedures aim at providing empirical data to track students' development of writing, motivation and of learning strategies.

### **I.7. Structure of the Dissertation**

The present research is divided into five (5) chapters. Chapter one provides a theoretical background of the learning strategies in a first and a foreign language. In addition, it sheds some light on the strategy-based instruction, focusing on the two approaches adapted in the present study. These are the CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach), advocated by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and SRSD (Self-Regulated Strategy Development), pioneered by Graham and Harris (1980s).

Chapter two lays a theoretical foundation for the concept of motivation, focusing on its types and the major motivational theories in psychology as well as in the second or foreign language field. These are followed by some techniques that help teachers increase their students' motivation.

Chapter three deals with the theoretical aspects of the writing skill. It portrays a review of the different theories to writing. Besides, it presents the approaches used to teach writing and how to assess this productive skill.

Chapter four provides a detailed description of the research methodology that is used in this research work. The chapter includes a description of the participants, the research tools and research procedure. Also, it explains the data analysis, which is done through quantitative and qualitative procedures.

Chapter five presents an analysis, interpretation and discussion of the obtained results via the different research tools (the questionnaires and the scores analysis) during the pre-instruction and the post-instruction phases. Students' writing development is investigated by finding out the effect of strategy instruction (as the independent variable)

on students' written performances (as the dependent variable), and thus confirming or not the research hypotheses set at the beginning of the study. The different research tools are used and cross-compared to draw conclusions and suggest pedagogical implications.

A section is devoted to some pedagogical recommendations and implications drawn from the results of the study. Furthermore, the limitations of the study will be highlighted.

## CHAPTER ONE

### LEARNING STRATEGIES

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **LEARNING STRATEGIES**

#### **1.1.Introduction**

This chapter aims at providing a survey of the development of language learning strategies (LLS) research since the seventies. Moreover, it summarizes the different definitions given to learning strategies, their types and a comparison between learning strategies and learning styles. It also points out the learning strategies which are used in the writing skill. Besides, it tackles some of the issues considered in learning strategy training, focusing on O'Malley and Chamot's model, the CALLA (1990) (the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach), and Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD), advocated by Graham and Harris (1989), and which have been adapted in the present study. The word 'strategy' comes from the ancient Greek word 'strategia', which means steps or actions taken for the purpose of winning a war.

#### **1.2.Learning Strategies: Presentation and Analysis of Definitions**

Being a teacher for twenty years brought me to understand that there are two categories of language learners: successful language learners and unsuccessful language learners. Successful language learners "...employ a wide variety of strategies, which demonstrate above all, their active involvement in learning" (Littlewood, 1984, p. 67). Moreover, Wallace (1998) argues that "...successful learners do apply specific strategies to the task of learning" (p. 157).

Littlewood (1984) has identified a number of strategies used by the successful language learners. Among these strategies, he cited repeating silently the sounds the learners hear from the teacher, thinking silently about a question asked by the teacher to one of the students and comparing their answer to the one accepted by the teacher, discussing the course material with other students, seeking to communicate with their



language with other speakers of the target language, listening to the radio and/or reading newspapers.

Language learning strategies (LLS) have been given many definitions by many researchers. For Tarone (1983) a learning strategy is "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language -- to incorporate these into one's interlanguage competence" (p. 67). The interlanguage is the kind of language that is produced by nonnative speakers in the process of learning a second or a foreign language. Hence, the use of strategies involves goals or purposes. The goals mentioned in Tarone's definition are to attain various competencies in the language: "develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence" and "incorporate these into one's interlanguage competence" (p. 67). However, this definition focuses only on language, and does not allude to other important features such as learner autonomy or cultural dimensions. O'Malley et al (1985) write the following:

There is no consensus on what constitutes a learning strategy in second language learning or how these differ from other types of learner activities. Learning, teaching and communication strategies are often interlaced in discussions of language learning and are often applied to the same behaviour. Further, even within the group of activities most often referred to as learning strategies, there is considerable confusion about definitions of specific strategies and about the hierarchic relationship among strategies. (p.22)

Learning strategies are defined as "specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques—such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task— used by students to enhance their own learning" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 63). Hence, this definition focuses on two objectives of

learning strategies: “to tackle a difficult language task” and “to enhance .... learning”. Oxford (1999) argues that when using the term strategy, this means that the learner uses conscious movement in order to achieve a goal. However, there are two goals of language learning strategies which are to assist the learner to accomplish individual learning tasks (Richards & Lockhart, 1996), and to develop language proficiency (Tudor, 1996) so that the learner can use the language outside the classroom.

According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990) “...learning strategies are the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p. 1). This definition differs from the above-mentioned definitions in two specific ways. First, it shows us that LLS can be either observable (behaviours) or unobservable (thoughts). Second, it clearly expresses the goals behind using learning strategies: to help learners achieve comprehension and to learn new information.

One of the most comprehensive definitions to the LLS was provided by Rebecca Oxford (1990), which states the following:

[Language learning strategies are] operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information...; specific actions taken by the learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. (p. 8)

In Oxford’s (1990) definition, several goals which are related to learning and use of information are obvious. Moreover, a change in learning after the use of learning strategies is expected. This change makes learning “easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations”. So, Oxford’s definition expands the list of goals suggested by O’Malley and Chamot (1990).

On the other hand, Williams and Burden (1997) see strategies as “the executive processes which manage and co-ordinate the skills” (p. 145). These strategies should be purposeful and goal-oriented. In William and Burden’s definition, language skills are mentioned, and the goals of LLS are to “manage and coordinate” these skills.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) ascertain that learners use a variety of strategies in order to learn a second or a foreign language. Some of the strategies are cognitive, others are social. Some are observable and some are not. Overt strategies, such as note taking and using a dictionary are easy to observe and thus are called ‘overt’ strategies. Covert strategies need introspective forms of data collection. Besides, the strategies can be learned. The researchers also declare that strategies begin as “declarative knowledge” then they become “proceduralized” with practice.

They argue that cognitive theory suggests that information is stored as either declarative knowledge (what we know) or procedural knowledge (what we know how to do). Declarative knowledge is stored in terms of meaning-based propositions and schemata, whereas procedural knowledge is stored in terms of production systems or IF-THEN causal relationships. Language is presented as a complex cognitive skill within this theory.

Declarative knowledge is represented in long-term memory in terms of propositions and schemata, both of which are language based, so the way in which information is stored in memory is ‘inextricably’ related to language structure and meaning. When linguistic information is declarative knowledge, it is treated in memory like other information; it is best learned and retrieved by establishing linkages with related meaning-based concepts, propositions or schemata (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990).

In cognitive theory, learning strategies are represented as complex cognitive skills that follow the rules of procedural knowledge. Procedural knowledge can “transform declarative knowledge so that it is reorganized, summarized, or represented and linked to new information in memory” (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 215).

However, two of the most important characteristics of procedural knowledge are that it is difficult to learn and it is difficult to transfer to new situations. Thus, the acquisition of new learning strategies is difficult for the learners “unless opportunities for transfer become part of the instruction” (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 216).

Strategies that are recently learned or discovered are declarative, i.e. they are used under a deliberate rule-based system, whereas strategies that are used repeatedly are “procedural”.

### **1.3. Classification of Language Learning Strategies**

Since the language learning strategies used by learners are numerous, researchers have problems in classifying and categorizing them. Bialystok’s model (1978) includes four types of strategies: (a) functional practicing, (b) formal practicing, (c) monitoring, and (d) inferencing. Functional practicing refers to the strategies that are used for the sake of a functional purpose, such as completing a transaction at a store. Formal practicing and monitoring include the strategies that are used to practice the language in the classroom, such as verbal drills and observing mistakes. Inferencing is guessing meaning from contexts. She presents a model that insists on both learning in a formal situation and that in a real-life situation. Although the cognitive and metacognitive aspects of learning are present in her model, the social and affective components are not addressed.

There are many classifications to learning strategies. For instance, Stern (1975) provided a list of ten language learning strategies which are the characteristics of a good

language learner. At the top of the list he put personal learning style. Stern believes that the good language learner has an active approach to the learning task, a tolerant approach to the target language, knows how to tackle a language, searches for meaning, and has a will to practice the language in real communication.

Naiman, Frohlich, Stern and Todesko (1978) found that good language learners are able to adapt learning styles to suit themselves, are actively involved in the learning process, are able to develop an awareness of language as both a system of rules and as a means of communication, and are aware of the demands of learning language.

Naiman et al.'s (1978) division of primary strategies includes the following: an active task approach under which there are the following secondary strategies: responding positively to learning opportunity or seeking and exploiting learning environments, adding related language learning activities to regulate classroom programme and practicing. The second primary strategy is realization of language as a system, under which there are: analyzing individual problems, making L1/L2 comparisons, analyzing the target language to make inferences, and making use of the fact that language is a system. The third primary learning strategy, realization of language as a means of communication and interaction, includes: emphasizing fluency over accuracy and seeking communicative situations with L2 speakers.

The third primary learning strategy is the management of affective demands, in which the learner finds sociocultural meanings, and copes with affective demands of learning by overcoming his inhibition to speak and laughing at his own mistakes. The last primary learning strategy is monitoring the L2 performance by constantly revising the L2 system, testing inferences, and asking L2 native speakers for feedback.

Hence, Naiman et al.'s model (1978) contains five categories of strategies that are used by good language learners: (a) an active task approach, (b) realization of language as a system, (c) realization of language as a means of communication and interaction, (d) management of affective demands, and (e) monitoring of second language performance. However, according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), this classification scheme seems to lack theoretical foundation in second language acquisition or cognition.

In 1975, Rubin, one of the earliest researchers in the field of LLS, came with a broad definition of learning strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (Rubin, 1975, p. 43). In 1981, however, she identified two types of learning strategies: those which contribute directly to learning, and those which contribute indirectly to learning. She subdivided the direct learning strategies into six subgroups: clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning and practice, and the indirect learning strategies into two types: creating opportunities for practice and production tricks.

As mentioned earlier, Rubin identified six main cognitive strategies contributing directly to language learning: clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization and monitoring.

1. Clarification/verification refers to strategies used by learners to check whether their understanding of a rule or language item is correct.
2. Guessing/inductive inferencing refers to the strategies concerned with making hypotheses about how the language works. Learners should be able to select appropriate information, concentrate on what is important, hold information in the head and use information as well as samples of the language so that they can make suitable hypotheses.

3. Deductive reasoning is the strategy whereby the learner uses knowledge of general rules to produce or understand language.
4. Practice deals with the storage and retrieval of language. This covers strategies such as representation and rehearsal.
5. Memorization refers to the storage and retrieval of information. This includes mnemonic strategies and using lexical groupings.
6. Monitoring is the learners' checking of their performance, including noticing errors and observing how a message is received.

The two main strategies contributing indirectly to learning are: creating opportunities for practice, and production tricks.

1. Creating opportunities for practice: Here, the learner creates situation with native speakers, initiates discussion with peers, spends time in language laboratories, and watches TV.
2. Production tricks: The learner uses circumlocutions, synonyms, or cognates. Besides, he uses formulaic interaction, and contextualizes to clarify meaning.

Moreover, she sees metacognitive strategies as strategies used to oversee, regulate and self direct language learning. These involve: planning, prioritizing, setting goals and self-management.

Rubin included communication strategies under production tricks. However, Griffiths (2004) considers it as a controversial inclusion since learning strategies and communication strategies are seen by some researchers as two quite separate manifestations of language learner behaviour. For instance, Brown (1980) makes a clear distinction between learning strategies and communication strategies on the grounds that “communication is the output modality and learning is the input modality” (p. 87).

Rubin (1981, 1987) (cited in Williams and Burden 1997) argues that there are three major strategies used by learners: learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies.

Chamot and O'Malley (1990, 1996) used interviews and think-aloud protocols with young adult learners and came with a three-part strategy model which included metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/affective strategies.

- a. Metacognitive strategies: They include planning (advance organization, organizational planning, selective attention, self-management), monitoring (monitoring comprehension and production), and evaluating (self-assessment)
- b. Cognitive strategies: They include the following strategies: resourcing (finding and using appropriate resources), grouping, note-taking, elaboration of prior knowledge, summarizing, deduction/induction, imagery, auditory representation and making inferences.
- c. Social/affective strategies: They are: questioning for clarification, cooperation and self-talk.

O'Malley and Chamot's work is based upon cognitive science, particularly information processing theory.

All of the above-mentioned researchers tried to describe, interpret and classify various strategies used by successful learners. These taxonomies show the rich repertoire of LLSs. Although these classifications were useful, there was a need to develop a more comprehensive classification system.

The definition and categorization of language learning strategies was further developed by Rebecca Oxford (1990), who sees that the aim of language strategies as being the



development of communicative competence. She (1990) provides a list of twelve features of language learning strategies, whose characteristics are grouped in the following.

1. They contribute to the main goal, communicative competence (grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence).
2. They allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. They expand the role of teachers.
4. They are problem oriented.
5. They are specific actions taken by the learner.
6. They involve many aspects of the learner (cognitive, affective and social).
7. They support learning both directly and indirectly.
8. They are not always observable.
9. They are often conscious.
10. They can be taught.
11. They are flexible.
12. They are influenced by a variety of factors (age, sex, nationality, general learning style, personality, etc) (p. 9).

Based on earlier research into learning strategies, Oxford (1990) developed a language learning strategy system, which includes two main classifications: direct strategies and indirect strategies, and six groups: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective and social.

According to Oxford (2003) a strategy is neither good nor bad; it is neutral until the context of its use is thoroughly considered. A strategy is useful if the following conditions are presents: (a) the strategy relates well to the L2 task at hand, (b) the strategy fits the

particular student's learning style preferences to one degree or another, and (c) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies.

#### **1.4.Oxford's Language Learning Strategies System**

We emphasized on Oxford's language learning strategies system because her Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is the most influential instrument in the area of language learning strategies and lays out the most exhaustive hierarchy of learning strategies to date. Moreover, we adapted it in devising the Likert-scale questionnaire concerning the frequency of the use of the four types of learning strategies in students' writing to establish the questionnaire's validity.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, Oxford's (1990) SILL includes two main classifications: direct strategies and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are specific ways that involve the use of language, sub-divided into: memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies do not directly involve using the language, but they support language learning (Ehrman& Oxford, 1990) and are further divided into metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

##### **a. Direct strategies**

##### **1. Memory Related Strategies**

They help the learners link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding. Various memory-related strategies enable learners to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g. acronyms), via sounds (e.g. rhyming), images (e.g. a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g. the keyword method), body movement (e.g. total physical response), mechanical means (e.g. flashcards), or location (e.g. on a page or blackboard). Examples of memory strategies include making associations with what has already been

learned, drawing pictures to help remember new words, and pronouncing or writing new words in order to remember them. However, memory related strategies are needed in the early stages of language learning for memorizing vocabulary and structures.

## **2. Cognitive Strategies**

They enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways, for example, through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings and practicing structures and sounds formally. Examples of cognitive strategies are watching TV in English, listening to radio/CDs in English, using English computer programs, and finding similarities between first and second languages.

## **3. Compensatory Strategies**

Compensation strategies are used by learners to make up for missing information while listening, reading, speaking, or writing. For example, using gestures or body language (for speaking), rephrasing (for speaking or writing), asking for help (for listening, reading, speaking, or writing) and making guesses based on the context (for listening and reading). Examples of compensatory strategies include: using synonyms and “talking around” the missing word to aid speaking and writing and using gestures in speaking. All these strategies help the learner make up for missing knowledge.

### **b. Indirect Strategies**

#### **1. Metacognitive Strategies**

Metacognitive strategies include the planning, organizing, assessment, and monitoring of one’s own language learning, for instance, organizing time for learning, checking one’s progress, and analyzing one’s mistakes and trying not to make them again.

Examples of metacognitive strategies cover the following: identifying one's own learning style preference and needs, planning for an L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and schedule, monitoring mistakes, evaluating task success and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy.

## **2. Affective Strategies**

They help the learner cope with his or her own feelings, motivations, and attitudes while (or about) learning English. Examples of affective strategies include taking risks, trying to relax when feeling anxious about learning, and rewarding oneself for success. This type of strategies is sometimes combined with social strategies as in O'Malley and Chamot's classification. Affective strategies such as: identifying one's need and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance and using deep breathing or positive self-talk are related to L2 proficiency. Affective strategies serve to regulate emotions, motivation and attitudes.

## **3. Social Strategies**

Social strategies are related with how learners communicate with other people in a second language learning context. Among social strategies, we can find asking someone to slow down his pace while speaking, practicing with others and showing interest in learning about the culture of English-speaking countries. This category is sometimes combined with affective strategies. Examples of social strategies such as: asking questions for verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms help the learner work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language.

## **1.5. Classification of Language Learning Strategies**

Because they have multi-facets, there is still no agreed definition or classification of language learning strategies. However, most researchers argue that learning strategies may be classified into four categories: cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective.

### **1.5.1.1. Cognitive Strategies**

They “operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning” (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 44). They include rehearsal, organization and elaboration processes. Elaboration processes are influencing, summarizing, deduction, imagery and transfer.

For Cohen (1996) cognitive strategies include such operations as the identification, storage or retrieval of words, phrases, and other elements of the second language. At the same time, Williams and Burden (1997) define cognitive strategies as “mental processes directly concerned with the processing of information in order to learn, that is for obtaining, storage, retrieval or use of information” (p. 148). Meanwhile, Chamot and Kupper (1989) argue that in cognitive strategies “learners work with and manipulate the task materials themselves, moving towards task completion” (p. 14).

All in all, cognitive strategies include inferencing (guessing meaning from context) and elaboration (relating new information to other concepts in memory).

### **1.5.1.2. Metacognitive Strategies**

Metacognitive strategies are defined as “... self-regulatory strategies in which learners are aware of their own thinking and learning, and plan, monitor, and evaluate their own learning endeavors” (Chamot & Kupper, 1989, p. 14).

These are “higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring or evaluating the success of a learning activity” (Brown et al; 1983) (in O’Malley & Chamot,

1990, p. 44). Examples of metacognitive strategies include planning the organization of written discourse, selective attention, monitoring, i.e. to select a best guess of the message's meaning based on available information. Metacognitive strategies are derived from the term "metacognition" (knowing about knowing), which means "knowledge about cognition or the regulation of cognition (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Knowledge about cognition involves applying the thoughts about the cognitive operations of oneself or others, whereas the regulation of cognition involves planning, monitoring and evaluating a learning or problem-solving activity consciously. Among the metacognitive strategies cited by the above-mentioned authors, we find directed attention, i.e. directing one's own attention to the learning task, and self-evaluation, i.e. appraising the success and difficulties in one's own learning efforts.

The term "metacognition" has been defined by Williams and Burden (1997) as "...an awareness of one's own mental processes and an ability to reflect on how one learns... (i.e.) knowing about knowing" (p. 147). The above-mentioned authors acknowledge that:

Metacognition in our view, therefore, includes not only a knowledge of mental processes, as these are necessarily linked to and affected by emotions and feelings. It must also encompass a knowledge of factors relating to the self, and at the way in which these affect the use of cognitive processes; thus, an awareness of one's personality, feelings, motivation, attitudes and learning style at any particular moment would be included within such a concept of metacognitive awareness.  
(p.155)

Rubin (1981, 1987) argues that cognitive and metacognitive strategies “contribute directly to the development of the language system which the learner constructs” (in O’Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 149).

### **1.5.1.3. Social Strategies**

These are strategies used by learners to increase their exposure to the language (e.g. imitating conversations in the foreign language, watching films and reading books). They also include the actions which learners choose to take in order to interact with other learners and with native speakers (e.g. asking questions for clarification and cooperating with others).

### **1.5.1.4. Affective Strategies**

Affective strategies are defined as the ones which “help the learner deal with his or her own emotions, motivations, and attitudes while (or about) learning English” (Lan, 2005, p. 23). Examples of affective strategies include taking risks, trying to relax when feeling anxious about learning, and rewarding oneself for succeeding. They are sometimes linked with social strategies as in O’Malley and Chamot’s classification and Oxford’s taxonomy.

Dansereau (cited in O’Malley & Chamot, 1990) divided learning strategies into primary strategies and support strategies. Primary strategies are used to operate directly on learning materials, such as comprehension and memory strategies. Support strategies help establish an appropriate learning attitude and aid in coping with distraction, fatigue, frustration, etc. He further called them concentration strategies. He argues that strategies analyzed with writing tasks included advanced planning and elaboration, restatement and revision of the goals and subgoals of the assignment.

## **1.6. Writing Strategies**

The present section deals with some of the writing strategies used by skilled writers. There have been many studies which tried to find out efficient strategies that are used by experienced writers during the writing process. As has been demonstrated at the beginning of this chapter, the term ‘strategy’ has been defined by a number of researchers. For example, Rubin (1981) considers strategies as “operations or steps used by a learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information” (p. 5). Stern (1983) argues that strategy

is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving learning techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behaviour, more or less consciously employed by the learner. (p. 405)

According to Alharthi (2011), a writing “strategy [i]s the actions that are adopted by writers to help them plan, generate, process, and present information. It also refers to the strategies that enable students to overcome writing difficulties and anxiety” (pp. 74-75).

In section 1.5., we stated that there are four kinds of strategies: metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies.

### **a. Metacognitive Writing Strategies**

Classifying learning strategies has been studied by many writers, such as Chamot, Oxford, and Shapira and Lazarowitz. For Alharthi (2011) “meta-cognitive strategies refer to the global skills of the students that reflect their self-awareness concerning their level of understanding and degree of motivation” (p. 75). Similarly, Wiles (1997) defines meta-cognition as “self-management ... the ability ... to plan, monitor and revise, or ... control ... learning” (p. 17). Metacognitive strategies are made of the skills which develop self-awareness in relation to the level of understanding, motivation, and approach to all



language skills. In the writing skill, they include planning writing, goal setting, preparing for action, focusing, using schemata, activity monitoring, evaluating of its success, and searching for practice opportunities (Oxford, 1990).

#### **b. Cognitive Writing Strategies**

They are “personal strategies, which are appropriate for the individual learner and for the task at hand” (Shapira & Lazarowitz, 2005, p. 74). Cognitive strategies entail the manipulation of a language task through the use of the language. This can be done through the use of physical activities such as using a dictionary, summarizing, organizing, and reading out loud; or through mental functions such as imagery, applying a schema, attributing new knowledge to existing knowledge, guessing, analysing, and reasoning. Compensation strategies, which are part of cognitive strategies, include overcoming obstacles and overcoming writing limitations by various means, such as self-initiated breaks, or listening to music (Oxford, 1990).

Alharthi (2011) defines cognitive strategies as “personal strategies that enable students to process and transform information” (p. 76). These strategies require the manipulation of a learning activity via the use of the language to “actively engage in the knowledge acquisition process” (McCrinkle & Christensen, 1995, p. 170). According to Oxford (1990), cognitive strategies can be recognized by the use of a dictionary (which can also be classified as a social strategy), organizing information, reading out loud, analysing, summarizing and reasoning. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) classified cognitive strategy into three categories: organization strategies, which reorganize the data that should be acquired into more meaningful data; rehearsal strategies, which include repeating the data which should be acquired; and elaboration strategies, which link new knowledge to previously acquired information (McCrinkle & Christensen, 1995, pp. 170-171).

### **c. Social Writing Strategies**

Social strategies “include asking others for help, asking questions, asking for correction, involving colleagues and professionals, developing an awareness of the thoughts and feelings of others, expressing empathy, and developing cultural understanding” (Shapira & Lazarowitz, 2005, p. 74). These authors argue that the interaction which exists among writers and with teachers has the power of encouraging conversation processes, promoting thinking, facilitating the writing process, and thus improving writing as a whole.

Social strategies “aim at developing awareness of and feeling for others. They include the actions learners choose in order to interact with their colleagues, or to help them overcome learning difficulties” (Alharthi, 2011, p. 76). Among these strategies, Cohen and Dornyei (2002) cite: asking questions, co-operating with peers to complete an assignment, and peer revision.

### **d. Affective Writing Strategies**

The last type of learning strategies is affective strategies which “serve to regulate emotions, motivations and attitudes (for example, strategies for reduction of anxiety and for self-encouragement)” (Cohen & Dornyei, 2002, p. 181). Unfortunately, affective strategies may be negative or positive (Shapira & Lazarowitz, 2005). Negative affective strategies include “avoidance, passiveness, difficulty in concentrating, and showing lack of concern” (ibid., p. 75), and may affect students in such a way that they may abandon the learning task. These strategies may be eliminated by extensive and direct strategy-use training. On the other hand, positive strategies include “anxiety alleviation ... calming or self-regulation techniques such as deep breathing, meditation, listening to music, laughing ... and self-encouragement through positive statements, and self-talk regarding one’s ability successfully to complete the assignment” (ibid.). Additional positive strategies are

self-rewarding, taking risks, sharing with others feelings that are related to writing process, and emotional ‘temperature checking’ through the use of checklists (Oxford, 1990).

For example, if the writer is required to write about a personal experience, he/she has to focus first on the data that should be included rather than on the grammatical mistakes that might occur.

Affective and social strategies may be considered “as compensation strategies which are used to describe what learners do to overcome the difficulties that they face, such as listening to music, eating, or taking a break” (Alharthi, 2011, p. 77).

### **1.7. Learning Styles and Learning Strategies**

Since learning styles directly affect the learning strategies used (Salvisberg, 2005), it is better for us, teachers, to discover each student’s general inclination and encourage them to be flexible in selecting the style which is most appropriate for a particular context.

For Richards and Lockhart (1996) “whereas cognitive styles can be thought of as relatively stable characteristics of learners which affect their general approach to learning, learning strategies are the specific procedures learners use with individual learning tasks” (p. 63).

They argue that each strategy used by the learner offers advantages or disadvantages. Besides, the use of an appropriate strategy enhances success with the learning task. Thus, an important aspect of teaching involves promoting learners’ awareness and control of effective learning strategies and discouraging the use of ineffective ones.

According to Oxford (2003) “learning styles are the general approaches-for example, global or analytic, auditory or visual-that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subjects” (p. 2). She came to the conclusion that learning

styles and strategies of individual learners can work together with –or conflict with– an instrumental methodology. She (2003) argues that if there is harmony between (a) the learner (in terms of style and strategy preference) and (b) the combination of instructional methodology and materials, then the learner is likely to perform well, feel confident and experience low anxiety. On the other hand, if clashes occur between (a) and (b), the learner often performs poorly, feels unconfident, and experiences significant anxiety.

Ehrman and Oxford (1990) cited nine major style dimensions relevant to L2 learning. However, we will discuss four dimensions of learning style that are the most strongly associated with L2 learning. These include: sensory preference, personality types, desired degree of generality and biological differences.

### **1.7.1. Sensory Preferences**

They can be broken down into four main areas: visual, auditory, kinesthetic (movement-oriented) and tactile (touch-oriented).

Visual learners enjoy reading and prefer to see the words they are learning. For them, lectures, conversations, and oral directions without any visual aid can be very confusing. They like to learn by looking at pictures and flashcards.

Auditory learners prefer to learn by listening. They like lectures, conversations, and oral directions. Moreover, they enjoy interaction with others, and do not need to see words written down.

Kinesthetic learners like movement and need frequent breaks in desk activities. They enjoy working with objects and flashcards.

Tactile learners learn by touching and manipulating objects.

### **1.7.2. Personality Types**

The personality type consists of four strands: extraverted vs. introverted, intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential, thinking vs. feeling, and closure-oriented/judging vs. open/perceiving.

Extraverts get their energy from the external world whereas introverts gain their energy from the internal world seeking solitude. Extraverts like interaction with others and have many friends, some are deep, and others are not. On the other hand, introverts tend to have few friendships, which are often very deep. With the help of the teacher, both extroverts and introverts can learn to work together.

Intuitive-random learners think in an abstract, futuristic way. They like to create theories and new possibilities, and they prefer to guide their own learning. Sensing-sequential students like facts and prefer guidance from the teacher.

Thinking students are oriented toward the truth, even if it hurts some people. They want to be considered competent and do not offer praise easily, even if they want to be praised. In contrast, feeling students like praising other people. They show compassion and empathy through words and behaviours, and try to make people comfortable in difficult situations.

Close-oriented students are serious, hardworking and enjoy tasks with deadlines. Open learners are “less serious”, treating L2 learning as a game to be enjoyed rather than some tasks to be completed. These students dislike deadlines.

### **1.7.3. Desired Degree of Generality**

This strand differentiates between learners who focus on the main idea and the learners who concentrate on details. We have two kinds of learners in this category: global learners and analytic learners.

Global or holistic students like communicative events in which they can focus on the main idea and avoid analyzing the grammatical details. They do not bother themselves with the details and prefer to guess from the context. Analytic students concentrate on grammatical details and do not take risks for guessing from the context.

#### **1.7.4. Biological Differences**

These include biorhythms, sustenance and location. Biorhythm is concerned with the times of the day when students feel good and perform well (morning, afternoon or evening). Sustenance refers to the need for food or drink while learning. Location covers the nature of the environment: temperature, lighting, sound, and even the firmness of the chairs.

There are two types of learners: field-independent learners and field-dependent learners. Field-independent learners are not distracted by irrelevant background information when they try to learn something. These are learners who are able to see the trees without being distracted by the forest. By contrast, field-dependent learners have a tendency to see the forest but may miss the characteristics of individual trees.

It has been found that field-dependent learners perform better on language tests which focus on analytic tasks such as providing the correct grammatical form in a given sentence. On the other hand, field dependent learners do better on tasks which involve synthesizing their knowledge, for instance, they show broader communicative competence.

#### **1.8. Teaching Learning Strategies**

Because “we cannot be sure that what we are teaching is what is being learnt, we are well advised to equip our learners to learn” (Arnold, 1999, p. 20).

Teaching learning strategies can aid language teachers in helping students attain the goals of improving their mastery of the target language and of learning about the target culture.

The aim of teaching learning strategies is to help students to consciously control how they learn so that they can be efficient, motivated and independent language learners.

### **1.8.1.Important Reasons for Teaching Learning Strategies in the Foreign Language**

#### **Classroom**

There are many reasons why we should teach learning strategies in the foreign language classroom. These reasons may be summarized in the following.

- Better learners have greater metacognitive awareness, which helps them select appropriate strategies for a specific task.
- Most students can learn how to use learning strategies more effectively.
- Many strategies can be used for a variety of tasks.
- Learning strategies instruction can increase students' motivation in two main ways: by increasing students' confidence in their own learning ability and by providing students with specific techniques for successful language learning.
- Students who have learned how and when to use learning strategies become more-self reliant and better able to learn independently.

For O'Malley and Chamot (1990) teaching students strategies involves a condition (IF) and one or more action (THEN) causes, for example,

IF the goal is to comprehend an oral or written text,

And I am unable to identify a word's meaning,

THEN I will try to infer the meaning from context (p. 52).

They acknowledge that "learning strategies are complex procedures that individuals apply to tasks" (ibid.), that's why teaching students to use new strategies with cognitive

tasks is extremely difficult. But the dilemma with strategy training is that learners avoid new strategies with tasks that are too difficult or too easy.

O'Malley and Chamot describe the CALLA (the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) model, which is a form of strategies-based instruction for ESL learners that includes explicit strategy instruction, content area instruction and academic language development.

For the above-mentioned authors, instruction in learning strategies has been done with strategies that help in the acquisition of declarative knowledge (memory training), and of procedural knowledge (reading comprehension and problem-solving). Little research has been done on writing strategies.

Moreover, they raise the following questions: should instruction focus only on learning strategies instruction or integrate it with classroom instruction in the language or content subject?

Direct instruction involves informing students of the value and purpose of strategy training. On the contrary, in the embedded instruction, students are presented with activities structured to elicit the use of strategies being taught, but learners are not informed of the reasons why this approach to learning is being practiced.

Early research used the first method and found little transfer of training to new tasks. More recent studies added a metacognitive component to training and found that strategy use had been maintained over time and had been transferred to new tasks.

Other variables were considered in O'Malley and Chamot's model of instruction. These are: teacher training, materials and curriculum development, and language proficiency. The second question is should learning strategy training be in the first



language or in the second language if the students are proficient enough? Or should we delay it until students acquire a certain fluency in the second language?

In the study by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), learners are given tasks at different levels. These include filling in the gaps with vocabulary items, writing about a picture, and listening to a dialogue. The researchers tried to find out the strategies the learners were using while they were doing the tasks.

To find these, they used interviews and questionnaires. Moreover, they used other techniques involving introspection, which has the potential to tell us a great deal about strategy use. They are "think-aloud techniques". In these techniques, the learner is given a language-learning task to do, and is asked to tell the researcher whatever goes on in his mind as he does this task. He may be asked to do this after the task has been done, or during the time the learner is doing the task. The last method, known as concurrent verbalization, has been used in this study.

However, two problems have arisen with this method: the first being learners' training, and the second being that some subjects protest strongly against the technique, saying that they can either do the task, or talk about how to do it, but not both at the same time.

### **1.8.2. The Cognitive Academy Language Learning Approach (CALLA)**

The following steps sum up the strategy training sequence used in the CALLA model.

1. Preparation: develop student awareness of different strategies through:
  - Small group retrospective interviews about school tasks
  - Modeling think-aloud, then having students think aloud in small groups
  - Discussion of interviews and think-alouds
2. Presentation: develop student knowledge about strategies by:

- Providing rationale for strategy use
  - Describing and naming strategy
  - Modeling strategy
3. Practice: develop student skills in using strategies for academic learning through:
- Cooperative learning tasks
  - Think-alouds while problem solving
  - Peer tutoring in academic tasks
  - Group discussion
4. Evaluation: develop student ability to evaluate own strategy use through:
- Writing strategies used immediately after task
  - Discussing strategy use in class
  - Keeping dialogue journals (with teacher) on strategy use
5. Expansion: develop transfer of strategies to new tasks by:
- Discussions on metacognitive and motivational aspects of strategy use
  - Additional practice on similar academic tasks
  - Assignments to use learning strategies on tasks related to cultural backgrounds of students.

### **Strategy training sequence used in CALLA (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p.158)**

#### **1.8.3. Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD)**

The TEAL (The Teaching Excellence in Adult Literacy) centre (2011) defines SRSD as

...an instructional approach designed to help students learn, use and adopt the strategies used by skilled writers. It is an approach that adds the element of self-regulation to strategy instruction for writing.

It encourages students to monitor, evaluate and revise their writing, which in turn reinforces self-regulation skills and independent learning. (p. 1)

According to Santangelo et al. (2008) “Self-regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) is a well-established, thoroughly validated instructional model used to teach a variety of writing strategies to elementary, middle and high school age students” (p. 78).

Regan and Mastropieri (2009) define it as a model which supports students when they write. This is done by helping them to develop certain cognitive and self-regulated skills. SRSD was pioneered by Karen Harris and Steve Graham, and it integrates three aspects of the writing process: (a) six steps of explicit writing instruction in a variety of genres, (b) explicit instruction in self-regulation strategies (goal-setting, self-monitoring and self-instruction), and (c) development of positive student attitude and self-efficacy about writing.

SRSD encourages students to perform writing assignments through explicit instruction and simplifying the process of writing narrative, expository and persuasive compositions while they integrate self-regulatory practices of goal-setting, self-instruction, self-assessment and self-reinforcement. A number of writing strategies have been developed for genres such as story writing, narrative, expository, persuasive writing and revising strategies.

SRSD originated from four theoretical and empirical sources in the early 1980s. First, based on Meichenbaum’s (1977) cognitive-behavioural intervention model, and its focus on Socratic dialogue and stages of intervention, Harris and Graham developed their first stages of instruction and a focus on the role of dialogue/discussion instruction. Second, the work of Soviet researchers and theorists, such as Vygotsky, Luria and Sokolov, on the

social origins of self-control and the development of the mind was very influential and helped in self-regulation and modeling parts of the model. Third, the work of Deshler, Schumaker, and their colleagues on the justification of acquisition steps for strategies among adolescents with learning disabilities (Deshler, Alley, Warner & Schumaker, 1981), steps which were further influenced by the work of Meichenbaum and others, strongly influenced the SRSD model. Fourth, the work of Brown, Campione, and their colleagues on the development of metacognition, self-control, and strategies instruction was also influential (Brown, Campione & Day, 1981).

The SRSD model includes a set of self-regulation components, which are goal-setting, self-instruction, self-assessment, self-reinforcement, imagery, and managing the writing environment. Besides, SRSD supports learners in the development of attribution for effort and the use of powerful writing strategies, knowledge of writing genres, self-efficacy, and high levels of engagement (Harris, 1985; Harris & Graham, 1992).

According to Santangelo et al. (2008), SRSD has a variety of characteristics. Among them, we can cite: enthusiasm, active involvement and collaboration, individualized, criterion-based instruction, authentic writing tasks, constructive feedback, predictability, and supportive environment. This is achieved through:

- establishing an exciting mood during writing time,
- encouraging students to take risks when writing,
- developing writing assignments that reflect students' interests,
- allow students to select their own writing topics or modify assigned topics,
- having students arrange their own writing space,
- encouraging students to help each other as they plan, write, revise, and edit their work,

- holding student conferences to discuss writing goals, achievements, and challenges,
- asking students to share works-in-progress and completed papers with each other,
- praising students for their accomplishments, effort and use of writing strategies,
- reinforcing students' efforts and accomplishments by "showing" work in prominent places, and
- consistently modeling and promoting an "I can do this" attitude. (pp. 86-87)

The TEAL centre (2011) asserts that

as with other types of strategy instruction, SRSD is explicit, direct and guided instruction so that strategies become integrated into the overall learning process. Instruction begins as teacher-directed, but with a goal of empowering students to be self-directed. The self-regulation element addresses negative self-talk or perceptions of self-as-learner through replacement with self-talk, self-instruction, and new habits with which to approach learning tasks. (p. 1)

SRSD can be used with a variety of learners who have difficulties with writing. This can include normally achieving students (Danoff, Harris & Graham, 1993), students with learning disabilities (LD) (Harris & Graham, 1992; Santangelo et al., 2008; Eissa, 2009; Regan & Mastropieri, 2009; and Dupuis, 2013), students with emotional and behavioural disabilities (EBD) (Adkins, 2005) or even students with autism (Texas Statewide Leadership for Autism, 2012).

In 2007, Graham and Perin made a meta-analysis, which is "a particularly powerful way of synthesizing large bodies of research, as it relies on quantitative studies and permits the calculation of effect size" (p. 150). Its power lies in the fact that it permits "the consideration of both the strength and consistency of a practice's effects" (ibid.). They

took the SRSD model in their investigation and found that Self-Regulated Strategy Development can be used successfully with the following types of learners: LD (students with a learning disability only), Low-achieving (poor writers only), MH (students with mild handicapping conditions, such as learning disabilities or speech and language difficulties), Average (average writers, not the highest and strongest writers in a classroom), High (above average writers), ESL (students with English as a second language), L2 (second language learners) and Full-Range (the full range of writers found in typical classrooms).

#### **1.8.3.1. How Does It Work? (Self-Regulation Techniques)**

In SRSD, writing is viewed as a problem-solving task which involves planning, knowledge and skills (Graham & Perin, 2007).

Planning covers planning, drafting and revising the essay. Knowledge deals with knowing information about topic, the audience and genre (e.g. narrative or persuasive essay). Skills include handwriting or keyboarding, spelling and grammar. Self-regulation training is embedded in the explicit instruction in order that students can write a text with decreasing teacher support and direction.

Self-regulation includes the following areas, which can be used independently or in combination (Lienemann & Reid, 2009):

##### **a. Self-Monitoring (Goal-Setting)**

It is a technique which requires students to keep track of their progress and record the results. Besides, it requires the student and the teacher to determine what the student is trying to achieve and how to get there.

According to Zumbrunn, Tadlock and Roberts (2011)

self-monitoring encompasses all of the following elements: goal-setting, planning, self-motivation, attention control and flexible use of strategies. ... teachers can develop students' self-monitoring by having students keep a record of the number of times they worked on particular learning tasks, the strategies they used, and the amount of time they spend working. This practice allows students to visualize their progress and make changes as needed. (p. 12)

For Schunk and Zimmerman (2003, cited in Adkins, 2005, p. 58), self-monitoring “refers to purposeful attention to some aspect of one’s behaviour followed by documentation of its frequency or intensity”. They argue that methods for self-monitoring might include the following: duration measures, time-sampling measures, archival records, frequency counts, behaviour ratings or narrations. Moreover, they state that the two most common types of self-monitoring which are used in academic settings are self-monitoring of attention and self-monitoring of performance.

They acknowledge that students who self-monitor their end of assignments offer themselves an immediate “reinforcer” rather than waiting for an external one.

According to Zimmerman (2004), encouraging students to set short-term goals helps them track their progress.

### **b. Self-Instruction**

It is a technique that involves students to talk to themselves through a task or activity (e.g. I can do it.). Harris (1990, cited in Adkins, 2005, p. 61) asserts that self-instruction happens “when a student uses overt or covert speech to direct his or her behaviour.....successful approaches to teaching self-instructional development integrate affective, behavioural, cognitive, social and developmental theories and research”.

This is done through a 'think-aloud' procedure led by the teacher.

In her study, Adkins (2005) used the following types of self-instruction:

1. Problem definition, which helps learners define the aim and demands of the writing task, e.g. "What is it I need to do? I need to write a story that has all seven parts".
2. Focusing of attention and planning self-statements, which encourage students to stay on a learning activity by using a plan of action, e.g. "Next, I need to create a setting using descriptive words".
3. Strategy usage: for example, "I am going to organize my notes using my graphic organizer. Then I am going to use my notes to write a good story."
4. Self-evaluating statements: They are very important since low-achieving writers frequently do little to no editing or revising of their composition, for example, "That sentence does not make sense; I need to rewrite it."
5. Coping and self-control statement: for example, "I need to take my time and a good idea will come to me", or "I can write a good story that has all seven parts".
6. Self-reinforcement: It deals with rewarding oneself for a job well done, like "My story makes sense, has all seven parts, and is fun to read!"

Joyce, Spiller and Twist (2009) say that self-assessment occurs "when the student him/herself is involved in some or all aspects of the assessment process". It gathers both self-evaluation and self-monitoring and requires students to be self-reflective, i.e. "...which involve[s] thinking about how they best learn, whether they selected the most appropriate learning strategies, and what attitudes they brought to the task" (p. 2).

Self-assessment is important since it improves students' learning and helps learners to self-critique and check their work. Besides, it increases intrinsic motivation by increasing learners' responsibility towards their own learning (Joyce et al., 2009).



### **c. Self-Reinforcement**

It is a technique in which students choose reinforcers and reward themselves for reaching or exceeding a criterion. Bandura (1976) acknowledges that in self-reinforcement, “individuals regulate their behaviour by making self-reward conditional upon matching self-prescribed standards of performance” (p. 135). He goes on by giving the characteristics of a self-reinforcement event, which are “control of reinforcers, conditional self-administration of reinforcers and adoption of performance standards” (p. 136).

### **d. Metacognition**

Scanlon (2012) defines metacognition as “the ability to use prior knowledge to plan a strategy for approaching a learning task, take necessary steps to problem solve, reflect on and evaluate results, and modify one’s approach as needed” (p. 32).

Flavel (1976), who was the first one to have used the term “metacognition”, gave the following example: “I am engaging in metacognition if I notice that I am having more trouble learning A than B; if it strikes me that I should double check C before accepting it as fact” (p.232).

Metacognitive strategies are used to make sure that a learning objective has been achieved. Scanlon(2012) lists the following examples: planning how to accomplish a learning activity, using effective strategies to solve a problem, monitoring one’s understanding of a text, self-assessing and self-correcting, evaluating progress toward the completion of a task, and being aware of distracting stimuli.

Flavel (1979), Schraw and Dennison (1994) distinguish between metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation. Metacognitive knowledge is knowledge people have about themselves, about different approaches for learning and problem-solving, and

about the requirements of a learning activity. On the other hand, metacognitive regulation is changes that people undertake to help control their learning; for instance, planning, composition monitoring, information management strategies, and evaluation of progress and goals.

Also, Flavel (1979) divides metacognitive knowledge into three categories: person variables, task variables, and strategy variables. Person variables are what a person knows about his strengths and weaknesses. Task variables are to know about the nature of a task and how to complete it; for example, time required to understand a technical text and a literary text. Strategy variables are strategies that individuals use to successfully accomplish a task; for example, activating prior knowledge before reading a technical text or rereading a paragraph several times before grasping it.

It was found that students guide, regulate and evaluate their learning using metacognitive strategies. As a matter of fact, some programmes encourage students to make “metacognitive conversations” with themselves about their learning, the obstacles they face and the ways they use to do self-correction and continue learning.

Besides, individuals who use a variety of metacognitive strategies perform better on exams and complete work more efficiently using changing strategies to obtain their goals. Teachers can encourage learners become strategic thinkers by helping them focus on the ways they process information. This is done through self-questioning, reflective journal writing, and discussing their thought processes with other learners.

Fogarty (1994) acknowledges that the process of metacognition has three phases; and to be successful thinkers, students must do the following: develop a plan before doing a learning task, monitor their understanding, and evaluate their thinking after completing the task.

#### e. **Self-Assessment**

Klenowski (1995) defines self-assessment as “the evaluation of judgment of the ‘worth’ of one’s performance and the identification of one’s strengths and weaknesses with view to improving one’s learning outcomes” (p. 146).

Teachers use self-assessment in their classrooms for the following reasons: to involve students in the assessment of their tasks, to maintain student interest and attention, and to show how much effort students “expend” in doing a task. Ross (2006) says that it “is a more cost-effective than other techniques [and that] students learn more when they know that they will share responsibility for the assessment of what they have learned” (p. 2).

He asserts that self-assessment is a reliable technique. However, teachers should provide direct instruction in how to assess so that self-assessment becomes a useful student assessment technique.

Self-assessment helps students to “self-critique and check their work...[besides] they take more responsibility for their own learning” (Joyce et al. , 2009, p. 3). They also argue that self assessment can increase intrinsic motivation “by increasing students’ responsibility towards their own learning” (p. 4).

Ross et al. (1998, cited in Ross, 2006) acknowledge that students preferred self-assessment for a variety of reasons. First, because they understood better what they were supposed to do. Second, they included important performance elements such as effort. Third, they communicated their goals and reasoning to the teacher. And finally, self-assessment helped them to improve their work.

On the other hand, Ross (2006) said that self-assessment has some negative points. For example, students may lie about their performance and inflate their achievement. Besides, some argue that it is unfair to ask students to do the teacher's task. And finally, parents demand that teachers should ““sign off” on student self-assessments, confirming their validity” (p. 8).

### **18.3.2. Stages of the SRSD**

SRSD has six stages of instruction, which are not necessarily completed in order and can be recursive. The first stage is developing student's background knowledge through brainstorming. The second stage deals with discussing the strategy to discover its benefits and expectations. Stage three involves modeling the strategy using 'think aloud'. Stage four needs memorization of the strategy. The fifth stage requires students to practice the strategy with the teacher. The last stage involves students to use the strategy independently.

Now, let us explain these steps more thoroughly.

#### **Stage One: Develop Background Knowledge**

In this stage, basic skills needed to perform the strategy are defined. This may include discussions with students of how to compose successfully, the aim of writing and how to achieve it. To assess for past knowledge, teachers may collect students' writing samples.

Also, students should understand the terms used in the strategy. This is done using a task analysis since it helps teachers figure out whether or not students dominate the prerequisite skills needed to perform the strategy. Teachers can examine students' skills by observing student performance using curriculum-based measures or asking students.

Moreover, development of any needed background knowledge happens in this stage. For example, if students are asked to write a story, both teacher and students discuss what good stories are and analyze models of good stories. Then, the mnemonic acronym (e.g. POW+WWW, What=2, & H=2) and a mnemonic chart with the strategy steps are presented. Besides, students discuss the different parts of the strategy and identify parts of a good essay. Finally, self-regulation strategies, such as goal-setting are presented.

### **Stage Two: Discuss It**

This stage stresses the importance of how and when to use the SRSD model and the selected SRSD writing strategy. Students should make efforts to learn the strategy and self-monitor it in relation to goal-setting. Goal-setting requires setting reasonable, measurable and attainable goals (Regan & Mastropieri, 2009). This is done in relation to individual skills and task analysis of the end product (e.g. length of the essay, number of story elements in a story).

Besides, “students may sign individual learning contracts containing the final goal of writing the targeted essay independently to formalize a commitment to learning the writing strategy and the self-regulation components”(ibid., p. 1). As a matter of fact, teachers need to ‘sell’ the strategy and get students to ‘buy in’. Thus, students need to be involved, which is the first step in self-regulation. In this stage, teachers explain the benefits of using the strategy and how learning the strategy can improve their performance. After that, teachers introduce students to the steps of the strategy. Strategy steps are explained one by one. Moreover, teachers should monitor their students’ understanding and work in cooperation with the students.

Stage one and two may be completed in one lesson.

### **Stage Three: Model It**

Here, writing and self-regulation strategies are modeled through a think-aloud method. There are three tasks that students perform in this stage while observing the teacher: first, they refer to a mnemonic visual, as in the POW+WWW, What=2 & H=2 example; second, they use a graphic organizer to identify components within model compositions; and third, they rehearse the mnemonic strategy.

The graphic organizer, which explains the writing strategy, has spaces which help students note-taking while planning and organizing the composition. For example, in the POW+WWW strategy, the graphic organizer contains spaces for answering the questions: Who? When? Where? What? What? How? And How? With younger children, cue-cards with and without pictures for each strategy step may be used.

Also, in this stage self-reinforcing positive self-statements are introduced. They include ‘self-regulatory techniques’ that are used to back up the motivational and attentional functions during the composing process. Statements differ from what to say to get good ideas, what to say while writing, and what to say when revising work. Students are encouraged to use their own positive self-statements for before, during and after composing. Statements like “It’s difficult, but I can manage it if I try!” can be motivating. After the essay is written, students are shown how to graph essay elements to check whether all story components are included in their essay.

### **Stage Four: Memorize It**

In this stage, students practice the steps of the strategy and the mnemonics. Teachers give students cue cards, common think sheets, planning sheets, and graphic organizers, which remind them of the steps of writing. Thus, students must memorize the steps of the strategy. And to help them doing so, it is crucial to use repetition and variation.

**Stage Five: Support It**

This is the most important stage, and it is done using “scaffolding”. Scaffolding requires a gradual release of responsibility from teacher to students. Students should move from current performance to independent use of strategy. Hence, while students compose, teachers may work with the students by following all of the planning and organizing steps to ensure students’ success. Gradually, as students master the components of the essay writing process, the cue and prompt cards, mnemonic charts and graphic organizers containing strategy steps are removed. Supporting strategies may include the following: providing feedback, working collaboratively on tasks, putting students into small groups, gradually fading help, prompting the particular use of a step, and remodeling the strategy.

Collaboration between teacher and students in SRSD is crucial since it gives the teacher an opportunity to check students’ understanding, and ensure that students have the necessary skills to do the task successfully. If necessary, teachers may go back and teach some pre-skills.

Generally, this stage is the longest for students. When needed, “reinforcing” lessons are used to reinforce or scaffold the use of the strategy and/or mnemonics.

**Stage Six: Independent Performance**

During this stage, students need little to no support from teachers. Students write independently without the use of the graphic organizers. During this phase, students continue making goal-setting and self-monitoring, yet they may extend their learning to work collaboratively with peers, or to work independently. Moreover, teachers monitor students’ use of the strategy to make sure that students are using the strategy properly. Evaluation and assessment should take place in this phase.

### 1.8.3.3. What are the Writing Strategies?

There are many powerful writing strategies that are used in the SRSD model. Following are these strategies.

#### A. Story Writing (POW+WWW, W=2, H= 2)

POW: P= Pick my idea (i.e. decide what to write about), O= Organize my notes (i.e. brainstorm and organize possible writing ideas into a writing plan), W= Write and say more (continue to modify the plan while writing).

WWW: Who is the main character? When does the story take place? Where does the story take place?

W= What 2: What does the main character do? What happens then?

H= How 2: How does the story end? How does the main character feel?

#### B. Story Writing (POW+C-SPACE)

C-SPACE: C= Characters, S= Setting, P= Purpose of what the main character tries to do, A= Action to achieve goal, C= Conclusion of action, E= Emotions of main character.

#### C. Opinion Writing (POW+TREE)

TREE: T= topic sentence (trunk of the tree), R= three or more Reasons (roots of the argument), E= Ending to wrap it up (earth that wraps up the whole argument), E= Examine for all parts or Explain each reason.

#### D. Opinion Writing (STOP+DARE)

STOP: S= Suspend judgment, T= Take a Side, O= Organize ideas, P= plan more as you write.



DARE: D= develop topic sentence, A= Add supporting ideas, R= Reject other side,  
E= End with conclusion.

### **E. Brainstorming or Planning (PLANS)**

P= Pick goals, L= List ways to meet goals, A= filler letter, N= make Notes, S=  
Sequence notes.

### **F. Revision (SCAN)**

S= Does it make Sense? C= Is it Connected to my belief? A= Can you Add  
more? N= Note errors?

### **G. Essay Writing (PLAN+WRITE)**

PLAN: P= pay attention to Prompt, L= List main ideas to develop your essay, A=  
Add supporting ideas, N= Number major points.

WRITE: W= Work from plan, R= Remember your goals,

I= Include transition words, T= use different Types of sentences, E= Exciting,  
interesting words.

## **1.9. Conclusion**

From what we have seen so far, it is clear that different researchers gave different classifications to learning strategies. As a matter of fact, there is no consensus about strategies classification as Oxford (1990) acknowledges:

there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist; how they should be defined, demarcated, and categorized; and whether it is-or ever will be- possible to create a real, scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies....classification conflicts are inevitable. (p. 17)

In the present chapter, we summarized the different definitions given to learning strategies by many researchers (Littlewood, 1984; Oxford, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Williams & Burden, 1997; & Wallace, 1998). Moreover, we gave some of the researchers' classifications of learning strategies, e.g. Rubin's (1975), O'Malley and Chamot's (1990), and we focused on Oxford's classification (1990) since it is the most exhaustive one.

Furthermore, we designed a section in which we compared between learning strategies and learning styles, and we concluded the chapter with learning strategies instruction, in which we included O'Malley and Chamot's model of instruction, "the CALLA" (the Cognitive Academy Language Learning Approach) and Graham and Steve's SRSD model (Self-Regulated Strategy Development).

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## CHAPTER TWO

### MOTIVATION

#### 2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, we will give an overview of the different definitions allotted to the term “motivation”, its types and the different approaches to understanding it. Then we will synthesize the major motivational theories in both psychology and in the second or foreign language field. We will conclude the chapter with how teachers can promote motivation in the foreign language classroom followed by some motivational strategies inspired by Dornyei’s (1994) framework of L2 motivation.

For both teachers and researchers, motivation is an important factor which influences second and foreign language learning. Without motivation, learning an L2 and sustaining the learning process cannot occur. Similarly, without this force, even learners with remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term objectives even if they are empowered with appropriate curricula and good teaching (Dornyei, 1998).

Since L2 motivation has a crucial importance in the classroom, it has become the target of a great deal of research during the past decades. However, motivating learners to learn a second or foreign language has shown to be a complex process because students are demotivated to learn (Al Kaboody, 2013). According to Winne and Marx (1989), motivation is both a condition for, and a result of, effective instruction.

Investigating motivation has been a distinguished area for research in psychology and education for many years; this may reflect the perception of classroom teachers who regard student motivation as the most important factor in educational success (Dornyei, 2001).

Most researchers and teachers agree on the belief that motivation is very important in students' learning. However, the concept of motivation, as will be illustrated in this chapter, is multifaceted insofar as it takes a great number of different disciplines to understand it. In order to understand language learning motivation, we need to consult a myriad of disciplines, such as general, educational, social and cognitive psychology, as well as general educational and social categories and sociolinguistic theories. Moreover, the concept of motivation involves neurobiological and physiological explanations.

The field of research on students' language learning motivation has developed through time. However, the problem, as Dornyei (1996) explains, is not the lack of theories to explain and define motivation, but rather the great number of theories and models.

The term motivation is especially important for language programme designers and administrators since they should motivate learners by interesting programmes which should be congruent with the learners' needs and interests. Motivation is also crucial for teachers who seek to use "pedagogical techniques that reinforce and develop student motivation and to learners themselves, who must sometimes struggle to maintain their internal motivation in order to persist in the inherently difficult task of learning a foreign language" (Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996, p. 10).

## **2.2. Definition of Motivation**

Since motivation is rather difficult to define, it is easier to think of the "motivated learner", "one who is willing or even eager to invest effort in learning activities and to progress" (Ur, 1996, p. 274). Graham and Weiner (1996) assert that a person is highly motivated if he is engaged in an activity that is "interesting, engrossing and involving" (p. 63).

For Williams and Burden (1997):

the concept of motivation is composed of different overlapping factors such as interest, curiosity, or a desire to achieve. These in turn will differ in different situations and circumstances, and also be subject to various external influences such as parents, teachers, and exams. Thus any discussion of motivation is inevitably complicated. (p. 111)

They give a cognitive social constructivist definition to motivation, which is :

Motivation may be construed as

- A state of cognitive and emotional arousal
- Which leads to a conscious decision to act, and
- Gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort
- In order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)

Williams & Burden (1997, p. 120)

They argue that people are aroused in some way and this may be “triggered” by different causes, whether internal or external; internal forces such as curiosity or interest and external forces like another person or event. However, whatever the cause is, the individual’s enthusiasm is activated so that it leads him to make a conscious decision to act in a given way to achieve a certain goal linked to the task which is done. At the end, the authors propose a three-stage model of motivation, which includes a reason for doing something, a decision to do it, and finally sustaining the effort or persisting.

According to Ryan and Deci (2000) “to be motivated means to be moved to do something. A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated” (p. 54). Brown (2000) has given the definition of motivation from the points of

view of different schools. Thus, he says that from a behaviourist point of view motivation is “quite simply the anticipation of reward” (p. 160), so our actions depend on external stimuli. On the other hand, and from a cognitive point of view, motivation is linked to the choices that people do in order to approach or avoid some goals or experiences. From a constructivist point of view, motivation is driven from both a social context and individual choices (Williams & Burden, 1997). Maslow (1970) also considered motivation as a construct in which the attainment of goals could be possible by passing through a hierarchy of needs, three of which were related to community, belonging, and social status. Maslow viewed motivation as dependent on the satisfaction first of fundamental physical needs such as air, water and food, then of community, security, identity and self-esteem and self-actualization.

In 1998, Dornyei defined motivation as a “process whereby a certain amount of instigation force arises, initiates action, and persists as long as no other force comes into play to weaken it and thereby terminates action, or until the planned outcome has been reached” (p. 118). He continues by saying that:

motivation is no longer seen as a reflection of certain inner forces such as instincts, volition, will, and physical energy; neither is it viewed in strictly behavioural terms as a function of stimuli and reinforcement. Rather, current cognitive approaches place the focus on the individual’s thoughts and beliefs (and recently also emotions) that are transformed into action. (p. 118)

In 2001, he writes:

Indeed, in the vast majority of cases learners with sufficient motivation can achieve a working knowledge of an L2, regardless of their language aptitude or other cognitive characteristics. Without sufficient motivation, however, even the brightest

learners are unlikely to persist long enough to attain any really useful language. (p. 5)

### **2.3. Characteristics of Motivated Learners**

Naiman et al. (1978, cited in Ur, 1996, p. 275) gave the following characteristics of motivated learners:

1. Positive task orientation: The learner is sure of his own success when doing a language task.
2. Ego-involvement: The learner wants to succeed in learning in order to support and raise his own positive self-image.
3. Need for achievement: The learner needs to achieve, to overcome difficulties, and succeed in what he plans.
4. High aspiration: The learner is ambitious and demands challenges and top grades.
5. Goal orientation: The learner is very aware of the objectives of learning, and leads his efforts towards achieving them.
6. Perseverance: The learner uses a great effort in learning; besides, he is not discouraged by lack of progress.
7. Tolerance of ambiguity: The learner is not disturbed by a lack of understanding or confusion because he is confident that understanding comes with time.

### **2.4. Different Approaches to Understanding Motivation**

In the first half of the twentieth century, Sigmund Freud's view conceptualised motivation as being determined by basic human "instincts" and "drives", many of them being unconscious or repressed. The middle of the twentieth century was influenced by conditioning theories related to behaviourist psychology, with much research insisting on



how stimuli and responses interact in forming habits. Despite the fact that many findings were taken from experiments with animals like Pavlov's dog or Skinner's rats, much of this knowledge is still relevant for understanding some issues such as the role of practice and drilling, positive and negative reinforcement, or punishment and praise in learning (Dornyei, 2001).

As a matter of fact, the concept of motivation was examined and understood within a behavioural framework trying to understand "what moved a resting organism into a state of activity", with much reliance on concepts such as instinct, drive, need, energisation, and homeostasis (Weiner, 1990). According to Maslow (1943) "homeostasis refers to the body's automatic efforts to maintain a constant, normal state of the blood" (p. 373).

Motivation was considered too complex to investigate directly, and much experimental research conducted on animals was generalised to humans. Reward systems were the backbone of the approach for motivating individuals to show the desired behaviour (Williams & Burden, 1997). This understanding of the concept was visibly not relevant to the educational context and this tradition continued to the sixties with the machine metaphor of motivation (Weiner, 1990). The 1960s came with other important changes. Some humanistic psychologists such as Maslow suggested that the central motivating force in humans' lives is the "self-actualising tendency", which is "the desire to achieve personal growth and to develop fully the capacities and talents we have inherited" (Dornyei, 2001, p. 8).

In his famous "Hierarchy of Needs", Maslow (1970) distinguished between five basic classes of needs, which he defined as:

1. Physiological needs: hunger, thirst, sexual frustration;
2. Safety needs: security, order, and protection from pain and fear;
3. Love needs: love, affection and social acceptance;

4. Esteem needs: gain competence, approval and recognition;
5. Self-actualisation needs: realize one's potential and capabilities, gain understanding and insights

Another approach to motivation is the cognitive approach, which emphasizes on how the individual's conscious attitudes, thoughts, beliefs and interpretation of events influence their behaviour; that is, how mental processes are transformed into action. The cognitive approach views the individual as a purposeful, goal-directed actor, who is in a constant balancing act to coordinate a range of personal desires and goals according to his abilities.

Indeed, the cognitive revolution, which started in the sixties, rendered irrelevant the behavioural mechanical approaches to motivation. Such positivist approaches lost support in philosophy because they simply did not work (Locke, 1996). In the cognitive developmental theory laid down by Piaget, motivation is considered as "a built-in unconscious striving towards more complex and differentiated development of the individual's mental structures" (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p. 23). With the advance of the cognitive approaches the field became more relevant to educational psychologists and the cognitive shift led to concentration on the individual's role in his own behaviour (Weiner, 1994). In other words, there has been a shift toward focusing on why learners choose to engage in academic tasks instead of focusing on what they do and the time they spend doing so as has been the case with the behaviourist approach. Concepts such as goal and level of aspiration replaced the unconscious concepts of drive, instinct and the like. Individual differences were more highlighted with the introduction of psychological concepts such as anxiety, achievement, needs and locus of control. More cognitive concepts were developed during the seventies and eighties like self-efficacy, learning helplessness and causal attributions.

## **2.5. Motivation in Psychology**

### **2.5.1. Ajzen's Theories on Behaviour**

Social psychology believes that attitudes have a directive influence on behaviour since an individual's attitudes towards an object influences his responses to that object. From here emerged two theories: the theory of reasoned action by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and its extension, the theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen (1988). The first theory believes that:

the chief determinant of action is a person's intention to perform the particular behaviour, which is a function of two basic factors, the 'attitude towards the behaviour' and the 'subjective norm'; [the second theory refers to] the person's perception of the social pressures put on him/her to perform the behaviour in question. (Dornyei, 1998, p. 119)

The theory of planned behavior adds a further component to it, 'perceived behavioural control', which is the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour.

#### **2.5.1.1. Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein)**

The theory of reasoned action assumes that individual behaviour is raised by behavioural intentions, which are a function of an individual's attitude toward the behaviour, and subjective norms which surround the performance of the behaviour. Attitude toward the behaviour is defined as the individual's positive or negative feelings about performing a behaviour. It is determined through an assessment of one's beliefs regarding the consequences arising from a behaviour and an evaluation of the desirability of these consequences. Subjective norm is defined as an individual's perception of whether people give importance to the way the individual thinks the behaviour should be performed. The contribution of the opinion of any given referent is weighted by the

motivation that an individual has to comply with the wishes of that referent.

The Theory of Reasoned Action suggests that a person's behaviour is determined by his/her intention to perform the behaviour and that this intention is, in turn, a function of his/her attitude toward the behaviour and his/her subjective norm. The best predictor of behaviour is intention. Intention is the cognitive representation of a person's readiness to perform a given behaviour, and it is considered to be the immediate antecedent of behaviour. This intention is determined by three things: the attitude toward the specific behaviour, the subjective norms and the perceived behavioural control.

#### **2.5.1.2. Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)**

The theory of planned behaviour is an extension of the theory of reasoned action and it was developed by Ajzen in 1988. Its key element is the person's intention to perform a given behaviour. Motivational factors that influence behaviour are captured by intentions; and these intentions show how hard people are ready to try, and of how much an effort they are willing to use to perform the behaviour. And "the stronger the intention to engage in a behaviour, the more likely should be its performance" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181). However, a behavioural intention can find expression in behaviour if this behaviour is under 'volitional control'; i.e. if the person can willingly decide to perform or not the behaviour.

However, not all our behaviours meet this requirement because most behaviours depend on some non-volitional factors such as availability of opportunities and resources (for example, money, time, skills and cooperation of others). And to the extent that a person has the appropriate opportunities and resources, he should succeed in doing so. The theory assumes that behavioural achievement depends on motivation (intention) and ability (behavioural control). And according to the theory of planned behaviour, perceived behavioral control, with behavioural intention, can be used directly to predict behavioral

achievements. Moreover, performance of a behaviour is the function of intention and perceived behavioral control.

The theory postulates three determinants of intention. The first is the attitude toward the behaviour, that is the degree to which an individual has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question. The second is a social factor named subjective norm, which “refers to the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). The third antecedent of intention is the degree of perceived behavioural control, which is the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour. Moreover, the theory of planned behavior distinguishes between three kinds of beliefs-behavioural, normative and control- and between the related constructs of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control. The theory gathers some central concepts in the social and behaviour sciences, defining them in a way that predicts and explains particular behaviours in specific context. And it assumes that attitudes toward the behaviour, together with subjective norms and perceived control over the behaviour are usually found to predict behavioural intentions with a high degree of accuracy. Besides, these intentions, combined with perceived behavioral control, account for a great deal of variance in behaviours.

### **2.5.2. Expectancy-Value Theories**

According to these theories, motivation to do a task is the product of two factors: the individual’s expectancy of success in a given task and the value the individual gives to success in that task. And “the greater the perceived likelihood of goal-attainment and the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual’s positive motivation” (Dornyei, 1998, p. 119). Moreover, these theories, like most cognitive theories, believe that humans are innately active learners with an inborn curiosity and an urge to know their environment and meet challenges.

The theory focuses on the values individuals hold for participating in various types of activities (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Values are incentives or reasons for engaging in an activity. The value of a given task or activity has four components: attainment value, which refers to the personal value of doing well on a task; intrinsic value, which refers to subjective interest or enjoyment of performing a task; utility value, which refers to the extent to which task completion is perceived to facilitate current or future goals; and cost, which refers to the negative aspects of engaging in a given task, such as anxiety and fear of failure (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Stipek, 1996).

Expectancy-value theory was proposed by John Atkinson and Julian Rotter.

#### **a. Atkinson's Theory of Achievement Motivation**

Atkinson's theory states that the tendency to approach an achievement-related goal is the product of three goals: the need for achievement (or the motive for success), the probability that one will be successful at the task, and the incentive value of success.

#### **b. Rotter's Social Learning Theory**

The theory is concerned with the choices that an individual makes when confronted with a variety of ways of behaving. In his theory, Rotter (1954) considered motivation as a function of expectancy and reinforcement. That is individuals engage in actions with the highest expectancy of bringing the most rewarding goal. According to Rotter, expectancy for success was primarily determined by the person's past history in the situation under consideration, and also experiences in similar circumstances.

For Graham and Weiner (1996), expectancy was determined by the perception of the characteristics of the task. Expectancies of success in skill-related situations were more influenced by past success and failure than were expectancies of success in chance-related contexts. In skill-determined tasks, where outcomes are determined by one's own abilities

and effort, expectancies increase after success and decrease after failure. But in chance-determined tasks, such as the flip of a coin or the throw of a die, probabilities remain unchanged following success or failure. This led Rotter (1966) to come with the concept of locus of control (internal and external). Locus of control is concerned with people's perception of whether they are subsequently in control of their actions. When learners are in control of their own learning of a language, this will have a great effect upon their motivation to be continually involved in learning that language (Williams & Burden 1997).

### **c. Attribution Theory**

It falls under the broad rubric of expectancy-value approaches. The theory states that motivation is a temporal process initiated with an event and ending with some behaviour or behavioural intention. Attribution theory attributes success and failures to reasons such as effort, ability, task ease or difficulty, luck, mood, and help or hindrance from others. It also states that all causes are inferred to three dimensions: locus, stability and controllability (Weiner, 1986). In fact, “[l]ocus refers to the location of a cause as internal or external to the actor; stability connotes the invariance of a cause over time; and controllability concerns the extent to which the cause is subject to volitional alteration” (Graham & Weiner, 1996, p. 71).

### **2.5.3. Goal Theories**

A great deal of research on motivation focused on basic human needs, the most important one being Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs, which included five classes of needs: physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualisation. In recent research the concept of 'need' has been replaced by 'goal'. The two most influential goal theories are 'goal-setting theory' and 'goal-orientation theory'.

### 2.5.3.1. Goal-Setting Theory

Goal-setting theory was developed by Locke and Lathan (1990, cited in Ozturk, 2012). The theory states that individuals must have goals to act. O’Neil and Drillings (1994) acknowledge that “the goal-setting theory was based on the premise that much human action is purposeful, in that it is directed by conscious goals” (p. 14). Dornyei (2002) asserts that goal-setting is an easy process that all individuals can learn without difficulty as long as they are shown how to break assignments into smaller tasks.

The theory assumes that there are three features of goals that cause them to be different: difficulty, specificity and commitment. Oztuk (2012) synthesizes the relationship among these three features, and which help individuals’ motivation to increase in the following:

- The more difficult the goal, the greater the achievement,
- The more specific or explicit the goal, the more precisely performance is regulated,
- The highest performance is yielded when the goals are both specific and difficult,
- Commitment to goals is most critical when they are specific and difficult (commitment to general or vague goals is easy since general goals do not require much commitment and vague ones can be “manipulated” to accommodate low performance),
- High commitment to goals is attained when the individual is convinced (a) the goal is important and (b) attainable. (pp. 36-37)

To sum up, goal-setting theory assumes that “human action is caused by purpose, and for action to take place, goals have to be set and pursued by choice” (Dornyei, 1991, p. 120).



### **2.5.3.2. Goal-Orientation Theory**

It was introduced by Ames (1992), who believes that goals work as a mechanism which determines the process of information. Goal-orientation theory was developed in classroom to explain students' learning and performance (Dornyei, 2001). It is related to the student's perception of the causes why he is interested in doing a task. There are two types of goal-orientation: performance and mastery (or learning) orientations (Ames & Archer, 1988; Ames, 1992). Keblawi (2006) explains "learners possessing the first orientation are primarily concerned with looking good and capable, those possessing the second are more concerned with increasing their knowledge and being capable" (p. 38).

Goal-orientation theory explains children's learning and performance in school settings. The theory highlights two contrasting achievement goal constructs: a mastery orientation with the focus on learning the content, or a performance orientation with the focus on demonstrating ability, getting good marks, or out passing other students (Dornyei, 1998).

### **2.5.4. Self-determination Theory**

The self-determination theory, developed by Deci and Ryan (2000), is regarded by Dornyei (2003) as one of the most influential theories in motivational psychology. Many studies conducted by Deci et al. (1991) indicate that "self-determination leads to desired educational outcomes that help both individuals and society" (p. 342).

According to the theory, to be self-determined is to have a choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions. This is referred to as autonomy. However, and unlike most other theories, self-determination theory distinguishes between two classes of behaviour-intentional and motivated. Furthermore, it makes a distinction between self-determined and controlled types of regulation. Motivated actions are self-determined inasmuch as they are

engaged in wholly volitionally and approved by one's own sense of self (Deci & Ryan, 1991), whereas actions are controlled when they are forced by some interpersonal or intrapsychic force. Besides, when a behaviour is self-determined, the regulatory process is choice, whereas when it is controlled, the regulatory process is compliance (or defiance).

Deci et al. (1991) further explain that when a behavior is self-determined the person feels that the locus of causality is internal to his or her self. On the other hand, when it is controlled, the perceived locus of causality is external to the self. The important point in this distinction is that both self-determined and controlled behaviours are motivated or intentional but their regulatory processes are very different.

Locus of causality was introduced by Richard de Charms (cited in Williams & Burden, 1997) to account for whether people see themselves or others as the cause of their actions. The authors consider "people who see themselves as largely responsible for originating their own actions [as] 'origins'...while those who see other people as causing what happens to them ...as 'pawns'(de Charms, 1984)(p. 128)". They (1997) continue saying that:

...the consequences of feeling that the locus of causality lies basically within oneself (i.e. that one is essentially an origin) are that choice, freedom and ownership of behaviour become issues of personal responsibility. On the other hand, feeling oneself to be a pawn in the hands of others abrogates choice and discourages any sense of responsibility for one's actions. (p. 128)

Self-determination theory focuses on three innate needs, which are the need for competence, relatedness and autonomy (or self-determination). Competence deals with understanding how to achieve various external and internal outcomes and being efficient in performing the desired actions; relatedness involves developing safe and satisfying

connections with others in one's social environment; and autonomy is being self-initiating and self-regulating of one's own actions. The theory also stresses the concept of need because of a variety of reasons. First, it gives content to human nature. Second, it combines a variety of phenomena which might not seem linked at a superficial level. And finally, it allows us to specify the conditions that facilitate motivation, performance and development.

Another important point yielded by self-determination theory is its distinction between 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' motivation. Intrinsic motivation "deals with behaviour performed for its own sake, in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's own curiosity" (Dornyei, 1998, p. 121). Extrinsic motivation "involves performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment" (ibid.). For Ryan and Deci (2000), "extrinsic motivation is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcomes" (p. 60) whereas "intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (p. 56). They argue that intrinsic motivation leads to high quality learning and activity; however, it becomes weaker with each advancing grade in schools. Ur (1996) assumes that intrinsic motivation is associated with 'cognitive drive', which is "the urge to learn for its own sake [and] which is very typical of young children and tends to deteriorate with age" (p. 276). For Deci et al. (1991):

Intrinsically motivated behaviours are engaged in for their own sake-for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from performance.....intrinsically motivated behaviours represent the prototype of self-determination-they emanate from the self and are fully endorsed. Extrinsically motivated behaviours, on the other hand, are

instrumental in nature. They are performed not out of interest but because they are believed to be instrumental to some separable consequence. (p. 32)

Ryan and Deci (2000) believe that in humans, intrinsic motivation is a pervasive and important activity. Besides, it exists within individuals, and between individuals and activities.

Self-determination theory is expressed in terms of social and environmental factors which 'facilitate' versus 'undermine' intrinsic motivation. Self-determination theory classifies extrinsic motivation into four types: external regulation, introjected regulation, identification, and integration. Keblawi (2006) defines external regulation as:

actions that individuals pursue and that are determined by sources that are external to the individual, such as tangible benefits and costs. If learning the language is made for such an external incentive and this incentive is removed, the activity of learning will halt. (p. 33)

For example, a learner who does a task to receive the teacher's praise or to avoid parents' confrontation is externally regulated. External regulation is the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation.

Introjected regulation is to take in a regulation and not accept it as one's own. For example, a student who comes to class on time to avoid being seen as a bad person. Introjected regulation is internal to the person, but it is more a part of external control than a self-determined regulation.

Identified regulation happens when the person values the behaviour and accepts the regulatory process, so he does the activity more willingly, and feels a sense of choice or volition about behaviour. Thus, behaviours are considered more autonomous or self-

determined. For example, a student who does extra work in physics because he believes it is important for him to succeed in physics. The motivation is extrinsic since the activity is done for its usefulness, and the behaviour is self-determined because the student does it willingly.

Integrated regulation is the most developmentally advanced form of motivation. Deci et al. (1991) believe that “in this case the regulatory process is fully integrated with the individual’s coherent sense of self; that is, the identifications are reciprocally assimilated with the individual’s other values, needs, and identities” (p. 330). They also argue that behaviours which are regulated by integrated processes are fully self-determined, and that integrative regulation is characterized by the activity’s being personally important for a valued outcome.

Deci and Ryan (2000) hold the assumption that intrinsic motivation “is catalyzed (rather than ‘caused’) when individuals are in conditions that conduce towards its expression” (p. 58). They synthesize the elements which enhance intrinsic motivation in interpersonal structures and events, such as rewards, communications and feedback which lead to ‘feelings of competence’ during action. Others include: optimal challenges, effectance, promoting feedback and freedom from demeaning evaluations. They also argue that autonomy maintains intrinsic motivation. Moreover, the authors hold the belief that many of the educational activities given in schools are not intrinsically interesting, so the problem is how to motivate students to value and self-regulate such activities? This is described within self-regulated theory as fostering the internalization and integration of values and behavioural regulations (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Indeed, “[i]nternalization is the process of taking in a value or regulation, and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self” (ibid., 2000, pp. 60-61). The concept of internalization describes how

one's motivation for behaviour can range from amotivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment. They continue saying "with increasing internalization (and its associated sense of personal commitment) come greater persistence, more positive self-perceptions, and better quality of engagement" (ibid.).

## **2.6. Motivation in Foreign and Second Language Learning**

Learning a foreign language is different to learning other subjects since it involves a change in self-image, the use of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being. As a matter of fact, it has a tremendous impact on the social nature of the learner. Here are some models of language learning motivation which have emerged.

### **2.6.1. Gardner's Social Psychological Approach**

Research into second language motivation dates back to the late 1950s and flourished in the 1970s with the pioneering work of Lambert and Gardner. Gardner (1985) proposed three components of L2 motivation; these are: motivational intensity or effort, desire to learn the language, and attitude towards learning the language (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). Gardner distinguishes between motivation and orientation where orientation stands for a goal. Al Kaboody (2013) defines orientation as "an incentive that gives rise to motivation and steers it towards a set of goals" (p. 46). He assumes that orientations are not part of motivation but work as "motivational antecedents". Moreover, Gardner identifies two types of orientation: an integrative orientation and an instrumental orientation. Integrative orientation occurs when the learner studies a language to integrate into its culture, whereas instrumental orientation describes a number of external factors such as passing an exam, a financial reward, furthering a career or gaining promotion.

Integrative orientation is one of the factors that contribute towards integrative motivation. Gardner and MacIntyre included six variables in their measure of integrative

motivation: attitudes towards French Canadian, interest in foreign languages, integrative orientation, attitudes towards the learning situation, desire to learn French, and attitudes towards learning French. Gardner described the difference between these orientations and actual motivation. Integrative orientation holds that a person wants to learn a foreign language to integrate with that language community. This might or might not lack motivational power. An integrative motive, “[which] is identified when learners also indicate a readiness to act towards those goals” (Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996, p. 12), includes this orientation plus the motivation (desire, motivational intensity, and other attitudes involving the target language community). The integrative motive is made up of three components:

- Integrativeness, which comprises integrative orientation, interest in foreign language, and attitudes towards the L2 community.
- Attitudes towards the learning situation, and they include attitudes towards the teacher, and the course.
- Motivation, which is made up of motivational intensity, desire to learn the language, and attitudes towards learning the language.

Gardner’s model of the ways in which motivation for foreign language learning operates in educational settings has been summarized (Au, 1988; Gardner, 1988, cited in Schmidt et al., 1996, p. 13) in terms of five hypotheses:

- The integrative motive hypothesis: Integrative motive is positively associated with second language achievement.
- The cultural belief hypothesis: Cultural beliefs influence the development of integrative motive and the degree to which integrativeness and achievement are related.

- The active learner hypothesis: Integratively motivated learners are successful because they are active learners.
- The causality hypothesis: Integrative motivation is a cause; second language achievement, the effect.
- The two process hypothesis: Aptitude and integrative motivation are independent factors in second language learning.

Gardner's model incorporates the learners' actual beliefs, their attitudes towards the learning situation, their integrativeness, and their motivation. So, motivation is defined as a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language (Williams & Burden, 1997). Other factors include attitudes towards the learning situation and integrativeness. The desire to learn the language, motivational intensity, and attitudes towards learning the language are measured by the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery or AMTB (Gardner, 1985). The AMTB consists of a series of self-report questionnaires containing a battery of questions to measure 19 subscales which represent different aspects of motivation.

An example of the AMTB includes:

Interest in foreign languages

- If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak the language of the people.

Attitudes towards learning French

- Learning French is really great.
- I really enjoy learning French.

Motivational intensity



- I really work hard to learn French.
- I make a point of trying to understand all the French I see and hear.

Desire to learn French

- To be honest, I really have little desire to learn French.
- I wish I were fluent in French.

Attitude/ Motivation Test battery (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 117)

However, Gardner's model was criticized on the basis of its emphasis on integrative orientation.

### **2.6.2. Clément's Concept of Linguistic Self-Confidence**

According to Dornyei (1998) "self-confidence...refers to the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals or perform tasks competently" (p. 123). He continues by saying that "the concept was originally used to describe a powerful mediating force in multi-ethnic settings that affects a person's motivation to learn and use the language of the other speech community" (ibid.). Clément and his associates claimed that , in contexts where different language communities live together, the quantity and quality of the contact between the individuals will be a major motivational factor, determining future desire for intercultural communication and the extent of identification with the L2 group. Hence, the linguistic self-confidence in Clément's view is a socially defined construct (although it has a cognitive component, the perceived L2 proficiency).

### **2.6.3. Self-Determination Theory in L2 Research**

This has been influenced by Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory on intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and self-determination theory (SDT) in psychology. SDT supports learners' natural or intrinsic tendencies to behave in effective ways. Self-determination theory contains three orientations to motivation: amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic

motivation. First, amotivation happens when learners see no relation between their actions and the consequences of their actions (Al Kaboody, 2013). Indeed, amotivated learners believe that they are wasting their time studying the L2. They do not estimate language learning and do not expect to be successful (Ryan & Deci, 2000). However, we should not confuse amotivation with demotivation, which is a reduction of motivation because of some external forces (Dornyei, 2001).

#### **2.6.4. The Educational Shift of the 1990s**

In the 1990s the research agenda on motivation focused on three underlying themes (a) the social component was not the only incentive for motivation; (b) motivation was related to situation or the task being performed; and (c) more research was encouraged to relate motivation to classroom settings. The two most elaborate frameworks were proposed by Dornyei (1994) and Williams and Burden (1997).

##### **2.6.4.1. Dornyei's 1994 Framework of L2 Motivation**

Dornyei's model of L2 motivation is a good example of the educational approach since it focused on motivation from a classroom perspective. The model underlined L2 motivation in terms of three levels: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level.

The language level is made up of various elements related to aspects of the L2, such as the culture, the community, and the intellectual and pragmatic values and benefits associated with it. Hence, it represents the L2 motivation related with integrativeness and instrumentality.

The learner level deals with the individual characteristics that the learner brings to the learning process, especially self-confidence, reflecting the influence of Clément's work on motivation.

The learning situation level is related with many aspects of the L2 learning, such as course-specific motivational components (the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, and the learning tasks); teacher-specific motivational components (the teacher's personality, behaviour, and teaching style/practice); and group-specific motivational components (related to the characteristics of the learner group).

#### **2.6.4.2. Williams and Burden's Extended Framework**

Marion Williams and Bob Burden (1997) considered L2 motivation to be a complex, multi-dimensional construct, which is either internal or external. In fact, they (1997, pp. 138-140) give an exhaustive list of some internal and external factors which lead to motivation. These are:

##### Internal factors to motivation

1. Intrinsic interest of activity
  - arousal of curiosity
  - optimal degree of challenge (zone of next potential)
2. Perceived value of activity
  - personal relevance
  - anticipated value of outcomes
  - intrinsic value of outcomes
  - intrinsic value attributed to the activity
3. Sense of agency
  - locus of causality (origin versus pawn)
  - locus of control
  - reprocess and outcomes
  - ability to set appropriate goals

#### 4. Mastery

- feeling of competence
- awareness of developing skill and mastery in a chosen area
- self-efficacy

#### 5. Self-concept

- realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required
- personal definitions and judgments of success and failure
- self-worth concern
- learned helplessness

#### 6. Attitudes

- to language learning in general
- to the target language
- to the target language community and culture

#### 7. Other affective states

- confidence
- anxiety, fear

#### 8. Developmental age and stage

#### 9. Gender

### External factors to motivation

#### 1. Significant others

- parents
- teachers
- peers

#### 2. The nature of interaction with significant others

- mediated learning experiences

- the nature and amount of feedback
  - rewards
  - the nature and amount of appropriate praise
  - punishments and sanctions
3. The learning environment
- comfort
  - resources
  - time of day, week, year
  - size of class and school
  - class and school ethos
4. The broader context
- wider family networks
  - the local education system
  - conflicting interests
  - cultural norms
  - societal expectations and attitudes

### **2.7. How Can Teachers Promote Motivation in the Foreign Language Classroom?**

Teachers are one of the most determinant factors of L2 learners' motivation (Dornyei, 1994 & Tanaka, 2005, cited in Al Kaboody, 2013). Teachers play many roles to help students learn a second language: initiator, facilitator, motivator, ideal model of the target language speaker, mentor, consultant, and mental supporter. These roles influence learner's motivation.

Dornyei (2001) proposed a taxonomy of factors by which teachers could motivate their learners, which he named "motivational strategies". He defines motivational

strategies as “techniques that promote the individual’s goal-related behaviour..... Motivational strategies refer to those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and ending positive effect” (p. 28). He argues that the teacher should insist on the internal structure of a language class and cluster the strategies in relation to the different structural units (e.g. strategies to present new material or assign homework). Besides, teachers should design a guide in which some classroom problems are listed and solutions are suggested. Also, teachers should concentrate on key motivational concepts such as learners’ self-confidence.

Here are some motivational strategies suggested from Dornyei (2001) in his book “Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom”:

- Creating the basic motivational conditions, which include: appropriate teacher behaviour, and a good relationship with the students, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.
- Generating initial motivation by enhancing the learners’ language-related values, increasing their expectancy of success, making the teaching materials relevant for the learners, and making realistic learner beliefs.
- Maintaining and protecting motivation by making learning stimulating and enjoyable, presenting tasks in a motivating way, setting specific learner goals, protecting the learners’ self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence, allowing learners to maintain a positive social image, creating learner autonomy, and promoting self-motivating learner strategies.
- Rounding off the learning experience and encouraging self-evaluation by promoting motivational attributions, providing motivational feedback, increasing learner satisfaction, and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner.

Also, Dornyei and Csizer in press (cited in Dornyei, 1998, p. 131) offer ten commandments for motivating language learners. They include:

1. Set a personal example with the teacher's own behaviour.
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
3. Present the tasks properly.
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners.
5. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence.
6. Make the language classes interesting.
7. Promote learner autonomy.
8. Personalize the learning process
9. Increase the learners' goal-orientedness.
10. Familiarize the learner with the target language culture.

Mastoor al Kaboody (2013, p. 49) gives some suggestions to promote motivation in the foreign language classroom. These suggestions include:

1. Creating the basic motivational conditions (e.g. teacher's enthusiasm, safe classroom atmosphere, and cohesive learner group with convenient group norms).
2. Generating students' motivation (generating learners' interest and enjoyment, the target culture, promoting the learners' expectations of success in the L2, explaining the goals of the course, making the teaching materials relevant to the learner, and helping students create realistic beliefs about language learning).
3. Maintaining and protecting motivation (make the learning experience enjoyable and stimulating through varying teaching styles, presentations, materials, and leaning tasks).

On the other hand, Williams and Williams (2011) suggest five key ingredients that impact student motivation. These are: student, teacher, content, method/process, and environment.

### **Ingredient 1: Student**

The student's role in education is no longer regarded as customer or recipient of knowledge, but as a crucial component in the language classroom. There are many factors that are related to the student, and they include the following:

- **Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation:** There are two types of learners: those who are intrinsically motivated and those who are extrinsically motivated. Factors related to intrinsic motivation include involvement (the desire to take part in a learning activity), curiosity (to discover more about students' interests), challenge (discovering the complexity of a learning task), and social interaction (creating social relationships). Meanwhile, the factors that are related to extrinsic motivation include compliance (to meet others' expectation by doing what others want); recognition (to be acknowledged by the public); competition; and work avoidance (to avoid more work than necessary). Intrinsically motivated learners are likely to develop high esteem for learning course information without the use of external rewards or reinforcement. However, extrinsically motivated learners rely only on rewards and desirable results for their motivation, e.g., test scores. These students tend to perform lower academically than intrinsically motivated students. It has been found that nontraditional students have higher levels of intrinsic motivation than traditional students.
- **Various individual and social factors:** Academic motivation is affected by a variety of individual and social factors. For instance, intrinsic motivation is affected by the



reasons for preferring the school or the college, the probability of finding a job after graduation, the order of preference, the future expectation, the distinctiveness of testing and measuring activities at the school, and the desire to complete a Masters' degree. In order to succeed, it is important to be motivated and to make an effort. Extrinsic motivation is mainly affected by the probability of finding a job, the attitude towards the teacher, the peer group, the level of income, the appropriateness of the classrooms, the adequacy of teaching materials, and the number of siblings. The most effective extrinsic motivation is the probability to get a job. Also, some students are very connected to their parents. Hence, involving the parents in encouraging and motivating their children to do well in school or in college may be effective.

- **Hierarchy of needs:** There are some factors that may affect student motivation, such as hunger, thirst, and an unsafe environment. Also, when the teacher always criticizes the student, then the student will probably be less motivated to learn. A student who has a low self-esteem and ego may feel unappreciated and unrecognized. As a matter of fact, the instructor must do his/her best to support the student so that the student can focus his or her attention on learning. Also, the teacher must provide encouragement and opportunities to students to learn.
- **Perceived well-being:** Students' perceptions may be affected by such factors as bad mood, not being able to find parking, or having a disagreement with someone before class. A student must have a well-being or life satisfaction by being content with his or her life including pleasure in daily activities, meaningfulness of life, goodness of fit between desired and achieved goals, mood, self-concept, perceived health, financial security, and social contact. These well-being factors must be implemented inside the classroom to increase satisfaction with the learning

experience, and thus with performance. Other factors, other than the teaching quality, may affect student motivation. These factors include course level, grade expectations, type of academic field, and workload difficulty. The teachers' role is to be compassionate and supportive of the personal life conditions of their students that interfere with the process of learning.

- **Efficient use of energy and focus:** Teachers should teach students how to work using focus and energy. Students should be trained to work efficiently to obtain effective results.
- **Purposeful connection with work:** Student motivation emerges from linking work to such concepts as self-expression, exploration, and sustained creativity. If students can relate their work to a significant and meaningful context, they can reward themselves and master new challenges in a significant and meaningful context. In order to develop student motivation, teachers should create variety into their teaching practices. This variety can cope with students' differences and produce high satisfaction with the course materials. Students should become part in the learning process to take their responsibility in acquiring knowledge.
- **Conscientiousness and achievement:** Conscientious students are found to do better because of differences in achievement motivation capacity. Hence, the teacher's role is to help these students by providing appropriate attention, incentives, and trainings. Moreover, they can help learners to self-regulate motivation for challenging learning tasks.
- **Public speaking competence:** Since speaking in public is a great challenge to most people, students may be trained in this skill to overcome their fears, get rid of their unconscious blocks, and enhance their self-concept. And these, in turn, will help students become more confident and motivated.

- Study time and study habits: Spending much time studying has a positive impact on students' performance. However, this effect may be alienated if students spend little time studying. Students need to increase their study time to increase their performance.
- Lecture attendance: Lectures are valuable learning experiences that lead to high academic performance. Nonetheless, students tend to skip lectures because they consider them as a sort of pressure. Not attending lectures "may simply be a coping strategy that signals difficulty in coping with the content, processes, or schedules associated with formal learning" (Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 5).
- Comprehensive, long-range educational plan: When students develop a long-range educational plan, this will help them to value learning and to dedicate a great time and effort to the learning process. Moreover, this plan will help them become more confident and less fearful of the unknown. However, this plan should be updated continuously in order to be effective.

### **Ingredient 2: Teacher**

Students are more motivated by teachers that they like than teachers that they dislike. Teachers' role has shifted from "preprogrammed knowledge dispensers to instead managers of student learning and the learning environment" (Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 6). Teachers must have clear goals to achieve in the classroom. They should use many approaches to achieve these goals. In addition, they should be empowered with appropriate training to support them in this task including more time for peer interaction to share views on what is effective. The following suggestions concern Ingredient 2 or teacher contributions to student motivation:

- Subject knowledge and motivational level: The most important characteristics of teachers are their knowledge of the subject matter and

their level of motivation. University students are motivated by “the professor’s knowledge of the subject matter, the professor’s sense of humor, the motivational level of the professor, high quality of teaching, intellectual challenge, engagement in class, and academic help outside of the class” (Weinstein, 2010, cited in Williams & Williams, 2011).

- **Teacher skills:** The teacher is an important extrinsic factor in the educational context. It has been found that learners perform better if they: (a) study in smaller schools where they are well known, (b) make part of smaller classes, (c) study a challenging curriculum, and (d) are taught by teachers who have great expertise and experience. Teachers should stay calm, eliminate negative thoughts and feelings, and avoid stress. They should also take into account that students have their own personalities, and maintain a sense of humor.
- **Teacher qualifications:** Beside their qualifications, teachers should acquire new skills and continue to improve themselves academically. Teaching requires subject matter knowledge, classroom management skills, and “pedagogical content knowledge” (PCK) which “represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction” (Shulman, 1987, p. 8).
- **Test giving:** Tests that are given by teachers should be motivating and should have thematic relevance, that is, they should aim at checking what students have learned and whether they can apply it to real-life tasks. Tests that are more demanding or challenging than what has been learned in class

will have negative effects on student motivation. In addition, tests should be devised upon course objectives and should not contain any surprise or novelty. Also, test questions should be easy for test takers to process, even when the content is very challenging. As a rule, test instructions, terminology, layout, and item choices should not be ambiguous, confusing, illogical, unclear, imprecise, or poorly designed (Trugman, 2007).

- Scientific management and human relations: Teachers should approach students from both scientific management viewpoint and human relations viewpoint. Teachers can use many techniques to motivate their students, such as: using new teaching techniques, encouraging students to use technology, making learning both interesting and entertaining, helping students outside of the classroom, motivating them to achieve at their maximum level, encouraging students to become passionate about learning, discussing contemporary topics, being devoted to their students, and encouraging practical work experiences.
- Conscious of small details: Teachers should be conscious of all details, including the small ones. These details include how information is presented, the activities that teachers use, how teachers interact with students, how much control they exert on their students, and whether students work alone or in groups.
- Reach out to students: When student are engaged in the learning process, they become more motivated to achieve. The teachers' role is to catch students' attention from their family, their personal activities, and other factors, such as surfing the Web, writing instant-messaging, constantly using social media, cell phones and applications, text-messaging, playing

video games, etc. Teachers should reach out to students to help them learn better.

- Know your students and build on their strengths: Teachers should use the strengths that students bring to the classroom. Moreover, they should know their students' learning styles and design activities that go with each student's learning style. In addition, teachers are required to teach their students how to find information and how to evaluate the validity of the information (McGlynn, 2008).
- Value and build relationship: Since teaching is an activity that is based on communication, building relationships is very important. Some factors are important in building such relations, such as trust, respect, group-work, and empathy.
- Relational turning points: These elements have been found to affect student motivation. A turning point is defined as "any event associated with a change in the relationship" (Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 8). There are six turning point event types that have been found: instrumental, personal, rhetorical, ridicule/discipline, locational, and other person (ibid.). These relational turning point events can be either positive or negative. Yet, only the ridicule/discipline category was most commonly regarded as negative. Generally, positive turning points act on students' interests and needs by providing support and discussing common interests. Meanwhile, negative turning points fail to meet students' needs or expectations. Relational turning points may have strong positive or negative consequences. Indeed, positive relational turning points have a positive effect on student motivation (Docan-Morgan & Manusov, 2009).

- **Enthusiasm:** Students believe that a topic is interesting when the teacher is enthusiastic about it. Hence, teacher enthusiasm can motivate students. Enthusiasm may be expressed “by facial expressions, body language, stating preferences, describing personal experiences or amazing facts, showing collected artifacts, using humor, putting energy into their lesson preparation, and meticulously preparing materials” (Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 9). The teacher should be enthusiastic to motivate his/her students.

### **Ingredient 3: Content**

Content should be accurate, timely, relevant and useful to the student in his or her life. These are some suggestions for Ingredient 3 or content contributions that enhance student motivation.

- **Students experience success and achievement:** When students experience success, they become motivated since success leads to self-confidence. To achieve this goal, learning tasks must be moderate and have an achievable level of difficulty so that students experience success in their learning. Some techniques to ensure this success include: state the lesson’s objective; use clear explanations; ask students questions and invite them to express their comments, questions, and ideas; and provide accessible activities and assessment tasks (Palmer, 2007).
- **Student ownership:** Teachers should allow students to share some responsibilities in the classroom, such as to set class rules, design learning goals, select learning activities and assignments, and decide whether to work in groups or individually. However, students should understand that they cannot interfere in some classroom aspects.
- **Student choices:** Students should be given choices in order to be motivated.

These choices may include: their partners, and their assignment topics. However, these choices must meet students' needs, interests, goals, abilities, and cultural backgrounds.

- **Build competency:** Content should challenge students' beliefs, actions, and imaginations. This can be done by having them investigate varied topics. Courses that are more interesting and more personally relevant to students are more motivating. In this regard, teachers should bring students' attention to the relevance of the information they give to future job, quality of life, and/or life skills (Olson, 1997).
- **Creativity and critical thinking:** Students should acquire creative and critical thinking, which involves defining the learning task, setting goals, establishing relevant criteria, researching and gathering information, activating prior knowledge, generating ideas, organizing, analyzing, and integrating all the information (Olson, 1997).
- **Students feel connected:** Content should include activities that relate to the student feeling connected. Student/teacher interactions should be built on trust, respect, caring, and concern. One way to build fruitful relationships between teacher and students is to send a welcoming e-mail, instant messaging or social networking before the first day of school or college. This is believed to enhance student motivation.
- **Novelty:** Novel content can be challenging to students, who will make efforts to understand it. There are many ways to introduce novelty on content; these include using different events and demonstrations, surprising facts, fantasy, or games (Palmer, 2007).
- **Timely and relevant to real life:** The content should be relevant to real life to



increase students' motivation. Hence, teachers should design assignments that use everyday materials and situations, and use personal anecdotes (Palmer, 2007).

- **Variety:** Variety has a positive correlation with student motivation. Variety can be achieved through learning tasks in which the learners are physically active with a thinking component (Williams & Williams, 2011).
- **Technology and information from the Internet such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and phone apps:** Since students love the Internet, teachers should use it to give examples, or demonstrations of topics from Internet sites that are interesting to students. Moreover, the Internet helps both students and teachers to keep in touch with current issues. Yet, the teacher should teach students how to assess the validity and safety of Internet sites and information.

#### **Ingredient 4: Method/Process**

The method or process means how content is presented, that is, the approach that is used in teaching. There are two approaches to enhance classroom motivation, which are, (1) a motivating classroom environment and (2) a self-regulated learner (Alderman, 1999). In order to improve Ingredient 4 or the method/process contributions to student motivation, these points should be taken into consideration:

- **Incentives:** Incentives include helping the student get a scholarship/job/work study or participate in a sponsored competition featuring financial awards (Williams & Williams, 2011). However, the use of rewards and punishments helps in controlling the students' immediate classroom behaviour, but it does not develop an intrinsic, long-term desire or commitment to learning (Daniels, 2010; Campbell and Niles, 2006).

- **Experiential learning or self-learning:** At college, experiential learning or self-learning should be used. Experiential learning occurs “when an individual is actively involved with concrete experience, that is, a student cognitively, affectively, and behaviorally processes knowledge, skills, and/or attitudes such that knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 11). Smith and Kolb (1986) related individual experiential learning differences to four learning styles or ways in which the mind works:
  1. **Convergent learning style** (the learner treats abstract conceptualization and active experimentation; he may have solutions to the wrong problems, and he excels at technical tasks).
  2. **Divergent learning style** (the learner deals with concrete experience and reflective observation; he may be paralyzed by alternatives generated, and people oriented).
  3. **Reflective or assimilator learning style** (the learner loves ideas and concepts, theoretical professions, theory but does not like application, and ideas over people).
  4. **Doer or accommodator learning style** (the learner makes concrete experience and active experimentation; he carries out plans and likes changing the environment; he may produce tremendous ends but all in the wrong area, and prefers trial and error method).
- **Mutual goals or objectives:** Both learners and teacher should agree on mutual goals or objectives. Some of the common goals that promote learning in the educational organization include group work, mutual respect and trust, and sense of ownership. Moreover, goals should be related to performance evaluation and rewards. Rewards may include teacher’s support, the valuing and respect of ideas, and encouragement (Ahmed, Loh, & Zairi, 1999; MacGrath, 2005).

- **Verbal conformity:** Verbal conformity means that the student repeats all or part of the goal in his or her own words in order to achieve it. This can be done through explaining the goal to a third party, or writing a memo on the subject. Before using verbal conformity, the student needs to understand the goal first (Pollock, 1999).
- **Flexible and stimulating just-in-time training and interactivity:** In order to support learners to achieve their goals, teachers should use flexible and stimulating just-in-time training which helps the student to train at his or her own pace and time. This is achieved through interactivity, which focuses on how the students interact with the learning material. Also, the use of technology and the Internet is important to build interactivity and just-in-time learning.
- **Different types of framing:** Teachers should know that the way we consider a problem may lead to different preferences or shifts in judgment. Learners who experience an enjoyable experience during training and game-based training are more likely to consider the educational system to be easier to use and are more motivated (Venkatesh, 1999).
- **Objective criteria:** The criteria of objectives should be clearly communicated and used in testing and evaluating student success. This clarity can be very motivating. Some of the motivational factors may include “rewarding students for their success, appreciating them both verbally and in writing, providing them with opportunities to improve themselves and use their creativity, and allowing them to participate in the decision-making process and to assume responsibility” (Celikoz, 2010, cited in Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 13).
- **Encouragement and praise:** Positive verbal encouragement, esteem and praise can strongly influence student motivation. Teachers should praise their students for effort and for improvement, which leads to student’s self-confidence.

- Casework: Cases increase learning and student motivation; in particular, case relevance is based on “relevance of the topic, importance of the topic, application to career interests, and integration of the subcomponents of the topic, e.g., business functional areas” (Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 13).
- Guided discussion: Discussion is a powerful strategy for motivating students. Through discussion, students can integrate reading comprehension with critical thinking using analysis and synthesis of information. In this case, learners relate the textual knowledge, news or current events with their personal experiences, thus making them motivated (Newstreet, 2008).
  - Reinforcement strategies: There are two reinforcement strategies that have been found to lead to higher test scores: reviewing the concepts described in the study guide and silent reading of class notes. Both of these strategies may be used to increase student motivation (Carrell & Menzel, 1997).
  - Positive social interactions: Students become more engaged in learning when they have positive social interactions with their peers and their teacher. Social interaction happens when learners work in groups, have group discussions, group projects, and group presentations. Yet, the students should be prepared well in the skills needed to make the group work effectively (Palmer, 2007).
  - Storytelling: Storytelling has many advantages, such as changing the pace of a class, motivating students, generating reflection, and creating common meanings and understandings. Both teacher and students can tell factual and/or fictitious stories. When students tell stories, they become an integral part of the learning process. Students will be motivated if the storytelling is sufficiently challenging and relevant (Miley, 2009).

- **Enhanced lecture:** Teachers should find ways to improve students' attention during lectures. These techniques include starting the lecture with a chart, a problem, an author's quote, or an interesting question. Besides, these techniques may take the forms of quizzes, visual aids, films, questions on the board or through e-mail, and handouts, board games, and video games. Teachers should make the lecture interesting by including the latest research, and using humor. They also have to use students' multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1990) and learning styles (Dunn & Dunn, 1978), e.g., visual, auditory, or tactile/kinesthetic learners. Lectures should be motivating, challenging and inspiring.
- **Collaborative quiz:** The collaborative quiz not only uses the same questions as a regular quiz, but it also provides an opportunity for students to take part in classroom experience. As a result, learners work collaboratively to find answers. Yet, the teacher should monitor the process to produce a fair grading (Quinn & Echerson, 2010).

### **Ingredient 5: Environment**

The environment must be available, accessible, and motivating for students. Moreover, the environment can be physical as well as mental, emotional, and even spiritual (Williams & Williams, 2011). To create a motivating environment for students, these notes should be taken into consideration:

- **Create an effective environment:** According to Rumsey (1998), when creating an effective environment, teachers should consider the following: an effective presentation of the teaching material, the use of interesting classroom activities and real-life exercises, fostering positive peer social interaction and exchange, moving from simple to more complex problems,

the use of interesting written texts, encouraging student discovery, developing positive attitudes, and encouraging critical thinking.

- Individual and learning system design differences: According to Lengnick-Hall and Sanders (1997), both individual and learning system design differences influence the learning environment. For example, students should strive to accomplish effective goals by understanding the course objectives. When students take charge of their learning, they gain self-esteem and confidence, more choices, and higher levels of commitment to best meet their personal learning goals.
- Include the study of self-information: Students are intrinsically interested in the study of information that deals with themselves and with their own personal interests. So, teachers should find creative ways of knowing and incorporating self-information into the classroom.
- Empowerment: Empowerment, which means vested authority or enablement, can contribute positively to the learning environment. Enablement means having the right tools and support when they are needed.
- Engagement and considering student and teacher opinions: The learning environment should take into account students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations beside students' and teachers' opinions in arranging the environment. The elements that make part of the learning environment include materials, tools, and equipment that are needed in the educational process.
- Teamwork: Teamwork has been found to raise students' motivation. Each team needs four competencies: generate and refine ideas, organize and integrate work, sustain group spirit, and manage boundaries.

- Structures: Teachers and educational personnel should put in place structures that provide an optimal learning environment for learners. These structures should encourage students to express their own ideas, participate in discussions, compare and contrast ideas, and be able to learn from each other. These structures can “lead to increased student-faculty interaction, elevated student-to-student relations, and the development of critical thinking skills that in turn affect student motivation and academic success” (Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011, cited in Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 17).
- Distance and online learning: Distance and online learning environments are taking the lead nowadays. However, motivating students online can be difficult and challenging for teachers. Distance and online communication should be flexible, friendly, and clear. In distant and online learning, teachers and students should have consistent contact with technical support personnel. Distance and online learning may be as effective as traditional learning.
- Emotionally literate environment: It has been found that emotional literacy correlates positively with “achievement, mental health issues, behavior, and workplace effectiveness” (Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 17). Teachers can help students create an emotionally literate environment by equipping them with essential life skills and learning behaviours, such as self-awareness, empathy, managing feelings, motivation, and social skills. As a result, teaching should focus not only on pedagogical techniques, but also on the social and emotional dynamics of the student-teacher relationship.

As a conclusion, we can say “What is the best way to motivate students?”. The answer may be that all of these strategies can be used, as often as possible. Understanding student motivation is not an easy task to achieve. There were many theories related to motivation; however, no theory seems to be complete in and of itself. Hence, we may hold all of these theories simultaneously in mind, and then try to translate them into the classroom, using the items that are effective and useful in each teacher’s unique classroom situation. As a matter of fact, it seems that motivation in the classroom is a function of five components: student, teacher, content, method/process, and environment. The components of any of these five elements could contribute to and/or hinder motivation. Teachers may start just by choosing and trying two or three new possibilities to raise student motivation.

## **2.8. Conclusion**

This chapter considered various definitions given to the term “motivation” by researchers, such as Ur, Graham and Weiner, Williams and Burden, Ryan, Deci, Brown, and Dornyei. It also reviewed two approaches to understand motivation, which are behaviourism and cognitivism. Besides, it explored the different motivational theories in psychology, like expectancy-value theories, goal theories and self-determination theories. Moreover, it considered motivational theories in the foreign and second-language learning, which are Gardner’s social psychological approach, Clement’s concept of linguistic self-confidence, and self-determination theory in L2 research. The chapter ended with some suggestions to promote learners’ motivation. To conclude, we can say that we must recognize the complexity of motivation and strive to apply it in our language classrooms.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

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## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **THE WRITING SKILL**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

Writing is one of the most difficult skills because it requires a variety of other sub-skills, such as the development of an idea, the mastery of mental representations of knowledge and the experience with subjects (Horvath, 2001). The different steps used by both novice and experienced writers have been studied by a multitude of disciplines. These include: cognitive psychology, writing pedagogy, text linguistics, hypertext theory, critical literary theory, second language acquisition, rhetoric and stylistics.

Zamel (1992) writes: “[w]riting, because it allows us to represent to ourselves our learning, our ways of making meaning, teaches us the most profound lesson about how we read, write, and use language, about what it means to know” (p. 481). However, of the four language skills (reading, speaking, listening, and writing), writing skill has, for a long time, been underestimated (Dempsey, Pytlikzillig & Burning, 2009).

This chapter is an overview of the writing skill, both for natives and foreigners. First, we will give the definitions allotted to this skill, and then we will shed some light on ESL and EFL writing, and review the different theories to writing and writing as a cognitive process. Next, we will tackle the different approaches used to teach writing; i.e. the product approach, the process approach, the genre approach, the process-genre approach, and the strategy approach. Finally, we will consider the ways of assessing writing, followed by some techniques that help boost students’ composition skills.

### 3.2. Definition of Writing

For Zamel (1983) writing is “nonlinear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning” (p. 165). The Griffith Institute for Higher Education (2004) defines written communication as follows:

Written communication is the ability to use the conventions of disciplinary discourse to communicate effectively in writing with a range of audiences, in a variety of modes (e.g., persuasion, argument, exposition), as context requires, using a number of different means (e.g., graphical, statistical, audio-visual and technological). (p. 1)

Kellogg (2008) summarizes the elements of composing a text in the following: the language system, the cognitive system of memory, thinking, and problem solving. Moreover, he sees the development of writing skills in three stages: Knowledge-Telling, Knowledge-Transforming and Knowledge-Crafting.

He (2008) explains:

It takes at least two decades of maturation, instruction, and training to advance from (1) the beginner's stage of using writing to tell what one knows, to (2) the intermediate stage of transforming what one knows for the author's benefit, and to (3) the final stage of crafting what one knows for the reader's benefit. (p.3)

Hence, Kellogg assumes that the development of written composition skills progress through three stages: Knowledge-Telling Knowledge-Transforming Knowledge-Crafting.

a. Knowledge-telling

The stage of knowledge-telling consists of creating or retrieving what the author wants to say and then generating a text to say it. In this stage, the writer takes into account the reader's needs. Moreover, the writer struggles with understanding what the text actually says. Beal (1996, as cited in Kellogg, 2008) asserts that young writers who write by telling their knowledge are unable to see the literal meaning of their texts, as those texts would appear to prospective readers. Also, young writers focus on their thoughts not on how the text itself reads.

b. Knowledge-transforming

The second stage of knowledge-transforming requires changing what the writer wants to say as a result of composing the text. This process is done through an interaction between the writer's representation of ideas and the text representation itself. What the author writes “feeds back on what the author knows in a way not observed in knowledge-telling” (Kellogg, 2008, p. 7). In the process of reviewing the composition or even the ideas, the author uses additional planning and additional language generation. However, in the process of reading the text, the writer builds a representation of what the text actually says. Kellogg (*ibid.*) assumes that “during knowledge transforming, the act of writing becomes a way of actively constituting knowledge representations in long-term memory ... rather than simply retrieving them as in knowledge-telling” (p. 7). In knowledge transforming, many stages in the writing process interact with each other; these stages include planning, language generation, and reviewing. In this stage, the text produced is “a greatly condensed version of the author’s thought processes” (Kellogg, 2008, p. 7). The writer can use text representations when the transition to knowledge-transforming is completed.

c. Knowledge-crafting

Knowledge-crafting is characterized by the progression to professional expertise in writing. In this stage, the writer must maintain and manipulate in working memory an image of the text that might be constructed by an imagined reader, a writer and text representations. In knowledge-crafting, the writer imagines what to say and how to say it with the reader in mind. At the end, what characterizes the knowledge-crafting of experienced writers is the ability “to keep in mind how a reader would interpret the text as well as representing the author's ideas and what the text says, in its present form, communicates to the author and to the reader” (Kellogg, 2008, p. 10).

Finally, Kellogg argues that the first two stages are well-researched and mastered by native speakers by advanced high school and college students, whereas the last stage is seldom researched and concerns only professional writers.

On the other hand, Deane et al. (2008) write the following:

A single piece of writing may do several things at once: tell a story; present facts and build a theory upon them; develop a logical argument and attempt to convince its audience to adopt a particular course of action; address multiple audiences; clarify the thinking of the author; create new ideas; synthesize other people's ideas into a unique combination; and do it all seamlessly, with the social, cognitive, rhetorical, and linguistic material kept in perfect coordination. (p. 2)

For Özdemira and Aydina (2015) “[w]riting is a process of discovery, focusing of not only final product but also the processes such as thinking, drafting and reviewing” (p. 373).

### 3.3. ESL/ EFL Writing

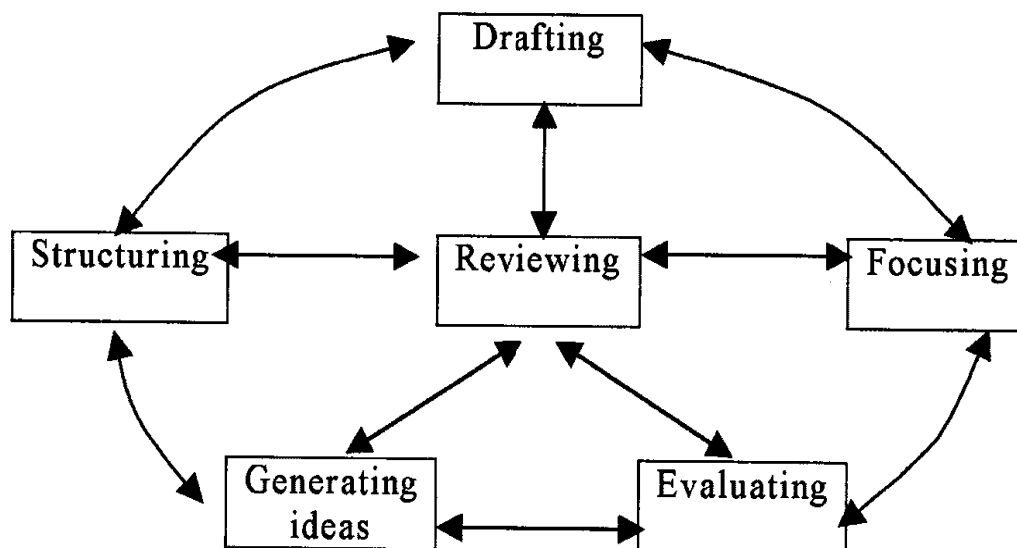
This section deals with the skills ESL learners need to master to write effectively in a second or foreign language. Moreover, it sheds some light on how teaching these skills may help learners to achieve this aim.

Barkaoui (2007) writes the following about ESL writing:

Writing is one of the most difficult skills that second-language (L2) learners are expected to acquire, requiring the mastery of a variety of linguistic, cognitive, and socio-cultural competencies. As many teachers attest, teaching L2 writing is a challenging task as well. (p. 35)

Many studies were carried out to investigate the use of L1 processes in L2 writing. Among these, we can cite Arndt (1987), who studied the compositions of six graduate Chinese students. The results of her study showed that students used consistent composing strategies during the writing process. Moreover, they showed a limited knowledge of the nature of the task.

In 1991, White and Arndt, who confirmed the recursive nature of writing, developed a writing model to investigate the writing process. The authors argued that composing a text requires six recursive (nonlinear) procedures, which are generating ideas, focusing, structuring, drafting, reviewing, and evaluating (see Figure 3.1).



*Figure 3.1: White and Arndt's model (1991, p. 4)*

White and Arndt showed that during the pre-writing stage, learners use brainstorming “by relying on their schemata or long-term memory in order to come up with supporting details for the topic” (Alharthi, 2011, p. 60). During the stage of drafting, learners write many drafts by using external data from both teachers and peers. In the editing or evaluating stage, writers edit their compositions for any content or organization mistakes. Finally, reviewing requires re-reading the composition and comparing it with the goals set at the beginning of the writing process.

### **3.3.1. What L2 Learners Need to Learn**

As teachers of written expression we may ask ourselves what do our learners need to learn to master the writing skill of a second/foreign language? To answer this question, we have considered the views of three theoretical orientations: text-focused, process-focused and socio-cultural.

The first orientation, i.e. text-oriented research considers the elements of texts that the learners write. These elements include: the orthography, morphology, lexicon, syntax,

plus the discourse and rhetorical conventions of the L2. The learners are required to write long texts that include relevant meta-discourse features, such as connectors and exemplifiers. Moreover, these texts should have varied and sophisticated lexicon and syntactic structures. Besides, these learners should use different types of texts, such as narration, description and argumentation. And finally, they are required to use others' ideas and texts in their written productions (Cumming, 2001).

The second orientation, i.e. process-oriented research focuses on the acquisition of successful writing strategies. These strategies are classified into two types: macro and micro strategies. Macro strategies include steps in the writing process such as planning, drafting and revising. Micro strategies include both content and form, and appropriate use of syntax and vocabulary (Cumming, 2001).

In this perspective, Roca De Larios, Murphy, and Marin (2002) list five major behaviours that L2 writers need to acquire:

The ability to manage complex mental representations, the ability to construct rhetorical and organizational goals and hold them in mind while composing, the efficient use of problem-solving procedures in order to formulate their texts, the ability to distinguish between editing and revision as two different operations distributed in different stages of the composition process, and the adoption of a flexible attitude toward the use of rhetorical devices. (p. 27)

The last orientation, i.e. socio-cultural research focuses on the genres, values and practices of the target community. It focuses on both context and audience in writing.

Learners should master macro features like adapting information and aspects of the message to recipient needs and knowledge, and micro-discursive acts such as negotiating, formulating, and mediating (Candlin, 1999, as cited in Hyland, 2002; Cumming, 2002).



If we take these findings into consideration, we can find ways that help us best teach writing in the L2 classroom. For instance, process-oriented research suggests teaching effective writing processes in an explicit way. Text-focused theory emphasizes the importance of modeling target texts whereas socio-cultural orientation focuses on both text forms and other elements, such as the contexts, audiences, purposes, and functions of texts (Barkaoui, 2007). Barkaoui (2007) concludes with the following:

The three orientations emphasize the importance of encouraging learners to engage in writing frequently and of providing them with useful and appropriate feedback and support. In addition to addressing the linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural aspects of learning, L2 writing teachers need to attend to affective factors as well. (p. 37)

Also, these theories suggest other ideas that may help L2 learners become better writers. The first suggestion is to provide them with opportunities to write even before they master the adequate skills. The second suggestion is to integrate reading and writing and encourage students to read and write outside the classroom. Another technique is to use writing workshops where students can be actively working by researching, talking and writing texts (Williams, 2003 cited in Barkaoui, 2007).

### **3.4. Writing Theories**

For many years, the most persuasive writing model was designed by Kaplan (1983) and was based on contrastive rhetoric, which focused on prescriptive approaches in the teaching of writing. Kaplan argued that writers develop their thought following a linear model, beginning with a thesis, and then using support and coherent paragraphs. The objective of the writing pedagogy was to make a comparison between the elements of composition in the mother tongue and in the target language to discover the differences

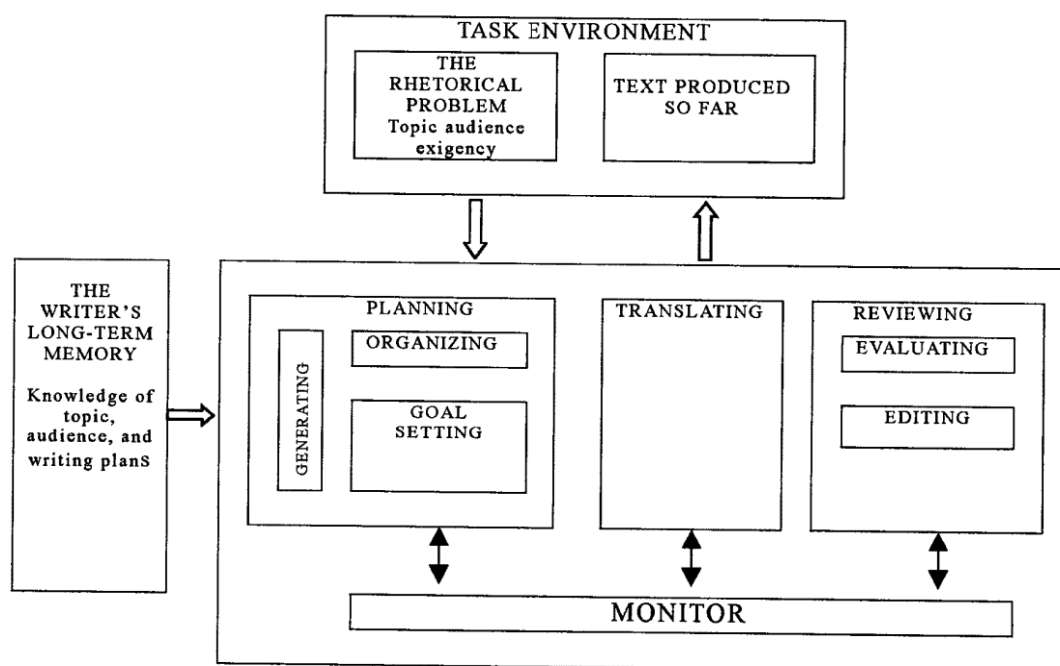
between the two. There was only one technique used to teach writing which was imitating paragraphs. This approach was dominant until the mid seventies, when it moved to a more process-oriented writing pedagogy, focusing on the writer and the context of writing. It also emphasized on language communication, and collaboration between the teacher and the learners and among the learners themselves.

The most widespread models were those of Hayes and Flower (1980) and Flower and Hayes (1981), who suggested a model based on three principles. First, the different processes of writing, such as planning, organizing and revising interact with each other. Second, the writer should achieve an objective. And finally, the processes of writing are dealt with differently by experienced and inexperienced writers.

Hayes and Flower's cognitive process theory on writing is founded on four paradigms:

1. Writing is a group of thinking processes that the writers use during the process of writing.
2. These processes are organized in such a way that any process can be embedded within another one.
3. The act of writing is a thinking process that is goal-directed, and that is guided by the writer's own goals.
4. The writers make their goals in two ways: by producing high-level goals and supporting sub-goals which express the writer's purpose, and by changing important goals or sometimes creating new ones based on what has been learned in the act of composing.

The following figure summarizes Hayes and Flower's (1981) writing model



*Figure 3.2: Flower and Hayes' model (1981, p. 11)*

The diagram shows that Flower and Hayes' model divides the writer's writing world into three main components: the task environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the writing process. The first two components refer to what goes on round the writer and affects the production of the text.

Both the task environment and the writer's long-term memory are the circumstances in which the model works. The task environment includes the following elements: the topic, the audience, the writer's motivations, and the text under process. The writer's long-term memory is where the writer stores knowledge of the topic, the audience, and the writing plans. The third component deals with the writing processes, i. e. planning, translating the ideas into written pieces, and reviewing. The three components are controlled by a monitor. The monitor limits each stage, and leads to the next appropriate activity.

As a matter of fact, the process of planning involves setting an internal representation in the writer's mind. Planning includes three sub-processes: generating ideas, organizing information, and setting goals. Its purpose is to gather data from the task environment and long-term memory, and use it in making goals or plans to produce a written text. During the translation process, the ideas produced in the planning process are transformed or translated into language. The ideas that are used in the composition process are retrieved from memory under the control of the writing plan.

Finally, reviewing, which is a conscious process, is divided into two sub-processes: "evaluating and editing" or revising. The writer reads his work to evaluate or revise it. The monitor is used to move from one step to another.

Flower and Hayes's (1981) model describes the writing process "as a linear series of stages, separated in time, and characterized by the gradual development of the written product" (pp. 366-367). These stages include: pre-writing, writing and re-writing.

Flower and Hayes (1981) argue that the problem with stage descriptions of writing is that they describe the development of the written text, "not the inner process of the person producing it" (p. 367). For example, "Pre-Writing" is the stage before words are written on paper; "Writing" is the stage in which a text is being written; and "Re-Writing" is a final editing of that text. However, research has shown that writers are going back and forth while they are composing, i.e. planning (pre-writing) and revising (re-writing) as they compose (write). Besides, making clear distinctions between stages may affect the work of these activities.

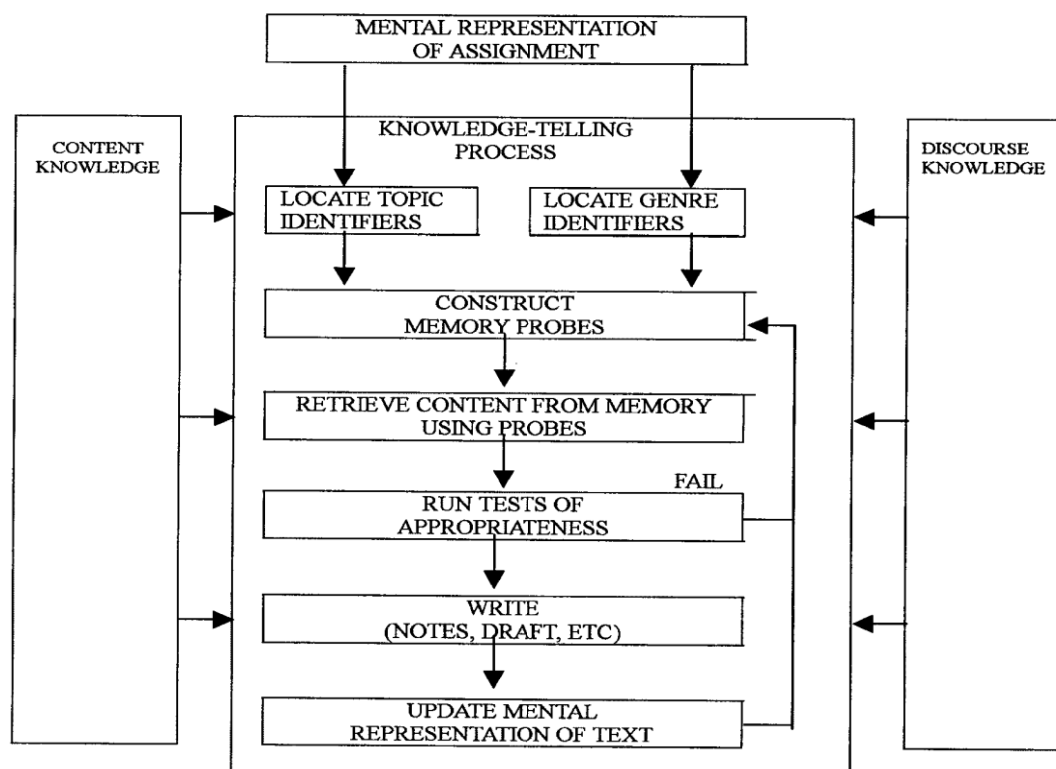
Flower and Hayes's theory proposed a task environment, composed of a rhetorical problem and a produced text. Moreover, it dealt with the steps of the writing process, i.e. generating, translating and reviewing, and suggested that these are monitored by a monitor.

However, this model was heavily criticized since it relied on a think-aloud protocol. Critics argued that explaining what was going on in the writers' mind while they were composing was of a limited validity.

In 1987, Bereiter and Scardamalia suggested a theory which concluded that different models described different levels and contexts. Besides, it tried to shed light on how and why experienced and inexperienced writers' compositions differed. Bereiter and Scardamalia's theory was based on two models: "knowledge-telling," and "knowledge-transforming." The first deals with the processes undertaken by novice writers. In both types of knowledge, the author deals with three factors: knowledge of content, knowledge of discourse, and ideas of a writing assignment.

Nonetheless, in knowledge –telling, the writer collects the necessary material and vocabulary whereas in knowledge-transforming, the writer identifies a unique problem and goal and seeks to solve this problem through the writing process. However, how one move from one level to another was not explained.

The following figure represents Bereiter and Scardamalia's knowledge-telleing model (1987)

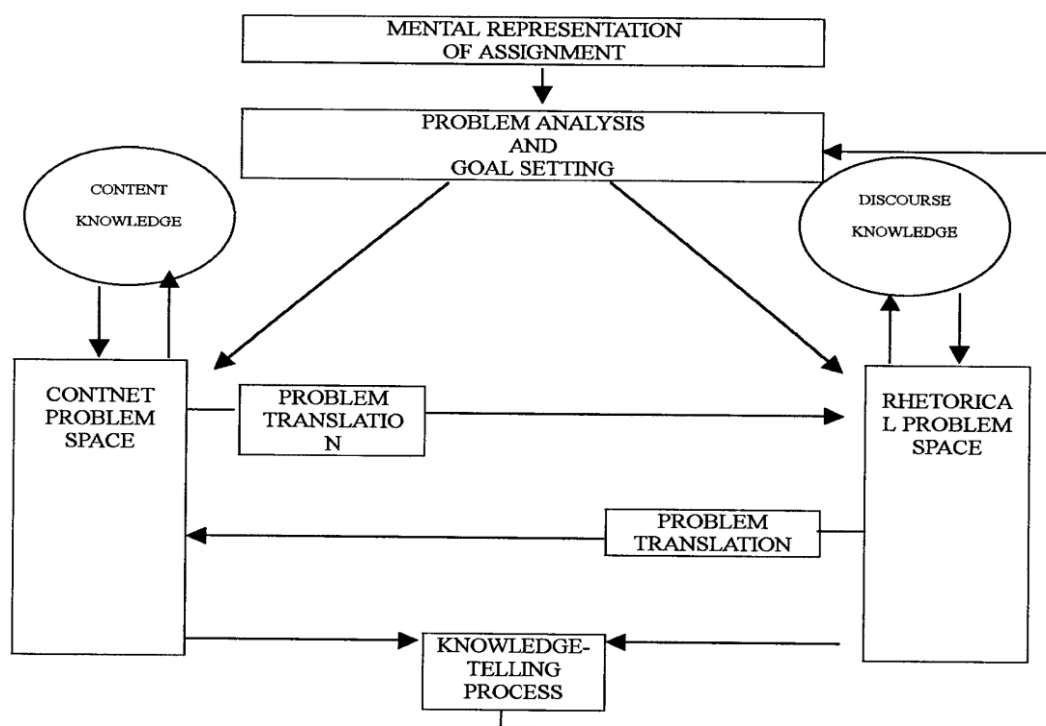


**Figure 3.3: Knowledge-telling model (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987, p. 18)**

In Figure 3.3 we can see that the data for the composing process is produced from the topic, the assignment, the genre, and the words used in the assignment.

However, Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) model of knowledge-transforming entails both reflective problem-solving analysis and goal setting. It emphasizes on experienced writers who are aware of the different problems of the writing process and who are able to use suitable strategies to solve these problems. The model presents the writer as an individual who can deal with the writing assignment and overcome its problems, by setting goals and meeting them through planning.

The next figure shows Bereiter and Scardamalia's Knowledge-transforming model (1987)



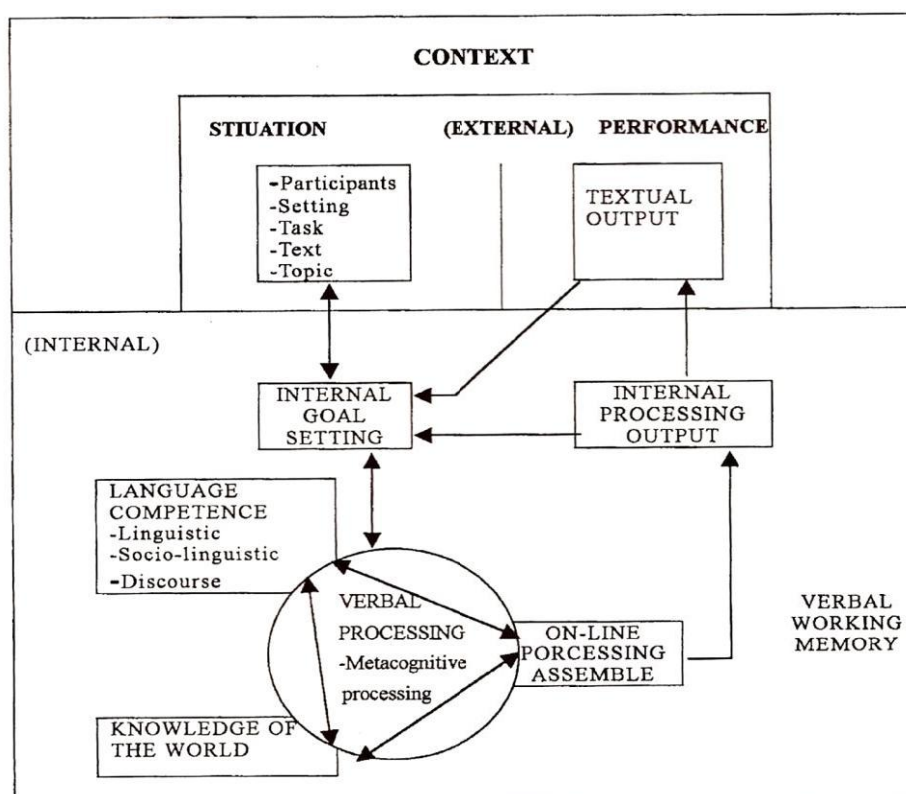
*Figure 3.4: Knowledge-transforming model (Bereiter & Scardamalia 1987, p. 12)*

In fact, knowledge transforming is different from knowledge telling since it comprises both the setting of goals which should be targeted during the writing process, and the accomplishment of these goals. As a matter of fact, the writing process is neither the result of memories or feelings, nor the assistance from the teacher. For Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) students should be encouraged to follow “their spontaneous interests and impulses...and assume responsibility for what becomes of their minds” (p. 361). Hence, students are required to practise the writing tasks which develop knowledge-transforming skills to be able to practise those skills easily.

Bereiter and Scardamalia's model is important because of the following elements: the differences between experienced and less-experienced writers, writing difficulties due to the differences in audience, or different genres, and the different cognitive procedures used to do different written tasks. Flower (1994) criticized this model using two points.

The first one was that the model did not include the role of context in writing, emphasized on cognitive aspects, and neglected the social factors. The second one was that it was not clear how writers moved from the knowledge-telling stage to the knowledge-transforming stage or what promoted such a transition.

The nineties saw another revolution concerning writing pedagogy which focused on the writer, reader, form and content. Writing pedagogy was interested in data on the writing process of both novice and expert student writers, and also on its social context. In 1996, Grabe and Kaplan developed a model of writing from a socio-cognitive point of view by introducing a new variable called communicative competence to the process of writing which focused on the role of the external social context on the cognitive process, as seen in Figure 3.5.



*Figure 3.5: Grabe and Kaplan's model of writing as communicative language use (1996, p. 226)*



Grabe and Kaplan (1996) divided their model into three parts: internal goal setting, verbal processing, and internal processing output. The internal goal setting helps the language learner to set goals for the writing skill and shows how these goals would operate in “verbal processing”. The “verbal processing” is made up of three main parts: knowledge of the world, language competence, and on-line processing assembly. Both “knowledge of the world” and “language competence” are parts of long-term memory and verbal working memory, and they both include “on-line processing assembly”. Finally, “the internal processing output” is the result of on-line processing congregation, and is employed to compare the output with the parts of the internal goal-setting in order to meet goal-setting and processing output.

### **3.5. Writing as a Cognitive Process**

There are two basic elements that have characterized the psychological theories that dealt with the cognitive processes used in writing since their emergence in the early eighties. The first element considers writing as not simply a matter of translating personal ideas into text, but as a process that involves creating content and adapting it so that it suits the reader’s needs. Writing is both creating the ideas that will be translated into the text and expressing them in an appropriate and convincing way (Flower & Hayes 1980). The second element is that writing holds a great pressure on the writer’s working memory because it is a set of complex cognitive processes. Hence, writers should use effective strategies to deal with the writing process (ibid.).

Early research on the writing skill was drawn from psychological research on problem solving. The empirical findings found from research on problem solving led to a categorization of the mental processes involved in writing, and a group of methods for describing these processes. This body of research gave birth to the cognitive model of writing developed by Hayes and Flower in 1980, and to their theory of writing expertise

(Hayes & Flower, 1986). As it was explained in section 3.4., Hayes and Flower's model distinguished between three basic processes: planning, which involved generating ideas, organisation and goal setting as components; translating plans into text; and reviewing, which consisted of reading and editing as components. These processes used two types of data: a representation of the task environment, which included both the writing assignment and the text produced so far; and knowledge that is stored in long-term memory, and which consisted of knowledge related to the topic, the audience, the writing plan, grammar rules and knowledge of text standards. The concept of "translating" in Hayes and Flower's model refers to the process of converting conceptual content into a linguistic form, rather than to the process of translating from one language to another.

An important characteristic of the model was that writing was viewed as a recursive process, as opposed to the traditional product-based view of writing as a linear process of plan-write-edit. Planning, translating and revising, which are cognitive processes rather than steps in the writing process, can occur at any moment during writing. The coordination of these processes was done using a monitor, which controlled the writing process. The way in which these basic processes were combined was attributed to the knowledge of the writing process stored in long-term memory.

Hayes and Flower's model distinguished between expert and novice writers (Hayes & Flower, 1986). Thus, Flower & Hayes (1980) argued that experts have more elaborate goals that they modify during the composing process. Moreover, they develop explicit rhetorical goals for the text as a whole, and use them to retrieve content, whereas novices set more concrete content goals, and tend to generate ideas and content in response to the topic alone. Hence, experts develop more elaborate plans, and continue to develop and modify them throughout the writing process. Moreover, they revise their writing more extensively, evaluating it in terms of its underlying function in relation to their goals, rather

than simply considering whether the text is appropriately expressed (Hayes et al. 1987). As a matter of fact, expert writers modify content more during both writing and revision.

Bereiter & Scardamalia (1987) argued that the differences between experts and novices are a contrast between a knowledge-telling model of writing and a knowledge-transforming model of writing. According to Bereiter and Scardamalia's model, the development of ideas during the writing process depends on how content is retrieved from memory to meet rhetorical goals. Novice writers use a knowledge-telling strategy by retrieving content from long-term memory. However, expert writers use a knowledge-transforming strategy, which involves a representation of the rhetorical and communicative problems that need to be solved beside the use of goals derived from this representation to guide the generation and evaluation of content during writing. Thus, expert writers employ more reflective thought when composing by setting more elaborate plans before starting to write, modifying these plans more radically during the writing process, and revising their initial drafts of texts more extensively. At the end, expert writers' texts meet the reader's needs.

Bereiter & Scardamalia (1987) focused on these differences in their knowledge transforming model of writing (see section 3.4.), arguing that this should not be considered as a development of the knowledge telling model but that it required a total evolution in that the writing task is considered and carried out differently by the writer. The model still focuses on the process by which content is retrieved from memory. Yet, it adds a rhetorical component to it. However, writing is not only viewed as adapting content to the rhetorical context, but also as a process in which content is formulated as the text develops. Hence, content is retrieved to respond to a more detailed picture of the writing assignment as a rhetorical problem, and also to the set of rhetorical acts that are gradually emerging in the text.

Moreover, the knowledge transforming model emphasizes on the higher-level reflective thinking processes that are used in writing like the classical cognitive models. We might think that the goal-directed thought used in effective writing is similar in both L1 and L2 contexts, and that the main difference between the two is “in how the output of these central processes is formulated in language” (Galbraith, 2009, p. 11). Yet, a key characteristic of the knowledge-transforming model is that it stresses the writers’ goals in their discourse knowledge. The use of an L2 requires not just using a different language but also employing different discourse conventions and learning different ways of thinking. For example, a skilled L2 writer may find difficulties in adapting their writing process to an unfamiliar genre even when they are skilled and fluent writers in an L1 genre.

In the early models of writing, the writing process has a cognitive overload due to the complex processes that are used in the working memory while composing. Translating ideas into well written text is very demanding and requires higher level planning.

Bourdin and Fayol (2002, cited in Galbraith, 2009) found that when a composition task is considerably complex, adults perform worse in writing compared to speaking. This presupposes that even when spelling and handwriting are very well mastered, “they can still have a residual effect on memory retrieval if resources are overloaded by other cognitively demanding processes” (Galbraith, 2009, p. 12).

Galbraith (*ibid.*) sees that the most important outcome of this research is that the other components of the writing process should be carried out as automatically as possible. Besides, in order to reduce cognitive overload and facilitate more fluent retrieval of content from long term memory, writers should be able to write or type fluently and have well-developed language skills. Also the strategies for managing the writing process are required since they help reduce cognitive load and lead to a more effective planning.

He also argues that the first cognitive models of writing emphasized the goal-directed nature of the thinking behind the text, and considered the translation of thought into text as a passive part of the process of interest as long as a shortage of fluency in translation was thought to hinder the writers' capacity to take part in higher-level thinking. Subsequent research has attributed more attention to the processes employed in translation, and has given them a much more active role in the generation of content.

This is best seen in Hayes' (1996) revision of the Hayes and Flower model, which distinguishes less between the different parts of the writing process. Hence, planning has become a part of "reflection", translation has become "text production", and revision is seen as a combination of reflection and text production. Moreover, working memory is explicitly included into the model.

As a conclusion, we can cite Galbraith's (2009) summary of the different cognitive models of writing, who claims that learning to write in a second or foreign language is neither a matter of developing fluent linguistic skills nor a matter of translating thoughts from one language into the words of another language. According to the above-mentioned author "[w]riting is thinking, and it is the effects of L2 on the writer's thoughts as they try to write that need to be researched" (ibid., p. 20). He concludes his review of the cognitive models of writing by raising a number of questions (ibid.), such as:

1. What different genre conventions are there in L2 contexts and how does the writer's understanding of these impact on their ability to write in a goal-directed and purposeful manner?
2. How does fluency in L2 impact on the writer's ability to carry out higher level thinking processes, and what sorts of strategies might enable them to do this better?

Are these necessarily the same as the kinds of strategies that have been found to be effective in L1 contexts?

3. How do differences in both linguistic fluency and linguistic structure affect the writer's ability to constitute their thought in writing?

He claims that only research on L2 writing itself can help us answer them.

### **3.6. Approaches to Teaching Writing**

This section discusses the strengths and weaknesses of the three approaches to teaching writing, i.e. product, process and genre approaches. Besides, it analyzes their view to the development of writing. It suggests that these approaches are complementary. Finally, it sheds light on the latest approach used in teaching writing, which is the strategy approach.

Since the eighties, product and process approaches have dominated the teaching of ESL/EFL writing. However, since the nineties, genre approaches have taken the lead. And then the strategy approach has overrun the preceding approaches to teaching writing.

#### **3.6.1. The Product-Oriented Approach**

Pincas (1982) considers writing as linguistic knowledge of vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices. In the product approach, writing has four steps: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing, and free writing. The first stage gives the learners information about some features of a particular type of text. In the second and third stages, the students freely practice the writing skills till they come to the final stage in which they perform writing a letter, a story or an essay.

An example of a product writing class may require the learners to write a composition in which they describe a person that they praise or despise. In the first stage, they will accustom themselves with the appropriate vocabulary which is used in describing

a person, such as colour of hair, eyes and complexion. In the controlled stage, they may produce simple sentences about physical appearance. Then, they may write a full description of a person based on a picture of that person, and finally, a description of a person they praise or despise.

In this respect, Badger and White (2000) write “in short, product-based approaches see writing as mainly concerned with knowledge about the structure of language, and writing development as mainly the result of the imitation of input, in the form of texts provided by the teacher” (p.154).

### **3.6.2.The Process-Oriented Approach**

All process approaches to writing have the same characteristics, which are to move the “learners from the generation of ideas and the collection of data through to the ‘publication’ of a finished text” (Tribble, 1996a, p. 37). In the process approach, writing is seen as a linguistic skill requiring such skills as planning and drafting; besides, it requires some linguistic knowledge, such as knowledge about both grammar and text structure.

Generally, the process of writing is divided into four stages: prewriting; composing/drafting; revising; and editing (Tribble, 1996b). For Badger and White (2000), it is “a cyclical process in which writers may return to pre-writing activities, for example, after doing some editing or revising” ( p.154).

An example of a prewriting activity in the process approach may be brainstorming about the topic of describing a person. This phase would help the learners to make a plan and write the first draft about the description of a person. After that, learners may revise their first draft either individually or in groups. At the end, they would edit their work.

In the process approach, the teacher's primary goal is to help the learners in their writing, which is secondary to provide them with input or stimulus. Badger and White (2000) assume that "like babies and young children who develop, rather than learn, their mother tongue, second language learners develop, rather than consciously learn, writing skills. Teachers draw out the learners' potential" (p.154).

It has been argued that all process approaches have "a somewhat monolithic view of writing" (Badger & White, 2000, p.154), i.e. the writing process is always considered the same regardless of the type of writing and the person who is writing. Besides, a process approach may not acknowledge the context in which writing is taking place. And in this issue, Hedge (1988) has identified four elements on which pre-writing activities should focus, which are: the audience, the generation of ideas, the organization of the text, and its purpose.

Badger and White (2000) summarize the process of writing in the following quotation: "Summarizing, we can say that process approaches see writing primarily as the exercise of linguistic skills, and writing development as an unconscious process which happens when teachers facilitate the exercise of writing skills" (p.155).

### **3.6.3.The Genre-Oriented Approach**

Genre approaches, which are relative newcomers to ELT (English Language Teaching), have many similarities with product approaches and are regarded as their extensions. Genre approaches consider writing as mostly linguistic; however, they argue that it varies with the social context in which it is produced.

There are different genres to writing, such as research articles, letters and reports. Because the learners do not need to write in all genres, this has affected syllabus design. The most important aspect in writing for genre analysts is purpose as long as we write



different texts to carry out different purposes. For Swales (1990), a genre is “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes” (p. 58). Also, Badger and White (2000) link genres to other features of the situation, such as the subject matter, the relationships between the writer and the audience, and the pattern of organization.

There are many similarities between genre approaches and product approaches. Cope and Kalantzis (1993) compared the genre approach to a wheel model, which has three phases: modeling the target genre, in which novice writers are exposed to examples of the genre of text they would be writing, the composition of a text by teacher and learners, and finally the independent composition of a text by students.

On the other hand, Dudley-Evans (1997) has identified three phases in the genre approach to writing, which resemble the product approach. The stages are: to introduce and analyze a text in a given genre, then to practice some relevant language forms, such as grammar or vocabulary, and finally to write a short text.

Badger and White (2000) summarize the genre approach of writing in the following:

In short, genre-based approaches see writing as essentially concerned with knowledge of language, and as being tied closely to a social purpose, while the development of writing is largely viewed as the analysis and imitation of input in the form of texts provided by the teacher. (p.155)

#### **3.6.4. Comparing Product, Process and Genre Approaches**

The literature presents the three approaches as being opposed to each other. We can say that the process-approach came as a reaction to the product-approach, whereas the genre approach came as a reaction to the so-called progressivist curriculum (Gee, 1997).

Now, we move to a discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of each approach. First, if we consider the product approach, we can find that its weaknesses lie in its underestimation of the students' knowledge since it gives little importance to the processes undertaken during writing, such as planning and brainstorming. However, it has some advantages, such as providing learners with linguistic input and models of texts to be imitated since imitating is one way of learning.

Concerning the process approach, we can deduce that its disadvantages lie in the fact that it considers all types of writing as generated by the same processes; moreover, it offers insufficient linguistic input to learners to use in their writing. Its advantages are that it gives credit to the different steps involved in writing, and gives importance to what learners bring to the writing classroom.

Finally, and for the genre approach, we can say that it considers the learners as being passive and gives little importance to the skills used to write a text. This in on one hand. On the other hand, it assumes that writing is undertaken in a social situation and that it has a given purpose. In addition, it acknowledges that learning happens consciously by analysis and imitation. Thus, we can see that the three approaches are largely complementary. In order to be effective, the approach to teaching writing should be an eclectic one in which we take the advantages of each approach listed above, and we try to find remedies to the drawbacks of each one. For example, for the process approach, White and Arndt (1991) propose a series of techniques to remedy its weaknesses, and this by incorporating group work to provide input by other students, or by the use of conferencing, in which input is provided by the teacher. Besides, some process approaches may provide the learners with sample texts after they have finished with their first draft. At the end, we can come up with an approach which is a synthesis of the three approaches and that we can name the process-genre approach.

### 3.6.5. Writing in the Process-Genre Approach

In this section, we will describe Badger and White's model of the process-genre approach (2000). This model emphasizes on the writing skill and its development. First of all, the model acknowledges the knowledge about language, as in both product and genre approaches. Second, it acknowledges the knowledge of both the context and the purpose of writing, as in the genre approach. Third, it involves the skills in using language, as in the process approach. Fourth, it calls for the development occurring in writing by accelerating the learners' potential, as in process approaches. Finally, it provides appropriate input to learners, as in the product and genre approaches.

Badger and White (2000) write "One of the central insights of genre analysis is that writing is embedded in a social situation, so that a piece of writing is meant to achieve a particular purpose which comes out of a particular situation" (p. 158).

They argue that genre analysis emphasizes on the language that is used in a given context, whereas their model includes the processes that are used by writers to write a text reflecting these elements.

In a writing situation, instructors should copy the situation in the most possible way, and then give appropriate and sufficient linguistic input to students so that they can figure out the purpose of writing, its audience, and its mode. The next step would be drawing students' knowledge on grammar, vocabulary and organization. Finally, the students should consider other elements of writing, such as redrafting and proofreading.

Badger and White (2000) argue that:

different genres require different kinds of knowledge and different sets of skills, and our knowledge of both the knowledge and skill involved in different genres is limited. However, teachers are expert writers of many

genres, and a key feature of this approach is that they should draw on their own knowledge of, and skills in, particular process genres. (p. 158)

### **3.6.6. The Development of Writing in a Process-Genre Approach**

Writing develops differently among learners. Some learners possess a great knowledge about the production of a certain genre of writing, so they need little to no input. Other learners have sufficient knowledge about the audience, whereas some learners do not have sufficient knowledge about the appropriate language which suits a certain genre, so they need some linguistic input.

However, teachers cannot always know what the learners can perform before the writing session. Hence, they can apply an approach taken from Willis (1996), in which learners write in a specific genre, and then compare their productions to an expert's production, such as the teacher's. And from this comparison, the learners or the teacher may decide if they need extra input of knowledge and skills.

When learners do not possess sufficient knowledge, three sources may be used: the teacher, peers, and models of the target genre. The teacher can give the needed input through instruction; peers may do the same within group work; however, the most efficient source of input of linguistic and contextual knowledge in a genre-process approach is "language awareness activities" (Badger & white, 2000).

The basic aim of genre analysis is to provide the similarities between texts that are written for the same reason. This is done through a corpus of the relevant genre. The writing materials used by teachers in the genre-process approach are models of corpora of the types of texts that their students want to produce. This may cover studying the sentence structure and the appropriate vocabulary used in a certain type of genres. Moreover, the learners may need some knowledge on the skills used for composition. This can be done by

observing the teachers and the peers. In addition, a direct instruction on the skills and strategies involved in a certain type of genre may be effective.

To sum up, Badger and White (2000) propose an approach to writing based on a product, process, and genre view of writing and writing development and which “sees writing as a series of stages leading from a particular situation to a text, with the teachers facilitating learners’ progress by enabling appropriate input of knowledge and skills” (Badger & White, 2000, p. 160).

### **3.6.7. The Strategy Approach**

This approach is similar with the process approach in that it emphasizes on the writing period and the cognitive processes used in writing, and makes conferences with students to discuss ideas and problems (Adkins, 2005). Nevertheless, it is an explicit and supported approach to writing that has helped many writers develop and use more effective writing and self-regulation strategies (Harris & Graham, 1996).

The strategy approach is an approach that helps students to solve a problem using goal directed behaviour (Bos & Vaughen, 1998 as mentioned in Adkins, 2005). In this approach, students should be committed to use a strategy. After that, they are taught how to use this strategy through discussion and modeling. The next step would be to guide them until they can use it independently.

Teachers provide feedback to students and maintain generalization of the procedures that were taught. The strategy approach is successful for the following reasons: it meets the individual needs of the students, it uses explicit instruction, it offers students opportunities to use this strategy, it provides them with feedback, and it helps students self-monitor and self-evaluate their use of the strategy.

### **3.7. Assessing Writing: Assessment, Feedback and Correction**

Due to its paramount role in the teaching/learning process, feedback has been considered in many studies in ESL and EFL. Purnawarman (2011) believes that feedback plays an important role in the writing process.

Indeed, research has shown that student writers who receive feedback improve their writing since feedback helps them recognize their mistakes and correct them.

In this context, Purnawarman (2011) writes, “feedback can ... modify students’ thinking or behaviour toward their work and focus their attention on the purpose of writing” (p.14). With feedback, teachers can follow the progress of their students’ writing and increase their ability to obtain their learning objectives.

According to Horvath (2001):

Feedback is an integral part of any pedagogy. It aims to engage participants in authentic communication about the subject of tuition, and about its goals by signaling transitions in the process of learning. As such, feedback also forms part of assessment and evaluation, both continuous and task-specific. (p. 27)

Feedback is viewed as a form of correction and a way of showing the learners the amount of their progress. For Bartram and Walton (1991), the "red-pen syndrome should be avoided” (p. 78), and instead, suggested many ways which can be used by the teachers before and during the writing process. These include: a reaction to content, an involvement of the learners, reformulation and a correction of some specific morphosyntactic errors.

In 1999, Frankenberg-Garcia suggested that feedback could even be given before a text is written, i.e. at the first stages of the writing process. Furthermore, she argued that text-based feedback had many limitations, and that it should be replaced by another form of feedback which takes into consideration information about students’ needs.

In fact, Purnawarman (2011) argues that:

Feedback can increase students' attention on the subject they are writing. Students who receive feedback will pay more attention to what they have written that, beyond their knowledge or awareness, their work does not meet certain standards. The feedback that they receive draws students' attention to those aspects of their writing that need remediation, and by doing so, they learn how to improve their performance. (p. 15)

Many studies have been carried out to find out the effects of feedback on students' writing. These studies have dealt either with source, function, focus, strategy or feedback media (ibid.). Source includes teacher, peer and self, whereas function deals with informative and corrective feedback. Feedback strategy is concerned with direct and indirect feedback while feedback media include written, oral and electronic feedback. The number of studies which were conducted on feedback shows its huge importance in the teaching and learning of the writing skill.

However, it is assumed that the traditional teacher feedback on students' writing produces meaningless and unproductive results (Kim & Kim, 2005). In 2004, Rollinson found that being traditionally accustomed to receiving a certain type of instruction from teachers causes the learners to write for the teacher, not for themselves because the teacher is their only audience. Teachers will also become overwhelmed by the task of giving feedback and correcting the students' writing. It was also shown that "feedback is more useful between drafts, and little improvement is made when it is done at the end of the task" (Shokrpour, Keshavarz & Mohammad Jafari, n.d. p. 24). On the other hand, Reichelt (1999) claims that the teachers are unsure about the role of writing in EFL classrooms. In her study, she found that many of the professionals who take part in FL writing research and pedagogy consider themselves as language teachers rather than writing teachers. Because students are almost passive in the traditional writing classroom, they feel

uncomfortable with cooperative interaction methods that encourage them to take a more active role (ibid.).

Tribble (1996a) believes that with the breakout of interactive writing methods, learners get more fluency, autonomy and self-confidence; moreover, they are more aroused to express themselves in the writing process.

### **3.7.1. Peer Review**

Peer review is increasingly used in writing classes since the widespread of the communicative approach in recent years, and it has been demonstrated as an effective approach to improve the writing skill, to increase motivation to writing, and to learn how to treat writing as a collaborative social activity (Farrah, 2012). It has been suggested that “peer review can be a way to open up new possibilities for both writer and reviewer” (Shokrpour et al., n.d. p. 25).

According to Rollinson (2004), the process approach considers writing as a creative act which needs both time and positive feedback to be done well. In the process approach, the writing teacher steps away from assigning students writing tasks and collecting the finished products for correction without any intervention in the writing process itself. Also, Rollinson (2004) assumes that feedback is more useful between drafts; in addition, the corrections that are written on students’ compositions seem to do little to improve their writing skill.

Conversely, Rollinson (2004) states that ideas on the constructive effect of peer review have seemed to be busy work or a waste of time. The opponents of peer review, such as Horowitz (1986), believe that providing negative criticism may irritate or offend the writer. Moreover, the students might find it difficult to recognize all errors in their peers’ writing and provide them with inaccurate or misleading advice. This is on one hand.



On the other hand, students may react negatively to the critical comments that are made from their peers (Amores, 1997).

Yet studies focusing specifically on the kinds of advice given by peer editors have found relatively small amounts of miscorrection. It is found in the literature that reviewers tend to focus on surface errors than on problems of meaning (Keh, 1990) and that inexperienced L2 learners may find it hard to estimate the validity of their peers' comments (Leki, 1990). The studies related to peer response have concentrated on the nature of peer interactions in writing workshops (De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994; Lim & Jacobs, 2001). Nevertheless, Caulk (1994) held that L2 peer feedback showed valuable remarks when compared with teachers' feedback, with only six percent of peer remarks suggesting bad advice.

Since feedback is of a paramount importance in the teaching/learning process, careful work on it will be a contribution to pedagogy (Hedge, 1988; Raimes, 1993; White & Arndt, 1991). Over the past two decades, many transformations have occurred in feedback practices, with teacher feedback often paired with peer feedback, writing workshops, conferences, and computer-delivered feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Many studies (Sengupta, 2000; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1992) found that when applying peer feedback, the responsibility moved gradually from the teacher to peer, and finally, to the students themselves. Berg (1999) found that trained peer assessment had a positive impact on both students' revision types and quality. In 2004, Jeremy Harmer revealed that trained students included a higher number of comments. Besides, he found out that the number of peer-triggered revisions consisted of 90% of the total revisions, and that the quality of revision improved significantly compared to the one before peer review training. As a matter of fact, Harmer conceded that with extensive training inside and outside of class, trained peer feedback can positively affect EFL learners.

Some studies have targeted students' attitude of the peer response method and have come to contradictory results. For instance, Nelson and Murphy (1993) and Hu (2005) noted that Chinese students welcomed peer feedback while Leki (1990) and Srichanyachon (2012) showed many drawbacks with peer feedback and came to the fact that students prefer teacher feedback because it is a more effective means of writing revision.

Horvath (2001) argues that any feedback type is practical depending on a number of variables, which are educational context, type of syllabus, length of assignment, and number of students. Leki (1990) added another variable, which is the "persona" of the writing teacher. Leki assumed that the writing teacher had three functions: the real reader self, the teacher as the coach, and the evaluating teacher.

She goes on by giving three useful techniques that can be used by teachers to ensure the validity of feedback. First, teachers should assign students writing tasks with multiple drafts. Second, the writing assignments given to students should form a well-planned project. And finally, students should be asked about what constitutes good writing in their composition.

In this respect, Barkaoui (2007) writes:

Finally, in order to enhance the effectiveness of feedback, teachers can encourage learners to discuss, analyze, and evaluate feedback, discuss why it is given, and how it is intended to affect their writing. Teachers can also reformulate a student's draft and then discuss and compare the reformulated and original drafts in the class. Another strategy to enhance the effectiveness of feedback is to use such tools as revision and editing checklists to help students develop self-correction and self-revision strategies... (p. 41)

He goes on to suggest another useful strategy to give learners feedback. This strategy is:

teacher-student conferences can provide another effective tool for teachers to identify, discuss, and address students' problems, provided that students do most of the talking, only a small number of points are dealt with at a time (e.g., most serious and/or common problems)... Barkaoui (2007, p. 41)

At the end, and as teachers, we should see the effects of our feedback on students.

### **3.7.2. Potential Drawbacks of Peer Review**

There are certain drawbacks of peer response, which can be summarized in the following. First, peer review requires a careful pre-class planning; otherwise, the group will lose much time. Second, it needs class time. Third, peer response is student centered, thus, the teacher should be a neutral agent in the classroom. Besides, some students do not like to work in groups and prefer working by themselves since they believe that group work does not add to their knowledge. Finally, if the groups are badly run, this will have a bad impact on both students and teachers.

### **3.8. How to Develop Students' Written Communication Skills?**

In order to improve students' written communication skills, the Griffith Institute for Higher Education (2004) gives the following guidelines:

- **Make writing enjoyable:** This can be done by using the following activities:
  - ✓ setting students to work in groups and encouraging them to analyze different writing styles,
  - ✓ asking students to write for different audiences, and
  - ✓ using peer assessment

- **Do lots of writing:** This can be achieved through:
  - ✓ Giving students short writing assignments and asking them to exchange their work for peer correction,
  - ✓ checking students' notes to ensure that the students are improving,
  - ✓ encouraging students to write down their questions at the end of every course and answering these questions at the next course,
  - ✓ asking students to write for a "hostile reader", who will criticize everything they write, so that this helps them to consider many points in their writing, and
  - ✓ finally, giving writing assignments which require feedback from "real" professionals.
  
- **Vary the writing tasks:** The following activities will help here:
  - ✓ Asking students to write interviews with real professionals,
  - ✓ Encouraging students to use their diaries and journals as thinking aids, and
  - ✓ At last, asking students to write agendas in group work projects.
  
- **Share examples of good student writing:**
  - ✓ Share student good writing, use peer assessment and discuss why it is good, and
  - ✓ Help students to set criteria for good writing.

The following tips may also be helpful:

- Negotiate with the students the topics that they want to write about.
- Help students to narrow their topic down by writing a good thesis statement and a good topic sentence.
- Encourage students to use relevant and accurate resources.
- During the writing process, encourage students to use the different steps of the writing process, such as drafting and re-drafting.

- Use drafts to check the progress of the writing process and encourage peer correction.
- When assessing students' writing, make sure to give constructive feedback.
- Give good writing assignments which have a clear purpose, have meaning for the students, are relevant to their course, are manageable in the time available and focus on achieving a particular aim.
- Encourage students to ask themselves the following questions, when doing writing assignments: the audience they are writing for, the purpose of their writing and the type of assignment.

To improve students' writing skills, Kellogg (2008) suggests two methods: the tried and true method of learning by doing, and the learning by observing. He argues that blending the two methods is a good measure in effective training.

He goes on by suggesting the use of deliberate practice, on which he writes:

This method of skill development involves (1) effortful exertion to improve performance, (2) intrinsic motivation to engage in the task, (3) practice tasks that are within reach of the individual's current level of ability, (4) feedback that provide knowledge of results, and (5) high levels of repetition. (p.17)

### **3.9. Conclusion**

This chapter has dealt with some issues concerning the writing skill. First, we considered some definitions given to writing, such as the one given by the Griffith's Institute for Higher Education (2004), and also Kellogg's definition (2008), which sees the development of writing in three stages. Then we moved to ESL and EFL writing since it is a difficult skill that learners are expected to acquire, and which requires the mastery of linguistic, cognitive and socio-cultural competencies. After that, we saw what L2 learners

need to learn, and we considered the views of text-oriented research, process-oriented research and socio-cultural research. Besides, we shed some light on writing theories and approaches to teaching writing. The chapter concluded with assessing writing and ways of developing students' writing communication skills.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

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## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1. Introduction**

The present chapter introduces the methodology which has been used in the study. It tackles in depth the population and sampling, the background information of the informants, the research design, and the research instruments, which are questionnaires and scores analysis. Besides, it explains the framework for the instruction, the research procedure and data analysis techniques.

#### **4.2. Research Methodology**

The method which has been used to answer the research questions and to meet the research aims is quasi-experimental, which is part of quantitative research.

The term “quasi-experiment” was first introduced by Campbell and Stanley in 1963 (cited in Shadish, Cook & Campbel, 2002). Quasi-experiments are similar with true experiments in that they have the same aim, which is to examine the relationship between a cause and an effect in a controlled setting. Moreover, they have the same similarities, such as the frequent presence of control groups and pretest measures. However, quasi-experiments lack random assignment.

The task of assigning individuals to conditions can be done by the researcher himself without any randomization, such as the case of working with intact classes in the field of research in education. Nevertheless, the researcher may control some aspects of the study, such as selecting the measures that he will use. In this respect, Campbell and Stanley (1963) write:

There are many natural social settings in which the research person can introduce something like experimental design into his scheduling of data collection procedures (e.g., the when and to whom of measurement), even though he lacks the



full control over the scheduling of experimental stimuli (the when and to whom of exposure and the ability to randomize exposures) which makes a true experiment possible. Collectively, such situations can be regarded as quasi-experimental designs. (p. 34)

Quasi-experimental methods are often used when it is impossible to randomize individuals or groups to treatment and control groups. Also, they are used in situations “where ethical, political or logistical constraints, like the need for a phased geographical roll-out, rule out randomization” (White & Sabarwal, 2014, p. 2).

The above-mentioned authors argue that quasi-experimental methods are practical when conducting impact evaluations in real world settings. When the researcher uses pre-existing or self-selected groups such as individuals who are already participating in a programme, he would avoid “the ethical concerns that are associated with random assignment – for example, the withholding or delaying of a potentially effective treatment or the provision of a less effective treatment for one group of study participants” (White & Sabarwal, 2014, pp. 10-11).

In quantitative research there are many types of variables: the dependent variable, the independent variable, the intervening variable and the confounding variable. A variable is defined as “a characteristic or attribute of an individual or an organization that (a) researchers can measure or observe and (b) varies among individuals or organizations studied” (Creswell, 2012, p. 112).

A dependent variable may be defined as “an attribute or characteristic that is dependent on or influenced by the independent variable” (Creswell, 2012, p. 115), such as achievement scores on a writing test. It is also called the outcome, effect, criterion, or consequence variable. In this study, the dependent variable is students’ written productions.

On the other hand, an independent variable “is an attribute or characteristic that influences or affects an outcome or dependent variable” (Creswell, 2012, p. 116). The independent variable influences the dependent variable through the interference of the intervening variable. In this study, the independent variable is the use of learning strategies.

Besides the independent and the dependent variables, there is a third variable in this study which is the moderating or moderator variable. The moderator variable is defined as “a variable that may interact with other variables resulting in an effect on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 360). In this study, the moderator variable is motivation.

We can summarize the variables in the present work in table 4.1:

**Table 4.1**

***Research Variables***

Independent variable	Dependent variable	Moderator variable
Learning strategies	Students’ written productions	Motivation

There are four types of independent variables which are summarized in table 4.2 (Creswell, 2012, p. 116).

**Table 4.2*****Types of Independent Variables***

	Measured variable	Control variable	Treatment variable	Moderating variable
Definition	An independent variable that is measured in a study	A special type of independent variable that is of secondary interest and is neutralized through statistical design procedures or	An independent variable manipulated by the researcher	A special type of independent variable that is of secondary interest and combines with another independent variable to influence the dependent variable
Type of variable measurement	A categorical or continuous variable that is measured or observed in the study	A variable not directly measured but controlled through statistical or research design procedures	A categorical variable actively manipulated by the researcher and composed of two or more groups	A categorical or continuous variable measured or observed as it interacts with other variables
Use in	Experiments, surveys	Experiments, correlational studies	Experiments	Experiments
Examples	Age of a child; performance on a test; attitudes assessed on a survey	Often demographic variables such as age, gender, race, socioeconomic level	Classroom learning: one group receives standard lecture and one group receives discussion; researcher assigns students to groups and thus manipulates group membership	Demographic variables such as age, gender, race, or socioeconomic level, a measured variable such as performance or attitude, or a manipulated variable such as classroom instruction

**Creswell (2012, p. 116)**

The intervening variable does not always exist in a study. In research methodology, the independent variable may have the following attributes: factor, treatment, predictor,

determinant, or antecedent variable. This variable is measured independently from the dependent variable since it influences the outcomes of the study.

The last type of variable is the confounding variable, which is not directly involved in the probable cause-and-effect relationship but which is an extraneous or uncontrolled variable. Confounding variables are sometimes called spurious variables and are defined as “attributes or characteristics that the researcher cannot directly measure because their effects cannot be easily separated from those of other variables, even though they may influence the relation between the independent and the dependent variable” (Creswell, 2012, p. 119).

In this study, we have employed different research tools and procedures and used different techniques to analyze the data obtained.

In order to analyze the data obtained, we opted for triangulation, which is defined by Mackey and Gass (2005) as “the use of multiple, independent methods of obtaining data in a single investigation in order to arrive at the same research findings” (p. 181). There are three types of triangulation, according to the above-mentioned authors, theoretical triangulation, which involves the use of many research tools to analyze the same set of data, investigator triangulation, which is the use of a number of observers or interviewers, and methodological triangulation, which is the use of “different measures or research methods to investigate a particular phenomenon” (p. 181). In the present study, we employed the last type of triangulation, i.e. methodological triangulation. When using multiple research tools, we can support our study and its conclusions.

#### **4.2.1. Population and Sampling**

Our population is all first year students at the department of English language, faculty of letters and foreign languages, university of Batna 2 during the academic year 2016-2017. They form a total of 673 students organized in 15 groups.

The rationale for choosing first-year classes is because they are new comers to the department of English and so we believe that they are eager to learn English. Besides, we think that introducing the students to learning strategies at an early level (first year) would promote their writing strategies in subsequent levels (second and third years).

#### **4.2.1.1. Choice of the Sample**

Out of the fifteen groups, we were allotted two groups; each one was formed of 65 students. Therefore, we began the study with 130 students. However, due to participant mortality, we ended up with 60 students, 30 in each group. Participant mortality, or attrition, is “the dropout rate for a study. It is also referred to as subject mortality. Participants drop out for many reasons including scheduling conflicts (there is often a high rate of no-shows for delayed post tests)” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 362). Using the formula  $673 \div 60 = 11.21$ , we find that our sample represents 11.21% of the whole population.

The researcher did not use any of the sampling techniques available in the literature; instead, she was given two intact groups by the administration. The administration forbids the formation of groups because of lack of classrooms and time. Moreover, a student enrolled in a given group cannot attend a session scheduled at a different time. So, it was impossible for the researcher to design two random groups. Since we worked with intact classes, we could not apply a true experiment; nonetheless, the use of a quasi-experiment was appropriate for the sample lacked randomization.

#### **4.2.1.2. Background Information of the Respondents**

The preliminary questionnaire (see appendix A), which was administered at the outset of the study, yielded the following results: for section one, (Q1), 44 (73.33%) of the respondents are females whereas 16 (26.67%) are males. Their age varies between 17 and 23 (Q2) and their Baccalaureate option ranges from literature and foreign languages (45%)

to natural or exact sciences (38.33%) to literature and philosophy (11.67%) to other fields (exact sciences: 1.67%, sports and technical mathematics (3.33%)).

For (Q4), how many years have you been studying English? The answers were from 7 to 9 years. Also the majority of the respondents (54 or 90%) confirmed that they chose to study English whereas (6 or 10%) said that it was not their choice and that it was imposed on them (Q5). The reasons behind their choice were the following:

- It is my favourite language; I really love it. Besides, it is the first language in the world.
- I want to know more about English, and I want to enrich my culture.
- Learning English is fun.
- To improve my English and my skills, and to communicate with others.
- I have a great motivation to learn it.
- It is an international language and my dreams will come true by studying it.
- It was my father's choice.
- To become a teacher of English.
- It is easy to learn.
- To travel to foreign countries, such as Great Britain, Switzerland, Korea, the USA, and the Netherlands.
- To improve my writing and spelling skills.
- I didn't have a better choice.
- I am good in speaking English.
- No particular reason.
- To emigrate and to study abroad.

#### 4.2.2. Research Design

Before starting our research, we had to ensure its validity. There are many types of validity, including content, face, construct, criterion-related, predictive validity, plus internal and external validity (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

The first type of validity, content validity, refers to the representativeness of our research tool in relation to the variable we want to test.

Face validity means how familiar is the research instrument to the respondents.

Construct validity is defined as “the degree to which the research adequately captures the construct of interest” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 108). It is the most complex of the validity types discussed so far. It is an important component to consider in second language acquisition research since the variables that are studied in this field, such as language aptitude and proficiency, are difficult to measure. We can achieve construct validity when we use multiple research tools to measure the same variable.

Criterion-related validity is concerned with whether the tests that are used in a study can be “comparable to other well-established tests of the construct in question” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 108), such as the standard TOEFL in the case of English. This was done for the Likert scale because it was adapted from both Oxford’s SILL (the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) (1990), and a questionnaire from Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005). Besides, the scoring scale for the paragraph was adapted from Oshima and Hogue (2007).

Predictive validity refers to what we want to make with a research tool, such as predicting performance.

Internal validity is the extent to which the difference which occurred in the dependent variable was the result of the control of the independent variable.

For Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005):

Internal validity seeks to demonstrate that the explanation of a particular event, issue or set of data which a piece of research provides can actually be sustained by the data. In some degree this concerns accuracy, which can be applied to quantitative and qualitative research. The findings must accurately describe the phenomena being researched. (p. 107)

To achieve internal validity, the researcher must control all possible variables which may interact with the independent variable. These variables include participant characteristics, participant mortality (dropout rate), participant inattention and attitude, participant maturation, data collection (location and collector), and instrumentation and test effects.

Some of the factors related to participant characteristics in second language research are language background, language learning experience, and proficiency level.

Our participants have the same language background, the same learning experience and are homogenous concerning their proficiency level in writing as it will be shown in the results of the preliminary questionnaire. Proficiency level is one of the most difficult areas to control for when conducting second language research. The topic is much easier to control in the case of a foreign language due to the limited exposure of learners to that language. We can also control proficiency level by using participants from the same level, as in our study because all the subjects study English as a foreign language and they are enrolled in the first year.

Participant mortality is the drop out of participants during the experiment for many reasons such as time, interest and money. This point has been highlighted earlier in this chapter when we described our sample.



Participant inattention and attitude include both the Hawthorne and the Halo effects. The first occurs when participants know that they are part of an experiment and therefore change their behaviour whereas the second occurs when participants try to please the researcher by giving him the responses that he is seeking for. The Hawthorne effect was neutralized by not telling the participants that they were acting as subjects in the experiment.

Subject maturation involves mainly studies done with children, which is not the case with our participants, who are adults and who may not change a lot in a period span of one semester. Thus, maturation does not represent a threat to internal validity.

Other factors relating with internal validity concern data collection and they are location and collector. The location of the data was in the same classroom for both groups, and the collector was the researcher herself, as a matter of fact, we controlled these extraneous variables too.

Another factor related to internal validity concerns the test instrument whose internal validity is formed with equivalence between pre- and posttests, giving the goal of the study away, and test instructions and questions.

The equivalence between pre- and posttests involves the use of tests which are equal in the difficulty of questions; otherwise, the tests lack internal validity. For example, we cannot compare the results of an easy pre-test with those of a difficult posttest.

Another problem with the internal validity of a study is that the researcher does not want the participants to figure out the nature of the study because in research we want to capture participants' natural behaviour and responses. One way to cope with this pitfall is when the participants cannot figure out the topic from the pretest, so that the study instruments are more likely to yield valid results. This was achieved at the outset of our

study when we administered the pre-test to the subjects and told them that we wanted to evaluate their level in writing before commencing the courses of the paragraph.

The last threat with internal validity is connected with the instructions and the questions. We had to ensure that the questions in the questionnaires and the pre- and posttests were clear and appropriate to the subjects' level. This was achieved by piloting the research tools with a small number of students, mailing a covering letter concerning the Likert scale and giving the different questionnaires to colleagues to evaluate them.

External validity, on the other hand, is defined as “the degree to which results can be generalized beyond the study itself” (Brown, 2002, p. 289). External validity is jeopardized by the following extraneous variables: sampling, representativeness and generalizability, and collecting biodata information.

In order to minimize threats related to sampling, using random sampling is an effective way. However, in the case of our study, we could not have access to this sampling technique due to the fact that we were assigned two intact groups, so this constitutes a threat to external validity.

The second element concerns the number of the subjects involved in the study. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) (cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005) gave the following minimum sample numbers as a guideline: 100 for descriptive studies, 50 for correlational studies, and 15 to 30 per group in experimental studies depending on how tightly controlled they are. In our study, we used 30 students per group; as a matter of fact, we achieved the minimum number of participants.

Now, we turn to reliability, which is defined by Cohen et al. (2005) as “a measure of consistency over time and over similar samples” (p. 117). In quantitative research, it “is essentially a synonym for consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents” (ibid.). The-above mentioned researchers go further saying

that “a reliable instrument for a piece of research will yield similar data from similar respondents over time” (ibid.). In the field of experimental research, this implies “that if a test and then a re-test were undertaken within an appropriate time span, then similar results would be obtained” (Cohen et al., 2005, p. 117). However, the researcher has to decide the appropriate time span between the test and the re-test to achieve reliability.

We have tested the reliability of the Likert scale using the Cronbach’s alpha.

The research design that we adopted was a quasi-experimental one using two experimental groups whose writing performance was measured before the study through a pre-test and after the study via a posttest. Between the two tests the participants were taught writing using four types of learning strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social. But before commencing the quasi-experiment, we had to test the first research hypothesis, which is that the students do not use the writing strategies in their writing. The research tool used to meet this aim was a preliminary questionnaire which was filled in by our respondents. Before the study also, both groups filled in a Likert-scale questionnaire to know about the frequency of their use of learning strategies. The questionnaire was filled in again at the end of the study to ensure (or not) that the students acquired the use of such strategies.

The third questionnaire designed for students was to measure the second variable, motivation, and was called motivation questionnaire which was undertaken in the middle of the quasi-experiment.

The last questionnaire was taken by teachers and it aimed at gathering data about the techniques used by first-year teachers to teach the writing skill. Also, it aimed at eliciting teachers’ opinions about teaching learning strategies to first-year students to improve their writing skills.

### **4.2.3. Data Collection Tools**

In order to analyze the data collected we used triangulation, which is “the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour” (Cohen et al, 2005, p. 112). In the present study, the research tools that we employed were questionnaires for students and teachers and students’ scores analysis. The students’ questionnaires included a preliminary questionnaire, a Likert-scale questionnaire, and a motivation questionnaire whereas we administered one questionnaire concerning students’ motivation for teachers. Besides, we used scores analysis of the pre-test and the posttest. The following section describes in-depth the research tools used in this study.

#### **4.2.3.1. Questionnaires**

The questionnaire is probably the most used and most abused of the data gathering tools (Singh, 2006). It

may be regarded as a form of interview on paper.... which is prepared and distributed for the purpose of securing responses. Generally these questions are factual and designed for securing information about certain conditions or practices, of which recipient is presumed to have knowledge. (p. 191)

The questionnaire is useful in collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. There are two types of questions in a questionnaire: the unrestricted, or open form items, and the restricted, or close form items. Each type has its advantages and drawbacks.

The open formed item is also called the “Open end”, “Short-answer”, or “Free-response” item because after the question, there is a space provided in which the informant is required to write his response. This type of questions allows explanation, but responses can be difficult to summarize and tabulate. It is used when in depth responses are needed (Singh, 2006).

The second type of questions is the closed form item, or the “restricted” or “structured” type. It consists of a question or a statement to which a respondent answers by selecting one or more alternatives, such as “Yes” or “No”.

This type of questions facilitates the tabulation and analysis of data. Moreover, it improves both its reliability and consistency. One drawback of this kind of questions is that the informant cannot explain why he has given certain answers, and this may be important in certain types of research works. The close form item is frequently used in measuring attitudes, feelings and some traits of behaviour.

In our study, we have used both types of questions in the preliminary questionnaire, and the motivation questionnaires for students and teachers.

#### **4.2.3.1.1. The Preliminary Questionnaire**

The preliminary questionnaire (see appendix A) was used as a tool to answer the first research question: Do the students use learning strategies in their writing? And its sub-question: And if yes, what are they?

The questionnaire was first piloted and no changes occurred in its wording, then we gave it to the sample and required from respondents to fill in the questionnaire during the written expression course to be able to answer any question or to clarify any ambiguity. The students were told that there was no right or wrong answer and were requested to answer the questionnaire honestly. Besides, they were informed that their answers were needed for the purpose of research and that they would be kept confidential. The questionnaire took more than one hour to be filled in.

The questionnaire was made of three sections. Section one seeks students’ background information and is made up of six (6) questions: students’ gender (Q1), their age (Q2), their Baccalaureate option (Q3), the period of learning English (Q4), whether they chose to study English (Q5), followed by a justification to their answers (Q6).

Section two deals with students' strengths, weaknesses and difficulties in writing. It consists of seven questions: the elements of good writing (Q7), students' difficulties in writing in English (Q8), their strengths and weaknesses in writing in English (Q9), what makes writing difficult for them (Q10), students' strengths in writing (Q11), and students' weaknesses in writing (Q12). Questions (Q11) and (Q12) were asked to check students' consistency in answering (Q9). The last question in section two (Q13) is about how students knew about their strengths and weaknesses; was it from others like teacher and friends, from their marks and performances, or from reviewing their own work?

The third section is made up of twenty (20) questions and seeks students' cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies.

We started section three with background information about the high school teacher and whether s/he provided his/her students with writing techniques and if so, the students were required to cite some of them (Q14). We used the word "techniques" in this question in place of the word "strategies" because we did not want the participants to figure out the aim of the questionnaire. It was followed with whether the students liked the way that their teacher used to teach writing, followed with a justification to their answers (Q15). We wanted to compare the present way of teaching writing to the ancient way in high school. It was followed by four questions related to the metacognitive strategy of planning (questions 16, 17, 18 & 19). This was done to check students' consistency in answering this question. Question 20 was about the social strategy of working in groups. Questions 21 and 22 are the core of the questionnaire and they seek whether the students are aware of the strategies that they are using in writing (Q21) and if yes, they were required to provide them (Q22).

Other strategies were considered in the subsequent questions, such as collecting models of different types of written texts before writing (Q23), taking into consideration

the audience (Q24) and the aim of writing (Q25), revising (Q26), the elements of revision (Q27), and how to evaluate their progress in writing (Q28).

Questions 29, 30 and 31 were asked to discover which strategies, if any, students use when they fail to do a writing assignment (Q29), to continue with the writing assignment (Q30) and to overcome their limitations in writing (Q31).

The preliminary questionnaire ends with asking students about strategies which can help them to improve their writing (Q32) and whether they want to be helped with strategies to improve their writing (Q33). The last question was asked to know about students' opinions concerning the introduction of the strategy approach, which is the core of our study.

#### **4.2.3.1.2. Students' Motivation Questionnaire**

##### **4.2.3.1.2.1. Piloting the Questionnaire**

In order to achieve face validity, we gave students' motivation questionnaire (see appendix B) to five teachers who teach at the department of English language and literature in Batna 2 University to assess it concerning its length and the formation of its questions. The teachers suggested the following amendments.

For question 5 in section one: if yes, please say why? The teachers suggested adding reasons for choosing English and ask students to state the reasons behind their choice. So, we gave them a list of reasons related either to intrinsic motivation (it is my favourite language and I like it and to learn about its culture) or to extrinsic motivation (to communicate with others, to become a teacher of English, to travel abroad or emigrate, and to study abroad).

Concerning question 8, "when assessing (when testing or evaluating) students, teachers should use: a. written tests- b. oral test – c. written and oral test?", the teachers

suggested reformulating it to “do you think that teachers, when testing or evaluating students, should use: a. written tests - b. oral test – c. written and oral tests?”.

For question 9: “when you are asked to write in English, how do you feel: a. interested –b. unable – c. bored – d. other, please specify”, the evaluators said that it was better to delete the last alternative “d”.

Question 11: “why are you studying written expression module?”, and question 12: “what do you expect to obtain from written expression module?” which are open-ended question, were deleted from the questionnaire.

For question 13, which became in the subsequent questionnaire 11: “what goals would you like to accomplish at the end of the written expression course: a. pass the course – b. improve your written skills – c. communicate with other users of English – d. be a better writer – e. be more educated – f. other, please specify”, the last alternative “f” was replaced by “all of them”.

For question 14 (question 12 in the questionnaire which was given to students), option “c”: a bit interesting was deleted.

In question 16 (question 14), the last alternative “other, please specify” was also deleted.

In question 17 (question 15): “how do you consider the teacher’s corrections: a. helpful – b. too much – c. not enough – d. not important – e. easy to understand – f. ambiguous – g. other, please specify”, the alternatives were changed into “a. helpful – b. easy to understand – c. not much helpful – d. ambiguous”.

In questions 18 (question 16) and 19 (question 17), the last options “other, please specify”, and “other” were also deleted.

For the last question (question 20: 18): the alternative “c”: a bit important was also deleted.



#### 4.2.3.1.2.2. Description of Students' Motivation Questionnaire

Students' motivation questionnaire (see appendix C) is made of two sections. Section one seeks students' background information and is made of five questions: students' gender (Q1), age (Q2), baccalaureate option (Q3), whether students chose to study English (Q4), and the reason(s) behind their choice (Q5) with six alternatives representing either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. Two reasons represent intrinsic motivation; they are:

- a) It my favourite language and I like it
- b) To learn about its culture.

The other four reasons represent extrinsic motivation, and they are:

- c) To communicate with others.
- d) To become a teacher of English.
- e) To travel abroad or emigrate.
- f) To study abroad.

Section two is entitled students' motivation in writing in English and is made up of thirteen (13) questions. In question 6, students are asked to classify the four language skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing in order of importance from the most important skill to the least important one. The students are requested to use a scale of numbers with (1) being the most important skill and (4) being the least important one. It is followed by question 7, which checks students' consistency in answering the previous question. We have also used a scale and asked the students to classify the writing skill as being: a very important skill, as important as the other skills or not important at all.

In question 8, students are asked to give their opinion about the best way to evaluate their level, and whether it would be through written tests, oral tests or both types of tests.

Question 9 talks about students' feelings when students are asked to write. Do they feel interested, unable or bored?

In question 10, the respondents give their point of view concerning written homework. Do they consider assigning written homework to them as an important element of a student's evaluation/assessment, a good way of improving their English, or rather a burden?

In question 11, students express the goals that they want to accomplish at the end of the written expression course. Is it to pass the course, to improve their written skills, to communicate with other users of English, to be a better writer, to be more educated or all of the above? Here again, we talk about either intrinsic motivation (to improve their written skills, to be a better writer and to be more educated), extrinsic motivation (to pass the course and to communicate with other users of English) or both types of motivation (all of them).

Question 12 expresses students' opinion about the written expression course and whether learners consider it very interesting, interesting or not interesting at all by using a scale.

Question 13 tackles the teacher's correction of the students' written works. Should the teacher correct only the grammatical mistakes, the mistakes related to content, or correct all types of mistakes (i.e. grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and content)?

In question 14, students are asked about their first behaviour when they receive their written work from the teacher and whether they look at the mark, read the teacher's comments, lose their self-confidence from the amount of corrections or learn from their mistakes. Again, here we have divided the behaviour to the one related to intrinsic motivation, i.e. read the teachers' comments, lose their self-confidence from the amount of

corrections, and learn from their mistakes to one behaviour related to extrinsic motivation, which is to look at the mark.

Another scale is used in question 15 to talk about students' opinions concerning the teacher's corrections and if they consider them as being helpful, easy to understand, not much helpful or ambiguous.

In question 16, the respondents are required to state their reasons for writing in English; are these reasons to have extra marks, to improve their composition skills in writing, to improve their knowledge of English, to practice something that they have already learned, or to express their ideas? The reasons of writing in English are also related to extrinsic motivation (to have extra marks) or to intrinsic motivation (to improve their composition skills in writing, to improve their knowledge of English, or to express their ideas).

Question 17 shows how students consider writing. Is it a means of communication, a creative process, a boring activity or a difficult but necessary activity?

The questionnaire closes with question 18 which reveals how important is motivation for learning English and especially for writing in English; is it very important, important or not important?

#### **4.2.3.1.3. The Likert Scale**

In order to measure students' frequency of using the four types of learning strategies, we adapted a Likert-scale questionnaire and we administered it twice: once before the study and then after the study. The Likert-scale questionnaire is one of "the most frequently used methods for the measurement of social attitude. 'The method of summated ratings' developed by Likert [in] 1932" (Singh, 2006, p. 207).

Singh (2006) goes further in defining the Likert method of summated ratings by writing the following:

This method does away with the necessity of submitting items to the judges. After editing the items are given to a group of subjects for responding to each one in terms of their agreement or disagreement. The number of favourable and unfavourable statements should be approximately equal. Usually a 1-5 scale of response is used. A score is given for each item depending upon the response made, a sum of these scores gives the individual score. Final selection of items is done on the criterion of internal consistency. (p. 208)

#### **4.2.3.1.3.1. Piloting the Likert Scale**

Before administering the Likert-scale questionnaire (see appendix D) to the participants, we achieved its validity through a covering letter (see appendix E) which was mailed to five colleagues whose opinions were all positive concerning the wording and the length of the questionnaire, except two colleagues: one who complained about the length of the scale saying that the statements mentioned are “too much” and hence “students may feel bored and start ticking without reading or thinking”. The other colleague made a suggestion, which was taken into consideration, concerning the values of the scale which were 1: never or almost never, 2: not usually, 3: sometimes, 4: usually, and 5: always or almost always and which became: 1: never, 2: rarely, 3: sometimes, 4: often and 5: always.

#### **4.2.3.1.3.2. Description of the Likert Scale**

In order to measure the use of the four learning strategies, i.e. metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies by students, we devised a five-point Likert scale (see appendix F) adapted from both Oxford’s SILL (the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) (1990), and a questionnaire by Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005). The Likert-scale is made of a scale of five values representing the frequency of the use of the learning strategies by our learners, with 1 being never, 2 rarely, 3 sometimes, 4 often and 5 always. We administered the Likert-scale twice: the first time before the quasi-experiment and the

second time after the quasi-experiment to see if the students have gained the use of the writing strategies or not.

For the first type of the learning strategies, i.e. metacognitive strategies, there were eighteen (18) items. The metacognitive strategies included using any opportunity to write in English (item 1), learning from prior mistakes (item 2), goal-setting (item 3), self-regulation (item 4), time-management (item 5), planning (items 6, 10 & 15), monitoring (items 7, 9 & 13), organization (item 8), self-evaluation (items 11 & 18), comparing one's writing with the writing of a friend (item 12), imagining ideas related to the topic of the composition (item 14), writing by oneself (item 16) and reading (item 17) .

For the second type of learning strategies, cognitive strategies, these are the items. There were twelve (12) statements representing the cognitive strategies. They are: memorization (item 19), use of prior knowledge (retrieving) and ideas (items 20 & 21), use of the target language (item 22), summarizing (item 23), thinking (item 24), drafting (item 25), asking oneself about the topic of the composition (item 26), using other material to write (item 27), making notes (item 28), mechanics (item 29) and imagining the things one is writing about (item 30).

Social strategies are made of seven strategies. They are planning one's writing with a friend (item 31), writing by oneself (item 32), which is the opposite of the preceding item, asking help from peers (item 33), considering others' reactions to one's writing (item 34), asking the teacher for clarification (item 35), asking help from peers (item 36), and discussing one's writing with others (item 37).

The last type of learning strategies is affective strategies and they are grouped in sixteen (16) statements. Affective strategies include: liking writing (items 38 & 42), problem-solution while writing (item 39), encouragement (item 40), self-motivation (items 41 & 46), writing in free time (item 43), choosing the topics of writing (item 44), thinking

that writing is an interesting activity (item 45), self-encouragement (item 47), writing from one's own will (item 48), to stop writing in the case of problems (item 49), relaxing in the case of having problems (item 50), self-rewarding (item 51), noticing being nervous while composing (item 52) and talking with a friend about one's feeling about writing (item 53).

#### **4.2.3.1.4. Teacher' Questionnaire**

##### **4.4.3.1.4.1. Piloting the Questionnaire**

Before giving the teachers' questionnaire (see appendix G), we piloted it with five colleagues also who suggested some of the changes.

Six questions were deleted from the questionnaire; these are:

Q6: Which teaching method are you using in your classroom?

Q8: Would you explain the main steps that you go through in teaching written expression?

Q13: Before choosing a writing material, which elements do you consider in your selection?

Q15: When you give your students writing activities, which strategies are you targeting?

Please, say why?

Q21: Do you focus on students' participation in your written expression session?

Yes

No

Q22: How do you deal with students who do not participate often?

- a. Advise them-
- b. Threaten them (by scores, for example)-
- c. Force them (for example, by asking them directly and waiting for their answers)-
- d. Other, please specify.

Other questions needed amendments, such as:

Section one: Background information

Q4: What is your academic degree?

Option “a”: “licence” was changed to “master” whereas option “d” : professor was omitted.

#### Section Two: Written Expression/Writing Strategies

Q10 (Q8 in the questionnaire): What are your students’ weaknesses in writing?

Option “e”: the word “confidence” was changed by “self-confidence”.

#### Section Three: Motivation

Q20 (Q 16 in the questionnaire): How would you describe the learning atmosphere?

Option “b”: “demotivating” was changed into “not much motivating”.

Q26 (Q20 in the questionnaire): According to you, would teaching students writing strategies improve their writing?

Yes

No

Please, say how? The word “how” was changed by “why”.

#### **4.4.3.1.4.2. Description of Teachers’ Questionnaire**

Teachers’ questionnaire (see appendix H) was designed to elicit information about the techniques that the teachers use to teach written expression module to first-year students and their students’ level of motivation. Besides, it aimed at finding out their opinion concerning the use of the strategy approach to teach writing.

The teachers’ questionnaire is made up of three sections. Section one seeks teachers’ background information and is made up of five (5) questions: teachers’ gender (Q1), age (Q2), teaching experience (Q3), academic degree (Q4), and the modules that the teachers have taught (Q5).

Section two is entitled written expression and writing strategies; its aim is to discover teachers’ approaches in teaching writing and the writing activities they assign to their students. This section is made up of six (6) questions. Question 6 is asked about the approach adopted by teachers to teach written expression. Is it the product approach, the

process approach, the product-process approach, the genre approach, the strategy approach or other? Each type of approach is defined briefly to enable teachers recall their information about the different approaches in teaching writing.

Question 7 relates to the elements in writing which teachers regard essential to teach to students; are they grammar, vocabulary, the mechanics of language (spelling, punctuation, and capitalization), or other elements?

In question 8, teachers give their students' weaknesses in writing and whether these weaknesses are in grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, ideas/content, self-confidence and motivation, or others.

In question 9, teachers are required to mention their students' strengths in writing; are they in grammar, vocabulary, the mechanics of language, content and ideas, creativity or other elements?

Question 10 seeks data about the writing activities teachers usually give to their students. It is followed by stating the aim behind such activities.

In question 11, teachers give their opinion about the type of writing strategies that they favour their students to use; are they cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, social strategies, affective strategies or all of them? Each type of strategies is defined briefly to allow teachers to give accurate answers. Moreover, they have to explain why.

In section three, which is related to motivation, there are nine questions. In question 12, teachers explain how motivation is important in learning. Besides, they enumerate the factors that weaken or increase students' motivation (questions 13 & 14).

Question 15 is about intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, which are defined briefly. Then, teachers are asked about the type of motivation that their students have. Are their learners intrinsically or extrinsically motivated, or rather demotivated?



Question 16 concerns the learning atmosphere and if it is motivating or not much motivating.

In question 17, teachers are invited to give the techniques they use in order to motivate their students, so it is an open-ended question.

Question 18 is a follow-up to the preceding one and concerns the type of activities that the teachers use when their students are unmotivated; are these activities related to external motivation, such as scores, or related to internal motivation, such as interest and positive learning environment?

Question 19 is about the students' level of motivation during the written expression course. Are these students highly motivated, moderately motivated, or have a low level of motivation?

The last question (Q20) asks teachers about their opinion concerning teaching students writing strategies and whether these strategies would improve their writing.

#### **4.2.3.2. Scores Analysis**

The present study required the comparison of scores for the experimental groups before and after the quasi-experiment. Thus, we used a pre-test (see appendix J) at the beginning of the study and a posttest (see appendix O) at the end of the study. In both tests, the students had to write a paragraph. The pre-test was writing a paragraph about the most terrifying thing which happened to the participants whereas the posttest was writing a comparison and contrast paragraph about high school and university. To correct students' writing works and to evaluate them, we used a scoring rubric for the paragraph which was adapted from the work of Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue (2007) entitled "Introduction to academic writing". The scoring rubric for the paragraph included five main headings: format, punctuation and mechanics, content, organization, plus grammar and sentence structure. The following table shows how each part was evaluated and scored.

### Scoring Rubric for the Paragraph (Evaluation Grid)

Headings	Maximum score
<b>1. Format: 1 pt</b>	
• There is a title and it is centered.	0.5
• The first line is indented and the paragraph is double-spaced.	0.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2. Punctuation and mechanics: 3 pts</b>	
• There is a period after each sentence.	0.5
• Capital letters are used correctly.	0.5
• The spelling is correct.	1
• Commas are used correctly.	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>3. Content: 6 pts</b>	
• The paragraph fits the assignment.	2
• The paragraph is interesting to read.	2
• The paragraph shows that the writer used care and thought.	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>4. Organization: 6 pts</b>	
• The paragraph begins with a topic sentence that has both a topic and a controlling idea.	2
• The paragraph has several supporting sentences.	2
• The paragraph ends with a concluding sentence.	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>5. Grammar and sentence Structure: 4 pts</b>	
• Subject-verb agreement + use of prepositions and articles	1
• Correct verb tenses	1
• There are no fragments, comma splices and run-ons.	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Grand total</b>	<b>20</b>

#### 4.2.4. The Teaching Model and Learning Strategies Instruction

The instructional framework which was used in the present study was based on the explicit teaching of learning and writing strategies. We divided the learning and writing strategies into four types: metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies (as it was

suggested in the literature). But as it was impossible to introduce all the strategies, we chose the following:

1. Metacognitive strategies:

- Goal-setting
- Self-evaluation
- Planning
- Revising
- Reading
- Self-monitoring

2. Cognitive strategies

- Use of prior knowledge
- Using the dictionary
- Editing: checking spelling, punctuation, capitalization & grammar mistakes

3. Social strategies

- Working with a friend
- Asking help from teacher and friends
- Asking the teacher questions

4. Affective strategies

- Self-encouragement
- Self-motivation
- Self-rewarding
- Controlling anxiety

We chose these strategies because, as Chamot and O'Malley (1986) argue, "some learning strategies are particularly powerful because they can be used for many different types of learning activities" (p. 17). They gave the examples of two metacognitive

strategies which can be applied to many types of learning and which are selective attention and self-evaluation. Learners can use selective attention to help them grasp a learning task by paying attention to the linguistic markers which signal the type of information that will follow, such as “Today we're going to talk about,..” , or "The most important thing to remember about", or "Finally,..".

Self-evaluation, on the other hand, “assists learning by helping students decide how well they have accomplished a learning task and whether they need to relearn or review any aspects of it” (Chamot & O’Malley, 1986, p. 18).

The study was conducted during the second semester of the academic year 2016/2017 in December with the preliminary questionnaire. The reason behind this is that the first semester of the written expression course in first year is dedicated to the study of the sentence (its structure, its different types and the problems related to it, such as fragments, comma splices, run-ons, dangling and misplaced modifiers, wordiness and parallelism). The second semester deals with the writing process and the paragraph (its format, structure and types) (see appendix I). As a result, we could not start our study earlier than December.

Table 4.3 summarizes the instructional framework adopted in the present study.

**Table 4.3**

***The Instructional Framework of the Study***

Period of time	Research tools and procedure
December	Preliminary questionnaire/Pre-test
January	Pre-instruction Likert-scale questionnaire
February	Learning Strategies Instruction
March	Learning Strategies Instruction
April	Students’ Motivation Questionnaire Teachers’ Questionnaire
May	Post-instruction Likert-scale questionnaire Posttest

As the above table shows, in December (4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup>), we administered the preliminary questionnaire, whose aim was to answer the first research question: Do students use learning strategies? And its sub-question: and if yes, what are they? The preliminary questionnaire took between 45 minutes and one hour to be filled in. But before administering the questionnaire, we had to pilot it with a small number of students. This was done with ten students whose opinions were positive concerning the wording of the questionnaire. In the next week, i.e. on the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> of December, students took the pre-test (see appendix J), which was writing a narrative paragraph about the most terrifying thing which happened to them or to one of their friends or relatives. The students were told that they were required to do such an assignment to gather data about their level in writing in English so that they do not figure out the aim of the study and be affected by the Hawthorne effect. The pre-test lasted for one hour in which students were free to use their cell-phone dictionaries to translate words from Arabic to English or to check the spelling of some words. They also used the social strategy of seeking help from teacher and peers.

In January, we administered the Likert-scale questionnaire to see the frequency of the use of the four types of strategies, i.e. metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective.

In February, March, April and May, we opted for the explicit teaching of the learning and writing strategies since learning strategies are “learnable and teachable” (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014, p. 7). However, these authors believe that the teaching/learning dimension of language learning strategies is not straightforward in practice.

Chamot (2004) argues that instruction in learning strategies for both reading and writing in first language contexts should be an explicit strategy instruction. She writes the following:

Explicit learning strategy instruction essentially involves the development of students’ awareness of the strategies they use, teacher modeling of strategic

thinking, student practice with new strategies, student self-evaluation of the strategies used, and practice in transferring strategies to new tasks. (p. 19)

The explicit strategy instruction is also favoured in second-language contexts. Yet, the question raised here is should strategies instruction be integrated into the language curriculum or taught separately?

Chamot (2004) suggests an explicit and integrated learning strategy instruction, i.e. teachers should integrate the strategy explicit instruction into their regular course work, rather than provide a separate learning strategies course.

There are many models for instruction of learning strategies in both first and second language contexts, such as the CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach), developed by Chamot and O'Malley in 1986, and SRSD (Self-Regulated Strategy Development), pioneered by Graham and Harris.

The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) “has been implemented in bilingual and ESL classrooms” (Chamot, 1995, p. 379), and its aim is to help students learning English become more successful academically by offering them opportunities to develop their listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills, and by using an explicit instruction in learning strategies.

The cognitive learning theory which CALLA is derived from advocates that learners are mentally active participants in the teaching-learning process. Learners are encouraged to use their prior knowledge to solve new problems, to look for meaning in incoming information, to think critically, and to regulate their own learning (Chamot, 1995). The CALLA model requires teachers to ask students to “reflect on their own learning, and develop a strategic approach to learning and problem solving” (ibid., p. 380).

These teaching approaches have many similarities. They share in common the fact of developing students' metacognitive understanding of the value of learning strategies via

teacher demonstration and modeling. Besides, they focus on offering many activities which help students use the learned strategies in an autonomous way. Finally, they state that learners should consider the effectiveness of a strategy in a given task and its transfer to other tasks. Table 4.4 (cited in Chamot, 2004) summarizes two models used in the strategy instruction.

**Table 4.4**

*Models for Language Learning Strategy Instruction: Adapted from Harris (2003)(cited in Chamot, 2004, p. 22)*

<b>CALLA** Model (Chamot, 2005; Chamot et al., 1999)</b>	<b>Grenfell &amp; Harris (1999)</b>
<b>Preparation:</b> Teacher identifies students' current learning strategies for familiar tasks.	<b>Awareness raising:</b> Students complete a task, and then identify the strategies they used.
<b>Presentation:</b> Teacher models, names, explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it.	<b>Modeling:</b> Teacher models, discusses value of new strategy, makes checklist of strategies for later use.
<b>Practice:</b> Students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher fades reminders to encourage independent strategy use.	<b>General practice:</b> Students practice new strategies with different tasks.
<b>Self-evaluation:</b> Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice.	<b>Action planning:</b> Students set goals and choose strategies to attain those goals.
<b>Expansion:</b> Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies.	<b>Focused practice:</b> Students carry out action plan using selected strategies; teacher fades prompts so that students use strategies automatically.
<b>Assessment:</b> Teacher assesses students' use of strategies and impact on performance.	<b>Evaluation:</b> Teacher and students evaluate success of action plan; set new goals; cycle begins again.

If we want to compare between the two models, we can say that both first specify the learners' present learning strategies via filling in questionnaires, or talking about the strategies used after doing a language task. Besides, both models state that the instructor should model the new strategy, and so makes the instruction explicit. Chamot (2004) argues that "the CALLA model is recursive rather than linear" (p. 21) so that it helps

teachers and students to revisit prior instructional phases as needed. However, the Grenfell and Harris (1999) model requires students to work through a cycle of six steps, and then begin a new cycle. Moreover, the Grenfell and Harris model supplies students with a familiarization with the new strategies, and then encourages them to make personal plans to improve their own learning, whereas the CALLA model helps learners to evaluate their own use of strategies before transferring these strategies to new tasks.

As a conclusion, we can say that the present patterns of language learning strategy instruction focus on the development of learners' knowledge about their own thinking and strategic processes and their encouragement to adopt strategies which will improve their language learning and proficiency.

Each lesson was divided into five steps: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation and follow-up.

In the first stage, i.e. preparation, we tried to motivate our learners by immersing them inside the content of the course. Since the second semester was dedicated for the paragraph, as it was mentioned earlier, we started by introducing the writing process for the subjects. This was difficult for them because Arabic does not use the same pattern. The writing process was defined and was divided into four major steps: prewriting, drafting, reviewing and revising, and rewriting. In prewriting, we focused on choosing a topic, gathering ideas, and organizing them. In drafting, we had only one step, writing the paragraph from start to finish using students' notes gathered in the preceding stage. In reviewing and revising, students are required to check what they have written to add more information or delete unnecessary one. In the final stage, rewriting, students go through three steps, which are revising structure and content, proofreading and making final corrections.



As mentioned earlier, we divided prewriting into three steps. Step one is choosing a topic and narrowing it; either the teacher gives students an assignment or they have to choose their topic by themselves. The topic should be neither too narrow, so that it doesn't require much to write about nor too broad, so that there will be too many ideas for a paragraph. Students were given the broad topic of "schools" and together with the teacher narrowed it into some aspects of schools, such as "secondary schools in my country". After that students were given broad topics to narrow down. These included: festivals, friends, my country, dancing and cars. They were, then, required to compare their answers with those of their friends to practice the social strategy of working with peers.

Step two is gathering ideas by brainstorming. Brainstorming, which was totally a new concept for students, was defined as "a storm going on in the writer's brain". It is a technique for gathering ideas. Students were required to write any idea which comes to them. Three types of brainstorming were taught, which are making a list, freewriting and mapping. Each technique was defined and illustrated with an example and it was followed with an activity in which students had to show that they have mastered these new concepts and techniques, which are part of the writing process used in most English-speaking university classes.

These activities were working with a partner or small group (again using the social strategy of working with peers) to list as many ideas as they could about the following topics:

- Travel
- Things to do at the beach
- Teenage fashion

The students were required to do this activity in five minutes only because gathering ideas should not take much time.

After that students had to work alone (to create variety in the different learning strategies) and list as many ideas as they could by choosing a topic from the first activity.

These topics are

- Festivals
- Friends
- My country
- Dancing
- Cars

The activity also took five minutes.

In the following exercise concerning freewriting, students were required to use one of the narrowed topics used in the first exercise and practice freewriting for five minutes to generate ideas. They were required not to stop, erase or go back.

In exercise 5, students had also to choose one narrowed topic from the first exercise and make a map in five minutes. They had to share their map with a partner and explain to him/her how the circles used in the map are related to each other.

The last exercise was about editing the step of brainstorming by keeping interesting ideas related to the topic and crossing out unrelated information. The students had to show their editing to their partner and explain how they edited their brainstorming.

In this example session, which served as the first course, the teacher used the five steps suggested in the CALLA model.

During the preparation, we got the students ready for the lesson by introducing the main concepts: writing process, prewriting, narrowing a topic, brainstorming, listing, freewriting, mapping, and editing.

Then, in the presentation stage, the teacher presented the new concepts by explaining them and giving examples to students. After that the learners had to practice the

new learned material through exercises. It was followed by an evaluation by teacher and peers. Moreover, the students were encouraged to check their understanding of the teaching material which was presented to them through self-evaluation. The last step was a follow-up activity, which will be done in subsequent courses, as students will practice these activities whenever they have to write a paragraph.

All these activities can be grouped under the broad metacognitive strategy of planning.

The second course was about paragraph format. Here again, the format of a paragraph written in English was totally different from that written in Arabic. We presented two paragraph formats: the handwritten assignment and the computer-written assignment. For the first type, the following elements were discussed: paper, ink, the heading, the assignment title, the body, the margins and the spacing. On the other hand, the following items were discussed for the computer-written assignment: paper, font, the heading, the assignment title, the body, the margins and the space. After that, the students were given homework. They had to choose either form to write a paragraph in which they had to introduce themselves.

The third course was about the structure of the paragraph. First, the paragraph was defined and its different parts were introduced: the topic sentence, the supporting sentences, the concluding sentence and the controlling idea. These new concepts for our learners were thoroughly explained and they were followed by illustrations. The students were presented with a paragraph about Switzerland, followed by questions. The learners were required to give the topic of the paragraph (to figure out the topic sentence), the main idea about the topic (the controlling idea), and the ideas which explained the main idea (supporting sentences). Then, each type of sentences was also explained in a detailed way. For instance, the topic sentence and the controlling idea were defined, followed by their characteristics and examples for each one. After that, the learners were shown how to

develop a topic sentence into supporting details. At the end, the concluding sentence was defined and students were shown how to conclude a paragraph by conclusion signals, such as all in all, in brief, in conclusion, indeed, in short, in summary, to conclude, to summarize or to sum up. To check students' understanding of the above-mentioned concepts, the teacher gave some assignments to her students (see appendix K). These included distinguishing between the topic sentence and the controlling idea, and deciding about strong topic sentences among a group of sentences.

After that, students had to work with a partner or in groups (peer or group work) to choose good topic sentences and tell what's wrong with the other sentences; are they too specific or too general?

In the following activity, students also had to work with a partner or small groups to add as many supporting sentences as they could to each of the given topic sentences. Then, students were given a paragraph in disorder and they were asked to put it in order by beginning with the topic sentence, then the supporting details and finally the concluding sentence. They had to pay attention for cohesive markers such as first, second, third, and finally.

After that, the students were given groups of supporting sentences and they were required to choose to each group the appropriate topic sentence, which was provided to them. Then, they were given paragraphs and were asked to write a topic sentence for each one. The last activity was to provide a concluding sentence for each paragraph.

The fourth course was about paragraph unity and coherence. Paragraph unity is very important in English, and it means that all the supporting sentences discuss only one idea whereas coherence means that the paragraph flows smoothly from beginning to end. Students were given rules about how to achieve coherence through using nouns and pronouns consistently, using transitional words to show the relationships between ideas

and putting ideas into logical order. These were followed by activities to check students' understanding.

The fifth course was about outlining and the two types of outlines: simple and detailed with examples.

After that, we introduced the seven types of paragraphs (see appendices L & M), each one at a time. We began with narration which was defined and its five properties were given and explained, i.e. situation, conflict, struggle, outcome and meaning or significance of the story. Then we presented the four properties which should be present in many forms of narratives, i.e. description, dialogue, transitional words and consistent tense. The teacher, then, gave the students an example of a narrative and they discussed its properties besides its techniques. At the end, the students were assigned homework which was writing a paragraph about a memorable event or a memorable experience in their lives. The teacher divided this task into many sub-tasks which included the following:

- Pre-write to get ideas.
- Organize the ideas; put the events into time order. Make a list of the events or number them on your freewriting paper; use your list to guide you as you write.
- Write a rough draft. Begin your paragraph with a sentence that tells what event or experience you're going to write about. Use your time order to organize your paragraph. Use time order signals, and punctuate them correctly.
- Polish the rough draft. Write a second draft. Use self-editing worksheet number 2 to check your second draft for grammar, punctuation, sentence structure.
- Write a final copy. Hand in your rough draft, your second draft, your final copy and the self-editing sheet.

As it can be seen, the writing process was focused on. Students were encouraged to use self-editing sheets (see appendix N) to check their writing as in SRSD.

The second type of paragraph was description. We divided description into two types: effective objective and effective subjective. We also gave the students the characteristics of a descriptive paragraph, followed with an example.

The third type of paragraphs was exemplification, i.e. writing with examples to explain, convince or amuse. The characteristics of good examples and the techniques for finding examples were also tackled followed with an example paragraph.

The fourth type of paragraphs was process analysis, i.e. writing about doing. The students were told that there are two types of process analysis: directive and informative. Each one must go through stages or steps and the time order must be chronological. It was also followed with an example paragraph and homework in which students were required to write a process analysis paragraph about either how to choose a marriage partner or how to drive a teacher crazy. We believed that these two topics are of interest to our juvenile sample.

The fifth type of paragraphs was determining reasons and outcomes with an example.

Paragraph number six was comparison and contrast or showing similarities and differences. The development of a good paragraph of comparison and contrast can occur by developing the 4Ps: Purpose, Points, Patterns and Presentation. The students were told that they can either write a point-by-point comparison and contrast paragraph, or a subject-by-subject comparison and contrast paragraph. Both were explored using examples. At the end the students were assigned homework which was writing a point-by-point comparison and contrast paragraph about two mothers: one who stays at home and one who works outside home.

The last type of paragraphs was argument, i.e. writing to persuade. The argumentative paragraph was defined and its characteristics (background, proposition, qualification of

proposition, refutation and support) were presented and illustrated. Examples of argumentative paragraphs followed the theoretical course.

Also, students had to use different self-editing sheets (see appendix N) in the different steps of the writing process and for the different types of paragraphs as it is used in the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD). These included a self-editing worksheet 1 for paragraph format and paragraph structure, a self-editing worksheet 2 for narrative paragraphs, a self-editing worksheet 3 for descriptive paragraphs, a self-editing worksheet 4 for process paragraphs, and a self-editing worksheet 5 for comparison/contrast paragraphs. The aim behind such self-editing worksheets is to encourage students to check the points that should be present in each type of paragraphs. These characteristics include: paragraph format, content and organization, punctuation, capitalization and spelling, grammar and sentence structure, and personal grammar trouble spots.

#### **4.2.5. Research Procedure**

The ultimate aim of this work was to measure the effect (if any) of the learning strategies as the independent variable on students' writing productions as the dependent variable using the moderator variable of motivation. We did so by measuring students' level writing before and after the use of learning strategies.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, there are three variables in this study: learning strategies as an independent variable, students' written performances as a dependent variable, and motivation as a moderator variable.

##### **4.2.5.1. Pilot Study**

In order to render the study more reliable, we piloted it with a group other than those who took part in the study during the academic year 2015/2016 and we came to a number of conclusions. First, we devised the pre-test and the questionnaire at the same time and on the same papers (see appendix P). And this has shown to be difficult for the

analysis. Moreover, we insisted on writing the topic sentence and the supporting sentences for each paragraph and this was insufficient to write a coherent and a well-structured paragraph. The pre-test consisted of two parts: part one, which included the questionnaire, and part two, which included the writing test. Part two had three activities: in the first activity, students were given a comparison and contrast paragraph which lacked both a topic sentence and a concluding sentence and they were required to provide them. In the second activity, they were given a topic sentence about the reasons of preferring to be single and they were asked to write three supporting details and a good concluding sentence. The third activity consisted in writing a paragraph about a person who has influenced them, but they had to go through stages. Stage one was to use brainstorming, then to use clustering, outlining, writing a draft, revising the draft and finally editing the paragraph.

The data collected from all these activities were very difficult to analyze, tabulate and interpret. Besides, we did not use a scoring rubric to evaluate students' paragraphs, and so using summative rating has shown to be a subjective way to correct learners' written compositions.

Another pitfall to the pilot study is that we did not divide the learning strategies into their four types: metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective, and we referred only to some writing strategies such as planning, revising, and goal-setting.

The drawbacks of the pilot study helped us to devise another research design with a preliminary questionnaire, a Likert-scale questionnaire, a students' motivation questionnaire, a teachers' questionnaire, a strategy instruction model, a pre-test and a posttest.



#### **4.2.5.2. Data Analysis Procedure**

In order to analyze the data collected, we used different techniques and procedures, such as quantitative, qualitative and statistical analyses.

The quantitative research dealt with the quasi experiment and with close-ended questions whether in the preliminary questionnaire, the Likert-scale questionnaire, the students' motivation questionnaire and the teachers' questionnaire.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, characterized the open-ended questions in the preliminary questionnaire, the students' motivation questionnaire, and the teachers' questionnaire. In fact, we have used a mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2003) in order to increase the validity of the study.

Mixed methods approach entails gathering and interpreting both quantitative and qualitative data in the same research work. The idea of mixing different methods began in 1959, when Campbell and Fiske employed a number of methods to study validity of psychological traits (Creswell, 2003). After that, they encouraged other researchers to use their "multi-method matrix" to study multiple approaches to data collection in a study. This encouraged others to mix methods, so they combined observations and interviews (qualitative data) with traditional surveys (quantitative data). The aim behind such mixing is to neutralize the limitations and biases inherent in any single method. Hence, the term "triangulation" emerged to converge qualitative and quantitative methods. Triangulation involves nesting one method within another method to improve the validity of a research work.

Besides quantitative and qualitative research we employed descriptive and inferential statistics in order to compare between the means of the experimental groups before and after the study to confirm or reject the hypotheses.

In order to decide which type of test we should use to analyze the data obtained, a set of conditions should be met. First of all, we have to decide which kind of hypothesis (es) we have. There are three types of hypotheses: neutral or null hypotheses, one-tailed hypotheses and two-tailed hypotheses. A null hypothesis does not predict a difference between the independent variable and the dependent variable. A one-tailed hypothesis predicts the direction or the difference between the independent variable and the dependent variable in one direction, for example the improvement of students' scores after the implementation of a given teaching procedure. A two-tailed hypothesis states that there will be a difference at the end of a study, but it does not specify whether this difference will be positive or negative.

In our study, we have predicted the direction of our two hypotheses, so they are one-tailed hypotheses.

Second, we have to ensure which type of inferential statistics we have; are they parametric or nonparametric? These deal with the parameters of the population from which we have drawn our sample. In order to use parametric statistics, some assumptions must be met before the tests can be appropriately used. Some of the assumptions for parametric tests include the following (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 271):

- The data are normally distributed, and means and standard deviations are appropriate measures of central tendency.
- The data (dependent variable) are interval data (e.g., scores on a test).
- Independence of observations-scores on one measure does not influence scores on another measure (e.g., a score on an oral test at Time 1 does not bias the score on an oral test at Time 2).

Inasmuch as these assumptions are met, we have used a parametric test to analyze the data gathered from students' writing.

It is assumed that parametric tests are more powerful than non-parametric tests. This means that they are more likely “to detect a genuine effect because they are more sensitive ..... [and are] more likely to detect an effect that does not really exist” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 272). Another advantage of parametric tests is that “there is more information that feeds into the statistic” (ibid.). When a statistical test has less power, it may be difficult to determine the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, leading to a Type II error, or failure to reject the null hypothesis when it is incorrect. Nevertheless, when a researcher uses a parametric statistic when it is not suitable, this may result in a Type I error and so leads to an incorrect rejection of the null hypothesis.

The parametric test that we adopted in the present study is the *t*-test since we aimed at comparing the means of the experimental groups before and after the quasi-experiment. The *t*-test is used when we want to find out if the means of two groups are significantly different from one another. There are two types of *t*-tests: the *t*-test for independent samples, which is used when the groups are independent, and the paired *t*-test, which is used when the groups are not independent, as in a pretest/ posttest situation when the focus is within a group (such as an individual's achievement before treatment compared with his or her own achievement after treatment). In the present study, we have used the second type, i.e. the paired *t*-test.

### **4.3. Conclusion**

The present chapter makes the beginning of the field work. Its aim is to describe thoroughly the methodological framework for the present research work. We talked in detail about the quasi-experimental method that was used to show the effect (if any) of the independent variable -learning strategies- on the dependent variable -students' written productions- using motivation as a moderator variable. The population targeted in this

study is university first-year students of English as a foreign language, and the chosen sample is two intact groups drawn from the whole population.

The data collection tools included questionnaires and scores analysis which were both piloted and described thoroughly to achieve their validity. The teaching model that was used was inspired from both the CALLA model (the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) introduced by Chamot and O'Malley, and SRSD (Self-Regulated Strategy Development) developed by Graham and Harris.

Before undergoing such research, we had to pilot it to improve its validity and practicality. The data analysis procedure relied on a mixed methods approach which blended the quantitative, the qualitative, and the statistical approaches to limit the bias of each method. Finally, the powerful parametric paired *t*-test is used as a statistical tool to interpret the differences which occurred between the participants' scores before and after the quasi-experiment.

## CHAPTER FIVE

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## CHAPTER FIVE

### DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

#### 5.1. Introduction

The preceding chapter explained in detail the research design and instruments, and the present chapter will display the results obtained from the different research tools. Besides, it will present an analysis of the data gathered through the questionnaires and the scores analysis. At the end, we will accept or refuse the two hypotheses set at the beginning of the study via statistical techniques.

#### 5.2. The Preliminary Questionnaire: Analysis and Discussion

The questionnaire gave the following results: for section one, (Q1), 44 (73.33%) of the respondents are females whereas 16 (26.67%) are males. Their age varies between 17 and 23 (Q2) and their Baccalaureate option ranges from literature and foreign languages (45%) to natural or exact sciences (38.33%) to literature and philosophy (11.67%) (Q3).

Table 5.1 summarizes the findings concerning (Q3).

**Table 5.1*****Students' Baccalaurate Options***

Option	Number	Rate
Literature and foreign languages	27	45%
Literature and philosophy	07	11.67%
Natural/exact sciences	23	38.33%
Exact sciences	01	01.67%
Other: sports and technical mathematics	02	03.33
Total	60	100%

For (Q4), how many years have you been studying English? The answers were from 7 to 9 years. Also the majority of the respondents (54 or 90%) confirmed that they chose to study English whereas (06 or 10%) said that it was not their choice and that it was imposed on them (Q5). The reasons behind their choice were mentioned in chapter 4, section 4.2.1.2.

We can summarize students' reasons to study English in table 5.2., which divides the reasons to either reasons related to intrinsic motivation or reasons related to extrinsic motivation.

**Table 5.2*****Students Reasons for Studying English***

Intrinsic motivation	Extrinsic motivation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is my favourite language; I really love it.</li> <li>• I want to know more about English, and I want to enrich my culture.</li> <li>• Learning English is fun.</li> <li>• To improve my English and my skills, and to communicate with others.</li> <li>• I have a great motivation to learn it.</li> <li>• It is easy to learn.</li> <li>• To improve my writing and spelling skills.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• My dreams will come true by studying it.</li> <li>• It was my father's choice.</li> <li>• To become a teacher of English.</li> <li>• I couldn't study another field.</li> <li>• It is the most frequently used language in the world.</li> <li>• To travel to foreign countries.</li> <li>• I didn't have a better choice.</li> <li>• To emigrate and to study abroad.</li> </ul>

We can say that our learners are both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to learn English.

Now, we move to the analysis of students' responses in section two of the questionnaire, entitled students' strengths, weaknesses and difficulties in writing.

For (Q7), what constitutes good writing, the students gave the following elements: vocabulary, grammar, handwriting, good organization, spelling, correct sentences, content, style, good ideas, impressing the reader, and punctuation. Good writing is made up of "good grammar, rich vocabulary, correct spelling, and appropriate punctuation".

For (Q8), students' difficulties in writing in English are: spelling, punctuation, capitalization, vocabulary, organization, grammar, ideas, a combination of problems, the use of verb tenses, expressing ideas, sentences, lack of words, style of writing, "losing



words sometimes”, writing good paragraphs and correct sentences, language transfer (French to English), lack of appropriate strategies, coherence, and wordiness.

For students’ strengths (Q9) in writing in English, they include: organizing ideas, grammar, vocabulary, learning from teacher’s feedback, good vocabulary, loving English, spelling, capitalization, ideas, style, content, punctuation, coherence, understanding key words, considering the audience, and creativity. Despite the fact that students affirmed that their strengths lie in correct spelling, rich vocabulary, and interesting ideas expressed in good organization, a lot of them were not consistent in their answers with the answers of the previous question (Q8). On one hand, they said that their difficulties were in grammar, spelling, punctuation, and vocabulary, and on the other hand, they took these elements as their strengths.

Concerning their weaknesses in writing, they gave the following: verb tenses, grammar, punctuation, capitalization, writing good paragraphs, coherence, lack of ideas, spelling, convert one’s ideas into good sentences, organization of ideas, lack of rich vocabulary, handwriting, organization, confidence, motivation, time, and combining sentences and ideas to make meaningful passages.

Question 10: What makes writing difficult for you?

- a. Grammar, vocabulary, organization – b. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization- c. Content, style, ideas – d. Anxiety – e. Thinking about the reader –
- f. Difficult/unclear instructions

**Table 5.3**

***Students’ Writing Difficulties***

a	f	b	e	c	d
45	27	21	21	15	13

What make writing difficult for students are (from the most difficult aspect to the least difficult one): grammar, vocabulary, and organization, then difficult and unclear instructions, followed by the mechanics of writing, i.e. spelling, punctuation and capitalization, in addition to considering the reader, and finally anxiety.

Question 11: What are your strengths in writing?

- a. Grammar, vocabulary – b. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization – c. Content, style, ideas – d. Creativity – e. Confidence in yourself and motivation –
- f. Impressing the reader

**Table 5.4**

***Students' Strengths in Writing***

e	c	b	a	d	f
36	27	25	24	23	18

Students' strengths in writing are (from the first to the last): confidence in themselves and motivation, then content, style, and ideas. After that, they answered by spelling, punctuation, and capitalization. The option that was given last was impressing the reader.

Question 12: What are your weaknesses in writing?

- a. Grammar, vocabulary – b. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization –
- c. Ideas/content – d. Confidence and motivation

**Table 5.5**

***Students' Weaknesses in Writing***

a	b	c	d
37	27	17	14

Students' weaknesses in writing range from grammar and vocabulary to confidence and motivation.

Question 13: How did you know about your strengths and weaknesses?

- a. From others (e.g. teacher and friends) – b. Marks/performance – c. From reviewing your own work

**Table 5.6**

*The Way of Knowing Students' Strengths and Weaknesses*

b	c	a
30	30	25

The students knew about their strengths and weaknesses either from reviewing their own work or through their marks.

**Section Three: Students' Cognitive, Metacognitive, Social and Affective Strategies**

Question 14: Did your high school teacher provide you with some writing techniques? If so, what are they?

Forty two (42) students, i.e. (70%) affirmed that they were provided with some writing techniques by their teacher in high school. However, eighteen (18) students, i.e. (30%) infirmed that information.

For the students who were provided with the writing techniques, they stated the following:

- To use transitional words (first, then, after that, etc) and to write introduction, body and conclusion
- Considering the audience
- Planning (metacognitive strategy) and organizing (cognitive strategy).

- The teacher told us to learn 10 words per day, i.e. 70 words per week, so we will have a good vocabulary (memorization).
- Types of sentences and summarizing a text (cognitive strategy).
- Use of conjunctions (coherence)
- Indentation, punctuation, and capitalization (mechanics)
- How to communicate with others and with native speakers (social strategy)
- She provided us with models.
- Using a draft before writing, keep your dictionary near to you (cognitive strategy), use academic language, avoid repetition, and use a lot of synonyms.
- Note-taking and how to maximize our time (time-management)
- Avoid using complicated words, and use a clear and understandable style of writing with correct grammar.

We can summarize these techniques in table 5.7:

**Table 5.7**

***Writing Techniques from High School***

Metacognitive Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Social strategies	Affective strategies
Planning(3)- practice(1)- time- management(1)	Using the dictionary(2)- Organizing the information (introduction, body, conclusion)(12)- summarizing(3)-drafting(1)-use of different models(2)- memorization(1)-grammar(1)- punctuation(4)-capitalization(3)	How to communicate with others and with native speakers(1)	None

The number between parentheses shows the number of times the strategy is mentioned from the respondents. We notice that the affective strategies were not

introduced in high school. Besides, the other types of strategies are taught but with a very little occurrence, except for organizing the information.

Question 15: Did you like your teacher's way of teaching writing in high school? Why?

The results to this question are similar to those of the preceding one, i.e. 42 (70%) of the students liked their teacher's way of teaching writing in high school, whereas 18 (30%) did not like it.

The reasons they gave are as follow:

Positive answers:

- The teacher communicated well with the students.
- Because we used to read different models of texts and to explain difficult words, so we learned writing.
- The teacher had a very good pronunciation; she was smart and helpful.
- The teacher used humour in the class, not like now.
- The session was so interesting, and the teacher made sure that we understood everything.
- The teacher used to divide the class into groups, so we shared ideas with each other.
- We approached writing as a group.
- The teacher made writing as simple as she could, and she provided us with strategies and techniques to write a good composition.
- The teacher explained the lesson well. Besides, she used to give us exercises at the end of each chapter to practice our skills.

Negative answers:

- Most of the teachers do not explain the lesson well.
- The teacher did not give us writing techniques.
- All the teachers' compositions were taken from the internet.
- The teacher did not care about us; she just wrote on the board.
- He did not give us details.
- We did not have the opportunity to write, except in the exams.
- She had a quick pace while teaching.
- Most teachers do not give us enough time to understand the lesson; they are only concerned about finishing the programme.

Question 16: Do you have an overall/weekly/monthly plan to practice your writing?

**Table 5.8**

*Having a Plan*

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	43	71.67
No	16	26.66
No answer	01	01.67
Total	60	100

The majority of students (71.67%) confirmed that they use the metacognitive strategy of planning.

Question 17: Do you plan your writing?

**Table 5.9**

*Planning Writing*

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	40	66.67
No	20	33.33
Total	60	100

This question was asked to check the answers to the previous one. Again, the majority of students (66.67%) asserted that they used planning as a metacognitive strategy.

Question 18: If yes, do you usually adjust your writing planning?

**Table 5.10**

*Adjusting the Writing Planning*

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	28	46.67
No	18	30
No answer	14	23.33
Total	60	100

A rate of (46.67%) of the students does adjust their writing planning.

Question 19: Do you evaluate your fulfillment of your plan?

**Table 5.11**

*Evaluating the Fulfillment of the Plan*

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	34	56.67
No	20	33.33
No answer	06	10
Total	60	100

Only a little more than the half of the students (56.67%) evaluates the fulfillment of their plan.

Question 20: Do you like to work individually or in groups?

**Table 5.12*****Working Individually or in Groups***

Option	Number	Percentage
Individually	40	66.67
In groups	17	28.33
Both	03	05
Total	60	100

The majority of our students (66.67%) like to work individually, which will be later found in their responses in the Likert-scale questionnaire. As a matter of fact, they do not use the social strategy of cooperating with others to complete a task.

Question 21: Are you aware of the strategies that you are using in writing?

**Table 5.13*****Being Aware of the Learning Strategies Used in Writing***

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	15	25
No	44	73.33
No answer	01	01.67
Total	60	100

44 students, i.e. (73.33%) are not aware of the strategies that they are using in writing. And this answers the first research question (RQ1), and confirms our first hypothesis (H1).

RQ1: Do first-year EFL students at the department of English in Batna 2 University use learning strategies in their writing?

H1: It would appear that first-year EFL students at the department of English in Batna 2 University do not use learning strategies in their writing.



Question 22: If yes, cite some of them.

These are students' answers:

- Preparing the lesson before using coherent paragraphs (metacognitive strategy).
- Using new words and rules that I learned.
- Collecting information and notes to easily begin writing (planning: metacognitive strategy).
- Make a plan (planning: metacognitive strategy).
- Making revisions (metacognitive strategy).

Table 5.14 summarizes students' writing strategies:

**Table 5.14**

*Students' Writing Strategies*

Metacognitive Strategies	Cognitive strategies	Social strategies	Affective Strategies
Preparing the lesson(1)- Planning(4)- Revising(1)	Organizing ideas (2)- Using previous knowledge (2)- using a draft(1)-grammar(1)-capitalization (2)-punctuation(3)	None	None

Table 5.14 shows that the students really do not use a lot of writing strategies. They only use some cognitive or metacognitive strategies, with no social or affective ones.

And this answers the second part of the first research question (RQ1).

RQ1: And if yes, what are they?

Question 23: Before doing a writing assignment, do you collect models of different types of written texts?

**Table 5.15*****Collecting Models of Written Texts***

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	40	66.66
No	19	31.67
No answer	01	01.67
Total	60	100

Forty (40) students out of sixty (60) do collect models of written texts before they begin to write.

Question 24: Do you take into consideration the audience (the readers) you are writing for?

**Table 5.16*****Taking the Audience into Consideration***

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	55	91.66
No	05	08.33
Total	60	100

The greatest majority of the sample (91.66) considers the audience they are writing for.

Question 25: Do you ask yourself about the purpose (the aim) of your writing?

**Table 5.17*****Considering the Purpose of Writing***

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	53	88.33
No	06	10
No answer	01	01.67
Total	60	100

According to table 5.17, (53) students out of (60) consider the purpose of writing.

Question 26: Do you revise your writing?

**Table 5.18*****Revising Writing***

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	57	95
No	03	05
Total	60	100

Again, the greatest majority of the students (95%) revise their writing.

Question 27: Which elements do you consider in your revision?

The strategies that the students use in their revision are:

- Asking teacher and peers (social strategy).
- Coherence, spelling mistakes, sentence order, the language used and avoiding repetition.
- Ideas, grammatical and vocabulary mistakes.
- All the elements.
- The organization of ideas and information (cognitive strategy).
- Spelling mistakes, capitalization and punctuation.
- I ask myself whether the reader will understand me or not.
- Writing correct sentences.
- Paragraph content.

The strategies that they used for their revision are summarized in table 5.19.

**Table 5.19*****Strategies Used in Revision***

Metacognitive Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Social Strategies	Affective Strategies
Planning (1)	Organizing information (7)- Spelling(9), grammar(24), Capitalization(3), punctuation(18)	Asking teachers and peers(2)	None

Table 5.19 shows that the students do not use affective strategies at all. However, they revise grammar (24) and punctuation (18).

Question 28: How do you evaluate your progress in writing?

The students' responses were the following:

- I do not evaluate my progress in writing (negative strategy).
- Asking a family member to read it (social strategy).
- Asking the teacher to evaluate it (social strategy).
- I read books to learn how real writers write.
- I read my writing to a group of people and see if they understand it (peer correction).
- I read new books and learn new things and words which can help me in writing.
- I watch videos which teach me writing techniques.
- Rewrite the assignment again.
- Learn from my mistakes (monitoring).
- By reading a lot of texts and comparing between them (metacognitive strategy)
- When the readers read my writing and do not find mistakes.
- When the teacher gives me feedback.
- I compare my works of now with the previous ones (self-evaluation).
- The mark.
- I do the exercise and challenge myself.
- When my teacher and mates like my writing. When I write my compositions, I find that they have improved (monitoring).
- When I speak with friends and use something I studied before (recalling).
- When I can write without using a dictionary or the web.

- I prefer to let my teacher evaluate my progress in writing.
- By comparing before and after and if there is a difference (monitoring and self-evaluation).

Table 5.20 summarizes the findings:

**Table 5.20**

***Students' Strategies to Evaluate their Progress in Writing***

Metacognitive Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Social Strategies	Affective Strategies
Reading(6)- monitoring(17)- Self-evaluation(8)	Using different models(3)	Asking a family member to read it- Asking the teacher(7) Peer-correction(2)- Asking a well- educated person(5)	Not evaluating one's progress (negative strategy)(1)

The strategy that is most often used by the students is monitoring, i.e. checking their success in writing.

Question 29: When you fail to do a writing assignment, what are the techniques that you use?

When students fail in doing a writing activity, they follow the following techniques:

- I start from the beginning and choose new ideas, after that I would read my old ones.
- I collect works that are related to the topic and I try to imitate them.
- I use some books or the internet.
- I read a lot as a source of inspiration (cognitive strategy).
- I try to change the method that I have used.

- I discover my faults and try to correct them.
- I revise my writing (metacognitive strategy).
- I use a new plan after considering all the sides of the problem (metacognitive strategy).
- I use the dictionary and the web (cognitive strategies).
- I change the ideas that I have used at the beginning.
- I ask my teacher or my friends for help (social strategy).
- I make notes and goals and write again (goal-setting: metacognitive strategy).
- I think well (self-regulation) and ask people (social strategy).
- I motivate myself by writing some new ideas (affective strategy).
- I talk to myself to see if my writing is correct (self-talk: affective strategy).
- Re-read my assignment and try to solve the problem (problem-solving).

Table 5.21 summarizes the findings:

**Table 5.21**

*Techniques Used to Do a Writing Assignment*

Metacognitive Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Social strategies	Affective Strategies
Reading(6)- revising(1)- planning(4)- goal-setting(1)- self-regulation(4)-self-evaluation(3)- monitoring(7)	Using the dictionary(8)- using different models(2)- organizing(1)	Asking for help from teacher and peers(12)	Motivation(1)- Self-talk(2)

Students frequently use the social strategy of asking for help from teacher and peers, followed by the cognitive strategy of using a dictionary.

Question 30: What are the techniques that you use to continue with the writing assignment?

The techniques used by students to continue with the writing assignment are the following:

- When I'm home, I ask my mother (social strategy) or I sing (affective strategy).
- I use things that I know before (use past knowledge).
- I always put a dictionary in front of me and encourage myself to learn new words to use them in my writing (cognitive strategy).
- I want to reach my goal, which is to be a writer, by reading (goal-setting).
- I read books (cognitive strategy).
- I change my plan (metacognitive strategy).
- I trust myself that I can do it (affective strategy).
- I think of new ideas to add to my work.
- I ask my teacher to give us extra writing activities.
- I should be passionate and love what I'm doing (affective strategies).
- I collect some information about the subject and try to organize them.
- I motivate myself and maximize my time (time-management and motivational strategy).
- I take a deep breath and read what I wrote so far, collect my thoughts and try again and again until I get it (deep-breathing and self-regulation: affective strategies).
- I jot down all the ideas that come to my mind (brainstorming) and link them all together using the suitable method and style of writing (cognitive strategies).

Table 5.22 summarizes the techniques used by students to continue with the writing assignment:

**Table 5.22**

*Techniques Used to Continue with the Writing Assignment*

Metacognitive Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Social Strategies	Affective Strategies
Goal-setting(2)-reading(15)-Planning(2)-practice(3)-Monitoring(3)-self-regulation(4)-time-management(3)	Using past knowledge(2)-Using the dictionary(1)-using different models(2)	Asking one's mother(1)-Finding a writing partner(1)-peer-correction(4)-Communicating with British people(1)	Singing(1)- deep-breathing(1)-Self-trust(1)-positive self-talk(8)-Motivation(2)-rewarding oneself(1)

The most widely used strategies here are reading (15) and positive self-talk (8).

Question 31: How do you overcome your limitations in writing?

To overcome their limitations in writing, students use the following strategies:

- Make a lot of research about my composition.
- I use to write a lot and know my limitations to evaluate them (monitoring).
- Try to read and write as much as possible (practice).
- Learn new words (memorization).
- Look to others' writing and get inspired from their ideas and the strategies that they use.
- Use the dictionary (cognitive strategy).
- Ask the teacher for help (social strategy).
- Rewrite the essay with new ideas.



- “I overcome my limitations in writing with some other writers or researchers”  
(social strategy).

The strategies that are employed by the respondents in order to overcome their limitations in writing are summarized in table 5.23.

**Table 5.23**

***Techniques Used to Overcome the Limitations in Writing***

Metacognitive Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Social Strategies	Affective Strategies
Monitoring(1)- practice(17)-reading (23)- time-management(1)-self- regulation(2)	Making research(5)- Using the dictionary(3)- listening and speaking in English(3)-summarizing(3)- watching English movies(2)	Asking teacher for help(2)- Working with other writers(1)	Entertaining myself(1)

Students use reading (23) and practice (17), which are two metacognitive strategies, to overcome their limitations in writing.

Question 32: In your opinion, which strategies can help you to improve your writing?

According to students, these strategies can help them to improve their writing:

- The teacher has to teach well and I have to revise my lessons and do my exercises.
- Learn the basics of writing, reading and imitate other writers.
- Find a writing partner (social strategy).
- Motivate myself, study the rules of writing and of grammar.
- Write more (metacognitive strategy).
- Concentration and more practice (metacognitive strategies).

- Master the writing strategies.
- Give my writing to my friend (peer-correction).
- Make a plan and work with it (planning).
- To write and correct my mistakes in writing (monitoring).
- Collect ideas from different topics and combine them (organizing).
- “First I’ve to focus when the teacher is explaining and as I said before using new words in speaking with friends” (self-regulation).
- Write a lot.
- Do research and ask the others to find the best strategy and work hard to face my limitations in writing” (social strategy).
- To communicate with British people (social strategy) and listen to the radio.

**Table 5.24*****Strategies to Improve Students’ Writing***

Metacognitive Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Social Strategies	Affective Strategies
Reading(14)- practice(9)- Self-regulation(2)- Planning(2)-time- management(1)	Making research (6)-organizing- Listening to the radio(6)	Chatting with others(1)- Peer-correction(1)-Asking others(1)- communicating with British people(1)	None

The students emphasized on reading (14) as a solution to improve their writing.

Question 33: Do you like to be helped with strategies to improve your writing?

**Table 5.25*****To Like to be Helped with Strategies to Improve Students' Writing***

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	58	96.66
No	02	03.33
Total	60	100

Fifty eight (58) students out of (60) wanted to be helped with strategies to improve their writing. However, surprisingly, two (02) students didn't want to.

All in all, the results of the preliminary questionnaire showed that over seventy per cent of the students do not know that they are using strategies in their writing. Moreover, when asked about the strategies that they employ, only a few of them cited metacognitive strategies, such as planning, revising, reading, goal-setting, monitoring their success and self-regulation. Others have included social strategies like asking help from teacher or peers. Their affective strategies ranged from taking a deep breath and being passionate to singing, loving what to do (writing), trusting oneself and positive self-talk. The cognitive strategies used by the students were employing the words that they know in their compositions and using ideas from their reading. However, these strategies were only used by a few of the students, not all of them.

Since not all the students know that there are many learning strategies used in writing, one way would be to teach them these strategies in an explicit way so that they would improve their writing. The syllabi of writing should include activities which boost students' knowledge of the cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective strategies that help them master the writing skill. Students should be encouraged to become autonomous learners who take responsibility of their own learning. The teacher should be regarded as a

facilitator of learning, not as the only source. Students can become better writers and better learners if they are taught appropriate learning strategies.

We recommend that the students should be taught the learning strategies used in writing in an explicit way.

### 5.3. Students' Motivation Questionnaire: Analysis and Discussion

Students' motivation questionnaire yielded the following results.

For section one, which seeks students' background information, the results were presented in the section of analysis and discussion of the preliminary questionnaire, section one. The majority of the respondents are females, which is a trait of the fields of social and human sciences. Their age varies between 17 and 23. The new holders of the Baccalaureate exam are 17, whereas the others are repeaters of other years, whether in high school or in the university. The highest percentage of their Baccalaureate option is literature and foreign languages (45%) while the lowest percentage is exact sciences (1.67%). Also, the majority of the students (90%) chose to study English, and this is supposed to motivate them to learn the target language. Their reasons for choosing English varied between intrinsic motivation (a. it is my favourite language and I like it- b. to learn about its culture) and extrinsic motivation (c. to communicate with others- d. to become a teacher of English- e. to travel abroad or emigrate- f. to study abroad). The results of question 5: if yes, please state your reasons are summarized in table 5.26:

**Table 5.26**

***Students' Reasons for Studying English According to their Motivation***

a	b	c	d	e	f
39	10	24	08	26	10

The numbers in the table represent the frequency of each reason. We can say that the highest frequency (39) was given to option a (it is my favourite language and I like it), which is part of intrinsic motivation. It was followed by option “e” (to travel abroad or emigrate), which is part of extrinsic motivation. The least frequent reasons are “b” (to learn about its culture), which is part of intrinsic motivation, and “f” (to study abroad), which makes extrinsic motivation.

### **Section Two: Students’ Motivation in Writing**

Question 6: Classify the following language skills in order of importance from the most important skill (1) to the least important one (4).

**Table 5.27**

#### *Classification of the Writing Skill*

Ranking	Number	Percentage
First (1)	04	06.66
Second (2)	10	16.67
Third (3)	15	25
Fourth (4)	31	51.67
Total	60	100

(51.67%) of the students placed writing in the fourth position whereas only (06.66%) placed it in the first position.

Question 7: According to you, is writing?

- a. A very important skill – b. as important as the other skills – c. not important at all

**Table 5.28*****The Importance of the Writing Skill***

Option	Number	Percentage
A very important skill	31	51.67
As important as the other skills	27	45
Not important at all	02	03.33
Total	60	100

The majority of the students (51.67%) and (45%) consider writing as either a very important skill or as important as the other skills, so they are aware of its great importance in academic settings.

Question 8: Do you think that teachers, when testing or evaluating students, should use:

- a. Written test – b. Oral tests – c. Written and oral tests

**Table 5.29*****Types of Tests which should be Used by Teachers***

Types of tests	Number	Percentage
Written tests	12	20
Oral tests	04	06.67
Written and oral tests	44	73.33
Total	60	100

Forty four (44) students out of sixty (60) see that they should be tested both orally and in written form.

Question 9: When you are asked to write in English, how do you feel?

- a. Interested – b. Unable – c. Bored

**Table 5.30*****Students' Feelings when Asked to write in English***

Students' feelings	Number	Percentage
Interested	36	60
Unable	18	30
Bored	06	10
Total	60	100

From table 5.30, we can say that our students are motivated to write in English; this is shown through the high percentage (60%) of those who feel interested when they are asked to write in English.

Question 10: According to you, assigning written homework to students is:

- a. An important element of student's evaluation (assessment)
- b. A good way of improving your English? c. A burden?

**Table 5.31*****Students' Opinions about Written Homework***

Option	Number	Percentage
a	07	11.67
b	41	68.33
c	9	15
a+b	03	05
Total	60	100

Forty one students (41 or 68.33%) are positive concerning assigning them written homework; however, (15%) see it as a burden, so they are not motivated to write at home.

Question 11: What goals would you like to accomplish at the end of the written expression course?

- a. Pass the course – b. Improve your writing skills – c. Communicate with other users of English – d. Be a better writer – e. Be more educated – f. All of them

**Table 5.32*****Students' Goals from the Written Expression Course***

a	b	c	d	e	f
07	28	13	27	18	12

From table 5.32, we can see that option b (improve my writing skills) had a frequency of (28) followed by option d (be a better writer), so our learners are intrinsically motivated to write in English. This result is reinforced with the least frequent goal, option a (pass the course), so our respondents are not extrinsically motivated.

Question 12: How do you find the written expression course?

- a. Very interesting- b- Interesting- c- Not interesting at all

**Table 33*****Students' Opinions about the Written Expression Course***

Option	Number	Percentage
Very interesting	23	38.33
Interesting	34	56.67
Not interesting at all	03	05
Total	60	100

Concerning question 12, the majority of the students (56.67%) find the written expression course interesting or very interesting (38.33%). Only three (3) students out of sixty find it not interesting at all; this is believed to motivate them to learn the writing strategies proposed by the researcher.

Question 13: According to you, how should your teacher correct your writing?

- a. Correct only the grammatical mistakes – b. Correct only the mistakes related to content – c. Correct all types of mistakes



**Table 5.34*****Students' Opinions about Teacher's Correction to their Writing***

Option	Number	Percentage
a	05	08.33
b	04	06.67
c	51	85
Total	60	100

The results to this question were that the greatest majority of the students (85%) are for the correction of all types of mistakes, so they are aware of the role of the teacher's correction in helping students to improve their writing skills.

Question 14: When you receive your written work from the teacher, what do you do first?

- a. Look at the mark – b. Read the teacher's comments – c. Lose your self-confidence from the amount of corrections – d. Learn from your mistakes

**Table 5.35*****What Students First do after Receiving their Written Work from the Teacher***

a	b	c	d
52	34	06	23

The highest frequency (52) was given to option (a): look at the mark, i.e. our students are extrinsically motivated in this case. It was followed by option (b): read the teacher's comments. The least frequent option was (c): lose your self-confidence, so we can conclude that our students lose the affective strategy of controlling one's emotions.

Question 15: How do you consider the teacher's corrections?

- a. Helpful - b. Easy to understand – c. Not much helpful – d. Ambiguous

**Table 5.36*****Students' Opinions Concerning the Teacher's Corrections***

Option	Number	Percentage
a	26	43.33
b	17	28.33
c	9	15
d	04	06.67
a+b	02	03.33
No answer	02	03.33
Total	60	100

Students' answers varied between option (a): helpful with a rate of (43.33%) and option (b): easy to understand with a rate of (28.33%). So our respondents consider the teacher's corrections as both helpful and easy to understand.

Question 16: What are your reasons for writing in English?

- a. To have extra marks – b. To improve your composition skills in writing –
- c. To improve your knowledge of English – d. To practice something you have already learned – e. To express your ideas

**Table 5.37*****Students' Reasons for Writing in English***

a	b	c	d	e
11	37	26	09	29

Students' reasons for writing in English are (b): to improve their composition skills in writing and (c) to improve their knowledge of English, both of which are characteristics of internal motivation.

Question 17: How do you consider writing?

- a. A means of communication – b. A creative process – c. A boring activity –

d. A difficult but necessary activity

**Table 5.38**

*Students' Opinions Concerning Writing*

Option	Number	Percentage
a	11	18.33
b	16	26.67
c	02	03.33
d	13	21.67
a+b	06	10
a+d	03	05
b+d	08	13.33
No answer	01	01.67
Total	60	100

When asked about their opinion concerning the writing skill, the respondents chose options (b), i.e. a creative process and (d), i.e. a difficult but necessary activity. A very few of them (03.33%) only see writing as a boring activity.

Question 18: How important do you think motivation is for learning English and especially for writing in English?

a. Very important – b. Important – c. Not important

**Table 5.39**

*Students' opinions concerning motivation in learning English and writing in English*

Option	Number	Percentage
Very important	33	55
Important	27	45
Not important	00	00
Total	60	100

The last question in students' motivation questionnaire was about students' opinions concerning writing. From the results of the table, we can conclude that the learners

consider writing as either a very important skill (55%) or an important skill (45%). None of them considers it as an unimportant skill.

#### **5.4. Teachers' Questionnaire**

Teachers' questionnaire was designed to discover the techniques used by teachers to teach written expression module to first-year students. Besides, it aimed at finding out the degree of students' motivation to write in English.

Teachers' questionnaire was given to teachers whose experience was five years and more. There are ten (10) teachers who teach written expression to first year classes; all of them are females. However, the questionnaire was given to six teachers only since one of the teachers is the researcher herself, and the other three teachers have less than 5 years of experience.

The following are the results of the teachers' questionnaire.

#### **Section One: Background Information**

As it was mentioned earlier, all the teachers of written expression of first year are females. Their age varies between 29 and 48, and their teaching experience is between 5 and 23 years. All of the teachers are Magister holders. The modules that they have been teaching since they started teaching in the department of English language and literature in Batna 2 University are: grammar, written expression, oral expression, linguistics, TTU (Techniques du travail universitaire), research methodology, general culture, creative writing, phonetics, sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication and literature. So, all of the respondents are qualified to give data that we think will be valid due to their teaching experience.

## Section Two: Written Expression/ Writing Strategies

Question 6: Which approach do you use in teaching writing?

- a. The product approach – b. The process approach – c. The product-process approach  
– d. The genre approach – e. The strategy approach – f. Other, please specify.

**Table 5.40**

### *Teachers' Approaches in Teaching Writing*

a	b	c	d	e
00	00	05	03	02

Most of the teachers use the product-process approach.

Question 7: According to you, which elements in writing do you regard essential to be taught to students?

- a. Grammar – b. Vocabulary – c. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization – d. Other, please specify.

**Table 5.41**

### *Essential Elements in Writing*

abc	ac	bc
3	1	1

The majority of teachers agree that all the elements (grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and capitalization) should be taught to students since they are essential in writing. They added other elements, such as pragmatics (the study of the use of language in a social context), order of ideas and how to organize them (coherence), the appropriate use of tenses, techniques of writing and writing genres.

Question 8: What are your students' weaknesses in writing?

- a. Grammar – b. Vocabulary – c. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization – d. Ideas/content – e. Self-confidence and motivation – f. Other

**Table 5.42**

*Students' Weaknesses in Writing*

a	b	c	d	e
04	03	05	02	03

According to teachers, students' weaknesses in writing lie mostly in spelling, punctuation, capitalization and grammar. They added other elements like lack of coherence and planning.

Question 9: What are your students' strengths in writing?

- a. Grammar – b. Vocabulary – c. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization – d. Content/ideas – e. Creativity – f. Other

Three teachers (half of the respondents) answered by: none of the above, i.e. their students do not master well all the above-mentioned elements of writing. The other three teachers answered by content, ideas and creativity.

Question 10: Which writing activities do you usually assign to your students? State the aim behind such activities.

The following activities are assigned by teachers to their students:

- Let the students write using their own words as a sort of practicing what they have seen during the course (feedback).

- Error correction: make learners understand that writing is a process and encourage the editing stage of this process.
- Guided writing: to meet the different needs of learners
- Exercise and paragraph writing
- Brainstorming, in that one of the hardest tasks in writing is getting started.  
Pair work: to help students generate ideas, clarify them and questioning the meaning of expressions together.
- Authentic writing activities: to make learners discover their full potential in writing.

Question 11: Which writing strategies do you favour your students to use?

- a. Cognitive strategies – b. Metacognitive strategies – c. Social strategies –  
d. Affective strategies – e. All of them

Please, say why?

Four of the teachers out of six chose all of the strategies, whereas one chose social strategies and the other chose cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies without explaining why.

The four teachers who chose the four kinds of strategies gave the following explanations:

- By association of these strategies, the student will ultimately achieve the objectives set for the course.
- All these factors work together to meet learners' needs.
- Whatever strategy helps support students in their writing may be useful during writing sessions.

- Because the lower the filter is, the more input the learner receives.

For the teacher who chose social strategies only, she argued that this kind of strategies helps to enhance self-confidence (which is an affective strategy) and group work. Besides, social strategies promote organization, communication and interaction between students.

### **Section Three: Motivation**

Question 12: According to you, how is motivation important in learning?

When asked about their opinions concerning the importance of motivation in learning, the teachers answered by the following:

- Motivation is one of the important elements in the learning process that leads either to success or failure (high/low motivation).
- The success of learning depends on students' motivation. Students who are highly motivated are more likely to do well in learning.
- It is very important as it a "pivotal" drive behind students' learning engagements.
- It increases learners' energy and level of learning. It also helps them become confident in their abilities and hold positive attitudes towards their learning.
- Motivation is a fundamental prerequisite in learning.
- It is the drive that stirs up learning.

Question 13: What are the factors which weaken students' motivation?

According to the teachers, the factors which weaken students' motivation are:

- Negative feedback, negative learning environment (teacher and peers), lack of confidence, lack of knowledge about the subject matter or resources



- Lack of confidence, unclear classroom assignments, low self-efficacy, affective aspects, etc
- How teachers design writing tasks for their students may help to demotivate them. If tasks do not have meaning and interest to students or are not relevant to their own life experiences, students will feel bored and uninterested.
- The learning atmosphere in general
- Shyness and lack of self-esteem
- Low self-esteem, lack of interest, weak relationship with the teacher
- The classroom atmosphere, the programme/content, the skills of the teacher, the large number of students, the relationship between the students and their teacher

Question 14: What are the factors which increase students' motivation?

The factors which increase students' motivation, according to our respondents are:

- Positive feedback, appreciation and encouragement
- Self-confidence and self-esteem, creativity and novelty (activities + way of teaching)
- Healthy classroom environment, provide varied instruction, and foster positive attitudes
- Relating writing tasks to students' lives and not only focusing on their final products
- Give students more opportunities to interact with the teacher and classmates as well as to increase their level of confidence
- A motivated teacher, competition (individual and group), sometimes punishment (marks)

- Offering rewards, group work, offering chances to improve, explaining the importance of training
- Design a syllabus for written expression module depending on students' needs and interest
- Feeling secure, comfortable and relaxed during the course, and content selection (topics)

Question 15: How would you describe your students? Are they:

- a. Intrinsically motivated – b. Extrinsically motivated – c. Demotivated

**Table 5.43**

*Students' Type of Motivation*

a	b	c
02	04	02

According to teachers, their students are extrinsically motivated. This result is contradictory with the one found in students' motivation questionnaire, which showed that the learners are intrinsically motivated.

Question 16: How would you describe the learning atmosphere?

- a. Motivating – b. Not much motivating

All of the teachers agreed that the learning atmosphere is not much motivating.

Question 17: How do you motivate your students?

These are the techniques used by teachers to motivate their students:

- Directly, I change their attention to an interesting issue or topic. In some cases, I use funny examples.

- Explain to them the learning objectives, encourage students to share their ideas, involve them in teaching, vary my strategies and techniques of teaching
- I'm demotivated, so how can I motivate them?
- By giving them more opportunities for self-expression to voice their own thoughts and feelings. Design writing activities which go hand in hand with their social and cultural contexts.
- Allow students to work together, make goals high but attainable, provide positive feedback and offer equal chances for success.

## **5.5. Descriptive Analysis and Interpretation of the Likert scale**

### **5.5.1. Before the Quasi-Experiment (Pre-instruction Phase)**

In order to measure the use of the four learning strategies, i.e. metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies by students, we devised a five-point Likert scale adapted from Oxford's SILL (the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) designed in 1990, and a questionnaire by Shapira and Lazarowitz (2005). The Likert-scale is made of a scale of five values representing the frequency of the use of the learning strategies by our learners, with 1 being never, 2 rarely, 3 sometimes, 4 often and 5 always. We administered the Likert-scale twice: the first time before the quasi-experiment and the second time after the quasi-experiment to see if the students have gained the use of the writing strategies or not.

In total, a sample of 60 students answered the questionnaire. The data were collected and analyzed using SPSS statistics software program version 23. SPSS is Statistical Package for Social Sciences. The SPSS was used to measure (1) the mean based on the Likert-scale, (2) the standard deviation (*SD*), (3) the Cronbach's Alpha for the degree of correlation between the variables, to measure the reliability of the questionnaire, and to assess the degree of correlation between the variables, (4) the ranking and (5) the

evaluation of the results, in this case the frequency of using the writing strategies. The questions were presented using a five-point Likert scale, as shown in Table 5.44, using the following formula of the equation of ranges.

$$\text{Equation of ranges} = \frac{5-1}{5} = \frac{4}{5} = 0.8$$

5 being the highest ranking in the Likert-scale, 1 being the lowest ranking in the Likert-scale and 5 being the number of the points in the Likert-scale

**Table 5.44**

***Five-point Likert-scale***

Frequency	Weighted Mean
Never	From 1 to 1.80
Rarely	From 1.81 to 2.60
Sometimes	From 2.61 to 3.40
Often	From 3.41 to 4.20
Always	From 4.21 to 5

The Cronbach's  $\alpha$  (Alpha) of the questionnaire was found to be 0.80%, which is a high percentage that would yield reliable findings. The Cronbach's  $\alpha$  is "a means to determine internal consistency of a measure when only one administration of a measure exists. It is used when the number of possible answers is more than 2 and can be applied to ordinal data" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.353).

Cronbach's Alpha is designed as a measure of internal consistency of items in the questionnaire. It varies between zero and one. The closer alpha is to one, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the questionnaire. The total number of questions or items in the questionnaire is 53 testing variables or LIKERT scale variables. Hence "N" of items in the below Cronbach's Alpha test is 53.

**Table 5.45*****Cronbach's Alpha-Reliability Test***

Cronbach's Alpha	N° of Items
0.80	53

The following table summarizes the results of the pre-instruction phase concerning the metacognitive strategies.

**Table 5.46*****Data of Metacognitive Strategies (Pre-instruction Phase)***

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation (SD)	Ranking	Frequency
1	3.51	0.96	11	Often
2	4.00	1.11	5	Often
3	3.58	1.12	10	Often
4	4.53	0.81	1	Always
5	2.36	1.08	18	Rarely
6	3.30	1.04	14	Sometimes
7	3.65	1.20	8	Often
8	3.46	1.03	12	Often
9	4.13	1.11	2	Often
10	2.95	1.17	16	Sometimes
11	3.10	1.20	15	Sometimes
12	2.68	1.50	17	Sometimes
13	3.90	1.20	6	Often
14	4.06	1.00	3	Often
15	3.85	1.14	7	Often
16	4.01	1.09	4	Often
17	3.46	1.29	13	Often
18	3.63	0.97	9	Often

The mean, standard deviation and frequency of the metacognitive strategies are presented in the following table.

**Table 5.47**

*Mean and SD of the Metacognitive Strategies (Pre-instruction Phase)*

Type of learning strategies	Mean	SD	Frequency
Metacognitive strategies	3.51	0.43	Often

For the first type of the learning strategies, i.e. metacognitive strategies, there were eighteen (18) items. The metacognitive strategies included planning (items 6, 10 & 15), goal-setting (item 3), self-regulation (item 4), monitoring (items 7, 9 & 13), self-evaluation (items 11 & 18), learning from prior mistakes (item 2) and time-management (item 5).

In order to analyse and interpret the results, we relied on the mean, the standard deviation (*SD*) and the ranking of the items.

For the metacognitive strategies, item 4 (I try to be a better writer in English) was ranked first with a mean (4.53) and an *SD* (0.81) and fell in the range of “always”, i.e. our students tend “always” to be better writers in English, so they are self-regulated. It was followed by item 9 (after writing I try to check what I have written), which represents the metacognitive strategy “monitoring”, with a mean of (4.13) and fell in the range “often”, i.e. our learners often monitor or check what they have written. In the middle of the scale, we find item 18 (I consider my progress in writing in English) with a mean (3.63) and an *SD* (0.97) with the option “often”. This result consolidates the preceding one, i.e. our learners often use monitoring as a metacognitive strategy.

The least frequently used metacognitive strategies are items 12 (I compare my writing with the writing of my friends) and 5 (I plan my time-table to have enough time to

write), which are ranked respectively seventeenth and eighteenth with a mean of (2.68) and an *SD* (1.50) for item 12 and a mean of (2.36) and an *SD* (1.08) for item 5. Our students only sometimes compare their writing with the writing of their friends whereas they rarely plan their time-table to have enough time to write.

Certain statements were repeated using other words to check students' consistency in answering the questionnaire. For example, items 6, 10 and 15 were asked about the same metacognitive strategy, which is planning. If we consider the results of the Likert-scale we find that item 6 was ranked fourteenth with a mean of (3.30) and an *SD* (1.04) and was sometimes used while item 10 was ranked sixteenth with a mean of (2.95) and an *SD* (1.17) and was also sometimes used, so our students are consistent in their answers. However, item 15 was ranked seventh with a mean of (3.85) and was often used.

Also, statements 7 and 9 were about monitoring and students' answers were as follow. For item 7, it was ranked eighth with a mean of (3.65) and an *SD* (1.20) and was often used whereas item 9 was ranked second with a mean (4.13) and an *SD* (1.11) and was also often used. Again, our students are consistent in their answers. For items 11 and 18, which both represent self-evaluation, they were ranked as follow. Item 11 was ranked fifteenth with a mean (3.10) and an *SD* (1.20) and fell in the range of sometimes while item 18 was ranked ninth with a mean (3.63) and an *SD* (0.97) falling in the range of often. Here, our students are not consistent in their answers.

We conclude the part of metacognitive strategies by saying that they scored a mean of (3.51) and an *SD* (0.43) and they were often used by our learners.

**Table 5.48*****Data of Cognitive Strategies (Pre-instruction Phase)***

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Ranking	Frequency
19	3.28	1.31	9	Sometimes
20	4.50	0.79	1	Always
21	3.96	1.14	3	Often
22	3.33	1.11	7	Sometimes
23	3.13	1.08	11	Sometimes
24	4.28	1.00	2	Always
25	3.35	1.35	6	Sometimes
26	3.30	1.25	8	Sometimes
27	3.11	1.07	12	Sometimes
28	3.20	1.14	10	Sometimes
29	3.51	1.25	5	Often
30	3.90	0.96	4	Often

**Table 5.49*****Mean and SD of the Cognitive Strategies (Pre-instruction Phase)***

Type of Learning Strategies	Mean	SD	Frequency
Cognitive strategies	3.57	0.527	Often

For the second type of learning strategies, cognitive strategies, these are the results. There were twelve (12) statements representing the cognitive strategies. They are: memorization (item 19), use of prior knowledge and ideas (items 20 & 21), use of the target language (item 22), summarizing (item 23), thinking (item 24), drafting (item 25), asking oneself about the topic of the composition (item 26), using other material to write (item 27), making notes (item 28) and mechanics (item 29).

The first cognitive strategy is the use of prior knowledge (item 20) (I use the English words I know in my composition) with a mean (4.50) and an *SD* (0.79) and this



strategy is always used by the sample. It is followed by thinking (item 24) with a mean (4.24) and an *SD* (1.00) and which is always employed by the learners. In the middle of the scale, we find drafting (item 25) (I always write a draft) with a mean (3.35) and an *SD* (1.35) and which fell in the range of sometimes. The least used strategies are summarizing (item 23), which ranked eleventh with a mean (3.13) and was sometimes used, and using other materials to write with a mean (3.11) which was ranked last and fell in the range of sometimes (item 27).

Now, we move to consistency. For item 24 (I always think of what I will write about before writing), it was ranked second and was always used whereas item 30 (I try to imagine the things I'm writing about while writing) was ranked fourth with a mean (3.90) and an *SD* (0.96) and was often used. Here the students are not consistent in their answers.

Finally, for the mean of the cognitive strategies, it was (3.57) with an *SD* (0.527) and fell in the range of often. So, our students often used the cognitive strategies

**Table 5.50**

***Data of Social Strategies (Pre-instruction Phase)***

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Ranking	Frequency
31	2.31	1.20	7	Rarely
32	3.70	1.03	1	Often
33	3.20	1.29	3	Sometimes
34	3.35	1.20	2	Sometimes
35	3.13	1.25	4	Sometimes
36	2.58	0.94	6	Rarely
37	2.68	1.24	5	Sometimes

**Table 5.51**

***Mean and SD of the Social Strategies (Pre-instruction Phase)***

Type of learning strategies	Mean	SD	Frequency
Social Strategies	2.99	0.596	Sometimes

Social strategies are made of seven strategies. They are planning one's writing with a friend (item 31), writing by oneself (item 32), which is the opposite of the preceding item, asking help from peers (item 33), considering others' reactions to one's writing (item 34), asking the teacher for clarification (item 35), asking help from peers (item 36), and discussing one's writing with others (item 37). The first social strategy used by learners was writing by oneself (item 32) (I write down my ideas without discussing them with a friend) with a mean (3.70) and an *SD* (1.03). The students often do not use the social strategy of working with peers. It is confirmed with the results of item 16 (I like to write by myself. I do not like to be helped by anyone) in the metacognitive strategies which again fell in the range of often, i.e. our learners like to work by themselves and not use the social strategy of working with friends. It was followed by item 34 (I like to know about people's reactions about my writing) with a mean (3.35) and an *SD* (1.20) and fell in the range of sometimes. These results are consolidated with those of items 36 and 31 (I ask help from peers while composing) and (I like to plan my writing with a friend), which are ranked sixth and seventh respectively with means (2.58 & 2.31) and both are rarely used. Here, we confirm that our learners are consistent in their answers and do not like to use the social strategies which had a mean (2.99) and an *SD* (0.596) and which are only sometimes used.

**Table 5.52*****Data of Affective Strategies (Pre-instruction Phase)***

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Ranking	Frequency
38	3.81	1.09	6	Often
39	4.03	0.95	1	Often
40	4.01	1.04	2	Often
41	3.75	1.24	8	Often
42	2.43	1.25	15	Rarely
43	2.91	1.30	13	Sometimes
44	3.58	1.23	9	Often
45	3.76	1.04	7	Often
46	3.40	1.21	11	Sometimes
47	3.55	1.26	10	Often
48	3.88	1.13	3	Often
49	3.40	1.23	12	Sometimes
50	3.83	1.15	5	Often
51	2.78	1.19	14	Sometimes
52	3.88	1.38	4	Often
53	2.36	1.33	16	Rarely

**Table 5.53*****Mean and SD of the Affective Strategies (Pre-instruction Phase)***

Type of Learning Strategies	Mean	SD	Frequency
Affective Strategies	3.41	0.424	Often

The first affective strategy used by students is problem-solving (item 39: when I have problems while writing, I try to solve them), which took the first position with a mean (4.03) and an *SD* (0.95) and it is often used. From the literature review we saw that good learners have the skill of solving problems they encounter in the learning process. It was

followed by an external incentive which is encouragement (item 40: My writing becomes better each time I am encouraged) with a mean (4.01) and was also often used. In the middle of the scale, we find item 38: I like writing with a mean (3.81) and it is often used. The strategies which are ranked last are item 42: I find writing a boring activity, ranked fifteenth with a mean (2.43) and which is rarely used, i.e. the students find writing an interesting activity. This is confirmed with item 45: I think that writing is an interesting activity, which is ranked seventh and is often used. So, the respondents often consider writing an interesting, and not, a boring activity. This is also confirmed with the results found in students' motivation questionnaire.

Concerning consistency, we have devised some questions which seek the same information but using different words. For instance, item 38 (I like writing) and item 43 (in my free time I like writing), both are asked to discover the degree of liking writing by students. The results revealed that item 38 was ranked in the middle of the scale and was often used whereas item 43 was ranked with the least used strategies, ranked thirteenth with a mean (2.91) and was sometimes used. Here, we can conclude that our learners are not consistent in their answers.

For item 42 (I find writing a boring activity) and item 45 (I think that writing is an interesting activity), they are contrasting statements; however, they yielded similar results, i.e. the respondents think that writing is an interesting activity as it was shown before.

Three statements were about self-encouragement; they are item 41 (I tell myself positive things to get motivated to write), item 46 (when I am unable to write, I tell myself positive things) and item 47 (I persuade myself that I can finish the writing task). The results showed that item 41 was ranked eighth with a mean (3.75) and an *SD* (1.24) and was often used; item 46 was ranked eleventh with a mean (3.40) and was only sometimes used whereas item 47 was ranked tenth with a mean (3.55) and was often used. We can say

that the respondents are sometimes consistent in their answers as for items 41 and 47, and sometimes not as for item 46.

Four items tackled the problems with writing and how to solve them. These statements are item 49 (I stop writing when I have problems composing), item 50 (I try to relax whenever I find difficulties in writing in English), item 52 (I notice if I am nervous when writing) and item 53 (I talk to a friend about my feeling when composing). The results are as follow. For item 49, it was ranked twelfth with a mean (3.40) and was sometimes used. Nevertheless, item 50 was ranked fifth with a mean (3.83) and was often used. Item 52 was ranked before, in the fourth position, with a mean (3.88) and was also often used. Item 53 was the last used strategy since it was in the last position, ranked sixteenth with a mean (2.36) and an *SD* (1.33) and was rarely used. Here, our students are consistent in their answers because they confirmed in the social strategies that they worked by themselves and that they did not ask for help from peers (item 36) (I ask for help from peers while composing), which is also rarely used. So, the students neither use the social strategy of working with others nor talk about their feelings while composing to their friends; they like individuality and dislike pair or group work. Items 49, 50, 52 and 53 are linked with item 39 (when I have problems while writing, I try to solve them), which was ranked first and was often used.

**Table 5.54**

*Data of all types of learning strategies (Pre-instruction Phase)*

Types of Learning Strategies	Mean	SD	Ranking	Frequency
Metacognitive strategies	3.51	0.43	2	Often
Cognitive strategies	3.57	0.527	1	Often
Social strategies	2.99	0.596	4	Sometimes
Affective strategies	3.41	0.424	3	Often
General mean and <i>SD</i>	3.37	0.38		Sometimes

To summarize the results of the Likert-scale in the pre-experiment phase, we can say that the cognitive strategies were ranked first with a mean (3.57) and an *SD* (0.52) and were often used and they are followed by the metacognitive strategies, which were ranked second with a mean (3.51) and an *SD* (0.43) and were also often used. Affective strategies were positioned third with a mean (3.41) and an *SD* (0.42) and were often used, and the last ones were the social strategies with a mean (2.99) and an *SD* (0.59) which were only sometimes used. All types of strategies had a mean of (3.37) and an *SD* (0.38) and were only sometimes used.

#### **5.5.2. After the Quasi-Experiment (Post-instruction Phase)**

The quasi-experiment lasted for a semester. After the study, the researcher administered the Likert-scale for the second time to the same sample. The results were as follow.

**Table 5.55*****Data of Metacognitive Strategies (Post-instruction Phase)***

Items	Mean	SD	Ranking	Frequency
1	3.55	0.89	9	Often
2	4.18	0.91	1	Often
3	3.66	0.95	7	Often
4	4.11	0.97	3	Often
5	2.75	1.18	18	Sometimes
6	3.23	1.12	15	Sometimes
7	3.83	1.12	6	Often
8	3.65	0.89	8	Often
9	4.10	1.16	4	Often
10	3.26	1.11	14	Sometimes
11	3.50	1.09	10	Often
12	3.06	1.58	17	Sometimes
13	3.93	1.21	5	Sometimes
14	4.15	1.02	2	Sometimes
15	3.08	1.16	16	Sometimes
16	3.40	1.25	11	Sometimes
17	3.36	1.10	12	Sometimes
18	3.33	1.03	13	Sometimes

**Table 5.56*****Mean and SD of the Metacognitive Strategies (Post-instruction Phase)***

Type of learning strategies	Mean	SD	Frequency
Metacognitive strategies	3.56	0.48	Often

For the first type of strategies, metacognitive strategies, the mean developed with (0.05) because it was (3.51) before the quasi-experiment and became (3.56) after the quasi-

experiment. For the ranking, the students gave the first position to item 2 (I make use of my mistakes in writing to help me write better), which was often used, with a mean (4.18) and an *SD* (0.91) whereas it was ranked fifth before the quasi-experiment. The following strategy was item 14 (when writing I imagine ideas related to the topic of my composition), which was only sometimes used while it was ranked third before and was often used. The third statement was item 4 (I try to be a better writer in English) with a mean (4.11), which was often used whereas it was ranked first and was always used. In the middle of the scale, we find item 1 (I use any opportunity to write in English) with a mean (3.55) and an *SD* (0.89) and which was often used. The last used strategies are n° 15 (I plan my writing ahead) with a mean (3.08) and which was only sometimes used and n° 12. This was not the case before the quasi-experiment because item 15 was ranked seventh. The seventeenth statement was item 12 (I compare my writing with the writing of my friends) with a mean (3.06) and an *SD* (1.58), which was sometimes used. It was also ranked seventeenth and was sometimes used before the study. So, here the respondents are consistent. They were also consistent in ranking the last statement (item 5) (I plan my timetable to have enough time to write) with a mean (2.75) and an *SD* (1.18), but which was sometimes used, not like before the quasi-experiment when it was rarely used.

Concerning consistency and as it was cited in the previous section, some statements were repeated on purpose to check students' consistency in answering the questionnaire. For statements 6, 10 and 15, which are asked about the metacognitive strategy, planning, the results were as follows. Item 10 was ranked fourteenth, item 6 was ranked fifteenth and item 15 was ranked sixteenth. For the frequency of use, both items 6 and 10 were only sometimes used as in the pre-instruction phase whereas item 15 moved from being often used to being sometimes used.



For items 7 and 9, which check monitoring, students ranked item 7 (I try to examine what I have written) sixth whereas it was ranked eighth. Item 9 was ranked fourth while it was ranked second. However, both statements are often used in the pre-instruction and the post-instruction phases. For items 11 & 18, which represent self-evaluation, they were ranked tenth and thirteenth respectively whereas they were ranked fifteenth and ninth before the quasi-experiment. For the frequency of use, item 11 progressed from being sometimes used to being often used while item 18 regressed from being often used to being sometimes used.

Concerning the frequency of use of all statements, some items kept the same frequency; other items progressed whereas others regressed. For the first category, statements 1, 2, 3, 7, 8 & 9 kept the same frequency “often”, and also statements 6, 10 & 12 kept the frequency “sometimes”. For the second category, we find two items whose frequency progressed, item 5 which moved from “rarely” to “sometimes”, and item 11 which moved from “sometimes” to “often”. In the last category, statements 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 & 18 regressed from being “often” used to being only “sometimes” used.

**Table 5.57**

***Data of Cognitive Strategies (Post-instruction Phase)***

Items	Mean	SD	Ranking	Frequency
19	3.33	1.27	9	Sometimes
20	4.48	0.83	1	Always
21	4.01	0.98	3	Often
22	3.53	1.04	6	Often
23	3.32	1.11	10	Sometimes
24	4.11	1.09	2	Often
25	3.71	1.15	5	Often
26	3.41	1.13	8	Often
27	3.21	1.13	11	Sometimes
28	3.01	1.17	12	Sometimes
29	3.51	1.24	7	Often
30	3.96	1.16	4	Often

**Table 5.58*****Mean and SD of the Cognitive Strategies (Post-instruction Phase)***

Type of Learning Strategies	Mean	SD	Frequency
Cognitive strategies	3.63	0.51	Often

For the cognitive strategies, they were ranked as follow. The first strategy was using prior knowledge, represented in item 20 (I use the English words I know in my composition) with a mean (4.48) which was also ranked first in the pre-instruction phase and which was also always used. It was followed by item 24 (I always think of what I will write before writing) with a mean (4.11) which was also ranked second but which was always used before the quasi-experiment and moved to being often used, i.e. its frequency regressed. The third strategy was using prior ideas in statement 21 (I use ideas from my reading in my writing) with a mean (4.01) which was also ranked third and was often used, so here the learners are consistent in their answers.

There are other statements which were ranked in the same position in the post-instruction phase. These are item 30 (I try to imagine the things I'm writing about while writing) which was ranked fourth in both phases and which was often used. Also item 26 (while I write, I ask myself questions related to the subject of my composition) which was ranked eighth in both phases but whose frequency progressed from being sometimes used to being often used. The last one is item 19 (I write new words in English several times to memorize them) which was ranked ninth in both phases and which was sometimes used.

The last used strategy was making notes in item 28 (I make notes when writing) which was ranked twelfth with a mean (3.01) and an *SD* (1.17) and which was sometimes used. The statements which kept the same frequency were items 19, 23, 27 and 28 which were sometimes used. Moreover, we have items 21, 29 and 30 which were often used and

item 20 which was always used. Others progressed such as statements 22, 25 and 26, whose frequency changed from “sometimes” to “often”. One statement only has regressed, which is item 24, from “always” to “often”. The mean of the cognitive strategies progressed from (3.57) to (3.63), i.e. with a difference of (0.06).

**Table 5.59**

*Data of Social Strategies (Post-instruction Phase)*

Items	Mean	SD	Ranking	Frequency
31	2.81	1.24	6	Sometimes
32	3.45	1.28	1	Often
33	3.11	1.18	3	Sometimes
34	3.26	1.35	2	Sometimes
35	2.91	1.03	5	Rarely
36	2.75	1.03	7	Sometimes
37	3.03	1.35	4	Sometimes

**Table 5.60**

*Mean and SD of the Social Strategies (Post-instruction Phase)*

Type of Learning Strategies	Mean	SD	Frequency
Social strategies	3.05	0.72	Sometimes

Social strategies had also different results. The first statement was item 32 (I write down my ideas without discussing them with a friend) with a mean (3.45) and which was often used. It was ranked in the same position in the pre-instruction phase and had the same frequency. So, here the learners are consistent in their answers and again they dislike peer or pair work. It was followed by item 34 (I like to know about people’s reactions about my writing) with a mean (3.26) and which was sometimes used. These were the same results before the quasi-experiment. Besides, we had the same results concerning the third position which was allotted to item 33 (when I find difficulties while writing, I ask

for help from friends) with a mean (3.11) and which was sometimes used. The last statement was item 36 (I ask for help from peers while composing) with a mean (2.75) and which was sometimes used.

Concerning the frequency, items 33, 34 and 37 had the same frequency (sometimes) whereas item 32 had “often”. Others had progressed from “rarely” to “sometimes”, such as item 31 (planning writing with a friend) and item 36 (asking help from peers while composing). One strategy had regressed, asking the teacher for clarification, from “sometimes” to “rarely”. For students’ consistency in answering the questionnaire, they were consistent in answering items 31 and 36 to ask help from peers and to plan writing with friends which moved from “rarely” to “sometimes”, i.e. students have acquired this social strategy. Finally, the mean of social strategies moved from (2.99) to (3.05), i.e. it progressed with a value of (0.06).

**Table 5.61**

*Data of Affective Strategies (Post-instruction Phase)*

Items	Mean	SD	Ranking	Frequency
38	3.55	1.12	9	Often
39	3.95	1.03	2	Often
40	4.06	0.91	1	Often
41	3.95	1.11	3	Often
42	2.63	1.26	16	Sometimes
43	2.73	1.00	14	Sometimes
44	3.71	0.99	5	Often
45	3.60	1.15	7	Often
46	3.45	1.29	10	Often
47	3.60	1.30	8	Often
48	3.63	1.28	6	Often
49	3.16	1.19	11	Sometimes
50	3.81	1.03	4	Often
51	3.11	1.32	13	Sometimes
52	3.15	1.24	12	Sometimes
53	2.70	1.48	15	Sometimes

**Table 5.62*****Mean and SD of the Affective Strategies (Post-instruction Phase)***

Type of learning strategies	Mean	SD	Frequency
Affective strategies	3.42	0.49	Often

The last category is affective strategies whose mean progressed with (0.01) since it was (3.41) before the quasi-experiment and became (3.42) after the quasi-experiment. The first affective strategy was encouragement in item 40 (my writing becomes better each time I am encouraged) with a mean (4.06) and which was often used. It was followed by problem-solution in item 39 with a mean (3.95) and which was also often used. In the middle of the scale, i.e. in the eighth position, we find self-encouragement with item 47 (I persuade myself that I can finish the writing task) with a mean (3.60) and which was often used. At the end of the scale, we find item 53 (I talk to a friend about my feelings when composing) with a mean (2.70) and an *SD* (1.48) in the fifteenth position, which progressed from being rarely used to being sometimes used. The last position was attributed to item 42 (I find writing a boring activity) with a mean (2.63), which also progressed from being rarely used to being sometimes used.

Concerning consistency, items 38 and 43 were asked about the degree of liking writing. Item 38 was ranked ninth and was often used whereas item 43 was ranked fourteenth and was only sometimes used. As in the pre-instruction phase, the students are not consistent in their answers.

For items 42 and 45, which are contrasting statements, the students confirmed that they sometimes find writing a boring activity, yet at the same time they often think that writing is an interesting activity. So, their answers are not as consistent as they were before the quasi-experiment.

Statements 41, 46 and 47, which talk about self-encouragement, were ranked third, tenth and eighth with the same frequency, often. Here the students are consistent, not like in the pre-instruction phase.

As it was mentioned in the pre-instruction phase, four statements tackle the problems found with writing and how to overcome them. These statements are items 49, 50, 52 and 53. Item 49 (I stop writing when I have problems composing) was ranked eleventh and was sometimes used. However, item 50 was ranked fourth and was often used. Item 52 (I notice if I am nervous when writing) was ranked twelfth and was sometimes used whereas item 53 (I talk to a friend while composing) was ranked fifteenth and was sometimes used. Here we notice that there was an improvement in the use of talking to a friend. All affective strategies were often used.

**Table 5.63**

*Data of all learning strategies (Post-instruction Phase)*

Types of learning strategies	Mean	SD	Ranking	Frequency
Metacognitive strategies	3.56	0.48	2	Often
Cognitive strategies	3.63	0.51	1	Often
Social strategies	3.05	0.72	4	Sometimes
Affective strategies	3.42	0.49	3	Often
General mean and SD	3.41	0.44		Often

**Table 5.64**

*Means before and after instruction*

Mean before instruction	Mean after instruction
3.37	3.41

To conclude, we can say that the cognitive strategies were ranked first with a mean (3.63) and were often used. They were followed by the metacognitive strategies with a

mean (3.56), which were also often used. Affective strategies were in the third position with a mean (3.42), which were also often used. And the last rank was given to social strategies with a mean (3.05) but which were only sometimes used. This was the same ranking as before the experiment. Nevertheless, there was a progress in the use of all these learning strategies with a value of (0.04), i.e. it progressed from (3.37) to (3.41) and moved in the frequency from being sometimes used to being often used.

After the descriptive study of the Likert-scale questionnaire in both phases of the quasi-experiment, we move to the statistical study of the results obtained from the Likert scale both before and after the instruction in the strategy use.

### 5.5.3. Analysis and Interpretation of the Likert-Scale Results Using the *t*-test

#### 5.5.3.1. The Pre-instruction Phase

**Table 5.65**

*The One-Sample t-test in the Pre-instruction Phase*

**Table a**  
*One-Sample Statistics*

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Std. Error Mean</i>
Metacognitive Strategies	60	3.5120	.43722	.05644
Cognitive Strategies	60	3.5736	.52774	.06813
Social Strategies	60	2.9952	.59629	.07698
Affective Strategies	60	3.4135	.42407	.05475
<i>X</i>	60	3.3736	.38645	.04989

**Table b**  
***One-Sample Test***

	Test Value = 3					
	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i> (2-tailed)	<i>Mean</i> Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Upper
Metacognitive Strategies	9.072	59	.000	.51204	.3991	.6250
Cognitive Strategies	8.419	59	.000	.57361	.4373	.7099
Social Strategies	-.062	59	.951	-.00476	-.1588	.1493
Affective Strategies	7.554	59	.000	.41354	.3040	.5231
<i>X</i>	7.488	59	.000	.37361	.2738	.4734

The mean of the metacognitive strategies is (3.5120) and the standard deviation (*SD*) is (0.43722) whereas the value of the *t* is (9.072), this means that the metacognitive strategies in the pre-instruction phase are often used and the learners' answers have a tendency to go to the option of "always".

For the second type of learning strategies, i.e. cognitive strategies, their mean is (3.5736) and the *SD* is (0.52774) whereas the value of the *t* is (8.419), this means that the cognitive strategies are also often used and students' answers have a positive tendency to go to the option of "always".

Social strategies scored a mean of (2.9952), an *SD* of (0.59629) and a value of the *t* of (-0,062), this means that the social strategies are sometimes used, but because the *t* is negative, students' answers have a very small negative tendency to go to the option of "never".

The last type of learning strategies, affective strategies, have a mean of (3.4135) and an *SD* of (0.42407) with a value of the *t* of (7.554), this means that the affective



strategies are often used and the learners' answers have a positive tendency to go to the option of "always".

The general mean for all types of learning strategies is (3.3736), the *SD* is (0.38645) and the value of the *t* is (7.488), hence all types of learning strategies are sometimes used in the pre-instruction phase and students' answers have a positive tendency to go to the option of "often".

These results occur with a (59) degrees of freedom, which is found by subtracting 1 from the total number of the sample, which is 60 since we considered the two groups as one group.

$df = N-1$  (Where *df* stands for degrees of freedom, and *N* for the total number of the sample.)

We set the significance of error at 0.05, which is an acceptable value in the social and human sciences for a two-tailed test. This means that we have a rate of 0.05% that our results occurred by chance alone and a rate of 95% confidence interval that our results did not occur by chance.

### 5.5.3.2. The Post-instruction Phase

**Table 66**

#### *The One-Sample t-test in the Post-instruction Phase*

**Table a**

#### *One-Sample Statistics*

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Std. Error Mean</i>
A	60	3.5657	.48760	.06295
B	60	3.6319	.51856	.06695
C	60	3.0500	.72597	.09372
D	60	3.4271	.49456	.06385
X	60	3.4187	.44901	.05797

**Table b**

#### *One-Sample Test*

Test Value = 3						
	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>Mean Difference</i>	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
A	8.987	59	.000	.56574	.4398	.6917
B	9.440	59	.000	.63194	.4980	.7659
C	.533	59	.596	.05000	-.1375	.2375
D	6.689	59	.000	.42708	.2993	.5548
X	7.223	59	.000	.41869	.3027	.5347

Here A stands for metacognitive strategies, B for cognitive strategies, C for social strategies, D for affective strategies, and X for all types of learning strategies.

The mean of the metacognitive strategies is (3.5657) and the standard deviation (*SD*) is (0.48760) whereas the value of the *t* is (8.987), this means that the metacognitive

strategies in the pre-instruction phase are often used and the learners' answers have a tendency to go to the option of "always".

For the second type of learning strategies, i.e. cognitive strategies, their mean is (3.6319) and the *SD* is (0.51856) whereas the value of the *t* is (9.440), this means that the cognitive strategies are also often used and students' answers have a positive tendency to go to the option of "always".

Social strategies scored a mean of (3.0500), an *SD* of (0.72597) and a value of the *t* of (0.533), this means that the social strategies are also often used, and students' answers have a small positive tendency to go to the option of "always".

The last type of learning strategies, affective strategies, have a mean of (3.4271) and an *SD* of (0.49456) with a value of the *t* of (6.689), this means that the affective strategies are often used and the learners' answers have a positive tendency to go to the option of "always".

The general mean for all types of learning strategies is (3.4187), the *SD* is (0.44901) and the value of the *t* is (7.223), hence all types of learning strategies are often used in the post-instruction phase and students' answers have a positive tendency to go to the option of "always".

## **5.6. Students' Writing Scores**

Students' writing performances were evaluated before and after the instruction in learning strategies using a scoring rubric which was presented in chapter four. We had to see the effect of the learning strategies as an independent variable on students' written performances as a dependent variable through the use of motivation as a moderator variable to test the second research hypothesis: motivating students through teaching learning strategies would likely improve students' writing scores.

First, we will proceed with a descriptive analysis of students' writing scores by comparing the means in the writing test before and after the instruction in learning strategies. Then, we will use inferential statistics to retain or not the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ), and so to confirm or reject the alternate hypothesis ( $H_1$ ).

**a. Descriptive Statistics**

The following tables display students' scores in both experimental groups in the pretest and the posttest.

**Table 5.67***Students' Scores in the Pretest*

<b>Student's number</b>	<b>Format</b>	<b>Punctuation and mechanics</b>	<b>Content</b>	<b>Organization</b>	<b>Grammar and sentence structure</b>	<b>Student's score</b>
<b>1</b>	0.25	01.75	02.5	0.5	01.5	06.5
<b>2</b>	0.5	01	03	01	02	07.5
<b>3</b>	0.5	01.25	04	01.5	02	09.25
<b>4</b>	0.25	0.25	00	00	00	00.50
<b>5</b>	0.5	01.5	03	01	01.5	07.5
<b>6</b>	0.5	02	04	02	01.5	10
<b>7</b>	0.5	02	02	02	01.5	08
<b>8</b>	0.5	01.5	05	03	02	12
<b>9</b>	0.25	03	06	02	03.5	14.75
<b>10</b>	0.25	02.5	04	03	02.5	12.25
<b>11</b>	0.25	01.5	02	01.5	02	07.25
<b>12</b>	0.25	01.25	03	01	02	07.5
<b>13</b>	0.5	01.5	03	01.5	02	08.5
<b>14</b>	0.25	01.25	04	02	02	09.5
<b>15</b>	0.5	01.75	04	04	02.5	12.75
<b>16</b>	0.25	0.75	02	0.5	02	05.5
<b>17</b>	0.5	01.25	03	02	02	09.75
<b>18</b>	0.25	01.25	02.5	03	02	09
<b>19</b>	0.25	01.75	03	01	02.5	08.5
<b>20</b>	0.25	02	03.5	01	02	08.75
<b>21</b>	0.5	01.5	05	02.5	02.5	12
<b>22</b>	0.25	01.5	00	0.25	01.5	03.5
<b>23</b>	0.5	01.5	03	01	01.75	07.75
<b>24</b>	0.5	02	03.5	01	02.25	09.25
<b>25</b>	0.5	01.5	04	02	02	10
<b>26</b>	0.5	01.5	03	01.5	02	08.5
<b>27</b>	0.25	01.25	02	01	02	06.5
<b>28</b>	0.5	01.5	04	02	02	10
<b>29</b>	0.5	02	05.5	04	03.5	15.5
<b>30</b>	0.25	01.5	03.5	01	0.75	07

<b>Student's number</b>	<b>Format</b>	<b>Punctuation and mechanics</b>	<b>Content</b>	<b>Organization</b>	<b>Grammar and sentence structure</b>	<b>Student's score</b>
<b>31</b>	00	01.5	04.5	03.5	01.5	11
<b>32</b>	00	01.5	04.5	02.5	02	10.5
<b>33</b>	0.25	01.5	04.5	02.5	02	10.75
<b>34</b>	0.5	01.5	02	0.5	02	06.5
<b>35</b>	00	01.5	02	01.5	02	07
<b>36</b>	0.25	01.5	01.5	01	01.75	06
<b>37</b>	0.5	01	03.5	03	01.5	09.5
<b>38</b>	0.25	01.5	02.5	05	02	11.25
<b>39</b>	0.25	01.5	02	0.5	02	06.25
<b>40</b>	0.25	01.25	03	03.5	02	10
<b>41</b>	0.5	01.5	03.5	03.5	02	11
<b>42</b>	0.5	01.25	02	0.5	02	06.25
<b>43</b>	0.25	0.75	00	00	01	02
<b>44</b>	0.25	01.5	03.5	02.5	02	09.75
<b>45</b>	0.5	02.5	04	01	02	10
<b>46</b>	0.5	01.5	02.5	0.5	02	07
<b>47</b>	0.25	03	01.5	01.5	02.5	08.75
<b>48</b>	0.25	02.25	01.5	01	02	07
<b>49</b>	0.5	01.5	02	02	02	08
<b>50</b>	00	01.5	05	02.5	02	11
<b>51</b>	00	01.5	00.50	00.50	01.5	04
<b>52</b>	00	02	06	04	02.5	14.5
<b>53</b>	0.25	01.5	05.5	04.5	01.5	13.25
<b>54</b>	0.25	01.5	00	00	02	03.75
<b>55</b>	0.25	02.25	01.5	01	02	07
<b>56</b>	0.25	01.5	02.5	01.5	02	07.75
<b>57</b>	0.5	01.5	05.5	01.5	02	11
<b>58</b>	0.5	01.5	02	01	02	07
<b>59</b>	0.25	01.75	01.5	01	00.50	05
<b>60</b>	0.5	02	02.5	01	02	08
<b>The mean</b>						08.5917

Table 5.68

*Students' Scores in the Post-test*

<b>Student's number</b>	<b>Format</b>	<b>Punctuation and mechanics</b>	<b>Content</b>	<b>Organization</b>	<b>Grammar and sentence structure</b>	<b>Student's score</b>
1	01	01.5	04	03.5	02.5	12.5
2	0.75	01	04	03	02	10.75
3	0.75	01.5	06	04	02	14.25
4	00.50	00	00	00	00	00.50
5	0.5	01.5	03.5	04	02.5	12
6	01	01.5	03.5	03.5	01.5	11
7	00	02.5	04	03	02.5	12
8	0.75	02	04.5	04.5	02.5	14.25
9	01	03	05	03.5	03	15.5
10	01	02.5	04.5	05	02.5	15.5
11	01	01.5	04	03.5	02	12
12	0.75	01.5	03.5	04	02.5	12.25
13	01	02.25	05	04.5	03	15.75
14	0.25	01.25	03	02.5	02	09
15	01	01	04.5	05	03	14.5
16	00	02.25	05	04.5	02.5	14.25
17	0.25	01.25	03	02	02	08.5
18	00	01.5	04	02.5	01.5	09.5
19	01	02.25	05	05	02	15.25
20	0.5	02	05.5	03.5	02	13.5
21	0.25	01.5	04	02.5	02	10.25
22	0.25	01.5	04	03	02.5	11.25
23	01	01.5	03.5	02.5	03.5	12
24	0.75	02.25	03.5	02	02.5	11
25	01	02.5	04.5	04.5	03.5	16
26	01	01.5	04	03	03	12.5
27	0.75	01.75	04	04	02.5	13
28	01	01.5	05	05	02.5	15
29	01	02	06	04.5	02	15.5
30	01	01.5	04	03	01.5	11





**Table 5.69*****Students' Scores in the Pre-test and the Posttest***

<b>Student's number</b>	<b>Pre-test</b>	<b>Posttest</b>
<b>1</b>	06.5	12.5
<b>2</b>	07.5	10.75
<b>3</b>	09.25	14.25
<b>4</b>	00.5	00.5
<b>5</b>	07.5	12
<b>6</b>	10	11
<b>7</b>	08	12
<b>8</b>	12	14.25
<b>9</b>	14.75	15.5
<b>10</b>	12.25	15.5
<b>11</b>	07.25	12
<b>12</b>	07.5	12.25
<b>13</b>	08.5	15.75
<b>14</b>	09.5	09
<b>15</b>	12.75	14.5
<b>16</b>	05.5	14.25
<b>17</b>	09.75	08.5
<b>18</b>	09	09.5
<b>19</b>	08.5	15.25
<b>20</b>	08.75	13.5
<b>21</b>	12	10.25
<b>22</b>	03.5	11.25
<b>23</b>	07.75	12
<b>24</b>	09.25	11
<b>25</b>	10	16
<b>26</b>	08.5	12.5
<b>27</b>	06.5	13
<b>28</b>	10	15
<b>29</b>	15.5	15.5
<b>30</b>	07	11

<b>Student's number</b>	<b>Pre-test</b>	<b>Posttest</b>
<b>31</b>	11	09.5
<b>32</b>	10.5	15.5
<b>33</b>	10.75	15.75
<b>34</b>	06.5	09.5
<b>35</b>	07	15.5
<b>36</b>	06	15
<b>37</b>	09.5	11.5
<b>38</b>	11.25	13.5
<b>39</b>	06.25	13.25
<b>40</b>	10	14.5
<b>41</b>	11	14.25
<b>42</b>	06.25	08.5
<b>43</b>	02	09.25
<b>44</b>	09.75	11.5
<b>45</b>	10	15.75
<b>46</b>	07	03.5
<b>47</b>	08.75	15.5
<b>48</b>	07	15.25
<b>49</b>	08	14
<b>50</b>	11	12.5
<b>51</b>	04	08.5
<b>52</b>	14.5	13.25
<b>53</b>	13.25	15.5
<b>54</b>	03.75	10
<b>55</b>	07	10.5
<b>56</b>	07.75	13
<b>57</b>	11	15.75
<b>58</b>	07	07.75
<b>59</b>	05	10
<b>60</b>	08	12
<b>The means</b>	<b>08.5917</b>	<b>12.3333</b>

First, we will proceed with a descriptive analysis of students' writing scores by comparing the means in the writing test before and after the instruction in learning strategies. Then, we will use inferential statistics to confirm or reject the null hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>).

The following tables show the results of students' writing scores before and after the study.

**Table 5.70*****Students' scores below and above 10 in the pre-test***

<b>Pre-Test</b>				
<b>Scores</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Valid Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
below 10	40	66,7	66,7	66,7
10 and above	20	33,3	33,3	100,0
Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 5.70 shows that the frequency of students' scores below 10 was (40) scores, i.e. (66.7%) of the students did not attain the average mean of (10) in the pre-test. However, twenty (20) students only scored above (10), and they represented a rate of (33.3%).

**Table 5.71*****Students' scores below and above 10 in the posttest***

<b>Post-Test</b>				
<b>Scores</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Valid Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
below 10	11	18,3	18,3	18,3
10 and above	49	81,7	81,7	100,0
Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 5.71 shows that the frequency of students' scores below 10 was only (11) scores, i.e. (18.3%) of the students did not attain the average mean of (10) in the posttest. However, forty nine (49) students scored above (10), and they represented a rate of (81.7%), i.e. there was an increase of (29) students whose scores increased.

Now, we move to the descriptive study of students' scores in each part of the scoring rubric, i.e. students' sub-scores in format, punctuation and mechanics, content, organization, and finally grammar and sentence structure in both the pre-test and the posttest.

**Table 5.72**

*Students' sub-scores in the pre-test*

	<i>N</i>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Format	60	0,00	0,50	0,3333	0,16382
Punctuation and mechanics	60	0,25	3,00	1,5917	0,47382
Content	60	0,00	6,00	3,0000	1,48438
Organization	60	0,00	5,00	1,7375	1,19269
Grammar and sentence structure	60	0,00	3,50	1,9250	0,53540
Total_SPSS_before	60	0,50	15,50	8,5917	2,92018

**Table 5.73**

*Students' sub-scores in the posttest*

	<i>N</i>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Format	60	0,00	1,00	0,6375	0,39975
Punctuation and mechanics	60	0,00	3,00	1,7958	0,53181
Content	60	0,00	6,00	4,0667	1,08716
Organization	60	0,00	5,50	3,3667	1,30471
Grammar and sentence structure	60	0,00	4,00	2,4667	0,68189
Total_SPSS_after	60	0,50	16,00	12,3333	3,05655

From tables 5.72 and 5.73, we can say that the lowest score in both the pre-test and the posttest was (0.50) and it was given for the same student whereas the highest score was (15.5) in the pre-test and (16) in the posttest, i.e. with a difference of (0.50) only. However, the mean in the pre-test was (8.5917), but it improved in the posttest and became

(12.3333), i.e. with a difference of (+3.7416), which is a significant difference. Concerning the five elements of the scoring rubric, the results were as follow. For the first element, format, the mean was (0.3333) in the pre-test and became (0.6375), i.e. it improved with (+0.3042). For the second element, punctuation and mechanics, the mean moved from (1.5917) to (1.7958), i.e. with a difference of (+0.2041). The third element, content, had a mean of (3.000) in the pre-test and became (4.0667), i.e. it improved with (+1.0667). For the fourth element, organization, the mean moved from (1.7375) to (3.3667), i.e. with a difference of (+1.6292). The last element, grammar and sentence structure, the mean was (1.9250) in the pre-test and became (2.4667), i.e. it improved with (+0.5417). Hence, all the elements improved; the first one was organization and the last one was punctuation and mechanics.

### **5.6.1. Analysis and Interpretation of Students' Writing Scores**

In order to answer the second research question and to test the second hypothesis, we opted for inferential statistics by using the parametric paired *t*-test. Dornyei (2007, p. 209) defines inferential statistics as "...inferential statistics are the same as descriptive statistics except that the computer also tests whether the results that we observed in our sample...are powerful enough to generalize to the whole population".

#### **5.6.1.1. The Choice of the Paired *t*-test**

The paired *t*-test is also called "the related samples *t*-test, ...[the] repeated measures or [the] matched samples *t*-test" (Zumbo & Jennings, 2002, p. 415). The paired sample *t*-test is used

for research designs where we want to compare two sets of scores (i.e. two variables) obtained from the same group (for example, the learners' course grades in history and English) or when the participants are measured more than once (for

example, test scores before and after a course). That is, this procedure examines different results obtained from the same group. (Dornyei, 2007, p. 221)

There are four assumptions which underlie the use of the paired sample *t*-test:

1. The dependent variable must be continuous using an interval or a ratio scale.
2. The observations are independent of one another.
3. The dependent variable should be approximately normally distributed.
4. The dependent variable should not contain any outliers.

Now, we shall consider these assumptions in relation to our data.

1. Level of measurement: The sample data should be numeric and continuous using an interval or a ratio scale. Our data is measured on an interval scale because it represents test scores which are on intervals from each other or on a continuum.
2. Independence: If the learners are independent of one another, such as the case with our learners.
3. Normality: Using a histogram, the data should look like a bell-shaped data. This assumption can be violated if the sample is large enough, i.e. more than 30 (Zumbo & Jennings, 2002), which is the case with our sample.
4. Outliers: These are rare values which appear far away from the majority of the data. Outliers can bias the results and potentially lead to incorrect conclusion if not handled properly. One method for dealing with outliers is to simply remove them. However, removing data points can introduce other types of bias into the results, and potentially resulting in losing critical information. If outliers seem to have a lot of influence on the results, a non-parametric test such as the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test may be used instead, which is not the case with our study.

### 5.6.1.2. Interpretation of the *t*-test and Testing the Second Hypothesis: Inferential

#### Statistics

The paired sample *t*-test is used to confirm or reject the second research hypothesis and to answer the second research question (RQ2).

RQ2: How would motivation and teaching learning strategies to students affect their writing?

There are two hypotheses which answer the above research question, H0 and H1.

H0: Motivating students through teaching learning strategies would not affect students' writing scores.

H1: Motivating students through teaching learning strategies would likely improve students' writing scores.

H0 is the null hypothesis, which assumes that the mean difference ( $\mu_d$ ) is equal to 0.

H1 is the upper-tailed alternate hypothesis, which assumes that the mean difference ( $\mu_d$ ) is greater than 0.

H0:  $\mu_d=0$

H1:  $\mu_d>0$  (upper-tailed)

**Table 5.74**

#### *Paired Samples Statistics*

		<i>Mean</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Std. Error Mean</i>
Pair 1	Total_SPSS_after	12.3333	60	3.05655	.39460
	Total_SPSS_before	8.5917	60	2.92018	.37699

**Table 5.75****Paired Samples t-test**

		Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower
Pair 1	Total_SPSS_after - Total_SPSS_before	3.74167	2.84745	.36760	3.00609

**Paired Samples Test**

		Paired Differences 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Upper	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	
Pair 1	Total_SPSS_after - Total_SPSS_before	4.47724	10.179*	59	.000	

\* $p < .05$  (two-tailed) but \* $p < .025$  (one-tailed)

The calculation of the value of the  $t$ -test was done using SPSS software version 23. But before calculating the  $t$ -value, we have to set a risk level, which is called the alpha level. The alpha level is used to test the significance of the test and hence to ensure that the result was not due to chance. In most social research, the alpha level ( $\alpha$ ) is set at 0.05 (Dornyei, 2007). Consequently, if the  $p$ -value sig. (2-tailed) is lower than 0.05, (H0) is rejected and (H1) is retained. However, if  $p$ -value sig. (2-tailed) is higher than 0.05, (H0) is retained and so (H1) is rejected.

The results in table 5.75 show that the  $t$ -value was 10.179 with the significance test  $p$ -value sig. (2-tailed) at  $p$ -value  $< 0, 05$ . That is to say (H0) was rejected and (H1) was retained. In concrete words, the improvement in learners' writing scores was statistically



significant. These results revealed then a positive impact of the learning strategies instruction on the participants both descriptively and inferentially.

However, because the SPSS computes only two-tailed tests, and as our hypothesis is directional, we have to halve the value of the  $p$ , so the  $p$ -value is 0.025, i.e. the obtained result might be due to chance in 2.5 per cent of the cases.

### 5.6.2. Effect Size

The effect size is also called “strength of association” (Dornyei, 2007). It is used in studies to measure “the magnitude of an observed phenomenon” or the strength of the relationship between variables with a number of common effect sizes, such as  $r^2$  (ibid., p. 212).

Cohen’s effect size is calculated using the following formula

$$r^2 = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + df}$$

$r^2$ : effect size or eta squared

$t^2$ : the  $t$  value squared

$df$ : degrees of freedom

Cohen (1992) has identified small, medium and large effect sizes indices; .20: small, .50: medium, and .80: large.

$$r^2 = \frac{10.179^2}{10.179^2 + 59} = \frac{103.612}{162.612} = 0.637$$

$$r^2 = 0.637$$

Hence, we have a medium effect size.

## 5.7. Conclusion

In the present study, we have used many tools to answer the research questions and to test the research hypotheses. The use of such tools is believed to achieve validity, reliability and consistency of the data obtained.

The preliminary questionnaire, which was administered at the outset of the quasi-experiment, answered the first research question and its sub-question; besides, it confirmed the first research hypothesis. The data gathered from this research tool showed us that first year students at the department of English language and literature in Batna 2 University do not use learning strategies in their writing with a rate of (73.33%). The remaining students use very few learning strategies in their writing, such as planning and revising (metacognitive strategies), organizing and summarizing (cognitive strategies), with no social or affective strategies. Also, the greatest majority of the respondents (96.66%) were positive concerning the introduction of the strategy approach because they wanted to be helped with strategies to improve their writing.

Students' motivation questionnaire showed us that our learners are both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated to learn English. Moreover, they consider writing as either an important or a very important skill. Also, they want to be tested in both forms: oral and written. When they are asked to write in English, our respondents feel interested, and they think that doing homework is a good way of improving their English. Their goals from the written expression course are to improve their writing skills and to be better writers, so they are intrinsically motivated. They think that the written expression course is interesting or very interesting. When asked about their opinions concerning the teacher's correction, they wanted their teacher to correct all types of mistakes. When they receive their written works from the teacher, the first thing that they do is to look at the mark, which shows that they are extrinsically motivated. They think that their teacher's

corrections are helpful and easy to understand. Their reasons for writing in English are to improve their composition skills and to improve their knowledge of English, which reveals that they are intrinsically motivated. They think that writing is a creative process; beside, it is a difficult but necessary activity. Finally, they consider motivation in learning English and in writing in English as very important or important.

On the other hand, the teachers who filled in the questionnaire use the product-process approach in teaching writing. They think that students' weaknesses in writing are spelling, punctuation, capitalization, grammar, coherence, and lack of planning. However, half of them think that students do not have strengths when it comes to the writing skill, which contradicts students' answers in the preliminary questionnaire, who said that their strengths in writing lie in organization, grammar, ideas, vocabulary, learning from teacher's feedback, good vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, coherence and creativity. Concerning the activities that they assign to their students, they mentioned practice, error correction, guided writing, pair work, and authentic writing activities. Besides, they favour their students to use the four types of learning strategies: metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective.

They cited some factors which weaken students' motivation, such as negative feedback, negative learning environment, and lack of competition. Moreover, they mentioned some of the factors that enhance students' motivation, such as positive feedback, encouragement, self-confidence, self-esteem, and healthy classroom environment. They think that their students are extrinsically motivated, which contradicts the answers found in students' motivation questionnaire. They assume that the learning atmosphere is not much motivating and that they use many activities to motivate their students, such as explaining the learning objectives, encouraging students to share their ideas, allowing them to work together and positive feedback.

The Likert-scale questionnaire was administered to measure the frequency of the use of the four types of the learning strategies before and after the study to discover whether their frequency would increase or decrease. The results were interpreted according to the means and standard deviations of these strategies in the pre-instruction and the post-instruction phases. We came to the conclusion that the frequency of the use of the learning strategies before the quasi-experiment fell in the range of “sometimes” whereas it increased to the range of “often” in the post-instruction phase. This shows the positive effect of the strategy teaching on students’ frequency of employing the four types of learning strategies.

Finally, we had to see the effect of learning strategies, as the independent variable, on students’ written scores, as the dependent variable, using motivation, as a moderator variable. For this sake, we employed the paired *t*-test to compare between the means of the respondents before and after the study. The *t*-value at 59 degrees of freedom was significant ( $t=10.179$ ) at the alpha level which was set at 0.025 (one tailed-hypothesis), so the result was not due to chance but to the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable with a medium effect size ( $r^2 = 0.637$ ). Hence, we confirmed our second hypothesis, i.e. motivating students through teaching learning strategies improved students’ writing scores.

**RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND  
SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

## **RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

The preceding chapter displayed the results gathered from the different research tools, i.e. the questionnaires and the scores analysis. Besides, it answered the research questions and confirmed the research hypotheses. The present chapter provides some recommendations drawn from the results of the study.

First, the study targeted both genders: males and females, so why not to set another study which targets males only or females only and see what effect(s) would teaching learning strategies have on students' written performances according to gender? (see Takenchi, Griffiths & Coyle, 2007).

Moreover, the population was all first-year students; another interesting study would follow these students in second and third years to see whether they would continue using these strategies or not. Besides, we believe that we will have different results with different levels, such as second-year students or third-year students.

Second, the researcher used the four types of learning strategies, i.e. metacognitive, cognitive, affective and social to teach writing. Another interesting study would use one type of strategies only at a time and see what effect(s) it would have on students' written performances. For instance, the results of both the preliminary questionnaire and the Likert-scale questionnaire showed that the respondents did not use affective strategies in their writing; one way would be to train them to use such type of strategies and discover its impact(s) on students' compositions.

Third, the research tools used to collect data were questionnaires and scores analysis. Another useful data collection tool used in the field of strategy research was the use of the think aloud protocols (TAP), which could be used here instead of the Likert-

scale questionnaire to gather data about the learning strategies that are used by the learners while composing (see Hedge, 2000; White, Schramm & Chamot, 2007). A further research tool could be the use of interviews for the students whose writing was considered good. Other tools include observation, audio and video recording (*ibid.*), stimulated recall and self-report (Manchon, Roca De Larios & Murphy, 2007).

Fourth, the preliminary questionnaire shed light on students' difficulties in writing in English, which are spelling, punctuation, capitalization, vocabulary, organization, grammar, ideas, verb tenses, expressing ideas, sentences, lack of words, language transfer, lack of appropriate strategies, coherence and wordiness (see preliminary questionnaire, section two, question 8). Some possible suggestions to remedy these problems would be: assigning students check sheets for punctuation and capitalization (this is also backed up by students' scores in the posttest since the least aspects that were improved were punctuation and capitalization), incorporating some grammar courses into the written expression syllabus, such as verb tenses, integrating more pre-writing activities to gather ideas and use appropriate vocabulary, and check sheets with cohesive devices to achieve coherence. Another remedial activity would be to make a comparative study between writing in Arabic and writing in English and show the drawbacks of language transfer since the two languages are very different one from another.

The reasons behind incorporating some grammar courses into first-year written expression syllabus are the results of the preliminary questionnaire in question 10: What makes writing difficult for you? And also question 12: What are your weaknesses in writing in English? In both questions, the students responded by "grammar", so it is a problem for them that should be remedied. This is backed up with teachers' answers which reported grammar as an essential element to be taught (teachers' questionnaire, question 7).

Moreover, we suggest a course which takes into consideration students' needs, so adding a grammar element to the written expression course would be of benefit.

Fifth, we suggest training students in the affective and social strategies since they reported that these strategies were not taught for them in high school (questions 14 & 22).

Sixth, the teachers reported that the learning atmosphere is not much motivating, so we suggest some motivational strategies drawn from Dornyei (2001). Dornyei (2001) writes the following:

Humans are, in fact, amazingly capable of producing concentrated effort when they want to, regardless of any uninspiring presentation or dull practice sequence.... The real problem with boredom is twofold: It is a fertile ground for disruptions- sometimes we can hardly wait for an excuse to 'take a break'. It does not inspire further, continuing motivation. Boring but systematic teaching can be effective in getting short-term results, but rarely does it inspire a life-long commitment to the subject matter. (p. 75)

In his book "motivational strategies in the language classroom" (2001), he suggests thirty five (35) motivational strategies proposed for teachers. These are:

- Demonstrate and talk about your own enthusiasm for the course material, and how it affects you personally.
- Take the students' learning very seriously.
- Develop a personal relationship with your students.
- Develop a collaborative relationship with the students' parents.
- Create a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom.
- Promote the development of group cohesiveness.



- Formulate group norms explicitly, and have them discussed and accepted by the learners.
- Have the group norms consistently observed.
- Promote the learners' language-related values by presenting the role models.
- Raise the learners' intrinsic interest in the L2 learning process.
- Promote integrative values by encouraging a positive and open-minded disposition towards the L2 and its speakers, and towards foreigners in general.
- Promote the students' awareness of the instrumental values associated with the knowledge of an L2.
- Increase the students' expectancy of success in particular tasks and in learning in general.
- Increase your students' goal-orientedness by formulating explicit class goals accepted by them.
- Make the curriculum and the teaching materials relevant to the students.
- Help to create realistic learner beliefs.
- Make learning more stimulating and enjoyable by breaking the monotony of classroom events.
- Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by increasing the attractiveness of the tasks.
- Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learners by enlisting them as active task participants.
- Present and administer tasks in a motivating way.
- Use goal-setting methods in your classroom.
- Use contracting methods with your students to formalize their goal commitment.
- Provide learners with regular experiences of success.

- Build your learners' confidence by providing regular encouragement.
- Help diminish language anxiety by removing or reducing the anxiety-provoking elements in the learning environment.
- Build your learners' confidence in their learning abilities by teaching them various learner strategies.
- Allow learners to maintain a positive social image while engaged in the learning tasks.
- Increase student motivation by promoting cooperating among the learners.
- Increase student motivation by actively promoting learner autonomy.
- Increase the students' self motivating capacity.
- Promote effort attributions in your students.
- Provide students with positive information feedback.
- Increase learner satisfaction.
- Offer rewards in a motivational manner.
- Use grades in a motivating manner, reducing as much as possible their demotivating impact.

Teachers can choose from these activities those which are relevant to their students and their teaching situations. However, Dornyei (2001) assumes that "...motivational strategies, even those which are generally the most reliable, are not rock-solid golden rules, but rather suggestions that may work with one teacher or group better than another, and which may work better today than tomorrow" (p. 30). This depends on learners' culture, age, proficiency level, and relationship to the teacher.

Seventh, teachers may use scaffolding (Weissberg, 2006), which is the assistance brought from the teacher to the learner to accomplish a given language task, as a way to boost students' potentials in writing.

In order to improve students' writing, we suggest the following:

- Students can use journals (Rubin, Chamot, Harris & Anderson, 2007), diaries and portfolios (Hamp-Lyons, 2006) to track their success.
- Teachers can encourage their students to use writing blogs and social media to write texts to their mates. Besides, teachers can encourage students to share their writing in writing clubs with the teacher as mediator and facilitator of learning. The teacher can also use electronic feedback to correct students' compositions (Goldstein, 2006)
- Students may be encouraged to use peer feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2006) and peer editing. Furthermore, the teacher may help the learners by providing them with self and peer-evaluation sheets.
- Teachers can use either individual or class conferencing (Goldstein, 2006; Hyland & Hyland, 2006) and workshops to meet students' needs. Conferencing occurs when the teacher talks with individual students about their work which is in progress. Hedge (2000) argues that "[t]hrough careful questioning, the teacher can support a student writer in getting ideas together, organizing them, and finding appropriate language" (p. 313).
- Teachers should include the component of culture in writing classes since it is an important aspect in the language classroom.
- Teachers should have adequate training in strategy instruction to be able to teach these strategies well (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2001).

- Students should be trained to become autonomous, self-regulated learners (ibid.).
- Students should write at a daily basis (Graham, 2008).
- Teachers should design writing activities that promote the use of strategies.
- Writing should be regarded as a goal-oriented, recursive, cognitively-demanding, problem-solving task (Manchon et al., 2007).
- The writing syllabus should regard students' needs.
- Teachers should understand the significant influence that strategy use has on writing, on language proficiency and on academic performance in general (See O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990).
- Teachers should dedicate more time to investigate students' writing difficulties and devise remedial activities accordingly. Therefore, students should be encouraged to make greater effort and improve their writing. Students may not be aware of the seriousness of their position. The writing instructors should show their students the importance of improving their writing by proposing activities that are relevant to remedy for their students' writing problems.

Graham (2008) proposes seven recommendations for teaching writing; these are:

**Recommendation 1: Dedicate time to writing, with writing occurring across the curriculum, and involve students in various forms of writing over time.**

This means that students should be given many opportunities to write in order to become better writers. Graham suggests a practice of at least one hour a day planning, revising, authoring, or publishing text. This may vary from writing projects that go beyond a single paragraph or day-to-day projects that may take weeks or even months to complete.

Furthermore, students should be trained to write in a variety of purposes.

- Communicating with others (e.g., personal letters and emails)
- Informing others (e.g., description and process writing)
- Persuading others (e.g., expressing an opinion about a controversial topic)
- Learning content material (e.g., summarizing)
- Entertaining others (e.g., writing stories and plays)
- Reflecting about self (e.g., writing about personal events)
- Responding to literature (e.g., book evaluations)
- Demonstrating knowledge (e.g., traditional classroom tests and writing tests)

**Recommendation 2: Increase students' knowledge about writing.**

Students should learn the characteristics of good writing as well as the different purposes and forms of writing. One way to achieve such a goal is through well-crafted literature which provides a model that illustrates the characteristics of good writing. This helps students discover how authors use words to describe specific images, organize ideas, and set and change the mood of text, or use illustrations to reinforce a reader's understanding. Also, reading provides a tool for learning about the different purposes and forms of writing.

**Recommendation 3: Foster students' interest, enjoyment, and motivation to write.**

In order to foster students' interest in writing, the writing assignments should serve a real or meaningful purpose. For instance, it is more motivating to write a letter to a real person than an imaginary one. Besides, students are more likely to enjoy writing if the classroom environment is a supportive and pleasant place. Hence, the teacher should be

accepting and encouraging of students' writing efforts. Teachers and students should provide positive feedback to encourage the writing students.

A writing activity is likely to be more fun when students work together and help each other as they plan, draft, revise, edit, and/or publish their composition.

Students are also likely to be more motivated to write if the teacher is enthusiastic about writing. Teachers should share their own writing with their students. Moreover, they should celebrate student success by displaying and praising their best work.

Teachers should also set high, but realistic, expectations for their students, and help them develop an "I can do" attitude. They should encourage them to do as much as they can on their own.

#### **Recommendation 4: Help students become strategic writers.**

In order to help their students become better writers, tutors should teach their students planning, drafting, revising, and editing strategies so that they can use them independently. A strategy "involves a series of actions or steps that a writer undertakes to achieve a desired goal" (Graham, 2008, p. 5). This may vary from simple strategies, such as brainstorming and semantic webbing, or more complex ones, like integration of multiple strategies in complex writing tasks, such as writing a report.

Graham (2008, pp. 5 & 6) suggests an effective method for teaching a writing strategy which includes the following:

- Describe the writing strategy and the purpose for learning it.
- Make it clear when students should use the strategy.
- Show students how to use the strategy.

- Provide students with practice applying the strategy, giving assistance as needed.
- Continue instruction until students can use the strategy independently.
- Encourage students to apply the strategy in appropriate situations once instruction has ended.
- Ask students to evaluate how the strategy improved their writing.

**Recommendation 5: Teach basic writing skills to mastery.**

Teachers should teach their students many skills that developing writers need to learn to the point where they can practice them with little effort or thought. This includes handwriting (or typing), spelling, punctuation, and capitalization skills, so that these skills do not interfere with the thinking processes involved in writing.

**Recommendation 6: Take advantage of technological writing tools.**

There is a variety of technological tools for writing that can be used by teachers to support developing writers in general and struggling writers in particular. These tools make the process of writing easier and often provide very specific types of support. The most common of these tools is word processing, which provides at least three advantages: (1) revisions can be made easily, (2) the resulting paper can be presented in a variety of professional-looking formats, and (3) typing provides an easier means of producing text for many students (of course, students need to be trained to type). Besides, word-processing programs are usually enriched by other software programs, such as spell and stylistic checkers, designed to reduce specific types of mistakes.

However, the biggest drawback to the use of word processing is a lack of computer hardware that is easily portable.

**Recommendation 7: Use assessment to gauge students' progress and needs.**

Assessment is an important part of writing instruction because it helps teachers to determine if their writing program is working, whether it needs to be adjusted, and if some learners need extra help. However, there is no consensus on how writing is best assessed.

Assessing students' writing should not be limited to teachers. Students may also assess their own writing progress in relation to a self- or teacher-identified writing goal.

**Limitations of the Study**

Despite its supposedly careful methodological design, the study has some limitations that need to be highlighted.

First, the researcher used two intact groups and did not use any of the sampling techniques available in the literature (random sampling, convenience sampling, etc.).

Second, both groups served as experimental groups so that all the participants would benefit from the strategy instruction. Hence, there was no control group with which we could make comparisons. A quasi-experimental design would fit such a situation (i.e. with only experimental groups), since it is basically looking for a broad positive influence of learning strategies on students' performances (there is not a true manipulation of the independent variable, which needs a control group for comparison with the experimental group, to check with more precision the magnitude of the difference between the two groups, due to the manipulation of the independent variable).

Third, the number of the participants (60) does not fulfill the 1/5 of the whole population, which is required in social and human sciences. Therefore, we are cautious of making generalizations.

These limitations will open the door for further research and investigations.



## **GENERAL CONCLUSION**

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

Writing is a very important skill to master, especially at tertiary level since it enables individuals to have access to better careers in their lives. It is the outcome of using strategies which manage the composing process and the development of text. Writing requires the use of many activities, such as setting goals, generating ideas, organizing information, selecting appropriate language, making a draft, reading and reviewing it, then revising and editing. It is a complex process that is difficult for second and foreign language writers.

It was not until the 1970s that researchers started to have interest in what second language writers do as they compose to discover the inner complicated cognitive operations that go on in the writer's mind. These operations are called "strategies", which are specific methods of solving a problem or performing a task.

ESL and EFL learners can become better writers if they are taught appropriate learning and writing strategies. These strategies enhance learning, help learners to perform specific tasks, and solve specific problems. Besides, they make learning easier, faster and more enjoyable, and assist learners to compensate for a deficit in learning.

The present doctoral dissertation aims at establishing a relationship between writing and learning strategies. Besides, it proposes a framework whose objective is to motivate students and improve their writing performances through a learning and writing strategies-based instruction. This is achieved through a strategy instruction adapted from two models, which are the Cognitive Academic language Learning Approach (CALLA) and the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD).

Throughout the research journey, the researcher tried to answer the following research questions:

1. Do first-year EFL students at the department of English in Batna 2 University use learning strategies in their writing? And if yes, what are they?
2. How would motivation and teaching learning strategies to students affect their writing?

Moreover, we tested the following research hypotheses:

1. It would appear that first-year EFL students at the department of English in Batna 2 University do not use learning strategies in their writing.
2. Motivating students through teaching learning strategies would likely improve students' writing scores.

The study is quasi-experimental in nature and involves two intact groups from first-year students. Each group is composed of thirty (30) students; hence, the total sample is made of sixty (60) students. The strategy instruction is carried out during the second semester of the academic year 2016-2017. The researcher has made use of different research tools, which are questionnaires and scores analysis. A pre-test is administered at the beginning of the study and a posttest is used at the end of the study, to make sure that any improvement in students' writing scores, as the dependent variable, is globally due to the use of the learning strategies, as the independent variable, using motivation, as a moderator variable.

At the end of the study, we could answer the two research questions and say that the results are in the direction of the hypotheses set at the beginning of the research work. Concerning the first hypothesis, we come to the conclusion that (73.33%) of the students are not aware of the learning strategies used in writing (see results of the preliminary questionnaire, section 3, question 21). This is confirmed by answering the sub-question of the first question: if yes, what are they? The few students who used learning strategies,

made use only of some metacognitive strategies, such as preparing the lesson, planning and revising. Moreover, they cited some cognitive strategies, such as organizing, using previous knowledge, drafting, grammar, punctuation and capitalization. However, the respondents reported neither affective nor social strategies in their answers.

As for the second hypothesis, it is also confirmed because we notice that the strategy instruction has led to the improvement in students' writing. This is backed with students' scores in the pre-test and the posttest, which are different and which have improved. Using inferential statistics by employing the paired-sample *t*-test leads us to confirm the second hypothesis by showing that the improvement in students' scores in the posttest is globally due to the independent variable, in this case the use of learning strategies. It is also confirmed through students' answers in the motivation questionnaire since students reported that they consider writing as either an important skill or a very important skill (see students' motivation questionnaire, question 7), and feel interested when asked to write (question 9), and are intrinsically motivated (questions 5 & 11).

However, the study has some limitations. First of all, the researcher could not use random sampling due to administrative regulations. Second, because of the number of students in each group (30 students per group), we could not give them regular feedback. Furthermore, the application of the strategy instruction for one semester only is insufficient to draw conclusions. That is why we suggest the extension of teaching learning strategies to other semesters and to other levels. All these variables could not be kept constant and they present threats to the study and jeopardize its validity.

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## Appendix A : The Preliminary Questionnaire

### Section One : General Information

1. Sex : Male  Female
2. Age : .....
3. What is your Baccalaureate option?
  - a. Literature and foreign languages.
  - b. Literary streams.
  - c. Natural or exact sciences.
  - d. Other: .....
4. How many years have you been studying English?  
.....
5. Did you choose to study English?  
Yes  No
6. If yes, please say why?

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

### Section Two: Students' Strengths, Weaknesses and Difficulties in Writing

7. According to you, what constitutes good writing?

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

8. What are your difficulties in writing in English?

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

9. What are your strengths and weaknesses in writing in English?

Strengths:.....  
.....

Weaknesses:.....  
.....

10. What makes writing difficult to you? (You may tick more than one box.)
  - a. Grammar, vocabulary, organization
  - b. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization
  - c. Content, style, ideas
  - d. Anxiety
  - e. Thinking about the reader
  - F. Difficult/unclear instructions

11. What are your strengths in writing?

- a. Grammar, vocabulary
- b. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization
- c. Content, style, ideas
- d. Creativity
- e. Confidence in yourself and motivation
- f. Impressing the reader

12. What are your weaknesses in writing?

- a. Grammar, vocabulary
- b. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization
- c. Ideas/content
- d. confidence and motivation

13. How did you know about your strengths and weaknesses?

- a. From others (e. g. teacher and friends)
- b. Marks/performance
- c. From reviewing your own work

**Section Three: Students' Cognitive, Metacognitive, Social and Affective Strategies**

14. Did your high-school teacher of English provide you with some writing techniques? If so, what are they?

.....  
.....

15. Did you like your teacher's way of teaching writing in high school? Why?

.....  
.....

16. Do you have an overall/weekly/ monthly plan to practice your composition?

Yes No

17. Do you plan your writing?

Yes No

18. If yes, do you usually adjust your writing planning?

Yes No

19. Do you evaluate your fulfillment of your plan?

Yes No

20. Do you like to work individually or in groups?

.....

21. Are you aware of the strategies that you are using in writing?

Yes No

22. If yes, cite some of them.

.....  
.....

23. Before doing a writing assignment, do you collect models of different types of written texts?

Yes No

24. Do you take into consideration the audience (the readers) you are writing for?

Yes

No

25. Do you ask yourself about the purpose (the aim) of your writing?

Yes

No

26. Do you revise your writing?

Yes

No

27. Which elements do you consider in your revision?

.....  
.....

28. How do you evaluate your progress in writing?

.....  
.....

29. When you fail to do a writing assignment, what are the techniques that you use?

.....  
.....

30. What are the techniques that you use to continue with the writing assignment?

.....  
.....

31. How do you overcome your limitations in writing?

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

32. In your opinion, which strategies can help you to improve your writing?

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

33. Do you like to be helped with strategies to improve your writing?

Yes

No

**Thank you for your cooperation**

**N. Kissoum**



## Appendix B

### Students' Motivation Questionnaire (Pilot Questionnaire)

Dear students,

This questionnaire is about your motivation in writing in English. Please respond to each question, either by ticking the appropriate box(es) or by making full answers where necessary.

#### Section One: Background Information

1. Gender: Male  Female
2. Age: .....
3. Baccalaureate option:
  - a. Literature and foreign languages
  - b. Literature and philosophy
  - c. Natural sciences
  - d. Exact sciences
  - e. Other, please specify.....
4. Did you choose to study English? Yes  No
5. If yes, please say why?  
.....  
.....

#### Section Two: Students' Motivation in Writing in English

6. Classify the following language skills in order of importance from the most important skill (1) to the least important one (4).

Listening ( ) Speaking ( ) Reading ( ) Writing ( )

7. According to you, is writing

- a. A very important skill
- b. As important as the other skills
- c. Not important at all

8. When assessing (testing or evaluating) students, teachers should use

- a. Written tests                      b. Oral tests                      c. Written and oral tests

9. When you are asked to write in English, how do you feel?

- a. Interested              b. Unable              c. Bored              d. Other, please specify.....

10. According to you, assigning written homework to students is

- a. An important element of a student's evaluation/ assessment
- b. A good way of improving your English                      c. A burden

11. Why are you studying written expression module?

.....  
.....

12. What do you expect to obtain from written expression module?

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

13. What goals would you like to accomplish at the end of the written expression course?

- a. Pass the course              b. Improve your written skills              c. Communicate with other users of English
- d. be a better writer              e. Be more educated
- f. other, please specify.....

14. How do you find the written expression course?

- a. Very interesting              b. Interesting              c. A bit interesting              d. Not interesting at all

15. According to you, how should your teacher correct your writing?

- a. Correct only the grammatical mistakes                      b. Correct only the mistakes related to content

c. Correct all types of mistakes (i.e. grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and content)

16. When you receive your written work from the teacher, what do you do first?

- a. Look at the mark
- b. Read the teacher's comments
- c. Lose your self-confidence from the amount of corrections
- d. Learn from your mistakes
- e. Other, please specify.....

17. How do you consider the teacher's corrections?

- a. Helpful
- b. Too much
- c. Not enough
- d. Not important
- e. Easy to understand
- f. Ambiguous
- g. Other, please specify.....

18. What are your reasons for writing in English?

- a. To have extra marks
- b. To improve your composition skills in writing
- c. To improve your knowledge of English
- d. To practice something that you have already learned
- e. To express your ideas
- f. Other, please specify.....

19. How do you consider writing?

- a. A means of communication
- b. A creative process
- c. A boring activity
- d. a difficult but necessary activity
- e. other.....

20. How important do you think motivation is for learning English and especially for writing in English?

- a. Very important
- b. Important
- c. A bit important
- d. Not important

Thank you for your cooperation, Mrs. Kissoum

## Appendix C

### Students' Motivation Questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire is about your motivation in writing in English. Please respond to each question, either by ticking the appropriate box(es) or by making full answers where necessary. Thank you in advance.

#### Section One: Background Information

1. Gender: Male  Female
2. Age: .....
3. Baccalaureate option:
  - a. Literature and foreign languages
  - b. Literature and philosophy
  - c. Natural sciences
  - d. Exact sciences
  - e. Other, please specify.....
4. Did you choose to study English? Yes  No
5. If yes, please state your reason(s).
  - a. It is my favourite language and I like it
  - b. To learn about its culture
  - c. To communicate with others
  - d. To become a teacher of English
  - e. To travel abroad or emigrate
  - f. To study abroad

#### Section Two: Students' Motivation in Writing in English

6. Classify the following language skills in order of importance from the most important skill (1) to the least important one (4).

Listening ( ) Speaking ( ) Reading ( ) Writing ( )

7. According to you, is writing:

- a. A very important skill?
- b. As important as the other skills?
- c. Not important at all?

8. Do you think that teachers, when testing or evaluating students, should use:

- a. Written tests?
- b. Oral tests?
- c. Written and oral tests?

9. When you are asked to write in English, how do you feel:

- a. Interested?
- b. Unable?
- c. Bored?



18. How important do you think motivation is for learning English and especially for writing in English:

a. Very important?

b. Important?

c. Not important?

Thank you for your cooperation, Mrs. Kissoum

## Appendix D

### Likert-scale Questionnaire (Pilot Questionnaire)

Dear students, this questionnaire is designed to investigate the strategies that you use while writing. I would be grateful if you could fill in the following questionnaire. The information provided will be of great help in my study and will be treated anonymously.

Please make a tick under the choice that best describes what you do or how you behave when you are writing. Thank you in advance.

1: Never or almost never – 2: Not usually – 3: Sometimes – 4: Usually – 5: Always or almost always

There is no right or wrong answer.

Statements	5 Always or almost always	4 Usually	3 Sometimes	2 Not usually	1 Never or almost never
<b>I- Metacognitive Strategies</b>					
1. I use any opportunity to write in English.					
2. I make use of my mistakes in writing to help me write better.					
3. I have clear objectives to improve my writing.					
4. I try to be a better writer in English.					
5. I plan my time to have enough time to write.					
6. I always plan my composition before I start writing.					
7. I try to examine what I have written.					
8. I think of the way I arrange my writing.					
9. After writing I try to check what I have written.					
10. I plan my writing from start to finish before I begin writing.					
11. I ask myself whether I have progressed with my writing.					
12. I compare my writing with the writing of my friends.					
13. When I write, I stop many times to revise what I have written.					
14. When writing I imagine ideas related to the topic of my composition.					
15. I do not plan my writing ahead.					
16. I like to write by myself; I do not like to be helped by anyone.					
17. I like to read a lot to improve my writing.					
18. I consider my progress in writing in English.					

<b>II- Cognitive Strategies</b>					
19. I write new words in English several times to memorize them.					
20. I use the English words I know in my composition.					
21. I use ideas from my reading in my writing.					
22. I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English.					
23. I summarize the information that I read in English.					
24. I always think of what I will write before writing.					
25. While I write, I ask myself questions related to the subject of my composition.					
26. I always write a draft.					
27. I use books and other written materials to help me with writing.					
28. I make notes when writing.					
29. I check spelling, punctuation, capitalization and grammar mistakes while I write.					
30. I try to imagine the things I'm writing about while writing.					
<b>III- Social Strategies</b>					
31. I like to plan my writing with a friend.					
32. I write down my ideas without discussing them with a friend.					
33. When I find difficulties while writing, I ask for help from friends.					
34. I like to know about people's reactions about my writing.					
35. I ask my teacher for clarifications when I write.					
36. I ask for help from peers while composing.					
37. I like to discuss my writing with others.					
<b>IV-Affective strategies</b>					
38. I like writing.					
39. When I have problems while writing, I try to solve them.					
40. My writing becomes better each time I am encouraged.					
41. I tell myself positive things to get motivated to write.					
42. I find writing a boring activity.					
43. In my free time, I like to write.					
44. I choose the topics that I have to write about by myself.					
45. I think that writing is an interesting activity.					
46. When I am unable to write, I tell myself positive things.					
47. I persuade myself that I can finish the writing task.					



48. I write from my own will.					
49. I stop writing when I have problems composing.					
50. I try to relax whenever I find difficulties in writing in English.					
51. I reward myself when I write well.					
52. I notice if I am nervous when writing.					
53. I talk to a friend about my feelings when composing.					

**Appendix E**  
**Covering Letter**

Dear Colleagues,

Please find enclosed a copy of the questionnaire that I plan to give to first year students at the department of English language and literature in Batna 2 University to collect data for my PhD project. The aim of my PhD project is to investigate students' writing strategies and their effect on the written product of those students. Hence, I would really appreciate it if you could read carefully the questionnaire, and then answer the following questions. Please feel free to add any suggestions that might improve the work.

**Lay out**

1. Do you think the layout of the questionnaire is appropriate?

Yes

Needs improvement

2. If you think that it needs improvement, do you have any suggestions?

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

**Content**

1. Do you have any reservations about any of the statements? If yes, please state your reasons?

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

2. Do you think the statements mentioned are:

Enough

Too much

Not enough

3. Do you find any unnecessary statements?

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

4. Do you find any irrelevant words?

.....  
.....

7. Do you find any overlapping items? If yes, please specify.

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

8. Do you find the language of the questionnaire clear and suitable for the level of first year students at the department of English?

.....  
.....

9. Please feel free to add any comment about the questionnaire.

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

Thank you for your cooperation

Mrs. Nawel Kissoum

## Appendix F

### Likert-Scale Questionnaire

Dear students, this questionnaire is designed to investigate the strategies that you use while writing. I would be grateful if you could fill in the following items. The information provided will be of great help in my study and will be treated anonymously.

Please make a tick under the choice that best describes what you do or how you behave when you are writing. Thank you in advance.

1: Never – 2: Rarely – 3: Sometimes – 4: Often – 5: Always

There is no right or wrong answer.

Statements	5 Always	4 Often	3 Sometimes	2 Rarely	1 Never
<b>I- Metacognitive Strategies</b>					
1. I use any opportunity to write in English.					
2. I make use of my mistakes in writing to help me write better.					
3. I have clear objectives to improve my writing.					
4. I try to be a better writer in English.					
5. I plan my timetable to have enough time to write.					
6. I always plan my composition before I start writing.					
7. I try to examine what I have written.					
8. I think of the way I arrange my writing.					
9. After writing I try to check what I have written.					
10. I plan my writing from start to finish before I begin writing.					
11. I ask myself whether I have progressed with my writing.					
12. I compare my writing with the writing of my friends.					
13. When I write, I stop many times to revise what I have written.					
14. When writing I imagine ideas related to the topic of my composition.					
15. I plan my writing ahead.					
16. I like to write by myself; I do not like to be helped by anyone.					
17. I like to read a lot to improve my writing.					
18. I consider my progress in writing in English.					
<b>II- Cognitive Strategies</b>					
19. I write new words in English several times to memorize them.					
20. I use the English words I know in my composition.					
21. I use ideas from my reading in my writing.					
22. I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English.					
23. I summarize the information that I read in English.					
24. I always think of what I will write before writing.					

25. I always write a draft.					
26. While I write, I ask myself questions related to the subject of my composition.					
27. I use books and other written materials to help me with writing.					
28. I make notes when writing.					
29. I check spelling, punctuation, capitalization and grammar mistakes while I write.					
30. I try to imagine the things I'm writing about while writing.					
<b>III- Social Strategies</b>					
31. I like to plan my writing with a friend.					
32. I write down my ideas without discussing them with a friend.					
33. When I find difficulties while writing, I ask for help from friends.					
34. I like to know about people's reactions about my writing.					
35. I ask my teacher for clarifications when I write.					
36. I ask for help from peers while composing.					
37. I like to discuss my writing with others.					
<b>IV- Affective Strategies</b>					
38. I like writing.					
39. When I have problems while writing, I try to solve them.					
40. My writing becomes better each time I am encouraged.					
41. I tell myself positive things to get motivated to write.					
42. I find writing a boring activity.					
43. In my free time, I like to write.					
44. I choose the topics that I have to write about by myself.					
45. I think that writing is an interesting activity.					
46. When I am unable to write, I tell myself positive things.					
47. I persuade myself that I can finish the writing task.					
48. I write from my own will.					
49. I stop writing when I have problems composing.					
50. I try to relax whenever I find difficulties in writing in English.					
51. I reward myself when I write well.					
52. I notice if I am nervous when writing.					
53. I talk to a friend about my feelings when composing.					

**Thank you for your cooperation.**

**Mrs. Kissoum**

## Appendix G

### Teachers' Questionnaire (Pilot Questionnaire)

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is designed to discover the techniques that you are using to teach written expression module to first year students. Besides, it aims at finding out the degree of your students' motivation to write in English.

I would be grateful if you could fill in the following items. Please, tick the appropriate box(es) or make full answers wherever necessary. Thank you in advance.

#### Section One: Background Information

1. Gender:   Male                                  Female
2. Age: .....
3. How many years have you been teaching English? .....
4. What is your academic degree?
  - a. Licence                  b. Magister                  c. Doctorat                  d. Professor
5. What are the module(s) that you have taught since you started teaching in the department of English language and literature at Batna 2 University?

.....  
.....

#### Section 2: Written Expression/Writing Strategies

6. Which teaching method are you using in your classroom?  
.....  
.....
7. Which approach do you use in teaching written expression?
  - a. The product approach (considering the student's final product)
  - b. The process approach (considering the different steps of the writing process)
  - c. The product-process approach (a mixture of the above-mentioned approaches)
  - d. The genre approach (focusing on the written genre, e.g. narrative, descriptive, etc.)
  - e. The strategy approach (teaching students appropriate writing strategies)
  - f. Other, please specify.....
8. Would you explain the main steps that you go through in teaching written expression module?  
.....  
.....  
.....

9. According to you, which elements in writing do you regard essential to be taught to students?

- a. Grammar
- b. Vocabulary
- c. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization
- d. Other, please specify.....

10. What are your students' weaknesses in writing?

- a. Grammar
- b. Vocabulary
- c. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization
- d. Ideas/content
- e. Confidence and motivation
- f. Other.....

11. What are your students' strengths in writing?

- a. Grammar
- b. Vocabulary
- c. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization
- d. Content/ideas
- e. Creativity
- f. other.....

12. Which writing activities do you usually assign to your students? State the aim behind such activities.

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

13. Before choosing a writing material, which elements do you consider in your selection?

.....  
.....

14. Which writing strategies do you favour your students to use?

- a. Cognitive strategies (they manipulate information to enhance learning, e.g. summarizing, and using the dictionary )
- b. Metacognitive strategies (they entail planning, monitoring, i.e. checking one's own understanding, and evaluating the success of a learning activity)
- c. Social strategies (they help the learner work with others, e.g. asking questions and asking for help)
- d. Affective strategies (they serve to regulate emotions, motivation and attitudes, e.g. deep breathing and positive self-talk)

e. All of them

Please, say why?.....

.....  
.....

15. When you give your students writing activities, which strategies are you targeting?

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

Please, say why?

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

**Section Three: Motivation**

16. According to you, how is motivation important in learning?

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

17. What are the elements which weaken students' motivation?

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

18. What are the elements which increase students' motivation?

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

19. Motivation has been divided into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation deals with behaviour done for its own sake to experience personal satisfaction. Extrinsic motivation is doing an activity to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. grades) or avoid punishment. How would you describe your students? Are they?

- a. Intrinsically motivated      b. Extrinsically motivated      c. Demotivated



20. How would you describe the learning atmosphere?

- a. Motivating
- b. Demotivating

21. Do you focus on students' participation in your written expression session?

- Yes
- No

22. How do you deal with students who do not participate often?

- a. Advise them
- b. Threaten them (by scores, for example)
- c. Force them (for example, by asking them directly and waiting for their answers)
- d. Other, please specify.....

.....

23. How do you motivate your students?

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

24. When your students are unmotivated, how do you deal with them?

- a. Use external factors of motivation (such as scores and punishment)
- b. Use internal factors of motivation (such as interest and positive learning environment)

25. What is your students' level of motivation during the written expression session?

- a. High
- b. Moderate
- c. Low
- d. Inexistent

26. According to you, would teaching students writing strategies improve their writing?

- Yes
- No

Please, say how?.....

.....  
.....

Thank you for your cooperation, Mrs. Kissoum

## Appendix H

### Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is designed to discover the techniques that you are using to teach written expression module to first year students. Besides, it aims at finding out the degree of your students' motivation to write in English.

I would be very grateful if you could fill in the following questionnaire. Please, tick the appropriate box(es) or make full answers wherever necessary. Thank you very much for your help.

#### Section One: Background Information

1. Gender: Male  Female
2. Age: .....
3. How many years have you been teaching English? .....
4. What is your academic degree?
  - a. Master
  - b. Magister
  - c. Doctorat
5. What are the module(s) that you have taught since you started teaching in the department of English language and literature at Batna 2 University?  
.....  
.....

#### Section 2: Written Expression/Writing Strategies

6. Which approach do you use in teaching written expression:
  - a. The product approach (considering the student's final product)?
  - b. The process approach (considering the different steps of the writing process)?
  - c. The product-process approach (a mixture of the above-mentioned approaches)?
  - d. The genre approach (focusing on the written genre, e.g. narrative, descriptive, etc.)?
  - e. The strategy approach (teaching students appropriate writing strategies)?
  - f. Other, please specify.....  
.....
7. According to you, which elements in writing do you regard essential to be taught to students:
  - a. Grammar?
  - b. Vocabulary?
  - c. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization?
  - d. Other, please specify.....

8. What are your students' weaknesses in writing:

a. Grammar?                      b. Vocabulary?                      c. Spelling, punctuation,  
capitalization?

d. Ideas/content?                      e. Self-confidence and motivation?

f. Other.....

9. What are your students' strengths in writing:

a. Grammar?                      b. Vocabulary?                      c. Spelling, punctuation,  
capitalization?

d. Content/ideas?                      e. Creativity?

f. Other.....

10. Which writing activities do you usually assign to your students? State the aim behind such activities.

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

11. Which writing strategies do you favour your students to use:

a. Cognitive strategies (they manipulate information to enhance learning, e.g. summarizing, and using the dictionary )?

b. Metacognitive strategies (they entail planning, monitoring, i.e. checking one's own understanding, and evaluating the success of a learning activity)?

c. Social strategies (they help the learner work with others, e.g. asking questions and asking for help)?

d. Affective strategies (they serve to regulate emotions, motivation and attitudes, e.g. deep- breathing and positive self-talk)?

e. All of them

Please, say why?.....

.....  
.....

**Section Three: Motivation**

12. According to you, how is motivation important in learning?

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

13. What are the factors which weaken students' motivation?

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

14. What are the factors which increase students' motivation?

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

15. Intrinsic motivation deals with behaviour done for its own sake to experience personal satisfaction. Extrinsic motivation is doing an activity to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. grades) or avoid punishment. How would you describe your students? Are they:

- a. Intrinsically motivated?
- b. Extrinsically motivated?
- c. Demotivated?

16. How would you describe the learning atmosphere:

- a. Motivating?
- b. Not much motivating?

17. How do you motivate your students?

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

18. When your students are unmotivated, how do you deal with them?

- a. Use external factors of motivation (such as scores)?
- b. Use internal factors of motivation (such as interest and positive learning environment)?

19. What is your students' level of motivation during the written expression session:

- a. High?
- b. Moderate?
- c. Low?

20. According to you, would teaching students writing strategies improve their writing?

Yes

No

Please, say why?.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much for your cooperation,

Mrs. Kissoum

## **Appendix I**

### **The Written Expression Syllabus for First Year**

#### **Aims:**

1. To master basic sentence structures
2. To avoid basic sentence problems
3. To master the mechanics of writing
4. To write coherent and unified paragraphs

#### **Semester One:**

##### **Chapter 1: The sentence structure**

1. The sentence
2. The clause
  - a. The independent clause
  - b. The dependent clause
3. Subject-verb agreement

##### **Chapter 2: Types of sentences**

1. The simple sentence
2. The compound sentence
3. The complex sentence
4. The compound-complex sentence

##### **Chapter 3: Combination of sentences**

1. Coordination
  - a. Punctuation with coordinating conjunctions
  - b. Semi-colon and conjunctive adverbs
2. Subordination
  - a. Subordinating conjunctions
  - b. Punctuation with subordinating conjunctions

##### **Chapter 4: Sentence problems**

1. Misplaced and dangling modifiers
2. Parallelism and wordiness
3. Fragments, comma-splices, run-ons and choppy sentences

Punctuation and capitalization in sentences

Spelling

## **Semester Two:**

### **Chapter 5: The writing process for the paragraph**

1. The paragraph defined (paragraph format and structure)
2. The writing process for the paragraph: pre-writing activities( brainstorming, freewriting and listing), writing the first draft, post-writing activities (revising, editing and publishing)
3. Basic paragraph patterns
4. The topic sentence, the controlling idea, the supporting sentences, the concluding sentence
5. Unity and coherence
6. Writing an outline

### **Chapter 6: Different types of paragraphs**

1. Narration
2. Description
3. Cause and effect
4. Comparison and contrast
5. Argumentation
6. Process analysis
7. Exemplification





## Appendix K

### Exercises about topic sentence, supporting sentences, concluding sentence, unity and coherence

**Activity 1: Circle the topic of the sentence. Underline the main idea about the topic.**

1. Switzerland is a very interesting country to visit.
2. Dogs make excellent pets.
3. A really good place to study is the library at my school.
4. Learning a foreign language creates job opportunities.
5. Football is my favourite sport because it is exciting to watch.
6. One of the most valuable tools for students is the computer.
7. My sister and I have different personalities.
8. Summer is the best time to travel in my country.
9. My hometown is a friendly place to live.

**Activity 2: Do the same as activity 1.**

1. My sister is my best friend.
2. Snowboarding is my favourite winter sport.
3. The last CD I bought changed my life.
4. There are three reasons why cell phone is useful.
5. Reading novels, such as Harry Potter stories, can help students improve their English.
6. My part-time job taught me several new skills.
7. Disney Land was a great place for our family vacation.

**Activity 3: Which is a strong topic sentence?**

1. Many people in England and the US have cats.  
Cats are good company for their owner.
2. Studying English in high school helps you get a better job.  
We study English in high school.
3. The food and people in Japan, Taiwan and Korea are very interesting and so are the buildings.  
Traditional Japanese food is different from Korean food.
4. My grandfather has helped me in many ways.  
My grandfather is 86 years old.
5. I really like sports.  
Baseball has taught me many things about life.
6. There are many environmental problems around the world.  
It's important to save the rainforests in South America.
7. I got an A on my last Math test.  
I have a secret technique for learning Math.

**Activity 4: Work with a partner or in a small group. Put a check next to good topic sentences. Tell what's wrong with the other sentences; are they too specific or too general? Write too specific or too general next to these sentences.**

1. It's estimated that 20% of Japanese marriages are arranged.
2. In Japan there are two types of marriages.
3. Digital cameras take photos.
4. Digital cameras have several advantages over film cameras.
5. Digital cameras are composed of small squares; just like a tiled kitchen floor or bathroom wall.
6. Learning the meanings of abbreviations used in the field of technology is like learning a new language.
7. PC, PDA, GPS, Wi-Fi are abbreviations.
8. A PDA can perform a variety of useful functions.
9. Consider these four factors when choosing a college.
10. Golden retriever dogs have certain characteristics that make them good family pets.

**Activity 5: Choose the best topic sentence for each group of supporting sentences. Write it on the line provided.**

1. \_\_\_\_\_ . I usually go skiing every weekend in the winter even though it is expensive. I love the feeling of flying down a mountain. The views are beautiful from the top of a mountain and along the trails. Even the danger of falling and getting hurt can't keep me away from the slopes on a winter day.

- a) Skiing is expensive.
- b) Skiing is my favourite sport.
- c) Skiing is dangerous.

2. \_\_\_\_\_ . First of all, we need money to repair old roads and build new roads. We also need more to pay teachers' salaries and to pay for services such as trash collection. Finally, more tax money is needed to give financial help to the poor citizens of the city. It is clear that the city will have serious problems if taxes are not raised soon.

- a) We should raise city taxes.
- b) City taxes are too high.
- c) City taxes pay for new roads.

3. \_\_\_\_\_ . For example, a person can have breakfast in New York, board an airplane, and have dinner in Paris. A businesswoman in London can instantly place an order with a factory in Hong Kong by sending a fax. Furthermore, a schoolboy in Tokyo can turn on a TV and watch a baseball game being played in Los Angeles.

- a) Airplanes have changed our lives.
- b) Advances in technology have made the world seem smaller.
- c) The fax machine was an important invention.

**Activity 6: Write a topic sentence for each paragraph. Make sure your topic sentence expresses the main idea of the paragraph.**

1. \_\_\_\_\_ . I can't wait to come home from school and eat the delicious meals she has prepared. She is famous for her desserts like peach pie and chocolate soufflé. She is always experimenting with new recipes and trying different ingredients. No one in the world can cook the way my mother does.

2. \_\_\_\_\_ . It never starts in cold weather. The horn and the left turn signal don't work properly. Worst of all, the radio only gets one station and the CD player is completely broken. I wish I could get a new car.

3. \_\_\_\_\_ . To start things off, my plane was six hours late. When I finally got to my hotel, I was very disappointed. It was small and dirty. On the third day, my wallet was stolen, and I lost all my credit cards. It rained every day except one, and on that day I got a terrible sunburn. All in all, it wasn't a vacation to remember.

**Activity 7: There is one irrelevant sentence in each paragraph that follows. Find that sentence and cross it out.**

- 1. Cats make wonderful house pets. They are very loving and friendly. Cats are also clean. They don't eat much, so they are not expensive. Unfortunately, some people are allergic to their hair. Cats look beautiful and they're fun to have in your home.
- 2. The Japanese automobile industry uses robots in many stages of its production process. In fact, one large Japanese auto factory uses robots in all of its production stages. Some Japanese universities are developing medical robots to detect certain kinds of cancer. Another automobile factory in Japan uses them to paint cars as they come off the assembly line. Furthermore, most Japanese factories use robots to weld the parts of the finished car together.
- 3. The packaging of many products is very wasteful. Often the packaging is twice as big as the product. Packaging is used to protect things that are breakable. Many food items, for example, have several layers of extra packaging. Most of these extra layers could be eliminated.

**Activity 8: Write a concluding sentence for each paragraph.**

- 1.) There are many reasons why I like wearing a uniform to school. First of all, it saves time. I don't have to spend time picking out my clothes every morning. Wearing a uniform also saves money. It's cheaper to purchase a new uniform than to go out and buy lots of school clothes. In addition, I don't have the pressure of keeping up with the latest styles. Most importantly, wearing a school uniform gives me a sense that I belong. I really think that it adds to the feeling of school spirit and community.  
\_\_\_\_\_ .
- 2.) Credit cards have a lot of advantages. First of all, credit cards are convenient because you don't have to carry a lot of cash around. You can buy the products and services you need even if you do not have cash in your pocket. In addition, credit cards are very helpful in emergencies. Finally, you can become a better money manager as you learn to use credit cards responsibly.

Source: Blanchard, K. in Root, C. 2003. Ready to Write. NY: Pearson Education - Longman.

**Activity 9: Work with a partner or in a small group. Read each topic sentence. Then fill in the blanks with additional supporting sentences. Add as many supporting sentences as you can, but you do not have to fill in all the blanks.**

1. Owning a small car has several advantages.
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
  - c. ....
  - d. ....
2. To keep your teeth healthy and your smile bright, do the following things.
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
  - c. ....
3. Consider these three/four/five factors when planning a family vacation.
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
  - c. ....
  - d. ....
4. A good friend has two/three/four important qualities.
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
  - c. ....
  - d. ....

**Activity 10: The following sentences are a scrambled paragraph. Put the sentences in order and write the paragraph.**

**Step 1: Find the topic sentence. Give it the number 1.**

**Step 2: Find the concluding sentence. Give it the number 9.**

**Step 3: Then decide which sentences are supporting points and put them in order. Look for the words “first, second, third and finally”.**

**Step 4: Decide which example support which point.**

### **Fast food, unhealthy food**

- a. For example, a six-inch pizza Hut, personal pan, pepperoni Pizza has 660 calories, and a MC Donald’s Big Mac has 560 calories.
- b. In conclusion, a quick meal at a fast food restaurant may be delicious and convenient, but it is definitely not a healthy way to eat.
- c. Second, a lot of calories from fast food are from fat.
- d. Third, fast food items, such as hamburgers and French fries, contain high amounts of salt.
- e. Fast food is extremely popular in the US, but it’s not very good for you.
- f. First of all, most fast food is very high in calories.
- g. A typical meal at MC Donald’s contains as much as 1370 milligrams of sodium.
- h. Finally, add a sugary soft drink to your fast food meal and you pound the last nail into the heart of a nutritionist.
- i. For instance, a portion of Nachos Supreme from Taco Bell contains 26 grams of fat and a Big Mac contains 30 grams.

## **Appendix L**

### *Examples of the Seven Kinds of Paragraphs*

Study these paragraphs, all taken from "Sentences, Paragraphs and Beyond", written by Lee Brandon and Kelly Brandon.

**1. Write a narrative paragraph about a work-related incident that was a learning experience and made a deep impression. Type the final draft. Audience: other students and instructor.**

It was my first task of what would be a memorable day at work in Carl's Jr., a fast-food place by Universal Studio near Hollywood. I was assigned to the front counter because another worker was late. There I was at noon, the busiest time of the day, with no training, scared and nervous. In the beginning, things went well. Orders were routine and I filled them and made change. As time passed, the lines got short and I was still doing great because, after all, the job didn't require the mentality of a rocket scientist. Several counter people left their registers to help out in back. Then a lot of people came in at one time. Only two of us were taking orders. I was nervous. I served three persons, hardly looking up as I punched the keys, called out orders and made change. After barely glancing at the next person, I heard his voice ordering, a familiar voice. It was Alex Benson, a reporter for a TV channel I frequently watched. I repeated his order so it would be perfect and I took his money. After I gave him his change, he stared at the receipt and said with more than a touch irritation, "You made a mistake. You charged me for two chicken burgers." I apologized and gave him a refund. "What about the tax", he growled. "You didn't refund the tax." I was really getting nervous. He always laughed and smiled on TV. I gave him the tax money. I grabbed someone else's chicken order just so I could give him quick service, but when I handed him the tray, my hand slipped and I spilled his Coke on his trousers. Quickly I grabbed a napkin and ran around the counter and wiped at the Coke stain. Unfortunately the napkin I grabbed had catsup on it. Now I had added a condiment to the Coke stain. By that time I might as well have salted and peppered him. Beyond anger, and looking at me wildly, he fled with his tray to a distant booth and sat with his back to the wall. I decided not to ask for an autograph.

**2. Write a descriptive paragraph on something you prize (d) or despise (d).**

The thing I hated most when I was growing up was a metal object about two inches long. The part was an oval shape turned on the side, with a hole at the top middle. Down from the oval was a flat shaft, which was straight on one side, notched irregularly on the other, grooved in a straight line near the middle on each flat side and pointed at the end. At the top, near the middle of the inch-long oval was the word Master. Oddly that's what it was to me –my master. It was my latchkey. When I went to school, it went everywhere I did. One day I took it off at school and misplaced it. My mother was very angry. I said I hated the leather thong from which it hung because it was ugly and smelled of sweat. She replaced that with a silver chain and said I should never take the key off. Each day I would wear that chain and key, always inside my sweater, shirt or blouse. In the winter it was icicle cold as it dangled against my skinny chest. In the summer it was hot against my sweaty skin, sticking like a clammy leech. Because I was forbidden to take it off by myself, even upon coming home, I always bent forward when I inserted it into the lock, my sad,

sometimes scared, face reflecting with weird distortions in the brass door knob. I inserted the key, turned it with a click and removed it. After three years of my life with the detested key, I had to bend way over to turn it in the lock, my head pressed against the solid wood door. By that time the key and the chain had worn smooth in places and the crisscross pattern around the name had darkened, I always feared what lurked inside that house. Though I had a neighbor I could call if I needed help, that key always represented loneliness and fear. I was glad when my mother got a new job with shorter hours and I was no longer a latchkey kid.

**3. Write a paragraph about the broad topic of cheating. Include one example that you have experienced or heard about.**

Cheating students often put themselves under more stress than honest students, I remember someone in my junior composition class who needed a research paper, so he found a source and bought one for seventy-five dollars. The first trouble was that he had to submit the work in stages: the topic, the working bibliography, the note cards, the outline, the rough draft and the final. Therefore, he went to the library and started working backwards. Of course, he couldn't turn in only the bib cards actually used in the paper and next he had to make out note cards for the material he "would be" documenting and even make out more. After having all kinds of trouble, he realized that the bought paper was of "A" quality, whereas he had been a "C" student. He went back to his source and was told he should change the sentence structure and so on to make the paper weaker. Finally he dropped the class after spending more time on his paper than I did on mine. He also suffered more anxiety than the students who put in the most work on their papers.

**4. Write a directive process analysis. Personalize it by using a narrative framework. If possible, write about one procedure you do at work. Audience: general readers outside the field of work.**

The Face Place, a trendy mall store, is where I work. Making faces is what I do. I don't mean sticking out my tongue; I mean reworking the faces of women who want a new fresh look. When I get through, if I've done a good job, you can't tell if my subject is wearing makeup or not. If you'd like to do what I do, just follow these directions. Imagine you have a client. Her name is Donna. Check her out for skin complexion, skin condition, size of eyes, kind of eyebrows and lip shape. Then go to the supply room and select the items you need for the faceover, including a cleanser and toner with added moisturizers. Put them on a tray by your brushes and other tools and basic supplies. Begin by stripping off her old makeup with a few cotton balls and cleanser. Donna's skin is a combination of conditions. Her forehead, nose and chin are oily and her cheeks are dry. Scrub her down with Tea Tree, my favorite facial cleanser from a product line that is not tested on animals. Scour the oil slicks extra. Then slather on some Tea Tree toner to close her pores so the dirt doesn't go back in. Add a very light moisturizer such as one called Elderflower Gel. Donna has a pale complexion. Put on a coat of 01 foundation, the fairest in the shop, which evens out her skin tone. Next, with a big face brush, dust on a layer of 01 powder to give her a smooth, dry look. Now Donna, who's watching in a mirror, speaks up to say she wants her eyebrows and eyelashes that won't require much mascara or eyebrow pencil. So use gel to fix the eyebrows in place while you trim, shape and pencil them. Move downward on the face, going next to her eyes. Use brown mascara to curl her already

dark lashes. With your blusher brush, dab some peach rose blush on her cheeks and blend it in. Line her lips with bronze sand lip liner pencil and fill in the rest with rouge mauve lipstick. Swing Donna around to the big lighted mirror. Watch her pucker her lips, squint her eyes, flirt with herself. See her smile. Now you pocket the tip. Feel good. You've just given a woman a new face and she's ready to conquer the world.

**5. Write a paragraph about someone you know who has an addiction. It can be chemical or it can be an extreme preoccupation that has caused him or her to lose a sense of balance in relation to values and to others.**

Kids of alcoholics almost never think of drunks as funny. Actually I did when my father first became an alcoholic, back when he didn't know he was one and we didn't either. Because he could go to work and he could dance without falling down and he could hold conversations without getting angry, he was just a guy who drank too much at times. Then when we learned he was an alcoholic, we kept his secret. At least we thought it was a secret because we didn't talk about it. But drinking overtook his life in stages. His dignity went first. He'd embarrass us by being drunk at night when he came home and parked crooked on the driveway, fought with neighbours about little things and argued with Mom about everything. He wanted to help coach my Little League baseball team, but I told him I didn't want him to because I knew he would show up drunk and yell at everyone. Then his sickness took over his body. He lost weight, his nose got red with little veins and his flesh turned puffy. Next he "got laid off" as he put it, but we all knew he was fired for drinking on the job. Finally there was the night. I was lying in my bed about midnight when Dad came in. he was carrying a knife, just a kitchen butter knife. I pretended I wasn't peeking at him. He went to my piggy bank that was loaded mostly with quarters and picked it up as quietly as he could and turned it upside down. Then he stuck the knife in the slot in the piggy's back and shook the bank so quarters slid down the knife blade. He extracted maybe half of them, more than twenty dollars' worth and heaped them on my baseball glove lying there on the dresser. Then he crammed them into his pocket and slipped away in the night. That was a week before the accident. He killed himself in a smashed car. He hit a tree, not someone else. Mom said it was a blessing. At the funeral we all tried to remember how he was before his compulsion took over. We knew when it started. It started when his drinks became more important than we were or even he was. To kids of alcoholics, even those funny little amphibians in the commercials about beer aren't really funny.

**6. Write a paragraph of comparison and contrast about two people or two types of people who are culturally different. Use the subject-by-subject pattern.**

Fleeing from communism, many Vietnamese left their country to resettle with their families in the United States. There they discovered just how American culture is different from Vietnamese culture, especially for the women who become wives and mothers. In Vietnam, a young girl is educated in Confucian theories: "Obey your father as a child and your husband when you get married." Living with her in-laws after marriage, her role is that of child bearer and housekeeper. She has to be a good wife, a good mother and a good daughter-in-law if she wants to be happy. She is the first to rise and the last to go to bed in a household that includes her husband and his parents. She will seldom make decisions and will always be obedient. She expects her



husband to support the family financially, protect her and help his relatives direct the family. In American society the female has a different pattern of experiences. As a girl she learns to think for herself and develop her talents. After she marries, unlike her Vietnamese counterpart, she is likely to work outside the home. Because she provides a part of the financial support, she expects her husband to share some of the work of raising the children, keeping the house and maintaining a relationship with the in-laws on both sides, who probably have more independence in the home and more responsibilities outside the home. In Vietnam the wife may be left with a secure position but few options.

**7. Write a paragraph of argumentation on an approved topic. Length: about 250 to 300 words. Audience: general, some who disagree with your view. Research your topic. Include different kinds of evidence.**

One of the most common complaints heard in restaurants and work places pertains to smoking. In all crowded public places, when a smoker lights up, people get upset for reasons they believe are valid. Along with them, I say it is time to pass a national law restricting smoking in public places. Reasonable exceptions can be worked out. Three reasons make this position right. One is discomfort. Most people don't like to breathe secondhand smoke. It smells bad. That reason is coupled with the health reason. Studies indicate (as reported by Joseph Califano, former secretary of Health, Education and Welfare) that more than 5,000 American die each year from secondhand smoke and that people living with smokers are 80 percent more likely to get lung cancer than those who do not live with smokers. In 1993 the Environmental Protection Agency formally classified secondhand smoke as a potent carcinogen-in a class with asbestos. Connected with this health problem is the matter of cost. The last five surgeons general have agreed that secondhand smoke is a significant health problem, with a huge cost to society in medical bills and lost job productivity. Although many smokers concur with the proposal for restriction, others feel that they would lose their rights. They shouldn't. They can continue to smoke, but only if they do not jeopardize the health of others in public places. Discomfort, bad health and bills for taxpayers are too much for society to pay to live without restriction.

## **Appendix M**

### **Types of Paragraphs: Examples**

**Read the following paragraphs and decide which type of paragraph is each one.**

#### **Sample Paragraph 1:**

Fifteen years ago, Lawrence started his real estate business, and it has since become a huge success. In 1995, Lawrence Real Estate opened its door in Oviedo, Florida and sold seven million dollars of real estate during the first few “boom years” (Stoff, 2010). By 2000, Lawrence decided to open two branch offices: one in Tampa in 2003 and one in Miami in 2004. By 2007, the home office and both the branch offices had survived the economic slowdown, so Lawrence and his associates are expanding their business to the Carolinas and plan to open a branch office in Charlotte in 2011. It can be safely said that in the last fifteen years, Lawrence Real Estate has become a model for success despite the economic struggle and real estate devaluation.

#### **Sample Paragraph 2:**

Making a great cup of tea is easy if you follow these three steps. First, heat a cup of water to a boiling point. Then put the tea bag in the hot water, and let it seep into the hot water for at least three minutes. Finally, add creamer and sugar to taste. There is nothing tastier than a strong cup of tea early in the morning.

#### **Sample Paragraph 3:**

The Washington Monument is divided into three main areas. The lowest section of the building houses the entrance, a gift shop, and a restaurant. The middle section consists of elevators and stairways to the top. The top section of the monument includes an observation deck with a spectacular view of the Washington DC area. When I visited the Washington Monument, I toured every section but enjoyed the spectacular 180 degree view the most.

#### **Sample Paragraph 4:**

Although the twin brothers shared many physical characteristics, they handled themselves differently in social situations. Mario was a shy introverted young man. He had few friends and mostly kept to himself. On the other hand, Gino was outgoing and loved the life of the party. Unlike Mario, Gino had many friends and felt totally at ease among big crowds. The best way to tell these identical twins apart is to invite both to a party and observe how differently they interact with the other guests.

#### **Sample Paragraph 5:**

There are many reasons why I enjoy walking tours when visiting new cities. For starters, walking through a city allows the visitor to see the details of an area without having to hurry. This often results in meeting locals and experiencing their

lives and traditions first hand. Furthermore, walking tours are flexible and inexpensive because there are no strict schedules or transportation expenses. Travelers taking walking tours are rewarded with firsthand experiences of the places they visit and the opportunity to personally interact with the people who live there.

### **Sample Paragraph 6:**

Homework is an important part of the learning process in middle school. One reason is that homework gives students additional practice of skills covered in class. Middle school classes are too short to teach a new concept and practice it sufficiently for students to master. Students need both guided practice in class and independent practice at home. Another reason for homework is that it provides time to complete longer assignments. For example, the ideal composition process allows time for students to think and to reflect on their ideas, as well as time to revise and to proofread their writing. Also, reports and special projects often require research that can not always be done at school. In addition, since all students do not work at the same speed, giving students time at home to finish work keeps them from falling behind. Finally, the most important reason for homework is that it ensures review. New material and old material are practiced in daily assignments. Students who do their homework daily are prepared for tests and make better grades. In conclusion, not only is homework essential to mastering new skills and maintaining previously learned skills, but it also guarantees constant review and provides time for longer assignments, as well as additional time for students who need it. Students, do your daily homework, make better grades, and learn more!

### **Sample Paragraph 7:**

A lack of exercise is one of the major factors contributing to obesity. When we eat, we consume energy (measured as calories). When we exercise, we expend energy—or burn up calories. For example, when we run for an hour, we burn up approximately 450 calories, depending on our body size. When the number of calories we consume exceeds the number we burn up, the excess energy is stored in the body in the form of fat. If a person is inactive, it is more likely that he will not burn up all the calories consumed, so obesity can result. Moreover, studies have shown that inactivity can cause an obese person to expend less energy during a certain activity than a non-obese person. This is because inactivity lowers basal energy rate (the basic minimum rate at which the body burns up energy). Therefore, if an obese person and a non-obese person try to run one while, the obese person unused to activity will expend less energy because he has a lower basal energy rate.

## Appendix N

### Self-Editing Worksheets

#### Self-editing worksheet n°1: Paragraph Format and Structure

Writer: .....

Date: .....

##### Format

My paragraph has a title. Yes No

The title is centered. Yes No

The first line is indented. Yes No

There are margins on both sides of the page. Yes No

My paragraph is double-spaced. Yes No

##### Content and organization

My paragraph fits the assignment. Yes No

My paragraph has a topic sentence. Yes No

The topic sentence has both a topic and a controlling idea. Yes No

My paragraph contains several supporting points and at least one example for each point. Yes No

I wrote (number) supporting sentences.

My paragraph ends with an appropriate concluding sentence. Yes No

##### Punctuation, capitalization, and spelling

I put a period after every sentence. Yes No

I used capital letters correctly. Yes No

I checked my spelling. Yes No

##### Grammar and sentence structure

I checked my paragraph for subject-verb agreement. Yes No

I checked my paragraph for fragments. Yes No

I wrote (number) compound sentences and punctuated them correctly. Yes No

**Personal grammar trouble spots**

**Number found and corrected**

I checked my paragraph for (verb tense, article, etc) errors. ....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. ....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. ....

**Self-editing worksheet n°2: Narrative Paragraphs**

**Writer:** ..... **Date:** .....

**Format**

My paragraph is in the correct format (centered title, first line indented, margins on both sides, double-spaced). Yes No

**Content and organization**

My paragraph fits the assignment. I used time order to tell about an important or memorable event in my life. Yes No

I introduced some/most/all events with time signal words and phrases. Yes No

**Punctuation, capitalization, and spelling**

I put a period after every sentence. Yes No

I put a comma in my compound sentences. Yes No

I used commas correctly after time signal words and phrases. Yes No

I used capital letters correctly. Yes No

I checked my spelling. Yes No

**Grammar and sentence structure**

I checked my paragraph for subject-verb agreement. Yes No

I checked my paragraph for fragments. Yes No

I wrote (number) compound sentences and punctuated them correctly. Yes No

**Personal grammar trouble spots** **Number found and corrected**

I checked my paragraph for (verb tense, article, etc) errors. ....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. ....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. ....

### Self-editing worksheet n°3: Descriptive Paragraphs

Writer: .....

Date: .....

#### Format

My paragraph is in the correct format (centered title, first line indented, margins on both sides, double-spaced). Yes No

#### Content and organization

My paragraph fits the assignment. I used spatial order to describe a place. Yes No

I used (near-to-far, left-to-right, top-to-bottom, etc) spatial order to organize my description.

I used the following spatial order expressions: .....

My paragraph has a topic sentence, several supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence. Yes No

My paragraph has unity. No sentences are off the topic. Yes No

#### Punctuation, capitalization, and spelling

I put a period after every sentence. Yes No

I put a comma in my compound sentences. Yes No

I used capital letters correctly. Yes No

I checked my spelling. Yes No

#### Grammar and sentence structure

I checked my paragraph for subject-verb agreement. Yes No

I checked my paragraph for fragments. Yes No

I wrote (number) compound sentences and punctuated them correctly. Yes No

#### Personal grammar trouble spots

#### Number found and corrected

I checked my paragraph for (verb tense, article, etc) errors. ....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. ....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. ....

**Self-editing worksheet n°4: Process Paragraphs**

**Writer:** .....

**Date:** .....

**Format**

My paragraph is in the correct format (centered title, first line indented, margins on both sides, double-spaced). Yes No

**Content and organization**

My paragraph fits the assignment. I used time order to explain a process. Yes No

My paragraph begins with a topic sentence that tells my reader to look for a series of steps. Yes No

My paragraph explains each step in the process. Yes No

I introduce each new step with a transitional signal. Yes No

My paragraph ends with a concluding sentence that either is the last step in the process or gives the results of the process. Yes No

My paragraph has unity. Yes No

My paragraph has coherence. Yes No

I use nouns and pronouns consistently. Yes No

I use transition signals where they are appropriate. Yes No

These are some of the transition signals in my paragraph: .....

**Punctuation, capitalization, and spelling**

I checked my paragraph for correct punctuation, capitalization, and spelling. Yes No

**Grammar and sentence structure**

I wrote (number) complex sentences and punctuated them correctly. Yes No

I checked my paragraph for fragments, run-ons, and comma splices. Yes No

**Personal grammar trouble spots**

**Number found and corrected**

I checked my paragraph for (verb tense, article, etc) errors. .....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. .....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. .....

**Self-editing worksheet n°5: Comparison/Contrast Paragraphs**

**Writer:** .....

**Date:** .....

**Format**

My paragraph is in the correct format (centered title, first line indented, margins on both sides, double-spaced). Yes No

**Content and organization**

My paragraph fits the assignment. I compare or contrast two people, places, ideas, or cultures. Yes No

I compare them on.....points. (Write a number.)

My paragraph begins with a topic sentence that tells my reader to look for a comparison or contrast. Yes No

My paragraph is organized in one of these patterns:

Block pattern

point-by-point pattern

I used the following comparison or contrast signals: .....

My paragraph ends with a concluding sentence. Yes No

My paragraph has unity. Yes No

My paragraph has coherence. Yes No

**Punctuation, capitalization, and spelling**

I checked my paragraph for correct punctuation, capitalization, and spelling. Yes No

**Grammar and sentence structure**

I varied my sentence structure by writing simple, compound, and complex sentences.   
Yes No

I checked my paragraph for fragments, run-ons, and comma splices. Yes No

**Personal grammar trouble spots**

**Number found and corrected**

I checked my paragraph for (verb tense, article, etc) errors. ....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. ....

I checked my paragraph for .....errors. ....





## Appendix P

### The Pilot Study

#### Part One: Answer the following questions:

1. Do you plan your writing? .....
2. How do you plan your writing?

.....  
.....

3. Do you write topic sentences for each paragraph? .....
4. What do you consider in writing topic sentences?

.....  
.....

5. Do you write supporting sentences for each paragraph?

.....

6. How do you achieve this?

.....  
.....

7. Do you ask yourself about the purpose of your writing? .....

8. How do you know that you have achieved your purpose?

.....  
.....

9. Do you revise your writing? .....

10. What elements do you consider in your revision?

.....  
.....

11. How do you know that your writing is clear and concise?

.....  
.....

12. How do you evaluate your progress in writing?

.....  
.....

13. When you fail to do a writing assignment, what are the techniques that you use?

.....  
.....

14. What are the techniques that you use to continue with the writing assignment?

.....  
.....

15. How do you overcome your limitations in writing?

.....  
.....

**The topic sentence** is usually the first sentence in the paragraph and limits the topic of the paragraph. The topic sentence is always a complete thought or assignment.

**Concise:** (of speech or writing) giving a lot of information in few words; briefly

**Evaluate:** to calculate the value or degree of; find out or form an idea of the amount or value of (sth/sb); assess

**Part Two:**

**I. The following paragraph lacks both a topic sentence and a concluding sentence. Provide them.**

**Topic sentence:** .....

For instance, football requires eleven players, whereas rugby requires thirteen to fifteen. Also, a football field is longer than a rugby field but is less wide. Football has four quarters of fifteen minutes each, but rugby has two forty-five minute halves (i.e. two halves with 45 minutes each). A touchdown in football is worth six points; however, a goal in rugby is worth four points. There are also a few basic similarities. Both games are played with leather, oval-shaped ball, and both are based on soccer.

**Concluding sentence:** .....

Football: American English (American football)

Rugby: also rugby football fml, ruggar infml(sometimes capitalized) a type of football played with an oval ball by two games

Touchdown (in American football) an action giving a team six points, made by carrying or catching the ball beyond the opposing team's goal line

Goal: (in games like football) the place, usually between two posts (goalposts), sometimes with a net between them, where the ball must go for a point to be gained

Goal (in rugby): the point(s) gained (scored) when the ball is caused to do this

Soccer: also football, Association Football Br E: a football game between two teams of eleven players using a round ball which is kicked but not handled

**II. Read the following topic sentence. Write three supporting details and a good concluding sentence.**

There are three reasons why I like being single.

**First support:** .....

**Second support:** .....

**Third support:** .....

**Concluding sentence:** .....

**III. A. Use brainstorming on the following topic: a person who has influenced you.**

**B. Continue with your topic; develop a cluster of related ideas.**

**C. Draw an outline, then write the first draft about that person.**

**D. Revise your draft.**

**E. Edit your paragraph.**

**Brainstorming:** is the technique of listing any and all ideas that occur to the writer about a topic.

**Cluster(ing):** in clustering, the main topic is written within a circle in the middle of the page. Related ideas or thoughts are placed in other circles around the main topic and connected to the topic by lines.

**Draft:** the first rough written form of anything or a rough plan.

**Edit:** revise one's writing in terms of spelling, grammar, punctuation, vocabulary, sentence structure and page layout.

**Thank you for your cooperation**

**Mrs. Kissoum**

## Appendix Q

### Writing assignments

1. Write a paragraph in which you introduce yourself. Choose either the handwritten form or the computer written form. Respect the elements of each form. Due date: April 23<sup>rd</sup>, 2017.
2. Write a paragraph about a memorable event or a memorable experience in your life.

Step 1: Pre-write to get ideas.

Step 2: Organize the ideas.

Put the events into time order. Make a list of the events or number them on your freewriting paper; use your list to guide you as you write.

Step 3: Write a rough draft.

Begin your paragraph with a topic sentence that tells what event or experience you're going to write about.

Use time order to organize your paragraph.

Use time order signals, and punctuate them correctly.

Step 4: Polish the rough draft.

Write a second draft. Use self-editing work sheet number 2 to check your second draft for grammar, punctuation, sentence structure.

Step 5: Write a final copy.

Hand in your rough draft, your second draft, your final copy and the self-editing sheet.

3. Write a process-analysis paragraph about one of the following topics:
  - How to choose a marriage partner
  - How to drive a teacher crazy
4. Write a point-by-point comparison and contrast paragraph about two mothers: one who stays at home and one who works outside home.

student's written productions

① Form: 10 + 0.75 ② Punct: 0 + 9.25 + 9.5 + 9.5 - ③ Content: 1 + 1 + 1 -  
 ④ Sp: 1 + 1 + 1 - ⑤ Gram: 9.5 + 9.5 + 1

Full name: \_\_\_\_\_

.... Group: ..... 15

10 16 Ten  
 3 10\*

Appendix R: Students' written productions The pre-test

Write a paragraph on the most terrifying (frightening) thing which happened to you or to one of your friends or relatives?

..... Six years ago, On the 10th May, [was the most  
 bad day in my life] I was 14 years old, my dad  
 was died with a heart attack, I didn't even accept  
 this, I was consider it as a bad dream, it can't be  
 true, this is my dad, I use to cry day and night,  
 in addition to that, he came home very often because  
 of his work, which means that I didn't spend such a lot  
 of moments with him. I've been checked and very  
 scarry to what will happend later. how can I face  
 my self firstly, How people will look at me, I ~~to~~ became  
 very shy specially when people pointing at me with  
 their fingers, this is the girl that her father died,  
 I don't like this situation, it leads me to cry without  
 stop. Because I've loose some one special for  
 me, and no one can feel the way I feel!

..... Years have past, I am 20 years old now,  
 But this situation is stucked in my mind, once I remember  
 it I start to cry and thought of the few moments  
 with my ~~dad~~ dear dad. I am affraid till now, all I can  
 do for him is that I'll be the girl he wanted me  
 to be, and I'll make him proud of me.

5 d. That was the end of his career on the Grand Track system.

1 e. One afternoon, as the train lurched over a rough stretch of track, a jar of highly combustible material broke on the floor.

Exercise 4:

15/10\*

14.5

a. Use listing to generate ideas about the following topic: similarities and differences between high school and university. (2.5 pts)

<u>Similarities</u>	<u>Differences</u>
• we gain new information & knowledge	• one library at high school, more than one at University
• Make new friends & new friendships	• University is divided into departments, each department contain classes, at high schools only classes
• have Gardens	• We use the academic writing in University
• We have agent securities in both University & high school	• Studies in high school are in general but at Univ are specified
	• Teachers Grade is not the same
	• the way of counting degrees & scores are different

b. Using the information generated in exercise 4 a, write a point-by-point comparison and contrast paragraph about the similarities and differences between high school and university. (5 pts)

University and high school

Studies in every country has an educational system which is composed of many levels. This levels should be followed one by one to move on from one to another. This is all known we have four levels: Primary, Middle school, high school and University. High school and University are the most basic ones and they share some of the similarities and some differences. First of all University is divided into departments and each department contain many classes but high school have only classes. In University we have many libraries but in high school we have just one. Secondly we use Academic writing at University also Teacher's Grade is not the same because at University we have professors & docterate teachers but in high school there is no professors. Studies in high school are in general but at University we are specified in one single Branche. About the way of counting degrees and scores is not the same. Now let's talk about the similarities, from studying in high school & University we gain from both of them new informations and knowledge, we make new friends & new friendships. Also we have in side both of them gardens & agent securities in front of the door.

Best of luck: N.Kissoum

① Found: 9r+9r - ② Punch: 9r+9r+9r+9r - ③ Content: 2+2+2 @ 0.8  
 2+1.5+2 - ④ Gram: 9r+1+1

① Former: o+r-r-② Fund: q+r+r+r+r+r+r+r-③ Content: A+q+r+r+r-④ Wop: o+r+r+o-⑤ Grams: q+r+r+r+r

Full name: ...

Group: 1.5

067

154

The pre-test

Write a paragraph on the most terrifying (frightening) thing which happened to you or to one of your friends or relatives?

In my first day in the university, I remember that I have no friend, I was alone all time, angry afraid and so for one day, so, I was running because I was so late for the session of phonetics, and finally an old man call me; come here com I speak with you, hi you when you running just come I will take you to relaxing, you know what? I have a nice car, and much money, Do you hear me. unfortunately, he take my hand and told me that when he call me I will obliged to answer; oh my god it's horrible day. so, I still conflict and crying until he let me, he told me that he is married but he want to a small girl. Do you imagine that he was with his son, and the father and the son and neither the son or his father pronounce a belmish word.



5 d. That was the end of his career on the Grand Track system.

2 e. One afternoon, as the train lurched over a rough stretch of track, a jar of highly combustible material broke on the floor.

154\* 09.5

Exercise 4:

a. Use listing to generate ideas about the following topic: similarities and differences between high school and university. (2.5 pts)

- a high level of study
- nearly security
- a friend from other places
- a hard system of study
- responsibility
- you can't go home
- stay all day without food
- learn from handout
- a friend from everything
- a low level of study
- a friend from all places
- every day of my family
- the care of your parent
- eat at home
- learn from books
- the help of teachers

b. Using the information generated in exercise 4 a, write a point-by-point comparison and contrast paragraph about the similarities and differences between high school and university. (5 pts)

A different situation; university and high school  
 when I get the baccalaureate and go to the university  
 I found different and similar things. I see the same nearly security as the high school and the help of teachers, as the new friends in contrast of the high level of study and a hard system. in the university you must be responsible because you don't go home everyday, eating wherever, you feel a friend from everything. in addition you need to acquire news information and keep yourself far from problems. like you see university is a hard domain of study. it's not the same of high school beside home with care and the responsible of your parent. That was my experience.

Best of luck: N.Kissoum

① Form: 8 r + 8 r - ② Punct: 8 r + 8 r + 8 r + 8 r - ③ Cont: 1 + 1 + 1 -  
 ④ Arg: 1 + 1 + 0 - ⑤ Gram: 8 r + 8 r + 1

Full name: .

... Group: ..15..

09.5  
IS\*

The pre-test

Write a paragraph on the most terrifying (frightening) thing which happened to you or to one of your friends or relatives?

11/11/2010, the worst day in my life. I  
 rain early, and I begining to work, because I have to  
 finish early and watch the game between Algeria  
 V.S Egypt, I was excited, and I was do all my  
 best to finish, in 12.00 Am my dad call me  
 and tell me to come to home emidiatly, I ask  
 my self what happen?, I go home and I see  
 many peopl ahead to my house, I was choking  
 what happen? I ask my self, in this moment  
 I was eschaution, I don't know why. I tak my  
 self and I go to the hous, I ask my dad: what's  
 happen here? my dad tell me that my sister died.  
 what?, yes my sister.

this is the most terrifying thing Wich happened to me.

Formor: 0+0,5. Punct: 0+0,25. Q: 0,5+0,25. Content: 1+1+1+1  
 @ 0,5: 0,5+1+1+1. Content: 0,5+1+0+1

5 d. That was the end of his career on the Grand Track system.

1 e. One afternoon, as the train lurched over a rough stretch of track, a jar of highly combustible material broke on the floor.

137\*

11.5

Exercise 4:

a. Use listing to generate ideas about the following topic: similarities and differences between high school and university. (2.5 pts)

There are a lot of differences between high school and university. First the time of study in the university is not like in a high school, the teachers in high school are more seriously while the teachers of university are not, in the high school you are not free but in the university you are free. The university is so big and they contain a lot of student while the high school they don't.

b. Using the information generated in exercise 4 a, write a point-by-point comparison and contrast paragraph about the similarities and differences between high school and university. (5 pts)

The differences between high school and university

There are a lot of differences between the high school and the university. First, the university is so big according to the high school, they contain a lot of students and many teachers. Second, in the university you have the freedom you are free in a way, for example you don't have to get every day at 8:00 AM, but in the high school you must get early every day.

On another occasion people think that the university is easier for studying than the study in high school. The time of study in the university is totally different according to the high school. Finally, the university and the high school are totally different.

Best of luck: N.Kissoum

① Format: 2r + 2r - ② Length: 9r + 2r + 2r + 2r - ③ Content: 2r + 1 + 1 @ 2r  
1 + 1 + 1 - ④ Grammar: 2r + 1 + 2r

## Résumé

La présente étude vise à étudier l'effet des stratégies d'apprentissage sur les productions écrites des étudiants. La population cible est constituée de tous les étudiants de première année (673) du département d'anglais et de littérature de l'Université Batna 2, au cours du deuxième semestre de l'année universitaire 2016-2017. Cependant, notre échantillon est composé de deux groupes formant un total de soixante (60) étudiants. Notre problématique consiste à trouver une solution aux problèmes de l'expression écrite des étudiants en utilisant un plan quasi-expérimental. La présente recherche tente de montrer qu'il existe une relation efficace entre les stratégies d'écriture et d'apprentissage, et propose par la suite un cours qui, espérons-le, encouragera les performances d'écriture des apprenants. Au début de l'étude, nous émettons l'hypothèse qu'il semblerait que les étudiants de première année du département d'anglais de l'Université de Batna 2 n'utilisent pas de stratégies d'apprentissage dans leurs écrits. En outre, motiver les étudiants en leur enseignant des stratégies d'apprentissage améliorerait probablement leurs résultats en expression écrite. Pour rassembler les données et les analyser, nous avons opté pour un processus de triangulation (voir le problème sous différents angles) en utilisant différents outils et procédures de recherche. Un questionnaire préliminaire est administré au début de l'étude pour répondre à la première question de recherche: les étudiants de première année du département d'anglais de l'université de Batna 2 utilisent-ils des stratégies d'apprentissage dans leurs écrits? Et sa sous-question: si oui, quelles sont ces stratégies? Les résultats ont révélé que (73,33%) des sujets ne sont pas au courant des stratégies qu'ils utilisent dans leurs écrits. Ensuite, les étudiants doivent remplir un questionnaire (en utilisant l'échelle de Likert) pour mesurer la fréquence de leur utilisation des quatre types de stratégies d'apprentissage, à savoir les stratégies cognitives, métacognitives, sociales et affectives. Ce questionnaire est administré deux fois: au début et à la fin de l'étude pour voir s'il y a une amélioration de la fréquence d'utilisation de ces stratégies par les étudiants en raison de l'instruction stratégique. Les résultats montrent que la fréquence à laquelle les apprenants utilisent tous les types de stratégies est passée de «parfois» à «souvent» avec une différence de (0,04) dans la moyenne. Le troisième questionnaire remis aux étudiants est un questionnaire de motivation qui montre qu'ils sont intrinsèquement motivés, ce qui contredit les résultats obtenus dans le questionnaire des enseignants, selon lequel les apprenants sont motivés de manière extrinsèque. Le dernier outil de recherche est l'utilisation des notes de productions écrites des étudiants avant et après l'étude, ce qui montre que leur performance écrite s'est améliorée. Ce résultat est vérifié en utilisant la valeur t de l'échantillon apparié à 59 degrés de liberté ( $t = 10,179$ ), ce qui est significatif au niveau alpha (0,025) pour une hypothèse unilatérale. Dans l'ensemble, cette thèse essaie de démontrer que c'est en utilisant des stratégies d'apprentissage appropriées que l'on arrive à améliorer les productions écrites des étudiants.