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**The Use of Language Learning Strategies to Develop Learners'
Vocabulary Knowledge and Writing Proficiency
The Case of Third Year Students of English in Written Expression**

Thesis Submitted for the Degree of "Doctor" in Language science

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Abbreviations & Acronyms

AFF	Affective strategy
AWL	Academic Word List
AWL	Academic Word List
B	Beta
BNC	British National Corpus
COCA	Corpus of Contemporary American English
COG	Cognitive
DET	Determination
ETS	Educational Testing Service
EVA	Evaluating strategy
FL	Foreign Language
GCE	General Certificate of Education
GLS	General Service List
GMAT	Graduate Management Admission Test
HPS	High-Proficiency Students
IBT	Test of English as a Foreign Language internet-based test
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LDOCE	Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
LF	Language Focus strategy
LLSs	Language Learning Strategies
LPS	Low-Proficiency Students
LSA	Latent Semantic Analysis
M	Means
MAX	Maximum
MEM	Memory strategy
META	Metacognitive
MIN	Minimum
MOM	Monitoring strategy
MTLD	Measure of Textual Lexical Density
NAEP	National Assessment of Educational Progress
OALD	The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary
PEG	Project Essay Grade
PL	Planning strategy

PVLT	Productive Vocabulary Levels Test
RVLT	Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test
SAT	Scholastic Assessment Test
SD	Standard Deviation
SILL	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SL	Second Language
SOC	Social strategy
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SD	Standard Deviation
TESOL	Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TSWE	Test of Standard Written English
UWL	University Word List
VKS	Vocabulary Knowledge Scale
VLSS	Vocabulary Learning Strategy
VP	VocabProfile
VS	Vocabulary Size
VST	Vocabulary Size Test
WAT	Word Associates Test

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Abstract

This study is based on a predictive correlational research design; it investigates the language strategy used by third-year students at Larbi Tebessi -Tebessa university and its contribution to developing vocabulary knowledge and writing ability. The study predominantly involved descriptive research using a quantitative approach to analyse data collected from 49 students. The study implements a number of research tools such as a questionnaire, vocabulary tests, and student-written assignments that were guided by four main research questions. Finally, the answers were calculated and put in SPSS for analysis. The non-experimental study has provided several findings; initially, the data collected from the questionnaire revealed that the participants employed various strategies in learning vocabulary with medium use, while they used various strategies at the high-frequency level when they perform in writing tasks. Regarding the results from phase two, we found that the student's productive vocabulary size is very limited compared to receptive vocabulary size. Linear and multiple regression results revealed no statistically significant effect of language learning strategies on vocabulary size. The results obtained from phase three revealed that the writing quality of the majority of the participants is fair. Subsequently, a significant correlation between vocabulary and writing quality was found. In contrast, the findings also revealed a weaker, albeit a significant, relationship between language learning strategies and student essays scores. The overall scores obtained from VocabProfile showed that students used vocabulary at about one-half of their vocabulary size in writing essays. The results suggest that strategy training and self-directed instructions should be applied to integrate vocabulary in Algerian curricula and teaching writing skills.

Keywords: language learning strategies, correlation analysis, writing skills, regression analysis, , vocabulary knowledge, productive size, receptive size.

Introduction

1. Background of The Study

Writing is one of the most challenging skills to master because of the complexity of the cognitive process involved. Academically, writing an essay or paper has been used to measure language proficiency in productive skills determined by various factors. Henceforth to achieve good essay writing, second/foreign language (SL/FL) learners need a formidable ability to follow an oriented approach to express themselves through linguistic units that initially constructed by brainstorming ideas, sufficient vocabulary to voice writers thought (Abdul, 2006 ; Ghabool et al ;Khan, 2005; Marlyna et al., 2007; Nor et al., 2008; Stapa , 2012), a grammatical cohesion, and a vast assortment of strategies to assist learners in the writing process and eventually overcome writing problems (Arjmand, 2012; Creswell, 2000; Manchon, 2011 Sengupta, 2000; Sasaki, 2004; Shafiee et al., 2013). Additionally, vocabulary knowledge as an integral part of language skills has been identified by teachers as the most problematic area in students' learning and henceforth lies in the tendency to possess vocabulary that is adequate to express ideas. In first/second (L1/L2) writing, vocabulary stimulates the writing ability because student's vocabulary size directly stimulates the accuracy and the quality of writing; it plays a cohesive role in the text (Brynildssen,2000). Engber (1995) claimed, "the lexicon is an integral component in both the construction and interpretation of the meaningful written text" (p. 151).

Likewise, Studies by (Albrechtsen, Haastrup & Hendrickson, 2008; ; Engber, 1995; Milton, Wade & Hopkins, 2010) conveyed that those students encounter challenges to achieve a successful writing task without sufficient vocabulary. Regrettably, Schmitt (2008) reports that even students throughout the academic level may fail to attain the threshold in 2000 and 3000 General Service List (GSL) who may not produce a good writing quality or overcome writing performance difficulty.

Even though students have been exposed to writing at the early learning stage, they consider it as a highly complex skill, especially when it is connected with mastering the macro-skills related to fluency and accuracy such as handwriting, punctuation, and spelling and micro-skills language related to genre specific language such as vocabulary, grammar, spelling. Thus, researchers such Cook (2001); Cohen (1998); Conti and Kolody (1998); Stern (1975); Oxford (1990); O'Malley and Chamot (1990); Chamot and O'Malley (1987); Ellis (1985); Politzer and McGroarty (1985); Wenden (1982) highlighted the intertwined role of learning strategies to accomplish specified language tasks, to solve learning problems, and to fasten learning process, and make it more attainable.

Moreover, learning strategies aim to solve specified writing problems. For instance, writers may be confused about selecting, planning, or generating the topic they need to write about. Besides, the strategy use proved that it has two facets, especially when it is allied to writing proficiency; firstly, the strategies related to planning, designing, organizing, revising, and evaluating the writing process, and secondly strategies used to memorise, rehearse and extend vocabulary size to express intended ideas and thoughts. Many researchers (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; Chamot and Kupper, 1989; O 'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Angelova, 1999; Victori, 1995; Alhaysony, 2017) sustained the characteristics of successful learners; they argued that they use appropriate strategies more frequently than less successful learners do. Along with preceding studies highlighting the paramount role of language learning strategies (LLSs) in language learning, this study reinforces and re-theorizes the necessity of LLSs after many calls to marginalize the LLSs research topic in language learning and teaching.

The introductory section is organized as follows; a brief statement of the problem is introduced, followed by uttering the predominant research questions that formulate the thesis study attached to the research hypotheses. The significance of the study is also scrutinized. Next, means of research and rationale of instruments selection are described. Finally, the general introduction concludes with an explanation of how the thesis chapters are structured.

2. Statement of the Problem

The previous introduction stresses that LLSs are key to writing proficiency for L1/L2 learners (Anderson & Freebody ,1981; Read ,1993; Alderson ,2000; Qian 1999, 2002; Stahl ,2003; Laufer & Kalovski 2010;). Moreover, Vocabulary knowledge and writing quality are closely bonded. Nation (2001, p. 178) claimed that "vocabulary plays a significant role in assessing the quality of written work." Several studies (Albrechtsen, Haastrup & Henriksen, 2008; Engber, 1995; Milton, Wade & Hopkins, 2010) have inspected the role of receptive and productive vocabulary in writing performance, and they mainly accentuated on stressing the association between vocabulary knowledge and writing performance, the association of vocabulary breadth (size)and writing (Stæhr ,2008), the correlation between breadth, depth and summary writing (Baba, 2009), and the intervention role of the depth vocabulary and semantic units on word choices in L2 writing proficiency (Atai & Dabbagh, 2010). All these studies, except Baba (2009), concluded that vocabulary receptive and productive significantly correlate with writing proficiency. Particularly, the studies of (Cumming, Kantor, Baba, Erdosy, Eouanzoui, & James ,2005) revealed that lexical sophistication analysed through average word length, type, token, and the ratio was an essential feature for the quality of writing production.

The aforementioned details stressed the importance of ongoing investigation in LLSs that must constantly be updated (Bailey, 2019) as a helpful learning tool to enrich vocabulary

size and boost writing skills where the learners have gained the priority to master the language efficiently. Therefore, my interest in the theme of the thesis, especially the LLSs, was significantly aroused when I started teaching English at the department of English at Larbi Tebessi university. **Year after year, I** found my students apparently complained about the difficulty of writing essays even if they were mastered during three years the main initiation and basic phases to write paragraphs or any essays. They also had small or large vocabulary size, which seemed challenging to enlarge or use whenever they were asked to write assignments. It seems that FL learners have not found appropriate strategies or limited strategies to guide them through the writing process and pertinent the central ideas of the topic and eventually use efficient vocabulary in their essays to express them. Subsequently, the Algerian curriculum of teaching EFL throughout the graduation degree has emphasized on incorporating various learning strategies that might make them autonomous writers, control their writing process religiously, and produce better writing pieces where vocabulary is learnt as a compulsory subject which is constrained by time. Congruently, the lack of vocabulary instruction and practice may yield inefficient vocabulary use in writing tasks. In light of these descriptions, this study, thus, investigates the use of LLSs by third-year students to develop their vocabulary knowledge and writing proficiency. Therefore, the questions that call for answers related to background might include:

- 1. Are the third-year students high, medium, or low strategy users?**
 - a. What are the most and the least frequently used LLSs to develop vocabulary knowledge?
 - b. What are the most and the least frequently used LLSs to develop writing skills?
- 2. What is the overall receptive and productive vocabulary level of third-year students?**

- a. Is there any significant correlation between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge?
 - b. Does LLS use have any significant contribution to receptive and productive vocabulary scores?
- 3. What is the overall quality of third-year students in argumentative essays based on rubric scales?**
- a. Does LLS use have any significant contribution to the quality of argumentative essays?
 - b. Do receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge scores correlate with essays scores?
- 4. What is the vocabulary size of students in the argumentative essays-based vocabulary bands list?**
- a. How do the essay scores correlate with vocabulary size based on the vocabulary list?

4. Hypotheses

In response to the overarching questions that frame this study, it is hypothesized

Hypotheses for the question 2

- 2.a.** N0: LLSs do not contribute to receptive and productive vocabulary size scores.
- 2.b.** H1: LLSs use contributes to receptive and productive vocabulary size scores.

Hypotheses for the question 3

- 3.a.**N0: The LLS use does not contribute to writing essay scores.
- 3.b.**H1: The LLSs use contributes to the quality of writing essay scores.
- 3.c.** N0: The receptive and productive vocabulary test scores do not correlate with essay scores.
- 3.d.**H1: The receptive and productive vocabulary test scores correlate with essay scores.

Hypotheses for the question 4

4.a.N0: The quality of argumentative essays does not correlate with different bands of vocabulary size.

4.b.H1: The quality of argumentative essays correlates with different bands of vocabulary size.

5. Aims of the Study

Following from above, the general purpose of the present study is to continue reviewing and documenting the typical strategy used to develop vocabulary size and improve learners' writing skills. Focusing on the EFL context, this study captures the LLSs use of third-year students of English at Larbi Tebessi university -Tebessa rather than examines the frequency of different LLSs and its contribution to develop the vocabulary knowledge and foster the quality of writing essays. Therefore, the main motive of the study is to investigate the contribution of strategy use on two dependent variables: vocabulary size and writing proficiency. Given the importance of strategy use in this study, we need to awaken teachers' and learners' attention to the relevance of LLSs to develop language skills. Accordingly, this thesis also examines the vocabulary size gaps of third-year students when they perform in writing skills.

Although researchers in language learning highlighted the importance of LLSs on their receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge and writing proficiency, few studies (Anber, 2010; Sabria, 2016) have been conducted tracking the relationship between LLSs, vocabulary knowledge, and writing skills in Algeria. Consequently, the results of this study will provide a variety of results that highlight the influential role of LLSs that can play in fostering the language learning process.

6. Research Method

To depict a comprehensive picture of learner's strategy, use and its contribution to vocabulary knowledge and writing proficiency. This study implements predictive correlational research design; it is a non-experimental research design in that the researcher measures the statistical

relationship between variables with no effort to control them. Instead, correlation and statistical regression instruments are used to determine the relationship between variables and predict the changes of dependent variables based on the value of independent variables. The researcher conducted this study in the Department of English Language at Tebessa University. She started this research when she spent three years teaching two modules for third-year students in the English Language Department (didactics, ESP (English for a Specific Purposes, or linguistics) when students were asked to write an essay related to specific topic. Thus, it made the researcher aware of students' writing problems whenever they write and motivated me to conduct this research.

Her pedagogical position as (chef de filière) at the department also offered the researcher a direct contact with the pedagogical teaching team, teachers, and heads of teaching units who assisted and coordinated with me in revising the written expression program and generalize the main understanding of written expression module objectives. Thus, the valuable exposure with teachers of written expression allowed me to check teaching approaches and writing instruction and guided me to collect data for this study. The participants in this study are 49 students of English, are in their third year at university who have succeeded in passing the first, second, and are now in the last year of graduation degree; their ages ranged from 21 to 24.

The study was carried through a quantitative method which is divided into sub-four phases including LLSs questionnaire using Likert scale and divided into three sections focusing on the use of LLSs to develop the core variables of this study (writing skills and vocabulary), two vocabulary language tests (productive vocabulary test, and receptive vocabulary) and finally writing assignment on argumentative essay. Finally, the quantitative data were performed separately, and then the results were analysed and correlated to discuss the obtained data from the four phases in this study.

Questionnaire answers, students' vocabulary scores, and essay scores were used to calculate the intercorrelations and regression among these instruments. Statistical Package for Social Sciences

(SPSS) Version 23 was chosen to track the statistical analyses in the current study. Two-tailed Pearson correlation and simple and multiple regressions as statistical technique were applied to meet the objective of the current study. Brace, Kemp, and Snelgar (2009) outlined that multiple regression allows the researchers to predict the effect of one variable based on several other variables. Additionally, VocabProfile was used to measure students' vocabulary size in written argumentative essays.

7. Chapter Division of the Thesis

The thesis comprises six chapters. Primitively, the general introduction presents the scope, statement of the problem, aims, and research questions of the thesis. Chapter one, two, and three reviews the conceptual framework and background literature on the relationship between the three variables associated with this research (LLSs, vocabulary knowledge, and writing proficiency); reviewing the research works contributes to research variables of this study. Chapter four describes the methodology of the present study. To reach the objective of the research and to answer the research questions, a quantitative method was adopted, and an explanation of method selection was provided. Subsequently, major research instruments (the LLSs questionnaire, the productive and receptive vocabulary size, and writing essays) are described prudently, and data collection and analysis procedures were introduced. Chapter five reports the key findings to form the quantitative synthesis and analyzes them along with each research question through descriptive analysis and the findings of relevant previous studies.

Finally, chapter six presents the interpretation and discussion of the main findings obtained from the four phases in the light with the theoretical background and earlier findings, research implications, and limitations delimitations of the present study are also indicated and suggest valuable recommendation of further research followed by a conclusion.

Chapter One: Synthesising Writing Skills

Introduction

This chapter canvasses writing skills and writing assessment principles in SL/FL teaching. The first part tracks a general description of writing skills, specifically, the L2 writing approaches from their inception in the late 1980s and their development in the last decade of the twentieth century. The following section debates writing assessment instruments, which consider the key factors for assessing writing, such as rubrics and scoring. We end the chapter by examining different methods for assessing writing assignments.

1. The Definition of Writing

Writing belongs productive language skills because it is when the individual produces a piece of writing; it is a method of expressing ideas about any subject content (Tiedt,1989). It involves a high cognitive and physical process to generate symbols required to communicate emotions and thoughts (Cer,2019). Based on the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary Hornby (1995, p.138), "writing is the activity or occupation of writing, e.g., books, stories, or articles". In the learning context, writing means students' experience expressing their thoughts creatively and effectively following different processes started from before writing (pre-writing) and ends with post writing. More explicitly, In the EFL context, writing is considered the most arduous, inextricably cognitive, and complex skill to be taught in the EFL context because it involves a certain level of writing aspects, including grammatical structure, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Judith & Arthur (1987) reported that writing develops critical thinking; they contended that different writing types develop critical thinking skills such as questioning, analyzing, planning, and reflecting. Moreover, writing is a fundamental skill for academic achievement and relies on daily life activities. It is widely used in communications to maintain a relationship in the

community, and the workplace started from emails to broader social community network as Crystal (2006, p.257) described, "Writing is a way of communicating which uses a system of visual marks made on some kind of surface."

Widdowson (2001, p.62) defined "Writing is the use of a visual medium to manifest the graphological and grammatical system of the language, it is one kind of graphic expression. According to Bloomfield (1933) (Cited in Crystal, 1994, p.178), "Writing is not the language, but merely a way of recording language through visible marks". In the same way, Olshtain (1991, p. 235) states, "Writing as a communicative activity needs to be encouraged and nurtured during the language learner's course of study". Furthermore, Richards & Schmidt (2002) and Raimes (1983a) asserted that writing is a cognitive and learning experience resulting from complex planning, drafting, reviewing, and revising that helps learners find out what they want to say. Writing effectively is a demanding skill in the academic context whereby students apply skills that they have learnt. Writing serves three essential elements (Stapa, 1998):

- Writing involves communication to express ideas, plans, values, and recommendations.
- Writing comprises critical thinking and problem solving.
- Writing is used to discover and develop students' content language.

1.1.L1 & L2 Writing

Teaching writing was not given attention in language teaching until the 1950s, when the freshman courses were developed for international students who began University enrollment after World War II. Until that era, the teachers and researchers were enthusiastic about developing ways of teaching writing to non-native speakers, and sooner they established the "disciplinary division of labor between L1&L2 writing in the classroom". Specialists in ESL writing have found much guidance in L1 literacy. Some L2 studies implement the analysis

criteria of L1 studies, while other researchers disagree with the influence of L1 transfer on L2 since the interference of L1 results in poor rhetorical convention in L2 writing. Likewise, they have pointed to cultural experience as a factor affecting writing acquisition (Eisterhold, 1990; Grabe, 2001,2003; Hyland, 2003; Krapels, 1990; Kroll, 1990; Kubota, 1998; Wang, 2003; Wang & Wen, 2002; Weigle, 2002) (cited in Agustín Llach,2011, p.45). For example (Perl,1978; Faigley and Witte,1981, Pianko,1979) studied the influence of L1 on the research design of some L2 writing process writing (cited in Kraples,1990, p.38). Silva (1993) claimed that both L1 and L2 processes are recursive, and writers require a plan and revision for ideas. Herman (1994, p.30) states that "writers' thoughts are not tied to a particular language, but are transferable across languages." Therefore, much of the ethnography of students' writing comes from L1 writing; this reflects that all features of L1 writing may be transformed to L2 writing (Kaplan,1983; Leki,1995; Silva,1993).

After the dominance of the process writing approach over the product approach; many studies have focused on the factors affecting the L2 composing process, they have mainly investigated the cognitive level of L1 writing (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Raimes, 1987; Zamel, 1987; Odell, 1993; Levi & Ransdell, 1995). On the other hand, other studies focused on the potential differences between L1 and L2 writing (Silva, 1993; Matsumoto, 1995; Beare, 2000). The results of those studies indicate certain differences. For example, Silva (1993) and Beare (2000) indicated that writing in any language peruse the same analogous stages such as (planning, transcribing, and reviewing); they added that the differences lay only on the planning process. Matsumoto (1995) revealed that writing processes in the L1 Japanese language and L2 English language are the same. Although, Zamel (1976) claims that L1research is valid for L2 writing studies because some writing-oriented instruction in L1 might

be effective for teaching L2, she also argued that teaching writing should pay attention to writer ideas and creativity more than grammar and syntax.

Moreover, Zamel (1983) indicated some similarities between L1&L2 writing, whereas Raimes (1985) found some differences related to the complexity of L2 among writers. Finally, Silva (1993) indicates that writing complexity is related to the lack of writing fluency and the writer's difficulty producing ideas. Subsequently, Silva (1993) suggested that teaching L2 writing should be taught by trained teachers and yield to the foundation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).

2. Approaches to Teach L2 Writing

Many models of L2 writing have been developed from the 1980s to the 2000s. (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower & Hayes, 1981b; Kellogg, 2008; Williams, 2003; Williams, 2005), they had been particularly adapted various writing monographs. Around the 1990s, L2 writing aroused as an "interdisciplinary field," taking into account numerous dimensions that critically impact L2 writing research. Researchers (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). issued themselves with topics related to L2 Writing such writing theories, literacy development, reading-writing connections, research methodology, text interactions, writing assessment, and technology-assisted writing to consider how this theoretical pedagogy adapt L2 writing Silva (1990) and Raimes (1991) presented a comprehensive chronological order of the four approaches that have dominated writing instructions in the past decades which perspective of writing shifted from a focus on form, then a focus on the writer, and finally a focus on content and finally focus on the reader. The first three traditional approaches of teaching writing settled as a reaction to each other: the controlled approach, the product-orientated approach, and the process-orientated approach (Arefi, 1997).

2.1. The Controlled Approach (The Sentence Level)

This approach was influenced by structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology between the 1950s and 1960s. The approach viewed writing as a habit formation activity, and the students needed to be trained in different sentence patterns and vocabulary. The behaviorist approach's main perspective is the L2 structure through controlled practice as in the Audiolingual Method, the dominant instruction method during that era (Btoosh & Taweel, 2011). The controlled approach is based on the sentence level. It comprises uniting activities that were designed to facilitate the learning of sentence structure. Scott (1996, p.141) describes the major interest of this approach as:

The traditional view of writing or composition is a performance with a specific textual shape and a fixed way of achieving it. For example, a mode, such as persuasion, is a formulaic pattern consisting of an introduction, a body, and a conclusion.

This approach considers writing production as the product starts and ends with the planning stage. Teachers measure writing production against criteria such as vocabulary, grammar, mechanical consideration, content, and organization (Brown,1994) therefore, writing is a product since it is constructed from grammatical and lexical knowledge (Hyland,2003). However, the limitation of this approach is evident since grammar and sentence structure modeling activities did not help students produce the original sentence. Thus, guided or controlled composition provides less writing experience for learners.

2.2. The Current-Traditional Rhetoric (Discourse Level)

During the 1960s, the product approach emerged as the most influential writing paradigm. It was proposed by Kaplan (1983) as increasing awareness of students' needs, the time when the instruction aimed to reinforce language structure to develop learner's ability. The

approach is concerned with the final written product that emphasises accuracy, logical construction, and grammatical knowledge. Moreover, the approach boosts the foundation of contrastive rhetoric which the fundamental aspects of this approach are developing linear thoughts, developing ideas and paragraphs, and presenting topic sentences. According to Connor & Kaplan (1987), contrastive rhetoric research greatly influences L2 writing issues. Kaplan (2006, p.13; cited in Matsuda & Silva,2010, p.13) defines rhetoric as the "method of organizing syntactic units into larger patterns. "Thus, the fundamental concern of this approach is on the sentence pattern and logical construction. It highlights the impact of L2 writers background and cultural context on the texts and how linguistic features such grammatical form and lexical features construct the text. (Gabrielatos, 2002, p.5) defined it as «a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text, usually is presented and analyzed at an early stage.”

Additionally, Pincas (1982) provides the most explicit description of the product approach. She describes generally learning as "*assisted imitation*," where learners respond to the teacher stimulus. She (1982) reasoned that writing is principally about linguistic knowledge, with attention to the appropriate word selection, syntax, and cohesive devices. (Pincas,1982) product approach model embraces four stages (Steele, 2004)

- Students explore the text model to specify the features of the genre. Then, they focus on the techniques used to highlight the text genre.
- The second stage consisted of controlled practice the features of the analyzed text where the idea is organized
- This approach stressed the importance of organising an idea is more than the idea itself.

- It represents the end product; the writer practices writing tasks use language skills to show his competence.

The rhetoric approach also focuses on essay development, the paragraph principle, the structural entities (introduction, body, conclusion), and organization pattern modes (narration, description, exposition, and argumentation). The classroom procedures for this approach are associated with writing instruction that students focus on the form. As a result, the students become skilled in identifying and executing sentence patterns. This approach essentially trains learners to read and analyse the model of the text and then apply the structural knowledge depicted from the original text. However, the current approach has regularly been criticized because learners are easily confused by a number of unfamiliar sentence patterns, making it harder for them to analyse, identify, and execute them (Silva,2010).

2.3.Cognitive Process Theory of Writing Flower & Hayes (1981)

The late 1960s has manifested a withdrawal from the traditional paradigm of the product approach to the process of writing. More interestingly, the perspective of writing research pedagogical shifted from sentence and structure practice orientation thinking about different processes applied in writing (Kraples, 1990; Zamel, 1976, 1983). Recursive and goal-oriented processes are the main characteristics of this model “writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning” (Zamel, 1983, p. 156). Hence, the writing process is based on the writer's self-detection and concentration to demonstrate the adequate writing procedures, and learning to write in this approach entails those learners are the center of the writing process who develop efficient and sufficient processes to identify the writing task (Silva, 2010) appropriately. Kroll (2001) defines the process approach as follows:

serves today as an umbrella term for many types of writing courses What the term captures is the fact that student writers engage in their writing tasks through a cyclical approach rather than a single-shot approach. They are not expected to produce and submit complete and polished responses to their writing assignments without going through stages of drafting and receiving feedback on their drafts, be it from peers and/or from the teacher, followed by revision of their evolving texts. (pp. 220-221).

Flower & Hayes (1981) introduced the *Cognitive Process Theory of Writing* as a single-process model which represents the starting and the most influential models in L1 and L2 writing research over 40 years, and it deliberates writing features in composing such as the writer, the writer's task environment, and the writer's long-term memory. One debating question of this model reflects writer's choice when they write, "What guides the writer decisions make as they write?". Flower & Hayes (1981) also viewed that the writer's goals often guide the thinking process to solve a problem. It is also a linear sequence or structure that there is a complete relationship between the analysis of units that reflects the growth of the written product. Flower & Hayes' (1981) theory is based on work with protocol analysis over the past five years which focuses on the following four focal points Flower & Hayes (1981):

The writing processes are hierarchically organized, with components processed embedded within other components: A hierarchical system is an extensive working system composed of less inclusive systems, which in turn contain other systems. The hierarchical process is not fixed; any given process may be rehearsed at any given time and embodied with another process. For instance, to construct a sentence in the translating process may run on a rhetorical problem, the writer may generate new ideas to express them in English writing. Consequently, the writer creates a recursion process linguistically to embody other processes as

needed and help him create a sub-routine and accomplish the task. Gould (1980, p.112)

highlights the critical role of recursiveness in explaining the writing process "Writer's plan, then generate, re-plan, regenerate."

Writing is a goal-directed process. In writing process, Writers build a hierarchical network of goals directed. According to many writers, writers often start writing without knowing exactly where they will end. However, writing is a purposeful process, that the nature of goals falls into two categories: (1) process goals are conscious instruction that the writer applies to carry out the writing process, while (2) content goals and plans specify all content that the writer wants to say to the audiences. The challenging task for the writer on content goal is related to creating a hierarchical network of sub-goal because introducing new goals in the composing works as a functional part of the inclusive goals. Otherwise, the writer starts from the abstract goal of "appealing to a broad range in intellect". In other word, to explain simply the ideas to achieve writing goal. Flower & Hayes (1981, p. 378) introduced three important network features of goal, which mainly focus on the writer ability to explore the growth of the text, thereby developing goal-directed thinking to describe the starting point of what the writers want to write and how they impress the audience and then consequently helps them to compare and combine between different goals.

Writers create their own goals in two key ways: Generating goals and supporting sub-goals embodied by the purpose of writing. The writers, by the time, change or regenerate "their own top-level goals in light of what they have learned" Flower & Hayes (1981, p. 381). During the writing process, writers develop knowledge structure of some topics and become conscious of memorizing certain ideas. This structure develops as much as the writers refresh their writing

using library research. They may create or generate their writing goals guided by the writing process.

Writers create their own goals in two key ways: They may change major goals or even establish entirely new ones based on learned ones. Flower & Hayes claimed that (1981) writers use various tools that are not constrained by sequenced and fixed order. They added that generating ideas requires evaluating of sentences that help the writers to brainstorm new ideas.

Based on the aforementioned descriptions, the teacher takes the responsibility to form the convention of writing without ignoring the writer's cognitive process due to the shift of instructional paradigm from considering writing as a notion to writing as competence that it could be developed by practice (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1984, p.4; cited in Scott, 1996, p142). Flower and Hayes (1981) debated how the cognitive process works during the written product or how it is translated into classroom instruction. They argued that the model process depends largely on the writer's internal process of decision and choices on how to operate planning, writing, and revising. However, they argued that there is no clean-cut edge between the start and end of writing. It means writers are constantly planning (pre-writing), revising (re-writing), and they compose (writing). Teachers who use this approach helps students to develop strategies to start writing by offering time to generate ideas and state feedback on the content they write in the draft. According to this approach, writing is a discovery process, discovering new ideas and language form ,Raimes (1983). Therefore, (Flower & Hayes, 1981) provide three important elements that form the writing process model:

- **The task environment** contains outside and surrounding writers' elements.

Rhetorical problems or assignments and written text eventually represent the composing and the growing text itself. The assignment entails a problem wherein the writers attempt to solve this

rhetorical problem by writing something. However, in theory, a problem is a complicated issue that extends the audience and rhetorical act. It also includes the writer's writing goals. If the writers misuse or misrepresent aspects of the rhetorical problem, this yields inaccurate assignments. Henceforth, good writers try to reduce the constraints when they prepare to write assignments.

- Meanwhile, the written text shapes other constrains elements of the writer. This means that the topic 'title constrains the writer's choice of the topic sentence and determines and limits the word choices. The good writers make that selection based on crucial questions about what I want to cover here and how to bound coherently between sentences. Therefore, the written text needs more writer's attention and time.

1. A writer's long-term memory is where the writers store knowledge about the topic, the audience, and various writing plans. Finding a cue can help activate and retrieve a network of useful knowledge. The latter is decidedly linked with learners' writing strategy to remember, organize, and process information.

2. Writing encompasses the basic elements of writing, such as planning, translating, and reviewing, they are controlled by a monitor. **(Further descriptions are presented in the next section)**

Although, the model has grown considerable attention by scholars because it influences L2 writing, Alharthi (2011) stated that this model is beneficial for many reasons, it shows how the writing process interacts and provides the teachers with theory on how writing should be taught since it provides an explicit and detailed explanation how the model should be applied. However, it has received criticism due to certain points that are principally linked with lack of quantitative analysis that relies only on think-aloud protocols because writers light up

ideas whatever comes across their minds besides, they do not provide a sufficient explanation of the complex cognitive process that they may happen unconsciously and abstractly (Hayland,2009). Additionally, the model was developed on a few data gathered from small skilled learners. Kaplan & Grabe (2002) claimed that this model does not consider a writer's linguistics aspects of writing production.

Some researchers have found this approach is insufficient to satisfy the needs of learners with disabilities and those who struggle in writing. They argued that engaging in a cycle process approach does not develop students' self-directed writing skills. Thus, the writing process approach could mingle with other additional instructional strategies frameworks to yield effective and satisfactory instruction for all students Olinghouse & Wilson (2013). The model has been rectified over the years (Hayes,1996, 2006), yet it has retained its cognitive character and influence on the field.

2.4 Post Process Theory or Genre Approach

In the early 19th century, a newcomer's approach is an extension of the product. Although, scholars noticed the distinction between product and process in FL context, Reid (2001) considers this distinction as a *false dichotomy*, especially when issued with specific writing aims such as EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and ESP. Reid (2001) also stated that writers directed "process writing strategies to achieve effective written communication (product), with differences occurring in emphasis" (p. 29). The post-process era has emerged in the L2 writing to consider writing as more social issues. Collaborative act needs certain techniques to teach them to learners which closely recounts to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. They believed in a plurality of writing styles, and they viewed that the text as social and cultural practice interaction and discursive convention (Howard, 2001; Casanave, 2003; Atkinson, 2003,

cited in Kalan, 2014). In this sense, genre knowledge should be taught explicitly in the classroom, and their main focus is discourse features of a particular text, Kalan (2015) describes the post process theory depending on many focal points:

- Writing cannot be taught as a single codified process.
- The rhetoric genre should be challenged to broaden genre possibilities.
- Writing is not an individual instruction taught through a simple classroom context.
- Teachers need to move beyond the classroom context as assessor in teaching writing.
- Written texts should be regarded as products of a complicated and integrated network of cultural practices, social interactions, power differentials, and discursive conventions.

Genre or post-process approaches tangle the necessity of writer self-awareness and conceptual writing strategies to enhance his writing activities. The focal aspect of the genre approach is the purpose; it is also viewed as an imitation and reflection of the text given by the teachers. Thus, different types of writing or genre carry different purposes. Text genres are also influenced by other features such as the subject matter, the relationships between the writer and the audience, and the pattern of organization (Badger & White, 1996). Therefore, the genre approach was criticized because it focuses on language and text and ignores the instructional and contextual factors of the test. It is also undervalued the other skills required to produce the text (Kamler, 2001). However, genre approach sweat attention seem to the structure as the writing process approach.

To sum up, the product approach deals with the final product and its evaluation. In contrast, the process approach deals with reaching the final product. Both approaches focus on how to develop language skills. However, more recently, post-process in L2 writing alerts more attention to the social factors (Fujieda, 2006). Consequently, several studies have focused on

linguistics knowledge and syntactic structure (Hunt,1977; Carlisle, 1986; Lloyd-Jones,1977), they examine the product of writing, and they proposed that good writing needs the good connection of sentences since it provides structural and semantics relations between words (Arefi, 1997).

3. The 20 th Century Models of L2 Writing

Most of the theories of L2 writing have been rooted in theories of L1 writing. For example, Silva (1996) observes no coherent and comprehensive theory of L2 writing. Recently, there have been many attempts to develop EFL/ESL writing theories (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; Kraples, 1990; Krashen, 1984; Leki, 1992; Raimes,1991).

3.1. An integrated Approach to Teach Writing

Recent studies investigated the effect of three writing approaches on learners' proficiency. Gee stated, "The process approach generally represented a reaction against the product-based approach whereas the genre approach represented a reaction to the so-called progressivist curriculum" (1997, p.25). Hashemnezhad & Hashemnezhad (2012), in their studies, found that the post-process does not show considerable importance over the process approach; nevertheless, the two approaches have a significant dominance over the product approach. Rusinovci (2015) proposed an integrated approach to teaching writing courses, and he claimed that such an approach presents several advantages to focus on text model and writing evaluation." An effective methodology for writing needs to incorporate the insights of product, process, and genre approaches" Badger &White (2000, p.157), and proposed a model to integrate three approaches, which practically means they focus on the writing is impeded with social purpose, while the genre analysis is used in a particular context, the process approach, therefore, includes aspects of writing. Badger & White (1996) called it the "process approach."

The teachers need to assist closely with students to determine the purpose and the aspect of the social context. Writing development varies between learners because they differ in writing development stages; for example, some learners are aware of audience influence in writing, while some learners lack knowledge of the appropriate language used to attract the audience. As an instructional procedure, Teachers may provide contextual and linguistics knowledge to analyse different text genres, reveal the similarities between written texts, and increase student awareness of the corpus of the genre.

3.2.EFL Writing Ability Model and A Model of L1/L2 Composing Processes

Sasaki (1996) provided an empirical model of writing ability that focuses on factors that might influence the Japanese university students who learn English in a non-English-speaking environment on expository writing. The data was gathered and stimulated through protocol procedures while watching the writing behaviour of students. Sasaki (1996) provides a summary of characteristics of the participants that differentiate between expert and novice writers in process writing. They stand on three variables: L2 proficiency, which entails learner's competence, L1 writing ability works as background strategies to influence L2 writing, and L2 meta-knowledge applied the writing process.

El Mortaji (2001) suggested the L1/L2 proposed a composing processes model based on think-aloud protocols, questionnaires, and interview methods to investigate the writing process and strategies of a group of 18 students in Morocco. El Mortaji (2001) maintains the major elements of Flower and Hayes (1981), such as writer, the writer's task environment, and the writer's long-term memory. He proposed two strategies: Text generation includes planning, rehearsing, repeating, reading, and communication strategies and text evaluation include assessing, revising, and editing. The composing process model stressed that the writer's long-

term memory contains knowledge of the topic, knowledge of writing conventions, knowledge of the audience, knowledge of the language and affect (i.e., emotions, motivation, attitudes, etc.) and the task environment, keywords, focus, purpose, discourse type.

3.3. Williams' (2003) Writing Process Model

Williams' (2003) writing process model is also known as the “phase model”, suggesting that the nature of writing is either a random or cyclic process. The first model suggests every writing stage or composition is different from the writer to is "the result of the complex interaction of activities that include several stages of development" (Williams, 2003, p. 106). The second model points out that the writing process is persuasive non-linear states such as planning, drafting, and revising that are constantly rely on students' drafts revision, how to edit their work, and so on (Williams, 2003). Third, the model reinforces and repeats the nature of the writing process in synchronized stages such as planning, drafting, and editing (Williams, 2003).

Williams' writing process model comprises eight processes: pre-writing, planning, drafting, pausing, reading, revising, editing, and publishing. Each process includes various activities that accompany effective writing and the recursive nature of the writing process (Williams, 2003). For instance, the pre-writing process contains several activities that may help students to develop ideas such as discussing, freewriting, and journaling, while the planning stage contains activities like questioning, writer's position, the aim of the paper, and writing convention. The drafting stage afterward focuses on organizing, planning, and relating ideas and time (Williams, 2003). The pause stage reflects when the writer rereads what they have produced and matches with the plan. The reading stage is the reflection stage of the process. In the revising stage, learners should reflect his role as writers and the audience regarding the topic. Students focus on language forms such as grammar, punctuation, and subject-verb agreement in the next

stage—finally, the finalization stage, whereby the paper is prepared for the public. However, not all activities experience the same process because what might to some extent fit one student, it does not necessary work for another.

4. Writing Process

The students engage in the cyclical process that includes many desirable traits of repeating and composing a single text: planning, drafting, revising, reviewing, editing, and publishing. Currently, they are often referred to as "pre-writing, writing, and re-writing." The pre-writing stage has gained wide acceptance because it focuses on improving teaching writing writing by paying attention to planning and discovery as an important part of the writing process. Flower & Hayes (1981, p. 367) provide the following description "Pre-Writing" is the stage before words emerge on paper; Writing is the stage in which a product is being produced; and Re-Writing "is a final reworking of that product".

4.1.Pre-writing or Planning

The pre-writing phase is a valuable road map for the writers who require a juggling generation and organization of ideas. (Murray, 2004) argued that pre-writing is a neglected stage because students begin the writing process with little focus (Paz & Graham, 2001). It explains that high levels of planning compose intrinsically the behavior of skilled writers. The pre-writing process includes three sub-processes. The students who are allotted sufficient time on planning will understand what's about the topic, and it permits a student to check out what they know about the topic orally or in writing.

- **Bubbling:** It is a technique that works as a mind web for writers to brainstorm many ideas or storm or research in mind for the idea, for example, they may start with writing the topic in the center of the page, circling and connecting the related idea like using bubbling and then it

turns to be supported as a draft paragraph. Otherwise, ideas can be interconnected, and the writers can link between ideas by creating a logical flow between the paragraphs. Additionally, it does not matter how useful those were recalling ideas in the writing process or their neatness or correctness (Brown & Hood,1989).

- **Outlining:** The writers organize a topic sentence and support details to describe the content. This method helps students to flow events in writing assignments and motivates them to enjoy the writing process

4.2.Drafting

The pre-writing approach leads inevitably into drafting. It represents the challenging process of transitioning from drafting to formulating text. The writing process begins, and the most important words appear on papers coherently and derive from writer creativity. It is received considerable importance in Flower & Hayes's (1981, p. 372) model, which stated that "In the planning, process writers form an internal representation of the knowledge that will be used in writing ."Urquhart & McIver (2005, p.17) stated that "drafting is shifting the intended message from the nebulous thoughts floating in their heads to more definitive words on a page that can be referred to at a later time ."The drafting process involves sub-process such as generating ideas retrieved from long-term memory. The structure of ideas is not adequately organized. Therefore, the organization as an afterward process creates harmony and meaningful structure of the ideas through grouping and producing new concepts.

Additionally, the organization process allows the writer to order text and identify the first and the last ideas. However, the organization process is much more than ordering text; it is also guided by goal setting. Flower & Hayes (1981) argued that setting goal helps writers to generate ideas and help them to develop new ones that integrate the content with purpose.

The analysis of pre-writing phases revealed that the protocol applied in this phase differs from the adult (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; McCutchen, 1988); studies showed that children reflect the writing task by taking 10 minutes to begin the writing task. However, they revealed that the children could not plan and recognize planning as separate from writing (Limpo, Alves & Fidalgo, 2013; Olinghouse & Graham, 2009). Otherwise, adult writers typically plan for the audience (Berninger et al., 1992; McCutchen, 1988). As a result, the writers pay less attention to spelling and grammar, and its first draft looks messy and different from the final version (Brown & Hood, 1989). The amount of drafting differs from writer to writer because their pre-writing will gain it back while drafting. If they spend rush time pre-writing, they spend a longer time drafting. This is commonly expected because students go through the planning process and give minimal required effort to drafting. Hence, teachers should encourage writers to use planning strategies to boost the quality texts (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; De La Paz & Graham, 1997a, 1997b; Kellogg, 1988; Quinlan, 2004).

Many deliberations should be taken during the drafting process; time and teacher presence play critical factors in offering students a chance to practice new skills in the classroom. It also increases interaction by asking for clarification and giving teachers a snapshot of students' general background, making them adapt follow-up guidance instructions. Moreover, drafting is imperfect; it could be assigned as homework to write down their ideas. Lamott (1994) stated, "Almost all good writing begins with terrible first efforts. You need to start somewhere. Start by getting something—anything—down on paper . . . the first draft is the drowndraft—you just get it down" (p. 25).

4.3.Revising and Reviewing

Reviewing depends on subprocess revising and evaluating; it is a conscious process that systematically leads to a new cycle of planning and translating. It is also an interrupting process that can occur when planning and translating. The revising stage is the writing process's central craft wherein the writers undoubtedly say what they have to say. The revision occurs as the first phase while drafting and during the final phase. It is a focused analysis of the text. Flower & Hayes (1981, p.376) viewed "revision as a set of behaviour that can be called into play at any time during the writing act". It involves checking the content and purpose of writing. For example, writers check spelling and grammar and change or add words or identify errors in word choices. Unfortunately, students often neglect to revise in the writing process because they feel that their paper is already finished. In the revision process, students apply three types of methods: they may revise directly on the draft, recopy on a new page, or first revise and then copy on the new page.

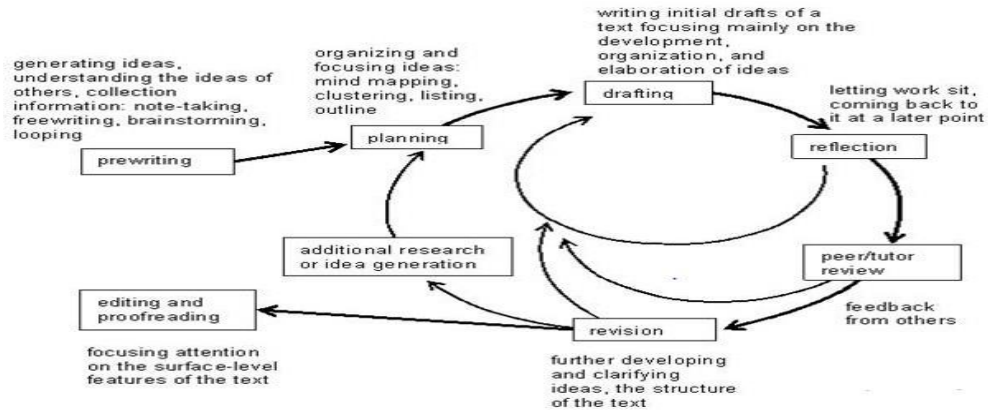
Teachers should teach their students the technique of revision and proofreading marks. It indicates how to add, delete, and demonstrate materials in the papers (Sundem & M, 2004). Revising and editing are frequently discussed in the literature, and they are rather different processes. Revising is skilled meaning strategies for content, while editing is for micro linguistics units related to grammar and spelling, this includes detect various types of typographical errors such as orthographic, phonological, syntactic, and semantic (Levy, Newell, Snyder, & Timmins, 1986). Faigley & Witte (1981) explain, "Successful revision results not from the number of changes a writer makes but from the degree to which revision changes bring a text closer to fitting the demands of the situation" (p. 411). Therefore, Faigley & Witte (1981) provided two taxonomies of revision: formal and meaning-preserving changes revise the

spelling, verb tense, numbers ...etc. Meaning-preserving changes focus on paraphrasing the concepts in the text without changing the meaning. The second taxonomy is text base change which has two levels of changes; microstructure involves changes associated with paraphrasing, production for addition, deletion modification that do not affect the summary of a text, while macrostructure are global changes affect the gist or summary of a text. Faigley & Witte (1981)

Writers generally need to place themselves in written text to anticipate its confusing parts and avoid ill-structured sentences. On the one hand, the revision process is the most difficult step in writing. Schriever's work (1992) reveals that writers typically tackle difficulty with revision due to two reasons: (a) they do not diagnose problems within the message, or (b) they diagnose problems but do not have the means or the flexibility to correct them. Schriever (1992) added, "If writers fail to notice text problems in the first place, no revision occurs" (p. 181). On the other hand, revision is natural rather than guided (Pope & Prater, 1990); research revealed that students model processes and techniques as their teachers model them. For example, teachers can share with students what possible structural changes or lack of clarity in a piece of writing can improve the quality of writing. The figure below illustrates that the writing process is not linear, and different stages can be revisited.

Figure 1:

Stages of Writing Process



Note, From Teaching Academic Writing, A toolkit for higher education by C.Coffin.

M. J. Curry, S. Goodman, A Hewings, T. M. Lillis and J. Swann (2003, p 34)

5. Writing Assessment

5.1. Historical Development of Writing Assessment

Writing assessment dates back to the chou period in China (1111-771 BC) in the Sung period Hamp-Lyons (2001). They used traditional multiple raters' systems to become a reliable method for selecting officials. Otherwise, they tested writing by using a sample of actual writing. This method was also used in Europe during the colonial era only for male elites, wherein increasing need for literate administrators in colonized countries. Knoch (2009, p.17) highly systemized the Chinese examination system and converted the oral examination to a written examination submitted to many candidates. Thus, created the claim for true judgment" as a way to establish the worth of written work Hamp-Lyons (2001). Correspondingly, in the United States, Harvard University swapped the oral entrance exam with a written examination in the late 1800s, which inevitably led to an increasing call for standardization. Hillegas (1912) (cited in Thorndike) proposed a 1.000-point scale to assess writing, he separated the content from the form, and he argued that writing skills could be measured through multiple-choice tests. Test of Standard Written English (TSWE) was the dominant multiple test component, developed by the

Educational Testing Service (ETS) in (1947). Thus, multiple-choice tests became an American test measuring written work (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hamp-Lyons 2001).

Until the 1950s, writing assessment had changed dramatically when there was prodigious demand for testing reliability, especially in university enrollment. Consequently, the writing ability was measured through answering questions as a part of indirect writing assessment (multiple-choice testing) through measuring students' linguistics features (grammatical errors) and certain writing behaviour (as spelling and punctuation) (Cumming, 2002). However, multiple tests cannot measure the important skills for effective writing, such as inventing ideas, coherence, arrangement. (Fader,1986 cited in Hamp-Lyons, 2001, p.119) argued that writing a sample is the only way to judge the worth of written papers. The early 1970s was noticeably marked with a new assessment movement in Europe, especially by introducing Britain's General Certificate of Education (GCE).

Not surprisingly, in the late 70s and early 80s, a direct assessment of writing (or performance assessment of writing) measures students' ability by reintroducing the use of formal examination and having students written examination. It became a dominant test in the L1&L2 context especially for a teacher who preferred testing students in communicative and meaningful tasks. Adopting a direct assessment of writing involves the issue of content and construct validity Knoch (2009). Therefore, the main concern of this era focused on methods and procedures to obtain valid writing samples regarding the reader, task type, rater background, rater training, and the type of rating scale used. The advantages of writing tests assess writing proficiency rather than grammar proficiency, but they define writing narrowly Clark (2008).

In the 1980s, the model proposed in late 1970 was under criticism and developed view of language proficiency based on communicative competence (Canale & Swain,1980). Two modes

are internationally acknowledged as proficiency tests to assess writing ability for university enrollment. The first testing model takes the form of a brief writing essay” Cumming, 1997, p.53) which is “then rated either holistically or analytically”. One of the most common writing tests is the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). The IELTS is 60 minutes test that contains two writing tasks: the first task requires describing information in a paragraph or table, whereas the second is slightly an argumentative essay. Although IELTS is administered annually among millions of candidates for immigration, professional purposes, and university admissions, it has many disadvantages; it lacks reliability since one trainer is responsible for rating both writing tasks. iBT (Test of English as a Foreign Language internet-based test) is another direct writing test which is a standardized test of proficiency validated in over 180 countries. Students are required to write two pieces of writing, such as independent writing, which is a free writing task, students allotted 60 minutes to finish the task, and integrated tasks that include listening and reading. The iBT is valid and reliable because it is easy to score and change raters' training. For more detail about test format question samples the material available, you can check these websites www.ielts.org; www.toefl.org.

In the early 1990s, the writing assessment field was supported by establishing *The Journal of Writing Assessment* (Huot,2002). The articles evolved the procedure of assessing writing to produce agreement among independent raters and how the efficacy of those procedures to solve the problem related to scoring a similar topic from one year to another (White 1994). In addition, essays have been conducted during this era to test writing ability (Connors,1986; Trachel,1992). Therefore, in (1912), essays have been proclaimed as unreliable testing procedures. The researchers were optimists to maintain a valid and reliable form of direct

writing assessment started from holistic, primary trait, and analytic scoring for writing assessment (Connors,1986; Traschel,1992).

5.2.Measuring Results (Terminological Distinctions)

The terms measurement, assessment, and evaluation often epitomize misconception and fuzziness, and they were used interchangeably, but in educational literature are quite different. The measurement consists of two separate and distinctive components such as assessment and evaluation, while assessment is an orderly approach used to collect information and meet the need of the students while the scope of the evaluation is larger than learner achievement; it is judging the information, and it integrate factors affecting the learning process, such as “syllabus objectives, course design, materials, methodology and teacher performance” (Harris & McCann,1994, cited in Drid, 2018, p.293). Williams (2003) argued that assessment involves four processes: deciding what to measure, selecting an appropriate measurement instrument, administering the instruments, and finally collecting information. On the other hand, evaluation is the judgment about students' progress toward learning achievement. Test scores obtained from standard tests are considered a formal judgment. Otherwise, Tchudi & Tchudi (1999) distinguished similarly between assessment, evaluation, and grading: Assessment comprehensively describes what happened, evaluation reflects judgment and criteria, and grading folds the assessment and evaluation.

Furthermore, the term test is confused with assessment. Brown (2004) differentiates between them informality, scope, and performer. Testing is a planned method for evaluations designed by teachers, assessment incidental, or intended ongoing process organized by teachers, peers, or learners.

In light of what has been defined, it is necessary to distinguish between writing assessment and evaluation concepts. Writing as evaluation (demonstrating what was learned), teachers evaluate students understanding of the content, not the grammatical errors, to modify future instructions (Urquhart & McLver,2005). Nevertheless, writing as an assessment (write to learn) is a prevailing tool to measure students writing improvement, identify problems, suggest instructional solutions, and evaluate course effectiveness. (Pellegrino, Chudowsky, & Glaser ,2001, p.20) Noted:

Every educational assessment . . . is based on a set of scientific principles and philosophical assumptions. . . First, every assessment is grounded in the conception or theory about how people learn, what they know, and how knowledge and understanding progress over time. Second, each assessment embodies certain assumptions about which kinds of observations, or tasks, are most likely to elicit demonstrations of important knowledge and skills from students. Third, every assessment is premised on certain assumptions about how best to interpret the evidence from the observations to draw meaningful inferences about what students know and can do. These foundations influence all aspects of an assessment's design and use, including content, format, scoring, reporting, and the use of the results.

5.3.Reason for Assessing Writing

Assessment can be undertaken in each learning stage to accomplish the intended objective. (Shermis & Di Vesta, 2011) stated that assessing learners displays three essential contribution a) before learning is used to test students' readiness to take given courses, though, it is used to help the teachers plan and select course materials based on student level. b) during learning screen student achievements along with instructional tools applied during lesson presentation and finally c) after learning involves assessing the results for

further interpretations and decisions. Receiving feedback on students writing production is indispensable for learning; students learn that writing is part of communication when reviewing their writing. Writing assessment should be strategic instruction," but bleeding paper and grade stamp methods do not provide useful feedback to the student." Olinghouse & Wilson (2001, p.209). Teachers should bear in mind that paper grading is the only aspect of effective assessment. Assessment is valuable strategic involves questioning and obtaining information to make educational decisions. In a teaching context, writing assessment can be either formative to identify students' strengths and weaknesses to provide feedback in the instruction or summative, which sums up a review about student achievement at the end of the course to provide student individual outcome judgment.

Hyland (2004) demonstrated that there are **five main reasons for assessing learners:**

- **Placement:** Function as a diagnostic test provides information about students to allocate them in appropriate classes. "Placement assessments have predictive components which entail those students will or will not succeed in the test" Williams (2003, p.39). For example, a low score will place students in the development of basic writing classes. Decades ago, Scholastic Assessment Test (*SAT*) represented one of the influential database tests used to predict that the students will be good readers and writers. Writing placement can be developed by the university or school staff in the house where the standard scoring processing and assessment protocol are the main purposes to create a valid test Williams (2003). However, by the mid-1980s, the SAT dropped as a test instrument from the school simply because writing performance and evaluation are evidently varied by topics and genres, which hardly create a uniform assessment protocol.

- **Diagnostic:** Function as a need assessment to identify students writing strengths and weaknesses. Teachers use it mainly to tailor their instruction or remedial action for the course. It gives detailed feedback that can be acted upon. 'The essence of a diagnostic test must be to provide meaningful information to users which they can understand and upon which they or their teachers can act' (Alderson,2006, p. 208)
- **Achievement:** It is used to demonstrate students writing progress and measure writing skills in the courses that they have been taught to reflect course improvement and meet the students' specific needs.
- **Performance:** Give information about writing ability in a specific task.
- **Proficiency:** Assessing students' competence and language proficiency used in specific contexts such as admission to certain academic program certificates for university or university study or selection for particular programs.

6. Instruments for Assessing Writing Ability

Nevertheless, For Yancey & Weiser (1997), historicize different three trends of writing assessment from started from 1950–1970, objective tests; from 1970–1986, holistically-scored essays; from 1986–present, portfolio assessment and programmatic assessment (483):

- **Multiple-choice testing:** It is often referred to as indirect ways of testing writing (Crusan, 2002; Hamp-Lyons, 2001, 2003; Hyland, 2003; Weigle, 2002); it is based on writing judgment ability by referring to an indirect measure of grammar and vocabulary proficiency. It is an easy and quick, and reliable test that does not require trained raters or long-time administration, but it is a time-consuming test, and it lacks validity since it focuses only on the linguistics competence measures (Hyland, 2003).

- **Timed Impromptu Writing Test (holistically-scored essays):** It is a direct writing test that assesses the actual writing texts. Essays are the most current writing assessments. The essay test is highly valid because writing competence could be assessed directly through writing performance. However, it also required training raters, and although its scoring and evaluation are problematic for teachers, it is described as a low-reliability test.
- **Portfolio Assessment:** As a pedagogical tool for large direct scale assessment appeared basically as an alternative to holistic assessment in the mid-1980s. It was proposed based on the perspective that students have different writing abilities that allow them to perform better in one assignment and not in another. It is the most influential tool used to measure student understanding of content; it is multiple writing samples collected over time from various genres to obtain a prolonged picture of student writing initially, including drafts, reflections, readings, diaries, observations of genre use, teacher or peer responses, as well as finished texts (Hamp-Lyons & Condon,2000). In the portfolio assessment, students use reading and other sources of information as basic for finishing the writing task. Wolcott (1998) favors portfolios because they combine process and product and include assessment in the instructional procedure to help teachers assess how well students apply what they have learned. Successful portfolio implementation requires teacher and student coordination to accomplish the writing goals and regularly meeting to respond to student work through teacher feedback (Urquhart & McLver,2005). Many studies (Brown &Hudson, 1998; Belanoff &Dickson, 1991; Purves et al., 1995) (cited in Hyland,2003, pp. 177-211) point out that a portfolio helps students to observe changes and progress through comparing different writing genres, it provides students with clear connection about what they have taught and how it could be assessed.

Controversy, many educators were puzzled with considering portfolio as a communication or assessment tool about specific content. For instance, Freedman and colleagues (1995) checked Robert Calfee's research on teachers' perceptions about the writing portfolio; they concluded that a writing portfolio is a way to focus student-teacher discussions and less a grading tool. Accordingly, White (1994, p.127) observes, "a portfolio is not a test; it is only a collection of materials", He recommended that teachers need further evaluation of collected writing papers to assess student writing ability which quietly complex tasks to establish reliability in scoring portfolio, and it is issued by hard controlling of the variability of genres because it requires rater's cognitive ability and time in making decisions. In a study reported by Williams (2000) on difficulties of applying portfolio protocol, he found that teachers were not properly trained or ignored what they had learned about portfolio protocol.

6.1.Key Factors in Assessment of Writing Quality

Urquhart & McIver (2005) label four consistent traits of effective assessment and evaluation:

- **Validity:** It is the heart of assessment; it matches what it has been taught and what it has been measured. "Validity refers to whether the test measures what it purports to measure" (Cohen, 2001, p. 525). It determines what to teach and what to test,if the lesson presented how to write a thesis statement or supporting evidence, the writing assessment should focus on those features. "Writing assessment like all other forms of assessment should measure what was taught" Williams (2003, p.302). Therefore, the first step toward validity is teaching writing and assessing what is taught. The validity of assessment can be threatened if teachers design ill-structured assignments, ask the student to write in a genre that has not been taught before, or

allow inadequate time for developing topics Hyland (2003). Hamp-Lyons (2010, p.7) identified four types of validity: *face validity* is an intelligent outsider that the direct test of writing is good to face validity, *construct validity* is very important in educational context measures the psychological behaviour and human responses. *Content validity* is very common in the writing test that measures specific content related to mastery learning. *Finally, criterion validity* measures the correlation or the relationship between a particular writing Test.

- **Clarity (All parties understand what is being assessed):** It considers the purpose and criteria of assessment. Standards play a critical role because students should know what and why. Furthermore, an assessment must be administered appropriately because students can benefit from additional clues about the assessment or give them more time to be assessed properly and accurately.

- **Variety (use multiple samples for assessment):** Writing assignments that include a variety of genres (e.g., expository, fictional, biographical) are more effective at developing students' writing and critical thinking.

- **Sound pedagogy (Assessments reflect instruction based on knowledge of how students learn and on professional experience):** Effective assessment reflects and reinforces good teaching practice by applying metacognitive strategies to develop students' way of expressing their writing ideas.

- **Reliability (A body of scientifically based research supports classroom assessment techniques)** entails the steadiness and precision of test results. If the test score varies when it is administered for the second time, it means that the result is not reliable. Therefore, the measurement tool should be consistently structured and stress fair judgment. Teachers can encourage students to monitor their writing performance simply by assessing short homework

reflections. Researchers note that journal writing "for the sake of it" is not likely to improve student writing Urquhart & McLver (2005). Students need to know that the assessment procedure is consistent and objective." The only way to make assessment and evaluation more reliable is to reach agreement on what constitutes good writing and what does not (Williams, 2003, p.305). In other word, teachers must create consensus(self-consistency) that form the basic standard in writing evaluation. Hence, this can be achieved through proper guidance and agreement from other teachers(intra-rater) related to effective writing and grading. Cohen (2001) and Weigle (2002) distinguishes three factors or variables which might influence the reliability of assessment: test factors or writing task itself (related to topic and mode of discourse response, length of the test background of the raters, and the nature of rating scales), situational factors (related to the conditions of test administration and other situational and instructional influence) and individual factors (Related to the state of the test takers including physical state(illness and fatigue and psychological state ambiguity of items of mind(motivation)).

6.2. Rubrics and Rating Scales to Assess Writing

Rubrics as a formative type of assessment is a scoring tool or guide to qualify a piece of work; it has three parts such as performance criteria(descriptors), rating scales can include either numerical (1/2/3/...) or descriptive labels (from excellent to poor) based on the descriptor, and finally indicators (provide a concrete description of the descriptors) to guide the analysis of the written product and typically judge the quality of the written text. (Bachman, 1990) defined rubrics as. "That specifies how test takers are expected to proceed in taking the test." Rubrics are effective assessment tools because they pronounce specific performance level" (Schunk & Swartz,1993) provided a communicative expectation for both teachers and students, and it is essential for students and teachers alike. It subsequently provides them with focal elements in

written text, and they may be examined while assessing the quality of work. As can be inferred from the above definitions of the rubric and rating scales, some discrepant factors need to be weighted prudently for valid rating scale of the task (the test), the writer (the test taker), the reader (the test rater), score procedure (the test instruments). Weigle (2002, pp. 122-125) described these factors:

- a. **What type of rating scale should be used?** The common types of analytic, holistic, or primary trait methods.
- b. **Who will use the rating scale, or what is the purpose of the scale?** The context and the purpose of the test necessitate the appropriateness of format of the scale.
- c. **What aspects of writing are most important, and how will they be divided up?** Next, the scale developer needs to decide the rating criteria to use as a basis for assessment. Therefore, the criteria used are reflections of the scale developer's concerns.
- d. **What will the descriptors look like, and how many scoring levels will be used?** The range of performances that can be expected and what the test results will be used for will determine descriptors format. To decide on how band levels should be distinguished from each other, as well as the types of descriptors to be used, will be decided by the scale developers. Weigle (2002, pp. 122-125)
- e. **How will scores be reported?** The very use of the test scores will determine how the scores will be reported. Moreover, it affects whether different categories on the scale should be weighted. Weigle (2002, pp. 122-125)

6.3.Types of Rubrics

6.3.1. Holistic Scale

Until the 1960s, the multiple test score was commonly used for large-scale groups. However, lack of validity and reliability seems to be the biggest problem encountered in large samples. In response to this criticism Educational Testing Service (ETS) developed a holistic scale (White,1986) in the early 1980s. This Holistic scale is a longstanding large-scale writing tool that implies giving an overall judgment about the text quality, and it is used in every content area, especially at the university level because it is considered ideas or contents as single and integrated entities of writing behavior, White (1986) called "a unit of expression" (p. 18) that aims to rate overall writer proficiency (Hyland,2004). In other words, they evaluate writing as skills that do not consist of sub-skills. The rater gives his review of writing pieces by comparing different samples. Scoring is the quickest way to score student papers since the teachers reduce paper load .it also is an easy and consistent rubric because teachers develop rubrics based on the content they have taught. Experienced raters or teachers assess student papers will take one minute or two minutes to read two papers. However, its time consuming when teachers establish criteria, identify exemplary samples, and predict deviation from samples. Moreover, the large-scale test developers fail to determine the relationship of student performance from one essay to another and the validity of using a holistic score in assessing students' progress throughout the semester.

Inextricably, reliability can be maintained through two trained raters for each writing paper guided by specific features of good writing, then any scoring begins. The critical procedure is "socialization" as Williams (2003, p.302) noted that teachers are required to evaluate a dozen papers carefully to assign a score based on the created assignment. The first step of socialization

is to assess the general standard of good writing; these standards may be based on prior experience. Rubrics provide teachers or raters with descriptions related to particular proficiency or rhetorical criteria (Hyland,2004). Rubrics contain different bands (ranging from four to six bands) designed to suit all types of content. However, the teachers can reliably design their rubrics to reflect the essay's goal.

6.3.2. Analytics Rubrics Scale

Unlike a holistic scale that assesses the writing quality as a single and integrated entity, analytic scoring assesses the essay against a set of criteria(**descriptors**) that the readers(**raters**) consider as important to good writing quality. In this sense, Hamp-Lyons (2003, p. 176) viewed writing as a multifaced and complex language skill; it is a collection and presence of many features that could be assessed separately, such as content, organization, and grammar, with vocabulary and mechanics. Hyland (2004) provides detailed information about specific writing features that help teachers reflect on course improvement. It is used correspondingly as a diagnostics tool to provide the student with feedback about writing weaknesses. Moreover, Jarvis *et al.* (2003) state that 'the quality of a written text may depend less on the use of individual linguistic features than on how these features are used in tandem' (p. 399). Polio (2001) claimed that good writing comprises an adequate selection of vocabulary, appropriate syntactic structures, coherence and cohesive devices, and register features.

For this reason, many researchers suggested various taxonomies to decide which descriptors are testable for good writing quality, such as Bachman & Palmer's (1996) model of communicative competence, Grabe & Kaplan's (1996) model of text construction and their writing taxonomy, the models of rater decision-making by Milanovic *et al.* (1996), Sakyi (2000) and Cumming *et al.* (2001; 2002), and Lado's (1961) Four Skills Model. Those models have

mainly classified descriptors into cohesion; cohesiveness; linguistic, grammatical, lexical, and syntactic accuracy; appropriate and relevant content; and an adequate organization of sentences and paragraphs. However, there is a consensus over the model's reputed grammar, vocabulary, and syntax as surface features of text, and they differ in how to classify them. One of the best analytic scales was developed by Jacob et al. (1981) (see **appendix K**). Another analytic scoring system suggested by Hamp-Lyons (1990, 1991b) is the Michigan writing system guide (**check https://www.michigan.gov/mde/0,4615,7-140-22709_70117-456071--,00.html**), they divided the descriptors into three broad categories idea and argument, rhetorical features, and language and control, which they scored separately.

The analytic scale is more reliable than holistic scoring (Penny et al., 2000, p.146 as cited in Llach, 2011, p.57) that intentionally offers teachers explicit details about student writing profiles. However, (Cohen 1994; McNamara, 1996) criticized the analytic scale due to time-consuming compared to the holistic scale. It also created ambiguity for the rater since it has many divert analysis features.

6.3.3. Trait-Based Scoring Methods

Trait-based instruments are designed for a specific genre or feature (Hamp-Lyons, 1991) that are unique to each prompt; there are two types of scoring: primary-trait and multiple-trait systems.

Primary-trait is scoring: is associated with the work of Lloyd-jones (1977) for the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) as a large scale for the testing program in the US, it represents the narrowing criteria for holistic scoring. It is based on single rating features relevant to the task. The philosophy behind the primary trait shows that students can write within critical features such as appropriate text staging, creative response, effective

argument, a reference to sources, audience design, etc. Odell & Cooper (1980, p.39) introduced key elements in scoring rubric of primary traits such as (a) the writing task, (b) a statement of the primary rhetorical trait, (c) a hypothesis about the expected performance on task (d) a statement of the relationship between the task and the primary trait (e) writing scale which articulate level of performance (f) sample scripts at each level (g) explanations of why each script was scored as it was.

However, the raters find it difficult to infer and implement consistently these assessment criteria. This trait lacks generality and requires a very detailed scoring to judge learners' improvement of specific skills. The primary trait rubric provides comprehensive information about students' skills related to specific assignments that contrast with an analytic rubric which provides information about multiple aspects of student writing assignments that assess student writing ability, such as ideas and organization. Nevertheless, the primary trait rubric assesses the category of writing ability; for example, in the story, writing may address the plot, the setting, and dialogue. The primary trait rubric may be used to monitor assessment because it monitors the students' writing progress. However, Lloyd-jones (1977) points out that creating scoring guides takes between 60 to 80 hours per task; for this reason, primary traits have not been adopted in many assessment programs even if it provides extensive information about students writing ability.

Multiple-trait scoring: Represents an ideal trait used by teachers to score different writing aspects because each writing task has its specific scale with its score adapted to the context, purpose, and genre of writing. It helps the teacher diagnose the essay's weaknesses and strengths and afford extensive feedback on the writing quality. Nevertheless, it is time-

consuming. Therefore, the teachers often reduce the workload of this trait by modifying the "Content, Structure, Language."

Computer-Based Writing Assessment: Page's emergence of technologies invents a new generation of writing assessment proposed first in the 1960s. Page (1960) approach called "Project Essay Grade" (PEG) is a computer scoring of essays that allows the identifications and quantification of the essay features such as the essay length, lexical density, lexical diversity, and average sentence length through statistical. The regression analysis of these features (Hamp-Lyons, 2003, 2012; Weigle, 2002) describe the frequency and contribution of those features which merely represent the surface features of the essay. Thus, identifying the degree of contribution of these features happens beforehand before scoring. Various studies revealed that results scoring obtained from using (PEG) correlate with human raters (Page, 1994; Peterson 1997 as cited in Weigle 2002). The computing scoring method has many valuable advantages, such as quick process, and it is reliable since it is easy to spot aspects of writing text. However, its main focus is the lexical and syntactic features of the written texts, and it does not consider the semantic meaning.

Contrasting to (PEG), Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) is another computing essay scoring method that focuses on extracting and comparing the semantic features of the words in the essay. The (LSA) assessment method provides domain representative text that contains a matrix of words that the essay would be judged depending on those matrices. The main advantage of (LSA) provides the student with immediate feedback about their essay. However, this web assessment instrument does not consider the word order that makes a possible string of sentences in the essay (Weigle, 2002). Lastly, raters are the most currently computing rater in the Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT). It is designed to analyze essays according to

criteria itemized by human raters. It uses similar statistical and regression analysis similar to (PEG) of those criteria to predict the score of the whole essay. Generally, (GMAT), study linguistics features include syntactic features (subordinate, relative clause... etc.), rhetorical features (distribution of words and rhetorical organization), topical features (compare the vocabulary essay compared to the vocabulary used in the training essay).

Conclusion

This chapter presents an overview of the literature pertinent to teaching writing as one of the challenging language skills in the EFL context. For this purpose, the emphasis has been placed on addressing the definition and description of main L2 writing approaches. In addition, some studies on L1 and L2 writing were carefully elucidated, they are also concerned with writing and the sub-processes of L2 writing are also presented and reviewed. Then the chapter has chiefly concentrated on the writing assessment, which is fraught with conflict.

Chapter Two: Conceptual Framework of Vocabulary Knowledge

Introduction

This chapter presented several terms connected to vocabulary necessary to define. It also discusses the history of vocabulary research, and vocabulary theories. Next, the chapter enlightens the nature of vocabulary knowledge, including its types (breadth and depth and regarding its two aspects (receptive and productive) to elucidate the components of vocabulary knowledge, how they correlated, and how we call on this knowledge when using language. Finally, we conclude the chapter by discussing different tests to measure vocabulary knowledge, investigating which aspects need to be measured and their relevance in assessing writing skills.

1. Vocabulary vs. Word

1.1. Vocabulary

Few studies have provided a fully-fledged definition of the term vocabulary in literature. The only exclusion is the book by McCarthy, "vocabulary is all about words" (2010, p.1). Richards et al. (1992) set out that word is "the smallest of the linguistic units which can occur on its own in speech or writing" (p. 406), while vocabulary, as "a set of lexemes which includes single words, compound words as idioms" (Richards et al., p. 400). Additionally, Kamil & Heibert (2005) depict that vocabulary can be broadly defined as knowledge of words or word meaning. The Cambridge dictionary also defines vocabulary as overall words known and used by a particular person and in a particular language or subject. Schmitt (2010) describes grammar as a finite and fixed set of rule rules, while vocabulary is an open-ended system. Schmitt (2010, p. 30) provides the following description "While grammar is a closed system in that there is a limited set of rules, vocabulary is open-ended, with even older native speakers learning new

words." Therefore, "As such it is likely to be the biggest hurdle in learning a language" Schmitt (2010, p. 30). Dóczy and Kormos (2016, pp3-5) review vocabulary definitions of different perspectives to better understand them.

- a. The perspective of standard features:** A word is defined as a string of letters separated by space. Although, this illustration is useful for lexical analysis, especially for counting how many words are there in the text. Thus, the standard features consider words as a string of letters without taking into any semantic features of these units.
- b. Semantic features:** Words are the smallest meaningful units of language. This definition focuses on the semantic features of words rather than on the formal characteristics of words. "First and foremost, units of meaning" (Laufer et al. 2004, p.205)
- c. The psycholinguistic perspectives or vocabulary** approach focuses on how users of one or two languages store and retrieve words from their mental lexicon. They consider the entity of lemma to be the basic unit of lexical storage and representation.

Therefore, there are different associated terms such as tokens, types, lemmas, word families (Milton, 2009; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000). According to Nation (2001), tokens or running words refer to words that appear in a spoken or written text. Thus, If the same word occurs more than once, each appearance is counted. For instance, in the sentence: "he sends an urgent email,"; there are five tokens even when no word repeated. Contrary, Types, on the other hand, consist of the number of different words or "types" that are present in an utterance. If we consider the example above, we have just seven types. Lemmas consist of the headwords, the most frequent inflections, and reduced forms. Inflections consider plurals, third-person singular present tense, past tense, past participle, progressive aspect, comparative, superlative, and possessive (Nation 2001). For instance, the verb write includes writing, but not writing, a noun

and not a verb. However, lemmas as a unit of counting are part of the learning burden (Swenson and West, 1934, cited in Nation 2001, p.10) because each item requires an effort to learn it. In Levelt's (1989) model of speech production, lexical encoding is assumed to involve three steps: the activation of the relevant concept that individual wants to name, the search for and retrieval of the lemma activate the syntactic and morphological characteristics of the lexical unit, and subsequently the activation of the lexeme, which is the phonological form of the lemma. Whether the lemma contains semantic and syntactic information is debated in psycholinguistic studies of lexical access. Word families involve a headword, inflections, and closely related derived forms including affixes likely, -ness, and -un where lemmas are part of this specialized definition. (Nation, 2001).

Furthermore, many vocabulary studies have considered lemma and word families as basic units for counting. Lemma is the headword of a set of words (root), whereas the word families are derivational and inflectional of the headword (Daller, Milton & Treffers-Daller 2007). Another problem arises when assessing learners' vocabulary knowledge related to consider words as single word form or word families is being measured. However, it depends on researchers who settle on using these terms that fit into their testing contexts and purposes. **The psychological view** pointed out earlier for counting words is to take the base form of the word as one unit. For example, the words *written*, *writing*, *wrote* are counted as separate units, and they might not be stored as separate units in the mental lexicon.

1.2. Words

Scholars (Bowen et al., 1985; Jackson and Amvela, 2000; Read, 2000; Trask, 1995) argued that it might be easy to perceive 'word', but it is hard to define. One of the accurate definitions of the word was proposed by (Carter 2012, p. 32) "as the minimum meaningful unit

of language, he is also suggested so-called lexical words or content words, and grammatical or functional words. Lexical words are adjectives, adverbs, nouns, verbs, which are described as words with meaning even when they are existed independently, while grammatical words are pronouns, articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, and conjunctions (Carter,2012). Milton & Alexiou (2020, p.11) stated, "Words can have several different meanings matched to one form. Word equivalents may collocate differently, and differ in usage, from one language to another" this means that words related to the field of morphology, semantics, etymology, and lexicology.

Overwhelmingly, the word is characterized by the independence of phonological, orthographical, semantic, and syntactic nature, manifested in the ability to stand alone. The orthographic word is generally meant as a group of letters between two blanks. For example, the phrase I drive the car consists of four orthographic words. Phonetically is slightly difficult because there is no pause between individual words when words are uttered in the flow of speech (Singleton 1999, p.12). In contrast, phonological words are easier to define, especially in the English language which the words are significantly governed by stress and syllables. The semantic definition highlights the issue of the ambiguous meanings of the word might have (Carter 2012, p.21). For example, a book can refer to separate meaning either as written work, or reservation (booking hotel). Schmitt (2000, p.23) argued that word meaning consists of the link of the word and its referent. The latter is a word meaning in the dictionary that represents the person, object, action, and situation. Again, though, a word can hold different meanings in different contexts. (Singleton ,1999) defined words according to grammatical function generally linked with two characters, positionally mobile" and "internal stability".

On the one hand, positionally mobile refers to a certain position that the word would take in the sentence. For instance, the verb help can be positioned in many places in the sentence to

function grammatically; according to Singleton (1999), *I will gladly help you, gladly I will help you, and you I will gladly help you*. On the other hand, internal stability indicates that the order of morphemes within a word holds a predetermined position, check this example gladly cannot be meaningful if prefixes ly positioned in the first word (lyglad)

Typically, words consist of roots and zero or more affixes. Words can be combined to create other language units, such as phrases, clauses, and/or sentences. A word consists of two or more stems joined together to form a compound. Words are also divided into word classes. Johansson & Lysvåg (1986, p.3) refer to articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliaries, etc. Schmitt (2010, p.8) defines "a basic lexical unit." Words as linguistics corpus can be divided into two idiosyncratic notions type and token. Those terms are used widely in corpus analysis research.

Further, it has noticeably been marked that the English language constitutes many word forms, for instance; the word advertises many word forms such as; advertisement, advertiser, advertising. The question arises here how do we count the words? Do we consider them one-word form or a different form of "advertise" (Read 2000)?

Besides, Schmitt & Zimmerman's (2002) research indicates that even learners with a relatively high level of proficiency did not know all the word forms within a word family productively. While word families might be functional units for estimating the number of words L2 learners can recognize, they might not be viable means for assessing vocabulary. Based on the definitions as mentioned above of the term "word," it can be segmented into different types according to four language skills:

- **High-Frequency Words:** There is a list of words that occurs more frequently in reading, written texts, and speaking situations than others; they are functioning as some, because, and

too...ect, and content words such as government, forests, production, adoption, Nation (2001) stated that high-frequency words cover 80% of the text and represent a wide range of academic list (About 165 words). They play a significant role in building the coherence of the texts. Hence, teachers and learners should spend considerable time learning those words significantly. The classic list of high-frequency words is West's (1953) (GSL), containing 2,000-word families. It is important to remember that the 2000 high-frequency English words consist of some very high frequencies and some words that are only slightly more frequent than others not in the list. The academic word list developed by Coxhead (1998) (cited in Coxhead & Nation 2001) is composed of 570-word families, which are not present in the most frequent 2,000 words of English. Thus, the 570 words families occur frequently in several academic texts, and they do not belong to specific field Nation, (2001) the new versions of the New General Service List are continuously being created by Brezina & Gablasova (2015), which lists about 2,000 high frequent words Lozdienė & Schmitt (2019)

- **Low-frequency words:** All words that are neither academic nor technical represent about 5% of the running words in the text; they represent the largest group. It has been identified in many ways, "ranging from anything beyond 2,000-word families up to all of the word families beyond the 10,000-frequency level" Schmitt (, 2008, p. 2). Schmitt and Schmitt (2014) have recommended that 9,000+ word families they based their threshold on Nation's BNC frequency lists covering 95.5% of the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), should be categorised as low-frequency words;
- **Mid-Frequency Words:** A new term of word frequency covers vocabulary between high-frequency words (3000) and low-frequency words (9000). It contains technical vocabulary and more frequent words than the 9,000-frequency band. Lozdienė & Schmitt (2019) stated

that mid-word frequency might not be relevant for all L2 learners, especially less motivated learners.

2. Vocabulary Learning

2.1. History of Vocabulary

Over the last years, many language teaching methodologies have neglected to give any specification of the vocabulary in learning a language (Milton & Alexiou, 2020). It was until Richards (1976) and tailed by Levenston (1979) who alerted and criticised an applied linguistic abundance to vocabulary learning in favour of other aspects of language learning. Before the 1980s, vocabulary research was essentially pronounced as atheoretical and unsystematic (Merea, 1980), and a few vocabulary research can be traced back to (1611). For example, bath provided a list of 1200 proverbs to introduce common Latin vocabulary. Later, Harold E. Palmer (1877-1949) was considered as "the father of British applied linguistics," and he was the first who raised the issue of English vocabulary learning and teaching in Japan Stein (2008). However, Palmer's ideas about English vocabulary did not attract much attention during that era because it was marked by the dominance of the grammar-translation method and deductive approach to teaching languages Schmitt (, 2000). Zimmerman (1996) reviewed the history of language teaching methods, and he contended that the outdated methods valued grammar and ignored the aspects of vocabulary learning.

In 1864, Thomas Prendergast, in his manual *The Mastery of Languages, or the Art of Speaking Foreign Tongues*, recorded "the most common English words, based entirely on his intuitive judgment" Coady & Huckin (1997, p. 7). Unpredictably, his judgments coincide with the following word lists compiled "on statistical measures" after the 1920s Coady & Huckin (1997, p. 8) that aimed "to systemize the selection of vocabulary" (Schmitt 2000, p. 15). Hence,

his works on the word list did not bungle. The development of vocabulary research in the middle of the 20th century was absorbed on word lists which focus specifically on the statistical word lists compilation that was introduced already in 1929 by Charles Kay Ogden (1889-1957), who in that year published his list of Basic English (Ogden 1930 cf. Carter 1998, pp23-28). The list comprised 850 words and was meant as a basis for "leading into general English" Carter (, 1998, p. 25). West (1953) published the (GSL) that comprises about 2000-word families and is based on a corpus of the written English language as "one of West's main aims [...] was to provide a list of pre-reading or simplified reading materials" Carter (1998, p. 207). According to Carter (1998, p.206), the word list is widely acknowledged today, it formulates the basis of the original principles of the Longman Structural Readers of the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE, 1978). Nonetheless, some researchers Schmitt & McCarthy (1997) argued that West's (1953) GSL is the result of studies carried out in the 1930s that it requires reviewing because the list is considered "outdated" nowadays (Carter 1998, p. 207), it has not lost its classical status nor has it been replaced by any other accepted list of general English. However, it remains one of the most revolutionary foundations in foreign-language pedagogy and lexicometrics research (Carter 1998). The end of the 19th century manifested by the publication of dictionaries, the most influential of them was The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD 1974), Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE 1978), Collins Corbulid English Language Dictionary (CCED 1987), and Cambridge International Dictionary of English (CIDE 1995). Consequently, it is gained popularity and widespread adoption because it made differences between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries as well as between dictionaries for native speakers and non-native learners of English (Carter 1998, p. 151).

In the 20th century, *Vocabulary Control Movement* was a lexical research movement that tried to systemize and standardize the most useful word lists for language learning. There were also supplementary attempts to introduce English word lists by Nation's University Word List of 836 words (Nation 1984) and Cox head's Academic Word List (AWL) of 570 words (Cox head 2000) to name the most prominent words. (Schmitt 2010) claimed that the aim of the list is not replacing the GSL but concentrating on a particular vocabulary group, called academic vocabulary. Moreover, Nation's list (1984) was designed to complete the GSL list. Certain word lists can be explained by English corpus linguistics that are assisted by computers that allowed processing huge amounts of linguistic data.

English-language lexicography takes different phases «a phase of considerable invention and innovation in the last three decades of the twentieth century" (Carter 1998, p.180). Until the 1980, it emerged as a topic of vocabulary in applied linguistics because it was no longer considered as a word list issue but rather an autonomous aspect in learning and teaching. The revitalization of vocabulary" was prompted by such contemporary influential work as Nation, Laufer (1999), and Nation & Meara, (2002, 2013) and Schmitt (2010) books in vocabulary learning can be considered as one of the most basic reading materials as it consolidates citations of about 600 articles and books. Besides, Meara's (1997) studies can be credited for introducing vocabulary as a network of interconnected elements rather than a linear memorized list of items. Meara's (1997) computer modeling efforts endeavor to grasp the process of L2 vocabulary learning, Meara (1997) investigates what constitutes this network and how its elements might be connected in the mental lexicon that represents a complicated issue in vocabulary studies. However, it is beyond the theme of this thesis.

Vocabulary now gained a prominent focus in linguistic research, and modern curricula have become more directive concerning vocabulary learning (Milton & Alexiou, 2020).

2.2. Theories of L2 Vocabulary Acquisition

There are two trends related to vocabulary development, perhaps of the most common traditional belief about vocabulary learning: it can be defined as a set of hierarchically and systematically consecutive stages of the lexical system. Gleitman and Landau (1996) claim that vocabulary learning is a systematic process mapping procedure guided syntactic acquisition can be released. Thus, Agustín Llach (2011) tried to isolate those stages to understand how vocabulary items are acquired started by studying different dimensions of vocabulary such as 1) the order of acquisition of different types of knowledge (morphological, syntactic, collocational, semantic, etc.) for each lexical item, (2) order of acquisition of word classes (noun, verb, adverb, adjective, etc.), (3) order of acquisition of particular lexical items and (4) developmental stages of lexical processing. Schmitt's (1998) study focused on the hierarchical relationship of four aspects of word knowledge: written form, associations, grammatical behaviour, and meaning; the results revealed no positive relationship in the development between the four aspects of word knowledge. Recent studies of Marsden & David (2008) and Myles (2005) on verbs acquisition claimed that verb production enhances learners' L2 proficiency level, they support the cognitive view that verbs are acquired after a noun in learner production and thus; the acquisition of verbs is higher than that involved in the acquisition of nouns. Jiang (2000) specified that L2 vocabulary acquisition takes three phases: Firstly '**formal stage of lexical development**' is when learners focus on the formal characteristics of a particular lexical item and apply L1 translations on L2 forms. Secondly, **the 'L1 lemma mediation stage'**, as much as learner exposure to a new language and its lexicons when the lexical transfer is common in this stage since learners add

semantic and syntactic features of their L1 translation equivalents. Finally, in the '**L2 integration stage**', when the learner has considerable L2 knowledge in semantic, syntactic, and morphological, learners relate and incorporate the corresponding lexical entry.

The second belief about vocabulary development suggested that vocabulary development occurs through a set of associative networks (Meara, 1984, 1996), which incorporate vocabulary acquisition with some systematic disposition or formal semantic network of words by establishing a network between new L2 lexicons and the existing ones. The vocabulary acquisition or what is referred in this theory prototypical items consists of broad semantic categories that may be stretched by adding new meanings and establishing a connection between lexicons related to polysemy, synonymy, antonymy, or metonymy (Cameron, 1994, 2001; Coady, 1995; Gass, 1988; Laufer, 1991a; Meara, 1996; Nagy & Herman, 1987; Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 1995; Schmitt & Meara, 1997; Wesche & Paribakht, 1996). Thus, (Wolter, 2001). Indicates strong semantic that the closer a word is to the core vocabulary, the stronger its semantic associations with other core vocabulary items

2.3. The Importance of Vocabulary Acquisition

Many scholars in the field of vocabulary learning and teaching (Allen, 1983; Carter and McCarthy, 1988; Hedge, 2000; Long and Richards, 1997; Maley, 1986; Richards, 1985; Zimmerman, 1997) point out that vocabulary has long been neglected in the language classroom for many years, especially with teacher-centered and traditional methods of language teaching. Recently, the perspectives on vocabulary have dramatically changed when researchers have shown substantial interest in it. Vocabulary has been witnessed as a key learning tool for learners to think, express ideas and feelings, and explore and analyse the world around them. Thus, no one can communicate in any meaningful way without vocabulary. Schmitt (2008) claimed that

“one thing that students, teachers, materials writers, and researchers can all agree upon is that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language” (p. 2).

Nyikos and Fan (2007) explain the importance of teaching vocabulary. They claimed that "Vocabulary has a crucial role in both the receptive and productive skills associated with effective communication" (Nyikos and Fan, 2007, p.251). To be precise, Bowen et al. (1985, p. 322) and McCarthy (1990, p. ix) also indicate that the main component of any language course is vocabulary. Allen (1983, p. 5) suggested that the best classes are taught through grammar and vocabulary. Likewise, Flower (2000, p. 5) states, "Words are the most important things students must learn. Grammar is important, but the vocabulary is much more important". Furthermore, Ellis (1994) affirms that lexical errors impede comprehension more than grammatical errors. Besides, Harmer (1991, p. 153) asserts that “choosing words carefully in certain situations is more important than choosing grammatical structures because language learners cannot use structures correctly if they do not have enough vocabulary knowledge”.

Vocabulary is vital for comprehension in language skills in any situation learning. Several studies have affirmed that learning vocabulary is a significant linguistics aspect to achieve a high proficiency level (Boers & Lindstomberg, 2008). (Krashen, 1998, p. 33) clearly states: “Vocabulary is basic to communication. If acquirers do not recognize the meanings of the keywords used by those who address them, they will be unable to participate in the conversation. It does not only develop learners' spelling but also learners writing proficiency. There is a correlation between foreign language learning and vocabulary knowledge in foreign language learning (Stahl, 1983). According to Nagy (1988), it is impossible to recognize a passage in foreign language learning without being familiar with any vocabulary.

In a language classroom, the main goals of vocabulary learning should focus on why language learners particularly learn vocabulary in isolation and context as well. However, Schmitt (2000) points out that it is impossible to master the entire English lexicon because even beyond native speakers. Consequently, learners need to learn only a few thousand useful words and discover how to combine them and how to master the rules of the language (Milton, 2009). Nandy (1994, p. 1) states, "an extensive vocabulary is most desirable, not so that the possessor may display his sophistication by the use of a very large number of unfamiliar words, but so that he may have at his stock exactly of the right word for every occasion." Krashen and Terrell (2000, p. 157) asserted that "one goal of vocabulary learning is to provide enough vocabulary to allow language use outside the classroom and to place the students in a position to continue second language acquisition".

Therefore, the movement that was adjusted on founding effective methodologies for teaching vocabulary has emerged that they have also suggested many strategies and techniques for vocabulary learning. For example, Nation (1990), Rubin and Thompson (1994), Richek et al. (1996) suggested two main approaches in which learners learn vocabulary: the direct vocabulary learning approach and the indirect vocabulary learning approach.

Direct vocabulary learning is a conscious and explicit way of learning are processed by learners either in context or in isolation. Through direct instruction, learners involve an intentional focus on meanings of individual words and word-learning strategies" (Laufer & Hulstijn 2001). In contrast, Indirect vocabulary learning is an implicit and unconscious processes of learning through learning the meaning of new words from hearing or seeing the words used in many different. This type of learning or instruction focuses on learning new words incidentally while reading or learning from listening to stories, films, television, the radio (Anderson & Nagy,

1991; Nation, 1982; 2001; Sternberg, 1987) or learning vocabulary indirectly via guessing from context (Nation 2001).

3. Vocabulary Knowledge

Mastering a word is acquainted with meaning, register, association, collocation, grammatical behavior, written form, spoken form, and frequency and how to use it appropriately in the context and these properties are known as “word knowledge” (Richards, 1976; Nation, 1990, 2001; Qian 1999,2002; Schmitt,1998,2000). Schmitt (1998, p.281) points out plenty of proposals: “the mechanics of vocabulary acquisition is one of the more intriguing puzzles in second language acquisition”. Vocabulary Knowledge is an underlying mental representation of human cognitive representation that is encoded in long-term memory (Bialystok,1994 cited in Dóczy and Kormos (2016, p.6), it can be conceptualized as a system of representations, it is an inter-related network of memory traces within which items are stored in the mental lexicon, they have links of different strength with each other. From this perspective, vocabulary acquisition is an incremental process that individuals can't master all aspects of vocabulary simultaneously, they are some aspects that gain mastery before another (Schmitt,2020)

One important aspect of vocabulary knowledge is the association of words and meaning because "First and foremost, units of meaning" (Laufer et al. 2004, p. 205). Nevertheless, a word from -the meaning relationship has complicated that vocabulary knowledge is not a state; it develops over time. It is possible to have partial knowledge of the form of a word, be familiar with one possible form and meaning link only, and have partial knowledge of the meaning(s) of the word (Schmitt,2010).

The interactionist view of lexical access considers vocabulary knowledge "as an underlying trait, but one that needs to be specified relative to a particular context of use" (Read

& Chapelle 2001, p.8). In this sense, learners' ability to access lexical units stored in memory in real-time and use them accurately and appropriately in a given context and vocabulary size can be measured and assessed about a particular task such as academic writing. Adolph and Schmitt (2003) claimed that a learner should know at least 3000 words to understand 95% of the information from a native speaker. Vermeer (1992) and Laufer (1998) emphasized the full acquisition of lexical components to fulfill competence in a different context. Laufer (1998) affirmed that lexical competence is a milestone language competence that discriminates between native and non-native learners of the target language.

3.1. Knowing a Word

Many researchers have introduced *knowing a word* to conceptualize what learners' word knowledge comprises (Daller, Milton & Treffers-Daller 2007), and a lot of different knowledge is involved in knowing words. For instance, Nation (2001), knowing a word" is simply described as recognizing the form of a word." However, this form is automatically attached with usage and meaning that make full and usage known of words is complicated.

Cronbach (1942) presented five components of vocabulary knowledge, and he classified word knowledge as such: generalization (the denotation of a word), application (connotation), breadth of meaning (various implications of words), the precision of meaning (a correct application) and availability (production). However, this framework was criticized because it focuses essentially on word meaning and neglects other aspects of word knowledge such as collocational and morphological properties (Qian, 2002). Richards (1976) stated supplementary components of vocabulary knowledge framework, such as associations, morpho-syntactic properties, and register and frequency level. In addition, Richards (1976) framework focused on

the complex nature of words, and he included more new characteristics such as register and word frequency.

Nation (1990) detailed different knowledge that shows the complexity of a word; he added several aspects such as collocations and pronunciation to make it more comprehensive. His method is extensively used to evaluate word knowledge. Afterwards, Laufer (1995 cited in Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997, p.141) listed another six kinds of knowledge that they are critical to know a word.

1. Form of the word “pronunciation and spelling”
2. The structure of the word.
3. The syntactic pattern of the word
4. Word’s meaning.
5. Lexical relations and common collocations.

Furthermore, Nation (2001) revised and advanced a process model vocabulary framework. It represents the best specification of word knowledge to date; he took his processor from Richard's framework (1975) and included some features lacking in Richard's framework. It involves three distinct types of vocabulary knowledge: form, meaning, and use. (Nation 2001, p. 23) stated that "Words are not isolated units of language, but fit into many interlocking systems and levels, there are many things to know about any particular word, and there are many degrees of knowing." The form includes spoken and written forms and word parts, meaning involves meaning, concept, referents, and associations; and use entails grammatical functions, collocations, and constraints on use (register and frequency). The figure below explains clearly the three frameworks of Nation (2001).

Figure 2*The Framework of Knowing Words*

Form	spoken	R What does the word sound like?
	written	P How is the word pronounced? R What does the word look like? P How is the word written and spelled?
	word parts	R What parts are recognisable in this word? P What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	form and meaning	R What meaning does this word form signal?
	Concepts and referents	P What word form can be used to express this meaning? R What is included in the concept?
	Associations	P What items can the concept refer to? R What other words does this make us think of? P What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical functions	R In what patterns does the word occur?
	Collocations	P In what patterns must we use this word?
	Constraints on use	R What words or types of words occur with this one?
	(Register, frequency)	P What words or types of words must we use with this one? R Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word? P Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

R=Receptive P=Productive

Note, adapted from "Learning Vocabulary in Another Language" by P. Nation (2001, p.27).

According to Nation (2001), the form contains the receptive and productive aspects of spoken form, written form, and word parts. In addition, it includes phonological, orthographical,

and morphological aspects. Research has demonstrated that developing learners orthographical, phonological, and morphological aspects extensively influences their learning of new words. Additionally, learners should be frequently exposed to speech and texts to develop their word knowledge and word recognition fluency.

a. Meaning

Recognizing word form is essential for knowing words, but it is important to determine its semantic meaning and association with other words. Another component helps learners identify the meaning of words from texts to build a network between the concepts and referents.

Van Patten et al. (2004) studied the relationship between form and meaning, they assumed:

- a.** The form has only one meaning,
- b.** One distinct form has multiple meanings in various contexts.
- c.** Multiple forms have the same meaning.

b. Use

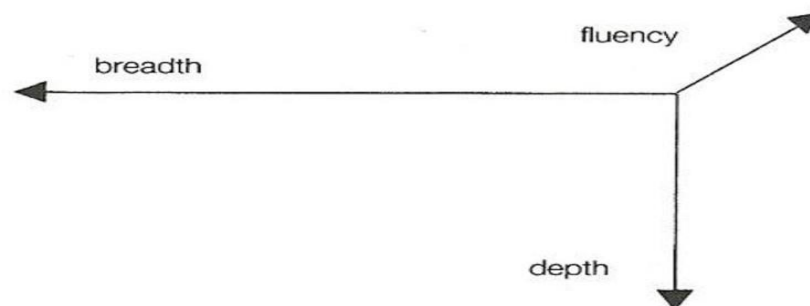
Learners often deduce that they can transfer particular words from their L1 to the L2, neglecting the grammatical differences in languages which prevents the possibility of such correct transfer (Treffers-Daller & Rogers, 2014). Consequently, in recent years, collocations have been given greater attention as their connection to grammatical functions and word associations. As learners encounter difficulty with conventional language and collocations, teaching explicitly phrasal vocabulary or selected chunks may provide support in students rehearsing vocabulary efficiently. In doing so, learners may comprehend the regularities of word occurrence and, thus, reduce their learning burden.

Based on the Nation's analytical framework of vocabulary words. Daller & Milton & Treffers-Daller (2009, p.16) proposed an idea of *lexical space* that summarizes learners'

vocabulary knowledge into a three-dimensional axis (see figure). Breadth at the horizontal axis refers to many words a learner knows regardless of how they well know the words. It includes *form, form, and meaning* elements, according to Nation idea (2001). Lexical depth is the vertical axis representing how much the learners know about the word; this includes an *association, concepts referent, grammatical functions, and collocations*. The final axis is fluency which describes a learner's readiness to recall and use the known words automatically and accurately in writing or speaking. Three-dimensional axis, breadth, size, and depth would symbolize receptive word knowledge, while fluency would portray productive knowledge. Nevertheless, scholars considered both size and depth in vocabulary research, as receptive and productive. **(These aspects of vocabulary knowledge will be discussed further in the following section)**

Figure 3

The Lexical Space: Dimensions of Word Knowledge and Ability



Note, from "Modelling and assessing vocabulary knowledge," by H. Daller & J.

Milton & J. Treffers-Daller (2007, p.08)

3.2. Dimensions of Vocabulary Knowledge

Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Aviad & Laufer, 2013; Daller, Milton & Treffers-Daller, 2007; Meara & Wolter, 2004; Milton, 2009) classified word knowledge into two smaller distinguishing dimensions: the breadth and depth of word knowledge. Breadth involves the number of words learners have acquired, while the depth of word knowledge implicates how

well they understand and use the various aspects of words. Schmitt (2014) discussed the relationship between the two dimensions; he asserted that they grow independently because learners with large vocabulary may not have deep knowledge or lack word association. As a result, they use them incorrectly. On the other hand, learners with small vocabulary may have appropriate use and better understand word associations. However, Breadth and depth vocabulary are interrelated for research and pedagogical purposes. Schmitt,2010; Fitzpatrick and Milton,2014) stated that both dimensions are quite associated. It is almost impossible to assess one's vocabulary size without knowing the words tested. Each test used to measure size is used meanwhile to measure vocabulary depth. (Anderson & Freebody, 1981, pp. 92-93) pointed out:

It is useful to distinguish between two aspects of an individual's vocabulary knowledge. The first may be called "breadth" of knowledge, by which we mean the number of words for which the person knows at least some of the significant aspects of meaning. ... [There] is a second dimension of vocabulary knowledge, namely the quality or "depth" of understanding. We shall assume that, for most purposes, a person has a sufficiently deep understanding of a word if it conveys to him or her all of the distinctions that would be understood by an ordinary adult under normal circumstances

3.2.1. Breadth (Size) of Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary size, or breadth of vocabulary knowledge, refers to "the number of words the meaning of which one has at least some superficial knowledge" (Qian, 2002, p. 515). Zhang, (2013) indicated that "Knowing the form and meaning of an adequate number of words is a prerequisite for unassisted comprehension of written and spoken discourse" (p. 790). Therefore, assessing the breadth of vocabulary knowledge can estimate how many lexical units are known

by given speakers and gain insight into how many words speakers need to be familiar with to use and comprehend language in a given context.

4.2.2. Depth (use) of Vocabulary Knowledge

Webb (2013) argues that the depth of vocabulary knowledge covers aspects of vocabulary knowledge (**receptive and productive aspects altogether, which are explained in the upcoming section in details**).

Nation's (2001, 2013) provided the most comprehensive description of what is involved in knowing a word. Anderson & Freebody (1981) emphasised that "a person has a sufficient understanding of a word if it conveys to him or her all of the distinctions that would be understood by an ordinary adult under normal circumstances" (p. 93); Read (1993) considers the depth of vocabulary knowledge as the core for shaping the quality of word knowledge. Wesche & Paribakht (1996) defined depth "in terms of kinds of knowledge of specific words and terms of degrees of such knowledge" (p. 13). In this regard, Hendrickson (1999) and Read (2004) recommended that establishing clarity in defining the depth of vocabulary knowledge is needed and Hendrickson (1999) and Read (2004) suggested that dimensions of vocabulary knowledge help to identify how vocabulary has been measured. Although, the depth of vocabulary knowledge has been given attention in the first language (L1) studies (Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Mezynski, 1983) and second language (L2) studies (Qian, 1998, 1999, 2002; Read, 1990), Schmitt 2010 defined depth knowledge according to two perspectives:

- c. **Word-centered:** how well learners know a particular word. It is "the quality of understanding of the word" Anderson & Freebody (1981. p 93). Nation (2001) provided a framework within word-centered conceptualization that separates words into two dimensions: receptive and productive vocabulary. Word-centered, the depth of word

knowledge, can be further subdivided into two approaches: the *dimensions or components approach* and the *developmental approach* (Read, 2000). The dimensions approach considers the information students need to acquire about a particular word. In contrast, developmental approaches attempt to describe word knowledge on a scale ranging from complete lack of knowledge to full mastery.

- d. Lexicon-based** is a network of words that expresses the power and number of words associated semantically with each other in the learner's lexicon. Hendrickson (1999) conceptualizes depth of word knowledge as network knowledge; her view on lexicon-based focused on the links a word has with other semantically related words in the learner's lexicon. She points out that the development of vocabulary depth involves restructuring the network of words (Meara, 1996).

4. Aspects of Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge is multifaceted, depending on whether the words identified productive and receptive vocabulary.

4.1. Receptive Vocabulary Size

Receptive vocabulary occurs when learners recognize words passively during listening or reading in context; it is defined by Nation (2001, p. 24) as carrying "the idea that we receive language input from others through listening or reading and try to comprehend it." In other words, receptive vocabulary would involve reading or listening to a word and retrieving its meaning. Meara (1990) argued that receptive vocabulary knowledge is crucial for language learning because it provides a language basis to transform them into productive vocabulary knowledge.

4.2. Productive Vocabulary Size

Conversely, productive vocabulary conveys the idea of learners want to express something through speaking or writing. It retrieves the word and produces its appropriate spoken or written form (Fan, 2000; Zhou, 2010; Webb, 2008). Laufer (1998) divides productive vocabulary into a controlled and free vocabulary. Controlled productive vocabulary knowledge indicates the capacity to construct words assisted by given cue, while free productive vocabulary knowledge is the ability to use words spontaneously and without specific encouragement through writing independently. Vocabulary knowledge can be viewed as a continuum where words develop at the receptive size and grow to reach the productive one (Harding, Alderson & Brunfaut, 2015; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014; Zhou, 2010).

Meara (1990; cited in Nation 2001, p. 5) prefers to refer to these two concepts as passive and active vocabulary and "being the result of different types of associations between words." Active vocabulary may be activated by association with other words, while passive vocabulary can only be activated through external stimuli such hearing or seeing their forms. The associationist view of vocabulary has been criticised because vocabulary knowledge is not always associational but meaning-driven. In other words, a foreign language learner may be able to name an object in the L2 when they see it, and this does not have to connection with other L2 or L1 words. Moreover, (Faerch, Haastrup, and Phillipson, 1984 or Palmberg 1987) prefer to interpret this distinction between passive and active vocabulary as a continuum consisting of several layers of knowledge. Nation (2001, p.26) offers a wider vision of the concept and explains that "the terms receptive and productive apply to a variety of kinds of language knowledge and use." Noteworthy, that research on passive or receptive vocabulary has proved that this type of vocabulary is larger than an active or productive one. Following Laufer &

Goldstein (2004) elucidated that many words are acquired passively first, which is why active knowledge represents a more advanced degree of knowledge.

Figure 4

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge



Note, from “Teaching and developing vocabulary: Key to long-term reading success”
by J.J. Pikulski and S. Templeton (2004, p. 2)

4.2. How Many Words Does a Language Learner Need for Language Skills?

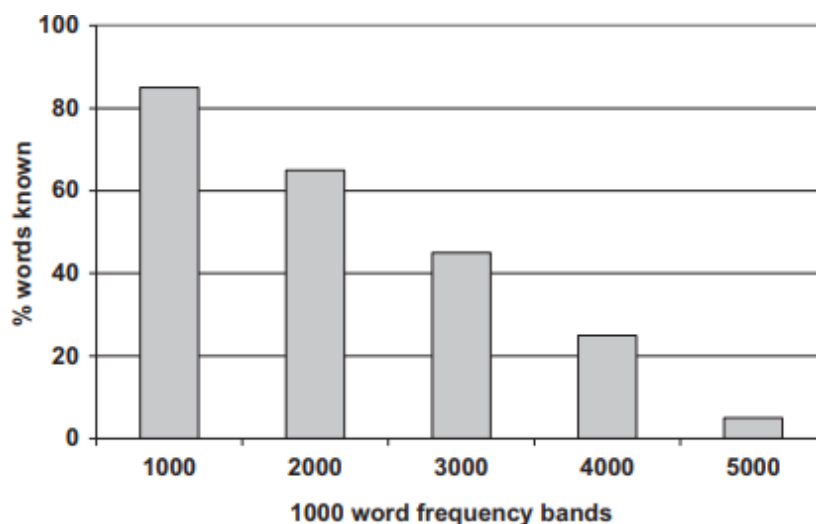
Full mastery of English words is beyond SL/FL learners and even for native speakers. (Golden et al, 1990; D'Anna, Zechmeister 1995; Hall,1991) Studies have shown that the average size of English native-speaking universities is about 20.000-word families, and they should be able to understand almost 80 % of the words in the text. The Cambridge Dictionary of American English includes more than 40,000 frequently used words and phrases used by learner McCarten (2007). Nation & Waring (1997, p. 7) assess vocabulary size, and they stated that native speakers do not know all the vocabulary of the language. Nation & Waring (1997, p. 7) claimed that:

The best conservative rule of thumb that we have is that up to a vocabulary size of around 20,000-word families, we should expect that [English] native speakers will add roughly 1,000-word families a year to their vocabulary size. This means that a [L1] five-year-old beginning school will have a vocabulary of around 4,000 to 5,000-word families. Nation & Waring (1997, p. 7)

Schmitt (2000) figured the complexity of learning words as the case of remembering between 20.000 and 50.000 telephone numbers with addresses and names connected with those numbers. The complexity of learning vocabulary in knowing all specific properties and how words are connected. Observably, vocabulary is a lifelong learning process, unlike grammar, is made up of limited rules (Crystal, 1987), they are gradually learned over time through exposure. It is acknowledged that a the lack of vocabulary results in difficulties in all four language skills. Thus, to develop their language skills, learners need to have sufficient vocabulary. Meara (1992) provided the following diagram to interpret the vocabulary profile of learners:

Figure 5

Vocabulary Profile of a Typical Learner



Note, from connected words, word associations, and second language vocabulary acquisition, Meara (1992, p. 4)

Therefore, knowing how much vocabulary is needed to master language skills (Nation, 1990), teachers may develop instructional strategies to help students expand their vocabulary. However, how many words as EFL learner must know to cope with authentic texts comprehension is still under investigation. Schmitt (2000) indicates that the number of words learners need to know also depends largely upon the accurate goal: around 2,000-word families should be the threshold for daily communication, but this will. Nation & Waring (1997, p. 10) propose around 2,000-3,000-word families are basically needed for productive speaking and writing. The claims are consistent with Allen (1983), who recommends that about 3,000 words would be necessary for 'productive' items in writing and speaking. Laufer (1998, p. 256) stated that the threshold is about 3,000-word families, while Nation and Waring (1997, p. 10) recommend that 3,000-5,000-word families are needed to comprehend or begin reading authentic texts. Hazenberg and Hulstijn (1996) recommended that 10,000 level is needed to solve the challenges of academic texts in university textbooks. Finally, 15,000 to 20,000 (Nation & Waring 1997, p. 10) represents native the speaker of English.

To round off the brief overview of this description, for mastering the language skills, a language learner must have a threshold of vocabulary: 2,000-word families for basic conversation; 2,000-3,000 for productive speaking and writing; 3,000-5,000 for texts comprehension; 10,000 for challenging university textbooks; and 15,000 to 20,000 to equal a proficient native speaker of English. enriching the vocabulary is one of the chief goals of vocabulary learning since language learners with rich and large vocabulary will succeed both

inside and outside the language classroom. Therefore, language learners should be taught skills known as LLSs to expand their vocabulary.

5. Testing Vocabulary Knowledge

5.1. Historical Overview of Vocabulary Testing

Teachers are naturally interested in testing students' improvement in language learning and, more specifically, in vocabulary progress in the teaching context. Traditionally, teachers attempted to normalize their vocabulary tests without standard vocabulary tests. Although, there has been an interest in measuring learners' vocabulary from the earliest time, Ebbinghaus (1885), was considered as the first modern researcher who concerned himself with systematic vocabulary measurement, he provides a self-assessment testing method. However, this method did not account for all aspects of word knowledge. Starch (1916) point out that psychometrics started to establish its destiny since vocabulary was one of the language elements commonly measured in these psychometric tests, Starch's (1916) tests measured vocabulary by preparing to match a list of foreign words to their English words. Unlike Ebbinghaus (1885), who measured productive vocabulary, Starch tested the receptive vocabulary. In 1964, this trend culminated in creating the *Test of English as a Foreign Language* (TOEFL), which included a separate vocabulary section similar to other standardized tests of the time.

Since the 1970s, the communicative approach to language pedagogy has emerged as a renowned linguists' view, affecting researchers' perceptions about vocabulary and how it should be tested. Recently, many scholars have rejected the isolationist method of testing vocabulary; they believe that vocabulary should be measured in context. Hence, in the most recent version of the TOEFL, implemented in 1998, vocabulary items are embedded in computerized reading passages (TOEFL, 1998a, 1998b). Therefore, Schmitt (2000. p,5) demonstrated:

If a teacher thinks vocabulary is important, it is worth including a vocabulary component in an assessment scheme to build positive attitudes toward vocabulary study. On the other hand, if vocabulary is stressed in classes but never addressed during the assessment, students might come away with the negative conclusion that vocabulary does not matter. Schmitt (2000, p.5)

There are various formal testing tools available for teachers and students to test a range of vocabulary testing available at <http://www.lognostics.co.uk/tools/> and <https://www.wgtn.ac.nz/lals/about/staff/paul-nation#vocab-tests>. In addition, however, there are other programs or applications to test vocabulary (Dodigovic & Agustín-Llach (2020) informally.

5.2. Why do we Want to Test?

Vocabulary testing aims initially to validate theories and models of the mental lexicon. For instance, test results have shown that L2 learners store the base form of a word; word derivations and inflections, and even how grammar learning could be prompted by word learning. Secondly, measurement results can provide valuable information for teachers, learners, and assessor because knowing how words are stored and learned helps to improve language course content and assessment. Milton (2009) stated that assessing vocabulary is not an easy task, and it is linked with several definitions of the concept of knowledge in vocabulary. Therefore, are several ways to measure student vocabulary knowledge. They may generally focus on figuring out means to motivate students to study and reveal their progress in learning new words. An achievement test is the most common one used to find out whether the students have mastered the words or not. Alternatively, a diagnostic test is used to discover learners' deficiencies or gaps in learning vocabulary to give specific attention to these areas. A placement

test is usually used to classify students according to their level. Finally, proficiency tests, such as the TOEFL (1998a, 1998b), indicate a learner's vocabulary size related to language proficiency.

Recently, the most typical vocabulary test has been used to estimate learners' vocabulary size, which means how many words they know (Breadth vocabulary knowledge) or to measure how well learners know the words (depth of vocabulary knowledge). However, almost all of the widely used vocabulary tests to date have been of the "size" variety, which is the most practical side of word knowledge testing to provide a good indication for overall students' performance in four skills (Milton, Wade, & Hopkins, 2010; Stæhr, 2008). If tests are part of proficiency tests, they need to cover a wide range of vocabulary, including all levels. For lower-level learners, frequency lists up to the 10,000-word level are suitable because such students are unlikely to know many words beyond this Nation (2001). Sampling from the most frequent 1,000 and 2,000 levels is often sufficient, especially for beginners. Nevertheless, for very advanced learners (and native speakers), it is necessary to sample all the words in a language. Language tests are commonly affecting three criteria (Dóczy & Kormos, 2016, Schmitt 2010, Long & Richards; 2007)

- **Validity:** This complex issue refers to how well a test measures what is supposed to test. For example, a vocabulary test in which a target word is embedded in a sentence or paragraph is supposed to measure knowledge of that word. Still, to answer that item, a learner must also know the other words in the context to read.
- **Reliability:** it is the stability of a test's behavior over time. If an examinee took a test several times, without their ability to change or rectify, the test would ideally produce the same score on each administration (perfect reliability). However, the reliability of tests may be affected by many factors such as motivation, readiness,

fatigue, and testing environment. If the test scores varied wildly, we would have no idea which particular score most closely to tester abilities.

- **Practicality:** Testing words that are more practical in the classroom. Thus, there is always a tension between having a test long enough to be valid and reliable yet short enough to be administered.

5.3. Assessing Productive Vocabulary Size

As discussed previously, different conceptualizations of vocabulary knowledge reflect different instruments to assess particular types of vocabulary knowledge. Hence, various tests of vocabulary size has been proposed (Nation & Beglar, 2007), for instance, the amount of information a person has about a particular word (deep knowledge tests measure how well certain words are known), (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996), word association with each other (Read, 1993), and the speed with which words are retrieved (Laufer & Nation, 2001), and finally, lexical profiles have measured the lexical richness in free production (Laufer & Nation, 1995; Bardel, Gudmundson & Lindqvist, 2012). The breadth of vocabulary knowledge is often known in many research studies as vocabulary size. It has been considered the core measure of a learner's vocabulary knowledge (Laufer & Paribakht 1998; Meara & Jones 1988). Meara (1996, p.37) stresses the importance of vocabulary size in the following quotation:

All other things being equal, learners with big vocabularies are more proficient in a wide range of language skills than learners with smaller vocabularies, and there is some evidence to support the view that vocabulary skills significant contribution to almost all aspects of L2 proficiency. Meara (1996, p.37)

Most instruments used to assess vocabulary size are based on word frequency because it helps us understand the number of lexicons. The connectionist views of vocabulary acquisition

argued that the more frequent words are acquired earlier, the more used lexical units. They added that frequent words were encountered with those used in everyday communication. Additionally, (Nation 2001; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014) point out that approximately 80% of written texts contain 2000 frequent words.

The most frequent test used to assess vocabulary size was developed by Nation (1983, 1990) and modified by Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham (2001). **The Vocabulary Level Test** is probably the most widely used vocabulary size test for L2 learners to measure vocabulary size according to different levels (2000, 3,000, 5,000, and 10,000). It is a quick diagnostic test and easy to interpret that can be used to measure the high-frequency words that have been learned. It also includes items from the Academic Word List, containing approximately 570-word families commonly found in academic texts. This test gives students a list of six words and definitions for three of the words in the list. They have to identify and match the word corresponding to each definition. The test was a reliable and valid vocabulary size measure in several studies (Huang 2006; Laufer 1992, 1996; Qian 1999, 2002). This test helps teachers decide which frequency bands need to work on and what type of teaching instructions are required to improve vocabulary acquisition.

Figure 6

Illustration Of Items in The Vocabulary Level Test at the 2.000-Word frequency

Choose the right word to go with each meaning, write the number of that word next to the meaning.			
1. Original	<input type="radio"/> Complete	1. Apply	<input type="radio"/> Choose By Voting
2. Private	<input type="radio"/> First	2. Select	<input type="radio"/> Become Like Water
3. Royal	<input type="radio"/> Not Public	3. Jump	<input type="radio"/> Make
4. Slow		4. Manufacture	
5. Sorry		5. Melt	
6. Total		6. Threaten	

Note, from "Learning Vocabulary in Another Language" by P; Nation (1999,p34.)

Another important test used to measure is the multiple-choice format of the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) was developed by Nation & Beglar (2007). In this test, students must select the correct definition of a word from a list of four that match the target word presented in a sentence. The test consists of eight to ten items for each of the fourteen frequency levels identified, based on the (BNC).

Figure 7

Illustration of Items in The Vocabulary Level Test at The First 1000 -Word Frequency

<p>1. SEE: They saw it.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Cut b. Waited For c. Looked At d. Started 	<p>2. TIME: They have a lot of time.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Money b. Good c. Hours d. Friends
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Note, from <https://www.lex tutor.ca/tests/vt/> by P. Nation & D. Beglar (2007).

Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (Laufer & Nation,1999) is a well-known productive format of the VLT; this test requires students to produce targeted words in the context of a sentence. The sentences are written so that the word to be used can be inferred from the sentence's meaning, and students are helped by being given the first letter of the word. This test contains 1,000-, 2,000-, 3,000-, 5,000-, and 10,000-word frequency bands and also for the AWL. Between eighteen and forty items represent each band.

The EVST, designed by Meara and his associates (1988), is a valuable and reliable test developed through two modes, paper-and-pencil, and computer-based tests. It is used as a yes/no checklist test. It is the most straightforward format of any vocabulary test for estimating L2 learners' vocabulary size where learners need to specify whether they know the meaning of a list of sixty words in five frequency bands (1,000–5,000) and decide whether they know each item by selecting 'yes' for a positive response and 'no' for a negative one (Schmitt, 2010).

Meara's test has some principal features; simplicity and rubrics. Schmitt (2010) proved that learners could achieve relatively higher scores with these tests' learners overestimate their vocabulary knowledge by providing an explicit comprehension of the vocabulary. Meara (1988) and his colleagues proved that the test provided unsatisfactory results particularly with learners whose L1 is cognate with English. Accordingly, the study of a group of L2 learners (Meara & Buxton, 1987) revealed that French and Italian learners undertook difficulty rejecting pseudo-words than Germanic ones because of the cognate effect.

Figure 8

Illustration Of Items in The Yes-No Test at the 2.000-Word frequency

For each word: if you know what it means, check the box beside the word, if you aren't sure, do not check the box.

1. galpin 2. impulse 3. suggest 4. advance 5. peculiar 6. benevolate

7. indicate 8. needle 9. destruction 10. compose 11. ager 12. debt

Note, from related words, word associations, and second language vocabulary acquisition. P, Meara (1992, p. 4)

Traditionally, to count the vocabulary size of text, they include some type of calculation based on type-token ratio—that is, the proportion of different words with the total number of words in the text. There exist many different type-token ratio calculations that aim to resolve the problem that, in shorter texts, the lexical variety might be higher, whereas in longer texts, words might be repeated more frequently, and as a result, lexical variety is inherently dependent on the length of the text. One of the most reliable of these measures has been the mathematical formula "Measure of Textual Lexical Density" (MTLD), which is the least dependent on text length (McCarthy & Jarvis 2010). These lexical variety measures assume that L2 learners with a larger vocabulary will demonstrate the greater lexical variety and repeat fewer words in their texts. This assumption, however, is not always met as tasks used to elicit the text can vary in their vocabulary demands.

5.4. Assessing the Receptive of Vocabulary Size

These tests are productive by nature and comprises a variety of productive tasks such as translating, producing free speech, or writing (Nation, 2010). The Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) is the most well-known of such tests and was designed to capture the initial stages in word learning through using a five-Scoring scale. Schmitt (2010) simplifies the testing from five to four scales, and he also argued, however, that "no current scale gives a full account of the incremental path of mastery of a lexical item, and perhaps acquisition is too complex to be so described" (p. 224).

Some vocabulary tests are based on the 'dimensions approach instead of developmental scale to design test word knowledge items. Besides, Reid (1993, 1998) designed a Word Associates Test (WAT), which assesses word associations based on the association of target words to each other. This test contains eight target words from which learners must choose four

semantically, and collocational words that are on the list. Some scholars, though, (Greidanus & Nienhuis 2001; Schoonen & Verhallen, 2008) have revised WAT to design a simple vocabulary test; they accommodate their learners' needs using six-option versions (three distracters and three responses) instead of eight-option ones (Read, 2004).

6. Vocabulary Knowledge, Language Proficiency, and Writing skills

6.1. Language Proficiency

Defining and determining proficiency is important in language learning. Until the 1970's phonology, vocabulary, and grammar bore the definition of proficiency. Thus, the traditional view of proficiency, as Brumfit (1984) used fluency as an alternative concept to proficiency and presented its definition as "the maximally effective operation of the language system so far acquired by the student" (p. 543). However, in more recent years, this narrow view of proficiency has been recognised; Carter & Nunan (2001) defined proficiency as the ability to communicate in SL/FL purposefully. For Richards, Platt, & Platt (1992), proficiency refers to learners' ability to comprehend or use language efficiently. Proficiency may be measured through the use of a proficiency test. "a person's overall competence and ability to perform in L2" Thomas (1994, p. 330), whereas Volmer (1981) defined language proficiency as what language tests measure.

The abovementioned definitions demonstrated that proficient learners with a specific degree of accuracy competence level: (grammar, vocabulary) represents an overbearingly adequate control of language fluency in all social interaction contexts (performance level). However, the relationship between proficiency, accuracy, and fluency is still controversial for many researchers. Recently, the major emphasis of proficiency definition is the word skills which is difficult to establish consensus in what constitutes skill in language and whether these

skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking should be separated from elements of knowledge such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and cultural awareness (Lado, 1961).

Nunan (1988) provided one of the most influential models of language proficiency which he termed communicative competence (the ability to use language to convey and interpret meaning), along with Canale & Swain's (1980) model and Canale (1983). Years later, Bachman (1990) proposed a more elaborate model of 'communicative language ability, that his model main idea was adapted from Munby (1978), Canale & Swain (1980), and an unpublished paper of Hymes (Toward linguistic competence, 1972). His model was later slightly revised by Bachman and Palmer (1996). Canale & Swain (1983), divided communicative competence into four separate axes: grammatical competence (the learner's knowledge of the vocabulary, phonology, and underlying rules of the language), discourse competence (the learner's ability to connect utterances), sociolinguistic competence (a learner's ability to use language appropriately) and strategic competence (a learner's ability to employ strategies to compensate for imperfect knowledge).

6.2. Measuring Vocabulary Size in Written Essays

There are several ways to measure vocabulary in written text depending on measuring word frequency, lexical variation (also known as the type /token ratio), lexical originality, lexical density, lexical sophistication, and lexical quality (Nation,2001). Perhaps the most valuable test provided by Laufer and Nation (1995,1999), **a productive parallel of the receptive vocabulary levels test** (Check section before) used to measure word frequency in written text, **Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP) or RANGE** by Nation & Heatley (1996)

(www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation.aspx) provides is a new modified version

from (Richards and Malvern, 1997) is a computer software analyses lexical diversity of written or

spoken output by providing of the percentage of word families at various frequency levels in a piece of written work. The program analyses the taped text by removing proper nouns and spelling errors, and it depends on two ways of analyzing data: a **full profile** provides the percentages of word families belonging to the 1,000 / 2,000 / UWL and other levels a **condensed profile** which fragmented into two levels the ‘Beyond 2,000’ measure (Laufer, 1995) which simply looks at the total percentage of word families that does not exist in the 1,000 and 2,000 levels, and a condensed measure for more advanced learners which looks at the percentage of word families, not in the 1,000, 2,000 and UWL levels(Nation 2001). **Void program** (Duran et al., 2004) and Coh-Metrix (Graesser et al., 2004) also measure lexical diversity and function as (LPF) by minimizing the test to 50 tokens. Meara (2005) used computational modeling to demonstrate that LFP analyses can reliably distinguish between learners whose vocabulary size is markedly different, but it was not found to be sensitive enough to detect smaller differences among learners.

X-Lex is a receptive vocabulary size test designed by Meara and Milton (2003), which provide an estimated size of the most frequent words used by learners (5000) through written test. It is a Yes/No format that contains 100 real words but also 20 pseudo-words that look like the word but do not exist in the dictionary (Milton & Alexiou,2020). The objective of the test is based on guesswork which is advantageous since it forces students to decide words. The adjusted scores X-Lex produces are an estimate of knowledge of the most frequent 5000. It is a reliable computer-delivered format that will likely last only 5 minutes and marks itself.

6.2. The Relationship between Vocabulary Knowledge and Writing Proficiency

Writing is a complex cognitive process requiring adequate linguistics knowledge since writers choose the syntactic pattern, morphological inflection, and vocabulary, combining them

to form a coherent piece of text. The linguistics knowledge especially, vocabulary play a focal role in the writing process (Hayes, 1996; Olinghouse & Leaird, 2009; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1989), and writing serves as an activity to square learners' vocabulary acquisition and writers much of lexical competence through writing tasks (Hyland, 2003; Silva, 1990). Nation (2001, p.263) stated that "Vocabulary choice is a strong indicator of whether the writer has adopted the conventions of the relevant discourse community." The relationship between writing and vocabulary is henceforth twofold (Schoonen, Gelderen, Stoel, Hulstijn, and de Gloppe, 2011) found that vocabulary knowledge highly correlated more with EFL writing proficiency "A rich vocabulary allows a writer to get a richness of thought onto paper." Harklau (2002, p. 338) stated that 'vocabulary knowledge has been shown to co-develop and co-vary significantly with literacy experiences. Although, the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and writing proficiency has attracted less attention in foreign language teaching (Malvern & Richards, 2002; Nation & Webb, 2011), it has investigated overall language proficiency, for instance, writing and speaking), he viewed that writing contributes to vocabulary development and vocabulary use enhance the writing quality. Llach (2011) pointed out that proficient learners with extensive vocabulary knowledge use various words in language activities more than less proficient learners with little vocabulary knowledge.

Additionally, Llach (2011) described vocabulary in writing assessment as quantitative scoring, which exists in every rating scale shows a strong correlation between lexical richness and writing quality. Moreover, Galan & Perez (2004) stated the role of vocabulary in teaching writing because it affords teachers facilities to organise and shape the general production of the text.

Flower and Hayes' (1994) model highlights that word selection is important in every writing phase. They added that long-term memory plays a crucial role in storing vocabulary grammar, topics, and audience knowledge. Scardamalia & Bereiter (1987) have suggested that developing writing depends on two types of knowledge: content knowledge (information about the topic) and discourse knowledge (e.g., genre). Vocabulary is a construction factor of each type of knowledge because different topics require different specialized words that must be selected carefully to suit properly content knowledge (Harmon, Hedrick, & Wood, 2005).

Otherwise, the vocabulary component contains word choice, vocabulary range, and no word choice errors. As for discourse knowledge, Olinghouse & Wilson (2013) reported that vocabulary use and choice are critically determined by different genres, namely for informative, persuasive, and story texts. In their study by Olinghouse & Wilson (2013) on fifth-grade native speakers of English, story writing had more vocabulary diversity than informative texts. Also, informative texts included more content words than stories and persuasive texts. Furthermore, the latter contained a higher register than both of the other genres. These findings show that vocabulary is one of significant criteria and predictors in defining a particular genre (Laufer, 1994). In study introduced by (Stotsky 1986) revealed that the low-rated essays contained an average of 82 words and 54 different words, while the high-rated essays contained an average of 145 words and 84 different words.

The relationship between writing quality and lexical diversity endures controversy. Engber (1995) investigated this relationship with 66 SL learners from mixed L1 backgrounds. The students were asked to write an essay about the same topic. TTR was used to measure the lexical diversity segmented into two types: lexical variation with error and error-free variation. The results revealed a significant relationship between writing quality and lexical diversity.

Jarvis (2002) also explores the relationship between writing and vocabulary knowledge by dealing with the issue of L1 background. He grouped the test subject according to learners' shared backgrounds. The two groups are SL Finnish and Swedish students. After 8 minutes of film watching, the students were asked to narrate the film theme. The results brought different conclusions, and it was found that the correlation between lexical diversity and writing quality may be influenced by L1 background. For instance, there was a significant correlation with writing quality in the narratives of Swedish participants, but the correlations for Finnish participants and native speakers were low and not significant.

Another factor that may influence the relationship between writing quality and lexical diversity was investigated in Olinghouse and Wilson's (2013) study, which is the text genre. He explores the relationship between vocabulary and writing quality by comparing L1 and L2 across different writing genres (narrative, persuasive, and informative). The results indicate that students vary their vocabulary usage depending on different genres. For example, the narrative test has greater lexical diversity than persuasive and informative. Furthermore, the statistical results revealed a significant difference in the contribution of vocabulary on the writing quality depending on text genres.

Wang (2014) investigated the relationship between lexical diversity and writing proficiency levels of Chinese high school students based on writing emails. The main purpose of the email as a writing task was to apply for university entrance. The participants were asked to introduce themselves in approximately 100 words. *Range and D* tools were used in this study to measure the lexical diversity of email texts to examine whether lexical diversity in these email texts was significantly different for higher and lower proficiency levels. The results revealed a lack of relationship between lexical diversity and writing proficiency levels. Consequently,

lexical diversity does not influence the quality of writing because lexical diversity describes simply how often different words are used but not how they are used, where they are used, or what the different words are. Furthermore, participants who used a greater vocabulary diversity may use mistakes, resulting in lower overall text quality because of insufficient knowledge of the grammatical structures can contribute to the complex vocabulary being used.

Conclusion

Vocabulary is the key component to develop language proficiency; it provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read, and write. It is generally agreed that knowing words entails knowing different aspects and features encountered and how to use them. We also indicated that learners and even native speakers couldn't master all language vocabulary. The evidence points to the two dimensions of vocabulary knowledge and how it could be measured. Without adequate strategies for learning new vocabulary, learners often achieve less than their potential ability and may be discouraged from using vocabularies in different learning context.

Chapter Three: The Use of Language Learning Strategies in Language Skills

Introduction

Chapter one represents a basic understanding of second and foreign LLSs; It analyses definitions of LLSs and related terms, alongside it traces the development of strategy research. A major section of this chapter is devoted to narrating LLS taxonomies intensively. The final section focuses on providing potential applications of LLSs in two daunting language learning areas, such as vocabulary and writing skills.

1. Tangle Definitions of LLSs

LLS (**this concept used for the first time in 2004, before they used learner strategies or learning strategies**) are not newly theme in the field of language learning and teaching, and it is a multidimensional and controversial research area that gained vibrancy in the mid of seventies, especially with pioneers' work in the field of learner strategy research such as Rubin and Stern (1975). Their work on LLSs was derived initially to identify the characteristics of good language learners, which triggered them later to study the impact of LLSs on language learners. Rubin's (1975) article "What the 'Good Language Learner' Can Teach Us" introduced language learning in language acquisition and learning. Later on (Rubin, 1975, p. 43) defined LLSs as "techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge; she introduced a very broad definition which involves plenty of questions related to instruments to assess LLSs." Although, the concept strategy in language learning has been difficult to define and stimulated with lack of consensus of what constitutes strategy (Oxford, 2011) and it creates a tangle to provide a clear definition of (LLSs), and it has been acknowledged as a vague term in LT (Ellis, 1994, p.529). Traditionally strategy was viewed as a plan of action that is carried out consciously (Oxford, 1993), while current strategy is a mental action employed actively by

learners to improve their learning (Anderson, 2005), and it is linked to what the learners do (Griffiths (2013). Hence, Rubin and Rubin (1987, p.19) argued that LLSs as "any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information." According to Rubin, the term routines entail repeated and sequenced actions; he believes that LLSs are actions organised regularly. Likewise, Ellis (1985) defines learning strategies as techniques, approaches, methods, or intentional actions that help learners master new L2 rules and automate existing ones consciously or subconsciously. He further explains it as the mental processes of acquiring and using the L2 (Ellis,1985, p. 299-300). The fundamental idea was later perfected by Macaro (2006), who appealed those strategies are mental in the sense that all strategies occur in mind or are guided by mind. However, Macaro (2001) inquired about whether strategies can be clearly defined as a conscious or subconscious process, and he argued that strategy as part of the subconscious to conscious continuum (p.22)

Researchers such as O'Malley (1987), Oxford (1990), Wenden (1991), Cohen (1998), Chamot (2001), Schmitt, N., & McCarthy (1997), Macaro (2001) have suggested many definitions to come up with a clear description of LLSs. They associated them inevitably with their sphere of interest. One of the most frequent definitions that have been cited in the literature was provided by (Oxford 1990). She defines (LLSs) as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p. 8). It definitively reflects the learner's role and what specific actions the learner intends to take during the learning process. Accordingly, Oxford (2011) stressed that actions in strategy often entail a process but never a product. Individuals use special thoughts and behaviour to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information; (O'Malley and Chamot 1990, p. 1). Cohen (2011, p.07) presented the most topical comprehensive description

of strategies, and he emphasised the two important characteristics that differentiate strategic from non-strategic learners, such as choice and consciousness. He provided the following definition (Cohen,2011, p.07)

Thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very onset of learning to the most advanced levels of target-language performance.

Unexpectedly, at the beginning of the 20th-century, many overthrowing arguments voiced to withdrawing the L2 learning strategy research utterly. For example, Dörnyei (2005) claimed that L2 learning strategy research does not exist, and he calls for moving down entirely this research area. In contrast, Gu (2012) argued that an appeal to abandon the learning strategy concept "is not a healthy sign" (p. 330) because the "fuzzy" nature of (LLSs) should not serve as an obstacle to continue or the fundamental research on (LLSs). The view was likewise supported by Pawlak (2011a) and Rose (2012), who criticised Dörnyei's (2005) arguments severely due to overgeneralisation views neglecting straightforward development that the researchers reached in the field. Rose (2012) also viewed the idea of arguing the field of strategy research to be "throwing out the baby with the bathwater" – a sobering image (cited in Oxford,2011. p.10).

Recently Oxford (2011, pp.07-64) provided a content analytics study of strategy definitions based on mainly L2 selected and chronological 33 definitions started from definitions presented in 1975; she employed axial coding procedures from the grounded theory approach; the analysis of results revealed that most definitions focus on the form of strategy which includes Oxford (2017) IA, thoughts, cognitions, and other internal phenomena (primarily what learners think); IB, actions (what learners do); IC, techniques, devices, tools, and methods (what learners use); ID, behaviors (how learners act); and, IE, general tendencies (how learners broadly

approach learning). Oxford (2011, p.20) further supported the mentalism view of strategies supervised by Macaro (2006), who emphasised the mental storage of strategies and the role of working memory. Oxford provides the following schemata (2011, p.20).

Figure 9

The Form of Strategies Identified in Definitions Indicating Mental Action (Process) As the Central Feature for All Strategy Form



Note, from teaching and researching language learning strategies, by RL Oxford (2011,p.20).

As indicated above, (LLSs) have the potential to be “an extremely powerful learning tool” (O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo, 1985) that explicitly enhance second language learning. Therefore, valuable and appealing studies have been carried out to reveal the importance of language learning strategies on the learning process, especially at the proficiency level.

2. The Development of LLSs Theory

Macaro (2009) spotted two developmental motives for the birth of (LLSs)

- The pedagogy shift from teacher/teaching centered: This shift was significantly discussed by Macaro (2001) once he provided some chronological definitions of LLSs by many

researchers; he noticed the absence particularly the words (teacher/teaching) in those definitions, and they centered only on the interference of students learning practice.

- The gradual changes of beliefs of the researchers about language learning: Over the years, there have been numerous methods and approaches of language teaching and learning in which the theoretical basis has come and went in and out of fashion, for instance, the grammar-translation method, the audio-lingual method, the communicative approach). Griffiths & Parr (2001) were increasingly attracting the interest of contemporary researchers because of their potential efforts to enhance learning.

Until 1960, language learning was argued as a psychological phenomenon, and the behaviorist theories approached learning as habit formation -stimulus-response behaviour. Thus, "the audio-lingual was commonly seen as a major shifting point in this history of language teaching methods. It attracted the attention of linguists who are already looking for an alternative to grammar-translation and no more boring grammar rules! No more vocabulary lists! No more hours spent translating tedious texts. The audio-lingual depends on repetition and phrasal drills as typical behaviour. Thus, there was even less place for individual LLSs in audio-lingual theory because there was little or no recognition given to any conscious contribution to individual learners; except, in a very limited form in the exercising of memory and cognitive strategies through repetition and substitution exercises, and even this was rarely if ever, made explicit.

Consequently, learners were discouraged from taking the initiative in the learning situation (Richard, Rodgers, & Theodore, 1986). By the end of the sixties, however, the limitations of the audio-lingual method were beginning to make themselves obvious. They abandon the idea of restricting learners' ability only to translate things, demanding grammar rules, found endless repetition boring.

The late sixties and beginning of the 1970s, it was manifested by the gradual shift of researcher attention away from the teacher and his/her method of teaching to the learner and his/her learning outcomes and behaviour, and it was highly boosted by the contribution of Chomsky theories (1965,1968). Chomsky postulated that all normal human beings are born with a Language Acquisition Device which enables them to develop language from an innate set of principles, and he called for Universal Grammar. Chomsky's theory of Transformational-Generative Grammar (1970) explains that the underlying learners' competence could help him to generate the original word. Chomsky believed that behaviorist theory could not explain the complexities of generative grammar. He shows that current notions of habit and generalisation, as "determinants of behaviour or knowledge, are quite inadequate" (Chomsky, 1968, p.84).

Although, Chomsky's theories are directly related to first language learners, he considers learners a generator of rules. Another effective method in the language teaching movement was called "communicative competence" by Hymes (1972). Communicative competence is the ability to use and understand language effectively, "the communicative approach implicitly encourages learners to take greater responsibility for their learning" (Oxford et Ehrman, 1989, p.33). Furthermore, Hymes (1972) communicative competence takes account of social conditioned aspects of language (Cohen& Macaro,2007), unlike Chomeskyan communicative competence that obviously deliberate deep innate structures toward language learning view and it was later divided by Canale & Swain (1980) into four separate components: communicative competence included grammatical competence (a certain level of grammatical knowledge) rather than sociolinguistic and discourse competence. Crucially (for our purposes), contains strategic competence, which are 'the compensatory communication strategies to handle deficiencies in other competencies

Canale & Swain (1980, p.27). These strategies did not lead directly to language learning, but it is used to overcome learning shortages and facilitate learning. Corder (1967) likewise argued that language errors committed by EFL learners indicate the development of underlying linguistic competence and reflect the learners' proficiency level.

Consequently, this view of language learning reflects the idea of a learner's ability to control his learning. McLaughlin's (1978) and Bialystok & Ellis's (1978) contributions aimed to discover how learners employ learning strategies to promote language learning. They recommended that teachers limit their role with applying the best method and active learner involvement in the learning process (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Naiman & Frohlich, Stern, 1975). Krashen and Stephen's (1976; 1977) ideas of learners' ability to control their learning consciously have been firmly criticised over the years. Gregg (1984, p.94) voiced the criticism that each of Krashen's hypotheses is marked by serious flaws," while Pienemann (1985; 1989) challenged the claims of the acquisition learning hypothesis, he postulated the necessity of student self-readiness to learn the language. Despite the many challenges, Krashen's views have remained very influential in language teaching and learning.

Moreover, (Rubin 1975; Stern, 1975) investigated the characteristics that make good language learners, which bode the birth of strategy research. Rubin (1975, p. 31) proposed a list of seven characteristics of a good language learner, including "the willingness and ability to guess the meaning of unknown words, the willingness to monitor one's speech, a strong drive to communicate, a willingness to attend to both form and meaning, and a lack of inhibition". Rubin (1975, p. 31).

To sum up, these various methods and approaches have influenced the contemporary educational context which has tended in recent years to become much more eclectic in its

attitudes Larsen-Freeman (1987) and Tarone and Yule (1989). Despite these modern views toward teaching and learning, educators are becoming increasingly aware of the learners' contribution because they argue that learning is an active process (Rivers, 1983, p.134)

3. LLSs Taxonomies

LLSs have been identified and described by researchers. Consequently, Oxford, 1990; Bialystok, 1981; O'Malley et al., 1985; Willing, 1988; Stern, 1992; Ellis, 1994) have classified, categorised, and linked them to various cognitive processing phases during language learning, but also assisted in creating instructional frameworks. By classifying LLSs, both teachers and students can identify the existing strategies and consider them when they teach or master SL and FL learning. O'Malley *et al.* (1985, p.22) stated that

There is no consensus on what constitute a learning strategy in second language learning or how these derive 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.

Nunan (1999) and O'Malley & Chamot (1990) conducted concluding remarks about two different types of learners about the application of learning strategies, and they found out that more effective learners used a variety of strategies which help them master the language, while the less effective learners used a small number of strategies. Oxford (1990) shows the key features of LLSs:

- Communicative competence is the main contribution

- Train learners to become self-directed learners.
- Expand the role of teachers.
- Problem-oriented.
- Does the learner take specific actions?
- Involve cognitive aspect of learner rather than other aspect
- Support directly and indirectly learning.
- Often conscious and flexible that can be taught.
- A variety of factors influences them.

3.1. O'Malley's (1985) Taxonomy

O'Malley *et al.* (1985) divided language-learning strategies into three main categories: Metacognitive Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, and Socio-affective Strategies.

A. Metacognitive Strategies

O'Malley *et al.* (1985) stated that metacognitive is the processes of language use and learning, and for taking steps to plan or replan and regulate or monitor those processes efficiently; it is self-management strategies that help learners to control their cognition planning for learning, thinking about the learning process, observing of one's production or comprehension, correcting your own mistakes, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. According to O'Malley's classification, advance organisers directed attention, selective attention, self-management, operational planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, and self-evaluation are major metacognitive strategies.

B. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies have been ascribed mostly as strategies requiring a learner's mental processing that helps the learner remember and retrieve language. They are more limited to specific learning tasks to manipulate the natural process of learning (Brown, 2007). It deals "with the crucial nuts and bolts of language use" (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p.19); it refers to the manipulation of information in the task to acquire or retain that information repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note-taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, keyword, contextualisation, elaboration, transfer, and inference are among the most important cognitive strategies. The paramount role of mental operation is to modify, organise the input and embed it with prior knowledge (Cohen, 2011; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Brown (1980, p.80) suggests that "SLA involves cognitive processes that consist of many types of learning, and every individual utilises a variety of strategies and styles to master the language". Chamot & Omalley (1994) argued that learning is active and dynamic. The proposed categories include cognitive strategies inferencing, summarising, deduction, imagery, and transfer (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994, p. 61; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, pp. 44–45).

C. Socio-affective Strategies

Socio-affective strategies correlate with social-mediating activity and interacting with others to understand a new language. It is a technique used to deal with emotional and socio-cultural challenges that learners encounter in their learning process. The main socio-affective strategies include two sub-strategies: cooperation and question for clarification and self-talk (Brown, 2007).

3.2. Rubin's (1987) Taxonomy

In 1981, Rubin (pp.124-126) identified two kinds of learning strategies: those, which contribute directly to learning, and those, which contribute indirectly to learning. Direct strategies include meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies, and indirect strategies include communicative and social strategies. According to Rubin (1981), there are three types of strategies used either by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. They are A. Learning Strategies, B. Communication Strategies, and C. Social Strategies.

A. Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are divided into two main types (Cognitive Learning Strategies and Metacognitive Learning Strategies). **Cognitive strategies** refer to the steps or operation taken in learning or problem-solving that involves direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials Rubin (1987) identified. Rubin identifies six major cognitive learning strategies contributing directly to language learning: Clarification / Verification, Guessing / Inductive Inferencing, Deductive Reasoning, Practice, Memorization, and Monitoring. Metacognitive strategies are used to supervise, control, or self-direct language learning. **Metacognitive Learning Strategies** are used to regulate or self-direct language learning. It involves various processes like planning, prioritising, setting goals, and self-management.

A. Communication Strategies

Communication strategies are less directly related to language learning since their emphasis is on communication through conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. Communication strategies are involved by speakers when they tackled some troubles regarding their communication and conversation or when confronted with

a misunderstanding by the audience. A usual communication strategy uses one's linguistic or communicative knowledge to stay behind in the conversation.

A. Social Strategies

Social strategies are activities in which learners are exposed to the opportunities that can be a great help to practice their knowledge by interacting with peers and communicating with the outside classroom. Even though these strategies offer exposure to the target language, they contribute to learn indirectly since they do not lead directly to obtain, store, retrieve, and use language (Rubin, 1987). For instance, asking questions to diagnose the social relationships, asking for an explanation or verification, and cooperating with others to accomplish the learning tasks" are the core social strategies (Cohen, 2011). Moreover, social strategies increase the practice of additional learning opportunities and motivation, and it also overlaps chances of feedback from peers.

3.3. Oxford's (1990) Taxonomy

Referring to the literature, Oxford (1990) provides one of the most inclusive taxonomies of LLSs called **the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)**. In addition, Oxford (1990) provided different lists of many strategies proposed by Chamott and O'Malley (1990). are: Direct strategies are implemented directly to learn a target language. As Oxford (1990) said "all direct strategies require mental processing of the language" (p.37). this group belongs - memory strategies entail the mental processes that help the learners store and rehearse new information; cognitive strategies manipulate different tool to produce new; while compensation strategies help learners to compensate many learning gaps. These strategies to consist of four sets that include:

- a.** Creating mental linkages through creating images and sounds association

- b. Reviewing well, and
- c. Employing action.

Cognitive strategies entail conscious ways of creating a structure for input and output and fall into four sets which include **Oxford's (1990)** :

- a. Practicing
- b. Receiving and sending messages
- c. Analysing and reasoning

According to Oxford (1990), compensation strategies are employed by learners when facing a temporary breakdown in speaking or writing. These strategies are divided into two sets:

- a. Applying Guessing technique intelligently from the context
- b. Overcoming deficiencies in speaking and writing.

Indirect strategies are used to support learning without involving the target language directly. This category comprises metacognitive strategies that help learners to develop self-control of learning, effective strategies help learners manage their emotions and motivation, and social strategies help them cooperate and learn with their peers. taxonomy is very broad and unclear division which group of strategies is used for accomplishing different learning tasks. for example, there is no clear division between memory and cognitive strategies. Indirect strategies, which "contribute indirectly but powerfully to learning" (Oxford, 1990, pp. 11-12), are also subdivided into three groups: metacognitive, affective, and social strategies, subdivided into six classes. Indirect strategies provide indirect filtering of a new language by employing different strategies such as focusing, arranging, evaluating, seeking opportunities, and lowering anxiety Oxford's (1990). Managing the learning process, planning, monitoring, and evaluating the results

is part of metacognition (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994, p. 61; Cohen, 2011, p. 19; Oxford, 1990, p. 137); it fosters learners' ability to control their cognition. They are strategies involve basically cognitive process via overviewing and linking with material already known, paying attention, delaying speech production, organising, setting goals and objectives, planning for a language task, looking for practice opportunities, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating. Oxford (1990) argued that

“Language learners are often overwhelmed by too much "newness" -unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing rules, different writing systems, seemingly inexplicable social customs, and (in enlightened language classes) nontraditional instructional approaches” (Oxford, 1990, p. 136).

Affective strategies are form of social behaviour assist students in managing their emotional temperature, motivation, and attitudes associated with learning. Generally speaking, learners use these strategies to reduce an anxiety, encourage himself to accomplish learning tasks. Social strategies facilitate language learning through interactions with others. These strategies are divided into three sets: asking questions, cooperating, and empathizing with others. Several studies (Demirel, 2012; Patil & Karekatti, 2012 Anderson 2003; Cohen 1998; Ellis, 2008; Huang & Nisbet, 2014; Kayaoğlu, 2013; Kouritzin, 2012) have been promoted from the use of SILL, because it provides a general picture of the strategy used rather than on specific use of those strategies on particular language task Oxford (1990).

3.4. Stern's (1992) Taxonomy

Stern (1992) classified language learning strategies into five groups. They are as follows:

a. Management and Planning Strategies

These strategies are connected with the learner's purpose to control his learning. A learner can take responsibility for improving his planning when the teacher supports him only as an adviser or a resource of knowledge. In other words, the learner must:

1. Decide what dedications to make language learning,
2. Point out reasonable objectives,
3. Decide on a suitable methodology, select proper resources, monitor progress, and
4. Evaluate his success based on previously determined objectives and expectations.

b. Cognitive Strategies

These strategies encompass procedures and activities that learners apply to improve their ability to learn, remember, and solve the problems, especially those that learners use with specific classroom tasks. Stern (1992) indicated that the cognitive strategies include, clarification / verification, guessing, inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorisation, and monitoring.

c. Communicative - Experiential Strategies

Communication strategies are technique used by learners to avoid interrupting the course of communication and follow the conversation smoothly such as gesturing, paraphrasing, or asking for repetition and explanation. In other words, communication strategies involve using verbal or nonverbal instruments to transfer knowledge effectively.

d. Interpersonal Strategies

According to Stern (1992), interpersonal strategies are self-monitor and self- evaluate their used by students to evaluate language performance. Learners need to have communication with

native speakers and cooperate with them. In addition, learners need to get familiar with the target language's culture.

e. **Affective Strategies**

Evidently, good language learners use vast range of effective strategies in language learning. Sometimes, learning context is influenced by learning factors such as frustration to learn another language, unfamiliarity, and confusion. In some other cases, learners might not have a positive perspective towards native speakers or anxiety about talking in front of peers or making mistakes can be improved by employing proper strategies. Thus, affective strategies can, thus, enhance self-esteem (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). Therefore, good language learners are relatively aware of the importance of emotions; they try to build positive feelings and attitudes towards the FL and native speakers, and the learning activities.

3.4. Cohen (2011) Taxonomy

Cohen's (2011) contemporary classification of (LLSs) was based on a) distinguishing concepts, b) classification according to language skills and classification according to function, and finally classification by age.

a) distinguishing concepts (language learning strategies vs. language use strategies)

Cohen (2011) discriminate against two types of LLSs (the use of language materials for the first time) and language use strategies (the use of already learned materials). His classification merely focused on which strategies contribute directly to learning and which contribute to using the language.; he categorised those strategies into four sub-set strategies as retrieval strategies, rehearsal strategies, coping strategies, and communication strategies:

- **Retrieval Strategies:** Memory rehearsal strategies call the language material stored in the memory.

- **Rehearsal strategies:** it is connected with rehearsing the structure-form of language materials
- **Coping Strategies:** It contains other sub-categorisations: **compensate strategies** which are used to compensate for lack of specific knowledge about language materials (this includes lexical avoidance, simplification, and approximation) and *cover strategies* is learner's self-control of language ability it is used to create an impression of controlling language materials(memorisation)
- **Communication strategies** focused on conveying formative and meaningful messages, creatively expressing a meaning, or solving conversation problems through verbal and non-verbal devices (negotiation, paraphrasing, clarification, posing, and using fillers such as uh and um). Cohen (2011, p.15) indicated that Communication strategies were seen to include the following:
 1. **Intralingual Strategies:** overgeneralising a grammar rule or vocabulary meaning from one context to another where it does not apply.
 2. **Interlingual Strategies.**
 - negative transfer (i.e., applying the patterns of the L1 or L0 in the LT where those patterns do not apply)
 - Topic avoidance or abandonment
 - Message reduction
 - Code-switching paraphrasing (i.e., using synonymous words or phrases or ambiguity).

b) Classification according to language area(skills)

Cohen (2011) regarded those skills as a person's ability to do something and strategies as an operational process to personalize those skills and sub-systems of language skills (grammar,

vocabulary, and translation) (**further description about this classification will be discussed in the next sections**).

C)Classification According to Function

Cohen's (2011) classification of (LLSs) was apparently influenced by the work of (Chamot 1987; Oxford 1990; Oxford, 2011). He sustained identical categorisations: metacognitive, cognitive, affective, or social. However, he contended that there is no clear cut between cognitive and metacognitive function, and “both types of strategies may be engaged simultaneously in an overlapping way” (20).

d)classification by age, proficiency level, and gender

Cohen (2011) presents other ways to classify strategies. Initially, he described age as the foremost variable to classify strategies. He issued this classification with how learners use different strategies at different age levels and how these strategies are described to learners. According to Cohen (2011), it would be easy to explain or talk about strategies such as planning and evaluation to old learners more than young learners because they need a simple explanation. The second way to classify (LLSs) would be related to proficiency level. The mutual claim suggested that more proficient learners apply strategies fewer than non-proficient learners because of the master of operationalising strategies effectively, O'Bryan and Hegelheimer (2009). Lastly, Cohen (2011) regarded gender as part of cultural and subcultural matters. Thus, the biological differences between both genders play a crucial role that permits individuals to assume themselves.

In light of the definitions above and taxonomies, various studies issued two features or dichotomies related to LLSs, such as knowledge and action. First, Macaro (2009) claimed that learners need to know the strategies they might use even if they don't. The second dichotomy is

the size of strategy; Macaro (2009) concluded his discussion of this feature based on the research of (Naiman et al., 1978, Ikeda and Takeuchi, 2000, Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001, Macaro,2006) by inventing what is called" (p15). The 'clusters of strategies combine smaller strategies to build flexible strategies and achieve the learning purpose because no one strategy can function effectively in isolation; a series or sequence of strategies would be needed to interact successfully (Cohen & Macaro,2007).

3. Research Findings Regarding LLSs Use

Recent strategy research has focused on detecting the factors that determine the quality and quantity with which learners use LLSs and its impact on other variables, particularly on language proficiency. Most of the studies were interested in defining the characteristics of good language learners based on the most preferred quality and overall LLSs frequency use to increase and help average and weaker learners with learning opportunities.

4.1. LLSs for L2 vocabulary

Vocabulary is stored and organised interconnectedly; it works as a systematic network (Nation,2001). The teacher should remember that students need to be exposed to the word before teaching them. Schmitt (2000) states that "one approach to facilitating vocabulary learning is vocabulary learning strategies" (p. 132). Vocabulary language strategies (VLSs) are part of language learning strategies that have received attention in the 1970s. They focus on creating mental contexts and linking words association. (Schmitt, 2000; Thornbury, 2002; Takač, 2008; Oxford, 1990; Schmitt, 2000)

VLS and vocabulary learning is one of the longstanding topics in L2 studies; vocabulary learning involves the process of dealing with new words and retrieving the words that are already learned. therefore, when defining VLSs, two processes should be considered. VLSs are part of

VLSs, including conscious thoughts and actions that language learners use to help themselves learn new vocabulary and enhance vocabulary that they already know. Cameron (2001, p.92) defined VLSs as "actions that learners take to help themselves understand and remember vocabulary". Asgari and Mustapha (2011, p.85) have defined VLSs as "steps taken by the language learners to acquire new English words". Despite these definitions, we can say that VLSs is a learning tool used to discover the meaning of words and retrieve them from long-term memory. Language learners need to learn and know how to record stores and practice new words using different vocabulary learning strategies (Miller and Gildea, 1987; Nation, 1990).

According to Nation (2001, p. 271), VLSs have the following features:

1. Involve choice; that is, there are several strategies to choose from
2. Be complex, that is, there are several steps to learn
3. Require knowledge and benefit from training
4. Increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use. Nation (2001, p. 271),

4.2. Classifications of VLSs

Several classifications of VLSs have already been proposed by several researchers (Rubin and Thompson,1994; Gu and Johnson,1996; Lawson and Hogben,1996; Schmitt,1977; Nation,2001) to understand different strategies.

Gu and Johnson (1996) have developed new taxonomy of VLs depending on Chinese university student responses to self-reporting questionnaires. The results showed that learners use six types number of strategies. Moreover, they identified two crucial factors that affect vocabulary learning such as (1) beliefs about vocabulary learning that related to learners' awareness and decision to select words that are adequate and essential for text comprehension (2) metacognitive regulation includes strategies for selective attention and self-initiation to regulate

and clarify meaning of vocabulary through the use of a variety of techniques. The VLS stands on three broad taxonomies:

a. Cognitive strategies: This includes

- **Guessing strategies:** learners use background knowledge/wider context linguistic cues/immediate context.
- **Dictionary strategies:** Learners apply to lookup strategies for the target words.
- **Note-taking strategies:** learners use meaning-oriented and note-taking strategies

b. Memory strategies: It contains

- **Rehearsal strategies:** Using word lists, oral repetition, and visual repetition.
- **Encoding strategies:** Association/ Elaboration, imagery, visual encoding, auditory encoding, word structure, semantic encoding, contextual encoding.

c. Activation strategies: Pertains to using newly learned words in various contexts, remembering lists by picturing them in specific locations, establishing an acoustic and image link between an L2 word to be learned and a word in L2 that sounds similar.

Lawson and Hogben (1996, pp. 118-119) classified VLSs based on the data gathered from think-aloud procedure and interviews conducted on 15 university students learning Italian in Australia. The individual vocabulary learning strategies were categorised under four different groups, The first group comprises five strategies, the second three strategies, the third four strategies, and the fourth three strategies for learning vocabulary items. And they asserted that those strategies should be taught explicitly during teaching instruction through:

- 1. Repetition:** It includes strategies related to the reading of the related word, simple rehearsal, writing of word and meaning, cumulative rehearsal, and testing.

2. **Word Feature Analysis:** Strategies related to word forms such as spelling, word classification, and suffix.
3. **Simple Elaboration:** Strategies related to sentence translation include simple context, appearance similarity, and sound link.
4. **Complex Elaboration** includes complex use of context, paraphrasing, and mnemonic.

Schmitt's (1997) classification is currently considered the most comprehensive, the most employed, and appropriate taxonomy developed so far for learning words in English. (Kudo, 1999; Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013; Tanyer & Ozturk, 2014), which the researcher extracted from Oxford's (1990), developed the taxonomy based on the research that he did with Japanese learners. Schmitt's (1997, pp. 207-208) taxonomy contains 55 strategies, and they are:

1. **Discovery strategies:** it is used to discover learning of words, it includes
 - Determination strategies (DET): it is used by individuals when they want to discover a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's expertise;
 - Social strategies (SOC): use the interaction with other people to improve language learning.
2. **Consolidation strategies:**
 - Social strategies (SOC): Have group work to learn or practice vocabulary;
 - Memory strategies (MEM): Relate the new material to existing knowledge;
 - Cognitive strategies (COG): The learner exhibits the common function of manipulating or transforming the target language.
 - Metacognitive strategies (MET): Involve a conscious overview of the learning process and make decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best way to study.

Schmitt (1997) presented a new taxonomy that focused on vocabulary learning. This taxonomy is divided into strategies into two main categories: discovery and consolidation. Discovery helps learners to discover the meaning of words through determination strategies used to guessing the meaning from context, and social strategies involves interaction with teachers or classmates facilitates to discover of the meaning of a new word.

On the other hand, consolidation strategies help the learners to remember the words they have learned. These strategies are memory strategies which involve the relationship between the target words and previous knowledge, cognitive strategies involve repetition of new words either writing or spoken form; and metacognitive strategies is a self-conscious decision about the best ways to learn new word. Moreover, this category also includes social strategies, which mainly consist of interactions with peers.

Nation's (2001) taxonomy is constructed upon various aspects of word knowledge and contexts of vocabulary learning. The first categories are planning vocabulary learning, i.e., choosing words. In other words, learners should specify target vocabularies they need to learn to focus on them. Moreover, learners should also have a clear strategy for selecting what target vocabulary and where to find it. additionally, which aspects of a word (usually meaning but for listening and writing, the form of the word is also necessary to pay attention to) to select appropriate strategies and can learning process more efficient.

The second VLSs source is used to learn with new and unfamiliar vocabulary; learners Initially learners gather background about the new words, and then analysing word parts is a useful strategy to twist unfamiliar words to familiar words through analysing affixes to check any connections between related words, checking guesses from context, synonyms and apposite. Meanwhile, consulting reference sources properly and using parallels can also be helpful in

vocabulary learning. The third VLS process is establishing vocabulary knowledge; it involves techniques of remembering vocabulary for immediate use via recording vocabulary, and it can be a useful first step towards the deeper processing of words. Retrieving strengthens the connection between the cue and the retrieved knowledge (Nation,2001). Moreover, Pemberton (2003) classification focused on the memorisation process; he divided the strategies into two core strategies as follows:

- 1. Memorisation:** Students apply different strategies to memorise the words started from spelling or writing words in stick notes and put them around their room, records word from native or fluent speakers through audio files, and apply words games or listening sessions whenever he has time to practice. Create a connection of new words that belong to a similar topic or situation. Use also key words techniques or combine words with pictures, especially for words that sound similar.
 - a. Using Words:** Learners use words in the sentence or write the story and include all words they have learned or discuss the topic with a partner to use words appropriately.
 - b. Recycling Words one has learned:** learners use news or broadcast stories every day to recycle words taught them.
- 2. Strategies for Reducing the 'Forgetting Problem':** Learn words repeatedly and regularly using word cards using, just before going to bed or travelling to and from university

Pemberton (2003) indicated that one of the biggest problems experienced with learning vocabulary is that what is 'learned' today is often forgotten tomorrow. Vocabulary learning strategies classified by Pemberton (2003) work on problem-solving memorisation and fixing

words in long-term memory. Moreover, these strategies seem to promote language learners to individual exertion in their independent vocabulary learning.

4.2. Predictors of LLSs Use on Vocabulary Knowledge

Typically, there is generally a robust link that has been identified by several studies that have been made on LLSs use and vocabulary knowledge that learners apply to learn new words, which mainly determine the impact of LLSs. In this section, recent studies that are most relevant to the present study are reviewed, Iranian (Riazi et al., 2005; Hamzah et al., 2009; Arjoman & Sharififar, 2011; Kafipour et al., 2011; Zokaei et al., 2012; Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013; Jafari & Kafipour, 2013), Turkish (Sener, 2009; Celik & Toptas, 2010; Tanyer & Ozturk, 2014), Jordan (Al-Khasawneh, 2012), Taiwan (Liao, 2004; Tsai & Chang, 2009), and Chinese (Wu, 2005; Wei, 2007). The most prominent studies focused on the relationship between strategies, vocabulary size, and language proficiency was presented by Gu & Johnson (1996), who conducted a study based on the questionnaire to non 850 English Chinese students at the University of Beijing. The analysis has revealed that self-initiation and selective attention are two metacognitive strategies that emerged as positive predictors for language proficiency. The study also has shown that other significant strategies significantly affect the increasing vocabulary size of learners, such as guessing from the context, using a dictionary, paying attention to a word-formation, and using newly learned words in sentences seemed to be useful to the learners.

Nevertheless, Schmitt (1997) conducted a survey with a large-scale sample (600 subjects) study showed that the most preferred strategy among the Japanese students was the usage of the bilingual dictionary, asking the teacher for a paraphrase, and analysing pictures/gestures. Fan (2003) used a vocabulary test following the format of the VLT and a VLSs

questionnaire to explore the relationship between declared strategy use and L2 vocabulary proficiency. The students were asked to rate the strategy according to how often they use the strategies and useful for them. The results revealed that guessing words from context and dictionary use are the most frequent strategies. However, the results are somehow unpredicted since both strategies are time-consuming compared to the keyword and other mnemonic techniques. KIRMIZI & Topçu (2014) also conducted a study with Turkish students aimed to understand the vocabulary learning strategies and the students' initiations to learn new English words. The results showed that the most significant and popular way of mastering new words is by simple direct cognitive strategies (memorisation). However, strategies such as the keyword method, mnemonics, and semantic mapping were not popular among students. Likewise, study of Yoshi & Flaitz (2002) showed that annotations with text and pictures enhanced vocabulary acquisition. In contrast to these studies, Mason & Krashen (2004) and Pigada & Schmitt (2006) attempted to determine whether language skills such as reading and listening to stories enhance vocabulary acquisition. Both studies suggest that hearing stories lead to vocabulary development, and also, vocabulary acquisition is possible from extensive reading than previous studies have suggested.

5. LLSs Use for Writing Skills

5.1. Writing Process and Strategies

The difference between the writing process and writing strategies is well recognised in educational literature. The writing process is a private activity which generally based on four nonlinear and recursive stages such as planning, drafting, revising, and editing (Seow, 2002) emerged in the field of L1 to emphasise writers' mental actions and solve problem tasks while writing strategies is also labelled writing behaviour (Armengol-Castells, 2001) "composing

behaviors" (Raimes, 1987) and "composing operations" (Armengol-Castells, 2001). Other terms used interchangeably are "writing techniques and procedures" (Khaldieh, 2000) and writing process strategies" (Sasaki, 2000) refers "any actions employed in the act of producing a text" (Manchon, De Larios, & Murphy, 2007, p. 231). Writing strategy is a part of a research movement called "process writing" defined as writer's involvement in a sequence of particular process and techniques such planning, composing, revising and other writing activities to influence writing skills (Torrance et al., 2000) was inspired by the work of Flower & Hayes (1981) postulates that writing is a cognitive process comprised of a series of recursive processes started from planning, translating, and reviewing. A few studies have been devoted to learning to write; the focus is mainly on the writing process and writing strategies. In the 1980s, L2 writing research shifted from a cognitive approach to be more socio-cognitive orientations Cohen & Macaro (2007). (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower & Hayes, 1980, 1981a, 1981b; Hayes, 1996; Torrance & Jeffery, 1999) postulated that writing strategies involve learning procedures that include controlling and managing goals, compensation for human limited cognitive capacity and resources, and finally, problem-solving during the writing process. Yang (2006) in China reported the differences between the use of writing strategies process between successful and successful learners. The study classified writing strategies into pre-drafting strategies, drafting strategies, post-drafting strategies, audience awareness, and mother tongue avoidance.

Unfortunately, students do not develop their writing skills, and they commonly struggle to communicate ideas and thought through the writing process. It is a complex process that involves juggling many learning aspects such as generating ideas, selecting words, grammar form, and creating an organisation form of the ideas. When the writing task is complex, it is essential to create an efficient method for completing the task. Therefore, teachers need to

develop and design meaningful strategic instructions in the classroom and help students be self-productive. Olinghouse & Wilson (2001, p.206)" when students use writing strategies, they approach the complexities of writing equipped with a method for success." Teachers create opportunities for students to understand that writing is a powerful tool to engage in authentic communication through writing. Countless studies have suggested various techniques and strategies about teaching writing effectively, and teachers are irresistibly puzzled about the best that achieves student progress in writing. Therefore, the magic of teaching writing effectively is not linked with technique or specific assessment; it is derived from adopting a certain framework of instructional strategies helping students to learn writing. They support the student to write for different purposes and audiences; students build genre-based syntactic knowledge and word choice for different genres like narrative and persuasive. Students elaborate their writing by applying different information related to text genre Olinghouse & Wilson (2001).

5.2. Synthesise The Predictive Role of Writing Strategies

Educational literature tried to determine the difference between successful and unsuccessful learners. They found that the difference lies in using a wide range of strategies to undertake the writing task to meet the social context needs. From the 1980s to date, many studies have been conducted on the writing strategies of both L2 and L1. However, they focus mainly on exploring strategies a skilled writer uses and provide training for unskilled writers, helping them generate and organise ideas based on the type of assignment (Flower & Hayes, 1980; Raimes, 1987; Riazi, 1995). Arndt (1987, 1990) similarly describes writing strategies as a sequence of decisions and steps that writers take helping them to start writing: for instance, how to approach their subjects, how to plan the discourse, how to connect their thoughts, what to include and what to discard, how to present their meaning most efficiently to the reader, how to make meaning

clear at both the sentence and propositional level, how to form and keep overall coherence between topic, audience, and communicative intentions, and how and when to finish writing.

In L2 research Oxford (2002) stated that studying the relevance of learning strategies helps understand the writer's behavior. Different researchers have different standards of classifications, categorisations, and orientations. In the early 1980', the classification of writing strategies entirely focused on cognitive demanding and problem-solving. Weinstein & Mayer's (1986) provided an early taxonomy within the framework of self-regulated learning theory, which includes rehearsal, elaboration, organisation, comprehension monitoring, and effective strategies, then followed by is Arndt's (1987) ESL writing strategies taxonomy, her study investigated six Chinese EFL students about their activities of writing composition and analysed their written texts produced by both their first language and foreign language. She found that Chinese students' writing strategies used the following list of strategies planning, global planning, rehearsing, repeating, rereading, questioning, revising, and editing who subsume under metacognitive strategies. Wenden's (1991) investigation on the writing task of students on the computer found that in addition to metacognitive strategies, writers use a series of cognitive processes to formulate the idea and accomplish the task.

The 1990's writing strategies classifications were emphasised social involvement, cognitive, and communication practice. McMillan's (2010) and Pintrich's taxonomies (1999, 2000, 2004) differentiate between cognitive, affective, and metacognitive or regulative learning strategies based on Oxford taxonomy. Kellogg (1988) and Torrance et al. (1994, 2000) distinguish between cognitive and metacognitive strategies, which have been broadly considered effective ways of learning (Zimmerman, 2001; Pintrich, 2003). Other taxonomies were proposed based on the classification of learning factors such as (Hirose & Sasaki, 1994) have created a

three-factor structure including planning, formulation or transcription, and revising. (Victori 1997) proposed a *four-factor structure*: planning, monitoring, evaluating, and resourcing, which are metacognitive strategies themselves, and (Khaldieh 2000) suggested a *six-factor analytically-created composing strategy taxonomy*, which includes memory-related, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social, and effective strategies.

Furthermore, (Victori; 1995, Sasaki 2000) regarded the planning strategies as an important strategy throughout the whole writing process, which subsumes under metacognitive strategies in addition to monitoring and evaluating. Riazi (1997) and Wenden (1991) categorised the cognitive strategies into seven strategies, including generating ideas, revising, elaborating, clarification, retrieval, rehearsing, and summarising. Rhetorical and organisation strategies involve the logical organisation of the ideas; it includes subcategories such as comparing and modeling strategies to select the appropriate genre of the text. Social/affective strategies involve interacting with people to access resources, books, feedback from peers, and journals. Communicative strategies include avoidance, reduction, and a sense of reader to express the idea more effectively by removing or paraphrasing. Leki's (1995) study on five ESL university students revealed that some students were more of strategies than others who took time to move to alternative strategies. Leki (1995) found 10 categories of writing strategy that the participants used:

- Clarifying strategies, e.g., talking to the teacher about the assignment;
- Focusing strategies, e.g., rereading the assignment several times;
- Relying on past writing experiences – e.g., referring to past experiences in writing;
- Taking advantage of the first language/culture, e.g., accessing knowledge and experience of L1.

- Using current experience or feedback to adjust strategies, e.g., feedback is given;
- Looking for models, e.g., finding models in articles and books;
- Using current or past ESL writing training, e.g., using strategy taught in the writing class.
- Accommodating the teacher's requirements, e.g., meeting the teacher's requirements;
- Resisting the teacher's requirements, e.g., resisting the assignment by ignoring the criteria given by the teacher;
- Managing competing demands, e.g., managing course loads and cognitive loads, among others.

Sasaki (2000) investigated Japanese EFL learners' writing strategies and found 10 writing strategies: planning, retrieving, generating ideas, verbalising, translating, rereading, evaluating, and others such as resting, questioning, and impossible to categorise. Later, Sasaki (2002, cited in Oxford, 2017, p.278) videotaped L2 writers during the writing process. He found three different types of planning strategies (a) global planning, i.e., carefully considering readers' needs and the general organisation of a text (an expert-writer strategy); (b) thematic planning, i.e., less detailed planning of the organisation of ideas; and (c) local planning, i.e., planning about adding ideas to a text without considering the organisation (a novice-writer strategy). Penuelas (2008) examines the writing strategies of 124 Spanish students from different departments. She used **Oxford Strategies Inventory Language Learning SLL** (1990) that includes six categories (cognitive, metacognitive, social, affective, compensation strategies, and memory). She found that students use different levels of those strategies. Lei (2008, 2012) argued that writing strategies are "mediated actions which are consciously taken to facilitate writer's practices in communities" (Lei, 2008, p.220). They are artifact-mediated, rule-mediated, role-mediated, and community-mediated strategies. (Mu 2005, p.09) conducted a study on ESL writing strategies.

He found five broader categories and 30 ESL writing strategies: rhetorical, Metacognitive, cognitive, communicative, and social/affective.

Figure 10

ESL Writing Strategies

Writing strategies	Sub-strategies	Speculation
Rhetorical strategies	Organization Use of L1 Formatting/Modelling Comparing	Beginning/development/ending Translate generated idea into ESL Genre consideration Different rhetorical conventions
Meta-cognitive strategies	Planning Monitoring Evaluating	Finding focus Checking and identifying problems Repeating, lead-in, inferencing, etc. Reconsidering written text, goals
Cognitive strategies	Generating ideas Revising Elaborating Clarification Retrieval Rehearsing Summarising	Making changes in plan, written text Extending the contents of writing Disposing of confusions Getting information from memory Trying out ideas or language Synthesising what has read
Communicative strategies	Avoidance Reduction Sense of readers	Avoiding some problem Giving up some difficulties Anticipating readers' response
Social/affective strategies	Resourcing Getting feedback Assigning goals Rest/deferral	Referring to libraries, dictionaries Getting support from professors, peers Dissolve the load of the task Reducing anxiety

Note, A Taxonomy of ESL Writing Strategies, by. Mu (2005, P.09)

Conclusion

This chapter has largely provided a new content analysis of existing definitions showing prototypical features of a strategy definition that mainly keyed with the learner's decision-making process to maximise learning outcomes. Besides, the chapter presents a landmark and monumental collection of LLSs strategies taxonomies respecting the chronological order. The

final sections of chapter three outline separately and anonymously the relationship between LLSs and skills area and language sub-systems such as writing and vocabulary. Numerous studies in the last two sections have shown a large repertoire of strategies associated with positive learning outcomes.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

Introduction

Chapter four presents a detailed description of the research methodology conducted in the current study. Initially, the first section describes the research design and its characteristics. Then, it also elaborates on the instruments, including justification to collect the data and answer the research questions. Firstly, it includes objectives and research questions, then the rationale for the overall research design. Finally, it presents participants, details of the pilot study, data collection, and data analysis procedures in the last chapter.

1. Research Questions of the Study and Research Design

The current predictive correlation study investigates LLSs use by EFL third-year students at Larbi Tebessi University. It also investigates how the strategy use predicted vocabulary learning and writing skills achievement. Preceding studies on LLSs have examined strategies used by EF learners and how the strategies can affect vocabulary learning and writing skills separately. However, the relationship and the contribution between strategy use and the two variables has not been widely studied. Therefore, the following research questions are designed to guide the inquiry:

Table 1

Research Questions and the main data used to answer them

Phase	Research Questions	instruments
Phase 1	<p>1. Are the third-year students high, medium, or low strategy users?</p> <p>c. What are the most and the least frequently used LSSs to develop vocabulary knowledge?</p> <p>d. What are the most and the least frequently used LSSs to develop writing skills?</p>	Questionnaire
Phase 2	<p>2. What is the overall receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge of third-year students?</p> <p>c. Is there a significant correlation between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge?</p> <p>d. Does LLS use have any significant contribution to receptive and productive vocabulary scores?</p>	Vocabulary Level Tests
Phase 3	<p>3. What is the overall quality of third-year students in argumentative essays based on rubric scales?</p> <p>c. Does LLS use have any significant contribution to the quality of argumentative essays?</p> <p>d. Do receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge scores correlate with essays scores?</p>	Student Writing Samples
Phase 4	<p>4. What is the vocabulary size of students in the argumentative essays-based vocabulary bands list?</p>	Student Writing Samples

To address the research questions, quantitative methods were used, involving sequentially three instruments. The whole research was developed according to four phases: The First phase launched with the questionnaire used to investigate the first two questions addresses the LLSs use of the students in terms of the most and the least strategies used to develop vocabulary learning and writing skills as well. The first question analyses the strategy use in the writing process and the contribution to writing quality. The second question follows the same objective of the first question, which analyses the strategy used to learn vocabulary and the contribution of strategy use and vocabulary knowledge. The second phase uses the vocabulary level tests (the productive and receptive vocabulary test) to answer the third research question, emphasising the correlation between receptive and productive vocabulary scores. Thirdly, the writing samples used in this study were used to answer the last question, which investigates the correlation between vocabulary size and writing proficiency distinctly. Finally, the writing samples were also used to analyse students' vocabulary size based on different bands in VocabProfile and to investigate the correlation between vocabulary size bands and essay quality.

3. Participants and Setting

Purposeful sampling was used to recruit the participants in this study, the third-year learners (49 participants, 26 males, and 12 females) at the department of English of Tebessa University were chosen in this study during the academic year 2019-2020. The majority of participants are of Tebessa origin, and they have already mastered six and more semesters in LMDsystem English courses at the university level. During their academic year, the students followed different syllabi and materials for instruction, and they had undertaken the subject of English language courses related to developing learners' content language (linguistics, literature, and civilisation) and communicative competence (oral expression, written expression, reading

techniques, and grammar). All participants were adult learners attending English Language courses and preparing their license degree, and their ages ranged from 20 to 25. The students who answered the questionnaire were 49; only three students have been studying written expression for four and five years which means they did not achieve the required score in written expression, which allowed them to pass the next year. Instead, the total number from the two groups of the third-year level is 49. The questionnaire was retrieved and was ready for coding.

My motivation for selecting the third year in this study was that the students have enough exposure to university English writing instructions with average hours 67H30 during 15 weeks for each semester for the first year and second year and 22H30 during 15 weeks for each semester. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that students had been given time to complete writing tasks and receive feedback from teachers. The courses include different types of writing, such as expressive, argumentative, and informative. They also focus on the writing styles, genres, strategies to process writing tasks, and methods of evidence and reasoning that characterise the academic writing whereby the third-year courses of written expression cover the main content in the first and second year and focus on developing critical thinking of students. Hence, the syllabus of the third year focuses on training students how to apply reading techniques, write an outline, brainstorm ideas, paraphrase, summarise, and locate the main ideas. In addition, students of the third year were taught advanced essays devoted to different types of analytical essays.

4. Research Design

Research data in the present study were collected mainly quantitatively through three phases. In the first phase, 49 students responded to the 63 items on the scale (questionnaire). Then, the two vocabulary tests were administered to the same students. Finally, the writing

samples, the students were asked to write an argumentative essay during the written expression session. This study was developed as a predictive correlational research design, which looks for the prediction role of LLSs (independent variable) on a set of variables dependent mediating variable (vocabulary knowledge), and dependent variable (writing proficiency) and regarding the correlation between the dependent variables. This research design was chosen for this study aims to examine the predictive role of LLSs on developing students' writing proficiency and other variable such as vocabulary knowledge.

5. Instruments

5.1. The Questionnaire

The questionnaire, which included two parts, was self-designed to measure two variables related to vocabulary knowledge and writing proficiency. The questionnaire includes certain items and each item describes one strategy is based on Likert scale and it was designed with reference to three theoretical questionnaires proposed by Oxford (1990) “**Strategies Inventory for Language Learning** “(SILL) contains 50 items taxonomy segmented into six taxonomy such as memory, cognitive ,compensation, metacognitive affective and social strategies investigate strategy use in different skills, Schmitt (1997, pp. 207-208) **Vocabulary Language Learning** contains 58 items segmented into five parts such as determination , social , cognitive , memory, and metacognitive and investigate strategy use to learn vocabulary, and **Posteriori Taxonomy of Strategies of Learning English Writing Skill**(Mistar, Zuhairi & Parlindungan,2014), contains 69 -items and they classified into 12 factors such self-monitoring strategies, language-focusing strategies , planning strategies, metacognitive affective strategies, cognitive compensation strategies , self-evaluating strategies , social process-focusing strategies , authentic practicing strategies , meaning-focusing strategies, vocabulary developing strategies,

metacognitive commencement strategies and mental processing strategies. The researcher studied deeply and analysed the three questionnaire versions by comparing taxonomies and items presented in each part to create a clear and simplified version that would be easy for the participants and meet the research objectives (**see appendix A**). Therefore, the researcher bonded the two questionnaires proposed by Schmitt (1997) and Oxford (1990) to create the second section of the questionnaire. Initially, the researcher depended on Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of five factors and used Oxford's (1990) items description of the strategies because items in her taxonomy were clearly described and introduced the strategies. The participants have to choose from the following option:

1. **Never or almost never use this strategy** (Means that the statement is very rarely true)
2. **I occasionally use the strategy** (Means that the statement is truly less than half the time.)
3. **I sometimes use this strategy** (Which means that the statement is true of you about half the time.)
4. **I usually use this strategy** (Which means that the statement is truly more than half the time.)
5. **I always use this strategy** (Which means that the statement is always true of you.)

5.1.1 The Pilot Study

Three original questionnaires used in this study are strategies inventory for language learning "(SILL), vocabulary language learning, and posterior taxonomy of learning English writing skills strategies. To refine this instrument as a valid and reliable, two teachers from the department of English at Larbi Tebessi university and one teacher from Souk Ahras university volunteered as review committee of the questionnaire to read, revise, simplify, add, and eliminate any strategy items repeated in the two sections of the original questionnaire versions.

The purpose of this review would optimally measure the use of LLSs to learn vocabulary and improve writing skills specifically without referring to general strategies for learning English.

Therefore, the teachers verified the questionnaire is based on two criteria of validity: **construct validity**, the teachers carefully ensure that the questionnaire effectively measures the construct of language learning strategies used by adults' learners in the university context and **content validity**, teachers check whether the questionnaire includes an appropriate and not repeated items in both sections of the questionnaire to measure clearly and effectively all possible items related to vocabulary and writing skills. The questionnaire was reviewed and checked based on raters' feedback. They mainly concentrated on the simplicity, comprehensibility, and appropriateness of the items

Throughout the pilot study, the concurrent validity of the questionnaire had already been modified by the teachers. The general review suggested by the teachers recommends that certain items exist in both parts that should be eliminated to reduce measuring the overgeneralisation of strategy used by the learners, avoid long questionnaires, and evade ambiguous answers provided by the participants. Additionally, In **Posteriori Taxonomy of Strategies of Learning English Writing Skill**, the teachers eradicate the number of taxonomies from 12 factors in the original questionnaire version to five factors such as self-monitoring strategies, language-focusing strategies, planning strategies, metacognitive, affective strategies, self-evaluating strategies. The unfathomable analysis of the questionnaire revealed that the content of other eliminated factors or items reflects strategies for vocabulary learning directly.

5.1.2. Details of The Questionnaire

The third-year students' questionnaire contains 63 items divided into three sections: The questionnaire started with collecting information concerning the students' general

background information including the respondents' details about students names, age, and how long the respondents have been studying written expression, the second section explores language learning strategies to learn vocabulary and finally the last section examines writing strategies. On the one hand, the second section contains 33 items categorised into five subparts. Part A, **Determination Strategies**, involves individual learning strategies to discover and guess the meaning of the words from the context for vocabulary learning and does not necessarily involve deep processing; Part B social strategies involve learning words with teachers or students. Part C, **Memory Strategies**, involves deep processing of memorising words. Part D involves **cognitive strategies**, which involve deep vocabulary processing through rehearsal and repetition; Part E, **metacognitive strategies**, which involve planning and monitoring one's vocabulary learning.

The second part of the questionnaire reflects the strategy used in writing skills; it contains five sub-parts. Part A **Self-Monitoring Strategies** contains five items that reflect the general monitoring process in the writing process. Part B, **Language-Focusing Strategies**, reflects the text's rhetorical pattern, including the genre of the text, language features, communication purpose, and transition of the ideas. Part C, **Planning Strategies**, includes items related to the planning process such as mind mapping, organisation, and drafting. Part E **Metacognitive Affective Strategies** involve self-persuasive learning progress. Finally, part D, **Self-Evaluating Strategies**, reflects the learner's self-evaluation of the writing process involves improving clarity, style, content, grammar.

5.1.3. Data Collection Procedures

The questionnaire was conducted and delivered to the third-year students of English at the department of English -Tebessa university. The questionnaire was distributed during a

written expression session between 9.30 and 11.00 AM in October 2019, and the questionnaire can be viewed in **Appendix A**. The teacher who volunteered to administer the questionnaire were provided with guidelines highlighting the purpose and benefits of the study. The guidelines contain details how to run on the questionnaires while administering them. Afterwards, the teachers explained the questionnaire procedures, and the students were informed that their response would not affect their grade and was encouraged to ask any questions at any time. The whole administration of the questionnaire includes the teachers' explanation, the distributing and collecting of the questionnaire, and the actual time spent completing the questionnaire took 25-30 minutes. The participants were informed that their responses should be carefully considered, and they should select the answers that best reflected their practice activities. The questionnaire was administered equivalently with a receptive vocabulary test.

5.2. The Vocabulary Tests

Since no single test combining both vocabulary size and use is available to test different aspect and dimensions of vocabulary knowledge, the "multiple test approach," proposed by Laufer (1998), was also used in this study to measure vocabulary knowledge. Laufer (1998) justified that "multiple test approach" can provide a comprehensive picture of learners' vocabulary at different developmental stages, it helps also to compare participant. Therefore, instruments were adopted from Cobb (2004) website since they were used and validated by many studies (Horst, Cobb, & Nicolae, 2005). Additionally, I emailed Nation to inquire about the valuable vocabulary tests to measure students' vocabulary knowledge, he is kindly recommended that the productive level test presents the best test to measure students vocabulary knowledge in productive skills. **(Appendix I)**

a. The Productive Level Test (PVLТ)

The PVLТ (version A) is applied to measure productive vocabulary knowledge, as knowing written form and meaning (Laufer & Nation, 1999). According to Webb (2013), the study of the word receptively only impacts the meaning in receptive, while learning vocabulary persuasively in a productive manner. The participants were asked to fill in blanks of the underlined target words, and their answers were subsequently scored dichotomously (i.e., scored either right or wrong) (Nation & Laufer, 1999). The beginning half of the target words was given for two reasons. Firstly, avoid the learner confusion of using an alternative word that might fit the context. Secondly, the test was designed to be insensitive to any similar word or a word that belongs to the word family. For example, if 'education' was the target word but 'educate' was supplied, as it is the wrong word, it would be marked as incorrect even though the learner probably knew something about the word family that contains 'educate'.

The PVLТ contains five levels 2000, 3000, 5000, university word list, and 10,000. The most frequent words in English are based on West's (1953) GSL and the Thorndike and Lorge (1944) list. Each word-level sampled 18 sentences with empty blanks that test-takers require to provide initial letters of the target words. Thus, completing the test is associated with knowledge of meaning, form, phonological aspect, and collocations. In addition, the missing word must be grammatically and orthographically adequate to count the answer correctly. Nation & Laufer (1999, p. 44) stated that the PVLТ is a reliable, valid, and practical measure of vocabulary growth. PVLТ can be found at <https://www.lexutor.ca/tests/levels/productive/>.

b. The Receptive Vocabulary Level Test (PVLТ)

This study also assessed the " Receptive vocabulary test to validate the PVLТ. It is used to assess learners' vocabulary knowledge because their scores on any given subtest reflect their

mastery of words at that level. When scoring the test, the scores for the individual levels are most important because these scores reveal where subsequent vocabulary learning should be focused. The RVLT was created by Nation (1990). It consists of five subtests, each assessing a different 'level' of vocabulary knowledge, with 36 items at the 2,000 Word, 3,000 Word, 5,000 Word, 10,000 Word, and Academic Word Levels. Items are settled in three groups, with six possible definitions to choose from. In the receptive test, the subject chose which six words matched the three meanings given. Each of the 6 sets tested 3 words (the meanings on the right match the words on the left), making 18 items at one band. It means that the students must match three words to three definitions.

5.2.1. The Pilot Study

Piloting took place in the first semester's last week of September 2019. It was conducted for two reasons: to test the validity and reliability of the PVLV and RVLT and to find out other practical matters such as the appropriateness of the test materials and the amount of time required to complete the tests, a version of the productive vocabulary size was administered to 49 third students at the University of Larbi Tebessi-Tebessa. I recommended that the teachers strictly control each test's time and ensure that all test instructions and explanations were clear to all participants. The participants were given instructions to finish the test, and they were informed that they needed to write their names at the top of the page. In addition, the students were permitted to leave once they finished the test to reduce the noise in the classroom. The main results obtained from this pilot study were linked with students' test scores, but it's about checking test procedures. Thus, the following points warranted further consideration:

1. The total time allotted to finish each test in the pilot study (30 minutes) is not enough to complete the task, especially since the productive vocabulary levels test is somehow long. Based on these results, it was considered that 60 minutes is sufficient time to finish the whole test.
2. The teacher introduced the task to the students and highlighted that the aim of this test is a part of their evaluation to make sure that all students would take the tests seriously and facilitate more accurate scores.
3. The 10000-word level in both tests was beyond EFL learners' proficiency level, which induced me to exclude it from testing procedures.
4. Receptive vocabulary test, the time allotted to finish this test is sufficient.

5.2.2. Procedures and Scoring for Vocabulary Tests

Based on the pilot study results, from all the levels available on both vocabulary tests, only 2000, 3000, and 5000 and (UWL) were used in this study. Participants completed the tests in the following order: the PVLТ (60 minutes) and the RVLТ test (25 minutes). The tests were done in the participants' regular classrooms during written expression sessions. Then researcher scored all the tests based on the proposed calculation after the submission was completed. To ensure the scoring accuracy, the researcher used a key answer (**see Appendix J**). The RVLТ was scored as one point for each correct answer, and thus the total was 72 items tested receptively with the same words. The productive vocabulary test was scored using an answer key with 72 as the highest possible score.

5.3. Writing Samples (Students' Essays)

5.3.1. Written Expression

The written expression has a variety of purposes. Learners typically master how to summarise or take notes from reading texts, communicate knowledge and understanding through

different types of essays, and express themselves through poetry or journals. Writing composition involves mental operations, including understanding the topic, recalling knowledge about the topic, setting goals of writing and emphasising, planning steps to meet these goals, and finally applying the writing process to organise the idea. Many factors such as cognitive abilities as self-regulation and students' skills and beliefs, and linguistics competence such as spelling and handwriting influence the written form effectively. Writing products helps the teacher to measure student knowledge and progress. Writing also helps students develop critical thinking and reflection about the idea to deepen their understanding of various topics. Effective written expression is also important in Algerian universities with three levels of license degrees.

The department of English at Larbi Tebessi university -Tebessa follows LMD systems to encounter the global reform of higher education and concord with the new guidelines and global trends and changes. The LMD system stands on three phases: License with six semesters, master's degree with two years of study (four semesters), and Doctorate with three years of research (six semesters). Furthermore, a new process of year achievement was established in the LMD systems called "credit", i.e., if students reach 30 credits in each unit, they may succeed to pass to the following semester with the credit. Moreover, they will remain indebted if he/she fail to gather the needed credits at the end of Year.

Written expression as course curricula in the license degree, the students should have the total credits of the unit (written expression and oral expression); otherwise, the student fails to pass the next year, or he may pass with credit of the whole unit, and student needs to master it again. The curricula of written expression during six semesters focus on improving students' academic writing and developing learners' abilities to write effectively. In addition, the written expression curricula provide and train students to affirm and connect, protect and defend,

demand and proclaim, inform and persuade. Therefore, third-year students learn to write a paragraph, introduce a topic sentence, connect ideas to create a coherent text, and support details. The students also learn different essay techniques related to writing genres (argumentative, compare and contrast...etc.).

5.3.2. The Raters

Three raters were selected to mark the essays. The sample of raters included a full-time teacher aged 38 years old. She has been teaching written expression and oral expression for 04 years respectively through different levels and other English content courses whose main student assessment procedure is essay writing. The second teacher is a part-time and Doctorate student who is supposed to teach the written expression to third-year students for the whole academic year 2019-2020. The third rater was the study researcher who has been teaching the English content courses for six years and held pedagogical responsibility for three years. This pedagogical position permits the researcher to supervise, collaborate, suggest, and monitor syllabi progress and material instructions with other teachers in the department. Both raters provided an assessment package containing 49 essays and marking guidelines to score them based on essay rubrics.

5.3.3. Choice of the Topic

An argumentative essay was selected in this study. Álvarez (2001) claims that the argumentative essay is a set of strategies addressed to modify the judgment, get the adhesion of the audience, or make them admit a given situation or an idea. Therefore, this type of essay is the best to distinguish between good and poorly skilled writers. Furthermore, the argumentative essay is the best to judge writing capacity because it demands a high cognitive capacity and is considered a challenging and difficult academic task than other writing genres such as narrative,

expository, descriptive (Freedman and Pringle, 1984; Andrews, 1995). Additionally, the argumentative essay investigates the processes and strategies used in producing this type of writing in a foreign language.

We adopted a specific selected topic to write about to avoid variability of degree of (because if we permit the students to select the topic, they may select an easy topic to write about) and reflect the writing proficiency. Jacob et al. (1981, p.16) claimed: "there is no completely reliable basis for comparison of scores on a test unless all of the students have performed the same writing task(s)". Therefore, the essay was selected carefully to reflect students' backgrounds, attract interest, and motivate them to be deeply involved in the writing process. The students were asked to write about 300 words on a popular topic (**check the appendix**). The raters argued that this topic was appropriate in terms of content since students must put forward a personal viewpoint. The writing task occurred during the written expression session under the examination conditions. The students were asked to produce in handwriting an argumentative essay and were given one hour to finish the task.

5.3.4. Scoring Procedures

The writing task was collected and ready for the scoring procedure. The raters were provided with the guideline of writing rubrics assessment Bacha model, which was originally developed by Jacobs et al. (1981) that it is based on five analytic assessments that target different aspects of descriptors of the composition, such as content, organisation, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. The rubric will help the raters not to compare students writing performance at given writing tasks personally but to assess them according to their quality in writing. The raters checked the assessment criteria, and they were given a chance to discuss or highlight vague descriptors. Consequently, the raters proposed a simplified numerical version range to

cover five aspects of the writing process (called descriptors), namely relevance and equivalent to assess essays commonly used in the Algerian universities. Each descriptor is graded into five scores ranging from one to four (**check the appendix**). They possessed the following scores excellent (4 points), good (3points), fair (2 points), and poor (1 point) for an analytic scale for scoring EFL argumentative essays.

Furthermore, the researchers twisted another band level, very poor (Zero scores), to describe the rater(s) score for some descriptors. In the case of disparity of scoring marks of the three raters occurred, the final score of the essay would be based on the average of the three closest scores. Thus, the highest score for a particular descriptor (content, organisation, language use, vocabulary, and mechanics) is 4 points (**find more details about the rubrics used to assess the argumentative essay of this study in the appendix**). The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of inter-rating was 875, considered a good reliability coefficient.

6. Data Analysis for The Procedures

6.1.Statistical Analyses

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 24 was chosen to run the statistical analyses in the current study. A sequence of the mean and standard deviation was applied over the quantitative data. The purpose of conducting these statistical analyses was to determine which LLS were most and the least frequently used by third-year students to enhance vocabulary learning and boost their writing skills. Moreover, two main statistical techniques were chosen to meet the purpose of the study: correlation analysis and linear/multiple regression were used; Pearson correlation calculates the intercorrelations among scores of the two vocabulary tests and writing scores and receptive and productive scores well. Simple/multiple linear regression was also conducted to answer the second and third research questions related to

LLSs' contribution to receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge and LLSs and writing proficiency.

Coding and classifying approaches were applied in this study (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). When the students responded to the questionnaire, vocabulary tests, and essays, the researcher gathered, arranged, classified, and finally used coding numbers for each participant based on initial first and second name (AH1, BT2,3, 4....).

6.1.1. Correlation Analysis

The Pearson correlation test measures the degree of a supposed linear association between two or more variables in the population. It produces a correlation coefficient, the Pearson correlation (r), with a value between -1 to +1. A negative correlation will produce a negative coefficient, and a positive correlation will produce a positive coefficient. To examine the relationship between the two variables: the x-number of strategies used by individual students and y-marks they achieved from the writing samples, Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was calculated (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 528-529). The following guideline for interpreting the strength of correlations is provided by Cohen and Holliday (1982 cited in Bryman and Cramer 2001.p. 174)

Figure 11

Range of values for interpreting the strength of correlations.

Very low correlation	0.19
Low correlation	0.20-0.39
Modest correlation	0.40-0.69
High correlation	0.70-0.89
Very high correlation	0.90

Note, a guideline for interpreting the strength of correlations, by Cohen and Holliday (1982 cited in Bryman and Cramer 2001.p. 174)

6.1.2. Simple and Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Simple and multiple linear regression analysis enables researchers to determine the value of variable one based on the value of one or more other variables, a correlation between a criterion variable, and the best combination of two or more predictor variables (Frankel & Wallen, 2006). The basic form of regression models includes unknown parameters (β), independent variables (X), and the dependent variable (Y). The regression model specifies the relationship of the dependent variable (Y) to a function combination of independent variables (X) and unknown parameters (β)

$$Y \approx f(X, \beta)$$

A regression equation can be used to predict the values of 'y' if the value of 'X' is given, and both 'y' and 'x's are the two sets of measures of a sample size of 'n'. The formulae for regression equation would be :

$$Y = a + bx$$

6.1.3. VocabProfile Program

VocabProfile is used to measure vocabulary knowledge usage in student essays. Hence, the participants' essays have been collected to investigate their vocabulary size in terms of frequency and range. One common method of measuring vocabulary size in written text is VocabProfile program software. Laufer and Nation (1999) designed to measure the lexical richness in writing by revealing the high-frequency words, academic words, and low-frequency words in writing samples. The profile is created by pasting a writing sample into a computer program, and the most popular is the **Lextutor Vocabulary Profiler** (<http://www.lexutor.ca/vp/eng/>).

Vocabulary Profile divides the text into four different categories the first most frequent 1000 words (K1), the second most frequent 1000 words (K2), the Academic Word List (AWL) compiled by Coxhead (1998) to show percentages and numbers, or "tokens," of words who formulate the writing sample. VP has been used extensively in studies of written vocabulary production performed as LFP version to analyse lexical profile. Cho (2007) investigated the lexical richness among students of English programs. He used LFP on 90 placement compositions written. Findings from this analysis indicated no significant difference in lexical variety among students who were placed into different levels in the intensive English program.

VP covers the word frequency list and provides information about the productive use of written text according to different bands of vocabulary; this process is known as vocabulary profiling. The vocab profiler processed and analysed the essays based on the following frequencies or levels: first 1,000 words of the high frequency of General Service List (K1), second 1,000 words list of low frequency, the (AWL), and Off list –words that do not belong to any of the three levels. It has been proved that it is a reliable tool to measure that provides vocabulary size used in the text. To run out the analysis of vocabulary size in written data using vocab profile, written samples of argumentative essays (no more than 200 words) were submitted. The paper and pen written samples were typed using a word processor spelling mistake, and unclear words were decipherably misplaced to identify the proportion of words in the 4 Base. There are three profilers: VP Classic, VP-kids, and VP-Compleat. Since the written sample used in this analysis is for students at the university level, VP-classic is selected instead of the VP-compleat version because the VP-compleat is the current development version of the VP, we many concentrates only the K1, K2, AWL, Off list. The classic table below is an example show e of how VocabProfile analyses the written text of 186 words of a typical academic writing task.

Figure 12

Words Categorised Using the Online Vocabprofiler4 Out of the 186 Words

	Families	Types	Tokens	Percent
K1 words (1-1000)	86	97	154	82,80
K2 words (1001-2000)	15	16	16	8.60
AWL Words (570)	8	8	8	4.30
Off-list words	?	6	8	4,30
Total	109+?	127	186	100

Note, from Investigating the Impact of Focusing on Academic Vocabulary Using

Multiple Assessment Measures by, K.Alothman 2014,p.107 (doctorate thesis)

Reason for Multiple -Selection of Vocabulary Instruments to measure vocabulary in this study in This Study

(Nation, 2007b; Schmitt, 2010a) contended that it needs longitudinal and multiple studies measure vocabulary because it is necessary to define the relationship between receptive and productive vocabulary size. Therefore, this study applies two different vocabulary tests (**productive and receptive**) and a software program (**VocabProfile**) to measure the vocabulary knowledge in different contexts since measuring a single aspect of word knowledge may not provide accurate results, especially when it is related to language skills. Therefore, the VocabProfile program is used as an additional procedure to analyse participants' vocabulary knowledge proportion in the written essay.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the rationale of this thesis and selection methods concerning the research questions of this study. Various instruments have been adopted to explore the research aims: questionnaires, vocabulary level tests, and writing samples. In addition, the chapter provides a detailed account of the procedures for data collection, the participants, and the methods of data analysis, and the next chapter will present the findings of the study.

Chapter Five: Findings

Introduction

This chapter aims to present the results and the discussion of quantitative instruments after inputting all data into the SPSS software, which are organized to answer each of our research questions in turn. It triangulates the statistical analyses of students' responses and scores obtained from vocabulary levels tests and questionnaires respectively and student essays. As we described in chapter four, four research questions were answered through three instruments

1. Key Findings of phase One

1.1. Learners' Frequency of the Language Learning Strategy Use to Learn vocabulary

The first question investigates the participants' frequency use of LLSs was measured by the LLSs questionnaire (section 1). According to Oxford's (1990) scoring system was adopted to determine high, moderate, or low vocabulary strategy users, 1 – 2.04 is categorised into low strategy use, 2.4 - 3.5 belonged to medium strategy use, and 3.5 – 5 was high strategy use. The questionnaire incorporates 33 LLSs designed to measure students' employment of LLSs to learn vocabulary through determination (1-6 items), social (7-12 items), Memory (13-22 items), cognitive (23-26), and metacognitive (27-33). The reliability of the questionnaire was also assured which proved that the reliability in terms of inherent consistency was fairly good (Cronbach's Alpha= .81). Descriptive statistics were used to reveal the means score and standard deviation for overall strategy use were calculated.

Table 2*Learners' Strategy Use to Learn Vocabulary*

	DET	SOC	MEM	COG	META
M	3,51	2,86	3,34	3,03	3,38
Ranking	1	5	3	4	2
Strategies use	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium
SD	,77	,88	,90	,88	,63

*N=49**Number of items=18*

According to the scoring system, the results obtained from **table 2** showed that the overall strategy used by third-year students is apparently medium strategy users. Therefore, all five categories of LLSs were used at a medium level. No strategy was found to be used at a high or low level. The participants' ratings of their use of various categories of LLSs as follow: determination strategy with a mean score of ($M=3.51$) and standard deviation of ($SD=.77$) was found to be the most frequently used strategy by third-year students, while social strategy with a mean score of ($M=2.86$) and standard deviation of ($SD=.88$) was found as the least frequently used strategy. Determination strategy was followed by metacognitive ($M=3.38$, $SD=.63$), memory ($M= 3.34$, $SD= .88$), cognitive ($M=3.03$, $SD=0.53$).

The results depicted that the student's strategy use has some statistically significant differences among the five categories which entail that the participants are familiar with these strategies. It seems that students use determination strategies because it is easier and accessible strategies to look for word meaning in the dictionary more rather than communicating with other people. **The table 3** below provides in detail the individual strategies employed to learn vocabulary knowledge.

Table 3*Individual Frequency Use to Learn Vocabulary*

Determination Strategies (Items)	M	SD
1. I identify the part of speech of the new word (verb, noun, adjective) to help me know its meaning.	3,42	1,25
2. I break the new word up into the main parts (un-safe-ly = unsafely).	3,16	1,47
3. I analyze any available pictures to help me understand new words.	3,24	1,29
4. I analyze any available gestures to help me understand new words.	3,34	1,36
5. I use a bilingual dictionary (Arabic / English) (English/ Arabic) to check the form and meaning of the new word.	3,87	1,33
6. I guess the meaning of the new word is from the context in which it occurs.	4,00	1,17
Social Strategies (Items)	M	SD
7. I ask a teacher for translation of the new word into Arabic.	2,30	1,40
8. I ask a teacher for a paraphrase of the new word.	2,93	,23
9. I ask a teacher for a sentence including the new word.	2,85	,41
10. I ask classmates for the meaning of the new word.	3,51	,44
11. I discover new meanings through group work activities.	2,89	,48
12. I study and practice the meaning of the new words in a group of students.	2,67	,34
Memory Strategies (Items)	M	D

I study the spelling of the new word.	2,97	,42
13. I connect the new word to a personal experience (e.g. connecting the word research with the final project).	3,28	,36
14. I paraphrase the meaning of the word I am learning in another way.	3,53	,24
15. I study the sound of the new word.	2,83	,38
16. I associate the new word with its coordinates (apples with oranges, peaches, etc.).	3,22	,29
17. I say the new word aloud when studying.	3,30	,37
18. I connect the new word to its synonyms and antonyms.	3,85	,24
19. I make an image in my mind of the form of the new word.	3,73	,16
20. I use 'scales' for gradable adjectives (e.g. huge, big, small).	2,81	,42
21. I use the Keyword Method.	3,32	,12
Cognitive Strategies(items)	M	D
22. I revise the newly learned words using spaced repetition.	3,20	,15
23. I write the new word many times.	2,6	,46
24. I keep a vocabulary notebook for expanding rehearsal.	3,10	,38
25. I make my lists of new words.	3,12	,30
Metacognitive Strategies(items)	M	D
26. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by watching English TV channels (e.g. movies, songs, documentaries).	4,20	,02

27. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by using computer programs (e.g., internet).	3,91	,03
28. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by listening to English radio programs (songs, news).	3,61	,18
29. I revise the newly learned words soon after the initial meeting.	2,83	,17
30. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by reading English newspapers and magazines.	3,36	,09
31. I skip the new word.	2,53	,15
32. I try to assess my vocabulary knowledge (e.g., with word tests).	3,20	,978

The results indicate that the students used a variety of strategies to discover the meaning of the word. In respect to individual strategies, students' responses reported higher frequency use in two metacognitive strategies "I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by watching English TV channels (e.g., movies, songs, documentaries)" and "I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by using computer programs (e.g., internet)." by (M=4.20.SD= 1,02) and (M=3.91.SD=1,03) respectively. Besides, strategies, students reported they always use "I guess the meaning of the new word from the context in which it occurs" (M=4,00, SD=1,17). Unexpectedly, the third-year students use also often a bilingual dictionary (Arabic / English) (English/ Arabic) to check the form and meaning of the new word. They never or rarely use I break the new word up into the main parts (un-safe-ly = unsafely) (M=3,16, SD=1,47). Stating to the results of the **table**, social strategies are the least strategies used by the students to discover the meaning of the words. They are less socially involved to ask the meaning of new words either from the teacher or the students. They" ask classmates for the meaning of the new word

($M=3,51$, $SD=1,44$) or they ask the teacher to paraphrase the meaning of the word ($M=2,93$, $SD=1,23$), but they rarely I ask a teacher for translation of the new word into Arabic. ($M=2,30$, $SD=1,40$)

Moreover, the statistical results revealed that the students used sometime with low-frequency memory and cognitive to learn, practice, and remember the meanings of new English words. In the memory strategy, students reported that they connect the new word to its synonyms and antonyms ($M=3,85$, $SD=1,24$) and they make an image in my mind of the form of the new word. ($M=3,73$, $SD=1,16$) more than other strategies, while they rarely or occasionally study the spelling or sound of new words ($M=2,83$, $SD=1,38$, $M=2,97$, $SD=1,42$). In addition, the students reported that there are no significant differences among the use of cognitive strategies to study and practice the new words, applying repetition techniques ($M=3,20$, $SD=1,15$) is the most used strategy, on the contrary, they rarely apply repetition strategy through writing words many times ($M=2,6$, $SD=1,46$).

In the Metacognitive strategies, the students concurrently use a wide range of visual and audio procedures to help them study and memorize words. They always try to develop vocabulary knowledge by watching English TV channels (e.g. movies, songs, documentaries) by ($M=4,20$, $SD=1,02$), they always try to develop vocabulary knowledge by using computer programs (e.g. internet) ($M=3,91$, $SD=1,03$) and they try to develop vocabulary knowledge by listening to English radio programs (songs, news) ($M=3,61$, $SD=1,18$). However, the students reported they rarely skip to study new words ($M=2,53$, $SD=1,15$).

Appendix C comprised the most/least commonly-used strategies of sub-categories of strategies. Each strategy item in this group either has a mean between 4,20 and 3.5. The results revealed that the first two items have been allocated extremely high values which were related to

determination (**6 and 5**) and metacognitive strategies (**27,28, and 29**) this means that students hinge principally on media and digital programs to broaden their vocabulary size. Additionally, they rely on memorization strategies (**19,20, and 15**) **through studying** synonyms and antonym or paraphrasing to connect and memorize new words. Although, the third-year students still use bilingual (Arabic/English) dictionaries to discover the meaning of the new words, and they try to memorize words by asking the teacher to paraphrase the new words, but they rarely apply repetition techniques to memorize and learn new words.

Contrary to the review findings of the most frequent strategies, the social strategies occupied the least frequent strategies (**7,12,9, and 11**) each strategy item in this group either had a mean less than 3.0 or had equal or above 2.5. The students rarely ask for the Arabic translation of the new words or discuss them with students and they infrequently skip studying new words. cognitive strategies are also the less frequently used strategies (**23,24,25, and 26**). The results also revealed that students do not pay attention to studying and memorize linguistics knowledge-based strategies such as orthographic character when learning new characters (spelling and phonetics) which influence negatively the writing and speaking performance.

1.2. Learners' Frequency of the Language Learning Strategy Use to develop writing proficiency

The third section of the questionnaire was used to explore language writing strategies used by the third-year student to improve writing proficiency. It includes five sub-categories and 30 items, each of the items presents an opinion about the use of a writing strategy before planning Strategies (34 to 40), while Language-Focusing Strategies (41 to 46), Affective Strategies (47 to 51). and after the writing process., Self-Evaluating Strategies (52 to 57), and

self-monitoring strategies (items 58 from 63). Descriptive statistics were used to find out the means score and standard deviation for overall strategy use were calculated.

Table 4					
<i>Learners Frequency of LLSs and Writing Skills</i>					
	MON	LANG	PLAN	AFFEC	EVAL
Mean	3,7109	3,4898	3,9738	3,6041	3,5102
SD	,78305	,63684	,75349	,70768	,81324
Strategy use	High	Medium	High	High	High
Ranking	2	5	1	3	4

N=49 *Number of items=18*

Another analysis of data with regard to third-year students' strategies use is related strategies to develop writing proficiency, it can be concluded that three strategies have high frequencies used by students. The findings show that the students used more self-planning strategies (M=; 3,97, SD= ,75) as compared to self-monitoring strategies (M= 3,71; SD=,78), this means close to affective (M= 3,60; SD= .70) and evaluating strategies (M=3,61; SD= .81). The medium frequent strategy use related to language focusing with means and standard deviation (M=3,48; SD=,63).

The table provides in detail the students' strategies employed by students when writing English essays.

Table 5

Frequency Use of Individual LLSs When They Write Essays

		SD	
Planning Strategies			
1. Before writing, I do mind-mapping to generate and cluster my ideas.	,63	1,21	Before Writing
2. Before writing, I create an outline for the whole content and organization.	,77	1,19	
3. I always make a writing plan before I start to write.	,89	1,14	
4. Before I start writing, I read about the topic and collect information from different sources.	,28	1,00	
5. I try to have my argument clear before starting writing.	,06	1,02	
6. like to start writing when both ideas and structures are clear in my mind	,12	1,20	
7. Before I start writing, I think carefully about what I want to achieve and how I am going to approach it.	,04	1,09	
Language-Focusing Strategies			
8. I think of the rhetorical steps of the text when writing in English.	,34	1,01	While Writing
9. I think of the use of language features of the text when writing in English.	,24	1,10	
10. I think of the communicative purposes of the text when writing in English.	,53	,98	
11. I write various kinds of texts in English (a descriptive, narrative, news item, etc.).	,46	1,10	

12. I pay attention to the use of transition signals within a paragraph to show the unity of ideas.	,08	1,22	
13. When I am going to write a text, I jot down a few words and then I work up my notes into an essay.	,26	1,25	
Affective Strategies			
14. I think of my progress in learning English writing.	,71	1,00	
15. I have clear goals for improving my English writing skill.	,38	1,15	
16. I try to find out how to be a better writer of English.	,81	1,05	
17. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English in writing.	,79	1,18	
18. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am writing.	,30	1,26	
Self-evaluation strategies			
19. I do revise to improve the clarity of my writing.	,53	1,30	Post Writing
20. I do revise to improve the style of my writing.	,77	1,21	
21. I do revise to develop the content of my writing.	,73	1,07	
22. When revising, I focus on the word's selection	,42	1,29	
23. When revising, I focus on grammar, vocabulary as well as ideas.	,79	1,17	
24. When I revise, I make changes to the sentence and paragraph structure	,79	1,20	
Self-Monitoring Strategies			
25. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	,73	1,13	
26. I read my text regularly when writing to check whether I am satisfied with it.	,81	1,33	

27. I check if each sentence I write is accurate and perfect before I write another sentence.	,65	1,33	
28. I constantly check the grammar and vocabulary in my writing.	,81	1,18	
29. I write more than one draft before handing in the final product of the essay.	,38	1,39	
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use a new word that I learnt.	,85	1,04	

The illustration of student responses on prewriting stage explicitly on planning strategies revealed a high-frequency use for all items which entails that students are aware of the importance of the prewriting process associated with goals of generating, organizing, and sifting ideas for writing essays such as **“reading about the topic and collect information from different sources”** (M=4,28; SD =1,00) **“starting writing when both ideas and structures are clear in my mind”** (M=4,12; SD=1,20), and organizing my argument clear before starting writing (M=4,06; SD=1,02) and finally setting goals and plan how they are going to approach them (M=4,04; SD=1,09). In the drafting process, the students implement language focus, the results recorded a high-frequency use **“to pay attention to the use of transition signals within a paragraph to show the unity of ideas”** (M=4,08; SD=1,22) and thinking of communicative purposes of the text when writing in English (M=3,53; SD= 98). The student's responses recorded a medium use on writing various kinds of texts in English (a descriptive, narrative, news item, etc.) (M=3,46; SD=1,10) and thinking of rhetorical steps of the text when writing in English. (M=3,34; SD =1,01) and low-frequency use of language features of the text (M=3,24; SD=1,10) and preparing a list of words to use in the text (M=3,26; SD.1,25).

As far as the individual strategy is concerned, the table shows high means of frequency use related reviewing and editing process to students constantly check writing and vocabulary when they write text and read my text ($M=3.81$, $SD=1.18$) and ($M=3.81$, $SD=1.33$). Students indicate they notice mistakes they have made while writing and while ($M=3.38$, $SD 1.39$) they proofread their rough drafts. The applicability of self-monitoring helps students to measure their progress toward their goals. Affective strategies regulate students' self-cognition and focus and it helps students to build up confidence. The findings suggest that the majority of the students are aware of implementing various strategies related to self-confidence when they try to find out how to be a better writer of English. ($M=3.81$; $SD=1.05$), try to write in English ($M=3.79$; $SD=1.18$) and when they think of my progress in learning English writing. ($M=3.7$; $SD=1.00$). This means that students were effectively using the affective writing strategies that are used for reducing reduction and self-encouragement purposes (Oxford, 1990).

In addressing to answer the research question about the most and the least frequent strategy use. The appendix revealed that planning strategies have been assigned as the most frequent strategies, this is related to **(16,18,17, 15, and 19)**. The ranking strategies showed that students pay attention to coherence and cohesion between ideas and paragraphs, this is related to strategies **(11)**. Finally, the results revealed that students are aware of the revision process to improve English writing through checking grammar and vocabulary, and text style **(6,4,2)**. Regarding the least frequent strategies, the students dispensed a low frequent use in evaluation strategies (30) and language focus strategies (8,12,7,5); it means that students pay less attention to revise the sentence and paragraph structure. The findings also indicate that they record and prepare a list of words before start writing, study the language features of the text, and consider the rhetorical steps when they write in English. Lastly, a small number of students reported that

they write more than one draft when before they hand in the final product (self-monitoring strategies).

2. Key Findings of Phase Two

2.1. Third-year students' receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge

The second question scrutinized in this study is the state of receptive and productive knowledge of vocabulary among third-year students at the University of Larbi Tebessi -Tebessa. The receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge were estimated by totaling the scores from both tests out of 72. The reliability was performed for both the receptive and productive tests, it was mainly measured using the Cronbach's Alpha. Reliability coefficients for receptive and productive tests respectively are .855. The results are very good as it was suggested by Pallant (2007) who argued that a well-designed test should have a Cronbach's Alpha of at least .7. The overall receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge of participants.

Table 6		
<i>Receptive and Productive Word Knowledge</i>		
	RVLT	PVLT
M	42,48	31,40
Std. Dev	13,10	31,40
Min	16,00	8,00
Max	67,00	63,00

N=49

Table 6 shows the means and standard deviations for the PVLT and RVLT scored by the 49 students involved in the study. As can be seen, the mean score of the RVLT is (M=42,4898)

and the standard deviation (SD=13,10554) and the mean score of the PVLТ are (M=31,4082) and the standard deviation (SD=31,4082).

As it can be observed from the table, there is a considerable difference between both tests. On the one hand, the maximum score for RVLT is 67 out of the 72 with a difference of 5 points from the total score and PVLТ's maximum score is 63 with a difference of 9 points. On the other hand, the minimum score for RVLT is 16 points and the half (08 points) for PVLТ.

3.1.1. Receptive Vocabulary Scores of Third Year Students

Table 7				
<i>Means and Standard Deviation Receptive Scores of Third Year Students</i>				
	2000 LEVEL	3000 LEVEL	5000 LEVEL	AWL
M	13,89	11,77	7,89	8,91
Std. Dev	3,71	4,07	4,38	3,46
Min	1,00	4,00	,00	3,00
Max	18,00	18,00	17,00	15,00

N=49

Number of items=18

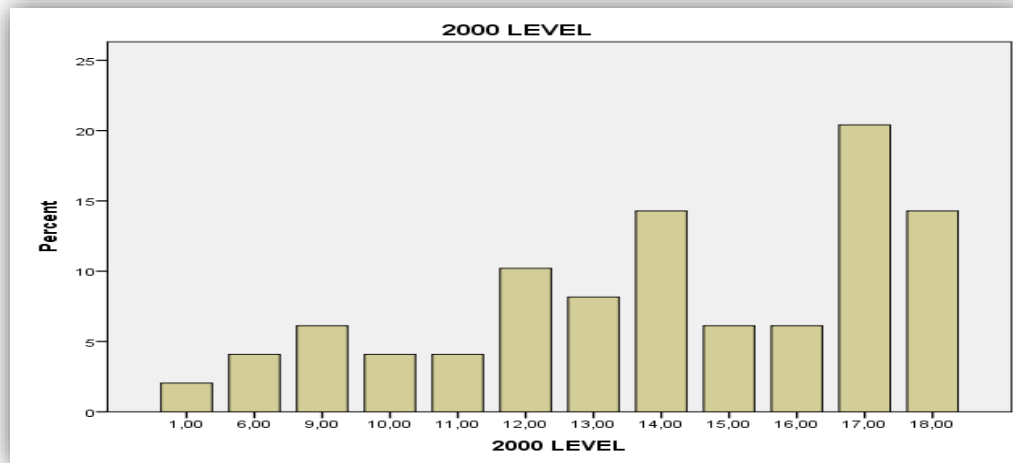
The aforementioned results pertain to the level students when categorized by sub-levels (2000,3000,5000, UWL levels) highlights the vocabulary variability among the participants can be seen by analyzing each level. From the table below, we can observe the means of score level decreased from 2000 level to 5000 level. This is logical decreasing progression because the students' vocabulary knowledge decreases as the words belong to less frequent words in the test. The mean scores indicate that the 2,000-word level is satisfactory t-test has the highest mean score (M=13,89) and standard deviation (SD=3,71) which indicates that the students know the most common words for everyday communication (Schonell et al., 1956). The second highest

means score was found for the 3000-word level which pertains to those students are on the threshold to pursuit the spoken and written discourse with means ($M=11,75$ and standard deviation ($SD=4,07$). Students' responses to items in the 5000-word level revealed the lowest mean scores, the results indicate that the students have weak vocabulary capacity than the other word levels and the students have lack novel words and they cannot infer them in written discourse with lean scores ($M=7,89$) and. Finally, the mean scores of the UWL ($M=8,91$) and standard deviation ($SD=3,46$) shows that students have a moderate word level in the academic word list even though they encounter challenges to cope with technical vocabulary required for other disciplines (Nation and Waring, 1997; Schmitt et al., 2001).

The chart below indicates that the overall receptive vocabulary size of third-year students is considered satisfactory. The profile illustrates that ranking of the percentages goes to nearly half of students (22%) who scored almost the complete score of 17 (out of 18), while (14%) percent of the students scored between complete scores and 14 (out of 18). Then it followed by (10%) to (6%) who scored between 16,15, and 9. Finally, (2%) of the students take the lowest scores 1 point out of 18.

Figure 12

Frequency Distribution of 2000 Level (RVLT)

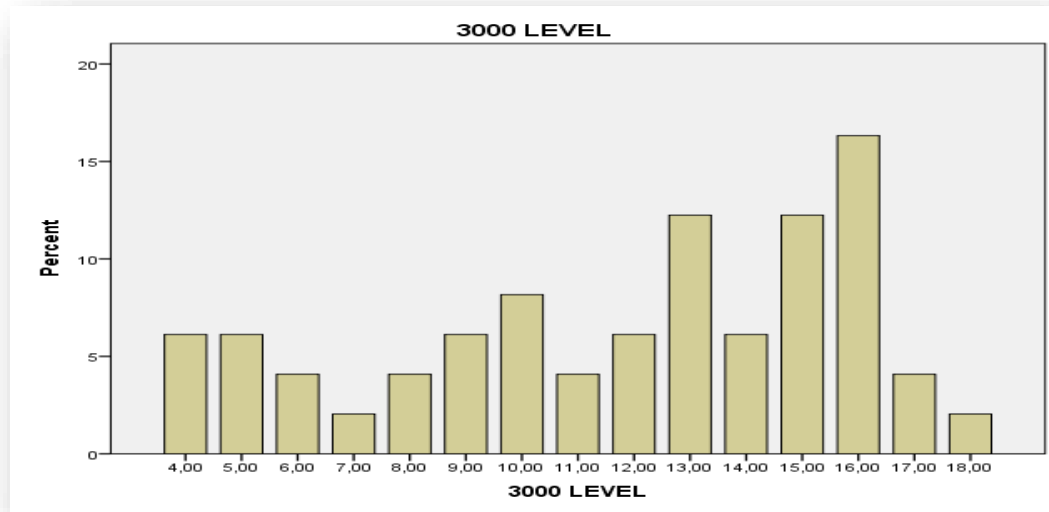


As a decrease is shown in the mean scores achieved by the students in the 3000 level, the profile score of the student's revealed variance in the level scores. (16%) of the students recorded the highest score (16 out of 18 points) followed by (13%) of the students who scored between 15 to 13 points. Additionally, less than 5 % of the students recorded the highest score of this level (18 points). It was found also that between 5% to 10% recorded the lowest score which means they are scored low scores ranging from 4 to 9 points.

The results found from the figure clearly indicate that the overall receptive vocabulary size of this sample of the third year is considerably medium and lesser than the 2000-word level regardless of their educational level.

Figure13

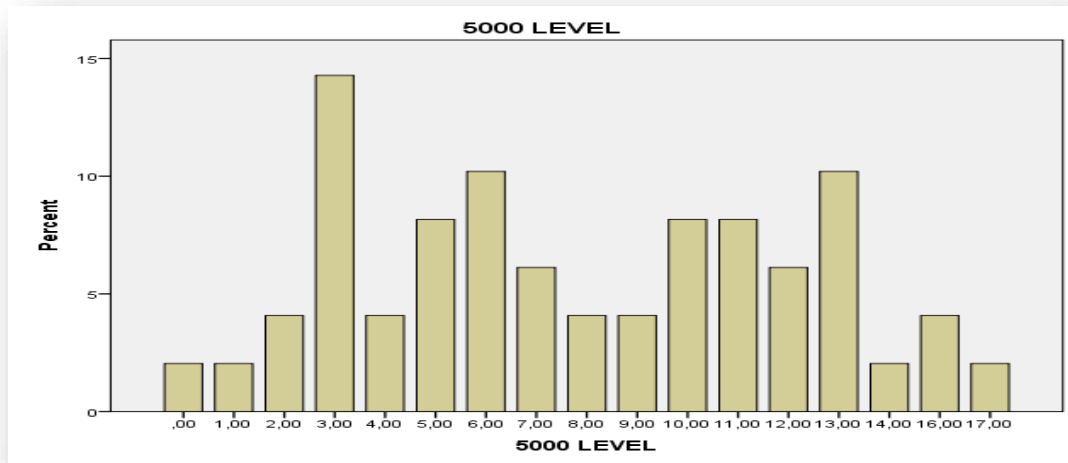
Frequency Distribution of 3000 Level (RVLT)



It is should be that students at the 3000 level recorded the lowest mean scores. Moreover, no students obtained the highest score (18 points), while the majority of students 18 % scored 3points out of the 18points.It can be claimed that the students have a considerable little or lack of vocabulary knowledge at that level. Less than 5 % of the students obtained very good scores ranging from 14 to 17 points whereas 8% to 10% attained acceptable scores ranging from 10 to 13 points. Lastly, 3% percent of the participants recorded a minimum score (zero) which entails that these students have deficiencies to comprehend about 98% of ordinary texts as it was noted by Nation (1990) and Laufer (1997), it also helps learners to apply appropriate contextual guessing techniques (Coady et al., 1993; Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Laufer, 1997).

Figure 14

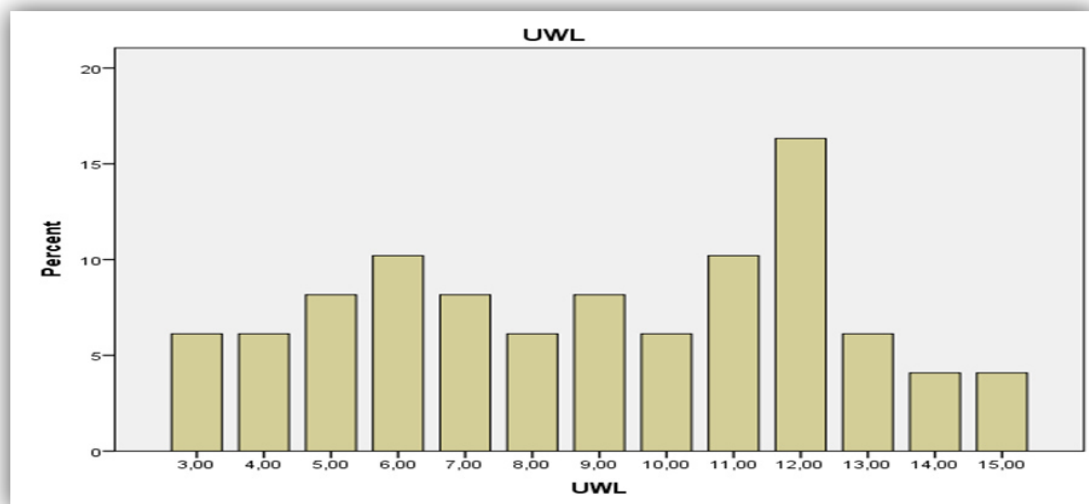
Frequency Distribution of 5000 Level (RVLT)



As can be seen from the graph, the results obtained coincide in showing a rather higher score than 3000 level. However, none of the students recorded the highest scores (from 16 to 18 points) and only 4% of the students obtained the high score on this level (14-15 points). The majority of the students 17% scored 12 points followed by 10 % of the students who attained less than 10 points. The results also revealed that none of the students scored less than 3 points.

Figure 15

Frequency Distribution of UWL(RVLT)



Presumably, the results indicate that the students have a very acceptable level in the UWL According to Coxhead (1998), The UWL contains 570-word families which frequently appear in academic texts and covers 10% of words in academic texts. Additionally, the words in the UWL are not related to any particular field, but they are useful for all students Smith (2020).

3.1.2. Productive Vocabulary Scores of Third Year Students

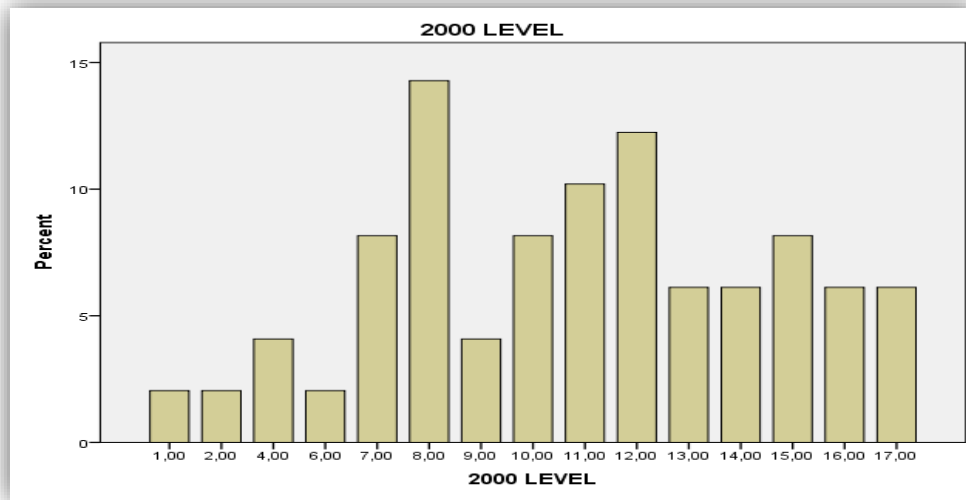
	2000 LEVEL	3000 LEVEL	5000 LEVEL	AWL
M	10,73	6,38	5,79	8,48
Std. Dev	3,90	3,94	3,70	4,51
Min	1,00	,00	,00	,00
Max	17,00	15,00	16,00	17,00

N=49 *Number of items=18*

The same analysis was done for overall levels of productive word frequency. Correspondingly to receptive size results, we can detect, that the mean scores decreased from 2000 level to 5000 level. 2000 level recorded the highest scores with means (M=10,73) and standard deviation (SD=3,90) followed surprisingly by UWL with score means (8,48) and standard deviation (SD=4,51).3000 and 5000 level records the lowest score with means (M=6,39), (M=5,79) and standard deviation (SD= 3,94) and (SD=4,51) respectively.

Figure 16

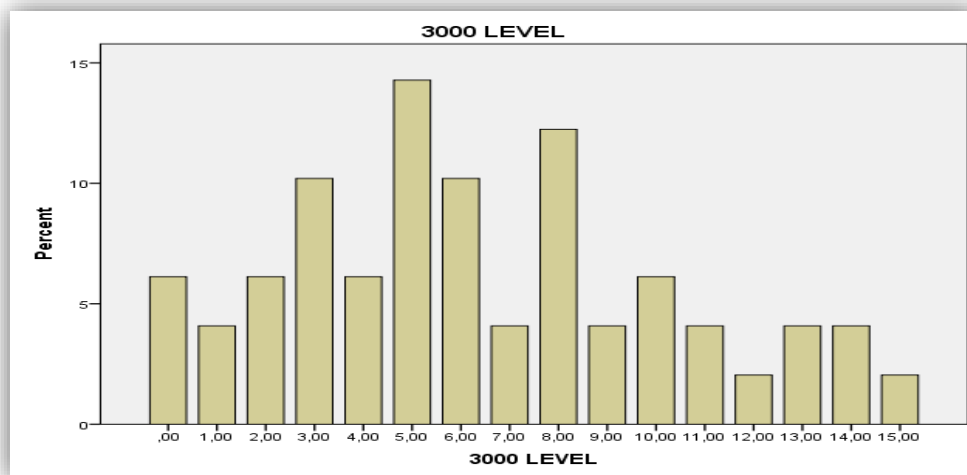
The Frequency Distribution Of 2000 Level (PVLТ)



The results demonstrate that students' mean scores in 2000 level record very satisfactory level nevertheless the highest students (17%) obtained a medium score (8 points), then it tracked by 10 % to 13% of the students who scored ranged from 10 to 12 points. 7% of the participants recorded comparable scores related to 13,14,16 and 17 points. Additively, less than 5% of the lowest scores recorded the bottom points in this level.

Figure 17

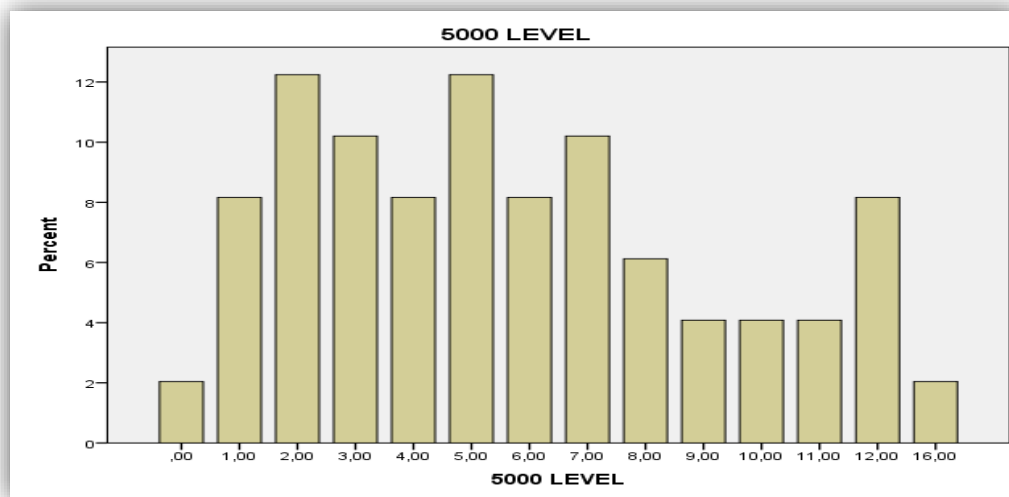
The Frequency Distribution of 3000 Level (PVLТ)



The graph illustrates the overall productive vocabulary size of students in 3000 level. The results indicate that the students are average. Perceptibly, (14%) which represents the highest portion of the students obtained a weak score which is 5 points out of the 18 points, while (12%) of the participants have got the half score (8points) .10% of the participants scored between 6 and 3 points. Moreover, the lowest score 5% in this test was recorded with maximum points ranging between 13 and 14 points. it worth mentioning here that last than 5% of the participant scores 15 points which represents the highest score in this test.

Figure 18

The Frequency Distribution of 5000 Level (PVLТ)

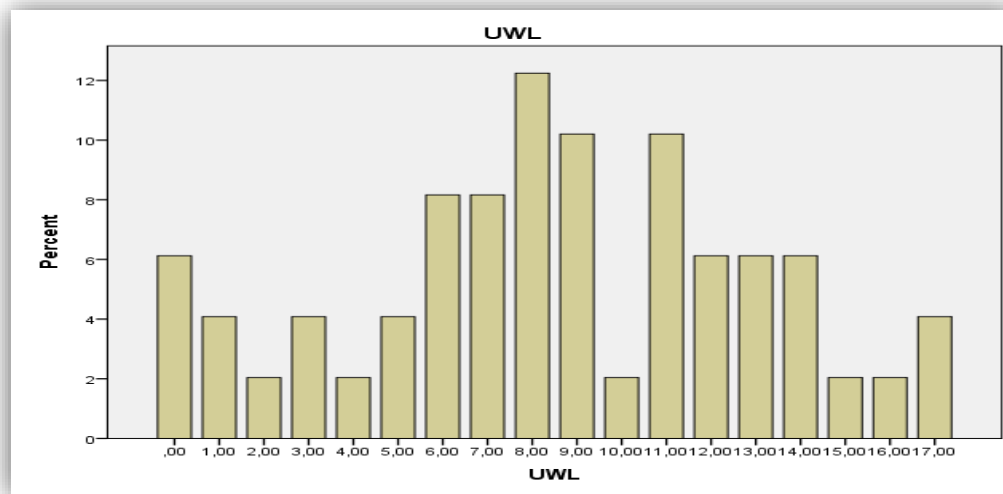


At the 5000 level, it is easy to segment student scores into sub-group. First, most of the students 12% are placed in weak scores ranging 2 and 5 points followed by the 10 % who scored 3 and 7 points, then 8% of the students recorded also weak scores ranging from 6, 4, and close to limit score 1. Furthermore, a low percentage of 4% found on the average points of this test are 9,10,11 points. Finally, the lowest percentage 2% of the students obtained the highest and lowest score 16 and 00 points in this study.

With regard to the results obtained, we can say that student's performance on this level is very low, this result is expected and confirmed that the students have a serious problem covering word frequency in this level for both receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge.

Figure 19

The Frequency Distribution of UWL Level (PVLТ)



The result of the UWL revealed a significant increase in the score in comparison with the previous level. It is important to recall that students perform better on this level on RVLТ and they noticeably student level is intermediate. Medium scores were recorded by 12% of the participants and 10 % of them obtained 9 and 11 points. Average scores (6-7 points) were achieved by 8% of the students. Noteworthy score differences can be observed in 8 % who obtained between average marks (12,13, and14) and minimum score (Zero) points. Likewise, it can be also detected that 2 % of the students obtained different scores vacillated from weak (2-4 points) to good (15-16 points). Finally, only 3 % of the participants recorded 17 out of the 18 points which is the highest score of this level.

Table 9*The Difference Between RVLТ and PVLТ*

		M	SD
Pair 1	2000 LEVEL	13,89	3,71
	2000 LEVEL	10,73	3,90
Pair 2	3000 LEVEL	11,77	4,07
	3000 LEVEL	6,38	3,94
Pair 3	5000 LEVEL	7,89	4,38
	5000 LEVEL	5,79	3,70
Pair 4	UWL	8,91	3,46
	UWL	8,48	4,51

Apart from analyzing students' scores at the different levels. T-Test was performed on the results of RVLТ and PVLТ check the significant difference between participants' receptive and productive vocabulary scores that was based on the word frequency levels, therefore the means of those word frequency levels were measured and compared. The previous results indicated that participants performed well at the 2000 level of both tests, even though no one grasped the 80% score, which is considered the top standard percentage. Therefore, the means for receptive is (M = 13,89) and for productive is (M = 10,73) with the difference of 3,13 points. Besides at the 3000 level, the mean difference increased to 5,38 points with the means of (M = 11,77) for receptive and (M = 6,38) for productive. Then the difference between receptive and productive decreases remarkably at 5000 level with the difference of 2.10. The last level of the

university word list shows the minimum difference among the four-level with 0,24 points and with means ($M = 8,91$) and ($M=8,49$) for receptive and productive levels correspondingly.

2.2. The Correlation Between Receptive and Productive Vocabulary Level Test Scores

The present study used a .01 level of significance and the computation of correlation with a significant point less than .01 showed the rejection of the null hypothesis. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis was accepted and that the variables showed a statistically significant correlation. On the other hand, if the significant point of computation showed greater than the .01 level of significance, the null hypothesis was accepted which means that there was no significant correlation between the variables.

Table 10

Correlations between RVLТ and PVLТ

		RVLТ	PVLТ
RVLТ	Pearson Correlation	1	.700**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
PVLТ	Pearson Correlation	.700**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 10 revealed the correlation coefficient of 0.700 and it was also clear that the score of Sig. (2-tailed) is 0.000 which was lower than the significant level $\alpha = 0.01$ ($0.000 < 0.01$). It leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis which means that there is a significant correlation between RVLТ and PVLТ. It is apparent that the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted in which indicated that there is a strong significant correlation between RVLТ and PVLТ.

2.3. The Contribution of LLSs on Receptive and Productive Level Scores

The third sub-question related to question 2 inquired whether LLSs could be a contributor to learners' receptive and productive vocabulary level scores. To answer that question linear simple regression analysis was performed in the data. The following the **Table 11** showed the contribution of LLSs (dependent variable) on receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge (independent variables/predictors). Before applying the simple linear regression analysis between variables, we need to investigate whether the dependent variables (RVLT& PVLТ) can be assumed to be normally distributed. The table below reveals the tests of normality.

Table 11

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
RVLT	.095	49	200*	.975	49	389
PVLT	.119	49	082	.970	49	245
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.						
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

The table presents the results from two well-known tests of normality, namely the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and the Shapiro-Wilk Test. The Shapiro-Wilk Test is more appropriate for small sample sizes (< 50 samples), For this reason, the Shapiro-Wilk test should use as numerical means of assessing normality. The results revealed that the P-value for RVLT is p=389 and p=245 for PVLT>0.05. Therefore, both RVLT and PVLT are normally distributed.

Linear regression was calculated to predict the contribution of LLSs on PVLТ and RVLТ scores as well. Significant regression equation was presented in the following table:

Table 12

Linear Regression to Predict the Contribution of LLSs On PVLТ & RVLТ

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
RVLТ	(Constant)	38.684	12.461		3.105	.003
	LLSs	-.003	3.757	-.078	.533	.596
PVLТ	(Constant)	36.380	12.005		3.030	.004
	LLSs	1.865	3.619	.075	.515	.609

R Square=.006(PVLТ) R Square=.006(RVLТ)

We note from the table that a simple linear regression equation for the contribution of LLSs on the RVLТ and PVLТ represented in the coefficient of determination R² has reached its value of 0.006 and that the estimated percentage of 99.4% of the effect on the LLSs is due to other factors, and the correlation coefficient reached R = .078 for RVLТ and .075 for PVLТ, which indicates the existence of a relationship between the two variables.

The value coefficient of the LLSs B = 1.865, with a significance level of 0.609, is not significant because it is greater than the significance level, which indicates the positive relationship between the LLSs and RVLТ statistically. As for the parameter (constant term), its value was B=36.380 with a function level of 0.004., while the value of the coefficient of the

LLSs $B = -2.003$ at the significance level, was 0.596, which indicates the negative relationship between the LLSs and PVLТ statistically. As for the intersection parameter (constant), its value was $B = 38.684$ with a significance level of 0.003 significant.

Thus, from the above analysis of the test results imposed by the table leads fail to reject the null hypothesis H_0 , which states: There is no statistically significant effect at the significant level of 0.05: There is no predictive relationship between LLSs and RVLТ and PVLТ.

Following up the investigation about the practical relationship and contribution of LLSs categories to RVLТ & PVLТ separately.

Table 13

A Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis to PVLТ & RVLТ

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	47.674	6.318	-.351-	7.546	.000
SOC	-5.430-	2.110		-2.573-	.013
R Square=.123					

A multiple regression stepwise was applied. Among LLSs categories such determination, memory, social, metacognitive, and cognitive, only social strategies had correlation and contribution (12.3 %) of significance ($p < 0.05$) toward PVLТ. No correlation and contribution were detected on any categories of LLSs and RVLТ. This result also lends itself to concluding that LLSs predicts students' PVLТ as indicated with the result of Beta value $- .351$ and t value $- 5.430$.

3. Key Findings of Phase Three

1.1. Quality of Student Argumentative Essays

49 essays of students who participated in the questionnaire, the vocabulary level tests were assigned to write an argumentative essay. The argumentative essay allows for a comparison between the aspects of the text and strategies used by students. The textual analysis was assessed according to the criteria from Bacha model's (2001) who followed Jacobs et al. (1981) ESL Composition Profile combined with elements structure and description of argumentative essay obtained from(<https://www.rcampus.com/rubricshowc.cfm?code=Q94AW8&sp=yes&>).

Table 14 describes the descriptive statistics of the scores obtained from the rafters. The researcher used himself as the third rater to check the overrated or underrated scores suggested by the two raters. Since the researcher did not notice a significant discrepancy between the raters (1 or 2 maximum notes), she calculates the closest scores among the raters. It is worth mentioning here that the researcher avoids marking half score (0.5 points) for a computational reason and easy analysis for descriptive results. Based on rater assessments, the overall score of essays can be ranged as follow:

Table 14

Student Essay Scores Range Based on Essay Criteria

Score Range	Criteria	Student Number	Percentage%
20-18	Excellent to Very Good	01	02.04%
17-14	Good to Average	09	18.36%
13-10	Fair	23	46.93%
9-5	Poor	15	30.61%

4-0	Very poor	01	02.04%
Average score=10.75		N=49	100%

The results of assessments indicate that nearly half of the participants (46,93%) are fair writers. 30,61% prove to be poor, while 18,36% are between good and average. Only 02,04% of the participants are excellent. The table below showed that the writing quality of participant essays based on rubrics such as Organization, Content, vocabulary, and Mechanics.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics of Quality of Argumentative Essays Based on Rubrics

Descriptors	Min	Max	M	SD
Language use	,00	4,00	2,34	,92
Mechanics	,00	3,00	2,14	,88
Organization	1,00	4,00	2,14	,73
Content	1,00	3,00	2,04	,70
Vocabulary	1,00	4,00	1,95	,84
Written Essay				
Total score /20	4,00	17,00	10,75	3,38

Based on the resultant scale, corresponding to the descriptors of argumentative essay i.e., content, mechanics, organisation, language use, and vocabulary according to Jacob's model (1981). The average score for each aspect can be seen in the **table15** as follow:

We notice that there is a gradual decrease in the student scores related to each aspect of writing. Language use recorded the highest scores (M=2;34, SD=,92) followed by mechanics and

organisation respectively (M=2,14; SD=,88) and (M=2,14; SD=,73). Content is ranked the fourth aspect of writing (M=2,04; SD,70). Finally, vocabulary ranked the lowest score ((M=1,95; SD=,84)

Thus, the overall score of students in an argumentative essay is fair with means (M=10,75) and (SD=3,38). The descriptive statistics for argumentative essays indicated that the students accorded more attention to micro-level and macro-level aspects of writing with little focus on words choice.

1.2. The Contribution of LLSs to the Writing Essay Scores

Table 16

Regression Analysis Summary for LLSs Use Predicting Writing Scores

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta	
(Constant)	3.640	2.977		.223
LLSs	1.945	.804	.333	.419

R Square = .111

A simple regression was conducted to predict the use of LLSs on writing scores. There results indicated that LLSs is significant predictor, $F(1,78)=5.854, p=0,19$. P value is .019. is less than .05, we can conclude that there is a statistically significant difference between LLSs and Essay scores. It leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. This means that there was a significant correlation between LLSs combined with

essay scores. In other words, when the score of LLSs increases, the writing achievement will also increase. 1.945 and vice versa. LLSs are significantly correlated with essay scores.

Along with second question, to find the contribution of individual LLSs to essay scores, step-wise multiple regressions were used. The following Table showed the contribution of LLSs to essay scores.

Table17

A stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for LLSs Categories to Develop Writing

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.577	2.533		1.412	.164
Language focus	2.057	.714	.387	2.880	.006

R square = .115

The step-wise multiple regression analysis in **Table 17** revealed among LLSs, only language focus strategy had a significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation and contribution (11.5 %) toward learner's essay scores. The test results revealed a correlation between the independent variable (language focus strategy) and dependent variable (essay scores), which was 0.387 (multiple R). The variance value of dependent variable correlated significantly with independent variable. This can be explained through the power which is able to describe the regression model with the value (R^2), which is .150

Language focus strategy ($\beta=0.387$, $T=2.2880$, Sig. $T=0.006$) had a contribution as much as 15 %. This circumstance showed that when language focus strategy was added by one unit, the level of essay scores was increased by 0.387 units, that is, students who used language focus

strategies to find the meaning of new words were better at essay scores in comparison with those who did not use language focus strategies.

1.3. The Correlation Between Receptive and Productive Vocabulary Level Test Scores and Students' Essay Scores.

Table 18

Correlations among PVL, PVL, and essay scores

		RVL	PVL
Essay	Pearson Correlation	.357*	.338*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.018

In terms of the third research question, the Pearson correlation coefficients were applied, the results indicated that the students' writing essay scores is statistically significantly associated with the receptive and productive vocabulary test scores ($r = .357$; $p = .12$) ($r = .338$; $p = .18$) respectively. However, the strength of the obtained results is a positive weak relationship.

2. Findings of Phase Four

2.1. Students' Vocabulary Size in Written Argumentative Essays

VocabProfile was used to analyze the vocabulary used by the students. **Table 19** demonstrates the results.

Table 19				
<i>Vocabulary Size in The Written Essay</i>				
	1000	1001-2000	AWL	Off List
Mean	83.9841	7.8955	5.4894	2.8194
Std. De	4.99000	2.42591	2.37699	2.07955

Minimum	62.61	3.11	1.50	.00
Maximum	93.47	15.65	12.17	9.57

The descriptive statistics in the table indicate that more than two-thirds (84%) of the vocabulary used by the third-year fall within the most frequently used 1000 words group (K-1). With the additional K- 2-word coverage (7.89 %) the cumulative percentage of the word coverage is 91.89 %. Moreover, the student essays include knowledge of words that belong to the K-3 group as much as 5.48 %, knowledge of words that belong to academic words as much as 2.81 %, and some words in the Off-list group. Thus, it could be interpreted that the vocabulary size of the participants mostly consisted of high-frequency words, and their levels of AWL use were not so advanced.

4.2. The Correlation Between Essay Quality and Different Bands of Vocabulary Size

It has been explained before why the researcher used multiple measures to assess the vocabulary size of the learners using two instruments (VLT and VocabProfile) especially when vocabulary is associated with language skills (writing). Vocabulary is the main linguistics feature to influence the writing quality. Another correlation analysis can be implemented in this study to explore the relationship between vocabulary size and the writing quality of the students. The correlation results were shown in the table below:

Table 20

The Correlation Between the Essay Score and Bands of Vocabulary Size

		1000	1001-2000	AWL	Off List
Essay	Pearson Correlation	-.146-	.119	.263	.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.316	.414	.068	.336

The results demonstrate the correlation between essay quality and different vocabulary bands performed by students. It shows that the use of 1st 1000 words has a negligible negative relationship with writing quality (-.146), but essay quality has positive has a negligible correlation with the use of words beyond 1st 1000 words (.119,.263,.140). It indicates the more frequent word belong to 1000 used in the essay to express the low quality they marked.

Conclusion

The quantitative findings reported in this chapter indicated several major findings in terms related to investigate the strategy use by third-year students, its predictive role to develop vocabulary knowledge and writing proficiency and the correlation between vocabulary knowledge and writing proficiency. These key findings will be presented and further discussed in the final chapter.

Chapter Six: Discussion

Introduction

In this chapter, we will initially summarise the key findings which were obtained to discuss students' use of LLSs, as well as its contribution to the two key variables, namely, writing proficiency, vocabulary knowledge. Key findings were analysed and discussed in order to answer the four proposed research questions. Pedagogical implications, limitations, and future directions are also deliberated in this chapter.

1. Discussion of the Findings from Questionnaire (phase one)

1.1. The Use of LLSs

This section reports the main findings obtained from phase one of this study: quantitative results from 63 items in the questionnaire that's was adapted, combined, and modified version from three commonly questionnaires (*Strategy Inventory for Language Vocabulary learning strategies, and Learning and posterior writing strategies questionnaire; SILL, Oxford, 1990 are used as a framework to develop the final version of this questionnaire*); and one background question to investigate students 'failure in written expression module. The results of overall strategy use will be presented based on research the first and second research questions.

1.1.1. Overall Strategy to Develop Vocabulary

In response to the first question were reported by third-year students at Larbi Tebessi University, the quantitative data analysis of a total of 33 LLSs items that are grouped into five categories revealed that participants are medium/ moderate users of strategies whenever they learn new vocabularies. In-depth analysis of five LLSs categories have shown that determination strategies are chiefly to be significantly the most used strategy, this number is understood to be a high mean score ($M=3.51$) and ($SD=,77$) indicates the fact that the students prefer the use of

contextual and guessing techniques to discover the meaning of the new words without the help of the teachers, it reflects that the students are conscious toward the responsibility of their vocabulary learning, while social strategy was to be less favored with a mean score of ($M=2,86$) and ($SD=,88$) was found as the least frequently used a strategy which entails that students don't support interacting with people to learn vocabulary. Determination strategy was followed by metacognitive (mean=3,38, $SD=,63$), memory ($m= 3,34$, $SD= ,88$), cognitive (mean=3,03, $SD=0.53$), and social strategy (mean=2,86, $SD=, 77$). It is conspicuous from results that have found that the use of various LLSs to learn vocabulary is very common for third-year students and they perceive different strategies to learn vocabulary. According to the results of studies, medium use of strategies by students reflects their awareness to employ LLSs (Kafipour & Naveh,2011). The result of this study is consistent with the results of Nirattisai and Chiramanee (2014) who found that the students of Prince of Songkhla University applied determination strategies more frequently, while social strategy was the least frequently applied. Similarly, the results of (Sihotang, Afriazi, and Imranuddin, 2017) found only determination strategy was only the most often strategy and it had an ($M=3.50$), while social strategy is the least frequent strategy ($M=2.83$). The results are also consistent with other studies such as (Liao, 2004; Hamzah et al., 2009; Sener, 2009; Huang, 2010; Komol & Sripetum, 2011; Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013; Jafari & Kafipour, 2013; Ghouati, 2014; Tanyer & Ozturk, 2014, AlKhasawneh, 2012).

Having seen the results of the LLSs from individual dimensions, all categories' items were analysed in details. The results have shown that the participants used a variety of strategies to enrich vocabulary; they mainly apply high-frequency use of metacognition strategies via digital and visual devices such as computers, TV, and the internet to fasten their learning vocabulary. According to Anderson (2002), the metacognition process involves learners 'active

action that needs a conscious decision to accomplish a learning task through planning, monitoring, and evaluating their learning. " I guess the meaning of the new word from the context in which it occurs" is a second highly recorded item of determination strategies. Surprisingly, we found that third-year students reported high frequency use a bilingual dictionary (Arabic/English) to check the meaning of new words and guess the meaning of a word from context, however, students reported a low-frequency use and less socially involved to ask teachers or another classmate to translate words in Arabic. It was believed that third-year students don't perceive using a bilingual dictionary as an effective strategy to learn vocabulary and they don't like to share it publicly since dealing with new words was not difficult. According to Schmitt (2000), the determination strategy is easy to apply by students using some supporting tools to learn vocabulary individually.

Memory strategies as mental processing strategies, focused on associating new words with existing ones. The students reported a medium use of those strategies; this means that they sometimes apply them to learn vocabulary. Oxford (2006) claimed that memory strategies are most preferred by beginner or elementary students and it was estimated henceforth that our target population is beyond the elementary level since they are in their graduation degree.

Correspondingly, cognitive processing includes a particular mental processing manipulation such as repetition, word list flashcards; It may not be interesting for third-year students to use them to learn vocabulary for that reason, they did not apply these strategies that much.

We can conclude from results obtained from phase one that students are conscious to select appropriate strategies to master vocabulary .Suprpto (2009) stated that some factors influence students learning strategy, they are divided between internal factors could be in form of

motivation, brain, attitude, learning style, and the external factors could be in form environment, teacher, curriculum, students, and perception.

1.1.2. Overall Strategy to Develop Writing

The third section of the questionnaire adapted from twelve posterior taxonomies of strategies of learning English writing skills (we work only on six sub-writing strategies). Initially, students' responses recorded a high-frequency use of strategies of four categories, the highest frequency use of self-planning ($M=3,97$) (Kieft et al., 2006) describes a planning strategy that belongs to metacognitive taxonomy is as an effective method to improve literary interpretation skills and writing achievement (Chen, 2011). It is a critical element of good writing when students put down words, phrases, and sentences in the essay. Torrance, Thomas, and Robinson (1994) stated that good planners show a higher level of productivity in writing. Similarly, studies Chen's study (2011) showed that planning strategies correlate with writing achievement. Loh (2007) explained that teachers may focus on planning strategies in writing instruction, which makes it the most preferred strategy among students. Additionally, self-monitoring also ranked the second high-frequency use ($M=3.71$); it entails those students paying attention to the surface level of language (grammar, vocabulary, and spelling). It represents subcategories of metacognitive strategies. Burt and Krashen (1982) describe monitoring as a learner's internal system to process consciously the information. Thus, the writer edits his writing task by correcting the micro-level of sentences that occurs during the writing process. The self-evaluating represents also the highest language frequency use which may contribute to creating a quality text (Harris, Santangelo, & Graham, 2010) and they may increase student's awareness of linguistics level (Guo & Huang, 2018; Liberty & Conderman, 2018;

Samanian & Roohani, 2018; Siamak & Mona, 2018). Self-evaluating strategy to some extent includes revising and proofreading activities to help learners clarify the content of the writing. According to White and Arndt's process of writing (1991), evaluation is done in line with the focusing stage, reviewing stage, and generating ideas stage. Findings indicate that language focusing is the only medium language used to learn writing skills, the findings contrast with (Mistar, Zuhairi, and Parlindungan, 2014) results.

Another analysis of data is conducted by drawing means of individual items about stages of the writing process. The results revealed all items in planning strategies recorded high-frequency use among all items on the questionnaire. Four items of planning strategies that belong to the pre-writing stage are highly used by third-year students; this related to items "Before I start writing, I read about the topic and collect information from different sources.", " try to have my argument clear before starting writing" "like to start writing when both ideas and structures are clear in my mind" and finally "Before I start writing, I think carefully of what I want to achieve and how I am going to approach it." (Bisseret, 1987; Burtis et al., 1983; Bridwell-Bowles et al., 1987; Eigler et al., 1990; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987; Sharples & Pemberton, 1990) claimed that a proficient writer grants a more flexible supporting role to such plan. Moreover, one item that belongs to language focusing strategies was most frequently used by third-year students, it related to the item "I pay attention to the use of transition signals within a paragraph to show the unity of ideas. Students' responses demonstrated that students are conscious about the well-structured essay through the application of cohesion devices. The studies of (Oshima and Hogue, 2007; Zemach and Rumisek, 2003), argued that by using transition signals properly and correctly, cohesion in writing can be achieved.

It was found that monitoring and affective strategies were also highly used by students. Previous studies (Bruen, 2001; Lai, 2009; Green & Oxford, 1995; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Victori, 1999) (cited in Raoofi et al,2017, p.192) proved that self-monitoring and evaluation in addition to self-planning as part of metacognitive strategies are an important predictor to EFL writing and a higher level of language proficiency, it reflects those students want to impose their own identity to control their writing. hence, Goctu (2017) claimed that that using metacognitive strategies helps students to manage the process of learning where they involve identifying an individual's unique learning style, planning for a task in a second language, collecting and reviewing materials, monitoring possible errors, and evaluating to accomplish the task. Relatively, self-evaluation strategies increase students' self-satisfaction (Norizarina, Nordiana &. Harwati, 2021). The results revealed that the students were highly used many items belonging to affective strategies, used by students to reduce anxiety, and when they face problems that they are not able to continue to write their essay, and then they stop writing to relax. According to Oxford (2017), learners used different components to affective strategies such as mediation, positive self-talk supportive emotion, and motivation, to control anxiety during the writing process.

2. Discussion of the Findings from Two vocabulary Tests (Phase Two)

2.1. The receptive and productive vocabulary size of third-year students

This section is concerned with discussing results related to what is the receptive and productive size of students. The receptive vocabulary size of the participants was tested through RVLT, while productive vocabulary size was measured using the PVLТ. On the one hand, the results indicate that the overall participants' receptive vocabulary size test scoring was below the threshold of 5000 words with means ($M=42,48$) and ($SD=13.10$).

Nation (2006) suggests that learners with 8000–9000-word families can comprehend and produce written and spoken language. Additionally, the participants in both vocabulary test reported decreased scores from 2000 bands to 5000 bands. They have also a higher vocabulary size in AWL more than 5000 level. The 3000 level was generally regarded low. M.A. Amin (2020) study revealed the same finding that 50% of participants were below 4200-word families, he explained the unexpected results that the teachers and learners as well did not focus on the high-frequency words and haphazardly selected words for teaching and learning (M.A. Amin,2020) (cited in Dodigovic & Agustín-Llach, 2020 p.29). Consequently, Laufer and Nation (1995) (as cited M.A. Amin,2020) suggested a cost-benefit perspective to selecting words for teaching which designates that the more focus on 2000 frequency words the easier less frequent words acquired. On the other hand, the PVLT revealed parallel results to RVLT which means that most of the participants' scoring was under the threshold of 3000-word families with means ($M=31,4082$) and the standard deviation ($SD=31,4082$). Laufer, 1992; Nation, 2006; Schmitt, 2000; Webb,2008) studies have suggested that 2000 words for conversational speaking, 3000 words for reading authentic text, and 5000-word families for writing. Hu and Nation (1992) found that a vocabulary of 5,000 words was needed to read short, simplified novels for pleasure, while Hazenberg, Hulstijn Greidanus & (1996) found that as many words were needed to read first-year university materials.

Results of receptive and productive size tests from T-test indicated that participants have a larger receptive size than productive vocabulary size. These findings are comparable to the results found in the studies of many researchers (Fan, 2000; Hajiyeva,

2015; Harji et al., 2015; Pignot-Shahov, 2012; Waring, 1997; Webb, 2008; Wise et al., 2007; Laufer, 1998; Zhong & Hirsh, 2009).

2.2. The Correlation between RVLТ and PVLТ

The findings related to the second question found a significant and strong correlation between aspects of vocabulary knowledge (RVLТ&PVLТ) ($r=0.700$). The finding confirmed that they do not grow in a parallel fashion, but they are related to each other. The relationship between RVLТ and PVLТ was found to be a stronger relationship. Armed with the above results, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted which indicates that there is a strong positive relationship between receptive and productive vocabulary scores. This finding is in the line with (Feng, 2015; Gonzalez-Fernandez and Schmitt's,2020) findings who argued that receptive and productive vocabulary size is more significantly related.

2.3. Contribution of LLSs Use to Receptive and Productive Vocabulary Size Score

The predictive role of LLSs frequency use and RVLТ and PVLТ was calculated using a simple and multiple linear regression correlation coefficient. Initially, the results revealed There was positive correlation between the use of strategies RVLТ (.78), PVLТ (.75) for all participants at a statistically significant level. However, there is no statistically significant effect at the significant level of 0.05. There is no predictive relationship between LLSs and RVLТ and PVLТ. It would seem that generally speaking, LLSs are not crucial to vocabulary learning. The result of this study goes beyond the results of Hamzah et al.'s (2009) who claim that no evidence was found concerning the relationship between particular strategy use of bilingual dictionary use and vocabulary size in previous studies is due to learners' inadequate knowledge of other LLSs. It is worth mentioning that participants in this study reported the highest frequent use of bilingual dictionary among other individual strategies, this study is inconsistent with

Alahmadi & Foltz (2020) studies who investigates how strategy use effect related to increasing vocabulary size, the sample targeted sixty-one advanced L1 Arabic L2 learners of English. They found initially a potential relationship between strategy use particularly inferencing strategy use and vocabulary size. Curtis (1987) provides opposing results, he revealed that LLSs directly affect the vocabulary size of the students, his finding was similar to results conducted by Nacera (2010), which focused on the use of LLS and their relation with vocabulary size. The study consisted of 45 second-year students graduating in the English language at the University of Mouloud Mammeri of Tizi Ouzou. She found that strategy use affects the vocabulary size of students.

Besides, no metacognitive, cognitive, memory, determination, or total strategies were found to contribute to RVLT & PVL, while social strategy had correlation and contribution (12.3 %) of significance on ($p < 0.05$) toward PVL. This finding is in line with the findings of Bennett (2006) and Kafipour (2011) who reported that social strategies were among the contributing strategies, while they were used less frequently to develop vocabulary size.

3. Discussion of The Findings from Writing Samples (Phase Three)

3.1. The Overall Quality of Argumentative Essays

The results obtained from descriptor-based rubric of student writing samples revealed that the overall quality of third-year students in writing an argumentative essay is fair, except for vocabulary criterion who rated the lowest scores. It can be observed from standard deviation associated with Language use ($M=2,34$, $SD=,92$), mechanics ($M=2,14$; $SD=,88$), and organisation ($M=2,14$; $SD=,73$), and content ($M=2,04$; $SD,70$) were recorded a fair amount of variation in the score of these aspects of writing which contradicts the findings of Ghabool et al. (2012) who investigated the writing difficulties faced by ESL students; the findings revealed that

language use which entails sentence construction and punctuation was identified as the area of most difficulties faced by the students. Moreover, the studies of Ariyanti, Fitriana(2017) investigated students writing difficulties , they found that paragraph organization, dictions, and vocabulary misspelling are the most challenging aspect to accomplish the writing task.

3.2. The Contribution of LLSs To the Essay Scores

The results of the study obtained from regression analysis suggested that there is strong evidence against the null hypothesis and LLSs use affects the writing abilities which means the higher use of LLSs correlates positively with high writing scores. However, the contribution of LLSs was a significantly weak influence on essay scores. The results may demonstrate that third-year university students in a writing course may have explicitly been taught some techniques and strategies about EFL writing. The results support the previous finding of Chand (2014) finding who employed the LLS questionnaire with undergraduate students, the finding suggested that the use LLSs did not bring significant impact on the writing performance. However, the correlation was a weak one. However, the studies of Nasihah & Cahyono (2017) and Nurdianingsih (2018) **Nurharjanto& Widiantoro** (2017); Raoofi, Binandeh, and Rahmani (2017) initiate that the more frequently learners used strategies, the higher writing scores obtain. (Oxford & Burry, 1995) stated that the use of appropriate strategies leads to improve proficiency in a more specific skill. step-wise multiple regressions were conducted to find out the contribution and correlation between categories of LLSs (language focus, planning, affective, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating strategies) toward essay scores. The results revealed the only contribution of language focus strategy to essay scores. The fact that LLSs had a low and indirect effect on essay scores in this study is supported by several studies.

Consequently, it is logical to say that LLSs have a contribution to writing ability.

Surprisingly, the third part of the questionnaire suggested that students are higher frequent users of LLSs when they accomplish writing tasks. Though, the overall essay scores proved that they are mostly fair. It has been argued that LLSs are not only prominent factors to determine the quality of writing essays, other factors such as vocabulary size, students' background, writing experience, and teaching instructions also might influence the quality of writing essays.

2.1.1. The Correlation Between RVLT, PVL, and Essay Scores

After calculating the correlation between the receptive vocabulary size, productive vocabulary test scores, and essay scores of participants with a Spearman test applied to the means of each score, results reveal a weak significant correlation ($r = .357$; $p = .12$) ($r = .338$; $p = .18$) respectively. These values are significant at the $p < .01$ level. Witte's (1983) study illustrated that high-quality essays included more words than low-quality essays. This finding contradicts (Abdullah & Usman, 2018) results who investigated the level of productive knowledge of ESL learners, the writing quality, and the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and the writing quality, the finding vocabulary knowledge has a strong impact on the quality of writing composition. In a cross-sectional study of fifth-, eighth-, and eleventh graders, Grobe (1981) found that vocabulary size could be a significant predictor of narrative writing quality. In other words, vocabulary knowledge and size have an impact on writing whereas writing helps to improve vocabulary knowledge. Receptive vocabulary knowledge develops through a variety of sources, but Laufer (1998) claims that productive vocabulary does not necessarily develop in parallel. Converting receptive vocabulary into productive vocabulary is the final stage of vocabulary learning (Brown & Payne, 1994). Besides, Muncie (2002) states that writing allows for greater experimentation with productive use of new words than speaking does, as students

have greater use of resources such as dictionaries and time. Likewise, Pichette, Serres & Lafontaine (2012) suggest that writing a text may lead to significantly higher recall than reading if enough time is allocated for each task and therefore language teachers may resort to writing tasks that incorporate newly taught words to enhance students' retention. LLSs and writing quality. Interestingly, the study of Stæhr (2008) investigates the relationship between vocabulary size and language skills, he found specifically that the correlation between vocabulary size and writing skills is statistically significant and reasonably strong. Stæhr suggests that 52% of the variance in the ability to obtain an average or above-average writing score is accounted for by vocabulary size (Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.524$) (as cited in Milton, 2013, p.68). Llach and Gallego (2009) investigated the relationship between receptive vocabulary size and written skills of Spanish primary school learners and they found a correlation that was not very high (.542 for the 1k and .503 for the 2k).

4. Discussion of The Findings from Phase Four

4.1. The Vocabulary Size of Students in Argumentative Essay

VocabProfile program provides details of how the learners performed in argumentative essays using frequent words (1K and 2K) and more advanced words (AWL), comparing the propositions (K1, K2, AWL, and off-list) the third-year students used more vocabulary from K1 and used a significantly fewer proportion of K2 and AWL. The findings on students' vocabulary size in each band list support many related studies conducted by (Meara, 1993; Laufer & Nation, 1995; Morris, 2001; Sapa-asa, 2006, Usman, Abdullahi, 2018.) who reported that university-level students mostly use words from K1+K2. This indicates that even though they are third-year university students, they still mostly use general, simple words. On the one hand, Šišková (2016) justified why students do not apply adequate strategies to make more productive

use of the vocabulary that they know receptively or. She added that the teacher might not push or encourage enough students to accelerate receptive vocabulary in their writing and reduce the students' anxiety over using low-frequency words productively. On the other hand, Zhai (2016) stated two reasons why learners rely only on most frequent words related to K1 and K2; she pointed out that students might be mastered a limited productive vocabulary size which the results obtained from the second question in this study support her view, so the student make use of repeated words to express the idea or they may afraid of using consciously new words to avoid mistakes with complicated words which influence their writing quality., so they depend on the high-frequency words.

4.2. The Correlation Between Essay Scores and Different Bands of Vocabulary Size

The correlation analysis obtained from the second correlation analysis to explore the relationship between the essay quality based on different bands of vocabulary size using VocabProfile confirmed that the descriptive statistical results obtained from rubrics (it was found that raters scored students vocabulary size and choice were ranked the lowest score compared with descriptors mechanic, organisation, and content). It was found that students who make use of vocabulary belong to high-frequency words which affect negatively the quality of essay writing. The results are in line with results of Ma Guihua and Shi Yongzhen (2006), Breeze (2008), Zhai (2016), Viera (2017) also find that writing quality has a significant negative correlation with 1st 1000 words, but a positive correlation with words beyond 1st 1000 words.

3. Pedagogical Implications

Pedagogically, the findings of the present study investigated the use of LLSs by third-year students, the contribution of LLS to vocabulary size and writing proficiency as well as the

relationships between the use of LLSs and vocabulary knowledge and writing performance.

Based on the obtained results, we presented the following implications:

3.1. The Necessity of Training Strategy Instruction to Teach Vocabulary

The debate over the best approach to teach vocabulary is ongoing, Milton (2013) argued even the current approach and methods fail to consider how to build a curriculum based systematically on vocabulary knowledge since vocabulary plays a marginal process in developing communicative ability in FL. He expected that learners with large vocabularies would perform better than learners with smaller vocabularies and they could not be as proficient nor fluent performers in foreign languages. Milton (2013) suggested that recent studies on vocabulary knowledge and language proficiency would help to model the best practice in language teaching and learning. Hence, developing vocabulary knowledge is an integral part of developing language performance (Milton and Hopkins,2006; Milton & Riordan, 2006). (Lewis & Hill, 1997) introduced the lexical approach which supports strongly that a good language curriculum explicitly built upon the integration of vocabulary indicating that teaching the most frequent words" might imply the introduction of size as a metric into curricula as a means of setting appropriate targets and monitoring progress without dictating the content of learning directly." (Milton,2013, p.75). Teachers should provide opportunities for learners to use words they have learned by adopting different activities and motivate students' interest to use new vocabulary in writing tasks. Meanwhile, students should not be afraid of using new words or lexical errors may be committed during the written process and master comes to LLSs to they should actively build a lexical network through making syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations.

According to Basturkmen (2005), the use of needs analysis may reveal the gap between what learners already know and what they need to know to study or act depending on the specific

environment, Basturkmen (2005), defended his claim that the failure in selecting the target vocabulary for students would yield to failure in progress foreign language teaching. Needs analysis in an EFL setting can be conducted by administering placement tests. Another type called diagnostic test (Hughes, 2003, as cited in Dodigovic & Agustín-Llach (2020) represents more details in the placement test. These types of tests ideally help to gauge to what extent the students are familiar with words especially the most frequent words and identify them to facilitate the achieved goals. (Schmitt, 2000). add that knowing how many words a student already knows is not enough, it is necessary to know how well students already know them. The subsequent step gaps mainly on analyzing the text to teach words that match with students' needs. Dodigovic & Agustín-Llach (2020) asserted that defining a clear goal for vocabulary acquisition would be beneficial to process learning vocabulary. Dodigovic & Agustín-Llach (2020) approach learning vocabulary through vocabulary learning strategies as a necessary step to impact L2 learning.

Moreover, (Ellis, 1997) and later (Demirel, 2012) reported in their studies that since vocabulary plays a paramount role in language skills, strategy training can be intergraded within teaching curricula. **Training strategies** focus on raising students' awareness to select an appropriate LLS that would be performed through the performance of byproduct of LLSs instruction. Nunan (1995), Vandergrift (2003) studies witnessed that training strategy nurtured LLSs use and affect other motivation and understanding of their thinking processes. Hence, it is necessary for teachers to understand the underpinning vocabulary research and theory to adopt set of strategies that are helpful to their students. A mental image of meaning association process that links L1 new words to encompass it with the meaning of L2 words. this association of mental image can help to retention and recall processing. As final thought that can be drawn

from these implications, we can recommend that Algerian universities may adapt modern curricula to teach the English language more helpful and more directive concerning the vocabulary needed to reach the CEFR levels as it was applied by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia, 2016. The application of vocabulary needs analysis helps teachers and well curriculum designers to characterize vocabulary targets in terms of size and the number of words expected to be taught or learned during the course and the number of words learners know.

3.2. The Necessity of Strategy Instruction to Teach Writing Skills

Improving writing is contingent on strategy instruction may increase teacher awareness that using teaching learners specific writing strategies can fulfill positive outcomes for both learners and teachers. The strategy instruction can hopefully be assisted over a long period that learners will continue the implementation of the strategies in their writing tasks.

Many strategy instructions have been pioneered to provide efficient teaching instruction to develop writing proficiency among them is a self-direct method. A self-directed method is one of the best outcomes in language teaching which focuses on developing metacognitive skills such as planning, monitoring, and then making changes or adapting as needed. A study conducted by Aghayani & Janfeshan (2020) about the effect self-directed method on writing an achievement based on random sampling to detect any means difference between two groups of learners. Pretest and post-test results have revealed that groups that receive self-learning methods performed better in writing assignments at the end of the study. This finding is consistent with the findings of many previous studies in the area of self-directed learning methods (Akmilia et al., 2015; Kim, 2010; Olivier, 2016; Rivera & Pinilla, 2017; Sriwichai & Inpin, 2018; Wichadee, 2011). They report that self-directed learning influence greatly the effectiveness learning. They

claimed that students should foster their strategies of learning without teacher assistance to improve their language skills.

Moreover, Harris and Graham & Harris (1996) developed the Self-Regulated Strategy model of instruction which gained many tremendous implications for L2 writing instruction. It includes explicit instruction of genre knowledge, teacher modeling, guided practice, and independent practice that provide teachers with methods to unload the writing process as well as teach students specific strategies to accomplish the writing task. This model “is designed to address the demands of writing on discourse knowledge, strategy use, self-regulation, and motivation” (MacArthur et al., 2015, p. 856). The self-directed strategy takes a strong emphasis on self-regulation by giving an explicit definition of elements of writing regarding cognition, effective, sociocultural, and behaviour learning factors and what to do to finish the apply the writing task Mayer & Alexander (1996). Moreover, self-regulation regards writing as a problem includes goal-setting, giving self-instructions, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-reinforcement, and management of time and environment (Harris, Graham, MacArthur, Reid, & Mason, 2011; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007) It has proven that this approach helps the student to become more effective in writing and control their learning. The aims of this approach are:

- Students learn self-regulation procedures to manage decisions and difficulties that they face during writing.
- Improve students writing knowledge and skills
- Increase motivation, attitudes, and self-efficacy toward writing.

Teachers guide students through every six stages depending on students' rate of progress and allow the teacher to apply individualized instruction for student grouping like pair group, and the whole group to ensure that each student advanced in substages. Additionally, teachers

and students, together they revise the stage and skip them if they are not required to review.

Graham, Harris, and other colleagues developed numerous genres based on stray instruction the C-SPACE is one example; it is an acronym that summarises the whole principles helping students remember the main elements of narrative text. Therefore, this strategy is used to teach narrative text (C=character, S=Setting, P=Purpose, A=Action, C=Conclusion, E=Emotion).

Olinghouse & Wilson (2001) summarise the self-directed approach as follow:

Develop background knowledge: students build background knowledge about narrative texts and their key elements. teacher read carefully the model of narrative texts and defined and analyzed the key elements he introduced afterward the C-SPACE strategy and combine elements of the strategy with an element of genre text. This stage must discuss the role of self-regulation in writing to help students preserve, problem solve and self-evaluate the composition.

Discuss it: In this stage learn the benefit of this strategy and learn how to use it. Students assess his writing by revising what element of the C-SPACE strategy they introduced in their writing. Self-monitoring plays a significant role in this phase working with setting goals. The latter as an individualized process involves identifying reasonable, measurable, and attainable goals. Students gradually take responsibility for applying the strategy. The teacher provides support that is tailored to the needs of the student, provides frequent constructive feedback, and offers positive reinforcement. Teachers support the needs of the students and they can also engage other students' work collaboratively to help promote strategy use outside of SRSD instruction Kistner, et al (2010).

Model it: The teachers should begin to ass a story that has been written, then set a goal for improving writing text. They need to model writing and self-regulation strategies through think aloud format. Students observe teachers: (a) referring to a mnemonic visual. (b) using a

graphic organizer to identify components within model compositions, and (c) rehearsing the mnemonic strategy. Self-reinforcing self-statements are important in this phase. Teachers apply techniques used to support the motivational and attentional functions during the writing process (Kistner,2010). Techniques include what to say to think of good ideas, what to say while working, and what to say when checking work. Students are asked to generate their ideas for before, during, and after writing, and after the essay

Memorize it: This step is not merely based on memorization but it helps students to become independent writers. Students who have difficulties in remembering may benefit from cues such as cards (described above), common think sheets, planning sheets, and graphic organizers, that act as concrete reminders of the critical steps involved in writing compositions (Baker, Gersten, & Graham, 2003).

Independent performance: Students who move this stage can apply C-SPACE independently and they write any type of story they want. During this stage, students continue working with goal-setting and self-monitoring procedures (Harris et al., 2008). It should be mentioned here that the teacher should provide opportunities for students to maintain their strategies by returning to previously instructed text genres to apply the strategies. Moreover, the teacher should a student apply it beyond classroom practices.

Taking everything into account, it may be said that self-regulating writers develop goal-setting strategies, task-analyzing objectives, and self-reinforcement. Additionally, self-regulation techniques include self-monitoring, self-instructions, self-reinforcement, metacognition, and self-assessment.

4. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

Major limitations need to be acknowledged and addressed regarding this study that arose during the investigation and the analysis due to the selection of topic and methods. The present research addressed some limitations that need careful consideration. First, this study is conducted on a small number of students. As mentioned in previous chapter, the participants selected purposefully for this research are from two groups because the department of English at Larbi Tebessi University is a newly founded department established in 2013-2014. The pedagogical Seats in the department depend largely on the capacity of the department and the availability of teachers. Therefore, the total population of the students in the third-year student during the academic year between 2019-2020 is 52 students, and 49 students participated in this study.

Secondly, the researcher tackles some difficulties in gathering data because she changed the participants of the study and research design and shifted from experimental to non-experimental researchers' design as it was scheduled before. It has originally planned to conduct the study with the third-year students of 2018-2019. After the first semester exam, the researcher started piloting the questionnaire and the vocabulary tests to check the validity of the test's selection and the questionnaire items. However, with the end of February and the instability of the political situation in Algeria, the students went on strike for almost three months which consequently delayed the researcher finish gathering data with these participants and changed the plan to work with the participants of the next third year to collect data.

Another limitation related to the Likert scale questionnaire is that students may lie to full in the questionnaire scale because they want to provide images of proficient and successful learner when they learn vocabulary or complete a writing task alongside some students may be uncertain about the frequency of using certain strategies.

Further analysis through multiple regression on LLSs categories would be appropriate to interpret the correlation and the contribution of each category individually. Another limitation of this research study is that the majority of the participants are female and they are mostly of the same age.

Factors such as age and previous experience, gender which may influence LLSs use, diverse extensively that it would be impossible to generalize the findings. According to Richards (2015) and Gass (2017), gender could be an influencing factor in language learning, so it would be interesting to balance the study with male participants. Alharthi (2012) indicates that the LLSs questionnaire alone cannot be considered a reliable research method and has to be supported by sophisticated qualitative methods through a think-aloud protocol, observation, and interview accurate research might lead and clarify how learners employ the strategies during their vocabulary learning and writing process to provide deeper evidence of what students think while employing strategies.

The most impactful limitation of this research is the small number of participants; the small sample size, however, harmed the statistical analysis of the data because the sample size issue emerged more than once when analysing the data.

Finally, designing a rubric to assess university students writing, the researcher only designs an analytical rubric based on Jacob's rubrics (1981). However, providing detailed description about the students' essays due to different aspects of writing can provide a more comprehensive analysis of students' writing quality.

3. Future Research Directions

The present study explores students' use of LLSs and their contribution to developing writing proficiency and vocabulary knowledge. To fill in the picture about students' use of LLSs, and overcome the limitation in the under-researched area may consider an experimental study through the implementation of mixed methods using qualitative data collection (i.e., semi-structured interviews, think-aloud protocols, and classroom observations), thus, the use of qualitative data may show students' self-reported use of LLSs may provide a valuable and effective data to organise a training session for students. With the integration of technology that can be easily accessed to develop vocabulary learning, it is useful also to enroll teachers in how to train students to develop strategy use. Studies reported that many variables such as motivation and gender may contribute language learners' use of LLSs (Griffins, 2008). Therefore, the relationships between these variables and LLSs can also be considered as future research directions.

In the same vein, writing assessment would be a target for further study especially related to the distinctive rating they gave to a piece of writing as described in **chapter 1**. The possible gaps between descriptors and the evaluation rubrics to communicate learner pieces of writing are needed.

Conclusion

In summation, the findings presented in this chapter revealed that third-year students adopted a set of LLSs leading us to build up an LLS profile. It was found that students employ mostly high frequent strategy use to approach their writing task and medium frequent strategy use to develop vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, it was found that the mean scores of RVLT indicate that a large number of participants have a fairly high score more than the PVL T score. A

stronger relationship between RVLТ and PVLТ was also founded. Most importantly, the rubric score of argumentative essays revealed that the quality of students' essays was fair and there was a weak predictive significant relationship between strategy use and essay scores. Finally, no predictive effect of the LLSs on RVLТ and PVLТ. In the next section concludes and summarise the major findings.

General Conclusion

This chapter summarizes the research findings. Initially, it outlines the purpose, the methodology selection, and the results of the current study. The non-experiment research design investigated the use of LLSs to develop vocabulary knowledge and writing proficiency. It examines the prediction and the intercorrelations among the three variables: LLSs, vocabulary knowledge, and writing skills. It also explores the most and the least frequent strategies used and how they predict vocabulary level test scores and written scores. The current study considers also the correlation between dependent variables such as writing and vocabulary knowledge.

This study employed a quantitative approach which encompassed four phases: The first quantitative phase was initially conducted using a questionnaire of 49 EFL learners with different proficiency levels, the second quantitative phase was drawn from two different types of vocabulary tests, and the quantitative phase was gathered from argumentative essays and finally argumentative essays were also used to profile vocabulary size in the student essays. The data collected from the four phases were analyzed by using correlational and regression analyses in addition to the VP program. Subsequently, the main findings were analysed and discussed to answer the research questions postured earlier in the statement of the problem.

By looking at the overall results, the quantitative results obtained from the second part of the questionnaire to answer the first research question showed that EFL third-year students perceive most LLSs with medium-frequency users to learn vocabulary which is mainly categorised into five categories, they were ranked as follows according to students preferred to use: determination was the most frequently applied LLSs with mean was often, then followed by metacognitive, and followed by cognitive and memory with mean always, meanwhile social

strategy was the least preferred strategy in which the mean score was 2.86 with the predicate "Sometimes".

In the present study, participant responses to the third part of the questionnaire demonstrated that there is a substantially high-frequency use of the five strategies categories. Planning strategies were reported the most used strategy category, whereas language focus strategies were the least preferred category. Affective, self-monitoring and affective strategies were frequently found to be also the most popular strategies. These findings coincide more or less with the findings of similar studies.

The second research question addressed to investigate participants' vocabulary knowledge collected from two different vocabulary level tests. The results revealed that receptive vocabulary size scores appear to be higher than productive vocabulary scores. Additionally, both receptive and productive have a higher vocabulary size in AWL more than 5000 levels. The 3000 level was generally regarded low. Correlation analysis collected from two different levels of the vocabulary test shows a positive strong correlation with receptive and productive scores.

To answer the third research question, related to what is the quality of student-written essays, descriptive statistics about five descriptors of students' argumentative essays were calculated. The overall scores of argumentative essays for the most participant was fair with means ($M=10.75$). According to the rater scores using rubrics, it was found that Language use recorded the highest scores ($M=2.34$, $SD=.92$) followed by mechanics and organisation respectively ($M=2.14$; $SD=.88$) and ($M=2.14$; $SD=.73$). Content is ranked the fourth aspect of writing ($M=2.04$; $SD=.70$). Finally, vocabulary ranked the lowest score ($M=1.95$; $SD=.84$). The descriptive statistics for argumentative essays indicated that the students accorded more attention

to micro-level and macro-level aspects of writing with little focus on words choice. A regression analysis was conducted to explore the predictive role of LLSs to essay scores, a significant and positive weak contribution was found with LLSs and essay scores. It indicates that the number of frequently used strategy had a clear effect on the students' writing proficiency. Particularly, the results revealed that language focus strategy is the chief contributor to determine the essay quality. Additionally, the correlation analysis between essay scores and RVLT&PVLT was found and it revealed a medium positive correlation between them.

VocabProfile program was used to answer the fourth question, it analyses the participant essays to determine the vocabulary size in an argumentative essay. The preliminary results confirmed the results of RVLT and PVLT that students use slightly more low-frequency words in their writing. The results indicated that the participants used the 1k + 2k words (91.89 %). Only (5.42%) which represent nearly 40 words from a total of 570-words belong to AWL. The results entail that third-year students used low/high -frequency words more than academic words while writing argumentative essays. Yüksel (2015) explains the main reason that due to limited vocabulary size in AWL, the participants could not access or rehearse easily to AWL and they favored using the most frequent words to express their ideas and they may simply use the same words in different patterns.

The literature study of this thesis investigates the area of LLSs which is a promising factor and remains an interesting and convenient topic in improving writing proficiency and endorsing the vocabulary size of learners. The research questions have been answered successfully through the analysis and discussion of the collected data that are divided into four phases. Despite the limitations that were discussed earlier in this chapter, the study has provided

some contributions for pedagogical implications for language learning and context in the form of demonstrating the effectiveness of the implication of certain strategy instruction which fosters learning vocabulary and promotes writing proficiency. It can be concluded that the first objective of this thesis was to provide a clear and complete picture of different strategies implemented by third-year students to develop writing and vocabulary size. The second objective investigates the RVLТ and PVLТ of third-year students. The third objective of the study investigated whether LLS use predicts writing essay scores, and RVLТ & PVLТ can be predicted by strategy frequent use by third-year students as well. The fourth objective revealed a gap between receptive and productive vocabulary which influence negatively words selection whenever students are engaged in writing tasks. The results have shown that third-year students use an array of language strategies ranging from medium to high to cope with learning vocabulary and accomplishing writing tasks.

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Appendix A : LLSs ‘Questionnaire

Code

Dear students,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect information about the techniques you use when you learn English words that is what you to learn unknown words and to develop your writing skills. All the items below refer to different ways students use when learning English vocabulary.

Section One: Background Information

Please specify:

- a. How long have you been learning Written expression module?

Section Two: LLSs to Learn Vocabulary

Please read each statement carefully and then circle the answer that applies for you. There are no right or wrong answer responses to any of the items on this survey and for this reason it is very important that you express your true opinion in this survey. Each statement is followed by five numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, that you have to circle.

1. **Never or almost never use this strategy** (Means that the statement is very rarely true of you.)
6. **I occasionally use the strategy** (Means that the statement is true less than half the time.)
7. **I sometimes use this strategy** (Means that the statement is true of you about half the time.)
8. **I usually use this strategy** (Means that the statement is true more than half the time.)
9. **I always use this strategy** (Means that the statement is true of you almost always.)

Items	1	2			
Determination Strategies					
1. I identify the part of speech of the new word (verb, noun, adjective) to help me know its meaning.					
2. I break the new word up into the main parts (un-safe-ly = unsafely).					
3. I analyze any available pictures to help me understand new words.					
4. I analyze any available gestures to help me understand new words.					

5. I use a bilingual dictionary (Arabic / English) (English/ Arabic) to check the form and meaning to the new word.					
6. I guess the meaning of the new word from the context in which it occurs.					
Social Strategies					
7. I ask a teacher for translation of the new word into Arabic.					
8. I ask a teacher for a paraphrase of the new word.					
9. I ask a teacher for a sentence including the new word.					
10. I ask classmates for the meaning of the new word.					
11. I discover new meanings through group work activity.					
12. I study and practice meaning of the new words in a group of students.					
Memory Strategies					
13. I study the spelling of the new word.					
14. I connect the new word to a personal experience (e.g. connecting the word research with the final project).					
15. I paraphrase the meaning of the word I am learning in another way.					
16. I study the sound of the new word.					
17. I associate the new word with its coordinates (apples with oranges, peaches and etc.).					
18. I say the new word aloud when studying.					
19. I connect the new word to its synonyms and antonyms.					
20. I make an image in my mind of the form of the new word.					
21. I use 'scales' for gradable adjectives (e.g. huge, big, small).					
22. I use the Keyword Method.					
Cognitive Strategies					
23. I revise the newly learned words using spaced repetition.					
24. I write the new word many times.					
25. I make my own lists of new words.					
26. I keep a vocabulary notebook for expanding rehearsal.					
Metacognitive Strategies					
27. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by watching English TV channels (e.g. movies, songs, documentary).					
28. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by using computer programs (e.g. internet).					
29. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by listening to English radio programs (songs, news).					

30. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by reading English newspapers and magazines.					
31. I revise the newly learned words soon after the initial meeting.					
32. I skip the new word.					
33. I try to assess my vocabulary knowledge (e.g. with word tests).					

Section Two: The LLSs to Develop Writing Skills

	Items	1				
Planning Strategies						
Before Writing In English	34. Before writing, I do mind-mapping to generate and cluster my ideas.					
	35. Before writing, I create an outline for the whole content and organization.					
Before Writing In English	36. I always make a writing plan before I start to write.					
	37. Before I start writing, I read about the topic and collect information from different sources.					
	38. I try to have my argument clear before starting writing.					
	39. like to start writing when both ideas and structures are clear in my mind					
	40. Before I start writing, I think carefully of what I want to achieve and how I am going to approach it.					
Language-Focusing Strategies						
While Writing In English	41. I think of rhetorical steps of the text when writing in English.					
	42. I think of the use of language features of the text when writing in English.					
	43. I think of communicative purposes of the text when writing in English.					
	44. I write various kinds of texts in English (descriptive, narrative, news item, etc.).					

	45. I pay attention to the use of transition signals within paragraph to show unity of ideas.					
	46. When I am going to write a text, I jot down a few words and then I work up my notes into an essay.					
Affective Strategies						
	47. I think of my progress in learning English writing.					
	48. I have clear goals for improving my English writing skill.					
	49. I try to find out how to be a better writer of English.					
	50. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English in writing.					
	51. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am writing.					
Self-evaluation Strategies						
	52. I do revise to improve the clarity of my writing.					
	53. I do revise to improve the style of my writing.					
	54. I do revise to develop the content of my writing.					
	55. When revising, I focus on the word's selection					
	56. When revising, I focus on grammar, vocabulary as well as ideas.					
	57. When I revise, I make changes on the sentence and paragraph structure					
Self-Monitoring Strategies						
	58. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.					
	59. I read my text regularly when writing to check whether I am satisfied with it.					
	60. I check if each sentence I write is accurate and perfect before I write another sentence.					
	61. I constantly check the grammar and vocabulary in my writing.					
	62. I write more than one draft before handing in the final product of the essay.					
	63. I try to find as many ways as I can to use new word that I learnt.					

Appendix B: The Most and The Least Language Learning Strategies frequency use to Develop Vocabulary Knowledge (10 items)

The Least Frequency Used Strategies (Vocabulary Strategies)		M	Std. Dev
1. I ask a teacher for translation of the new word into Arabic.	SOC	2,30	1,40
2. I skip the new word.	META	2,53	1,15
3. I study and practice meaning of the new words in a group of students.	SOC	2,67	1,34
4. I write the new word many times.	COG	2,69	1,46
5. I use 'scales' for gradable adjectives (e.g. huge, big, small).	MEM	2,81	1,42
6. I revise the newly learned words soon after the initial meeting.	COG	2,83	1,17
7. I study the sound of the new word.	MEM	2,83	1,38
8. I ask a teacher for a sentence including the new word.	SOC	2,85	1,41
9. I discover new meanings through group work activity.	SOC	2,89	1,48
10. I ask a teacher for a paraphrase of the new word.	SOC	2,93	1,23

The Most Frequency Used Strategies (Vocabulary Strategies)		M	Std. Dev
1. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by watching English TV channels (e.g. movies, songs, documentary).	DET	3,91	1,037
2. I guess the meaning of the new word from the context in which it occurs.	DET	3,87	1,33
3. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by using computer programs (e.g. internet).	META	3,85	1,24
4. I use a bilingual dictionary (Arabic / English) (English/ Arabic) to check the form and meaning to the new word..	DET	3,73	1,16
5. I connect the new word to its synonyms and antonyms.	MEM	3,61	1,18
6. I make an image in my mind of the form of the new word.	MEM	3,53	1,24

7. I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by listening to English radio programs (songs, news).	META	3,51	1,44
8. I paraphrase the meaning of the word I am learning in another way.	MEM	3,42	1,25
9. I ask classmates for the meaning of the new word.	SOC	3,36	1,09
10. I identify the part of speech of the new word (verb, noun, adjective) to help me know its meaning.	DET	3,34	1,36

Appendix C: The Most and The Least Frequent Strategy Use to Develop Vocabulary Knowledge

Items	N	ST	Mean	Std. Dev	Frequency
I ask a teacher for translation of the new word into Arabic.	7	SOC	2,3061	1,40244	The least frequent used strategies
I skip the new word.	32	META	2,5306	1,15654	
I study and practice meaning of the new words in a group of students.	12	SOC	2,6735	1,34455	
I write the new word many times.	24	COG	2,6939	1,46065	
I use 'scales' for gradable adjectives (e.g. huge, big, small).	21	MEM	2,8163	1,42410	
I revise the newly learned words soon after the initial meeting.	23	COG	2,8367	1,17875	
I study the sound of the new word.	16	MEM	2,8367	1,38965	
I ask a teacher for a sentence including the new word.	9	SOC	2,8571	1,41421	
I discover new meanings through group work activity.	11	SOC	2,8980	1,48948	
I ask a teacher for a paraphrase of the new word.	8	SOC	2,9388	1,23167	
I study the spelling of the new word.	13	MEM	2,9796	1,42141	
I keep a vocabulary notebook for expanding rehearsal.	26	COG	3,1020	1,38812	
I make my own lists of new words.	25	COG	3,1224	1,30116	
I break the new word up into the main parts (un-safe-ly = unsafely).	2	DET	3,1633	1,47686	
I revise the newly learned words using spaced repetition.	23	COG	3,2041	1,15433	
I try to assess my vocabulary knowledge (e.g. with word tests).	33	META	3,2041	,97851	
I associate the new word with its coordinates (apples with oranges, peaches and etc.).	17	MEM	3,2245	1,29527	
I analyze any available pictures to help me understand new words.	3	DET	3,2449	1,29953	
I connect the new word to a personal experience (e.g. connecting the word research with the final project).	14	MEM	3,2857	1,36931	
I say the new word aloud when studying.	18	MEM	3,3061	1,37241	
I use the Keyword Method.	22	MEM	3,3265	1,12524	

I analyze any available gestures to help me understand new words.	4	DET	3,3469	1,36246	
I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by reading English newspapers and magazines.	30	META	3,3673	1,09343	
I identify the part of speech of the new word (verb, noun, adjective) to help me know its meaning.	1	DET	3,4286	1,25831	
I ask classmates for the meaning of the new word.	10	SOC	3,5102	1,44514	The Most Frequent Strategy Use
I paraphrase the meaning of the word I am learning in another way.	15	MEM	3,5306	1,24335	
I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by listening to English radio programs (songs, news).	29	META	3,6122	1,18702	
I make an image in my mind of the form of the new word.	20	MEM	3,7347	1,16861	
I connect the new word to its synonyms and antonyms.	19	MEM	3,8571	1,24164	
I use a bilingual dictionary (Arabic / English) (English/ Arabic) to check the form and meaning to the new word..	5	DET	3,8776	1,33280	
I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by using computer programs (e.g. internet).	28	META	3,9184	1,03756	
I guess the meaning of the new word from the context in which it occurs.	6	DET	4,0000	1,17260	
I try to develop my vocabulary knowledge by watching English TV channels (e.g. movies, songs, documentary).	27	META	4,2041	1,02020	

**Appendix D: The Most and The Least Language Learning Strategies
frequency use to Develop Writing Skills (10 items)**

The Least Frequency Use (Writing Strategies)	ST	M	Std. Dev
1. I plan my schedule so that I have enough time to write in English.	AFFE	2,79	1,20
2. I think of the use of language features of the text when writing in English.	LANG	3,24	1,10
3. When I am going to write a text, I jot down a few words and then I work up my notes into an essay.	COM	3,26	1,25
4. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am writing.	COM	3,30	1,26
5. I think of rhetorical steps of the text when writing in English.	LANG	3,34	1,01
6. I write more than one draft before handing in the final product of the essay.	MON	3,38	1,39
7. I have clear goals for improving my English writing skill.	AFFE	3,38	1,15
8. When revising, I focus on the word's selection	EVA	3,42	1,29
9. I write various kinds of texts in English (descriptive, narrative, news item, etc.).	LANG	3,46	1,10
10. I do revise to improve the clarity of my writing.	EVA	3,53	1,30

The Most Frequency Use (Writing Strategies)	ST	M	Std. Dev
1. Before I start writing, I read about the topic and collect information from different sources.	PLAN	4,28	1,00
2. like to start writing when both ideas and structures are clear in my mind.	PLAN	4,12	1,20
3. I pay attention to the use of transition signals within paragraph to show unity of ideas.	LANG	4,08	1,22
4. I try to have my argument clear before starting writing.	PLAN	4,06	1,02
5. Before I start writing, I think carefully of what I want to achieve and how I am going to approach it.	COM	4,04	1,09
6. I always make a writing plan before I start to write.	PLAN	3,89	1,14
7. I try to find as many ways as I can to use the new words that I learnt.	AFFEC	3,85	1,04
8. I try to find out how to be a better writer of English.	AFFEC	3,81	1,05
9. I constantly check the grammar and vocabulary in my writing.	MON	3,81	1,18
10. I read my text regularly when writing to check whether I am satisfied with it.	MON	3,81	1,33

Appendix E: The Most and The Least Frequent Strategy Use to Writing Skills

Items	N	ST	M	SD	F
Before I start writing, I read about the topic and collect information from different sources.	16	PLAN	4,28	1,00	The Most Frequent Strategy Use
like to start writing when both ideas and structures are clear in my mind.	18	PLAN	4,12	1,20	
I pay attention to the use of transition signals within paragraph to show unity of ideas.	11	LANG	4,08	1,2	
I try to have my argument clear before starting writing.	17	PLAN	4,06	1,02	
Before I start writing, I think carefully of what I want to achieve and how I am going to approach it.	19	PLAN	4,04	1,09	
I always make a writing plan before I start to write.	15	PLAN	3,89	1,14	
I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	6	MON	3,85	1,04	
I try to find out how to be a better writer of English.	22	AFFEC	3,81	1,05	
I constantly check the grammar in my writing.	4	MON	3,81	1,181	
I read my text regularly when writing to check whether I am satisfied with it.	2	MON	3,81	1,33	
When revising, I focus on grammar as well as ideas.	29	EVAL	3,79	1,17	
I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English in writing.	23	AFFEC	3,79	1,18	
I do revise to improve the style of my writing.	26	EVAL	3,77	1,218	
Before writing, I create an outline for the whole content and organization.	14	PLAN	3,77	1,19	
I do revise to develop the content of my writing.	27	EVAL	3,73	1,07	
I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	1	MON	3,73	1,13	
I think of my progress in learning English writing.	20	AFFEC	3,71	1,00	
I check if each sentence I write is accurate and perfect before I write another sentence.	3	MON	3,65	1,33	
Before writing, I do mind-mapping to generate and cluster my ideas.	13	PLAN	3,63	1,21	
I think of communicative purposes of the text when writing in English.	9	LANG	3,53	,98	
I do revise to improve the clarity of my writing.	25	EVAL	3,53	1,30	
I write various kinds of texts in English (descriptive, narrative, news item, etc.).	10	LANG	3,46	1,10	The Least

When revising, I focus on the layout of the content.	28	EVAL	3,42	1,29
I have clear goals for improving my English writing skill.	21	AFFEC	3,38	1,15
I write more than one draft before handing in the final product of the essay.	5	MON	3,38	1,39
I think of rhetorical steps of the text when writing in English.	7	LANG	3,34	1,01
I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am writing.	24	AFFEC	3,30	1,26
When I am going to write a text, I jot down a few words and then I work up my notes into an essay.	12	LANG	3,26	1,25
I think of the use of language features of the text when writing in English.	8	LANG	3,24	1,10
When I revise, I make changes on the sentence and paragraph structure	30	EVAL	2,79	1,20

Appendix F: Productive Vocabulary Levels Test Version B

Name: _____

Instructions:

Complete the underlined words. The example has been done for you.

He was riding a bicycle

The 2000-word level

1. It is the de_____ that counts, not the thought.
2. Plants receive water from the soil through their ro_____.
3. The nu_____ was helping the doctor in the operating room.
4. Since he is unskilled, he earns low wa_____.
5. This year long sk_____ are fashionable again.
6. Laws are based on the principle of jus_____.
7. He is walking on the ti_____ of his toes.
8. The mechanic had to replace the mo_____ of the car.
9. There is a co_____ of the original report in the file. 10. I'm glad we had this opp_____ to talk.
10. There are a doz_____ eggs in the basket.
11. Every working person must pay income t_____.
12. This sweater is too tight. It needs to be stret_____.
13. Ann intro_____ her boyfriend to her mother.
14. Teenagers often adm_____ and worship pop singers.
15. This work is not up to your usu_____ standard.
16. The dress you're wearing is lov_____.
17. He wasn't very popu_____ when he was a teenager, but he has many friends now.

The 3000-word level

1. She has been changing partners often because she cannot have a sta_____ relationship with one person.
2. The pro_____ of failing the test scared him.
3. To improve the country's economy, the government decided on economicref_____.
4. She wore a beautiful green go_____ to the ball.
5. The government tried to protect the country's industry by reducing the imp_____ of cheap goods.
6. The children's games were amusing at first, but finally got on the parents' ner_____.
7. The lawyer gave some wise coun_____ to his client.
8. Many people in England mow the la_____ of their houses on Sunday morning.
9. The farmer sells the eggs that his he_____ lays.
10. Suddenly he was thru_____ into the dark room.

11. He perc_____ a light at the end of the tunnel.
12. Children are not independent. They are att_____ to their parents.
13. She showed off her sle_____ figure in a long narrow dress.
14. You'll sn_____ that branch if you bend it too far.
15. You must wear a bathing suit on a public beach. You're not allowed to bath na_____.
16. Crying is a nor_____ response to pain.
17. The Emperor of China was the supr_____ ruler of his country.
18. You must be awa_____ that very few jobs are available

The 5000-word level

1. Soldiers usually swear an oa_____ of loyalty to their country.
2. The voter placed the ball_____ in the box.
3. The thieves have forced an ent_____ into the building.
4. On Sunday, in his last se_____ in church, the priest spoke against child abuse.
5. I saw them sitting on st_____ at the bar drinking beer.
6. His favourite musical instrument was a tru_____.
7. The small hill was really a burial mou_____.
8. We decided to celebrate New Year's E_____ together.
9. People manage to buy houses by raising a mor_____ from a bank.
10. The soldier was asked to choose between infantry and cav_____.
11. After falling off his bicycle, the boy was covered with bru_____.
12. This is a complex problem that is difficult to compr_____.
13. The angry crowd sho_____ the prisoner as he was leaving the court.
14. Don't pay attention to this rude remark. Just ig_____ it.
15. We do not have adeq_____ information to make a decision.
16. She is not a child, but a mat_____ woman. She can make her own decisions.
17. The prisoner was put in soli_____ confinement.
18. He is so depressed that he is cont_____ suicide.

The Academic Wordlist level

1. The ar_____ of his office is 25 square meters.
2. I've had my eyes tested and the optician says my vi_____ is good.
3. In their geography class, the children are doing a special pro_____ on North America.
4. In a free country, people are not discriminated against on the basis of colour, age, or s_____.
5. The money from fruit-picking was a suppl_____ to their regular income.
6. The drug was introduced after medical res_____ indisputably proved its effectiveness.
7. These courses should be taken in seq_____, not simultaneously.

8. A considerable amount of evidence was accum_____ during the investigation.
9. 9 People have proposed all kinds of hypot_____ about what these things are.
10. 10 You'll need a mini_____ deposit of \$20,000.
11. Results from the study ind_____ that men find it easier to give up smoking than women.
12. In a lecture, a lecturer does most of the talking. In a seminar, students are expected to part_____ in the discussion.
13. The airport is far away. If you want to ens_____ that you catch your plane, you'll have to leave early.
14. It's difficult to ass_____ a person's true knowledge by one or two tests.
15. The new manager's job was to res_____ the company to its former profitability.
16. Even though the student didn't do well on the midterm exam, he got the highest mark on the fi_____.
17. His decision to leave home was not well thought out. It was not based on rat_____ considerations.
18. The challenging job required a strong, successful, and dyn_____ candidate.

Appendix J: The Productive Vocabulary Level Test (Key Answers)

2000 Level	3000 Level
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Deed 2. Root 3. Nurse 4. Wage 5. Skirts 6. Justics 7. Tip 8. Morto 9. Copy 10. Apportunity 11. Dozens 12. Taxes 13. Streched 14. Introduce 15. Admire 16. Usual 17. Lovely 18. Popular 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Stable 2. Probability 3. Refresh 4. Gown 5. Import 6. Nevous 7. Counting 8. Lawn 9. Hens 10. Thrown 11. Perceived 12. Attached 13. Slender 14. Snap 15. Nacked 16. Normal 17. Supreme 18. Aware
5000 Level	UWL
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Oath 2. Ballots 3. Entry 4. Sermon 5. Stool 6. Trumpet 7. Maountain 8. Eve 9. Mortgage 10. Cavalary 11. Bruises 12. Comprehend 13. Shout At 14. Ignore 15. Adequate 16. Matured 17. Solitary 18. Conlempate 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Area 2. Vision 3. Projet 4. Status 5. Supplemental 6. Research 7. Sequence 8. Accumodated 9. Hypothesis 10. Minimun 11. Indicate 12. Participated 13. Ensure 14. Assess 15. Restore 16. Finals 17. Reational 18. Dynamic

Appendix H: Receptive Vocabulary Level Test

Nation, 1990

This is a vocabulary test. You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example.

Here is an example

1. business
2. clock part of a house
3. horse animal with four legs
4. pencil something used for writing
5. shoe
6. wall

You answer it the following way.

1. business
2. clock 6 part of a house
3. horse 3 animal with four legs
4. pencil 4 something used for writing
5. shoe
6. wall

Some words are in the test to make it more difficult. You do not have to find a meaning for those words. In the example above, these words are *business*, *clock*, *shoe*.

You can do any part of the test or the complete test. Click *Score on the left at any time*.

2000 level

- | | | | |
|-------------|---|----------------|--|
| 1. original | | 1. apply | |
| 2. private | <input type="checkbox"/> complete | 2. elect | <input type="checkbox"/> choose by voting |
| 3. royal | <input type="checkbox"/> first | 3. jump | <input type="checkbox"/> become like water |
| 4. slow | <input type="checkbox"/> not public | 4. manufacture | <input type="checkbox"/> make |
| 5. sorry | | 5. melt | |
| 6. total | | 6. threaten | |
| | | | |
| 1. blame | | 1. accident | |
| 2. hide | <input type="checkbox"/> keep away from sight | 2. choice | <input type="checkbox"/> having a high opinion of yourself |
| 3. hit | <input type="checkbox"/> have a bad effect on something | 3. debt | <input type="checkbox"/> something you must pay |
| 4. invite | <input type="checkbox"/> ask | 4. fortune | <input type="checkbox"/> loud, deep sound |
| 5. pour | | 5. pride | |
| 6. spoil | | 6. roar | |

3000 LEVEL

1. administration		1. bench	
2. angel	<input type="checkbox"/> managing business and affairs	2. charity	<input type="checkbox"/> part of a country
3. front	<input type="checkbox"/> spirit who serves God	3. fort	<input type="checkbox"/> help to the poor
4. herd	<input type="checkbox"/> group of animals	4. jar	<input type="checkbox"/> long seat
5. mate		5. mirror	
6. pond		6. province	
1. coach		1. marble	
2. darling	<input type="checkbox"/> a thin, flat piece cut from something	2. palm	<input type="checkbox"/> inner surface of your hand
3. echo	<input type="checkbox"/> person who is loved very much	3. ridge	<input type="checkbox"/> excited feeling
4. interior	<input type="checkbox"/> sound reflected back to you	4. scheme	<input type="checkbox"/> plan
5. opera		5. statue	
6. slice		6. thrill	
1. discharge		1. annual	
2. encounter	<input type="checkbox"/> use pictures or examples to show the meaning	2. blank	<input type="checkbox"/> happening once a year
3. illustrate	<input type="checkbox"/> meet	3. brilliant	<input type="checkbox"/> certain
4. knit	<input type="checkbox"/> throw up into the air	4. concealed	<input type="checkbox"/> wild
5. prevail		5. definite	
6. toss		6. savage	

5000 LEVEL

1. alcohol		1. circus	
2. apron	<input type="checkbox"/> cloth worn in front to protect your clothes	2. jungle	<input type="checkbox"/> speech given by a priest in a church
3. lure	<input type="checkbox"/> stage of development	3. nomination	<input type="checkbox"/> seat without a back or arms
4. mess	<input type="checkbox"/> state of untidiness or dirtiness	4. sermon	<input type="checkbox"/> musical instrument
5. phase		5. stool	
6. plank		6. trumpet	
1. apparatus		1. bruise	
2. compliment	<input type="checkbox"/> set of instruments or machinery	2. exile	<input type="checkbox"/> agreement using property as security for a debt
3. revenue	<input type="checkbox"/> money received by the government	3. ledge	<input type="checkbox"/> narrow shelf
4. scrap	<input type="checkbox"/> expression of admiration	4. mortgage	<input type="checkbox"/> dark place on your body caused by hitting
5. tile		5. shovel	
6. ward		6. switch	
1. blend		1. desolate	
2. devise	<input type="checkbox"/> hold tightly in your arms	2. fragrant	<input type="checkbox"/> good for your health
3. embroider	<input type="checkbox"/> plan or invent	3. gloomy	<input type="checkbox"/> sweet-smelling
4. hug	<input type="checkbox"/> mix	4. profound	<input type="checkbox"/> dark or sad
5. imply		5. radical	
6. paste		6. wholesome	

University Word List

1. affluence
2. axis introduction of a new thing
3. episode one event in a series
4. innovation wealth
5. precision
6. tissue

1. configuration
2. discourse shape
3. hypothesis speech
4. intersection theory
5. partisan
6. propensity

1. elementary
2. negative of the beginning stage
3. static not moving or changing
4. random final, furthest
5. reluctant
6. ultimate

1. deficiency
2. magnitude swinging from side to side
3. oscillation respect
4. prestige lack
5. sanction
6. specifition

1. anonymous
2. indigenous without the writer's name
3. maternal least possible amount
4. minimum native
5. nutrient
6. modification

1. coincide
 2. coordinate prevent people from doing something they want to do
 3. expel add to
 4. frustrate send out by force
 5. supplement
 6. transfer
-

Appendix I: Correction Receptive Vocabulary Level Test

2000 LEVEL

A	B	C	D	E	F
6	2	2	5	4	1
1	5	6	3	5	5
2	4	4	6	3	6

3000 LEVEL

A	B	C	D	E	F
1	6	6	2	3	1
2	2	2	6	2	5
6	1	3	4	6	6

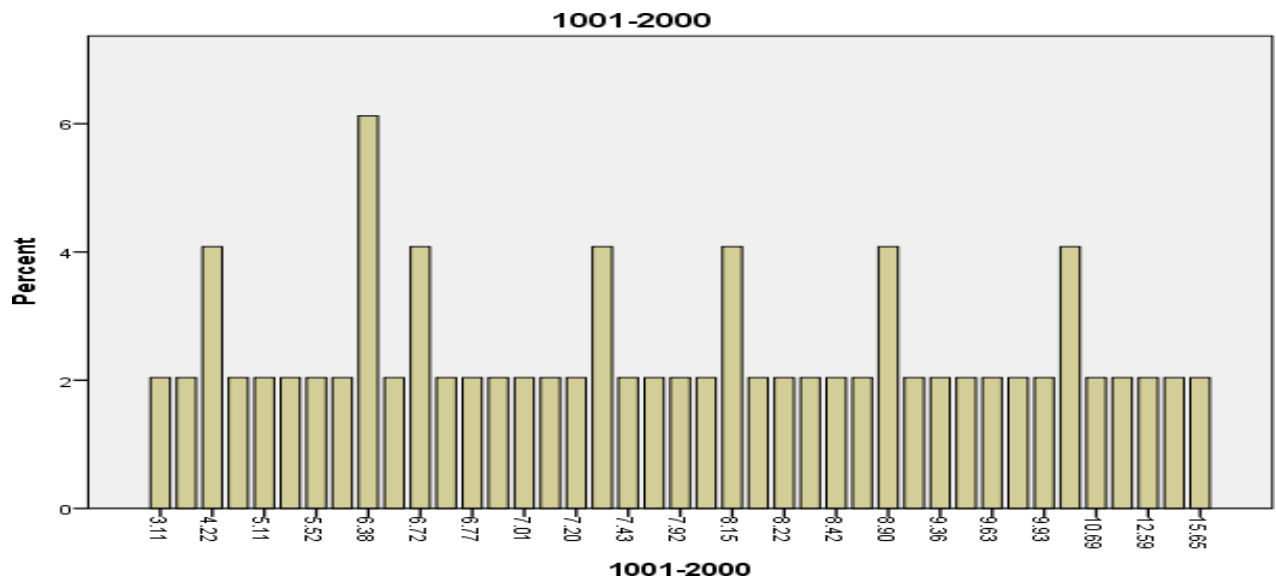
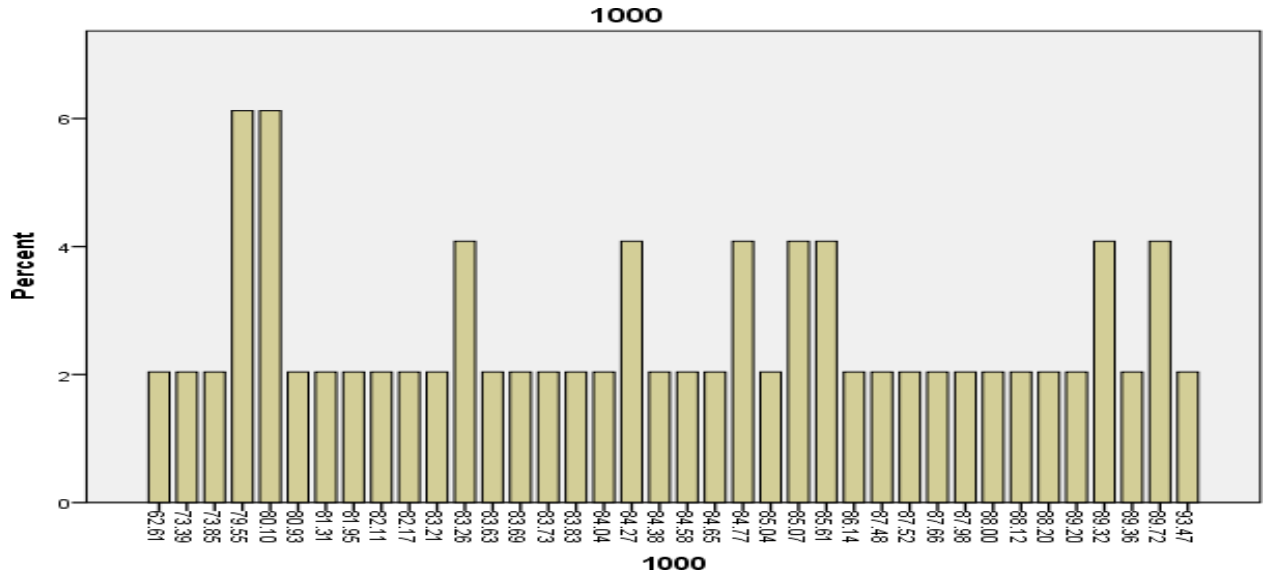
5000 LEVEL

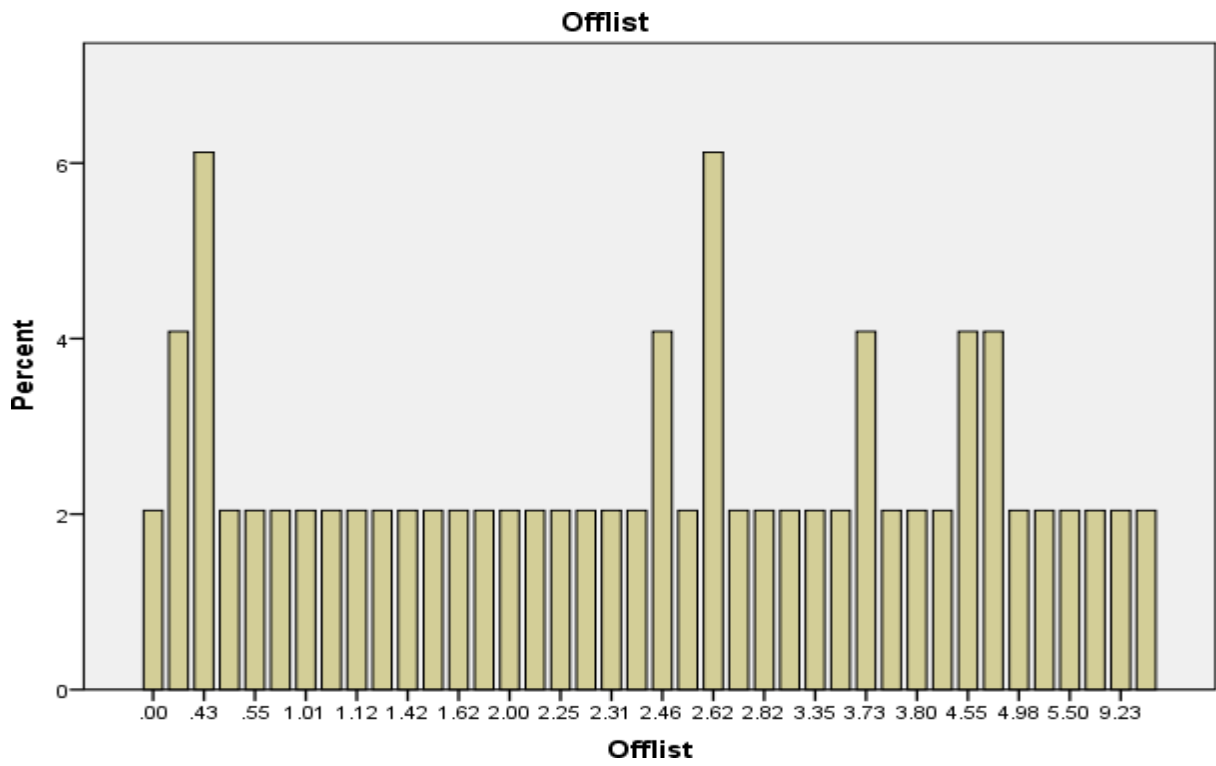
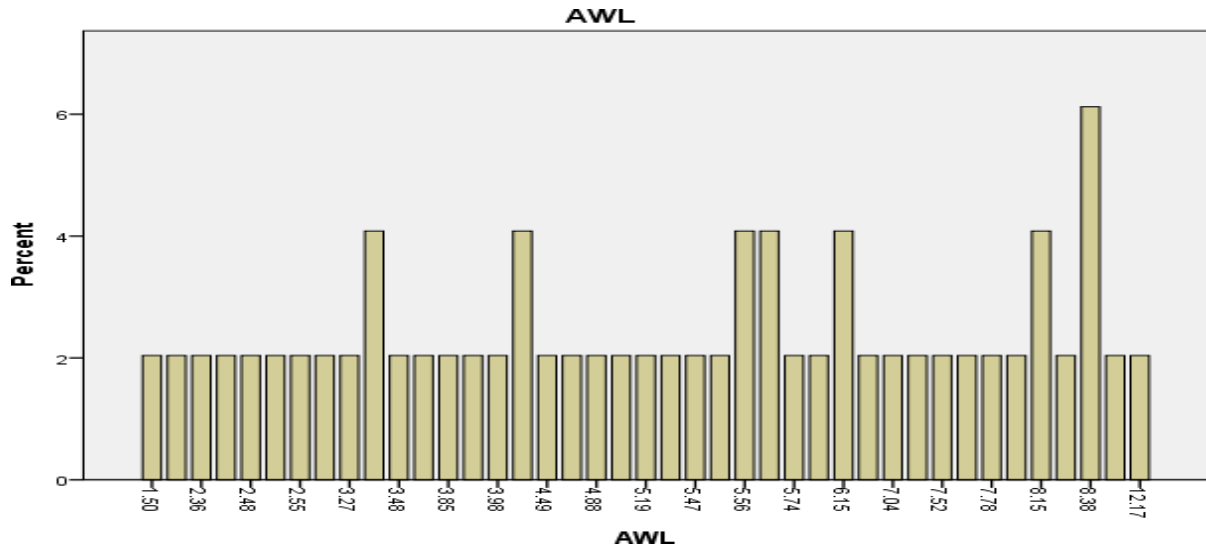
A	B	C	D	E	F
2	4	1	4	4	6
5	5	3	3	2	2
4	6	2	1	1	3

University Word List

A	B	C	D	E	F
4	3	1	1	1	4
3	4	2	4	3	5
1	1	3	2	6	3

Appendix G: Profiling Vocabulary Related to Argumentative Essays





Appendix k: Student Writing Samples

Tebessa University

Code Number: -----

Writing (20 points)

Instruction: Write an argumentative essay about the following topic. Make sure your essay contains all of the elements of a good argumentative essay. Include a clear thesis statement in the first paragraph ,body paragraphs that include evidence (factual, statistical, logical, etc.), clear transitions between all paragraphs ,a conclusion that restates the thesis in light of the provided evidence and rich and good selection of the words to support your ideas.

- Nelson Mandela has rightly said that 'Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world.
- John Dewey famously quoted, “Education is not preparation for life; education is life itself.”

Appendix L: Jacob's et al (1981) Scoring Profile

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE			
STUDENT	DATE	TOPIC	
SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS
CONTENT		30-27 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable • substantive • thorough development of thesis • relevant to assigned topic 26-22 GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject • adequate range • limited development of thesis • mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail 21-17 FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject • little substance • inadequate development of topic 16-13 VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject • non-substantive • not pertinent • OR not enough to evaluate	
ORGANIZATION		20-18 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/ supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive 17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing 13-10 FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development 9-7 VERY POOR: does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate	
VOCABULARY		20-18 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range • effective word/ idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register 17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range • occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but meaning not obscured 13-10 FAIR TO POOR: limited range • frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage • meaning confused or obscured 9-7 VERY POOR: essentially translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate	
LANGUAGE USE		25-22 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions 21-18 GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions but meaning seldom obscured 17-11 FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions • frequent errors of agreement, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions • meaning confused or obscured 10-5 VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate	
MECHANICS		5 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing 4 GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured 3 FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • meaning confused or obscured 2 VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate	
TOTAL SCORE	READER	COMMENTS	

Appendix M: Argumentative Writing Assessment Rubrics

Rating scale: A four-point scale (1, 2, 3 & 4) is used for each of the five categories.

Descriptors		Scores	Criteria
Conventions of English and mechanic	Effective	4 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very good mechanical ability maximum 5 errors • Free of errors. Has no grammatical errors, capitalization errors, spelling errors, punctuation errors or typographical errors? Uses a variety of sentences; some complex and some simple.
	Adequate	3 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Few minor mechanical errors 6 to 10 errors • Has some grammatical errors, capitalization errors, spelling errors, punctuation errors or typographical errors? Uses ONLY complex sentences OR simple sentences.
	Marginal	2 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some mechanical errors 11 to 15 errors • Has several grammatical errors, capitalization errors, spelling errors, punctuation errors or typographical errors? Only writes in simple sentence form.
	Inadequate	1 point	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many mechanical errors more than 15 errors • Has too many errors that makes reading the document difficult.
Content Development & claim	Effective	4 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very good range of ideas and enough evidence and reasoning • First paragraph has a greeting and a clearly written claim. The main idea is included with three supporting details.
	Adequate	3 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good range of ideas and good level of evidence and reasoning • Weaves some relevant research information details and ideas throughout the document to support claim. Points out some drawbacks with some solutions.

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First paragraph has no greeting but the claim is clearly written. The main idea is included with two or one supporting details.
	Marginal	2 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited range of ideas and evidence and reasoning is limited. • Research information seems unclear, vague. It does not match claim or support main idea. • First paragraph has no greeting and claim is difficult to locate but is written. The main idea is unclear and no supporting details are included.
	Inadequate	1 point	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No range of ideas and poor level of evidence and reasoning • No research is included. • Attempts to address the topic but with little or no success. It is missing many important ideas and supporting details.
Organization	Effective	4 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishes a clear and logical organization. Has written five paragraphs and each paragraph is indented. Uses transitional phrases to move from one paragraph to another. Conclusion is a summary of the whole document. Includes a closing and signature.
	Adequate	3 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishes a clear and logical organization. Has written 3 to 4 paragraphs with some paragraphs being indented. Uses some transitional phrases to move from one paragraph to another. Is missing a conclusion or a closing or a signature?
	Marginal	2 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is some organization but it is difficult to identify. Has written 2-3 paragraphs and does not indent. Does not use transitional phrases. Is missing a conclusion and a closing and a signature?

	Inadequate	1 point	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fails to organize ideas or work is incomplete.
Vocabulary and word choice	Effective	4 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very effective choice of words • Uses elaborate and advance vocabulary throughout the document.
	Adequate	3 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effective choice of words • Uses some vocabulary in their document.
	Marginal	2 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fairly good vocabulary • Overuse of words and vocabulary. Vocabulary is simple.
	Inadequate	1 point	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited range of vocabulary
Language Use	Effective	4 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • well-structured sentences with variety; appropriate rhetoric; few grammatical errors
	Adequate	3 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good to average: less well-structured sentence with some errors of tense, agreement, etc.; but meaning seldom obscured
	Marginal	2 points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • major errors of conjunctions, fragments, or ill-structured sentences that make meaning confused or obscured
	Inadequate	1 point	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • being dominated by errors that blocks communication
Total		20	

Appendix O: Sample of Students Essays

Student 1

education is important for everyone. Most of us consider education as one's light in life. And the success in getting the proper education can be affected by many reasons including the students' home, the quality of teaching and sometimes the student himself.

The biggest part of learning operation takes place inside the school. So, whatever the teachers use, has a direct influence on the students' success. For example, teachers who use different methodologies, and equipment such as computers will provide their students with variety of information. And learning process will be more interesting, which will have good impact on the students. Teachers using always the same techniques will have negative effect on their students' level, because the learning process will be dull and boring- so the quality of teaching can influence success.

Everyone has an aim in life. And usually, this aim is related to success in a way or another. So, the starting point to that goal is usually education. Successful education can be influenced by many factors such as the place where you live, the teachers as well as your desire.

Student B:

Success in education comes through determination and the hard work the student produces. Education is not just at school, so the student must work outside school, precisely at home.

Parents are responsible for their child's education and they must work with them to produce success in their lives. However, the question is how much of their efforts is needed? This depends on how bright the child is. Some only need to be taught by their teacher in class and then they understand the lesson and therefore, apply what they learnt on the problems given for homework. Moreover, some not as bright need more teaching and given that the teacher has limited time, there will be no one to teach the student except their parents.

The parents now face a problem of how to teach their child. This is usually tackled by asking the child how they want to learn. This method cannot be applied at school due to the number of students and each might have a different way of learning and it is not possible to meet each students demands. So, this makes it easier for the student to learn at home according to their style of learning

Students C

Every place in the society has influence on the success in education. May be the most important places are the home and school. both of them has main motivation For student to success.

Of course the home is playing the main role to make their children success, but sometimes there's circumstance to prevent them to get for example the excellent score. Here we don't mean that the motivation which comes from home isn't good, because usually it's not enough for the student.

There's some people who think that schools and colleges are better than home, and that comes under one reason which is in the schools and colleges have many references that can help the student to success in their education.

All in all, I think that home and education programme have an important quality in the teaching. In experience home was the main supporter that helps me reach this stage of studying. and it's more important than other educational programmes.

Student D :

As a student, we confirm that education is our first interests in life for its positive benefits that we get from it and the radical change that brought it to not only to ourselves but also to our life.

First of all, education is our first steps in life because before starting studying for example at the primary school, we were doing nothing but just playing and living life with a closed mind. so education is considered the first step and the best chance to open our minds, to learn, to get out from the darkness of ignorance.

Moreover, education is not about learning how to read or to count, and it is not only a source of information, but it teaches us how to behave well. With education, we learn the wrong and the right behaviour improve our language, our level and even our way of living.

In addition to that, education makes us more aware, more intelligent and it helps us to gather a lot of information in different fields in order to become cultured. furthermore, we will release the goal of life and every educated person will decide to choose his goal what he wants to achieve and certainly by education we will achieve our goals.

In conclusion, education is the way to learn, be cultured, work achieve dream, discover, explore, improve yourself and your abilities. so education is life.

Appendix P : Paul Nation's Email

>

an academic request

Paul Nation <Paul.Nation@vuw.ac.nz>
À : tayaa karima <tayaa.karima@gmail.com>

26 octobre 2017 à 06:34

I think you would need to use a productive vocabulary test a bit like the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test.

If you want to measure size you may need to make your own version covering the first 5000 words or more depending on your students' level of proficiency.

Best wishes

Paul Nation

35 Warwick Street

Wilton

Wellington

New Zealand 6012

From: tayaa karima <tayaa.karima@gmail.com>

Sent: Thursday, 26 October 2017 7:36:47 a.m.

To: Paul Nation

Subject: an academic request

[Texte des messages précédents masqué]

Résumé

Cette thèse est basée sur une étude de corrélation prédictive de l'utilisation de la stratégie linguistique par les étudiants de troisième année de l'université Larbi Tebessi -Tebessa et de sa contribution au développement du vocabulaire et de l'expression écrite. L'étude est principalement descriptive usant une approche quantitative afin d'analyser les données de 49 étudiants. Elle fait appel à un nombre de méthodes de recherche telles que le questionnaire (phase une), le test de vocabulaire (tests de niveau de vocabulaire productif et réceptif en phase deux), et les expressions écrites des étudiants (phases trois et quatre). Cette dernière est guidée par quatre questions de recherche. Enfin, les réponses ont été calculées et analysées par le SPSS. La phase non expérimentale a fourni plusieurs résultats. Initialement, les données recueillies à partir des questionnaires ont révélé que les étudiants de troisième année ont tendance à employer, moyennement, diverses stratégies dans l'apprentissage du vocabulaire, alors qu'ils utilisent diverses stratégies langagières dans l'expression écrite. En ce qui concerne les résultats obtenus dans la deuxième phase, nous avons constaté que le taux du vocabulaire productif de l'étudiant est très limité par rapport au taux du vocabulaire réceptif. Après avoir examiné la contribution des stratégies d'apprentissage de la langue par rapport au taux du vocabulaire, des régressions linéaires et multiples n'ont révélé aucun effet statistiquement significatif de ces stratégies d'apprentissage sur le taux du vocabulaire. Les résultats obtenus dans la phase trois ont révélé que les expressions écrites de la majorité des étudiants sont passables. Cependant, nous avons constaté une relation significative entre le vocabulaire et la qualité des écrits. Les résultats ont également révélé une relation faible, bien que significative, entre les stratégies d'apprentissage des langues et les notes des expressions écrites des étudiants. Le programme Vocab Profile a été utilisé comme outil de recherche dans la phase quatre, pour analyser le vocabulaire de l'expression écrite de chaque étudiant. Les résultats ont montré les étudiants utilisent la moitié leur vocabulaire lors de la rédaction d'expressions écrites. Ces résultats suggèrent qu'une formation en stratégies d'apprentissage ainsi que des instructions autodirigées devraient être fournies pour pouvoir faire intégrer le vocabulaire comme activité dans les programmes algériens et les enseignements des compétences en écriture.

Mots-clés : stratégies d'apprentissage des langues, analyse de corrélation, compétences en écriture, analyse de régression, connaissance du vocabulaire, taille productive, taille réceptive.

الملخص

تستند هذه الدراسة إلى تصميم بحث ارتباطي تنبؤي، وتبحث في استراتيجية تعلم اللغة المستخدمة من قبل طلاب السنة الثالثة ليسانس في جامعة العربي التبسي - تبسة ومساهمتها في تطوير معرفة المفردات والقدرة على كتابة المقالات. اشتملت الدراسة في الغالب على بحث وصفي باستخدام نهج كمي لتحليل البيانات التي تم جمعها من 49 طالبًا. اعتمدت الدراسة عددًا من طرق البحث مثل الاستبيان (المرحلة الأولى)، واختبار المفردات (اختبارات مستوى المفردات الإنتاجية والسلبية) (المرحلة الثانية)، والواجبات الكتابية للطالب (المرحلتان الثالثة والرابعة) التي استرشدت بأربعة أسئلة بحثية رئيسية. أخيرًا تم حساب الإجابات ووضعها في SPSS للتحليل.

قدمت الدراسة غير التجريبية عدة نتائج؛ في البداية، كشف تحليل البيانات التي تم جمعها من الاستبيان أن طلاب السنة الثالثة يستخدمون استراتيجيات مختلفة في تعلم المفردات ذات الاستخدام المتوسط، بينما استخدموا استراتيجيات مختلفة على مستوى عالي التردد عند كتابتهم المقالات. فيما يتعلق بالنتائج التي تم الحصول عليها من المرحلة الثانية، وجدنا أن حجم المفردات الإنتاجية للطالب محدود للغاية مقارنة بنتائج المفردات السلبية. أظهرت نتائج الانحدار الخطي والمتعدد عدم وجود تأثير ذي دلالة إحصائية لاستراتيجيات تعلم اللغة على حجم المفردات.

أظهرت النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها من المرحلة الثالثة أن جودة الكتابة لغالبية المشاركين عادلة. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، تم العثور على ارتباط كبير بين المفردات وجودة الذكاء، في حين كشفت النتائج أيضًا عن ضعف، وإن كان هناك علاقة كبيرة بين استراتيجيات تعلم اللغة ودرجات مقالات الطلاب.

تم استخدام برنامج VocabProfile كأداة بحث في المرحلة الرابعة لتحليل ملف تعريف المفردات لمقال كل طالب. أظهرت النتائج أن النتائج الإجمالية أظهرت أن الطلاب استخدموا المفردات في حوالي نصف كفاءة المفردات الخاصة بهم في كتابة المقالات.

تشير هذه النتائج إلى أنه يجب توفير التدريب على الإستراتيجية والتعليمات الموجهة ذاتيًا في دمج المفردات في المناهج الجزائرية وتعليم مهارات الكتابة أيضًا.

الكلمات المفتاحية: استراتيجيات تعلم اللغة، تحليل الارتباط، المعياري، مهارات الكتابة، تحليل الانحدار المعياري، معرفة المفردات، حجم المفردات الإنتاجية، حجم المفردات السلبية.

