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Department of English Language

Teaching Writing through the Product Approach Combined with Metacognitive Strategies:

The Case Study of Second Year LMD Students of English, University of Oum El Bouaghi

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Thesis Submitted in Candidacy for the Degree of LMD Doctorate in Language Teaching

Submitted by: Oualid Nemouchi   Supervised by: Pr. Hacène Saadi

Board of Examiners

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DEDICATION

To Amina and my family

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ABSTRACT

Producing high-quality compositions is a constant challenge to foreign language students because of several reasons. The present study sets out to investigate the extent to which combining the product approach with metacognitive strategies develops the students' EFL writing organization. It purports at raising the students' awareness about the significance of of metacognitive knowledge and regulation in the betterment of the learners' written performances. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that if EFL teachers combine the product approach with metacognitive strategies, they would develop their students' writing skill and that incorporating metacognitive paradigms in the accomplishment of the writing tasks would help learners overcome the difficulties associated with the process of composition. The study has been conducted with two writing classes assigned to an experimental group and a control group. To compare the subjects' performance in terms of the effective use of grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, cohesion, coherence, topic sentence, thesis statement, and types of essay development, a pre-test and a post-test have been administered in the form of in-class expository essays. Following the collection of the post-test essays, a questionnaire has been given to the experimental group subjects to mainly elicit their opinions about the significance of metacognive knowledge and strategies in developing their writing performances. Furthermore, a questionnaire has been administered to written expression teachers to find out about their teaching writing practices regarding metacognition and to gauge their standpoints about combining the product approach with metacognitive strategies in the writing classroom. The results obtained from the *t-test* calculation have demonstrated a significant improvement of the experimental group in the previously mentioned aspects under scrutiny, while the control group has actually lowered its scores in body organization in comparison to the control group. The study has also indicated that both students and teachers favour combination of the product approach with metacognition in the teaching of L2 writing.

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General Introduction

Background of the Study

In the contemporary world of globalisation and technological development, education is a crucial first step to every human activity. It ensures the acquisition of skills and knowledge necessary to master the academic as well as the professional success. Thus, the quality of students' performance remains at the heart of education. At one time, it was believed that intelligence is the substantial factor determining the academic success. However, after many years of research, researchers, educators, and trainers have come to realise the magnificent contribution of various variables that are strongly tied to the students' effective academic achievement. These factors can be psychological, socio-cultural, linguistic, or cognitive.

Beside many other considerations, the implementation of metacognition in language teaching has been found of a critical importance in developing the students' performance. The notion "metacognition" encompasses two basic elements; knowledge about cognition, or thinking; and the deliberate, conscious regulation and control of cognitive activity, which entail self-regulation. The latter represents strategies, tips, and techniques teachers incorporate in the teaching process to help learners comprehend information and overcome problems.

According to many theories and researchers (Alexander, 1997; Pressley and Harris, 2006), the use of metacognitive strategies in language teaching is an indispensable pre-requisite owing to the fact that such techniques have been correlated with efficient performance. Metacognitive-oriented teaching is more likely to make learners high achievers, foster their productive performance, and develop their communicative competence. Much of today's professional communication is done in writing, preliminary interviews, e-mails, memos, reports, applications, and much more are parts of students'

daily life. Accordingly, writing is an essential skill that has proved to be a substantial necessity for language apprenticeship.

Over the years, the way in which writing is conveyed has substantially changed; nevertheless, the major purpose has remained the same, to competently communicate ideas in a concise and precise manner. The writing skill, as a result, serves as the starting point from which individuals can be creative, contributive, and active members of the society. While composing, proficient writers dedicate diversified degrees of attention and other cognitive resources to their writing topic, their intended audience, their compositional objective, and their text structure. Unsurprisingly, therefore, even professional composers lament the difficult and complex nature of writing, and the even greater defiance attributed to learning how to write. As Red Smith insightfully remarks, "Writing is easy. All you have to do is sit down to a typewriter and open a vein."

The underlined complexity of writing has entailed the implementation of various and discrepant approaches in the teaching of L2 writing. Over the course of history, teachers have adopted different philosophies to approach their writing instructions as an attempt to overcome the enigmatic nature of such a process. The traditional dogma, epitomised in the product approach, regarded writing as a linear and simplistic activity. The major priority is given to classroom activities in which the learners have to be fully engaged in imitating and transforming model texts to increase their awareness of text features such as structures of grammar and organisational patterns. Correctness, accuracy, and copying were believed to be the bedrock of writing instructions.

In the early 1980s, a paradigm shift from the product to the process approach occurred. The latter aimed mainly at determining and controlling the several steps learners go through when involved in the process of writing. The prime focus is no more on the finished text, but on the steps that make up the act of writing. The proponents of such an approach argue that "the writing process is a series of overlapping and interacting processes." It is "a recursive rather than a linear process" because the nature of writing per

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se is "recursive, non-linear" (Brookes and Grundy 1998: 9). In recent years, writing research has expanded significantly and has acknowledged the existence of various processes and variables that comprise and impact skilful composition. The contemporary models, thus, recognise it as a cognitive, linguistic, affective, behavioural, and physical in nature and set within a broader socio-cultural context (Graham, 2006; prior, 2006).

A substantial body of research provides insight about the nature and impact of metacognitive writing knowledge (e.g., Donovan and Smolkin, 2006). Unanimously, these studies have reported its developmental trajectory, as well as the utmost role it plays with respect to writing outcomes. Specifically, the available evidence upholds several propositions in the sense that skilled writers are more likely to be knowledgeable about writing than less skilled writers, the level of knowledge writers bring to the task of writing highly pertains to their writing performance, and instruction that increases writers' knowledge, intertwined with meaningful practice opportunities, creates a room for improvement in the writing' outcome and quality (Graham, 2006). Teachers of writing, accordingly, must adhere to the threefold necessity of adopting the metacognitive teaching philosophy, adapting their teaching approaches and strategies to metacognition and aiding their students implement the metacognitive strategies in the accomplishment of their writing tasks.

1. Statement of the Problem

The ability to express oneself through an accurate writing remains a non-negotiated necessity in foreign language learning. Building a sustained writing proficiency system is a long and intricate assignment. The Algerian educational context, as the international educational context, stresses the need of mastering the skills of writing. The latter is considered as the backbone of the academic achievement. Teachers, as a result, have no choice but to adhere to the necessity of developing their students' writing abilities. This is easier said than done when one takes into account the dilemmas both

teachers and learners are constantly facing when involved in the process of learning/teaching writing.

The kaleidoscopic nature of writing sparked extensive researches on how to decipher the puzzling intricacies of such a process. Many researchers have launched an appeal for an insightful coalescence of all the language-related fields in order to provide theoretical databanks and practical solutions required to dispel the enigmatic entity of writing. These endeavours have produced, inter alia, a blend of teaching approaches, authentic materials, and strategies teachers may use in their writing instructions.

Notwithstanding the major need to master such a difficult skill, students, in the department of Letters and the English Language at the University of Larbi Ben M'hidi in Oum El Bouaghi, still denote great deficiencies in expressing themselves through writing. In order to capture the source of the students' poor writing performance, the researcher conducted a pilot study by delivering a questionnaire to 24 "Written Expression" teachers. The questionnaire's major aim was to determine the causes and the reasons behind such a poor writing performance, the approach, or approaches, teachers rely on in their writing instruction, the solutions that may be suggested to overcome the underlined difficulty.

The results showed that 90% of the participants reported the implementation of the process approach where learners are supposed to develop fluency and provided with a way to think about writing in terms of what the writer does (planning, revising, drafting editing, and the like). Students are looked upon as central in learning so that their needs, expectations, learning styles, goals, knowledge and skills are taken into consideration. The questionnaire results, also, indicated that the difficulty and the complexity associated with the implementation of the process approach decreased the teachers potentiality of meeting their instructions' goals, and therefore, hindered the learners writing abilities. Over-crowded classrooms that prevent teacher-student interaction, unbalanced learners level, the practicality of the product over the process approach in terms of the implication' feasibility, and the teachers' very high quality (to avoid saying poor experienced teachers)

required to work out such an approach are the main reasons attributed to the inefficiency of the process approach.

Taking into account the above-mentioned characteristics of such an approach, the researcher invited 30 randomly chosen Second Year L.M.D students to fill in a questionnaire. The latter purports at determining whether, or not, students conceive their teachers writing instruction, are able to understand and transfer the acquired knowledge, have the skills necessary to gain access to the higher cognitive process, and ultimately whether they are autonomous and fluent in writing. The results showed that the students are far away from perceiving their teachers instructions. The latter still stress accuracy over fluency insofar grammar and correctness occupy the line's share and neglect equipping the students with the metacognitive knowledge necessary to gain mastery of the higher cognitive processes.

These observed dichotomies and absolute absence of reconciliation between the teachers and their students triggered the researcher's attention to conduct the investigation at hand and suggest an insightful coalescence between the product approach and metacognition to bridge the sharp lacuna between the teachers' instructions and the students' performances. The metacognitive product-oriented teaching is not intended to shroud the complexity of writing, rather contribute to dismiss the linguistic, psychological, affective, and cognitive barriers that are omnipresent whenever engaged in writing by enriching the product approach with activities that will break its mechanical aspect (imitation). This could only be reached through an insightful amalgamation of the product approach with metacognitive activities which contribute greatly to developing the students' meaningful learning.

The expediency of incorporating metacognitive strategies in the product approach to the teaching of L2 writing is twofold. Initially, it purports at equipping students with a rich understanding of the essential elements and characteristics of high-quality compositions. The latter are very often associated with the richness of the metacognitive

knowledge in the research literature and the empirical studies (e.g., Bereiter Scardamalia, 1987; Graham, 2006). It, secondly, provides learners with the required knowledge of the various higher order processes that allow them to compose proficiently epitomized in metacognitive strategies in terms of asking questions, foster self-reflection, thinking aloud…..etc. Although metacognition and strategic behavior are significant components of learning in all academic domains (Alexander, 1997), they are believed to be especially potent catalysts for fostering competence and improving performance in writing (Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998).

2. Aims of the Study

The highly complex nature of writing entails a profound scrutiny in the relevant research literature in search for theoretical as well as practical solutions that may serve as a panacea of the difficulties associated with such a process. The investigation at hand aims at establishing the notion that the discrete/separate implementation of the process and product approaches has been deficient in meeting the writing instruction goals. The present study, therefore, purports at highlighting the role the amalgamated metacognition and the product approach plays in improving the latter's efficiency. It, also, aims at demonstrating that enriching the students' metacognitive knowledge is contributive in helping them produce high quality compositions. It, further, purports at denoting the importance of carrying out an insightful amalgamation of the product approach with metacognitive activities which contribute greatly to developing the learners' meaningful learning; and thus, foster their writing performance. For these reasons, the investigation at hand serves the purpose of demonstrating that the incorporation of metacognitive knowledge and strategies in the product approach to the teaching of L2 writing is of great contribution to a better performance.

3. Research Questions

In the pursuit of the above-mentioned aims, it is necessary to answer the following questions:

- Is the implementation of the process approach in the teaching of L2 writing effective in meeting the students' needs?

- Is the implementation of the product approach in the teaching of L2 writing contributive in developing the students' writing skills?

- Does the combination of metacognition with the product approach exert a positive impact on writing instructions; and thus, foster the learners' productive outcomes?

- Does enriching the students' metacognitive knowledge and skills promote their writing performance?

- Do EFL students have the required metacognitive knowledge and skills necessary to produce high quality compositions?

- How frequently do EFL teachers use metacognitive strategies in their teaching of L2 writing?

- How often do EFL students incorporate metacognitive strategies in the accomplishment of their writing tasks

4. Hypotheses

The research at hand is designed to investigate in what ways combining metacognition with the product approach of teaching L2 writing develops the learners writing performance. It, also, investigates the role raising the students' metacognitive knowledge and facilitating the incorporation of metacognitive strategies plays in helping learners reach the semantic prosody as well as the syntactic maturity. Accordingly, two hypotheses have been elaborated. Initially, we hypothesise that *if teachers insightfully*

combine metacognition with the product approach to the teaching of L2 writing, their students' familiarisation with metacognitive knowledge and strategies would be raised. We, also, hypothesise that *if learners raise their metacognitive knowledge and incorporate the metacognitive strategies in the accomplishment of their writing tasks, their writing performance is more likely to be proficient*.

5. Means of Research

In order to check the set hypotheses, we have opted for an experimental design, more specifically, a pre-test post-test Control Experimental group design. Two different groups of students receive discrepant learning opportunities and incomes so that their writing performance can be compared. The control Group is taught Written Expression (thesis statement, controlling idea, topic sentence, punctuation…..etc) in the usual way using the process approach. The Experimental Group is provided with instruction of a selected range of metacognitive knowledge aspect as well as income of incorporating various metacognitive strategies using the metacognitive-informed product approach. The instructional period is intended to raise the Experimental Group's awareness of the metacognitive knowledge associated with the writing skill and to make the students familiarised with the incorporation of the various metacognitive activities involved in the production of high quality compositions. The pre-test is administered to determine the students' writing proficiency level, the richness of their metacognitive knowledge, and the frequency of using metacognitive strategies. The post-test intends to check the effectiveness of the manipulated independent variable (metacognitive-oriented approach) on the learners' writing output.

Seeking more reliability and validity, a teachers' questionnaire is administered to Written Expression teachers. It serves the purpose of eliciting information about whether these teachers adopt metacognition and incorporate metacognitive strategies when teaching L2 writing. This questionnaire, also, attempts to deduce the teachers' standpoints

about the viability of combining metacognition to the product approach in their Written Expression instructions. Furthermore, a students' questionnaire addressed to Second Year LMD Students of English, is designed to figure out the students' frequency of using metacognitive strategies, the effectiveness of their metacognitive knowledge, and their view points about the importance of metacognition as well as the latter's impact on their writing abilities.

6. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis at hand is constituted of seven chapters delineated into two parts, fundamental and empirical. The former comprises three chapters each of which attempts to analyse and depict the research variables as expressed in the hypotheses. These are entitled as follows: A General Overview of Writing, Metacognitive Strategies, Approaches to Teaching Writing. The empirical part of the thesis is made up of four chapters entitled as such: The Research Methodology, The Test, The Questionnaire. The thesis ends with some implications of the potential results on the future of teaching writing as perceived by the author.

CHAPTER ONE

A GENERAL OVERVIEW OF WRITING

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Introduction

Just like listening, speaking, and reading, writing is a prominent skill which plays a crucial role in EFL syllabus-design. It is indispensable in learning all subjects and getting involved in all professions. By being a proficient writer, one can give a good account of himself as a learner or when applying for a job. If students are to be successful and to foster their skills in a chosen career, their capacity to express themselves clearly, concisely, and persuasively , through writing, is an extreme necessity that must be fulfilled. This is easier said than done when one considers the dilemmas both teachers and students are usually confronted with when dealing with the predicament of teaching/ learning such a subject.

In the course of history, the way in which writing is conveyed has basically changed. Nonetheless, the desired aim has remained the same, to proficiently share thoughts, communicate ideas, transmit knowledge, express opinions, defend arguments, establish notions, uphold motions,...etc., in a compendious manner. To reach the latter, teachers have adopted diversified dogmas of teaching writing. A variety, sometimes discrepant, approaches have long occupied the stage of L2 instruction. These approaches represent different philosophies teachers and learners rely on to note, capture, analyse, classify, and seek remedy to the various difficulties associated with the nature, design, and use of writing.

Traditionally, writing was believed to have no real place in teaching the target language. It was regarded as a mere reinforcement of the other skills and proficiency was mirrored in oral use of the language. Such a view prevailed for long time. Thereafter, an important change in perception pertaining to the nature of writing has led to a reconsideration of the latter's status in language teaching and learning. This new

perception acknowledges the view that writing is a skill that can be learned and developed, thus, strengthening its position in the language apprenticeship. Nowadays, research on second language writing is regarded as an important domain of inquiry in applied linguistics.

In this chapter, we intend to examine very briefly the history of writing and the way it has developed before imposing itself as a subject of first inquiry in the educational enterprise. Today's understanding of the writing skill and its approaches to teaching are also referred to. The chapter also sheds light on the importance of such a skill and its connection to the other language skills in terms of reading, speaking, and listening.

1.1 The History of Writing

The history of writing represents the history of the way humans have used to transmit and record ideas, events, and emotions. It is the history of civilisation per se. The recorded words, signs and drawings allowed human beings to be aware of their history that could never be known otherwise. The cave-men started the journey of presenting writing to humanity by the use of the initial writing instruments which took multiple forms as sharpened-stones, bones, feathers etc.

Decades after, the drawings evolved to become symbols then words and, ultimately, sentences. Thereafter, the discovery of clay facilitated the process of recording writing; it gave birth to portable records (Bellis, 2003). Pictographs were substituted by the alphabet between 1700 and 1500 B.C. in the Sinaitic world. Noam Chomsky argues that the invention of the alphabet is the biggest invention in humans' history owing to the fact that it paved the way towards the emergence, conveyance, and documentation of all the other fields of science, literature and philosophy.

The Chinese philosopher, Tien-Lcheu, invented the ink in 2697 B.C., and that was paralleled with the introduction of paper. The early Egyptians, Romans, Greeks and

Hebrews used papyrus and parchment papers. A pen suitable for parchment and ink was first invented by the Romans from the jointed bamboo plant (Bellis, 2003). Almost two millennia after, the quill pen was introduced around 700 A.D. Such a writing' tool has withstood the notion of time and remained as the most widely used instrument for the longest period in history.

In 1436, Johannes Gutenberg created the printing press paving the way towards the invention of new printing technologies during the last centuries. Having better inks and paper, handwriting had improved to become an art, a quotidian hobby, and a passion. Backed-up with humans' innate creative entity, writing instruments developed resulting in the appearance of the modern fountain pen.

Lewis Waterman brought about the first practical fountain pen in 1884. The latter was meant to carry its own supply of ink. In the 1950, the ink cartridge was introduced and it has been immediately recognised as an efficient instrument of writing at that era (Crystal, 1994).

1.2 History of L2 Writing

The Teaching of English to foreign language learners was regarded as a minor priority in the first half of the 20th century. According to Matsuda (2003, cited in Harklu, hyland, Warschaur, 2003: 151), mostly Spanish-speaking students rather than foreign learners received education in ESL classrooms in the 1940s. This prioritisation of the Spanish speakers over foreigners provided the former with an opportunity to be engraved with naturalistic as well as dogmatic beliefs and assumptions. Due to the socio-political facet that was prevailing during that era, ESL pedagogy was not developed.

Research on second language writing has been largely recognised as an interdisciplinary domain of enquiry in applied linguistics for more than half a century. The resurgent field of L2 writing still extends theoretically and pedagogically amongst L2

researchers. Notwithstanding the existence of L2 writing in second language education and in composition studies, the realm of L2 writing has a remarkable short history as an independent discipline because of its integration within the field of English as a second language.

In the 1950s, few studies of L2 writing were conducted in second language acquisition. At that era, the grammar translation method exclusively occupied the stage of second language teaching. In such a teaching method, minor attention was given to writing by comparison to reading and text comprehension. By the 1960s, the increased number of international learners drove teachers to scrutinise L2 writing and pedagogy. In the United States, a considerable number of foreign learners joined higher education. During that phase, composition educators realised a huge lacuna in writing between L1 and L2 students. These discrepancies earnestly boosted interest in instructing writing to second language learners (Matsuda, 2003)

Thereafter, with the appearance of the audio-lingual method in the 1960s, writing gained more significance for it was regarded as a reinforcement of oral patterns (Leki, 1992). Linguists, following that method, stressed instruction of the sound structures. They suggested that major attention should be given to the phonological awareness, analogies, mimicry drills, imitation, and practise in ESL classes. Those linguists upheld the notion that writing must imply progressive as well as advanced language teaching (Silva, 1997). In the 1970s, the manifestation of the communicative approach granted writing the third role of the three Ps' lesson layout epitomised in 'presentation, practice and production' (A. Gaur, 1984). However, writing was still conceived as a mere tool with which teachers raise their students' familiarisation with grammar rules.

In the 1980s, a massive development in both composition and second language studies prompted second language researchers to take into consideration other factors than properties of the texts themselves. In composition studies, the focal point has shifted from textual features to the process of writing per se due to insights stemming from diversified

philosophical and methodological trends scrutinising the process of producing written discourse (Reid, 2001). The notion of 'writing as a process' was first introduced by Vivian Zamel 1976, giving birth to the process based approach (Ibid). The latter was thought of, by many scholars, as the first real change in writing. Composition was no longer believed to be an ultimate product, rather as a long process. According to Zamel (1982: 56), writing was "reconceptualised as the process of discovering meaning". Cognitive considerations impact the steps of the writing process whereby the writer is involved in recursive cognitive strategies epitomised in three broad stages: planning, formulating and revising.

Along with the cognitive inclination, that thoroughly prevailed the process oriented approach, other socio-political considerations emerged and became widely spread in the 1990s. John (2002) points out:

> Here the focus is on explicitly guided apprenticeship into discourse communities that share implicit understandings of the conventions of genres or broad patterns and expectations created within discipline-specific writing. Another important theme is the political and ideological nature of L2 writing, since issues of unequal distribution of power are unavoidable in contexts where writing is a high-stakes activity (e.g.;, university entrance and exit exams; scientific publication) (p.109).

1.3 Definition of Writing

Undoubtedly, writing does not land itself to a single definition; it has been a notoriously a complex notion to define. As Veigle, (2002: 3) states " This is not a simple task since, as researchers in both first and second language writing have pointed out, the uses to which writing is put by different people in different situations are so varied that no single definition can cover all situations". The notion of writing can be captured from diversified perspectives that vary from broad assumptions to a much narrower descriptions. Generally, it is the ability to put down graphic symbols, translating spoken discourse into letters and words which are superimposed together to form sentences

following some rules and conventions. Byrne (1991: 1) illustrated this point by stating " ... the symbols have to be arranged according to certain conventions to form words, and words have to be arranged to form sentences". The sequence of sentences is referred to as a text that can be short or long. To put it differently, writing can be defined as a means of representing language by using graphic symbols.

To go further, the act of writing goes beyond putting down graphic symbols. It is "not only putting ones thoughts to paper as they occur, but actually using writing to create new knowledge" (Veigle, 2002:32). Researchers on L2 composition studies hold the view that writing is "encoding internal representation (ideas) into written texts" (Ibid: 36). Hyland delved deeper into the dynamics of writing as a process taking into account the complexity of composing in itself, the context to which writing is put, and the intended audience. He regards writing as "composing skills and knowledge about texts, contexts and readers" (2003: 3). For Tarantino (1988: 47), it is "a learned behaviour which in turn can become a source of learning.

In the narrow sense, writing has several definitions. Each approach to teaching writing provides distinctive description of such a skill, its nature, use, and design. To the product approach' proponents, it is "a creative discovery procedure characterised by the dynamic interplay of content and language; the use of language to explore beyond the known content" (Tayler, 1981: 6). In the process approach, scholars argue that writing is a "non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel, 1983: 165, cited in Hyland, 2003: 11). It is a discovery procedure based on a complex recursive and creative processes. Similarly, Brown (2001) argues that the motion that writing is graphic symbols no longer stands, and that it is challenged by a major theme in the field of ESL writing, that of the composing process of writing. Brown goes further with arguing that:

> ...written products are often the result of thinking, drafting, and revising procedures that require specialised skills ... the compositional nature of writing

has produced writing pedagogy that focuses students on how to generate ideas, how to organise them cohesively into a written text, how to revise text for clearer meaning, how to edit text for appropriate grammar, and how to produce a final product, Brown (2001: 335).

In the field of English for Academic Purposes, scholars hold the view that the pedagogical facet of writing must imply "the production of prose that will be acceptable, and learning to write is part of becoming socialised to the academic community" (Silva, 1990: 17), in addition to "the complex ability to write from other texts, to summarise, to disambiguate key notions and useful facts and incorporate them in one's own writing, and to react critically to prose" (Rose 1989: 119).

Moreover, writing is considered as a vigorous means of communication; it reflects our thoughts and ideas. For Spratt, Pulverness, and William (2005: 26), writing is the process of transmitting successfully a specific message to other people. In order to do so, appropriate style, sufficient and well organised ideas are needed. To put it differently, writing is the ability of communicating with the language through graphic representation of ideas.

Apparently, writing is a confidential and personal activity; however, it also has a social dimension. Writing is a social act which fulfils a set of communicative needs. To elaborate more the social nature of writing, Veigle (2002: 19) pointed out: "writing is also social because it is a social artefact and is carried out in a social setting. What we write, how we write, whom we write to are shaped by social conventions and by our history of social interaction..."

In a nutshell, one may argue that there exists no universally agreed-upon definition of writing. The researcher described such a skill from communicative, social, and pedagogical dimensions, and intentionally referred to the understanding of writing mainly from the Product as well as the Process approaches that serve as the bedrock of the investigation at hand. These dogmas will be clarified with more details in the next

chapters. That is why we highlighted the notion of writing exclusively from the perspective of the approaches stated earlier.

1.4 The Importance of Writing in Second Language Teaching

In this part of the chapter at hand, the researcher attempts to highlight the importance attributed to the writing skill in the field of teaching English as a second language. Building a sustained writing proficiency system is a long and intricate assignment. Students have long struggled in their long way towards the mastery of the syntactic maturity as well as the semantic prosody. In their attempts to do so, they seem to never be able to overcome the difficulties associated with developing their writing abilities due to several factors.

The Algerian educational context, as the international educational contexts, stresses the need of mastering the skills of writing. The latter is considered as the bedrock of the academic achievement. Teachers, as a result, have no choice but to adhere to the necessity of developing their students' writing abilities, raise their awareness of what is needed to accomplish the writing tasks, and make them familiarised with the impact writing exerts on their academic as well as professional careers.

While composing, proficient writers dedicate diversified degrees of attention and other cognitive resources to their writing topic, their intended audience, their compositional objective, and their text structure. Unsurprisingly, therefore, even professional authors lament the difficult and complex nature of writing, and the even greater defiance attributed to learning how to write.

The kaleidoscopic nature of writing sparked extensive researches on how to decipher the puzzling intricacies of such a process. Many researchers have launched an appeal for an insightful coalescence of all the language-related fields in order to provide practical solutions required to dispel the difficulties stated earlier. These endeavours have

produced, inter alia, a blend of teaching approaches, authentic materials, and strategies teachers may use in their writing instructions to facilitate the writing tasks and help students reach high-quality compositions.

Bell and Burnaby (1984) argue that every writer must master the content, the sentence structure, the vocabulary, the punctuation, the spelling, and chiefly cohesion and coherence to master the required level in writing (36). Similarly, David Nunan (1989) argued, in his seminal work entitled "Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom", that the skilled writers are the ones who are capable of going beyond the sentence (36). As for Brown and Hood (1989), the mastery of the writing skill is mainly dependent on practice. Put differently, students will gain profit from lots of practice, so that they are constantly advised by their teachers to write more often at home even if it is only for themselves (6).

Another array of techniques is suggested by L2 scholars to help teachers meet the desirable goals. Instructors are required to initiate their instruction with teaching their students how to arrange their ideas, how to use the appropriate vocabulary, and how to overcome the grammar, spelling and punctuation difficulties rooted in the writing process. Undoubtedly, these techniques are time consuming, but very necessary to any piece of writing. This is exactly what Spratt, Pulverness and William (2005) noted down when saying: "Mistakes in spelling or grammar are difficult to ignore; they must be corrected. Students want their language mistakes to be corrected. Generally, language mistakes are more easily and quickly diagnosed and then corrected than ones of content and organization" (171).

As further solutions suggested by researchers, Spratt, Pulverness, and William (2005), once again, pointed out that in order to teach students the writing sub-skill; instructors must concentrate mainly on:

- Accuracy which entails correct spelling, punctuation, correctly using grammar, joining of sentences, paragraphing, choosing the right vocabulary and using correct layouts.

- Communicating a message; by writing students have something to say, so they have to convey the message efficiently to readers.

- The writing process stages: if teachers encourage using the writing process in the classroom, learners will become more (171).

Some conventions have been proposed, in an article, to writers by DR. J. Schaeper (2011), to foster their performance in writing. They are referred to as the 10 commandments:

- Every piece of writing should have a clear purpose.

- Redundancy of words can bore the readers and drive his attention away.

- The most significant information should be stated in the very beginning of any writing.

- Mistakes in grammar, punctuation and spelling must be avoided.

- Taking the intended audience into account before starting to write.

- Writers should make their writing powerful and have an impact on their readers.

- Complex words are to be replaced by the simple ones.

- Leave out all the information that are not relevant to the main purpose.

- Use dynamic words in order to bring the writing to life.

- Never assume that your readers know more than you do. (232)

Writing is the least of skills that triggers students' enthusiasm. Accordingly, they are less inclined as well as motivated to accomplish the writing tasks. According to Jeremy Harmer (2006), the importance behind mastering the writing skill is to foster, in a way or another, the general language competence (39). When boosting their students'

motivation to produce effective writing, teachers need to come out with ways to attract their learners' attention by making them aware of the writing conventions and the genre constraints in specific types of writing, provoking them to have ideas, and explicitly clarifying the value of the task. For example, students may be asked to complete tasks on the board or to reassemble jumbled texts, or to discuss ideas together before the writing activity starts, or the teacher may give his students the words they need to start writing etc.

According to Taylor Gordon (2009) there is no magic formula to use in order to develop the students' writing' abilities, rather there is an interrelation that exists among four elements that may be helpful in facilitating the students acquisition of writing. These elements are: the writer, the content, the reader, and the forms of the language. Such considerations should be holistically handled whenever engaged in the process of writing because each of which completes the other. (2-3).

Writing, along with the other skills, is of an utmost importance for it contributes in facilitating the process of language learning/teaching. According to an article published on the internet by Hansen (1996) entitled "The Importance of Good Writing Skills", writing aids learns learn how to form and produce language, how to spell, how to make logical argument. Hansen, also, claimed that writing skills can be considered as the panacea that brings about prosperous academic as well as professional success.

Jeremy Harmer (2006) holds the view that writing triggers the students' attention to concentrate on accurate language use and because they more thinking time is available as they write, they can check dictionaries, grammar books, and other materials whenever a predicament arise; this may provoke language development (31).

The University of Missouri (2010) published an article showing the importance of writing as follows:

- Writing promotes your ability to pose worthwhile questions.

- Writing fosters your ability to explain a complex position to readers, and to yourself.

- Writing helps others give you feedback.

- Writing refines your ideas.

- Writing out ideas helps in the evaluation of the adequacy of argument.

- Writing furnishes individuals with the communication and thinking skills needed in life.

- Writing is a prominent job skill.

To sum up the importance of writing, one may argue that writing is indispensable pre-requisite in studying all subjects and in all professions. Only by proficient writing, individuals can achieve success in studies, when applying for employment, or in any professional career. It is by the quality of writing, a person is judged. High quality compositions allow people to express their thoughts, their existing mental conditions and communicate ideas. In other words, writing proficiently serves educational, professional, social, and communicative purposes.

1.5 Writing in the English Department

The writing skill remains at top priority in the organisation of the currently implemented LMD system; it is given a major importance, more than ever before. Students of English, particularly, are required to master such a prominent skill in order to reach the academic as well as professional success. The Algerian educational enterprise emphasises the necessity of equipping the students with the needed instructions, materials, and strategies to pave the long way towards the writing proficiency.

The English department at the University of Larbi Ben Mhidi, Oum el Bouaghi has the charge of teaching English as a foreign language. Among the subjects students are submitted to, there is "Written Expression". The latter belongs to the fundamental teaching unit. The amount of time allocated for such a subject used to be three (3) hours

per week. However, specialists, teachers, and educators have come to realise that the amount of time allotted is not enough to foster the learners' writing abilities. Students still face many dilemmas whenever engaged in the process of writing. Therefore, administrators have, recently, decided to add one session so that the learners will be exposed to four hours and half (4:30h) per week as an attempt to help them overcome the difficulties associated with writing, and therefore, acquire the ability to express themselves clearly, concisely, and persuasively.

Written expression is a four (4) credit module and its coefficient is three (3), which makes it among the most valuable subjects with the highest amount of time allocation, credit, and coefficient in comparison to the other subjects in the syllabus. It is noteworthy that the number of credits is calculated on the basis of the total amount of time allotted to the subject inside and outside the classroom. It is also to be noted that the coefficient of each subject/unit is attributed to the number of credits.

In their first year, students are exposed to detailed instructions about the writing rules and conventions. It is necessary for learners to be familiar with the basic principles of the English conventions before they are engaged in any writing task. Teachers must teach their students how to write correct sentences and how to determine the various types of English sentences such as the simple, the complex, the compound, the compound-complex sentence. Mechanics as capitalisation and punctuation are also taught during the first semester of this year. Students must be provided with an opportunity to approach lots of practice in order to gain mastery over the learned conventions. In the second semester, students move to the next stage which is learning how to write adequate paragraphs. They are initially introduced to what a paragraph is relying on various representative examples so that learners can make the difference between a paragraph and an essay. Once they reach such a stage, teachers move on to elaborate what is the topic sentence and the supporting ideas. At this level, students may be required to write their own paragraphs and cooperatively correct the mistakes they commit.

After acquiring the ability to write meaningful and grammatically correct paragraphs, learners are now exposed to instructions which contain how to develop these paragraphs into essays, during their second year, the teacher's job is to illustrate the form of paragraphs and how can the latter be combined to form coherent and cohesive texts. Teachers may ask learners to write about specific topics, or allow them to freely choose the topics they are more inclined to write about.

The third year syllabus is, to a large extent, similar to that of the second year, with slight discrepancies. For the sake of elaborateness, students are exposed to much more intricate topics and activities than the ones they previously encountered. The instructor is gradually loosing authority and leaving the stage for learners to autonomously approach their own learning. Tasks need to be cooperatively accomplished. Students, at this level, acquire the ability to be involved in creative and free writing after conceiving the necessary conventions and rules of writing.

1.6 Types of Writing

1.6.1 Creative Writing

The notion "Creativity" is unanimously interpreted as thinking outside the box; thinking distinctively, critically, shifting from thinking in a bound and boring way to thinking in unusual, active, unlimited, unexpected, and imaginative way. Creative writing, thus, represents the insightful use of humans' imagination, and putting it down on paper. Chambers' dictionary describes 'creative' as "Having the power to create, that creates, showing, pertaining to, imagination, originality" and writing as "The act of one who writes, that which is written, literary production or composition". Accordingly, the term creative writing may be defined as: Having the power to create an unimaginative, original literary production or composition, cited in Ramet, (2007: 17). Similarly, Ray Bradbury argues:

> If you want to write, if you want to create, you must be the most sublime
>
> fool that God ever turned out and sent rumbling. You must write every
>
> single day of your life. You must read dreadful books and glorious books,
>
> and let them wrestle in beautiful fights inside your head, vulgar one
>
> moment, brilliant the next. (Cited in goodreads.com)

Creative writing is a long journey of self discovery in which the latter fosters efficient language apprenticeship (Gaffield-Vile 1998). Students who write creatively usually show a strong sense of ownership over their work as well as their gradual development. This is largely attributed to the level of control learners have over their study and assessment whenever involved in creative writing. While these factors often create a motivational, cheerful, and positive learning environment, learners can mistakenly take creative writing to be a soft option. They may assume that little or no reading is needed when involved in creative writing. It is of an utmost importance that teachers must draw their students' attention to the fact that creative writing requires them to read at least an amount equivalent to that needed on literary studies. Creative writing is not a gift bestowed only upon the elite or already gifted writers, rather a skill that can be developed within the students who do not have a great imagination, or facility with words. Creative writing is contributive in improving the students' writing skills and experiment with rhetoric.

Creative writing was thought of as a mere compliment and a type of writing in the past, the lack of focus on such a trend might be attributed to the swift and relatively recent expansion of creative writing within and alongside undergraduate programmes in English language and literature. The rapid expansion and increased documentation of creative writing has not only led to increased feasibility for the discipline, but also to the clarification of its interrelationship with English literature and other disciplines. In the past few years, creative writing evolved and became a distinct academic field, with its own theories, workshops, strategies, and text books aiming at enhancing and feeding the learners creativity and writing abilities. Joseph Moxley (1989), Windy Bishop and Hans

Storm (1994), D. G. Meyers (1996) documented the necessity and emergence of creative writing as an academic enquiry in the US, Earnshaw (2014). Nowadays, creative writing is a discipline which encompasses multiple kinds of writing including writing for academic as well as professional purposes.

There has been a considerable shift in the relationship between creative writing and English studies, as some English departments have come increasingly to rely on creative writing modules and programmes for recruitment purposes. Many of the new programmes, being developed by English departments, reflect a commitment to developing writing as well as reading. In some institutions, creative writing is taught alongside with English. Creative writing programmes in English departments often retain a substantial presence for reading and textual work. Creative writing is best understood as a practice-based discipline. According to Wikipedia Encyclopaedia (2007), "creative writing is a more contemporary and process-oriented name for what has been traditionally called literature, including the variety of its genres."

Teaching creative writing is far from being an easy task. Teachers have long been puzzled about what needs to be done in order to help their learners become creative writers. This difficulty stems from the fact that creative writing deals with a combination of cognitive skills (thinking) and affective traits (feeling). Harlen (1992: 37) explains creativity in practice as "a response involving feeling and thinking, creative attitudes combined with cognitive skills. Creative attitudes or affective traits, will encourage the learner to be curious, take risks, use complex ideas and exercise the imagination. Cognitive skills will allow him to generate process and play with ideas."

1.6.2 Academic Writing

Academic Writing is an important paradigm in the field of English for Academic purposes. Non- native students of English often regard the writing tasks as very challenging. Additionally to learning academic English, they must master new

conventions of style, referencing and layout. Students are usually supposed to accomplish an array of writing tasks during their studies, ranging from short essays to lengthy dissertations. Academic writing may be done either under exam pressure or as coursework. It "recognises the variety of the learning' needs; It is a flexible course that allows students of all subjects and levels, from foundation to PhD, to practise those aspects of writing which are most important for their studies" S. Bailey, 2003: 4).

Generally, academic writing is a style of writing that makes one's work understandable and readable. A working definition by Godev sheds light on the concept of academic writing, "the term academic writing seems to escape any definition that may try to encompass any writing task likely to be encountered in any of the academic disciplines." Godev, (2000: 636). The reason behind this is that the style of a given academic task is defined by conventions that are discipline-specific. It is noteworthy that researchers indentified four perspectives that might be of a great help when trying to decipher the enigmatic notion of academic writing. These elements are the audience, the task, the communicative function, and ultimately, the style, Silva (1991).

Academic writing should be presented objectively in which the information is transmitted in a clear, unambiguous, well-structured and organised manner. Although the current philosophies and approaches to teaching writing emphasise the latter's recursive nature, academic writing is believed to be linear in that it deals with one central idea or theme. This is attributed, to a large extent, to the English composition mechanisms and axioms that dictate the necessity of developing one single idea per sentence.

The style of academic writing is characterised by its severe adherence to the conventions that govern it. By way of example, the use of the first person is not permissible, in such a type, since the major interest is the topic not the writer. Statements containing subjective-based judgments are to be avoided so that the reader would not sense aggression from the writer through the use of strong, ego-centric terms. Clarity,

objectivity, conscience, unity, completeness, variety, consistency, and formality are taken to be the pillars of the chosen register.

The teaching of academic writing is one of the most challenging tasks written expression teachers may come through in their careers. Undoubtedly, this underlined complexity sparked a considerable controversy in the research literature seeking solutions to such a predicament. The available body of research, e.g., Caroll (2002), Thaiss, Cris and Terry (2006), suggests a multiplicity of requirements both teachers and learners must fulfil when dealing the discipline of academic writing. The former needs to approach an insightful scrutiny in the psychology of education, linguistics, applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, socio-linguistics and other language-related fields to facilitate the course of academic writing. The latter must indicate a mastery of both fluency and accuracy in which grammar, vocabulary, spelling, semantic prosody, syntactic maturity, cohesion, coherence, and discourse competence are necessary to produce academic high quality compositions.

In a nutshell, academic writing is believed to be of a great significance in the field of English as a second language. Accordingly, it receives much attention and support from the academic fraternity. By leveraging various practical approaches, the academic institutions acquire the potential to harness the students' academic progress. Inherent in every writing theory is the ability to foster any students' writing finesse by implementing practical initiatives. Accordingly, it is substantially recommended to use and evaluate practical writing methods in order to help students reach the required academic writing performance. This is certainly meant to create a room for the students' engagement, participation, retention and overall course satisfaction.

1.6.3 Scientific Writing

As the name indicates, 'scientific writing' refers to writing about science. According to Mathews and Mathews (2008: 1), 'scientific writing' has a narrow and a

broad meaning; the first one refers to "the reporting of original research in journals," and the second to "other ways that scientists share research information with one another, such as review, posters, and slide-based presentations." In the same vein, Alley (1996: 151) contends that scientific writing is a "craft" rather than being a science, consisting of "skills that are developed through study and practice," according to Alley (ibid), scientific writing is straightforward and has two main purposes; informing and convincing readers.

While In novels or dramas it is common for writers to use metaphorical, ambiguous, or flowery language to trigger the readers' attention, in scientific writing such language is avoided. The language of science must adhere to formality, straightforwardness, conciseness and briefness. A scientist who relies on complex, and metaphorical sentences may cause confusion to the readers. Accordingly, his message would not be conveyed properly. As Day (1979: 5) argues: "In scientific writing, language need not be difficult; and the best English is that which gives the senses in the fewest short words. Literary tricks, metaphors and the like, divert attention from the message to the style. They should be used rarely, if at all, in scientific writing".

Scientific writing should be exclusively restricted to logic, facts, general truth, and any epistemological field of knowledge. Trimble (1985: 5) highlights this point when arguing, "A scientific text is concerned only with the presentation of facts, hypotheses, and similar types of information. It is not concerned with the forms of written English that editorialize, express emotions or emotionally based argument or are fictional or poetic in nature." In the same vein, Karen Worth, (2009: 13) holds the view that:

> The fundamental purpose of scientific discourse is not the mere presentation of information and thought, but rather its actual communication. It does not matter how pleased an author might be to have converted all the right data into sentences and paragraphs; it matters only whether a large majority of the reading audience accurately perceives what the author had in mind.

In the pedagogical context, science writing is a type of classroom writing that functions under the auspices of the inquiry-based approach which fosters the students' understanding of science. It takes the form of notebook entries, classroom posters, charts, and diagrams. Teachers must provide the appropriate environment in which the students can "record observations, thoughts, conclusions, questions, even whimsy that comes to mind, for discussion with others and later use. The record created in this way will serve the student well in organizing his or her thoughts. The notebook need not be beautiful, but a rule is that from it, after some length of time, the writer can reconstruct what was done, how it was done and what was found out" J. Pine, (2009: 17).

Science writing purports at helping the students analyse and clarify their thinking, synthesise their ideas, and properly convey them to others. Such a type of writing backs-up the scaffolding of new scientific understanding because it equips the students with the means by which they would be able to articulate their thinking. It is also thought of as an accompaniment of the mental processes which take place when students are involved in the science practices that occur during an investigation, such as asking questions, planning and carrying out a research, data analysis and interpretation, and scaffolding logical explanations. Scientific writing can be a warehouse from which ideas can emerge and generate, Mackay and Mountford, (1978: 13).

To go further, science writing fosters language development. This mode of language' use creates a room for improvement in the way students express and communicate their thinking. Science writing engages students in a metacognitive activity; they should pay careful attention to the lexis they will use to communicate their thinking, construct meaning, and clarify their intentions as they are engaged in scientific researches and investigations. This process of reflection and clarification is contributive in developing the learners' language proficiency as they refine their scientific thinking. Science writing, further, supports language skills by creating artefacts that can be revisited at a later time to purify and clear the manner of expressing one's ideas. By revisiting a

piece of writing, the latter per se becomes a platform for further reading, speaking, and writing.

Grammatically speaking, scientific writing entails knowledge of some grammatical rules so that the writer acquires the ability to use appropriate language. There are many language requirements involved in such a type of writing that both teachers and learners must acquire to respectively instruct and learn scientific writing. Effective science writing is much more likely to be mastered when:

- Students have had interesting experiences and investigations to write about.

- Teachers use prompts that clearly relate a writing task to a particular science phenomenon or experience.

- Teachers model the kinds of thinking and writing they want to encourage their students to produce (for example, demonstrating a shared notebook entry in front of the class).

- Students are encouraged to use everyday language to express their ideas, and concentrate on communicating ideas clearly, even if spelling and grammar aren't perfect.

- Students have a chance to talk before they write (if students can say something, they will have an easier time writing it).

- Students are strategically paired or grouped to help each other write, and prepare to write, by talking.

- Language-rich environmental print (posters, word banks, charts, pictures) is an abundant resource in the classroom.

- Early writers are encouraged to express their thinking through pictures as well as words—drawing can be an effective practice to combine with writing.

- Students are given constructive feedback on their writing that pushes them to expand and clarify their thinking, Matthews JR and Matthews (2008).

Providing the abovementioned criteria does not shroud the complex nature of scientific writing. Teachers should bear in mind that raising their students' confidence and fluidity is a long and time consuming undertaking. "Writing becomes an integral tool for

science instruction when students become familiarised with using it in connection with their investigations, internalized a number of science-writing entry types, and gained experience referring back to their own writing to develop their thinking", Shanahan, (2004: 72). As writing becomes a more regular practice of classroom culture, learners will decrease their hesitation to write, especially when they realise that fluency is by far more needed than accuracy in order to express and develop their thinking. Teachers can emphasise fluency over accuracy by responding to the science ideas in students' writing instead of correcting spelling and grammatical errors.

1.6.4 Cognitive Writing

Cognitive models have tended to describe writing in terms of problem-solving (cf. McCutchen, Teske, & Bankston, 2008). Broadly, writing problems stem from the writer's attempt to map language onto his or her own thoughts and emotions as well as the reader's expectations. A proficient writer may face a hierarchy of problems, including the generation and organisation of task-relevant ideas; the use grammatically correct sentences; correct punctuation and spelling; and the smooth presentation of the needed information, ideas, tone, and wording to the desired audience.

Cognitive models of writing stress the motion that high quality compositions involve sophisticated problem solving. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) suggested that skilled writers often "problematise" a writing task, adopting a strategy they referred to as knowledge transforming (pp. 5-6). Cognitive research has also made a distinction between expert and novice writers. The former typically determine and set goals, particularly content and rhetorical goals, which demand problem-solving skills. Contrariwise, the latter often opt for a simpler, natural approach to composing, adopting a knowledge-telling philosophy in which content is generated through association, with one idea prompting the next (Ibid: 5-30). Whereas the deficiencies of novices may limit them to a knowledge-telling approach, proficient writers can easily move between knowledge telling and

knowledge transforming. This realised discrepancy contributed in determining the kind of instructions teachers should provide their students with in order to foster their writing abilities.

Various cognitive perspectives have been suggested to decipher the complex nature attributed to the writing process. Flower and Hayes (1981), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), and Kellogg (1996) are the most valid, largely accepted, and reliable cognitive models of writing. The notions suggested indicate some dichotomies in the use of the terminology. However, the generally agreed-upon assumption is that writing is a cognitively intricate process made up of several stages. All the three models emphasise the impact of external and internal factors on the writing process, the writers, and the composition quality.

Hayes and Flower identified four major writing processes:

- Planning considers the writing assignment and long-term memory as income, which later produces a conceptual plan for the document as output. Planning encompasses a set of sub-activities of generating (coming up with ideas), organising (arranging those ideas logically), and goal setting (setting the desired influences and effects and refining one's generating and organising activities to meet local or global objectives).

- Translating takes the conceptual plan for the document and produces text expressing the planned content.

- In the reviewing stage, the text produced so far is checked and read, with refinements to foster it (revise) or correct mistakes.

- Monitoring includes metacognitive processes create common ground and coordinate planning, translating, and reviewing, (ibid).

Hayes and Flower (1980) ascertained that these high mental processes are omnipresent and very frequently interrelated whenever involved in the writing process.

Chiefly, Hayes and Flowers elucidated that writing includes complex problem solving, in which information is processed by a system of function-specific components.

The second cognitive model, established by Bereiter and Scardamalia in 1987, conceives writing to be a twofold process in terms of content-problem as well as rhetorical-problem space. At the latter's level, the writer deals with the problem of generating ideas. Thereafter, these ideas themselves become another complexity since they must be refined till they fulfil the rhetorical expectations. This emerges in the rhetorical problem. The modified ideas may cause a new array of difficulties to the content-problem space; accordingly, they may require further modification in light of other predicaments. Bereiter & Scardamalia, (1987:243) state that: "this interaction between the problem spaces takes up a considerable amount of cognitive capacity. Furthermore, the ability to address both content related and rhetorical problems is what separates proficient writers from poor writers."

Almost a decade later, Kellogg described the writing processes to be an interaction of three processing systems. "each processing system is made up of two sub-systems: there is formulation; which is made up of planning and translating, execution; which is made up of programming and execution, and monitoring; which consists of reading and editing"(p.182). Kellogg provides insights and detailed information about what happens in every single system and the way the systems pertain and interact with each other. In such a model, language and ideas are believed to be determined at the formulation phase. After that, the ideas and language represent the income of the execution system where the composer makes the decision of how to approach their execution. "Once they are executed, the monitoring system looks for a discrepancy and a solution in conjunction with the formulation system. The formulation system starts again for new ideas or language to resolve the discrepancy detected in the previous system". Kellogg 1996 goes on with emphasizing that such interaction between these systems is "fundamental to the proposed model" (p.189).

In a nutshell, the cognitive model of writing represents a discrepant philosophy of understanding the nature of writing, its use, and design. The proponents of such a model stress the motion that cognition is a pillar in the process of teaching/learning writing. Cognitive as well as metacognitive factors are of great importance in achieving high quality compositions. Planning, translating, reviewing, and monitoring are the basic mental processes every writer goes through when involved in accomplishing the writing tasks. Memory, knowledge-telling, knowledge-transferring, content organisation, ideas generation, and rhetoric efficiency are the fundamental elements needed to reach both the syntactic maturity and the semantic prosody.

1.7 Writing and Other Skills

1.7.1 Writing versus Speaking

The connection between writing and speaking has sparked a considerable controversy in the research literature. Yet, there is no general consensus among linguists, language professionals, and educational teachers about the kind of relationship that exists among these two skills. Linguists argued that "speech is primary and written language is merely a reflection of spoken language". Contrariwise, educational teachers hold a different standpoint "the written form of language is more 'correct' and therefore should be more highly valued than oral language."Weigle, (2002: 15).

Writing and speaking are pedagogically dissimilar in their acquisition. Based on psychological findings, learning how to speak is acquired as a result of being naturally exposed to it. However, learning how to write should be explicitly taught with a lot of constant, conscious practice. Moreover, unlike speaking, writing is a valuable part in any language course. It is a crucial means by which teachers receive, assess, and evaluate the learners' outcomes in all the subjects. Consequently, proficient writing is considered as

the bedrock of the academic as well as professional success as Grabowski (1996: 4) noted down:

> Writing as compared to speaking can be seen as a more standardised system which must be acquired through special instruction. Mastery of this standard system is an important prerequisite of cultural and educational participation and the maintenance of one's rights and duties.....The fact that writing is more standardized than speaking allows for a higher degree of sanctions when people deviate from standard.

The assumption that writing is a much more complex undertaking than learning to speak, however, is a not unanimously agreed-upon among linguists. Some language professionals and linguists, as Lord Bullok (1975), believe that "oral language is just as linguistically complex as written language, but the complexity is of a different kind. The inevitable difference in the structures and use of speech and writing come about because they are produced in very different communicative situations" (p.20).

To go further, Vygotsky (1962; cited in Ouskourt, 2007: 33) notes that "written speech is a separate linguistic function, differing from oral speech in both structure and mode of functioning." Concerning the spoken form, the speaker can ensure comprehensibility by using body language and reshuffle the utterances to ascertain fitness with the communicative situation. Unlike the writer who should chose words carefully because it is the only way to transmit a message clearly, or to convince his readers owing to the fact that they will lose the ability to clarify more after writing a given text. Coming to the discrepancies in language functions, spoken language is designed to establish relationships. It has an interactional function. However, the written language has a transactional function. It is used to transfer information, record things, complete tasks, and develop ideas and arguments.

Besides the dichotomies discussed above, speaking and writing also differ in their communicative purposes. The written form differs from the spoken language in terms of context i.e., the circumstances in which the text is presented .The written text, for instance,

communicates people who do not share the same settings. In this respect, Weigle, (2002: 17) points out that:

> To talk of written and spoken language differences is to consider the range of communicative purposes to which either writing or speaking is put. In this sense, broader characteristics – such as what gets said and what remains implicit, what is foregrounded and what is backgrounded, and what is stated by whom and under what circumstances – implicate the norms and expectations of the range of contexts in which both writing and speaking are produced.

In the course of history, the written mode of language was prioritised over speech which was regarded as "the shadow of writing, in that is presented only the unworthy form which it could not be studied". "Writing was the medium of literature, and thus, it fed all types of linguistic analysis. It was the source of linguistic excellence", (Crystal, 1994: 187). David crystal further argues that: "Speakers were of no interest for the researchers as they did not reflect the standard of language as the one that lays on the grammar manuals. The written language, in short, was the bed on which the traditional perspective grammar rests."

In the beginning of the 20th century, such a view received sharp criticisms. The new emerging dogma claims that speech appeared millennia before writing. The former, as a result, must precede the latter in all types of study. According to such a doctrine, speaking is thought of as the spontaneous and natural form of language, while writing is the synthetic and artificial one. In this respect, many grammarians and structural linguists, such as Leonard Bloomfield (1933), assert: "writing is not language, but merely a way of recording language by means of visible marks".

To conclude, one may argue that although speaking and writing both represent the language productive skills, linguists and educational teachers have taken discrepant positions about the existing relationship that links them. The noticed dichotomies between these two skills not only changed the way of perceiving the nature of writing and

speaking, but also how can they be learned and taught. The observed chasms, between speech and written forms of language, further, contributed in dispelling some of the puzzles that have long caused infinite dilemmas when dealing with these skills at all levels.

1.7.2 Writing versus Reading

Unlike writing, reading belongs to the language receptive skills. Decades ago, reading and writing were taught separately. Educators rarely made explicit connection between these two skills for their students. Recently however, researchers have indicated that reading and writing are more interdependent. The student's literacy development is thoroughly based on this interconnection between these skills. Generally speaking, writing and reading exert an influence on each other, reading instruction is more likely to be efficient when combined with writing instruction and vice versa. Scholars argued that when learners approach extensive reading, they are likely to become better writers. In this respect, Spack (1983. 9), argues that: "better writers tend to be better readers (of their own writing as well as of other reading materials), that better writers tend to read more than poorer writers, and that better readers tend to produce more syntactically mature writing than poorer readers".

Moreover, reading a variety of journals is believed to be contributive in making students learn text structures and the language they can use in their own writing. Additionally, one of the most important impetuses behind reading is to seek knowledge and, therefore, to learn. For college learners, especially, a great part of their existing knowledge stem from the texts they read. Since writing is the process of transmitting knowledge, generating ideas and having enough, reliable, and valid information to share are essential conditions to be fulfilled before engaged in the writing process. Reading, in such a context, plays the role of a warehouse that equips individuals with the necessary feedback, knowledge, and ideas necessary to produce high quality compositions.

To go further, the practice of writing helps in developing reading skills. For advanced learners, the constant practice in writing facilitates the analysis of the pieces that they read. They can apply their acquired knowledge to determine the adequate way of using a particular language style, text structure, lexis, or content to better comprehend the professional construction of texts. In this context, Celce-Muria (2001:224) argues:

> At the very least, readings provide modals of what English language texts look like, and even if not used for the purpose of imitation, they provide input that helps students develop awareness of English language prose style.

Hence, reading and writing are complementary skills. Intensive reading fosters the writing proficiency and vice versa. Reading is conceived to be a precondition for writing, and it is said to play a magnificent role in the improvement of the students writing abilities which cannot be promoted unless they are very frequently exposed to extensive reading. Put differently, reading and writing go together; students will not reach the first without gaining mastery of the second.

The integration of reading and writing in a syllabus has proved to be greatly beneficial, especially in the field of teaching English as a foreign language. This idea dates back to the 1960s and the majority of teachers, today, opt for it. The style of writing has to be dictated by the readers taste and expectation. Accordingly, the act of writing closely pertains and thoroughly depends on reading. R. V. White, (1978: 132), notes down: "the process of writing depends upon reading before, during, and after the act of creating, and the writer who takes no account of the fact that he is writing something for someone to read runs the risk of producing a text that is on readable."

The interest in reading-writing connection first emerged in L1 language contexts. In the 1980s, various scholars regarded reading and writing as identical mental and cognitive processes. By way of example, Tierney and Pearson (1983: 213) hold the view

that: "at the heart of understanding the reading-writing connection one must begin to view reading and writing as essentially similar processes of meaning construction"

In their Natural approach, Krashen and Terrell (1983) proposed the motion that "learning" a language is dissimilar to "acquiring" it. The latter includes the unconscious processing of language, whereas the former involves the conscious monitoring of knowledge about language. In the initial stages of language acquisition, children rarely imitate what they hear; they have a tendency to produce their own expressions. This hypothesis suggests that children internalise the aspects of language that make them able to produce an infinite set of utterances, instead of merely repeating and imitating the expressions or phrases they were exposed to. Such a process is beyond consciousness and is technically referred to as the Comprehensible Input (CI)

Krashen (1884: 67) goes on with arguing that "reading, which builds the knowledge base of written texts, helps L2 learners acquire necessary language constructs such as grammatical structures and discourse rules for writing and facilitates the process of language acquisition." While Krashen emphasises the influences that reading can exert on writing, other L2 scholars argue that both of reading and writing are processes involved in compositions. In the light of the 'Reader-response theory', the meaning being transmitted by the texts is captured by the reader, not the writer. As far as reading/writing relation is concerned, 'Reader-response theory' is a crucial means for studying students' composing processes as readers and the processes that may impact and interfere with their composing processes as writers, (Hirvela, 2004: 53).

It is noteworthy that both reading and writing engage learners in meaningful interaction with texts; therefore, scholars emphasised that L2 instructors must incorporate strategies that would ascertain an insightful integration of the concept of interaction into their instructions. Writing to read and reading to write are two techniques to be given high attention and prior consideration in the educational enterprise. In order to do so, teachers must expose their students to an array of authentic English texts and help students to raise

their interests and motivation to write and read in English. Instructors are, also, required to encourage learners to think about their own reading and writing priorities as well as determine their areas of strengths and weaknesses.

Conclusion

Writing is a very essential skill used for uncountable purposes among which we count communication, documentation, socialising, recording information, and sharing knowledge. It involves a variety of different aspects that make it a complex process. Producing successful writers of English is a long and complex undertaking. Total commitment and total physical and emotional involvement is needed for teachers to help their learners adequately convey a message in English. In the course of doing so, students must have an appropriate understanding of the various characteristics of SL/FL writing. It also necessitates reflective development and implementation of a range of writing activities as well as approaches to and criteria of teaching and assessing the writing skill.

The chapter we conclude is an attempt to scrutinise the skill of writing. Purposefully, the first part is restricted to some brief presentations of the writing skill in terms of its definition, its brief history, its basic rules, how it has been taught in the course of time, and its place in the syllabus with comparison to the other language skills. Furthermore, this chapter covers the importance of writing as an indispensible skill every student has to master in order to reach the academic and professional success.

CHAPTER TWO

APPROACHES TO TEACHING WRITING

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Introduction

The teaching of writing has long been a predicament with which teachers are faced during their daily instructional practice. In the course of history, writing has been taught using various approaches. The latter stands for philosophies that govern the selection and implementation of methods and activities in the writing classroom. These paradigms differ in their theoretical foundations as well as their practical frameworks. Put differently, each approach has its own understanding of writing, its use, nature, and design. It is on the basis of this understanding that the approach's advocators emphasize the teaching modus operandi.

To address the issue of teaching writing, one has to refer back to the late 19th Century where writing was taught using the traditional grammar-focus paradigm epitomized in the product approach. Henceforward, with the advance of applied linguistics, various approaches have been advocated in the field as an attempt to simplify and clarify the teaching of L2 writing. This scientific journey lasted centuries to move from a traditional understanding of writing to a modern one which deemphasize accuracy in favour of fluency, the product in favour of the process, the form in favour of the content, the context, the audience, and the objective of composition. As such, various approaches emerged, each of which speculates to be an effective instructional practice. The approach in question and that will be profoundly scrutinized are the product and the process approach due to their high pertinence to the realm of the research at hand, with less reference to the other approaches in terms of: the free writing approach, the communicative approach, the genre approach, and the process genre approach.

2.1 The Free Writing Approach

The free writing approach is mainly based on the assumption that free writing develops one's competence in producing high quality compositions. Free writing means that the students compose without the teacher's interference. In so doing, they are motivated to focus on content and fluency first. After expressing their ideas on papers, the instructor intervenes to give feedback that develops grammatical accuracy.

For Peyton and Staton (1996), '' Learners write for a period of time in class on a topic of interest to them. This writing can take many forms, including quick writes, which are time-limited, done individually, and not always shared ; and dialogue journals, written to a teacher, a classmate or other partner who then responds.'' On the other hand such writings ''may be kept in a notebook. From these pieces, themes may emerge that can act- as facilitator for more extensive writing that is discussed, revised, edited, and published. (p. 16-32)

Free writing is twofold ; focused and unfocused. In focused free-writing, students compose about a topic they propose themselves. The instructor's interference is very restricted owing to the fact that he gives his feedback at the very beginning of the exercise and provides learners with an opportunity to write freely. As such, the teacher gives priority to the freedom of writing with no reference to grammar and spelling as they are not of a major concern during that phase. Thus, when reading the student's written products, the teacher makes comments on the expressed ideas and does not correct the noted mistakes. In some cases, students are asked to read their compositions aloud in order to acquire the ability of accounting for the audience form whom writing is intended. Hence, the audience and content are regarded as the most significant features of the free-writing approach. The freedom of choosing the writing topic, boosts up the student's motivation and makes them believe in what they write.

The unfocused type of free-writing regards the latter as a personal activity consisting in writing on paper any idea that comes to one's mind. Sometimes, this type of writing takes the form of short coherent passages, but, in many cases, students produce incoherent non-unified blocks. Nevertheless, the proponents of such an approach believe that in spite of the risk of producing non-coherent and non-unified passages, such a method has the merit of bringing more spontaneity to the composing process, (Raimes, 1983).

Hence, the advocates of this method emphasise quantity rather than quality. Further, the freedom of choosing the composition topics might serve as an important factor that triggers motivation. Cognition and knowledge about the subject being developed are substantially contributive in producing high quality compositions. The resulting issue, thus, is that free-writing cannot be implemented successfully with beginners owing to the fact that it entails a mastery of certain conventions of writing.

Sometimes, the free-writing activity takes place during a reading session or soon thereafter. The notion of reflective writing implies that composition takes place after reading a short story and reflects on what has just been red. In this respect, Anderson (1992) believes that free-writing helps learners put their thoughts on paper even if they are not 'sounding write' or 'academic'. He goes further by arguing: "free-writing suggests the need to forget the rules and just go." When using such a method, as a result, teachers should disregard grammar, punctuation, spelling, and style. They ,rather, "should think about the thinking". Anderson (1992) states that "while free-writing, you (the writer) should not reread what you have already written. Rather, if stuck on what to write next, just continue to write anything that comes to mind or rewrite the last word until another idea comes to mind. You should incorporate your thoughts and not summarize or retell the story. To facilitate this type of writing, you might implement "reading with and against the grain" while reading. You can then reflect on this experience in your free write." (p. 198)

Free-writing equips the students with an opportunity to account for the written text without the pressure of having an audience. In the revision phase, learners make decisions about what ideas are to be used, what sentences entail being rewritten and which should be removed from the text. It is to be noted that free-writing' products are not "interesting" or appreciation worthy. However, as Anderson (1992) remarked, "Free-writing makes a mess, but in that mess is the material you need to make a good paper or memo or report."(200)

Song and Minjong (1998) conducted an experimental study to compare between controlled and free compositions. Students of two sections of freshmen reading course composed as a practice dialogue journal in free writing, they were instructed to emphasize meaning with no teacher's feedback. Students into other sections were invited to answer comprehension questions as a practice in controlled writing; they were supposed to account for linguistic features and provided by their teacher's guidance and feedback. The results demonstrated that students who wrote dialogue journals and got communicative feedback developed their composition quality, and that this development was superior than that for students practising controlled writing and receiving evaluating feedback.

2.2 The Communicative Approach

In the late of 1960's, a new method emerged in the scene of language teaching and become widely used. Scholars highly recommended the implementation of this method owing to the fact that it fulfills the learners' needs and fits the teacher's expectations. The communicative approach regards language primarily as a medium of communication that serves social purposes. The purpose and audience, thus, are regarded as major features in this approach. Students engage in real- life situations where they are supposed to negotiate meaning and use writing to satisfy not only academic needs, but also social purposes

To go further, the communicative approach places a great emphasis on the context of writing. Writing is always closely related to the context. The latter helps learners set specific constraints on what should be written and how the ideas can be expressed better. Raimes (1983) argues that the context has a central role in communicative writing exercises since the latter provide students with an opportunity to raise their awareness of the formality features and use the content appropriately according to whom they are writing for and what type of writing they are dealing with (3). As such, learners, in this approach, are involved in tasks which help them behave as writers. Students have to ask themselves these questions:

1. Why am I writing this?

2. Who will read it?

In 1978, Widdowson mentioned the existence of two aspects within language in terms of rules and the performative ability. The former stands for the grammatical conventions which govern language use, while the latter refers the system which helps people undertake meaningful communication. Grammar and correctness, thus, are believed to be the usage of language and composing as the act of usage. In this respect, writing is seen as a communicative activity of the written mode as speaking is in the spoken mode (35). Widdowson (1978) goes on with arguing that unless writers account for communicating with a target audience, their written materials would not be considered as communicative products. This extreme importance of the audience in composition stems from the fact that it helps the writer indentify the social setting, the specific purpose of writing, the format, and the communication style. In other words, communicative writing can be defined as the act of interaction with a target audience (36).

Despite the emergence of the communicative approach, writing is still neglected within the educational enterprises. This exclusion of writing is highly attributed to the very common belief that the communicative approach focuses narrowly on speaking and listening. In this respect, Takahashi (1995) believes that many people, at that era, shared

the belief that the notion of communication is limited to the oral form of interaction. Writing, thus, was regarded of a minor importance in comparison to speaking and listening. EFL teachers were merely concerned with developing the students' oral skills with a minimal reference to the skills of composition.

According to Pincas (1982), teachers should identify three aims in teaching English writing for communicative purposes:

a) The scope of writing should be widened to go beyond the artificial, unrealistic school-type composition of traditional teaching to more genuine, practical and relevant kinds of writing.

b) Writing should be as communicative, or functional as possible. It should be seen to fulfill the sort of communication purposes, or functions that writing is used in everyday life.

c) Writing should go beyond merely reinforcing grammar and vocabulary lessons and deal quite specifically with those skills that are required for effective writing. The teaching of writing should be recognized as a special part of language teaching with its own aims and techniques.

According to Dudley - Evans & St Johns (2000), the communicative approach favours the teaching of writing in which writers are shown how to take on board the expectations and norms of the community to which they belong (or which they aspire to join) and how these expectations shape the established practices of writing within a given community. In so doing, students must be aware of the values and attitudes of the target audience and the latter's expectations for written texts , as well as the ability to build a cooperative relationship between the writer's creative needs and norms of those for whom the composition is intended (Dudley - Evans & St Johns, 2000)

2.3 The Product Approach

The product-oriented paradigm is an approach to the teaching of writing which considers texts as "a contextually autonomous objects", (Hyland, 2002: 6) emphasizing the surface structures at sentence level. The view of "Texts as autonomous objects" stands for the mechanistic view that human communication takes place through ideas transfer from one mind to another by the use of language. Meaning is believed to be encoded within sentences and texts and can only be interpreted by those who have the right decoding skills, Hyland (2002). Therefore, this approach stresses the formal features of sentences and texts in which the goal of instruction is to develop the students' accuracy.

The product-based approach focuses on the learners' final product, with error-free performance at sentence level, and an emphasize on language form, i.e., grammar, syntax, mechanics. Scholars (e.g. Briere, 1966) argue that the main emphasize of such an approach is on the quality rather than the quantity and fluency of writing. This view is rooted in structuralism and the bottom-up theory of processing. These trends are based on the dogma that "the primarily medium of language is oral: speech is language… speech has a priority in language teaching", Richards & Rogers, (1986: 49). Writing, thus, is seen as inferior to and a mere reinforcement of the oral habits. In psychological terms, the product-oriented approach carries the traits of behaviourism.

The behaviouristic doctrine regards learning as a matter of mechanical habit formation. Imitation and modeling are, thus, central elements in such an approach, (Nunan, 1999)

The product approach regards writing as the ability to respond to a particular stimulus according to some authority's definition of the correct response. In other words, writing is conceptualized as the ability to adhere to style guide prescriptions concerning grammar, arrangement, and punctuation, with no reference to the audience, purpose of

writing and context (Hyland, 2002). As such, the major focus is on the final written product rather than on the processes involved in compositions.

Before the emergence of the communicative approach, language teaching was mainly concerned with pre-specified goals for learners. The latter's needs were carefully determined, and the syllabus designers were faced with the predicament of providing the necessary means would satisfy these needs. During that era, the teaching of writing emphasizes correctness and copying models. In fact, the imitation of models was regarded as a substantial tool to get students develop their performance. R.V. White (1988: 5) regards the model based approach as follows:

Study the model ⟶ manipulate elements ⟶ produce a parallel test

The model text is believed to be the point of departure in teaching writing. It is scrutinized from all perspectives: structure of grammar, content, sentences, organization, and rhetorical patterns. After being familiarized with these elements, learners are provided with a new topic and asked to compose a parallel text. White (1988: 6) goes on with arguing that "such a model based approach remains popular in EAP for one very good reason-much EAP writing is very product oriented, since the conventions governing the organization and expression of ideas are very tight." As a result, learners must adhere to the necessity of mastering these conventions and how to put them into practice. It would seem more appropriate, thus, to implement a model based paradigm when instructing students such conventions.

Badger and White (2000) argue that: "what the model does not demonstrate is how the writer arrived at that particular product. In other words, it gives no indication of process." Modeling, thus, is of an utmost importance since it is believed to achieve a smooth movement from a point of departure to an end with a task to replicate (3).

Soonpaa (2007) explained that the model in the product approach comes at the beginning and the product comes at the end, White, again, insisted on the emphasis of such an approach by saying:

> Not only does the model come first in the teaching sequence, it also shows a finished text. In other words, the focus right from the start is on the product, which is, of course, someone else's writing. What the model does not demonstrate is how the original writer arrived at that particular product. In other words, it gives no indication of process. (3)

In 1984, Pincas suggested another description of the product approach; she considers that writing is primarily concerned with linguistic knowledge with particular reference and an efficient use of appropriate vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices. Pincas identifies four stages in the product approach namely: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing. She viewed that the first thing a teacher should do is proposing a topic which can lead to a classroom discussion, then he explains how students are going to write and invite them to write a composition. During the writing composition, the teacher may guide his students and make some comments focusing on form rather than on the content. Pincas considered such an approach as a teacher-centred one (10).

The product oriented approach has some positive aspects which deserve to be mentioned. Crawford (2008) claimed that the first advantage is seen in the linguistic knowledge it supplies the learners with and the way texts are organized. Besides, it recognizes and satisfies the students' needs in terms of rules and structures (10).

The expediency of implementing the product approach in teaching L2 writing cannot be denied. The benefits of such an approach can be captured in its unprecedented ability of equipping students with the necessary linguistic knowledge. It serves as an available storehouse of methods, theories, materials, and instructional practices that

recognize and satisfy the students' needs in terms of rules and structures. A model text is notoriously known with its ability of giving clear idea about word and sentence organization. Above all, imitation is one available way, inter alia, through which one can learn.

In a typical product approach-oriented classroom, students are provided with a standard sample of text and they are expected to follow the standard to produce a new piece of writing. Product Approach Model is comprised of four main stages (Steele, 2004)

Stage one: Students study model texts and then the features of the genre are highlighted. For example, if studying a formal letter, students' attention may be drawn to the importance of paragraphing and the language used to make formal requests. If a student reads a story, the focus may be on the techniques used to make the story interesting, and students focus on where and how the writer employs these techniques.

Stage two: This stage consists of controlled practice of the highlighted features, usually in isolation. So if students are studying a formal letter, they may be asked to practise the language used to make formal requests, for example, practising the 'I would be grateful if you would...' structure.

Stage three: This is the most important stage where the ideas are organized. Those who favour this approach believe that the organization of ideas is more important than the ideas themselves and as important as the control of language.

Stage four: This is the end product of the learning process. Students choose from the choice of comparable writing tasks. To show what they can be as fluent and competent users of the language, students individually use the skills, structures and vocabulary they have been taught to produce the product.

The product approach has long occupied the scene of language teaching within the Algerian educational enterprise. Teachers who use this approach emphasize the final

written product and not how they were produced. Along with the various advantages of the product approach, the latter has also been considered as having various demerits. One such criticism stems from the fact that writing was evaluated on the basis of the final product with restricted reference to grammatical accuracy, irrespective to the whole processes that should be accounted for whenever involved in the act of writing. In fact, neither teachers nor learners had an interest in the complex process of generating ideas. It is on the basis of this realization that scholars began to question the efficiency and effectiveness of the product approach. The latter has been blamed for eroding the students' fluency in pursuit of accuracy; it was, further, blamed for over-emphasizing the form, while thoroughly neglecting the content. By content is meant process skills and knowledge about texts and the way these texts are organized.

To go further, Escholz (1980) criticized the model-based approach pointing out that "models tend to be too long and too remote from the students' own writing problems". He argued that such detailed analytical work encourages students to see form as a model into which content is somehow poured. In general Escholz views the imitation of models as being "stultifying and inhibiting writers rather than empowering them or liberating them."(p. 232)

White (1988) added that the emphasis is on grammatical correctness and adherence to given models or guidelines; however, imitating models inhibits writers rather than liberates them. There is little or no opportunity for the students to add any thoughts or ideas of their own (Raimes, 1983). The inevitable consequence is that little attention is paid to the ideas and meaning of student writing, what it communicates to the reader, the purpose and the audience (Raimes, 1983, p. 75). Over-emphasis on accuracy and form can lead to serious "writing blocks" (Halsted 1975, p. 82) and "sterile" and "unimaginative" pieces of work (Mahon 1992, p. 75).

2.4 The Process Approach

Despite its history which dates back to more than 5000 years ago, research on writing has only few decades of age. ESL writing studies are rooted in L1 research on writing in the sense that the former's findings exerted a tremendous impact on the emergence, organization, and development of the latter. Before the 1980's, the major interest of ESL writing was limited to grammar and accuracy. By way of example, the audio-lingual method, which was predominating in the 1960's, emphasized the instruction of practice, punctuation, grammatical structures. Under the auspices of such a trend, learners would have to copy sentence structures given by their teachers until they master the autonomous production of texts. During that era, teachers and researchers had little knowledge about and experience in teaching writing (Reid, 1993). Accordingly, they had no choice but to adhere to the conventions dictated by the audio-lingual method.

By the 1970's, a gradual change took place in ESL writing practice. The teaching of writing is still concerned with grammar and accuracy, imposed by the audio-lingual method, but learners would copy the provided sentences, and change them where necessary. This newly emerging trend is known as controlled writing. According to Silva (1990: 14), "controlled composition seems to have originated in Charles Fries's oral approach which was based on the notions that language is speech (structural linguistics) and that learning is a matter of habit formation (behaviourist psychology)". This approach kept being practiced until the early 1980's with a primordial value put on grammar and accuracy, or what is known as language-based writing. Thereafter, researchers started to make a shift away from controlled compositions to a pattern-product approach which focuses on the teaching of the organizational conventions, grammatical structures, final written products, and the linguistic devices that build up written discourse, Reid (1993).

In the 1080's, a paradigm shift occurred within the field of teaching writing from the product based to the process approach. Hyland(2001) claims that the emergence of the process approach is attributed to two main reasons. The first of which is the researchers'

recognition of the newly developing field of ESL composition, and the second reason is the teachers' realization of EFL learners' needs within the educational enterprises. Scholars argue that there exist a kind of parallelism between L1 and L2 writing research. For example, Reid (2001) argues that the expressive approach of teaching L1 writing is the basis upon which the process approach has paved its long way towards occupying the field of ESL writing instruction.

From a discrepant perspective, Kroll (1990) argues that the emergence of the process approach has been motivated by the inefficiency and deficiencies of controlled composition and the product approach, he goes on with arguing that the traditional approaches neither provoke thought and its expression, nor encourages creative thinking and writing, (15). It is for these reasons that the process writing approach began to be widely implemented by various ESL researchers and teachers.

The newly emerging approach regards writing as a recursive process and disregards the notion of writing as a product. The resulting issue, thus, is that the finished texts are no longer the focal point rather the steps that comprise the act of writing. An array of these steps has not yet been identified; the available research literature states the existence of setting goals, generating ideas, organizing information, selecting appropriate language, drafting, revising, writing, editing, and publishing. From an overall glance, such phases appear to be complex activities, but one must always bear in mind that every student should inevitably go through them if he is to produce a high quality composition.

There exist a variety of models which claim their efficiency in reflecting the process approach and how it is implemented in the context of L2 instruction. One such highly influential model is that of Hayes and Flower's (1980) which takes the process of writing to be a threefold process in terms of planning, translating, and reviewing. This model sets the aim of raising the students' awareness and control over the cognitive strategies involved in writing. Its modus operandi takes place at the level of individual's specific needs. In this respect, T. Caudery (2003) explained:

In the early seventies, communicative teaching methodology and work on functional/notional syllabuses directed our attention more firmly towards the specific needs of the individual learner. These needs were viewed not only in terms of particular language items but also of particular types of communication, and the resulting realization that different learners actually had different requirements with respect to language skills meant that new attention was given to, among other things, the teaching of writing. In this context, the process approach arrived on the scene at a very opportune moment.

Some scholars believe that editing is the ultimate stage in composition, instead of an initial one as traditionally believed in the product approach. The process approach may encompass an array of pre-determined phases of the writing process such as pre-writing, writing, and re-writing, editing and publishing may follow if the author decides to publish his writing (Murray, 1992). To go further, Gocsik (2007) ties the stages of writing process to various questions one must address when writing: "after all, when written essays do not fall from the sky, rather they are the result of a long, laborious, intensely personal process in which writers address several question, arranging from what do I write? To who is my audience? To how do I structure my essay? To what sort of language and voice should I use?"

To further elaborate and capture the notion of the process approach, Murray (1992) argues:

> The process-oriented approach refers to a teaching approach that focuses on the process a writer engages in when constructing meaning. This teaching approach concludes with editing as a final stage in text creation, rather than an initial one as in a product-oriented approach. The process-oriented approach may include identified stages of the writing process such as: pre-writing, writing and re-writing. Once the rough draft has been created, it is polished into subsequent drafts with the assistance of peer and teacher conferencing. Final editing and

publication can follow if the author chooses to publish their writing (p. 16).

The above mentioned descriptions of the process approach bring to light various dichotomies that present discrepant definitions of such an approach and the underlying processes involved in writing which seem to be far away from being unanimously agreed upon among scholars. Despite this fact, the available research literature recognizes that the following are the most recursive ones:

Prewriting: The writer gathers information and plays with ideas during the prewriting stage. Prewriting activities may include drawing, talking, thinking, reading, listening to tapes and records, discussion, role playing, interviews, problem-solving and decision making activities, conducting library research, and so on. "Research shows that students who are encouraged to engage in an array of prewriting experiences have greater chance for writing achievement than those enjoined to "get to work" on their writing without this kind of preparation (Parson 1985, p. 105).

Drafting: The writer develops his/her topic on paper during the drafting stage. Beginning may be painful and difficult, producing false starts and frustration in the writer. In the process-oriented approach, the focus is on content, not the mechanics of writing.

Revising: During this stage, the writer makes whatever changes he/she feels are necessary. Revision may involve additions and deletions; changes in syntax, sentence structure, and organization; and in some cases, starting over completely. According to Glatthorn (1981), Wesdorp (1983) and other researchers, the revision stage is most productive of superior final products if it includes input from teachers or fellow students.

Editing: Polishing of the draft takes place in the editing stage. The writer gives attention to mechanics such as spelling, punctuation, grammar, and handwriting, and may also make minor lexical and syntactic changes.

Publishing: Publication refers to the delivery of the writing to its intended audience. Sommers and Collins (1984) and other investigators have found that students' motivation and achievement are enhanced when students' work is published for a larger audience than the teacher. Classmates, other students, parents and friends are among the potential audiences for students' written work.

In terms of its aim, the process approach purports at training students to generate ideas for writing, planning, considering the type of audience, draft and redraft in the course of producing final products. Process teachers allocate the necessary time that allows their students to receive income pertained to get ideas and feedback on the content of writing. As such, "writing becomes a process of discovery for the students as they discover new ideas and new language forms to express them" (Raimes 1983, p. 76). "Furthermore, learning to write is seen as a developmental process that helps students write as professional authors do, choosing their own topics and genres, and writing from their own experiences or observations" (Raimes, p. 78). A writing process approach entails providing students with an opportunity to be responsible for their own learning. Students are further required to make decisions about genre and choice of topics, and collaborate as they write.

The process approach requires that the students to perceive the final product as a mere starting point of the writing process. Actually, learner should always remember that their writing is more likely to be developed if they successfully go through various stages such as finding new ideas, new words or new sentences, and revising before writing. Moreover, in the process approach, the learner is neither supposed to compose on a given topic during a particular period of time, nor is he supposed to wait for the teacher to provide his feedback. Instead, He/she writes an initial draft, share it with his teacher or another student, reads it again, enlarges it, and revise it before producing the final draft. Under such conditions, the teacher must provide his students with sufficient time that is enough not only to get more ideas, but to express them in a new language forms as well.

2.4.1 The Process Instruction

This part of the current chapter addresses the issue of teaching writing by the use of the process approach. In so doing, one must refer to the types of the process instruction as well as the models of such an approach. The latter has been conceptualized as having three subcategories in terms of Expressivist, Cognitivist and Social (Situated) strands (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hyland, 2002; Johns, 1990). The first view, Expressivism, emerged in the 1960s and widely dominated the teaching of writing. Teachers who adhere to this trend motivate students to gain mastery over their own writing without being directive, believing that writing is a creative act and that the process is an indispensible step for the discovery of the true self (Berlin, 1988). As Grabe and Kaplan (1996) remark, "learners are encouraged to look for their own authentic voices and freely express them". Thus, writing classroom, according to the expressivists, is more likely to contain instruction that fosters personal essays and journal writing, which are suitable for self-discovery (Johns, 1990). From this position, writing ability can be defined as the ability to express oneself freely.

The second view is known as the cognitivists because it concerns the writing process *per se*. it subsequently emerged in the early 1970s, with the first language writers (Grabe & Kaplan 1996). After Emig's pioneering work (1971, 1983) on this view, many studies (e.g. Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Hayes, 1996; Hayes & Flower, 1980) developed a cognitive model of the writing process. Among the most influential are Hayes and Flower (1980) and Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987).

Hayes and Flower (1980) based their model of the writing process on protocols, transcripts, and videotapes of students talking aloud while composing. This threefold framework is comprised of the composing processor, the task environment and the writer's long-term memory. This model recognizes the existence of three phases to the composing processor, through which written texts are produced; planning, translating, and reviewing. All three steps are individually managed by a monitor. However, the cognitive

model of the process approach has come to receive various critics claiming its deficiency in certain areas of application. One such criticism is that

> …writers are not likely to be uniform with respect to their processing preferences and cognitive abilities; […] a protocol analysis approach [which was used by Hayes and Flower] may not be a valid primary methodology for the study of the writing process to the extent that Flower and Hayes claim […] [or at least from a more moderate perspective] it cannot be the primary source of evidence for a theory of the writing process" (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996: 92-3).

In light of the above mentioned deficiency, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) developed a model which intends to capture what writers actually do and why there exist discrepant ways of composing. Through their models, they seek to draw a clear cat boundary between unskilled and skilled and what both the former and the latter do while writing. They make a distinction between 'knowledge telling' and 'knowledge transforming'. The former, on one hand, is a kind of composition that involves little planning and revision and can be done by any fluent speaker of a language, even children and adolescents who are not trained to write intensively. The latter, on the other hand, entails making great efforts and skills which cannot be afforded easily.

A comparison of these two models indicates that knowledge transforming can be said to be an extended version of knowledge telling, as it includes knowledge telling plus other elements. Therefore, the difference between the two models lies in the added part; namely, whether the model includes problem analysis, goal setting and problem translation. These meta-cognitive elements lead to problem-solving activities in two subsequent domains, the content problem space and the rhetorical problem space, both of which interact with each other in a two-way attempt to find solutions to the problems of either content or discourse. The necessity approaching an insightful amalgamation

between knowledge telling and transferring while teaching L2 writing is captured in the following quote:

> We cannot teach students to write by looking only at what they have written. We must also understand how that product came into being, and why it assumed the form it did. We have to try to understand what goes on during the act of writing …if we want to affect its outcome. We have to do the hard thing, examine the intangible process, rather than the easy thing, evaluate the tangible product (Hairston, 1982: 84).

The Cognitivist views referred to so far are commendable because they shed light on the "intangible" writing process. Nevertheless, they do have certain shortcomings. First, they were developed with first-language writers and therefore did not deal with the issue of L2 learners (recent studies, such as Glendinning and Howard, 2001, include studies on L2 learners). Another criticism is that they pay little attention to the social contexts that help specify the particular writing purpose. As a result, a third view within the process-oriented approach emerged in the 1980s: the Social (situated) view.

This social process approach is based on the assumption that writing is a situated act. This trend seeks the observation and analysis of what is actually occurring, without imposing an *a priori* framework according to which observations are illustrated, they usually use ethnographic research methods for their studies. In this respect, Hyland (2002: 30) argues:

> Research here seeks to move beyond the possible workings of writers' minds and into the physical and experiential contexts in which writing occurs. Of crucial importance is the emphasis placed on a notion of context as the 'situation of expressions' (Nystrand, 1987). […] The goal is to describe the influence of this context on the ways writers represent their purposes in the kind of writing that is produced (p. 30-1).

In a nutshell, it is noteworthy that out of these three trends, Expressivist, Cognitivist and Social, the Cognitivist perspective has occupied a dominant position.

Johns (1990) believes that its influence on modern ESL classrooms cannot be overlooked. While implementing it, teachers aim to aid learners improve the writing skill itself, rather than produce accurate written products. This can only be achieved if teachers successfully elaborate, in their instruction, what competent writers do and the steps they tend to undertake when involved in the process of writing.

2.4.2 Comparison between the Product and the Process Approaches

The Process-Product approaches dissimilarities can be captured in the objectives, theoretical underpinning, and the implementation of each approach within the educational enterprises. As far as the abovementioned the process approach is concerned, it emphasis the process of writing rather than the final written product. Of course, the end product is not neglected in the process instruction; however, it is believed to take place after an array of few drafts. In such a method, the grammatical mistakes are tolerated to ensure the development of ideas generation and information presentation. Fluency, thus, occupies the line's share in comparison with accuracy. On the other hand, scholars argue that the product approach is much more concerned with the finished written products. As such, the primary concern is with accuracy and grammatical correctness, in which errors are not tolerated, rather correct by the teachers' feedback.

To go further, when comparing between the two approaches, Spoonaa (2007) claimed that the product approach is a traditional method which provides students with a given model and encourages them to produce a similar one. The process approach, on the other hand, emphasizes the production process by using some techniques as: brainstorming, exploring ideas, pee editing, and rewriting. Along with the differences, scholars emphasise the common grounds both approaches happen to share. By way of example, Steel (2007) argues that both of the approaches give the students a considerable freedom within the task (4).

Additionally, some scholars (e.g., Sun and Feng, 2009) distinguished between the process and the product approaches in terms of the dichotomy of knowledge telling or transferring. For instance, James McCrimmon considers writing which is a way of knowing as the process, and writing as a way of telling which represents the product. For Donald Murray this difference is demonstrated in the internal and external revision; by internal Murray means revising to clarify meaning for one-self, and by external he means revising in order to clarify meaning for the readers. Flower views this difference between the writer-based and the reader-based prose.

In his turn, Nunan (2001) stated that these two approaches are different from each other. He explained that while in the product approach the teacher supplies models, and student imitates, copies and transforms, in the process approach students focus on the steps involved in creating a piece of work. In addition to all these characteristics, there is one important point upon which all the theorists agree which is a good product depends on a good process (2). The discrepancy between the process and product approaches is further highlighted in the following:

Process writing:

- Text as a resource for comparison.

- Ideas as starting point.

- More than one draft.

- More global focus on purpose, theme, text type.

- Collaborative.

- Emphasis on creative process.

Product writing:

- Imitate model text.

- Organization of ideas more important than ideas themselves.

- One draft.

- Features highlighted including controlled practice of those features.

- Individual.

- Emphasis on end product.

Another explicit and detailed comparison between the two approaches is made by Murray as shown in the following table:

Product Approach	Process Approach

This is a traditional approach, in which students focus on the study of model texts. Accuracy is given priority and conventions are taken from the model. The following stages have been identified:
  o Model texts are read, and then features of the genre are highlighted. For example, if studying a formal letter, students' attention may be drawn to the importance of paragraphing and the language used to make formal requests. If studying a story, the focus may be on the techniques used to make the story interesting, and students focus on where and how the writer employs these techniques.
  o This consists of controlled practice of the highlighted features, usually in isolation. So if students are studying a formal letter, they may be asked to practice the language used to make formal requests, practicing
	This is the new trend of teaching writing in which priority is given to fluency. It is mainly based on the identification of the steps a writer goes through in his act of writing. He should be made aware of them so that he can gain control on them. These steps are:
	  o Generating ideas by brainstorming and discussion. Students could be discussing qualities needed to do a certain job, or giving reasons as to why people take drugs or gamble. The teacher remains in the background during this phase, only providing language support if required, so as not inhibiting students in the production of ideas.
	  o Students extend ideas into note form, and judge quality and usefulness of ideas.
	  o Students organize ideas into a

the "I would be grateful if you would…."structure. o Organization of ideas. This stage is very important. Those who favour this approach believe that the organization of ideas is more important than the ideas themselves and as important as the control of language. o The end result of the learning process. Students choose from a choice of comparable writing tasks. Individually, they use the skills, structures and vocabulary they have been taught to produce; to show what they can do as fluent and competent users of the language.	mind map, spider gram, or linear form. This stage helps make the hierarchical relationship of ideas more immediately obvious, which helps students with structure of their texts. o Students write their first draft. This is done in class and frequently in pairs or groups. o Drafts are exchanged, so that students become the readers of each other's work. By responding as readers, students develop an awareness of the fact that a writer is producing something to be read by someone else, and thus can improve their own drafts. o Drafts are returned and improvements are made based upon peer feedback. o A final draft is written. o Students once again exchange and read each other's work and may write even a response or reply.

Table 2.1: The Process Approach versus the Product Approach

In a nutshell, the researcher argues that the choice of what approach to implement is highly dependent on teachers, the students and the genre of the text. Some genres rely on one approach more than another. For example, the product driven approach would be preferable for formal letters or postcards, since the features of these are more fixed, and also because the focus would be on: the layout, style, organization and grammar. On the other hand, the process driven approach would be more suitable for other genres as

discursive and narrative essays, in which the focus would be on the students' ideas. For steel (2007), the two approaches are not incompatible; she notes that process writing can be integrated with the practice of studying written models in the classroom.

2.4.3 Criticism of the Process Approach

Since the 1980s, when ESL writing came to receive serious attention, a large body of research from psychology to pedagogy has been conducted. Consequently, a great deal of criticism and suggestions have been made. It goes without saying that there is no such thing that reaches perfection, and the process approach is no exception. As such, the approach of concern has come to receive sharp critics claiming its deficiency in meeting the instructional goals. One such highly salient deficiency is that which states that the process approach pays less attention to grammar and structure, and puts little importance on the final products. In this respect, Reid (2001: 29) argues:

> [in the 1980s, they developed a false dichotomy between „process" and „product classrooms in the L2 pedagogy. Process teachers encourage students to use their internal resources and individuality. . . they neglected accuracy in favor of fluency. In contrast, it was suggested that product teachers focused solely on accuracy, appropriate rhetorical discourse and linguistic patterns to the exclusion of writing processes. . . In reality, most L2 students were being taught process writing strategies to achieve effective written communication (products), with differences occurring in emphasis.

It has long been noted by scholars that it is substantially the importance of acquiring accuracy along with fluency students to improve their language skills, and become good communicators in English. Therefore, accuracy is not something that teachers might disregard and minimize in teaching L2 writing.

To go further, there are many other concerns among those who are involved in ESL writing. Leki (1992), for example, indicates three main limitations; few ESL teachers receive specific training to teach writing, many ESL teachers are not likely to abandon more traditional views, and both NES and NNS (Non Native Speakers) teachers and researchers consider the process approach to focus too insistently on personal experience. In addition, as Horowitz (1986: 27) asserts, "some people think that the process approach is unrealistic because it puts too much emphasis on multiple drafts which may cause ESL students to fail the academic exams with their single draft restrictions".

Another critic stems from the very frequent difficulty of reaching the learner's mind and equipping it with the needed data for the stages he must undertake when engaged in the process of writing. One possible explanation of this difficulty is that the teacher behaves like the researcher described by A. Brooks and P. Grundy (1990):

> Many of the difficulties of research into the writing process are related to how far the researcher can get inside the writer's mind during the process of composing. There are three standard methods, each of which has its own advantages:

- Introspection: the researchers observe themselves at work writing, and afterwards note down what went on in their own minds during writing. This is difficult to do and not always objective enough.
- Observation: The researcher observes and notes down all the outward signs and starts, the emendations, the blockages, as well as examining the final draft.
- Protocol Technique: the experimental technique in which writers talk through what is going on in the minds as they make decisions about writing. This commentary is picked up by tape-recorder, and the researchers study

this afterwards to ascertain as much as they can about what it was going on in the mind of the writer. (23)

Obviously, these techniques have certain shortcomings. For example, one cannot expect a student to describe, note down, or record faithfully what is happening at the level of the mind when composing. According to McDonough (1995), there are three interesting aspects of the criticism:

- The first is that the protocol gives unreliable data because one protocol cannot show with what consistency a writer will use a characteristic mix of processes for different kinds of writing on different topics on different occasions for different audiences. (In other words, we cannot conventionalize the think-aloud protocol.)

- The second is that talking while writing is a very specialized task.

- The third is that this specialized task can only be performed by certain individuals who are either particularly talented or specially trained in self-observation. (66)

Another type of criticism is addressed to the process approach is captured in the misleading understanding as well as implementation of such a paradigm by ESL or EFL teachers. In this respect, by A. Gaur (1984: 132) posits:

First of all, the meaning of teaching writing as a process has been misinterpreted. Instead of seeing their job as helping writers through a recursive problem-solving process, teachers may take writers through a set of fixed and rigid steps and stages; e.g. "Monday we brainstorm, Tuesday we write, Wednesday we revise."

2.5 The Genre Approach

In the 1980's, a considerable attention has been put on the process approach to teaching writing. This approach has been established under various forms all over the world. It has also set different objectives as well as emphasized various teaching contexts. In Britain and United states, for example, instructors have substantially emphasized the implementation of the genre approach in ESL classes.

As indicated in the name, such an approach has a focus on teaching given genres that learners must gain mastery of in order to perform appropriately in different situations. This might encompass a major concern on the content of the written products along with the context in which they were produced. In its theoretical underpinning, it has a functional entity. The latter means that many goals are achieved through language which has the potential to fulfill various functions. To go further, this trend regards language as a socio-culturally oriented phenomenon; and thus, it cannot be taken out of its context. As such, specific genres are believed to satisfy certain social objectives. The primary objective of using the genre approach in teaching L2 writing, as a result, is to raise students' familiarization with the appropriate use of various registers that serve discrepant goals.

As far as L2 writing is concerned, 'The Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning' has defined the genre approach as "a framework for language instruction" (Byram, 2004) "It is based on examples of a particular genre. By framework is meant guiding students. The genre framework supports students' writing with guiding principles about how to produce meaningful passages." (234)

To go further, the genre approach has been subject to various definitions about which scholars have no general agreement. To further elaborate the genre approach, it is of necessity to very briefly highlight the notion "genre". Swales (1990) referred to genre as "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of

communicative purposes" (58). His description implies that there is an associative link between certain conventions and the writer's purpose. For example, personal letters tell us about their writer's private stories. Most genres use conventions related to communicative purposes; a personal letter starts with a cordial question in a friendly mood because its purpose is to maintain good relationships with friends, and an argument essay emphasizes its thesis since it aims at making an argument.

In the past, genres were conceived as fixed types of development categorized into sub-categories. For instance, exposition, argument, description, and narrative were thought of as the principal categories, with sub- categories such as definition, cause and contrast, personal letter, business rapport, etc (Freedman & Medway, 1994). Therefore, the traditional implementation of the genre approach used to teach textual regularities in form and content of each genre; i.e. teaching the rules that are very frequent in each of the adopted genres.

Nevertheless, such an old fashioned trend has shown certain short comings; thus, the concept of genre has been refined. According to Hicks (1997), the genre theory epitomizes a way back to the teaching of grammar at the textual level, where personal aims are filtered through the usual rhetorical conventions available to satisfy certain social needs. Differently put, the main assumption is that "we don't just write, we write something to achieve some purpose." (Hyland, 2003: 18)

Along with the above mentioned criticism, the genre approach is laudable for acknowledging that composition is an act which happens in a social situation and is a reflection of a given purpose, and it tries to conceive that learning is a conscious action which takes place through imitation and analysis. For writing teachers, it is substantially important to tie these two elements with the intention of making students to be aware of how and why linguistic conventions are used in a given genre. Additionally, because cultural ideology is embodied within genres, the latter's analysis will help raise the

student's familiarization with the assumptions of groups who use different genres for different purposes.

After the social, communicative, and cultural aspects that are omnipresent whenever the genre approach is concerned, the linguistic features are also believed to exert a remarkable impact on the functioning of such an approach. It is believed that the linguistic features can shape a text type. Hammond (1992), studied some characteristics of many genres and classified them according to their similarities, for example, he argues that: recipes are known to have the text type of procedure; personal letters are used to tell private anecdotes; advertisement deal with description; news articles have the text type of recounting; scientific papers prefer passive voice over the active one in presenting reports; and academic papers are likely to have embedded clauses. Hammond explained that different text types involve both of different knowledge and sets of skills. Thus, teachers have the task to introduce a variety of genres and make their students understand and most importantly practice different sets of skills (2).

Hammond (2002) determines three major steps of captivating writing development in the genre approach:

1. Modelling is the first stage and it refers to the time when the target genre is introduced to the students to be constructed. During this phase, discussion focuses on the educational and social features of the genre.
2. The second stage which is about joining negotiation of text is when students carry out exercises and try to manipulate the language forms.
3. The independent construction, which the final phase is when learners produce actual texts through activities such as choosing a topic, researching and writing (35).

In term of its application to teaching L2 writing, the genre approach can be heterogeneously applied. For instance, Hyon (1996) identifies three major applications; namely: English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Australian genre-based educational

linguistics, and North American New Rhetoric studies. The majority of the ESP researchers as Bhatia, Flower drew and Swales conceptualised the genre approach with a major emphasis on the formal dichotomies of genre as an attempt to aid their learners clearly comprehend the communicative purposes and the linguistic features of texts they are supposed to write in. Genres are regarded, by these ESP researchers, as devices for scrutinising written texts that students needed to master like English for academic purposes and English for professional communication classrooms.

In Australia, under the influence of Halliday's systematic functional grammar, usually defines a genre as "systematic functional linguistics that is concerned with the relationship between language and its function in social settings". This means that is the given text can be analysed with a focus on the specific features of the language. The Australian genre theory was developed also for the purpose of nonprofessional settings such as primary and secondary schools rather than universities and professional fields. For example, in New South Wales a syllabus called K-English syllabus was designed as a model of the genre approach which aims at seeking how the resources of the language system can be used to make appropriate meaning choices in different contexts.

As any other approach, this view was believed to have certain demerits. Miyoun (2002) argues that it has two very salient disadvantages. The first one is that the genre approach underestimates the necessary skills to produce content; the second problem is that this approach neglects learners' self-sufficiency. The genre approach has an over-focus focuses on conventions and genre features which may result in disregarding the correct conveyed messages in the text (38).

Badger and White (2000) explained that teachers will spend much of their class time explaining how language is used for a range of purposes, and this can be the main cause for blaming the genre approach; it limits the learners' creative thoughts about content (38). For Bawarshi (2000), the genre approach, at its best, helps students to identify and interpret literary texts, whereas at its worse, it interferes with the learners' creativity, and may lead students to write genres as meaningless reproductions (38).

In light of the merits and demerits of such an approach, scholars have indentified various possible ways of application that would raise this approach's practicality and effectiveness. One such suggestion is that proposed by Miyoun about combining the genre and the process approaches. This has yielded the process-genre approach to the teaching of L2 writing.

2.6 The Process Genre Approach

As referred to earlier, the process and the genre approaches have shown certain limitations in terms of their application and practicality. Accordingly, a new approach emerged in the scene of teaching L2 writing. This approach is known as the process genre approach. It is meant to be a combination which delves into the dynamics of both approaches and use the merits of one approach to overcome the deficiencies of the other. The newly emerging view includes:

- The learner's creative thinking and the act of how writers form a text

- The knowledge of linguistic features and the specific discourse community where a particular genre is performed.

The process genre approach combines process models with genre theories. It prioritises an awareness of the context, the purpose of writing, and the linguistics conventions that govern the production of written texts.

Badger and White (2000) identified five features of a process genre model:

- Situation, purpose, consideration of mode

- Field

- Tenor, planning

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- Drafting

- Publishing and text.

They illustrate with the following example: "writers who want to be car dealers would need to take into consideration that their description is intended to sell the car (purpose), that it might appeal to a certain group of people (tenor), that it might include certain information (field), and that there are ways in which car descriptions are presented (mode). After experiencing a whole process of writing, the students would use the skills appropriate to the genre, such as redrafting and proofreading, and finally complete their texts." (p. 129)

By bringing into light the above mentioned stages, learners will be provided with an opportunity to practise creativity in writing and help them become autonomous writers, as recommended in the process approach and also to raise their familiarization with the linguistic features of each genre, as insured by the genre approach. The resulting issue is that students will find available a storehouse of information that would satisfy the cognitive nature of the writing process, the socio-cultural orientations of composition and linguistic forms that govern the production of text in various genres.

Conclusion

This chapter examined some instructional practices adopted in the arena of teaching L2 writing. We placed major focus on the process and the product approaches because they represent the heart of the research at hand. This chapter, also, highlighted the ways in which writing is perceived and taught in the various trends. It is noteworthy that the teaching of writing has never been satisfied with an exclusive implementation of only one approach or the other. This realization stems from the fact that EFL teachers/learners still encounter difficulties whenever involved in the teaching/ learning of writing which is why it is necessary to make endeavors and further researches to seek alternatives of these

approaches or refine them in such a way that preserves their advantages and dispel their disadvantages.

CHAPTER THREE

METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES

CHAPTER THREE: METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES

Introduction

Throughout the years, educators have long been confronted with the predicament of how to teach their students and how to make them responsible for their own learning. Scholars have proposed various probable solutions to the previously underlined dilemma. One such highly influential suggestion, proposed by researchers, is the establishment of a teaching philosophy that takes into consideration the students' social, intellectual, physical, mental, and emotional needs. As far as language learning is concerned, instructors must bridge the gap between psychology, linguistics, and cognition. Within the auspices of the latter, metacognition is thought of as an indispensable pillar which serves the purpose of clarifying critical issues related to how students learn, how they know what they have learnt, and how to direct their own future learning.

The chapter at hand intends to present a general overview on metacognition. The latter's definition, components, and importance. It, also, examines how metacognition is adopted in language apprenticeship, in general, and how it has been associated with the teaching of L2 writing, in particular. At the end of this chapter, the various metacognitive theories as well as strategies will be highlighted with reference to the betterment of the writing skills.

Section One

3.1 Metacognitive Knowledge

3.1.1 History of Metacognition in Research

The contemporary research in metacognition is rooted in the emerging cognitive psychology of the 1960s (e.g. Hart, 1965) as well as in the post-Piagetian developmental psychology of the 1970s (e.g. Flavell, 1979). To a certain degree, these two roots have remained separate. In recent years, however, there has been many endeavours to bridge these two roots of metacognition with each other (e.g. Hacker, Dunlosky, 1998). It is commonly believed that each of these trends is contributive to the establishment of an applied metacognition.

Hart (1965) had an interest in the accuracy of judgments people have about memory. He suggested that adults have conscious experiences such as "feelings of knowing." What was missing, though, is whether they were valid predictors of behaviour. To answer a such question, Hart (ibid) came out with a paradigm called RJR (Recall, Judgment, recognition) procedure to test meta-memory judgment. Hart's study indicated that feeling-of-knowing judgments were high predictors of behaviour.

On their part, scholars, working on developmental psychology, had a particular interest in metacognition, but chose a distinct avenue of scrutinisation. Flavell (1979) focused on discovering whether the development of children's memory abilities was a function of higher conscious comprehension of the conventions that govern memory and cognition (Kuhn, 2000). This type of studies, hence, is interested in the improvement of metacognitive thinking, that is, the capacity of reacting on one's mental processes. Unfortunately, Flavell's research did not demonstrate strong correlations between metacognitive thinking and memory development. Nevertheless, Flavell's

approach was greatly contributive in the improvement of metamemory in various domains (Hacker, 1998).

Recently, the two schools of metacognition have found much more common grounds. Developmentalists have initiated the borrowing of some tools introduced by Hart & Nelson to examine the issues that Flavell originally intended to answer. Schneider and Lockl (2002) provide a thorough history of this coalescence between the two schools and the fruits it is now yielding. They hold the notion that this confluence of schools brought about a new understanding of how metacognition develops within the individuals and how metacognition changes later during adulthood.

In mainstream cognitive psychology, metacognition is still, to some extent, marginalised indeed, as seen in most conferences, metacognition research scholars submit their papers in memory sessions, not in metacognition ones. In 1997, a session on metacognition emerged at the American Psychonomic Society meeting. Metacognition started to be accepted as an autonomous sub-field within cognitive psychology when it was endorsed by the "everyday memory" movement (e.g. Neisser 1978).

3.1.2 Definition of Metacognition

There exists no generally agreed-upon definition of metacognition; it has been described differently by different scholars. Generally, the notion metacognition refers to "thinking about thinking". The Merriam-Webster online dictionary defines it as "awareness or analysis of ones own learning or thinking processes". Differently put, metacognition is the knowledge that a person has of his own cognitive processes. The concept of metacognition was first introduced by Flavell (1976), and it was traditionally described "one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them" (323). Later on, Flavell (1979) redefined metacognition as "individuals' information and awareness about their own cognition".

To go further, Brown (1978:) defines metacognition as the knowledge about and regulation of one's higher mental activities in learning processes. Brown's definition paved the ground towards the emergence of a proliferation of metacognitive terms through the years. Metacognitive beliefs, metacognitive awareness, metacognitive experiences, metacognitive knowledge, feeling of knowing, judgment of learning, theory of mind, meta-memory, metacognitive skills, executive skills, higher-order skills, meta-components, comprehension monitoring, learning strategies, heuristic strategies, and self-regulation are notions often associated with metacognition. These terms are not taken to be homogeneous, they rather heterogeneously reflect metacognition from discrepant perspectives. Some terms refer to more holistic knowledge and skills in metacognition, whereas others are rather concerned with specific situations or types of tasks.

In the early 1990s, subsequent development and use of the term metacognition have remained relatively faithful to the notion's traditional meaning. In their attempts to capture a substantial description of the term metacognition, cognitive psychologists have provided the following definitions:

- "The knowledge and control children have over their own thinking and learning activities" (Cross & Paris, 1988, p. 131)

- "Awareness of one's own thinking, awareness of the content of one's conceptions, an active monitoring of one's cognitive processes, an attempt to regulate one's cognitive processes in relationship to further learning, and an application of a set of heuristics as an effective device for helping people organize their methods of attack on problems in general" (Hennessey, 1999, p. 3)

- "Awareness and management of one's own thought" (Kuhn & Dean, 2004, p.270)

- "The monitoring and control of thought"(Martinez, 2006, p. 696)

As far as the educational enterprise is concerned, metacognition is thought of as the ability of a student, who has been taught a given strategy in a particular context, to recall and use that strategy in a similar but new context, Kuhn and Dean (2004). In the educational cognitive psychology, metacognition is believed to take the form of executive control including monitoring and self-regulation (Schneider & Lockl, 2002). Moreover, Schraw (1998) holds the view that metacognition is a multidimensional array of general, rather than domain-based, skills. Such skills are empirically discrepant from intelligence, and might even be contributive in dispelling the deficiencies of general intelligence or prior knowledge on a subject when involved in the process of solving problems.

Obviously, more theoretical work must be conducted to establish a unanimously agreed-upon description of metacogntition and its components. Nelson (1996) was the first to establish a unified theory of metacognition. Basically, he differentiated between an "object-level", the level at which cognitive activity takes place, and a meta-level which governs the object level. Two diversified flows of information between both levels can be captured. Information about the state of the object-level is transmitted to the meta-level through monitoring processes, whereas instructions from the meta-level are conveyed to the object level through control processes. "Thus, if errors occur on the object-level, monitoring processes will give notice of it to the meta-level and control processes will be activated to resolve the problem".

3.1.3 Metacognition and Cognition

In the last two decades, researchers have long endeavored to establish a clear-cut boundary between the two slippery concepts of cognition and metacognition. In so doing, it is of necessity to sift through the relevant literature in search for theoretical

modals which highlighted the kind of relationship and difference that exist among the previously mentioned concepts.

The skill necessary to read a text is discrepant from the skill individuals use to monitor their interpretation of the text. The former is an example of a cognitive skill, the latter of a metacognitive one. The knowledge of all the grammatical conventions is cognitive, the knowledge that we are better in reading than in composing is a metacognitive character. Feeling that you are deficient in delivering information while teaching is a cognitive experience, the belief that one is near and has the ability to solve a problem is a metacognitive experience. These examples may be contributive in bringing to light the imaginary wall that separates cognition from metacognition.

In language learning, students receive information and must solve problems in which cognition and metacognition are omnipresent. The features which characterise metacognition need to be formulated in such a way that makes it possible to differentiate it from cognition in information processing and problem solving. Metacognition involves active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of cognitive processes to reach cognitive objectives (Flavell, 1976). "Monitoring, regulation and the process of orchestration could take the form of checking, planning, selecting, and inferring" (Brown 1977: 76); self interrogation and introspection (Brown, 1978; interpretation of ongoing experience (Flavell & Wellman, 1977; or simply making judgments about what one could know or does not know when involved in the accomplishment of tasks (Nelson 1996).

On the other hand, research on cognitive skills encompassed several tasks, such as memory tasks, reading text, writing, language acquisition, problem solving, social cognition, measurements, mathematical modeling, drawing, reading schematics and diagrams, etc. Cognition was not restricted to observing and manipulating objects, entities, reality, rather extends to include the processing of information, e.i. of signs like words or figures, often associated with previously acquired skills.

Describing and interpreting the notion of metacognition is determined by the domain in which it is applied. The concept per se is ambiguous and does not lend itself to a single definition as stated by different scholars (Garner, 1987; Weinert, 1987; Posner, 1989; Forrest-Presley, 1985; Hacker, 1998). As for cognition, it is defined as "the capacity to use intelligence in executing tasks, or the capacity to execute cognitive tasks", Simon and Kaplan (1989: 37). This definition implies that cognition is not restricted to observing, memory, thinking, making a sound choice and deciding, but also includes processing emotions and intuition. Cognition is the act of knowing, involving awareness and judgment, and could also be a result of such an act (Wellman, 1985). The above-mentioned descriptions, thus, dispelled some of the ambiguity of the cognition-metacognition connection and brought to the scene several ways of separating these concepts.

Initially, metacognition and cognition are different with regard to their content. The former was about cognition (part of the mental world), while the latter is about things in both the real world and mental images thereof. In this respect, Flavell, (179: 703) points out: "The content of cognition included objects, persons, events, physical phenomena, signs, etc., skills to handle these entities, and information on the tasks. The contents of metacognition were the knowledge, skills, and information about cognition.

To go further, cognition and metacognition are dissimilar in their functions. The former's function is to solve problems, to facilitate the processing of the cognitive enterprises. Whereas, the latter's function is to regulate one's cognitive functioning in solving a problem. Again, Flavel, in his model on metacognition, reported that metacognition and cognition are discrepant in their content and function, and are similar in their form and quality. Their similarity is captured in their common potential to be acquired, forgotten, correct or incorrect, etc. Another aspect of similarity stems from the way metacognition and cognition can be expressed. They both can be demonstrated in

external formulations, with uttered information being either true or not, subjective, shared, or validated.

Last but not least, Kluwe (1982) indentified two general constituents of metacognition in terms of declarative and procedural knowledge. Some scholars (e.g. Chi 1987) argue that cognition and metacognition are supposed to be equivalent in that knowledge, but different when it comes to the skills and information. In metacognition, knowledge is determined with metacognitive knowledge, and skills are identified with metacognitive strategies. At the cognitive level, information is highly pertinent to the tasks (assignment, explanation, etc). At the metacognitive level, nevertheless, information involves concepts and skills, creating material with the aim of knowing about cognition.

3.1.4 Components of Metacognition

The most common distinction in metacognition distinguishes two main components of metacognition. Most scholars have conceptualized metacognition as composed of two substantial elements refer to as knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition (skills) (Jacob & Paris, 1987; Schraw & Moshman, 1995; Schraw,1998; Brown, 1987; McCormick, 2003). Knowledge of cognition is believed to be the awareness of one's own cognition. Metacognitive knowledge is "potentially conscious and controlable", Pressly (1985:4). Metacognitive knowledge includes three discrepant, but closely pertinent, facets of knowledge; declarative, procedural, and conditional (Paris et all., 1983). Scholars emphasize the tremendous impact the successful coordination and application of these three types of metacognitive knowledge do yield in the field of education and academic performance. The latter is highly contingent upon metacognition (Alexandre, 1997; Pressly & Harris, 2006)

The first facet, under the auspices of metacognitive knowledge, is known as declarative knowledge. The latter includes knowledge, skills, and strategies necessary

for an efficient accomplishment of tasks (zimmerman & Risemburg, 1997). Put differently, declarative knowledge refers to "knowing about things", or "knowing what". Schraw & Mschman, 1995) regard it as "knowledge about one self as a learner and about what factors influence ones performance" (352). Flavell (1979) identified various types of declarative knowledge along the features of self or person, strategies or actions, and task.

Procedural knowledge is another facet which operates within metacognitive knowledge. It refers to knowledge of how to implement, use, and apply procedures such as learning strategies or actions to exploit declarative knowledge and reach goals. Procedural knowledge relates to knowing how to do things. With regard to education it is believed that procedural knowledge is at the heart of the academic success, successful learners are believed to have much more automatic, accurate, and effective procedural knowledge than unskilled students.

Ultimately, conditional knowledge is also taken to be the third subcomponents of metacognitive knowledge. It pertains to the ability of knowing when and why to apply various strategies, actions, procedures, and skills (McCormik, 2003; Schraw, 1998). Garner, 1990 believed that "the conditional knowledge refers to knowing when and why to use declarative as well as procedural knowledge. With rapport to learning, the conditional knowledge of successful learners makes them very facile and flexible in their strategy use", McCormick, (2003: 80)

Regulation of cognition or metacognitive control is a second major element of metacognition. It is believed to be an array of actions and activities undertaken by learners to gain control over their own thinking and learning processes. The available research literature report the existence of three basic constituents in terms of planning, monitoring, and evaluation (Jacobs & Paris, 1987).

As for Planning, it involves the selection of appropriate strategies and the provision of efficient resources for achieving objectives, for example, making predictions before reading. Planning encompasses goal setting, activating prior knowledge, and managing time.

Concerning monitoring, it is believed to involve self-testing skills needed to gain mastery of and regulate learning. Monitoring is described as the critical analysis of the strategies' efficiency or plans being incorporated. Schraw (1998: 115) regards it as "ones online awareness of comprehension and task performance." Implementing self-testing when involved in any learning context is regarded as a particular representation of monitoring.

Last but not least, evaluation refers to examining the progress being made towards a goal which may provoke further planning, monitoring, and evaluation. One such example is the re-evaluation of one's achievements, strategies, and conclusions used to reach goals.

It is worth mentioning that there exists no general consensus among researchers about the components of metacognition and the latter's nature. By way of example, meta-memory is exclusively examined from a declarative-knowledge perspective, whereas monitoring processes are thoroughly included in generating this knowledge (Lockl & Schneider, 2002). Likewise, feeling of knowing and judgment of learning have been scrutinized as metacognitive processes. As for conditional knowledge, many scholars regard it as metacognitive awareness and declarative knowledge (Schallert & Hare, 1991; Desoete & Roeyers, 2003), or as being substential part of metacognitive skills (as found in Anderson's ACT-F modal; Veenmal, 1998). Undoubtedly, much more specific taxonomies of metacognitive knowledge and skills are needed to decipher the enigmatic nature of such slippery concept (metacognition), its components, use, and application.

In a nutshell, one may argue that it is of an extreme necessity to consider two crucial aspects with respect to metacognitive knowledge and regulation. Firstly, metacognitive knowledge and experience are intertwined in which one completes and enriches the other. Secondly, metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation are believed to be naturally domain-general and both of them seem to comprise a large spectrum of subjects, areas, and fields. As for the importance of these metacognitive components in the educational enterprise, educators must perceive the taxonomy, categorisation, and use of these elements as well as the kind of relation that exists among them. Instructors are also required to help their learners be convinced with the non-negociated necessity of implementing and being familiarised with the previously mentioned facets of metacognition.

3.1.5 The Development of Metacognition

Kuhn 2000) characterizes the metacognitive development as a gradual process of acquiring effective cognitive strategies. Many scholars have argued that metacognition seems to improve with age and through time (Cross & Paris, 1988; Kuhn & Dean, 2004). Theory-of-Mind improves somewhere between the age of three to five years. In the years after, meta-memory and metacognitive knowledge develop, and continue to improve through time. Metacognitive skills emerge at the age of eight to ten years, and continue to develop during the years there after.

The ability to regulate cognition is the next step in the development of metacognition, with a remarkable development in monitoring and regulation appearing by 10 -14 years of age. Monitoring and evaluation of cognition are processes known with their slow development; they may remain incomplete during adulthood. Finally, the construction of metacognitive theories is believed to be the last phase to emerge. These theories pave the way towards the integration of cognitive knowledge and cognitive regulation. They are constructed spontaneously by children as these theories

mirror the children's own thinking and learning. The metacognitive theories tend to stem from a particular field, and to gradually expand to other domains. They start as implicit and informal, getting more and more systematicity and formalisation over time.

Kuhn & Dean(2004) regard epistimological understanding as a defining characteristic of metacognitive the development. In light of such a frame work, pre-schooled children are thought of as realists who regard believing and knowing as synonyms. Put differently, young children think that all individuals perceive the same thing and that all perceptions reflect external reality. By the age of 4, however, children acquire the ability to perceive some beliefs to be wrong. During that phase, which scholars call absolutism, children can have the ability to distinguish between two people's beliefs. By adolescence, many people recognise that even experts do not agree on certain topics. At this level, many individuals move to multiplism (relativism) where everything is perceived to be subjective and no beliefs can be doomed incorrectness. By adulthood, individuals learn to smoothly deal with uncertainty, yet still convinced that there must be better or worst opinions based on the reason or evidence that support them (evaluative epistemology). Kuhn & Dean emphasise that children do not need much help to progress the first three stages, which is not the case when progressing to the fourth stage that entails instructional effort.

Further, Shneider & Lockl (2002) relate the development of metacognition with the improvment of declarative meta-memory. They supported their arguments with the child's understanding of mental verbs such as "no," "think," "remember," and "forget". Preschoolers appear to be restricted in their understanding of memory, yet they appear to appropriately decode the previously mentioned terms from the age of four years on, memory verbs can be adequately applied to portray mental states. Between the age of six and eleven, procedural meta-memory knowledge witnesses a large development. Reaching the age of 9 or 10, most children become familiarised with the fact that task characteristics and strategy-use may facilitate the process of remembering.

By this sign, students acquire the ability to regulate themselves efficiently, in terms of attention and the time allocated for studying. The development of strategic knowledge goes on through adolescence and young adulthood where students are able to conceive and learn about interactions between memory variables, such as strategies, efforts, and task features.

Obviously, more work is needed to identify what components of metacognition develop, when, and under what conditions. It is also needed to determine whether the development of particular metacognitive components fosters the development of other ones. For example, research of Lockl & Schneider (2002) reveals that a higher level of theory of mind exerts an influence on meta-memory over time.

Alexandre 1995, indicated that metacognitive knowledge improves a monotonic gradual pace throughout the school years, aligned with the development of the students' intellectual ability. The effect of intelligence, thus neither enhances, nor decreases over the years. Intelligence is believed to give students a head start in metacognition, but it does not further impact the course of its development.

3.1.6 The Teaching and Learning of Metacognitition

Addressing the issue of instructing metacognitition is at the heart of the research at hand. The researcher believes that it is necessary to highlight how metacognition has been learnt and taught in the recent years. The information, therefore, that will be presented in this part of the chapter is highly pertinent to the objectives of the current investigation. In other words, if the researcher aims at proving that the incorporation of metacognition in the teaching of writing is contributive in helping students overcome their deficiencies, it is of consequence to tackle the issue of how metacognition has been learnt and taught in the educational enterprise.

Teaching metacognitively can be interpreted either as teaching 'with' metacognition or teaching 'for' metacognition. The latter means that teachers design instruction which will activate and improve their students' metacognition. As for the former, it means that teachers have knowledge and think about their own thinking concerning their teaching. Metacognition makes instructors able to gain awareness of and control over their thinking and teaching processes. It also enables educators to monitor, evaluate, and regulate their teaching practices in conformity with specific students, goals, contexts, and teaching styles.

To help teachers understand the concept of metacognition and how to teach with it, Hartman (2001) divided the concept into two main parts; strategic knowledge and executive management strategies. The former involves knowing "what information, strategies, skills teachers have, when, why and how to use them." As for the latter, it includes "planning what and how teachers approach their instruction, checking up on how the lesson is going while teaching, making adjustments as needed, and evaluating how a lesson went after it is finished" (150)

Besides, metacognition helps teachers plan for the introduction and application of certain strategies in the curriculum, to develop compensatory activities, and to evaluate the effectiveness of their own teaching and their students' learning. An instructor who teaches with metacognitive always reviews his teaching with regard to his beliefs, practices, teaching materials, activity, objectives, and knowledge about the curriculum as well as the students.

Scholars (e.g. Busato, 1994) argue that the majority of students spontaneously acquire metacognitive knowledge and skills from their parents, environment, and specifically their instructors. Nevertheless, the metacognitive adequacy varies from a student to another. Some grow up under suitable conditions with appropriate opportunities for acquiring metacognitive knowledge and skills while others gain profit only from the little chances they come across. Yet a significant number of students do

not have the spontaneous ability of acquiring a metacognitive repertoire, either due to the lack of opportunities to do so, or they are far away from perceiving the significance of investing effort to construct such a repertoire.

The instruction of metacognition seems to improve learning and help students first identify, and later on overcome their weaknesses, Veenan (1994). The available literature emphasises the existence of three fundamental factors that govern the teaching of metacognition. These principles are; embedding metacognitive instruction in the content matter to ascertain connectivity, informing students about the importance attributed to incorporating the metacognitive activities, and prolonged training to ensure the flexible and sustained application of metacognitive activity. Veeman, 1998 coined these principles as the WWW and H convention (What to do, When, Why, and How). Every successful teaching program (e.g. reciprocal teaching by Brown & Palincsar, 1989; Masui & De Corte, 1999; Kramarski & Mevarech, 2003; Volet, 1999), adopts and adheres to the necessity of incorporating the previously mentioned principles.

To go further, research on metacognitive instruction is found to be restricted to report product measures (learning outcomes). A distinction, thus, need to be made between deficiencies stemming from either an availability, or a production deficiency of metacognition (Kerseboom and Imthorn, 2000. Learners with an availability deficiency do not have enough metacognitive knowledge and skills at their disposal, thus, the teaching of metacognition must begin from scratch. As for those with the production deficiency, they happen to have some metacognitive knowledge and skills in their repertoire, however, they are unsuccessful to use the available metacognition because of many factors such as task difficulty, anxiety, lack of motivation, or their deficiency in perceiving the relevance of metacognition to a given situation, instruction, hence, instructors could be unable to implement metacognitive activities when accomplishing tasks (Kok & Blote, 2005). This educates that the students' metacognitive conditions must be considered when teaching metacognition.

Not a big deal is known about the role of teachers when teaching metacognition. Frankly, a lot of teachers do not possess enough knowledge about metacognition. When interviewed about metacognition, instructors' answers were limited to "independent learning". When asked about how it is possible to apply metacognition in their lessons, teachers could not come out with any sort of valid answers (Venman, kok & Kuilenburg, 2001). What triggers the attention, though, is that the majority of teachers indicated their inner desire to invest effort into the implementation of metacognition within their instructions, but they do lack "tools" for making metacognition as an integral part of their lessons, familiarizing their students with the various metacognitive strategies, and raising their learners' awareness of metacognition.

As far as learning is concerned, metacognition is proved to be contributive in facilitating the learning process. It equips learners with the ability to monitor their cognitive processes, foster, and employ compensatory strategies to correct, review, and regulate the process by which they learn. In this respect, Vigotsky (1979) holds the view that children, at an early age, might talk to themselves when facing dilemmas for the purpose of self-guidance and self-direction. The monologues aide children react on their own behaviour and plan alternative actions. As they grow up, the self-directed monologues will gradually become internalized as silent and inner speech. Researchers have proved Vigotsky's assumptions and have, further, claimed that the children's self-talk is a form of metacognitive monitoring which they use when encountering a challenging task. Therefore, it is of critical importance to teach students how to know about and regulate their cognition.

In the last two decades, scholars have endeavored to prove that metacognition is beneficial not only in general learning, but also in specific subject areas such as reading, writing, mathematics, and problem solving. Researchers have also tempted to identify what metacognitive knowledge and strategies their learners need to be equipped

with (Baker & Brown, 1984; Brown, 1987; Garner, 1989; Gourgey, 2001; Hartman, 2001; Schraw, 2001).

The aforementioned facts reflect the high complexity attributed to metacognition, what, where, and how to best instruct it. Such dilemmas triggered the researcher attention to conduct an investigation on such a field as an attempt to use metacognition to dispel some of the difficulties detected in the educational enterprise generally and in writing apprenticeship, more precisely. In so doing, the investigator must capture, note, analyse, interpret, and seek solutions to the students' areas of weaknesses and by the use of metacognition through the implementation of metacognition into the teaching of writing. A question would legitimately arise here is how possibly could it be possible to combine metacognition with language teaching and the teaching of writing in particular! The answer to such a critical question will be addressed in the coming sections of the current chapter.

3.1.7 Metacognition and Language Learning

Metacognition is a field in its infancy which is why it is problematic to find theoretical and empirical researches that correlate it with language learning. Although the notion "metacognition" has not been a part of educational psychologists' lexicon and did not come into general use until the 1970's, the term has been around for as long as human beings have been able to reflect on their own thoughts. Over the last two decades, psychologists and educators have emphasised that metacognition provides valuable descriptions and explanations of the learning process. Being as such, it is believed to play a crucial role in successful language learning owing to the fact that it directs learners throughout their learning journey. Metacognition is believed to shape learners beliefs about and attitude towards learning (Livingston, 1997)

To go further, it is important to address the previously highlighted components of metacognition and tackle the effect of each element on language learning. The first

component if referred to as "Metacognitive knowledge" which, in the language learning context, consists primarily of "knowledge or beliefs about what factors or variables act and interact, in what ways to affect the course and outcome of cognitive enterprises" Flavell, (1979: 907). Put differently, the learners' beliefs about themselves and about others and pertain to metacognitive knowledge acquired through both conscious and unconscious means. An example of metacognitive knowledge in relation to language learning might be the belief a learner has that he is good at reading comprehension but poor when it comes to the oral production of language. In the same vein, Wenden 1998: 528) states that "metacognitive knowledge is a prerequisite for the self-regulation of language learning; it informs planning decisions taken at the outset of learning and the monitoring processes that regulate the completion of a learning task. It is then obvious that metacognitive knowledge as perceived today has an influence on language learning." Moreover, metacognition is believed to facilitate information recall, the comprehension of written texts, the accomplishment of several learning tasks, the rate of progress in language learning, the quality and speed of learners cognitive engagement, and, thus, fosters the language learning outcomes (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1999; Victori, 2004). Flavell (1979) divides metacognitive knowledge into three main categories in terms of knowledge of a person, task knowledge, and strategic knowledge. A scrutiny of these variables would certainly serve the purpose of bridging the gap between metacognition and language learning.

3.1.7.1   Person Knowledge

Person knowledge refers to a student's overall assumption of how individuals learn and process information. It relates to a learner's awareness of his/her particular thinking and learning processes. Addressing the learner's beliefs about himself and about others as cognitive processors (students), Flavell (1979) mentions the existence of two dimensions of person knowledge in terms of intra-individual differences

(knowledge of personal styles, abilities, of oneself and of other) and inter-individual differences (knowledge of human features which influence learning). As far as language learning is concerned, examples of these sub categories may include the beliefs that one learner can learn better by memorising, that one's classmates are more successful in language learning than him, and that elements such as motivation and intelligence are at the heart of the language learning enterprise (Victori & Lockhart, 1995)

3.1.7.2   Task Knowledge

Tasks knowledge refers to the ability of recognising the character of a specific task, how to best deal with it, and the potential of one's ability to accomplish it. Therefore, the knowledge task variables can be defined as the knowledge that students have about the needed materials for accomplishing certain tasks and about the degree of effort and time necessary in performing these tasks. Presented with a passage about global warming and asked to analyse and demonstrate his/her understanding of the passage, a learner for example may decide that the task is somehow difficult and he is aware that reading slowly and closely will enhance his/her opportunities of comprehending, analysing and retaining the information**.**

According to Wenden (1991: 42- 44), task knowledge encompasses four main elements:

1- Knowledge about a purpose of a task

2- Knowledge about the task demands

3- Knowledge about the nature of the task (what kind of learning is it?)

4- Awareness of the need for deliberate learning (does it entail the use of self regulatory or metacognitive strategies)

Other examples of task knowledge might include the belief that it is easier to recognise thing than to recall them, that the writing tasks are facilitated when having the necessary knowledge of the rules and conventions and that one is not required to understand every single word when dealing with listening comprehension tasks.

3.1.7.3 Strategic Knowledge

Strategic knowledge refers to the awareness and application of the various metacognitive strategies while accomplishing tasks. It is based on the assumption that every single learner knows strategies and their efficiency with relation to him and the undertaken task, Wenden (1987). A student picks up from his available strategy repertoire what he thinks adequate strategies that will ascertain a successful accomplishment of the task. Livingston (1997: 2) believes that strategic awareness involves "knowledge about both cognitive and metacognitive strategies, as well as conditional knowledge about when and where it is appropriate to use such strategies". An example of strategic knowledge would be the belief that it is best to plan, edit, and revise one's compositions to ascertain their efficiency.

3.1.7.4   Metacognitive Experiences

As previously stated, metacognition not only consists of metacognitive knowledge but also metacognitive experiences or regulation. "Metacognitive experiences are any conscious cognitive or affective experiences that accompany and pertain to any intellectual enterprise. An example would be the sudden feeling that you di not understand something another person just said" (Flavell 1979, p. 908). Metacognitive experiences involve the use of metacognitive strategies and are likely to come up "in situation that stimulate a lot of careful, highly conscious thinking" (Flavell 1979, p. 908), in novel experiences, or "when learning has not been correct or complete" (Wenden, 1998, p. 520). These experiences may change one's cognitive goals and/or

add to one's metacognitive knowledge base. Since metacognitive strategies are a salient feature of metacognitive experiences, it is prudent to discuss exactly what they entail. Metacognitive strategies are "general skills through which learners manage, direct, regulate, guide their learning, i.e planning, monitoring, and evaluating" (Wenden, 1998, p.519). Furthermore, metacognitive strategies ensure that a cognitive objective has been reached.

3.1.8 Metacognition and Writing

In this part of the chapter, we attempt to shed light on the most important part of the research at hand which is the kind of relationship that exists between writing and metacognition. By proving the existence of such a relationship, the researcher would be able to establish a theoretical correlation between the two investigation variables. In so doing, it is necessary to tackle the elements, identified by scholars, needed to bridge writing with metacognition.

3.1.8.1 The Impact of Metacognitive Knowledge on the Writing Skills

In order to determine the influence that metacognition exerts on writing, it is of an utmost importance to very briefly mention the components of metacognition. As referred to in the first part of the chapter, metacognition includes knowledge about condition as well as awareness of one's own cognition. The latter refers to both understanding and controlling cognition (self regulation). As for the former, scholars state the existence of three major elements that comprise it in terms of declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and conditional knowledge (Mc Cormick, 2003).

Declarative knowledge is one's knowledge about one self as a learner, including one's awareness of his own areas of strength and weaknesses. It also refers to knowledge regarding the tasks, skills, and strategies required to efficiently accomplish

the task. Recently, declarative knowledge has been expanded to encompass one's knowledge and understanding of their affective filters, such as self efficacy and motivation, and the way these features affect the accomplishment of tasks (Hacker, 1998; Pressley & Harris, 2006).

As far as writing is concerned, declarative knowledge can take many forms. Initially, there is the knowledge a writer has about himself as a writer, involving such things as what forms of writing have been confronted with in the past, what elements of writing he is comfortable with, what elements he did not master yet, and what environmental features are most preferable.

Besides the knowledge of oneself as a writer, there is the knowledge of the writing task. The latter includes, but not restricted to, awareness of mechanics, form, skills, and strategies (including strategies pertinent to a given writing task, such as writing a persuasive essay, and overall writing strategies such as an opening that triggers the reader's attention) that are suitable to the writing task at hand (Graham, 2007). Within the context of writing, examples of declarative knowledge include understanding the purposes for writing, the topic, needs of intended audiences, genre constraints, linguistic structures, and the higher order processes that underlie skillful composing, such as planning, drafting, and revising (e.g., Donovan & Smolkin, 2006; Lin, Monroe, & Troia, 2007; McCutchen, 2000; McCutchen, Francis, & Kerr, 1997; Saddler & Graham, 2007).

Concerning procedural knowledge, it refers to "how to do it". *Procedural knowledge* includes information about the successful application of the several processes or activities comprising declarative knowledge, that is, "the repertoire of behavior available from which the learner selects the one(s) best able to help reach a particular goal" (Raphael et al., 1989: 347). Examples of procedural knowledge within the context of writing include an awareness of general strategies that pave the way for efficacious planning, text production, and revising (e.g., engaging in advanced planning

activities such as creating an outline or using transitional phrases to enhance readability), in addition to particular techniques that are commonly used with certain genres (e.g., presenting details in persuasive writing). Although lower order skills such as spelling, grammar, punctuation, sentence construction, and handwriting have been proved to be of an utmost importance in writing development and performance, they are typically scrutinised separately and conceptualised as being outside the realm of metacognitive procedural knowledge (e.g., Wong, 1999).

As for the conditional knowledge, it refers to knowing when, where, and why to utilise declarative knowledge and what strategies best suit the accomplishment of the assigned task. Within the context of composing, conditional knowledge aids the writer to, for instance, account for a given writing task, indentify what skills and strategies will best scaffold achievement of the goals for that task, recognise when and why to employ various compositional processes, and refine the environmental circumstances.

It is, thus, legitimate to argue that these components of metacognitive knowledge are of great contribution to effective performance. They differ among students according to many factors such as age, experience, interest, and so on. Without a conscious development of all three kinds of knowledge, the writing proficiency would never be reached. In this respect, Haris, (2006: 87) argues that "unless students experience initial success with writing, it is unlikely that they will expand the effort necessary to use more complicated strategies and perform increasingly demanding writing tasks effectively".

To further elaborate the impact metacognitive knowledge exerts on writing, the researcher believes that it is necessary to sift through the relevant research literature in search for theoretical as well as empirical studies that have investigated the subject matter. A substantial body of research provides insight about the nature and impact of metacognitive writing knowledge (e.g., Donovan & Smolkin, 2006; Graham, 2006; McCutchen, 1986, 2000; Pressley & Harris, 2006; Wong, 1999). Unanimously, these

researches have reported the developmental trajectory of metacognitive knowledge, as well as the latter's magnificent role with respect to writing development and performance.

To go deeper, the available evidence supports four propositions (Graham, 2006). First, skilled writers have more knowledge about writing than less skilled writers. Second, students acquire more and more knowledge about writing with age and schooling. Then, the level of knowledge writers bring to the composing task is tied to their writing performance. Finally, instruction that fosters writers' knowledge combined with meaningful practice opportunities leads to improvements in writing outcome and quality.

The space constraints prevent a detailed review of all the available literature; we shed light, however, on a few salient findings with regard to the discrepancies between more and less skilled writers' metacognitive knowledge. Skilled composers have a rich understanding of the basic elements and characteristics that govern high-quality compositions. They are, also, more knowledgeable about the various higher order processes that underlie proficient writing (e.g., planning and revising). More importantly, they attribute successful composition to the use of effective strategies (e.g., Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Graham, 2006; Lin et al., 2007; McCutchen, 2006; Saddler & Graham, 2007).

Contrariwise, novice and struggling writers often do lack knowledge of what comprises efficacious writing output and processes; their conceptualization stresses the form (e.g., neatness and mechanics) over the function (e.g., conveying ideas in an organised and engaging manner and meeting the needs of an intended audience). By way of example, poor writers usually consider revising as synonymous with proofreading or editing, rather than making conceptual-level improvements.

A recent study by Lin et al. (2007) reported such a divergent pattern. Based on interviews with typically developing writers and struggling writers, the investigators observed remarkable and meaningful dichotomies in metacognitive writing knowledge

across grades and ability levels. Older, typically developing writers demonstrated the deepest and most integrated metacognitive understanding of writing. Younger, typically developing writers and struggling writers of all ages possessed only concrete and superficial writing knowledge. Chiefly, poor writers not only started out with less metacognitive knowledge than their typically developing peers, but they showed a shallower rate of growth; the difference in knowledge held by typically developing and struggling writers increased as they progressed through school.

In a previous study conducted on typically developing writers and struggling writers with learning disabilities in fourth, fifth, seventh, and eighth grades, Graham, Schwartz, and MacArthur (1993) illustrate the metacognitive knowledge differences reported in Lin et al. (2007). For example, when asked "What is good writing?" typically developing writers responded "Has a beginning, middle, and end" and "Drafting it, revising it, and editing it." While, struggling writers described good writing as "It's neat, correctly formed, and stays on the baseline" and "Spelling every word right." When asked "What do good writers do?," typically developing writers responded "They read it over and see if they have everything the way they want it," "Think of very creative ideas," and "They elaborate." In contrast, poor writers believed that good composers "Check their spelling," "Use whatever paper the teacher tells them," and "Sit up straight and don't lean back in their chairs." Students' descriptions of the way of planning, writing, and revising a paper further illustrated their discrepant level of knowledge, and appreciation for, higher-quality compositional processes.

Proficient writers were significantly more likely to account for substantive strategies such as "Think about the character I am writing about"; "Take notes and go to the library"; "Write what I am going to write about . . . and number them first, second, last—whatever"; "Put my sentences in a different order"; and "Make the ending really exciting." However, poor writers addressed mechanically-oriented procedures such as "Do it in ink," "Write it bigger so it takes up more space," "Try to make it neater," and "Make sure I had my date on there and name . . . " (Graham et al., 1993: 244–246).

Another study conducted by Saddler and Graham (2007) indicated the significant differences captured between more and less skilled writers' knowledge of the purpose and value of writing. The findings ascertain that skilled writers were more likely to articulate how writing benefited them in school. They elaborated, for example, it "Will help when we go to college" and "Helps the teacher understand you." Knowledgeable writers were found to have a great potential to describe how writing is contributive in promoting their future professional success. Typical responses included "Make more money," "You might be a lawyer and have to write a persuasive story," and "If you want to be a doctor you could take special notes" (p. 241).

Collectively, the data demonstrated that poor composers were unaware of the purposes of writing and they perceived the latter to be of a minimal personal relevance or value. Proficient writers; nonetheless, have a deep understanding of the attributes and a good understanding of writing genres, devices, and conventions (Donovan & Smolkin, 2006; Englert & Thomas, 1987; Graham & Harris, 2003). This encompasses some of the more sophisticated and unique forms, such as poetry or persuasive writing, as well as those which are more common, such as personal narratives and story writing.

Section Two: Self-regulation and Writing

Introduction

Self-regulated learning has been the focus of researchers for the last three decades; it has been defined in different ways by different scholars. For Zimmerman (2000:14), it is "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals". However, Pintrich (2000: 453) defined the term as: "an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and attempt to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior guided by their goals and the contextual features of the environment.

Self-regulated has been proved to be associated with better academic performance and recognised as a valid predictor of students' academic motivation and achievement. It is an active, constructive and cyclical process which helps learners activate and sustain their thoughts, behaviours, and emotions to achieve academic goals. "Academic self-regulation refers to self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions intended to achieve specific educational goals, such as analyzing a reading assignment, preparing to take a test, or writing a paper"(Zimmerman, Bonner and Kovach 1996: 2). Self-regulated learning is also seen as a practical process in which students are regarded as active participants as they can set their own goals, monitor their own activities, select some techniques and strategies to facilitate learning, seek information from others, and assess their own achievement. In other words, self-regulated learning is "the degree to which students are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally proactive regulators of their own learning process" (Zimmerman, Bandura, and Pons, 1992: 664)

According to Zimmerman (2000), self-regulated learning is a cyclical process that is composed of three main phases: forethought, performance and volition control, and self-reaction. These phases are said to occur one after another when a learner performs a task. In the forethought phase, learners make a deep task analysis by

developing and activating their background knowledge about the task, motivating themselves, and setting goals. In the second stage, learners start to focus on how to perform the task; they self-instruct, self-talk and focus their attention to achieve the goals set in the first stage. In the last stage, which is self-reaction, learners try to evaluate, judge, and assess their performance; the product of this phase, whether good or bad reaction, will influence the following forethought phase, confirming the cyclical nature of self-regulation.

In the same vein, Bandura (1986) stated that self-regulation involves three processes: self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction. Self-observation refers to tracking specific aspects of one's way of learning such as the use of some strategies; self-judgment is the ability to compare one's achievements with a specific standard, for example accomplishing a given task in a limited period of time. The third self-regulatory process is self-reaction; it refers to assessing one's behaviours that are drawn from the performed outcomes. In this process, the learner is likely to make some adjustments in the self-observations or self-judgments (Bandura, 1986; in Zimmerman, 2011: 3).

As far as writing is concerned, self-regulation and strategic behaviour are thought of as potent catalysts for developing competence and promoting performance in high-quality compositions (e.g., Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998; Graham & Harris, 2000; Pressley, 1979, 1986; Pressley, Borkowski & Schneider, 1987). As Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997) explained:

> Most students recognize that in order to become proficient writers, they must acquire knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, however, they are far less aware of their need for high levels of self-regulation. This need stems from the fact that writing activities are usually self-planned, self-initiated, and self-sustained. Writers typically perform alone, over long periods with frequent stretches of meager results, and repeatedly revise output to fulfill personal standards of quality. These demanding personal requirements have led writers throughout history

to develop varied techniques of "self-discipline" to enhance their effectiveness (73–74).

Irving Wallace's writing habits, a well-known contemporary novelist, illustrate some of these techniques. For example, Wallace approached his literary output by maintaining an elaborated progress' chart while writing a book, putting on record how many pages are written daily (Wallace & Pear, 1977). This technique, Wallace argued, allowed him to bring discipline into his writing; "A chart on the wall served as such a discipline, its figures scolding me or encouraging me" (65). Wallace, further, reported the use of strategies that facilitated the writing of his novels (Wallace, 1971; Wallace & Pear, 1977). These included making outlines, developing scenes and characters, working out the sequence of the story in his mind and then roughly on paper, and indentifying story dilemmas that entail additional work. As he proceeds the writing of each novel, he carefully monitored the process, deeply revises his plans and outlines. Once completing his initial draft, he constantly returns to it again and again, reads the entire manuscript and revises it as he goes along.

Almost all contemporary models of high-quality compositions either explicitly or implicitly acknowledge the important role of self-regulatory processes, such as those described by Wallace (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1980; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). Scholars have reported a variety of self-regulation strategies that composers use to gain management over the multiple facets of writing (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Graham & Harris, 1994; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). These involve goal setting and planning (e.g., establishing rhetorical goals and tips to achieve them), seeking information (e.g., gathering information related to the writing topic), record keeping (e.g., making notes), organising (e.g., organising notes or text), transforming (e.g., visualising a character to facilitate written description), self-monitoring (e.g., checking whether or not the writing goals are achieved), reviewing records (e.g., reviewing notes or the text produced so far), self-evaluating (e.g., assessing the quality of text or proposed plans), revising (e.g., refining text or plans for

writing), self-verbalising (e.g., saying dialogue aloud while writing or personal articulations about what needs to be done), rehearsing (e.g., trying out a scene before writing it), environmental structuring, (e.g., finding a suitable place to write), time planning (e.g., estimating time to write), and self-consequenting (e.g., having some time out for a movie as a reward for accomplishing a writing task)

Akin to the impact metacognitive knowledge exerts on writing, metacognitive skills (self-regulation strategies) have been found to be of a critical importance in the betterment of the writing skills. The extant literature emphasises four propositions that capture the substantial need of self-regulation in writing (e.g., Graham, 2006; Graham & Harris, 2000). Initially, competent writers are more self-regulated than less skilled writers. Second, proficient writers become increasingly self-regulated with age and schooling. Besides, the composers self-regulation' level is substantially tied to their writing performance. Finally, instruction that fosters the students' self-regulation combined with meaningful practice opportunities develops their writing performance.

In a nutshell, the researcher emphasises the magnificent role that self-regulatory strategies play in helping students overcome various dilemmas associated with the complex process of writing. Instructors have no choice but to adhere to the non-negotiated necessity of implementing self-regulation strategies within the teaching of L2 writing if they are to develop their students' compositional abilities. It is noteworthy that the information presented in this part of the chapter is a mere microcosm of the role self-regulatory strategies play in teaching L2 writing. Self-regulation is a newly emerging trend with its own journals, conferences, text-books, and scholars. We believe that such an area of study should be subject to a deep scrutiny precluded by time, space, and scope constraints of the research at hand. That is why the researcher presented a limited literature review on self-regulation; unlike the self-regulatory strategies that scholars categorise under the auspices of metacognitive skills, which would be profoundly elaborated in the current chapter.

3.2.1 Cleg's Metacognitive Strategies

In this part of the chapter, the researcher highlights the most important part of the investigation at hand which is metacognitive strategies. It is noteworthy that there exists no general consensus among linguists and cognitive psychologists about that which constitutes a metacognitive skill. Some scholars (e.g Oxford, 1990) reported that metacognition is a slippery concept within the auspices of which social, affective, psychological, and cognitive strategies operate in a continuum. These strategies are believed to be intricately intertwined in which one interacts with and completes the other. These scholars claim that metacognitive strategies are processes that include three major phases in terms of planning, monitoring, and evaluating. These metacognitive strategies are further divided into sub-activities that are omnipresent whenever engaged in the accomplishment of tasks. In this respect, Graham (1997: 42) argues that "metacognitive strategies that enable students to plan, control, and evaluate their learning are more essential than strategies that promote interaction and input"

While there are various approaches to teaching metacognition, the most effective ones combine theory with practice. Learners must be provided with knowledge of cognitive processes and strategies (that will be used as metacognitive knowledge), as well as opportunities to practice both cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Brown, 1987; White et al., 1999). It is generally believed that providing knowledge without experience or vice versa does not yield an appropriate development of metacognitive control. In the same vein, Lin (2001) argues that the design of metacognitive activities should account for both cognitive and social facets of students learning, involving strategy training and creation of a cheerful social environment needed to equip learners with knowledge about specific domain as well as knowledge about the self as a learner.

Under such conditions, the researcher believes that it is necessary to briefly refer to the basic metacognitive strategies that are involved in any accomplishment of tasks (planning, monitoring, and evaluating) and those social, affective, and cognitive

strategies which also function as metacognitive strategies as stated by scholars. The researcher attempts to take the challenge of adopting some of these strategies and adequately apply them in the right context when dealing with the practical part of the investigation at hand. Thus, after having stated the generally agreed-upon metacognitive skills, we will deeply elaborate those strategies that we believe are most suitable to the context of teaching L2 writing.

To start with, metacognitive skills are strategies for acting on what one knows; directing, improving, and increasing one's knowledge. Clegg (2015: 4-5) suggests a synthetic presentation of metacognitive, cognitive, and social affective learning strategies. The reason behind presenting and illustrating them is that these strategies are interrelated in language learning. Additionally, as Clegg asserts, cognitive and social-affective strategies support the formation of metacognitive skills and self-regulation. The latter helps build something more than an inclination towards cooperation, namely self-esteem, and self-confidence provided by the ability to chose and evaluate one's learning strategies.

The cognitive skills synthesised by Clegg are:

1. Resourcing: Using reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias or textbooks;

2. Grouping: Classifying words, terminology, quantities, or concepts according to their attributes, constructing graphic organizers;

3. Note-taking: Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic or numerical form, taking notes on idea maps, making T-lists;

4. Elaborating prior knowledge: relating new to known information and making personal associations; using what the student knows, using background knowledge, making analogies;

5. Summarizing: Making a mental, oral or written summary of information gained from listening or reading; saying or writing the main idea;

6. Deduction/ induction: applying or figuring out rules to understand a concept or complete a learning task; using/ making a rule;

7. Imagery: using mental or real pictures to learn new information or solve a problem; visualizing, making a picture;

8. Auditory representation: replaying mentally a word, phrase or piece of information; using one's mental tape recorder, hearing the piece of information again;

9. Making inferences: using information in the text to gues meanings of new items or predict upcoming information; using context clues; guessing from context; predicting.

The social affective strategies are:

1. Questioning for clarification: getting additional explanation or verification from a teacher or other expert; asking questions;

2. Cooperation: working with peers to complete a task, pool information, solve a problem, get feedback; cooperating, working with classmates, coaching each other;

3. Self-talk: reducing anxiety by improving one's sense of competence. Thinking positive.

Hartman argues that the metacognitive skills tend to interact with each other as metacognition is a recursive process which goes forward and backward between preparing, planning, and evaluating one's learning.

3.2.2 Metacognitive Strategies

As referred to earlier, metacognitive strategies are not limited to a single activity or process the students can use to be metacognitively-oriented, they rather refer to a set of strategies that are interrelated in which one completes the other. It is, thus, crystal clear that a metacognitive strategy stands for any activity a learner uses to acquire knowledge, determines what is needed to develop such knowledge, and identifies where, when, and how to best apply it in a given situation. In this respect, Everson, (1989: 17) argues: "Any process in which students examine the method that they are using to retrieve, develop, and expand information is deemed to be metacognitive".

Developing metacognitive instruction is believed to be a challenging task for language teachers. The latter would have to refine their mind-set and pose questions which trigger the learner to analyse the existing links to other common experiences and materials, identify which strategies are needed to accomplish a given learning task, and formulate questions accordingly. Hartman (2001) believes that teaching with metacognitive strategies means that teachers should think about how their instruction will provoke and improve their students' metacognition.

As for the strategies that will be highlighted in the research at hand, the researcher opted for an array of metacognitive strategies that best fit the scope of the current investigation. As stated by scholars, each social, affective, or cognitive strategy has a metacognitive process involved in it, making, thus, all these strategies as metacognitively oriented processes, (Lin 2001). As such, the researcher intends to form a battery of metacognitive skills comprised of various strategies with social, affective, and cognitive dimensions. The strategies in question are:

1 Planning: This strategy includes the following:

a) Advance organisation, characterized by previewing; previewing the main ideas and concepts; identifying the organising principle;

b) Organizational planning, or planning what to do; planning how to accomplish the learning- task; planning the parts and sequence of ideas to express;

c) Selective attention: listening or reading selectively, scanning, finding specific information; attending to key words, phrases, ideas, linguistic markers, types of information;

d) Self-management: Planning when, where, and how to study; arranging the conditions that facilitate learning.

At this stage of learning, learners must plan what they need to do, set goals, organising their thoughts and activities in order to achieve the assigned tasks. By preparing, students are more likely to accomplish more complex tasks. Additionally at this level, students acquire the ability to divide larger tasks into much smaller parts that could be easily managed. Teachers, at this level, should make the learning objectives clear to their students and even help the latter to set their own learning objectives. By so doing, learners will be able to accurately measure their own learning progress. By way of example, the teacher might set the objective of mastering the production of an effective thesis statement. A student might go further and set the goal of producing an efficacious introduction.

2. Monitoring: With the following components:

a) Monitoring comprehension: thinking while listening, thinking while reading; checking one's comprehension during listening or reading;

b) Monitoring production: thinking while speaking, thinking while writing; checking one's oral or written production while it is taking place.

The monitoring strategy allows students to reflect on their own learning style, they gain awareness of how to best learn, the conditions that ascertain, foster, and appropriate learning, concentrate on the task, and determine what opportunities are available for practising the content to be learned in the target language. For example, teaching EFL students the various writing strategies is of great importance;

summarizing and synthesizing makes the writing task easier to be accomplished. In this respect, teachers must help their students choose what strategy to implement in a given situation. By so doing, students would be able to direct, systemize, and establish connection among the various learning strategies, this is believed to distinguish between competent and struggling language learners. For example, with respect to a writing task, the teacher might ask students to account for their audience and purpose of writing (to explain, to persuade). In the process of writing, learners must keep returning to reflect upon the questions of "why" and "for whom" they are writing. Teacher must ensure their students ability to recognize when a given strategy is not effective and, thus, shift to another one, O'Malley & Chamot (1990).

3.Evaluating, namely self-assessment: checking back, keeping a learning log, reflecting what is learned; judging how well one has accomplished a learning task.

Students should be encouraged to decide for themselves how well they learned a certain content or how well they performed on a task, to become aware or their own strengths and weaknesses, which may help them perform better the next time. Students also reflect on the efficiency of the learning strategies they used, as well as the changes they would apply to their learning process in relation to a prospective task, Khezrlou (2012).

4. The knowledge Monitoring Skill:

Following Tobias & Everson, Lin (2001) holds the view that knowledge monitoring is an indispensible skill that must be mastered by the students. She posits that, by determining what is known and unknown, learners can direct their attention and resources more adequately. In this context, Zimmerman (1998) asserts that, by being aware of what they know, students gain awareness of the potential knowledge and skills that they posses, which fosters their self-confidence.

To go further, Tobias and Everson argue that knowledge monitoring is central to learning in various domains. To prove the importance of accurate monitoring of prior knowledge, they conducted 23 experiments on the students' strategic behaviour during learning. The results indicated that students with appropriate knowledge monitoring are

more likely to be high achievers than those who ignore their knowledge' scope. Scholars, thus, support the stance that advocates a positive correlation between knowledge, monitoring, and academic achievements.

As far as writing is concerned, the teacher might teach his students how they monitor their knowledge of the writing process. By so doing, the students will be able to determine their areas of strengths and weaknesses and use strategies to develop what they know and overcome their limitations. An example of knowledge monitoring might include giving the students all the necessary information about the rules and conventions that govern the production of coherent and cohesive pieces of discourse. In parallel with that, the teacher may help his students to determine the extent to which they have mastered the presented information and how they can possibly link it to the previous knowledge they already have.

5. Cooperative Learning:

According to Clegg (2015), cooperative learning is a social strategy that contributes in the scaffolding and formation of metacognitive skills. Bilgin (2006), believes that cooperative learning activity engages the students in the learning process and fosters crytical thinking, reasoning, and problem-solving skills of the learner. Stevens and Slavin (1995) hold the view that peer interaction is substential to the success of cooperative learning as it relates to the metacognitive understanding. They emphasised that every cooperative learning strategy, when used appropriately, can help learners to move beyond the text, to memorise the basic facts, and learn lower level skills.

Cooperative learning, therefore, leads to cognitive restructuring that create a room for improvement in understanding all students in a cooperative group, a part from academic benefits, learning cooperatively is believed to promote self-esteem, interpersonal relationship, and attitudes towards learning and peers. In the cooperative learning strategy, learners have the ability to discuss their answers and concerns with a camarade. This strategy helps learners discuss their thinking, analyse their position, and

explain their point of view to their classmates. By so doing, students would have the ability to evaluate themselves while gathering information from other classmates. The teacher may also evaluate his learner's understanding by evaluating the content of the discussions. Each of these benefits of cooperative learning implies a metacognitive process that fosters the building of an efficient metacognitive system.

As far as learning is concerned, cooperative learning is thought of as an instructional strategy which uses the psychological aspects of cooperation and competition for curricular transaction and student learning. The notion cooperative learning refers to instructional methods and activities in which learners accomplish tasks in small groups and are rewarded for performance as a group. The idea behind the cooperative learning method stems from the belief that when a group rather than individuals are rewarded, learners will be motivated to help each other to master a writing proficiency. Learning cooperatively is an effective instructional strategy in which small group, each with students of discrepant levels of ability, implement various learning activities to overcome the writing difficulties. Each member of a team is responsible not only for learning the writing instruction, but also for helping teammates learn, thus, creating an atmosphere of achievement.

Cooperative classroom critically enphasises mediated learning. The latter refers to facilitating and coaching learning. The former includes creating a cheerful environment and activities for connecting new information to previously existing knowledge, providing opportunities for cooperative work and problem solving, and offering learners a variety of authentic writing tasks. The latter involves giving hints or clues, providing feedback, orchestrating students efforts and aiding them implement a strategy.

Cooperative learning advocate the interactive view of writing, which is believed to be a combination of structural and functional facets of composition. It accounts for knowledge of rules and conventions and the ability to structure discousre interactions. The cooperative learning theory as asserted by Richards and Rogers

(2001), regards writing as a tools of social relations. It results in higher levels of understanding and reasoning, the development of critical thinking, and the increase of accurate long term retention.

When a teacher gives a writing task, the members of a group work cooperatively towards a shared goal. They help each other during the process of drafting. They plan, translate, and review the work together. Cooperative learning helps students monitor and evaluate their writing. They make endeavours to gain appreciation for their group. In a cooperative classroom, students try to make sure that every member has mastered the task owing to the fact that the teacher randomly picks up the students to answer for the team.

In terms of its application and as shown above, cooperative learning may serve as remedial tool by means of which the researcher helps learners overcome certain dilemmas attributed to the writing process. It is a socially oriented strategy with a metacognitive dimension. As proved previously, cooperative learning is contributive, inter alia, in helping students plan, monitor, and revise their writing tasks. Differently put, it equips learners with the metacognitive skills necessary to master the writing proficiency. It is, thus, crystal clear that from a metacognitive perspective, planning, monitoring, and evaluating are not mere strategies of metacognition, but also the results and defining characteristics of a sustained metacognitive system.

6. Self Reflection (Self Management)

Self-reflection is a metacognitive skill which helps students to organise information into a coherent knowledge structure, to analyse situations, generate hypotheses, and decide how to solve problems, Schon (1987). Self-reflection allows students to explore their own learning efforts and provides not only a better comprehension of what students know but also creates a room for improvement in metacognitive strategies. For example, when a learner reflects on a task he has just accomplished, he is consciously revisiting the information, thus, incorporating self-reflective activities in a language classroom is proved to be contributive in enhancing

the benefits of learning; it provides the students the opportunity to review previous actions and decisions prior to preceding to the next phase, (Goodman 1998).

In the same vein, Zimmerman (2000) believes that self-reflection is a pre requisite in achieving self-regulated learning. According to him, self-reflection is divided into two components: self-judgment and self-reaction, where the former includes evaluating one's performance and attributing causal significance to the results, while the latter involves satisfaction with one's performance and conclusions about how learners adapt their self-regulatory approach during subsequent efforts to learn and perform.

Therefore, scholars believe that having a proficient self-reflective behaviour is needed to become a self-regulated learner, (Zimmerman and Schunk, 1998; Zimmerman, 1998). Schon (1987) asserts that the reflective learner uses a variety of resources to acquire appropriate information and opinions needed to gain a personal understanding of a given situation. Possessing good metacognitive skills consists of more than writing down one's thoughts on how a process or project is going; it is a dynamic process that occurs while individuals are engaged in any activity.

To go further, self-reflection involves reflective questions and reflective prompts. These are simple ways used by teachers to establish discussion that starts with revising the details of the learning experience and moves toward critical thinking and creation of an action plan (Scardamalia and Bereiter, 1985). This facilitates the student's reflection on the strategies used whenever involved in the accomplishment of a learning task (such as solving a problem) and explain the reasons behind using those strategies. Reearchers distinguish between questions and prompts. The former is of a more general nature, serving as a way for triggering broad metacognitive monitoring. Examples of questions are: "Now what?" or "So what?". They may facilitate the student's reflection on what to do next and make connections with the tasks accomplished previously.

The latter, however, also called metacognitive prompts are more specific questions that yield a more directive help on particular aspects of the learning processes.

These prompts aim at guiding coherent understanding of the domain tasks at hand and may lead to extensive inference generation (Lin, 2001).

To be operational, the prompts should take the form of open-ended questions, especially when the teaching of writing is concerned. For example, prompts like "Should your writing goals be reformed?" are not as reflective as "What aspects of your goal setting would you change before the accomplishment of the task?". Paraphrasing and summarizing what the student says when he asks for help is another prompting technique; for example: "So what you are concerned about is how you can develop your spelling, vocabulary, and punctuation abilities?". Prompting is believed to provoke self-explanation for metacognitive development. Deducing learners' explanations and justifications through prompting can help them draw conclusions and make inferences that can lead to increased comprehension (Chi et al., 1989). It is noteworthy that it is very problematic to detect the appropriate moment to interrupt the student for prompting him. Teachers must know the appropriate time of stepping in and asking appropriate questions and when it is best to stand back and let learners figure things out for themselves.

7. Metacognitive Scaffolding

Scaffolding refers to providing the support needed to bridge the gap between the students' current knowledge and their potential and the outcome they are supposed to produce (Hartman, 2001). Scaffolding may be carried out in the forma of models, cues, prompts, hints, partial solutions, etc. Self regulation is aof metacognitive scaffolding. The latter supports the underlying processes associated with individual learning management thinking during learning. Scaffolding helps learners reflect on their learning goals and relate the use of a given tool to the accomplishment of the task at hand. Scaffolding is intended to serve as an external model of knowledge monitoring behaviour until it is internalized. Therefore, metacognitive scaffolding helps students become independent, self-regulated thinkers who are more self-sufficient and less

teacher-dependent. It is an effective teaching approach which develops higher level cognitive strategies (Hartman, 2001).

Metacognitive scaffolding: is twofold; it can be either domain-spicefic or more generic. If the problem is known and familiar, scaffolding can stress spicefic ways to think about the problem. Contrary wise, generic scaffolding emphasises the processes of creating models and new ways to tackle the encountered difficulties. In order to do so, the teacher should find ways to link models with prior knowledge and experience, linking representational models to current understanding, and enabling learners to manipulate ideas through modeling tools (Shunk, 1998).

In the writing classroom, the teacher might help learners perceive the gap between their current knowledge and the performance that is expected from them. To bridge such a gap, learners might seek the guidance provided by their teachers. For example, when teaching Second Year LMD students, teachers must help their learners determine the discrepancy between what is needed to compose an expository essay (the expected performance) and the way they are currently performing. By so doing, learners will be aware of the amount of help needed to move from their actual performance to the expected one, and gradually their teachers' feedback will no longer be needed.

8. Modeling:

Providing models of metacognition while teaching is an important strategy for developing metacognitive knowledge and skills. Teachers externalize their thought processes, serving as an "expert model", in order to make students learn how to effectively use metacognitive knowledge and skills. Modeling is often a component of scaffolding. Peer modeling is another possibility. Lin (2001) illustrates this approach with the following example; when observing a peer engaged in effective problem identification and conceptualization of principles for problem solving, a struggling student may begin to think that he also has the ability to be creative and an effective problem solver.

By way of example, a learner is faced with the predicament of how to adequately collocate words in sentences. To tackle this, the teacher might use computational corpus soft-wares to teach collocation. Before assigning tasks, the teacher can illustrate a situation where he is confronted with a collocational difficulty, and use computational corpus soft-wares to overcome the encountered difficulty while the students are attentively observing. By acting as expert models, instructors help their learners believe that it is possible to overcome the task difficulty and, thus, become effective problem solvers.

9. Self-Questioning:

Self-questioning is thought as an effective strategy for developing self-directed learners. Research on self-questioning demonstrates that questions posed by the student are much more effective than those given to the learner by others. Self-questions such as "Have I left out anything important?" can make a learner self-direct in identifying the omission of important points or examples. The more students are engaged in the practice of generating and using self-questions in various situations the more likely they are to develop the habit of self-questioning so that it becomes a skill, that automatically and unconsciously takes place whenever needed. It is of an utmost importance to regularly help learners adapt their self-questions to the needs of a particular task. Self-questioning may serve as a source of guidance before, during, and after the accomplishment of tasks; it is believed to raise self-awareness and control over thinking and thereby improve performance. Self-questioning is proved to develop long-term retention of knowledge and skills, the application and transfer of the learned knowledge and skills, and attitudes and motivation as a result of improved performance (Schoenfeld, 1985).

10. Thinking aloud and Self-explanations

Thinking aloud is the act of externalizing one's thought processes when involved in a task that entails thinking. The thinker expresses his thoughts out loud

when accomplishing a task (e.g. solving a problem, answering a question, conducting an experiment, organising paragraphs in essay writing, etc.). Such a method can be used either by teachers, or by students working in peers, or by a student working alone. Instructors can use the think-aloud strategy to demonstrate how to implement metacognitive knowledge and strategies when accomplishing tasks. For example, the teacher can express his thoughts out loud while planning, monitoring, and evaluating his progress towards composing an expository essay. This modeling moves thinking about the material (knowledge, skills, procedures, etc.) from an abstract state to a concrete one. It helps students hear what is going on in their teacher's head when a text is read, a homework assignment is attacked, study for a test is planned, an essay is written, an error is found, or a problem is solved.

When modeling academic performance, it is necessary to deliberately commit errors, in order to raise the student's familiarisation with these mistakes and the available strategies to overcome them (Hartman, 2001). Meichenbaum and Biemiller (1998) argue that think-aloud modeling may take the form of self-questions (e.g. "Did I carefully check my work?") or self-instructional directive statements (e.g. "That is not what I expected. I will have to refine my working method"). Scholars emphasise the need for teachers to use think-aloud while instructing students in order to help the latter summarise, access prior knowledge, self-monitor, obtain help, and self-reinforcement. This could only be achieved if the teacher communicates with learners so that the lesson is an interactive dialogue instead of a monologue.

As for self-explanation, it refers to the process of clarifying the content of an exercise, a text, an example, etc. Studies in cognitive science stress the importance of spontaneous self-explanation in facilitating the process of learning (Chi et al., 1989). Scholars argue that self-explanations, in certain cases, are more effective than explanations provided by others, because they provoke the active use of the students' existing knowledge. Additionally, when self-explaining, students naturally address their spicefic problems in understanding the content which leads to a more constructing

learning (Chi, 2000). Nevertheless, studies show that most students do not spontaneously engage in self-explanation and often need guidance to do it (Bielaczyc et al., 1995) or need just to be prompted to do it (Chi et al., 1989).

Conclusion

The second chapter was an attempt to shed light on the second variable of the research at hand, namely metacognition. The latter does not lend itself to a single definition; it has been a notoriously hard word to define. In the last two decades, scholars have been emphasising the magnificent role metacognition plays in developing EFL students learning abilities. It is a trend that is developing enormously, to the extent that it is too difficult to keep pace with improvement within its various sub-fields.

In its application to language teaching in general, scholars, educators, and students perceive metacognition to be an enigmatic, philosophical, and ambiguous approach. The reason behind this is the subject's high abstract nature and scope of interest which is tied to scrutinising the higher level mental processes associated with the act of apprenticeship. Accordingly, metacognition is perceived to be one of the most complex fields to be applied in the educational enterprise.

As an attempt to dispel some of the intricacies attributed to the subject matter, scholars have endeavored to simplify the notion of metacognition. They argue that it is the "feeling and thinking about thinking". Scholars go further with arguing that metacognition encompasses two main components, namely metacognitive knowledge and self-regulation (metacognitive skills). The former is further divided into three major sub-components that exert an influence on learning process. The latter, however, refers to strategies, skills, tips, and activities a learner uses to, very generally, to acquire knowledge and be aware of when, where, and how to best apply the learner knowledge. Researchers are, now than ever before, emphasising the substantial role metacognition,

if implemented appropriately, plays in helping students overcome various difficulties encountered when attempting to internalise the target language.

Chapter Four

Research Methodology and Procedures

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

To many instructors, it is of maximum importance to stimulate students and help them learn and broaden. However, the pursuits traced aren't completed all times; college' students show much less interest in the subjects taught and are more or less stimulated. to improve the teaching and learning strategies, researchers carry out some of pedagogical researches which might be, as defined by singh (2006: 1): "simply the process of arriving at reliable answers to a problem through the deliberate and systematic series, evaluation and inter[pretation of information." In other words, to accomplish the considered necessary goals and meet up with the researcher's expectancies, a research must be methodological and determined.

Studies, methods and approaches of accomplishing a given study are the main parts of the research which indicate the validity of the study in addition to the research hypothesis, which in its turn is conceived as the starting point of the research.

The present study follows a qualitative approach of research methodology as well as a quantitative approach. Theoretically speaking, qualitative research is primarily exploratory research. It is used to gain an expertise of underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations. It presents insights into the problem or helps to expand thoughts or hypotheses for potential quantitative studies (Susan, 2011). A quantitative evaluation, however, consists in calculating the specific units of evaluation specified earlier in the proposal (Brause, 1999). In the same vein, Chen (2005: 21) describes a standard quantitative study and states that it consists of:

[...] quantification of constructs related to research interest, data collection through experimental or non-experimental designs, statistical data analysis and presentation of findings related to research hypotheses.

In the current chapter, the overall methodology has been highlighted and the distinctive steps constituting the procedure of conducting the study have been targeted. The present research aims at investigating the effects of the product approach combined with metacognitive strategies on EFL learners' writing proficiency. The tools of research used for the investigation are described as well as the target population and the samples (teachers and students) chosen for the experiment.

4.1 Target Population and Sample

4.1.1 The Target Population

Many questions are raised by researchers when it comes to directing a scientific study; the most common ones are associated with the people that are alleged to undertake the test. In other words, because it is not feasible to perform the experiment for the entire population of interest, the population has to be reduced to a practicable quantity for the purpose of generalizing the findings of the research.

Consequently, the target population with whom the existing research is completed involves one grade level, that is to mention, it is represented by second year students of English at the Department of Letters and the English Language, at the University of Oum El Bouaghi, and that is represented by 60 students making up 2 groups in which woman students outnumber male students.

It is essential to mention that the prevailing research studied second year students of the English Department at the University of Oum El Bouaghi. One of the important aims behind selecting second year students is the perception that they have already got a certain degree of proficiency in writing that permits them to use the least of their knowledge in writing. Besides, at this level, students are delivered to the necessities of essay writing after they have gone through the basics of writing and

paragraph organisation in their first year. Hence, second year students seem to be the best population that suits this study since instruction needs to take place at the beginning of the course (in this case, the course is Essay Writing) in order to enable the students to focus on more important aspects in the higher level.

Additionally, the research at hand, conducted with second year students, has offered us the possibility to deal with students who have been more adapted to university study habits in comparison to first year university students. Having been used to learning that relied totally on the teachers' guidance in high school, first year students may not be prepared for the sudden shift to more autonomous learning entailed through the intervention of this study. Moreover, having received in first year the basic knowledge of sentence parts, sentence types, mechanics, and sentence level accuracy, the students are now ready for instruction targeting paragraph writing.

4.1.1.1 The Sample

In methodology and research design, the notion of sample and population are of paramount importance. According to Miller (1974: forty five), "the term population is used in statistics to consult all feasible items of a particular type. "He adds that the quantity of items in a population can be finite or infinite, yet it is not necessary to examine all the objects although the quantity is finite. In order to carry a study on a selected population, the subsequent step, after identifying the population, is to take individuals from the entire population sharing the equal characteristics and having equal chances of inclusion in the pattern. Swetnam (2004: 42), in his turn, defines sampling as the act of obtaining "a manageable part of an item or a population that supposedly possesses the same characteristics as the whole. "He goes on to perceive four criteria of sampling adequacy that the researcher must take into account while selecting the sample:

- The sample should be large enough to be significant.

- It should be as representative as possible.

- Its defects should be acknowledged.

- A rational for the sample should be produced.

Most experimental research includes two groups; a control and an experimental group. Gosling and Noordam (2006: 30) define a control group as follows:

> A control is an additional experimental trial or run. it is a separate experiment, done exactly like others, except that no experimental variables are changed. A control is simply a neutral 'reference point' for comparison that enables you to see the effects of changing a variable by comparing it [to] the experimental in which you change.

From the preceding definition, we can refer to the experimental group as a set of participants receiving a particular treatment where an experimental variable or more are changed so one can evaluate the effects of such changes on the behaviour of each member from the control and experimental groups.

Sampling was introduced into use with the purpose of smoothing the procedural research and helping in generalizing the findings considering that a random sample (a random pattern selection of people from the target population) represents the whole population.

4.1.1.2 Students' Participants

The students of the selected population had formally studied English for at least eight years at different educational stages. At the university level, they are prepared over a period of three years for getting a 'License degree' in English as a foreign language. During the first two years of education, they all have to attend the

same kind of English courses such as Written Expression, Oral Expression, Grammar…etc. However, once in third year, the students belonging to a particular branch receive different courses in separate groups. Thus, we may consider that second year students as homogeneous regarding learning English.

The present research studied second year LMD students of the English Department at Oum El Bouaghi University. During the year of study, the entire population of second year students of English comprised a total number of ...... students clustered over … groups. The sample of the current study, with whom the treatment was carried out, consisted of two groups containing 30 students each; one control and the other experimental. It is worth to mention that each class meets four and a half instructional Written Expression hours per week divided up into three sessions of one hour and a half each.

4.1.1.3 Teachers' Participants

Furthermore, the study was conducted with the participation of EFL teachers. We intended to exhibit basically their standpoints concerning the incorporation of metacognitive strategies in the teaching of L2 writing. Actually, part time teachers who hold Master and who are preparing their doctorate theses seem to constitute a considerable number of the teachers' population in the department of English at Oum El Bouaghi University; of course, in collaboration with full time teachers whose being there is notably weighty. As detailed earlier, a sample of teachers was selected from this population on the basis of purposive sampling. The researcher selected the teachers intentionally as they are involved in teaching the module of Written Expression with at least two years of experience. The teacher participants were both females and males (6 females and 4 males). Their experience of teaching EFL writing varies substantially (from 2 years to more than 25 years).

4.2 Research Design

Basically, experimental psychology suggests theories of human behaviors and makes use of diverse techniques to test the validity of these theories. Miler (1974:2) describes a psychological concept and says that: "[it] has to fit the facts of behavior as derived from systematic observations taken in carefully controlled conditions." The methods used to test psychological predictions need to be planned to facilitate the system of collecting data to be able to arbitrate the relationship between variables; dependent or independent. Research design involves the planning of relevant information collection. The independent variable is "the factor that the experimenter can manipulate or arrange" (Chen, 2005: 25) while for the dependent variable, the experimenter cannot arrange the values due to the fact that they can only be obtained from the contributors.

According to Moore (1983), an experimental design is a method where the researcher needs to carefully control the independent variable in diverse conditions. To prevent the reader from being lost in a maze of terminology, it is essential to notice that the "independent variable" is also referred to as the "exposure" or the "treatment variable". In the experimental design, two groups are put under examination: one "experimental group" that is exposed to the inquired treatment or conditions, and the second "the control group" whose independent variable is not subjected to any change. Yet, each of the groups must be evenly examined.

It is worth to state that both groups ought to be of the same level of training (or approximately with the equal marks in a given matter being taught), same age (or approximately the same), at least concerning those variables possibly controlled at the beginning of the test. After the treatment reserved for the experimental group, they are both tested through the same test.

The contemporary research investigates the influence of teaching

metacognitive strategies, which is the independent variable, on the students' performance in writing, which is the dependent variable. The researcher can manage the teaching of metacognitive strategies but can't arrange the students' scores in the writing achievement test. furthermore, the independent variable, being teaching writing through metacognitive strategies, consisted of a control group (lets call it Gr1) who received no change in the method of teaching writing and an experimental group (Gr2) with the usage of metacognitive strategies in Written Expression as two courses incorporated in the curriculum. The researcher speculated that the experimental group exposed to more writing techniques than did their duplicates in Gr1. It has, therefore, taken the implementation of metacognitive strategies in the curriculum of second year in the Department of English at Oum El Bouaghi University as the intended treatment and wanted to test the influence of teaching writing through metacognitive strategies.

4.3 Research Methods

Methodically speaking, there are two major approaches to data gathering and evaluation: quantitative and qualitative. A basic distinction between quantitative and qualitative studies is that the former entails numeric information, while the latter includes data that are not numeric. The quantitative approaches to research design, data collection procedures, and methods of data analysis are the dominant paradigm in the area of empirical research (Adam, Fuji, & Mackey, 2005). Moreover, quantitative approaches provide precise presentations of findings related to research hypothesis (Chen, 2005). The nature of the current research implies the need of both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

foreign language researchers are supplied with numerous tools that they may follow when doing their researches, yet they have to test the suitability of those tools considering that each single one has its own traits which are designed to reach a particular aim (Blaxter et al.: 2006). It is worth repeating that the fundamental goal of

the prevailing research is to offer a systematic ground to teach the writing skill, and to enhance EFL learners' writing proficiency through the implementation of metacognitive strategies. In accordance with the experimental and descriptive nature of the methodological decision opted for in the current study, data collection was based on the students' test and student and teacher questionnaires. This combination, in fact, was used for three main reasons: to test the hypotheses, provide a richer detail and analysis, and to confirm the obtained results from each instrument.

4.3.1 Writing Tests

A test, according to Brown "is a way of measuring someone's ability or understanding in a given area" (2001: 384). In other words, a test is designed to gauge the learner's achievements in a particular field. A test is said to "measure what is meant to measure" (Hughes, 1989; 22; Flucher & Davidsone, 2007: 4) and its suitability is anchored in three criteria: **practicality, reliability** and **validity**. A **practicality** test is a test that is easy to manage, to score and to interpret. It is also enclosed by means of time constraints and financial limitations. However, a **reliability** test is a test that is dependable and consistent; whereas a **valid** test reveals "its appropriateness or any of its component parts as a measure of what it is supposed to measure" (Henning: 1987: 170; Flucher & Davidsone, 2007: 4).

According to Brown (2001: 390-391), there are five types of tests: **proficiency tests**, whose motive is to check general ability in a language; ie. they're no longer restrained to a selected curriculum, a course or a selected language skill; **diagnostic tests**, whose essential purpose is to diagnose a precise feature of a language; **placement tests**, whose goal is to place the learner into the appropriate level of school or a language curriculum; **achievement tests**, whose purpose is to determine the success of the materials covered in a given curriculum at the end of the instruction, and **aptitude tests**, whose point is to measure a person's capacity to learn a foreign language.

In this study, two tests were used as a form of measurement of the students' writing performance for the purpose of confirming or disconfirming the former hypothesis of this research. More specifically, the researcher was interested in measuring the use of metacognitive strategies in the students writing before and after the treatment. As such, a writing' pre-test was administered prior to the beginning of the treatment and a post-test following it. Further details are reported throughout this chapter

4.3.2 Student and Teacher Questionnaire

In 2nd language research, one of the most frequently used tools of gathering information is the questionnaire. Actually, the questionnaire's popularity is due to numerous reasons: "they are easy to construct, extraordinarily versatile, and uniquely capable of collecting a massive amount of data quickly in a form that is easily processable." (Dorneyi, 2003: 1). it follows that, an effective questionnaire construction begins with respecting, first, the length, in the sense that, it must not be more than four (4) pages and, the time, for it should not take more than thirty minutes to be completed (Dorneyi: 2003, Dorneyi & Clement: 2001).

A questionnaire is composed of a various set of questions; dichotomous questions. in this form of questions, the respondent's answers are supposed to be a "yes" or a "no" answer. As for the multiple choice questions, the respondents are supplied with many alternatives of answers, open ended and close ended questions. the former type offers the respondents all freedom to express their opinions and points of views with no restricted choice, in contrast to the latter type that gives the respondents a limited range of selections that do not permit them to add other comments, and rating scales that are related to grading (likert scale, semantic differential scale, numerical rating scales, etc).

In the current study, two questionnaires were designed. The first questionnaire was addressed to the experimental group participants to elicit their attitudes toward using metacognition as a means to teach writing as well as to elicit their feedback about the treatment that they were part of. The second questionnaire was given to second year Written Expression teachers to demonstrate their attitudes and beliefs about nearly the same themes addressed in the student questionnaire. Again, further details will be displayed throughout this chapter.

4.3.3 Statistical Methods

For a thorough and scientifically valid analysis of research results, a set of statistical analysis tools were opted for. First, the researcher used descriptive statistics to describe the obtained data. Second, he used inferential statistics to make conclusions beyond the data that she analyzed and to reach conclusions regarding the postulated hypotheses.

4.4 Descriptive Statistics

4.4.1 Central Tendency

In this study, it was displayed through two indicators: the mean and the mode. The mean "is found by adding together every score and dividing the total by the number of scores" (Miller, 1974, p. 23), while the mode is "the most frequently occurring value in a set of scores", Miller adds.

4.4.2 Dispersion

It was indicated through the lowest and highest scores with their respective frequencies.

4.5 Inferential Statistics

Inferential data consists of the methods that permit the researcher to generalise his/her findings from a sample to the whole population by means of testing the hypothesis (Chen, 2005). It, additionally, enables the researcher determine "whether or not the results confirm the anticipated outcomes of the independent variable" (Miller, 1974: 35). These procedures are accomplished in the mathematical universe by inferring the mathematical formula from the real world sample, working no the formula in the mathematical universe (Katz, 2006), and draw conclusions about the experiment effects.

4.5.1.1 The Statistical Test

Quantitative researches are frequently undertaken using particular statistical tests. Selecting the appropriate statistical test can be a difficult step in research methodology, yet Chen (2005) clarifies two varieties of research interests based on which a researcher can determine the test that best fits his/her data and variables: evaluating group differences and examining relations between variables. The t test is one method for group assessment for mean differences which anticipate that the rankings of the two groups come from normal populations with equal variance and the measurements are on an interval scale (Miller, 1974). In the contemporary research, the independent samples t tests appear to fit the data. It includes a "comparison of the performance between an experiment group and a control group to assess the effectiveness of a certain remedy." (Chen, 2005: 34).

Based on the aforementioned description, the researcher plumped for the independent-sample t-test to discover the possibility that the difference between the mean of the experimental group and the control group arose by chance or by means of enforcing the metacognitive strategies as a method in the curriculum of second year students of English along with Written Expression.

4.5.1.2 The Independent Sample T-test

The independent t-test is a statistical test which is used to compare the means between two unrelated groups. It answers the question of whether the difference between the compared means is statistically significant. For this purpose, one needs two variables from one population and sample.

This test involves a mathematical formula for calculating the value of the observed t, and then comparing it to the value of the tabulated t. The latter is determined by three criteria namely: the type of the hypothesis, the number of degree of freedom, and the level of significance. First, one needs to know the nature of the research hypothesis: whether it is one-tailed or a two-tailed hypothesis. In this study, it is one–tailed because the researcher was hoping to promote the students' writing. Second, to specify the critical value, it is important to calculate the degree of freedom. Mathematically, its formula is N1+N2 -2 (N1 and N2 stand for the number of the two independent sets of scores). The third criterion refers to the level of significance. In this study, the researcher selected 0.05 level; that is, he was 90% confident that the results were due to the reflection of the treatment, but 10% of the results were actually just due to chance.

Before listing the steps needed for calculating an independent t-test, below are the meanings of the abbreviation used in the computation of the observed t.

- N_1= stands for the number of the participants of the first group.

- N_2= stands for the number of the participants of the second group.

- x = stands for the mean of the first group.

- x2= stands for the mean of the second group.

- $S_1{}^2$= stands for the variance of the first group.

- $S_2{}^2$= stands for the variance of the second group.

- df= degree of freedom.

The steps

1. Calculating the two groups means

$$\bar{X}_1 = \overline{\qquad} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{X}_2 = \overline{\qquad}$$

2. Calculating the two variances $S_1{}^2$ and $S_2{}^2$

$$S_1{}^2 = \overline{\qquad} - x^2 \quad \text{and} \quad S_2{}^2 = \overline{\qquad}$$

3. Calculating the observed t for independent samples

4. Determining degrees of freedom for t

$$df = N_1 + N_2 - 2$$

5. Comparing the obtained t with the critical value

4.6 Research Procedures

Once the research design was completed, the researcher shifted to the application step by step. Before embarking on the main study procedures, it is worthy to mention that a pilot study was conducted foremost to find the bugs in these procedures.

4.6.1 Piloting the Study

Very often, the direct implementation of the research experiments could be risky, leading to dire consequences. Pilot study could be an important initial step to avoid any kindof practical problems which a researcher may encounter during conducting a research.

Anderson and Arsenault (2004, pp. 11- 12) refer to the pilot study as:

A small scale study conducted prior to the actual research. The entire pilot study is conducted in order to test the procedures and techniques to that they work satisfactory. Additionally, pilot studies are used to test questionnaires and other instruments and to see whether there is any possibility that worthwhile results will be found.

The pilot study of the current research was the initial step of the practical application of the experiment, as well as the initial step of the use of the students and teachers' questionnaires.

4.6.1.1 The experiment

4.6.1.1.1 Description

A pilot study was undertaken in 2016- 2017 in the department of English at Oum El Bouaghi University with other participants who share the same characteristics with the participants of the main study. In other terms, during the academic year of 2016-2017, the participants of the main study were in first year, while those whom the researcher conducted with the pilot study were in second year. Actually, during that year, the researcher did not intend to reach conclusions but, rather to get properly prepared for the experiment which would take place the next year with other participants. Through the pilot study, the researcher endeavored to:

- Design carefully the experiment.

- Train himself and get accustomed to the aspects of the experiment

- Identify the potential practical problems which may occur while teaching metacognitive strategies in L2 writing classroom.

- Scrutinize and account for the difficult aspects of metacognitive knowledge and regulation.

- Record approximately the time needed for conducting the experiment.

To attain these aims, primary data was gleaned from the researcher classroom observation and secondary data from a conversation with the student participants

without seeking final results because the students writing tests were not piloted due to the simplicity of the instructions that made the input comprehensible and time constraints. As obtaining final results was out of the researcher concerns, he reported what happens in the pilot study qualitatively for the sake of describing only the design and the changes which took place in the main study.

The researcher carried out eight observation sessions in total. The duration of each was 40 minutes. He exclusively limited to observe what took place with regards to the aims set for the pilot study. We provided a description according to three dimensions: teaching writing through metacognitive knowledge and regulation, time allocated, and the materials used in instruction.

As for the participants, they were 30 second year students (22 female and 8 males). Four participants were not attending the course regularly during the observation sessions. As for the metacognitive strategies being used, they were selected on the basis of their relevance to the investigation at hand as well as their expediency reported by scholars in the research literature.

In each observation session, the teacher researcher engaged the students in using one metacognitive strategy as the starting point in the accomplishment of their writing tasks. The first three sessions were devoted to the lexico-gramamatical accuracy. While the remaining five sessions emphasized the text organization features. put differently, each session was devoted to one aspect of evaluation chosen by the researcher in the main study.

More specifically, each time the teacher researcher focuses on a specific aspect, he provides the students with a metacognitive strategy, raise their familiarization with it, and then assign a task to be accomplished.

Besides classroom observation, the researcher undertook a conversation with the student participants in order to understand which aspect of writing skills was

challenging to them. Further to that, the researcher sought to. This informal conversation with the students was useful as it provided the researcher with interesting details that he could not notice during the observation.

4.6.1.1.2 Results and Discussion

Initially, the results regarding teaching metacognitive strategies separately detached from the context with minor practice seemed to be problematic in some areas. The researcher noticed and even confirmed from the conversation with the students that it was difficult for the participants to understand how to use these strategies efficiently. Some students showed discomfort in the lectures of self reflection and metacognitive scaffolding, the reason why they bombarded the teacher with a series of questions. This was quite reasonable as these two aspects were new for them and difficult even to those who are familiar with them. Another noticed problematic area was in teaching the text organisation patterns of expository writing. In particular, comparison/contrast and cause/effect patterns were the most difficult patterns in comparison with the other patterns. Accordingly, based on the preliminary findings, the researcher decided to provide the students with theoretical handouts to make foremost the students familiar with and then to use metacognition as a reinforcement.

As far as metacognitive strategies are concerned, the researcher observed that some of these strategies engendered a great difficulty for the students. Though they are addressed to be used by target participants, the latter encountered difficulties to conceive some of the strategies (self actualization and positive self-talk) and make out the best use of them. This could be an evident sign of the students' low metacognitive skills. As such, the researcher took this point into consideration and decided to discard any strategy which may hinder his ability to reach the ultimate purpose of the research. In particular, he got rid of these two strategies and replaced them with other ones that were perceived to be less problematic for the participants.

The time allocated for teaching each element of matacognition was also taken into consideration during the observation. It was clear that forty minutes was not sufficient. On this account, the researcher concluded that the time should be increased.

Regarding the students' reactions and attitudes toward incorporating metacognition in the writing course, the conversation which the researcher made with the student participants in the classroom revealed that the students enjoyed the instructions, especially when the selected strategies were within the students' reach. They added that the courses were more admissible to them, the content more motivating, capturing, and authentic.

4.6.2 Students' and Teachers' Questionnaires

Once the student and the teacher questionnaires were formulated, the researcher felt that piloting them is paramount. The aim was to check that the design works in practice and to point out, amend or discard the problematic questions. Any problem related to the content, layout, wording, length, or instructions was uncovered and amended accordingly.

The student questionnaire was distributed to seven participants of the main study out of thirty participants of the experimental group to whom the questionnaire was targeted. On the other hand, the first draft of the teacher questionnaire was sent to three teachers in the field for commenting. After receiving the students and teachers' comments, the researcher reworked the questionnaires based on the comments obtained. Undoubtedly, some items of the questionnaires were revised and modified, others were removed at all for they did not provide pertinent data, and some others were appended to ensure getting the required information.

4.6.3 Conducting the Main Study

The procedures followed in the main study are as follows:

4.6.3.1 The Pre-test

At the beginning of the treatment, both experimental group and control group took the pre-writing test concurrently. It was designed for the purpose of assessing the students writing performance in terms of the appropriate use of some selected aspects of lexico-grammatical accuracy as well as text organization skills and for making sure that there is no significant difference between the performance of the experimental and control group participants.

The pre-test consisted of a writing assignment which had to be completed in the classroom circumstances. It was dealt with in one of the regular writing sessions which lasted ninety minutes. The key requirement of the assignment was to produce an essay with not less than 250 words about the topic of "mental and physical health". In fact, the participants were given a ternary choice of the topic, but it eventually fell on the mentioned topic, because according to them, it was the most familiar, interesting, and motivating.

Generally, the pre-test can be described as a simplified assignment since the instruction purposefully did not direct the participants' attention to the test's aim. It was entirely up to the subjects to fulfill the requirement according to their own interpretation. In other words, the statement of the topic was deliberately worded that way (See appendix A) so that the subjects themselves decide how to organize the essay on the basis of the topic and their interpretation. An extra advantage of this open approach was that it avoided making the task impossible for the participants who had no knowledge of how a particular kind of expository essay should be structured. The unique emphasis of the instruction was on the words number of the essay. The aim was

to ensure that all the participants would develop adequate sentences needed in the analysis, because the rubric guidelines of some aspects of writing are based on estimating the frequency of errors. The longer the essay is the more the errors can be seen in the participants' essays. Once the participants completed the pre-test, their copies were gathered for analyzing, assessing, and scoring.

4.6.3.1.1 Assessing the Pre-test

As detailed earlier in the theoretical account, there are three prominent ways of assessing students' written productions: analytic, holistic, and primary trait scales. Frequently used, the holistic scale reflects the rater's overall impression of the writing and therefore a single mark is assigned to the entire piece of writing. Analytic scale, on the other hand, provides separate scores in predetermined areas of effective writing like content, organization, grammar, etc. Trait primary scale offers some feedback potential for a particular aspect of written production which improves the ultimate accomplishment of the purpose.

Although the last scale is the least common scoring type in assessing writing, it is usually reserved for research situations or situations in which data are desired concerning students' mastery of specific writing aspects or skills. As the current study is concerned with bringing metacognitive dimensions in writing, the primary trait is a purposeful and high-quality composition. For this sake, the researcher has suggested eight aspects arranged under two main levels of evaluation for the evaluation. These levels and aspects include: lexico-grammar (grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation) and text organization skills (cohesion, coherence, types of essay development, topic sentence and thesis statement)

Once the aforementioned aspects have been intelligibly established, the researcher has shifted to establish a relevant scoring system that could measure appropriately the performance of the experimental and control group participants. Each

aspect was given a score which was allocated in the rating scale from 05 points to 00 according to a specific guideline. In other words, each aspect was worth a total of five marks, which totaled up to 40 marks (see Appendix ….). More specifically, the assessment of each aspect was based on error counting; that is, the quantifier in the rating scale was identified according to a specific number of errors. In order to establish validity of the scoring according to the guideline, essays were double examined and marked by another teacher. Discrepancies in the pair marking were resolved by having a third teacher.

The total scores obtained by each subject in the pre-test were calculated to make the global performance of each group emerge. This global pre-test performance was expressed statistically through the mean, mode, and dispersion aspects. The pre-test performance of each group in each aspect, however, was displayed only through the mean.

4.6.3.1.2 The Treatment

In educational researches, very often, a treatment or intervention is manipulated to examine the effectiveness of one variable on another. In this study, after completing the writing pre-test, the experimental group participants received a treatment based on the product approach combined with metacognitive strategies in the writing classroom, while the control group participants were treated differently. The treatment was delivered over a period of twelve weeks with an average of two sessions per week; that is, a total of twenty four sessions, each lasted ninety minutes. The teacher researcher also brought the students twice out of their normal sessions. Including this last, the pre-test, post-test, and the experimental group participants' questionnaire, the right number of all the sessions was twenty nine sessions..

4.6.3.2.2 Teaching the Experimental Group

In the current study, the experimental group subjects received explicit instructions in two competencies of writing named lexico-grammar and text organization through an exclusive use of the product approach combined with metacognition. Lexicogrammar aspects include grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation. While text organization skills include cohesion, coherence, types of essay development, topic sentence, and thesis statement. The treatment consisted of three phases: lexico-grammar, text organization, and overall practice. Theses phases in turn involved different lectures as shown under.

It is to be noted that the current study suggests the exclusive implementation of the product approach combined with metacognitive strategies. As such, the suggested approach uses two paradigms; the product approach and metacognition. The former has been proved, by scholars, to be fundamentally effective in developing the students' grammatical abilities. While having various shortcomings, the implementation of the product approach per se raises the students' familiarsation with grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation. There are various strategies the product advocators claim to be effective. One available strategy is modeling. The latter has been opted for by the researcher with slight distinction in implementing it so that it becomes metacognitive modeling which, unlike the traditional modeling, is accompanied with self-reflection and actualization. Having said that, the lexico-grammatical' skills are taught using the product approach conventions with a metacognitive touch being adopted.

As for the text organization skill, the researcher combined the product approach with three different, highly recommended, metacognitive skills know as metacognitive scaffolding, self-reflection, and cooperative learning as it will be shown later.

Lecture 1: Introduction

The treatment started with a broad introduction to the notions of metacognitive writing. The overall aim of this introduction was to pave the way for the upcoming instruction. More specifically, the subjects were first introduced to the notion of metacognition since it was a new term for them. Then, they were told about the difference between the narrative and expository compositions. Further details, after that, were devoted to expository writing as it was the study concern. Finally, the students got exposed to the idea that metacognitive knowledge helps them acquire the necessary knowledge in essay production, while the metacognitive regulation pertains to the strategies used to put the acquired knowledge into practice. The subjects were also made aware that using these strategies helps them develop their lexico-grammatical as well as text organization competencies.

Lectures 2-13: Lexico-grammatical Competence

Throughout this period of training, the researcher opted for three elements that reveal the accuracy of essays, namely: grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation.

Grammar

At this phase of instruction, grammar is taught through the use of modeling as a metacognitive strategy. Despite being taught deductively, it moves away from being teacher-centered to teacher/student centered where both parts play major roles in reaching the objectives of the lesson. We started by giving the participants the rules, then example, then asking the student to model and reflect upon what has been done before while practicing the acquired knowledge. As grammar in the current participants level include many aspects, the researcher selected two major elements within grammar in terms of models and prepositions as they are included in the curriculum of second year.

<u>Vocabulary</u>

Once teaching grammar was over, the teacher researcher moved to teaching vocabulary. Using the same metacognitive strategy (modeling), the research addressed the issue of context and how can the same word mean different things in different context. On the board, the teacher instructor used several words which tend to change meaning whenever implemented in different contexts. Another issue raised by the researcher is the receptive/ productive vocabulary. This dichotomy tends to create some difficulties when student come to use vocabulary in their writing. To address this issue, the researcher emphasized that students must:

- Know that a word is made up of several morphological parts (ex, underdeveloped) and be able to relate these parts to the intended meaning.

- Know the meaning of each acquired word and also what it means in the particular context in which it is used.

- Understand the concept behind the word so that they can use it to mean different things in different context.

As for productive vocabulary, the researcher used modeling to help students

- Properly write the word with a correct spelling

- Produce the word to express its proper meaning

- Correctly use this newly acquired word in an original sentence.

The subjects were made aware that if any of the preceding elements is violated, their vocabulary cannot convey the intended meaning.

Punctuation

Similarly, this part of instructions included using modeling as a strategy to teach punctuation. Comma, colon, and semi colon are the punctuation marks included in this part of the instructional practice. In terms of classroom practice, the teacher provided the participants with handouts about punctuation to be revised previously. During the lesson, each aspect has been elaborated in details by providing models of how the comma, colon, and semicolon are used by native speakers in the academic compositions. The teacher modeled authentic and representative texts on board and asked student to follow a threefold process. First, identify which of these punctuation marks is used. Then the reason behind using it, and ultimately students are asked to autonomously use these marks in original sentences.

Lectures 14-22: text organization skills

This part of instructional practice included the implementation of the product approach with some metacognitive strategies to teach cohesion, coherence, types of essay development, topic sentence, and thesis statement. The strategies in question are metacognitive scaffolding, cooperative learning, and self reflection

Cohesive devices

The overall purpose of this lecture was to make the participants aware of the different cohesive devices. They were introduced to Halliday and Hasan (1976) taxonomy which comprises: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, reiteration, and collocation. Cooperatively learning was the selected strategy through which these devices have been presented.

Coherence relation

Similarly through the use of cooperative learning, the teacher researcher identified the different coherence relations found between the sentences. We did not designate the kinds of the relations because they are plenty, but rather we had more interest in making the subjects grasp the notion of logical coherence relations and apply it in written productions appropriately.

Types of development

Through this lecture, the participants were introduced to the various types of expository essay development that they must be aware of in their second year of study. These encompassed: cause/effect, development by examples, development by definition, and comparison/ contrast type. Self-reflection is the metacognitive strategy used by the student to acquire the ability not just to apply on the income they receive but also to learn how to reflect upon it during and after being involved in the accomplishment of tasks. Self-reflection involves the students ability to ask questions about the needed type of development and to analyse, deconstruct, and brain-storm the dynamics of the type they are developing before handing back the final written products.

Thesis statement

This lecture included instruction about what is needed to produce efficient thesis statements. Being the most important sentence in the whole essay, as some scholars claim, the teacher researcher gave special attention to this area as it seems very problematic to the participants. The latter were provided by handouts about the production of thesis statements prior to instructing it in details in the classroom. Scaffolding was the metacognitive strategy used to equip the participants with the necessary income pertained to what a correct thesis statement is, where to place it, its

use and contribution the quality of the essay, the impact it exerts on the audience, and the kind of information a thesis statement must convey.

<u>Topic sentence</u>

The last lecture in this phase was about teaching the topic sentence. Similarly, metacogntive scaffolding was used to raise the students familiarization with what is a topic sentence, its placement, contribution the quality of the paragraph, the difference between main and supporting ideas, the forms that a topic sentence can and cannot take, and the kind of information a correct topic sentence should transmit.

Lecture 23- 26: Overall Practice

The last phase of the treatment was devoted to the application of the knowledge gained from the previous lectures. Throughout this phase, the participants were asked to produce essays with the aim of putting in practice all what they learnt. The teacher's job was to provide them with corrective feedback. Once they completed the writing assignment which centered on the appropriate application of the selected aspects of writing, they were requested to exchange their papers with each other for the sake of reading, analyzing, and discussing the success or failure of the essay production.

4.6.3.2.3 Procedures of the Lesson Plan

During the first two phases of intervention, the instruction of the aforementioned aspects was explicit and teacher-based. It involved four basic stages namely: anticipatory set, modeling, awareness-raising, and writing practice. These stages of instruction, portrayed below in details, were applied to each individual aspect targeted in this study.

Anticipatory Set

This stage of instruction was designed to have a direct relevance to the instructional objectives set for the lecture. Via an opening statement, the teacher researcher attempted to acquaint the participants with the selected skills to be achieved. He provided a general description of what the aspect is about. It is worth mentioning that the participants were furnished prior to the lecture with a handout related to each underlined element of instruction. However, the handout was given as a home' support assignment because of some practical constraints, mainly time. The researcher considered that taking the handouts home may allow the participants to take more time to read and understand as well as to use other available sources of information that could help them. They may, for instance, use Internet to get rid of a particular kind of difficulty or simply to enlarge their knowledge

Modeling

According to Hirvela (2004: 126), modeling is to "have students study, through close reading, models of the kinds of texts they are expected to write." In this stage, the participants were given models of each aspect under scrutiny and even model text for global essay production to read, discuss the requirements of assignment which were comprehension questions, and finally analyze the selected aspect. The teacher researcher got the lion share of the instruction, while the students' main job was to follow him. Once again, it is necessary to emphasise the importance of modeling in the investigation at hand due to the fact that it is omnipresent in the product approach paradigm as well as its consideration to be one of the most efficient metacognitive skills. as such, it appears at both sides of the ocean (product approach, and meatacognition). That is why it is almost implemented along the whole instructional practice.

Awareness-raising

To whatever extent the teacher can be successful in explaining and modeling the selected aspect, it does not replace the participants' individual performance. In the course of repeating the teacher behavior of dealing with the selected aspect, the participants may develop more awareness of its successful application. Accordingly, during this stage, the participants were provided with a text and asked to focus on the structural elements used to achieve a lexico-grammatical accuracy along with a competent global organization of the text, while the teacher's assistance was withdrawn increasingly. The aim behind this was to cause the participants absorb lonely what they learnt in the two preceding stages, and therefore make conscious decisions about how to apply the learned income in writing.

Writing Practice

In this stage, the subjects were asked to write an essay focusing on the previously learnt aspects of writing, while the teacher's role was to provide feedback.

4.6.3.2.4 Teaching the Control Group

The control group participants were taught through the following procedures. They were not instructed through the product approach, rather the process paradigm. They were not also introduced to the notions of metacognitive knowledge and regulation. More specifically, they were taught aspects of writing through a set of compiled handouts providing theoretical lessons about grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, cohesion, coherence, types of essay development, topic sentence, and thesis statement. The participants of the control group were provided with only few models of essays for the sake of illustrating parts of the lessons; of course, without stressing the significance of metacognitive strategies in producing high-quality compositions.

In short, the teacher's main emphasis with the experimental group participants was to have the students learn, acquire, analyze, and use metacognitive strategies in their lexico-grammatical as well as text organization competencies. On the other hand, the teacher's major emphasis with the control group was on having the students write as many possible essays in order to provide feedback about aspects of writing in general.

4.6.3.4 The Post-test

Immediately, after the treatment was over, a post-test was administrated to both experimental group and control group under similar environmental conditions as were available for the pre-test. The aim was to check to what extent the experimental group participants' writing improved as a result of the proposed method of teaching.

4.6.4.3.1Assessing the Post-test

The participants' post-test writing essays were assessed following the same procedures used in the pre-test.

4.6.5 Students' Questionnaire

4.6.5.1 Aim of the Questionnaire

Following the collection of the post-test essays, and in a usually held class meeting, a questionnaire was administered to the experimental group participants. It was mainly designed to find out about the participants' attitudes toward the incorporation of metacognition as a means for teaching writing, especially teaching through the product approach combined with metacognitive strategies.

4.6.5.1.1 Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire of the experimental group subjects covered four sections set to investigate the objective stated previously. The first section was meant to gain better understanding of the respondents' perceptions of learning writing. The next section was designed to elicit the subjects' attitudes toward the significance of metacognitive knowledge and evaluate their awareness levels in general. More importantly, the third section investigated the subjects' opinions about the role of metacognitive strategies in improving their writing skills. In the last section, the participants were requested to add any suggestion that they see relevant to the aim of the questionnaire.

As far as the items are concerned, they were 32 in number arranged in the previous main sections. They were either (1) closed items (requiring from the students to choose 'yes' or 'no' answers, to pick up the appropriate answer from a number of choices, or just to order); (2) scale items (requesting them to select their responses from among a set of fixed alternatives representing degrees of difficulties); (3) or open ended items (designed with the purpose of yielding data through responses written in the respondents' own words).

The key objective of the first section, from item 1 to item 6, was to get an idea about writing in general since it is the skill desired by the researcher to be developed. For example, item 1 and 2 were devoted to knowing whether the students perceive the difficulty of writing and its sources. Items 3 and 4 were designed to confirm the actual unsatisfying level of writing and what makes the students unsatisfied. Items 5, 6, and were put to get information about aspects of writing; the aim was to know whether the students were aware of the importance, difficulty, and improvement of some aspects, especially lexico-grammar and text organization which are the study main concerns.

The second section main aim was to view the students' standpoints about the significance of metacognitive awareness in general as this research is centered on this

skill. The section started from item 7 to item 12. Initially, through item 7, the researcher had insights about the efficiency of the students' metacognitive awareness. Item 8 was put as a further inquiry to bring into light the participants awareness of their strength and weaknesses of writing, as well as the way they perceive, detect, and deal with these weaknesses. Item 9 and 10 were included to support the finding of the previous one. It serves the same purpose of detecting the students' level of the metacognitive declarative knowledge. Then, items, 11, and 12 were set for the sake of exhibiting the students' procedural knowledge efficacy. The reason behind including this question was to determine whether or not the participants do have the necessary procedural knowledge that allows them to account for a battery of strategies and then select which one or ones are more appropriate according to the tasks and contexts. The last item in this section was intended to reveal the utility of each implemented strategy. As it completes the previous question, it was included whether or not the participants have the ability to check the effectiveness of the implemented techniques.

The focus of the third section (item 13 to item 32) was limited down to an inquiry into the students' perceptions, attitudes, and levels of the metacognitive regulation. The latter rests at the heart of the research at hand as it constitutes the third element of metacognition. After accounting for declarative and procedural knowledge of metacognition, it was necessary to scrutinize the most important realm of this investigation which is the metacognitive regulation. The latter refers the students' ability of implementing the selected range of strategies in the accomplishment of their writing tasks. As such, this section included various items pertained to the students' standpoints toward the acquisition as well as implementation of each and every strategy and their reflections on it. Because the researcher selected a wide range of activities, this section contained much more items by comparison to the previous ones not only because of the metacognitive strategies caliber, but also its high connection and contribution to the fundamental issues being raised in this study.

Items 13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20 were included to capture the students' attitudes towards the importance as well implementation of what is technically known as the basic metacognitive strategies. The latter have been proven by scholars to be the bedrock on the basics of which metacognitive regulation rests. These basic skills include goal setting, planning, organizing, monitoring, and revising. Items 21 and 22 were put in order to gain insights into the students' opinions of the implementation of self-reflection as a metacognitive strategy. Self-questioning is another dimension accounted for by the researcher through items 23, 24. Items 25, 26 were pertinent to the participants' perception and reaction to the use of cooperative learning in the writing classroom. At the end of this section, modeling and scaffolding were emphasized. The respondents were asked to state their opinion about these metacognitive strategies in items 27, 28,29,30, and 31.

The questionnaire also included 'any suggestion' section. This last section aimed to allow the experimental group students to voice any concerns that they may had as regards the significance of metacognition in the accomplishment of their writing tasks.

4.6.5.2 Teachers' Questionnaire

4.6.5.2.1Aim of the Questionnaire

The teacher questionnaire was handed out directly to fifteen second year teachers of Written Expression at the department of English at Om El Bouaghi University. The overall aim of this questionnaire was twofold: first to gather data about the teachers' perception of their students level of writing as well as their attitudes toward teaching.

4.6.5.2.2. Description of the Questionnaire

In order to meet the aforementioned aims set for this questionnaire, twenty three questions were put. These questions were, in turn, divided into five broad sections which were entitled as follows:

1- General information

2- Teaching writing

3- Teachers attitudes towards the process and the product approaches

4 – Metacognition and the product approach

5 Further suggestion

As for the items, they were the same types used in the students' questionnaire. In other words, teachers were required to choose 'yes' or 'no' answers, pick up the appropriate answers from a number of alternatives, or just order. In addition, a scale of items was used to select a response among a set of fixed alternatives representing degrees of emphasis, as well as open ended items designed with the purpose of yielding written responses in the teachers' own words.

The first two items (1, 2, and 3) constituted the first section and were meant to get general information about the teachers' degree held and number of years of teaching Written Expression. The second section, item 4 through item 8, aimed at finding out about the classroom teaching practices of Written Expression teachers. Initially, the participants were invited to show their satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the actual level of second year students writing (item 4). The purpose of this question was to compare the students' responses with that of the teachers. Item five (5) was administered to capture the teachers' belief about their students' motivation and interest whenever involved in the act of writing. Item 6 sought to determine the teachers' stances about the skill that is less likely to be pleasant for the students among the four language skills.

item 7 was set to reveal the aspect which engendered the greatest difficulty to students while writing. Once again, this last item was devoted to both teachers and students. In items 8, the participants were required to mention to what they attribute the difficulties they selected in the previous question. characterize the students' essays' organization. Knowing about the actual level of the students in this aspect from the teachers' standpoint may corroborate to some extent the test findings and reveal the teachers perception of that aspect.

The third section which contains seven questions mainly aimed at reporting the teachers' attitudes about the product and the process approaches. Item 9 and 10 was included to reveal what approach teachers use in teaching Written Expression and the reason behind adhering to the adopted approach. The next item (11) sought to unveil whether or not the participant think that the approach being used meet the students needs and satisfy the instructional objectives. Question (12) was put to bring to light the teachers' attitudes and kind of difficulties they encounter when using the process approach to L2 writing. Items 13 and 14 were administered to gauge the teachers' attitudes towards their students' ability to follow all the stages of the writing process. Unlike the previous items, this one was exclusively meant to reveal the participants' views and beliefs about the shortcomings of the product approach.

The fourth section was entitled "metacognition and the product approach". It includes seven questions (16 to 22). Item 16 was meant to reveal the teachers' standpoint about their students' ability of using the basic metacognitive strategies in terms of setting goals, planning, monitoring, revising, and editing. Item 17 revealed the teachers frequency of using cooperative learning in the teaching of L2 writing. Similarly to the previous item, this one revealed whether or not teachers incorporate self-reflection in their instructional practice (18). Item 19 was meant to demonstrate whether or not teachers use metacognitive scaffolding as a strategy in their writing classes. As for item 20, it revealed the teachers frequency of using modeling in their teaching of L2

writing. Item 21 was relevant to the participants' frequency of using metacognitive self-questioning as a teaching strategy. The final question was administered as an umbrella items which encompasses all the various metacognitive strategies and the participants' views about the expediency of incorporating such strategies in their teaching of L2 writing. .

At the end of the questionnaire, the researcher opened up 'any suggestions' section, where the teachers were asked to share any comment or feedback regarding the aim set for this questionnaire.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, the researcher attempted to describe what has been put into practice. As detailed earlier, the current study participants were students and teachers and the research design was a mixture of experimental and descriptive as the nature of the study entails. Moreover, the quantitative method of collecting data was dominantly used. In accordance with the experimental and descriptive nature of the methodological decision opted for, the writing tests, student questionnaire, and teacher questionnaire were used as instruments. As for calculating the significance of the results, the independent sample t- test was used as a statistical test. The chapter finally dealt with the procedures adopted in the pilot and the main study. In the next two chapters, data analysis and interpretation will be reported and lengthily discussed.

Chapter Five

The Test

CHAPTER FIVE: THE TEST

Introduction

This chapter has the aim of reporting part of the global findings of the current investigation. It provides the analysis of the student's written products handed out by both the experimental as well as the control groups. Initially, the pre-test results are reported to denote to what extent both groups are effective in using aspects of metacognitive knowledge and regulation in the writing process. Afterwards, the post test results are displayed in order to identify whether the outcome of the experimental group has got a positive change due to the experimental instructions. The data gathered throughout this chapter enable the researcher to confirm the set hypothesis which is formulated as follows: *if learners raise their metacognitive knowledge and incorporate the metacognitive strategies in the accomplishment of their writing tasks, their writing performance is more likely to be proficient*.

5.1 The pre-test Results

In this part of the chapter, the gathered data pertained to the pre-test are elaborated. More precisely, the results of the global performance of the experimental and the control groups must initially be dealt with rapport to the corresponding central tendency and dispersion so that the image of the participants overall behaviours gets more evident. Then, the findings of each group are compared with respect to the effective use of metacognitive strategies and ultimately the efficiency of their written products.

As far as the results' analysis is concerned, it is noteworthy to refer to the way the researcher structured the research at hand. For the sake of simplicity and directness, the efficiency of the writing skills, in the current investigation, is reflected

in the students mastery of eight (8) aspects selected by the researcher, referred to in the theoretical chapters, and implemented in the Instructional practice. These eight aspects are grouped under two general categories named the lexico-grammatical competence and the text organization competences. The former includes three main areas in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation. As for the latter, it includes cohesion, coherence, types of essay development, topic sentence, and thesis statement.

The choice of these two umbrella categories is far away from being random. On the contrary, it is at the heart of the research at hand in the sense that it accompanies the investigation's main interests with the endeavor of achieving them. The instructional practice we suggest to tackle the underlined difficulties of writing is a combination of the product approach with metacognition in the teaching of L2 writing. The product approach has long proved its efficiency in equipping students with the necessary lexico-grammatical competence while leaving room for discourse and text orginisation dilemmas to emerge. Such difficulties are then tackled by bringing a metacognitive dimension to the arena of teaching L2 writing. It is now crystal clear why the researcher chose lexico-grammar (a defining characteristic of the product approach) and text organization features (aspects ascertained by metacognition).

5.1.1 Overall Pre-test Performance

Group	Central Tendency		Dispersion			
	Mean	Mode	Low	Fr	High	Fr
Experimental	**17.7**	14	10	2	26	1
Control	**17.9**	18	11	1	28	1

Table 5.1: Participants' Overall Behavior during the Pre-test

Table (5.1) shows that the mean score of the overall performance on the pre-test of the participants in the experimental group is (17.7), while that of the participants

in the control group is (17.9). As such, the control group seems to have the better performance. The mode indicates that the most frequent score is (14) in the experimental group and (18) in the control group. As for dispersion indicators, both of the groups are nearly similar. The lowest scores (10) and (11) were obtained by only one participant of the experimental group and the control group respectively, and the highest score (23) was got by a single participant in both groups as well.

Chiefly, comparisons of the means, central tendency, and dispersion aspects denote that prior to the treatment, the students in both groups produced nearly equivalent levels in writing; therefore, if any increase or decrease in the students writing skills is to take place after the treatment, it would be attributable to the underwent instructional practice.

5.1.1.2 Pre test Results of Lexico-grammar and Text Organisation

5.1.1.2.1 Pre-test Results of the Lexico-Grammar Levels of the Experimental and Control Groups

Pre-test	Experimental group mean	Control group mean
Grammar	**2.20**	**2.42**

Table 5.2: Pre-test Means of the Grammatical Accuracy Levels of the

Experimental and Control Groups

The data displayed in Table (5.2) indicate that the Grammatical competence mean of the experimental group is (2.42) and that of the control group is (2.20). As stated above, the accuracy of both groups' written products was nearly identical. Furthermore, in both groups, one may guarantee the equivalent performance when it comes to the accurate use of grammar in the participants written products. Under the

auspices of grammar, the researcher made reference to the correct use of tenses as well as prepositions. It is to be noted that the aforementioned aspects perfectly reflect the income the participants are exposed to during the instructional period either in Written Expression or in the other subjects of their Second Year curriculum. The following is a detailed description of these data.

a. Tenses

Tense is the form of an action with respective time. Second Year L.M.D students are exposed to the "Grammar" subject in which they receive extensive instruction of tenses, their use, and various types in English. As such, the participants are supposed to smoothly transfer the acquired knowledge and put it into practice whenever involved into the act of writing. Unfortunately though, this was not the case. When evaluation the papers, (14), (16) of the experimental as well as control groups denoted great shortcomings in their ability to achieve an accurate employment of tenses in their compositions. This noticed weakness is one reason for the students' poor grammatical competence, thus, inefficient writing skills. The third person /s/, present perfect, and irregular past tense verbs seem to occupy the lion's share in the observed difficulties.

b. Preposition

Prepositions are commonly used to show a relationship in space, time, or a logical relationship between two or more people, places or things. Prepositions are most commonly followed by a noun phrase or pronoun. Once again, this grammatical aspect is well accounted for in the curriculum of Second Year L.M.D students. The researcher selected it to be one aspect of the grammatical evaluation due to its huge frequency in the English language as well as its magnificent contribution in the production of high-quality compositions. Unsurprisingly, (20), (18) participants of the experimental and control groups indicated their absolute inability to master such a critical grammatical aspect. Thus, their performances indicated weaknesses and shortcomings in using prepositions while writing. Because prepositions are very frequent, the influence of such

a deficiency went beyond hindering the grammatical accuracy of the essays to encompass even the discourse and rhetorical quality of their compositions.

5.1.1.2.2 Vocabulary

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
	Experimental	**2.36**
Vocabulary	Control	**2.16**

Table 5.3: The Means of vocabulary

The results of table 5.3 Table indicate that the experimental group and the control group have marked respectively a mean of (2.16) and (2.36). That is, the participants in both groups have exhibited equivalent levels in the effectiveness of their vocabulary with minor discrepancy between the two groups. It is to be noted that the means denote that the vocabulary issue is the least salient deficiency manifested in the participants' papers with rapport to the other areas of evaluation.

When a student is faced with a writing assignment, an accurate vocabulary is an indispensable tool. If several synonyms are available in the students' repertoires, they will be able to choose the best word in the most appropriate situation. This criterion must be fulfilled if students learn to avoid vague words like "stuff" or "things" when they write. These words do not give the reader a good sense of meaning or guide him in the course of capturing the ultimate communicative purpose of the written product. As far as the pre-test is concerned, the researcher selected the following aspects to be the basis of his evaluation. In other words, among the various available means that indicate the participants rich and pertinent vocabulary, we used the below conventions to indicate whether or not the subject has vocabulary difficulties. These elements are as follows:

- Choosing more descriptive words that help the reader envision of what is being discussed.
- Being able to adapt one's writing for the intended audience.
- Creating more variety in paragraphs and sentences with vocabulary words which captures the readers' interest in the writer's piece of writing.

Statistically speaking, (14) students (9 of the control group and 5 of the experimental group) did not conform to at least one of the principles listed above. An example of one subject illustrates this issue in the following passage.

Mental and physical health is an objective only reached by highly aware humans. ***People do many things*** *to remain a well* ***physical and mental health.*** *This privilege must be worked on since an early age because, at a certain point,* ***dads and moms*** *would have some duties to take responsibility for such as looking after their* ***kids****, thus, hinder their chances of reaching* ***physical and mental health****.*

The above passage was intentionally selected among the others because it best reflects the vocabulary issue in writing and contains all the errors that the researcher tackled in the evaluation of the participants papers. The underlined words and expressions refer to the three vocabulary mistakes referred to earlier in terms of vagueness, poor vocabulary and linguistic repertoires, and inaccuracy of the words used with rapport to the intended audience and the set communicative purpose.

The first mistake is elaborated in the participant's use of "***People do many things***" which resulted in a vagueness issue. The second element is shown in the overuse and repetition of the "***physical and mental health***" three times in one paragraph which indicated the participant's poor vocabulary and inability to provide synonymous expressions that would bring much more syntactic maturity to the whole paragraph. The last error is manifested in the participant's clear inability to adapt his writing to the intended audience and account for the context in which his composition would be read and reflected upon. In this respect, if the context in which this written product would be read and evaluated is a second language learning classroom, the use of **"dads, moms,**

and kids", instead of fathers, mothers, and childreen, would certainly not be tolerated or appreciated.

5.1.1.2.3 Punctuation

Pre-test	Experimental group mean	Control group mean
Punctuation	**2.50**	**2.33**

Table 5.4: The Means of Punctuation

Punctuation is used to create sense, clarity and stress in sentences. *Punctuation* marks are used to structure and organise the written products. (17), (20) of the participants respectively in both the experimental and the control group did not conform to the principle of punctuation in their compositions. This might be attributed to their lack of awareness and practice needed to boost their punctuation skills. If such a dilemma continues to manifest in their essays, the latter's organization and structure would long remain out of their reach. In details, the comma, semi-colon, and colon are the most frequent areas of weakness found when analyzing the participants' papers. The three element of punctuation under scrutiny are as follows:

a. **Comma**

A *comma* is a punctuation mark that indicates a pause in a sentence or separates items in a list. Grammatically speaking, it must be used in various situations. For the sake of simplicity and directness, the researcher made reference to mainly four aspects in which the comma is omnipresent. These aspects will be referred to in the evaluation of the participants' papers. The first use of **commas is to separate independent clauses when they are joined by any of these seven coordinating conjunctions:** *and, but, for, or, nor, so, yet.* **Commas are also used after introductory clauses, phrases, or words that come before the main clause. As for the third use, it is needed in the middle of a sentence to set off clauses, phrases, and words that are**

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not essential to the meaning of the sentence. Finally, commas must be employed to separate three or more words, phrases, or clauses written in a series.

As far as the pre-test is concerned, 27 (15 of the control group and 12) of the experimental group committed at list one of the above listed comma mistakes. The following example elaborates the students' inefficiency in using a comma in their written products as shown in one of the participants' performances

There are many factors that need to be accounted for in order to be mentally and physically healthy such as practicing sports healthy food and regular visits to the doctors

This example demonstrates the participant's deficiency in using a comma to separate the words he is listing in his sentence. Such a shortcoming might have resulted from the learner non-familiarization with the conventions and rules that govern the use of a comma in writing.

b. colon

The colon (:) is a punctuation mark consisting of two equally sized dots centered on the same vertical line. A colon precedes an explanation or an enumeration, or list. A colon is also used with ratios, titles and subtitles of books, city and publisher in bibliographies. It is also used for salutations in business letters and other formal letter writing, and often to separate hours and minutes. Only 5 papers of both groups (experimental and control) contained such type of errors

c. semicolon

The semicolon (;) is a punctuation mark that separates major sentence elements. A semicolon can be used between two closely related independent clauses, provided they are not already joined by a coordinating conjunction. Semicolons can also be used in place of commas to separate items in a list, particularly when the elements of that list contain commas.

It is noteworthy that the evaluation of the pre-test yielded data strongly indicating that the semicolon is a major difficulty students encounter when punctuating their sentences. The results showed that such a dilemma is the most frequent in the participants' written products. Some do not use it at all in their essays, while others tend to confuse it with the comma. As shocking as it may seem, 85% of both groups papers contained semicolon errors. Such finding, thus, do ring the bell for teachers to account for this difficulty and set a method which is reach of materials and strategies to raise the learners familiarization with the use of the semicolon, hence, help them overcome the encountered confusions emerged whenever involved in the writing process.

5.1.2 Text Organisation Elements

5.1.2.1 Coherence Relations

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
Coherence	Experimental	**1.60**
Relations	Control	**1.86**

Table 5.5: The Means of Coherence Relations

Coherence in writing is the logical bridge between words, sentences, and paragraphs. Coherent writing uses devices to connect ideas within each sentence and paragraph. Main ideas and meaning can be difficult for the reader to follow if the writing lacks coherence. Examination of the data presented in Table (5.5) points out that the pre-test means of the experimental group is (1.60) and that of the control group is (1.86). According to these findings, one can say that both groups are homogeneous in using coherence relations. When comparing the mean of that aspect of both groups with

the other aspects of writing, we find that it is the highest one. This means that this aspect is less thorny to students. Three cases of coherence relations were really noticeable as problematic in both groups:

a) Lack of elaboration relations

When linking two sentences with elaboration relations, the second sentence is supposed to describe a part of the first sentence in more details. However, (15) participants of the experimental and (11) participants of the control group gave no or inadequate information when they state a given idea; as a consequence, one may struggle to picture what the participant was talking about. This kind of problems is generally attributed to the participants' difficulties of generating relevant and sufficient details to support their ideas. The following paragraph from one subject's paper is an example of that problem:

To have interest in cheerful activities is also another way to avoid illness. It is known that stress influences harmfully our well being. That is why doing some activities like listening to music, watching entertaining shows, walking around is an important step to follow by many people in order to be healthy.

Notice in the above paragraph that the first sentence which includes the idea of "cheerful activities" was not well elaborated in the next sentences, though it was the controlling idea. As readers, we also expected the participant to elaborate the second sentence and explain how stress can influence our well being in the following sentences

b) Incorrect use of explicit connectives

The appropriate use of connectives aids the communicability of the text, yet an incorrect use may not allow high accuracy in the prediction of discourse relation type. In this study, (30) papers (17 of the experimental group and 13 of the control group) used

mistakenly the connectives which show the type of relation between the sentences. This kind of problems might be due to the participants' misunderstanding of the relationship between the ideas, as well as the semantic functions' confusion of some connectives. The following are some examples:

1) *People in this life run after money, children, houses and so on as if they are the basis of life. They also forget about their physical well being which is the most important one.*

2) *The quantity and the quality of the food are very important to have a healthy body. So eating fruits and vegetables with the required quantity may provide the body with minerals and vitamin*

3) *Practicing sport is an effective way to protect ourselves. In addition, running is a good thing that can help us be more active.*

In the first example, the second sentence is not an addition to the first sentence, but rather a result. In example number (2), the use of *so* in the second sentence is inappropriate and should be replaced by *for example* because the participant provided the examples of fruits and vegetables. Similarly, the second sentence of the third example should be an exemplification relation instead of an addition relation.

c) Lack of identifiable implicit relations

While some relations between the sentences could be easily identified because they were explicit and were expressed by unambiguous connectives, others which were implicit had no clear interpretation and could not be recognized. These ambiguous relations which lead the text to appear incoherent occurred due to the dereliction of the participants to provide enough contextual clues that help the reader understand the relations easily. The students' problem here is that they generally omit information that they believe the reader already knows and would be bored by seeing it again. The papers that included such type of errors are (5) from the experimental group and (3) from the control group.

5.1.2.2 Cohesion

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
Cohesion	Experimental	**2.26**
	Control	**2.16**

Table 5.6: The Means of Cohesion

According to the results in Table (5.6), the pre-test average score of cohesion is (2.34) for the experimental group and (2.37) for the control group. Thus, both groups could be treated as equal based on these approximate cohesion means. Cohesive writing is writing which holds together well. It is easy to follow because it uses language effectively to guide the reader. In English, cohesion is achieved in a number of ways. The researcher selected the most element associated with cohesive writing to b subject to evaluating the participants written product. These aspects are:

- Firstly, the logical relationships between ideas are stated so that the reader can easily understand the relationship between the parts of a text. The logical relationships between clauses, between sentences, and between paragraphs can be expressed by conjunctions (and, or, because, so etc..)
- Secondly, reference is used to introduce the nouns in a text and to keep track of them
- Thirdly, lexical cohesion in which words are selected that go together and relate to each other in an insightful way.
- Finally, in a well written text there is logical progression to the development of the text. New information is presented in a way which does not disrupt the flow of the text and its meaning

a) Conjunction errors

Errors related to conjunction are of three main kinds as follows:

1. Incorrect use of conjunction

This kind of errors was present in (16) papers (8 of the experimental group and 8 of the control group). The wrong choice of conjunctions might be due to the lack of

sensitivity to conjunctions variety and the insufficient understanding of the usage of some of them. Below are some examples taken from the students papers:

1)   Some persons like to practice sport regularly in halls and do different kinds of sports. *Also* others like to practise it in the nature in which they can benefit more from all the aspects of the nature.

2).   The parents can establish good conditions of life in the house. *So*, they can take care of the children because they are the responsible for their health before the doctors.

In example (1), the conjunction *also* is used to show the additive relationship between the two discourse units it conjoins. Yet, the participant failed to employ it in the appropriate place as the first sentence adds nothing to the preceding sentence. Rather, this last introduces a contrast of what was mentioned before.

In example (2), the conjunction *so* failed to establish a cohesive relationship between the discourse units as it is neither result nor purpose of what has been formerly mentioned. This conjunction then should be removed from between these sentences in order to make the text unified.

2. Overuse of conjunctions

Taking a closer look at the participants' use of conjunction devices, (14) participants (10 of the experimental group and 12 of the control group) had a tendency to overuse conjunctions between the sentences, relying on the mistaken belief that they were keeping the writing flowing. Unquestionably, conjunctions provide explicit cues about the logical relationships among sentences, and thus help readers to construct the mental representations of the meaning of the essays; however, an excessive use of them may make the essay boring and less academic instead.

3. Omission of conjunctions

While certain papers used improperly and too much conjunctions between the sentences, (10) others (6 from the experimental group and 4 from the control group) have been found to use this cohesive device less frequently, letting the reader struggle to understand the intended meaning between the sentences.

In addition to the preceding three kinds of conjunction's problems, it was noticed that the students do not account for using different conjunctions: they just used the most common ones such as *and, so, but, after, …*etc.

b) Incorect pronoun reference

(27) Participants (12 cases of the experimental group and 5 cases of the control group) structured some sentences such that they ended up containing pronouns that could refer back to wrong or ambiguous antecedents. These faulty pronouns lead to vague, confusing and grammatically incorrect sentences; therefore, upset the clarity. Faulty pronoun reference fell into one of the three cases: pronoun with ambiguous antecedent, singular pronoun with plural antecedent, or plural pronoun with singular antecedent. The following is an example of faulty pronoun reference found in the subjects' papers:

1).Running move away all the negative power in the body. In addition to that <u>they</u> are considered as an exit from stress to keep the body and the soul away from the different diseases.

In the above mention example, the participant used the personal pronoun **"they"** to establish reference to **'running'** instead of using '**it'**. This caused ambiguity and confusion in working out the meaning of the sentence.

c) Lexical cohesion and overuse of repetition

The third area of cohesion limitations observed in the subject's writings, which listed above by the researcher, is lexical cohesion. One aspect of lexical cohesion is known as repetition. The latter is an important technique for achieving lexical cohesion, but in an attempt to do so, (20) participants (9 of the experimental group and 11 of the control group) produced many redundancies which result to the production of some key words multiple times without adding new information. Put differently, they just cluttered up sentences with a host of superfluous words and expressions that give nothing new, but deter text flow and make the piece of writing boring, monotonous, and less academic. A possible explanation for this tendency is that the participants have limited repertoire of vocabulary and ideas like in the example stated below:

1) To protect your mental and physical well being, you should always consult your doctor at least every 6 months to have information about your health. Consulting a doctor from time to time can give you an account about your state in order to avoid what brings the diseases for you and for your families in the future. You can see that people who consult the doctors are usually in healthy …

d) Raising new information (textualisation)

The fourth aspect of evaluation under the section of cohesion is the logical development of texts and presentation of information. In (19) papers (12 of the experimental group and 7 of the control group), the conclusions did not arise from the evidence discussed in the body, but rather new material was brought. Doing so makes part of the conclusion irrelevant and adds to it a sort of filler as these two examples show:

Example 1

Being healthy does not mean only the lack of physical diseases but also the lack of emotional problems which have great effects. <u>If this kind of problems are left unchecked they</u> <u>also will contribute to make our life unhealthy.</u>

In the above example, the participant has made of the conclusion the best place to discuss the idea of 'emotional problems' instead of devoting one paragraph to it in the body.

5.1.2.3 Types of Essay Developments

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
	Experimental	**2.40**
Types of development	Control	**2.26**

Table 5.7: The Means of types of development

Looking at Table (5.7), the pre-test mean score is (2.40) for the experimental group and pre-test mean grade is (2.26) for the control group. Though there is a very slight difference, one can guarantee the equivalence of the participants' level in type of development element between the two groups.

In the Algerian context, second year L.M.D student are exposed to a subject known as "Written Expression". The latter curriculum contains income related to the various types of essay development. At this level, students are instructed mainly four types of expository developments; development by definition, by examples, by comparison and contrast, by cause and effect. These four aspects are the main elements which shape the instructional practice in the writing classroom during the second semester. after having explained the difference between these various types of developments, teachers undergo instruction which digs deeper into the dynamics of each type by equipping students with what is necessary as to when, why and how to best develop each types whenever supposed to.

As far as the experiment is concerned, the researcher asked the students to write essays about "how mental and physical health" using the type of development by definition. As stated earlier, the latter has its own conventions which distinguish it from the other types of developments. The learners must be aware of these regulations if they are to compose an accurate expository essay developed by definition. There are various ways of composing an essay by definition. The one sentence definition, dictionary, negative, scientific, and personal experience are the most agreed-upon ways of carrying out an expository essay developed by definition. Among the various errors that are very frequent when dealing with such type of essays, the researcher selected what is known as "Circular definition", and "is when, is where sentences". In the evaluation of the student' written products. These too mistakes will be explained later in details.

1. **Circular definition**:

A circular definition does not advance meaning the word under consideration. It is not accurate to define "obfuscation," for example as the "act of obfuscation". Such an issue was present in 20 papers, (12 of the experimental group) and (8 of the control group). By way of example, one subject falls into this category of error by saying:

Mental and physical health is the human ability to have mental and physical power.

2. **"Is when" and "is where" sentences.**

This type of errors takes place when a writer misses the needed definition and provides information about when or where something is manifested. For example, instead of saying "Justice is when someone who breaks the law and gets a punishment to fit the crime. We say: "Justice requires a suitable punishment for a particular offense." This type of mistakes was observed in (14) papers from both experimental and control groups.

5.1.2.4 Thesis statement

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
	Experimental	**1.76**
Thesis statement	Control	**1.90**

5.8: The Mean of the Thesis Statement

Table (5.8) indicates that the experimental group and the control group have marked respectively a mean of (1.90) and (1.76). That is, the participants in both groups have exhibited equivalent levels in producing correct thesis statements. Academic writing often takes the form of persuasion, convincing others that you have an interesting, logical point of view on the subject the writer is analyzing. This form of persuasion, often called academic argument, follows a predictable pattern in writing. After a brief introduction of the topic, the writer must state his point of view on the topic directly and often in one sentence. This sentence is the thesis statement, and it serves as a summary of the argument that will be held in the rest of the essay.

As the other aspects of this research, thesis statement is a unity of study within the curriculum of Second Year L.M.D students. The thesis statement is the bedrock of producing effective introductions and is of an utmost importance to the whole quality of the essay. In light of its significance and inclusion in the participants' ongoing academic year, it is a no surprise that the researcher included it as an aspect of evaluation.

In the course of his analysis of the participants' papers and the effectiveness of the thesis statements, the researcher accounted for 5 aspects each student must master if he is to use an efficient thesis statement in his composition. These aspect are well presented into the following questions that the researcher labeled 'The Thesis Statement Test"

- Is it a complete sentence (and not a question)?

- Does it have an opposing argument?

- Is every word clear and unambiguous in meaning?

- Is the sentence a dead end, or does it call for additional information and explanation?

- Does the statement make such a large claim that makes the reader believe that the writer has no hope of proving it to be true in the space of 4 to 5 paragraphs?

- What evidence will the reader need to see before he will believe that the thesis is true?

The most frequent misconceptions of thesis statements found in the participants papers are:

a) Inability to maintaining relevance

The relevance of the thesis statement to the whole topic being discusses is at the top of building of any written product, and being strict about it when writing an introduction makes it much easier for the reader to understand the global meaning of the essay. Many papers in both experimental and control group did not conform to this principle.

b) The thesis statement as the initial sentence in the introduction

While some of the participants successfully delayed the articulation of the essay focus, thesis statement, until the very end of the introduction, (14) participants (6 from the experimental group and 8 from the control group) placed the thesis statement as the first sentence, then they discussed what is going to be talked about in the rest of the introduction. Putting the thesis statement right as the very first sentence makes the introduction looks as a summary.

c. The non-thesis thesis.

A thesis takes a position on an issue. It is different from a topic sentence in that a thesis statement is not neutral. It announces, in addition to the topic, the argument you want to make or the point you want to prove. This is the students own opinion that he intends to back up as well as reason and motivation for writing. 14, 10 of the participants respectively from the control and the experimental groups fall into this category of mistake.

d. The overly broad thesis.

A thesis should be as specific as possible, and it should be tailored to reflect the scope of the essay. In addition to choosing simply a smaller topic, strategies to narrow a thesis include specifying a method or perspective or delineating certain limits. The majority of the participants from both experimental and control groups were unable to fulfill such a requirement.

e. The uncontestable thesis

A thesis must be arguable. To be so, it must present a view that someone might reasonably contest. Sometimes a thesis ultimately says, "we should be good," or "bad things are bad." Such thesis statements are tautological or so universally accepted that there is no need to prove the point. This difficulty also was somehow present in (15), (9) of the experimental and control groups.

i. The factual thesis

In other disciplines, this would not be at all unacceptable, and, in fact, possibly even desirable. But in this field of L2 writing, a thesis statement that makes a factual claim that can be verified only with scientific, sociological, psychological or other kind of experimental evidence is not appropriate. It needs to be constructed in such a way that the writer is prepared to prove it using the tools he has available, without having to consult the world's leading expert on the issue to provide a definitive judgment.

j. no thesis statement

In (10) participants' papers (4 of the experimental group and 6 of the control group), the thesis statement was absent or not stated clearly as it should be, and therefore, unclear pattern of organization is manifested.

5.1.2.5 Topic sentence

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
	Experimental	**2.60**
Topic sentence	Control	**2.83**

Table 5.9: The Means of topic sentence

Table (5.9) indicates that the experimental group and the control group have marked respectively a mean of (2.60) and (2.83). That is, the participants in both groups have exhibited equivalent levels in the effectiveness of the topic sentence.

Just as an effective essay starts off with an introduction that presents the paper's thesis statement and indicates the specific claim or argument that the essay will develop, each paragraph should begin with a topic sentence that indicates the focus of that paragraph, alerting the reader to the particular subtopic that the paragraph will provide evidence to support.

A strong topic sentence should be placed at or near the beginning of a paragraph. In addition, this sentence should focus on a specific issue, avoid the use of direct quotations, and leave room for support and analysis within the body of the paragraph. It is on the basics of these previously mentioned areas that the researcher was able to evaluate the efficiency of the subject's topic sentences. Placement,, specification, not being a question, and debatable are the most salient facets being under scrutiny here.

a) Placement:

In almost cases, the topic sentence is placed at the beginning of the paragraph giving the reader a sense of direction for that paragraph. However, (12) participants of the experimental group and (7) of the control group drifted aimlessly within the topic without setting it at the very beginning. They jumped right into supporting details without stating it clearly. Making such mistake, the participants run the risk of confusing readers or losing their interest. Such kind of error is elaborated in the following example taken from the participants' paper.

At a certain time, people start to consider the factors which lead them to these diseases. For example, there are some people who let stress control their lives without thinking of the ways that prevent it or even reduce it. You must know that the stress in some cases is very beneficial as a motivator but in some cases it is the killer number one. So, you must be careful with the factors that cause unhealthy life and control well ourselves. Avoiding stress is one way to achieve mental and physical well beings which are critical issues if people are to have a comfortable life.

One can notice in the previous paragraph that the participant intended to discuss stress avoidance as one way to keep mental as well as physical stability; however, he failed to place the topic sentence at the beginning of the paragraph and went for placing it at the very end which led to ambiguity and non-clarity of the issue being discussed.

b) Specification

As referred to earlier, the topic sentence must be as specific as possible. The specification matter aims at maintaining guidance and helping both writers and readers to keep track of the predetermined scope the paragraph is supposed to discuss. Put differently, if a topic sentence f**ails to** fulfill the need of being specific, it would certainly be deficient in capturing the main idea of the paragraph. In achieving so, teachers of written expression do emphasis the issue of the specification while teaching

students how to produce correct topic sentences. Despite the exclusive instruction, learners are exposed to, 15 9 respectively of the experimental and the control groups failed to reach this matter. An example of a non-specific topic sentence is elaborated from one of the participant's paper as follows.

There are many factors every human being should be aware of in order to achieve physical as well as mental health.

c- non- question topic sentence

Another requirement of a correct topic sentence is that **it should never be stated in the form of a question.** Simply because a topic sentence is intended to present the main idea that would be backed up with more details in the supporting sentences that follow it. This flaw of ideas is necessary if the writer is to ensure quality, clarity, coherence, unity, and meaning in his paragraph. These elements cannot be provided if the topic sentence takes the form of a question which seeks clarification and information instead of providing it. similarily, this issue takes the lion's share in the instructional practice in the writing classrooms when dealing with the topic sentence. Despite such a fact, the analysis of the subject's papers denoted that some participants failed to conform with the aforementioned principle. The following is an example of a topic sentence stated as a question in one of the participant's paper.

What needs to be done in order to ensure both physical and mental well being?

As shown above, this participant chose to put the topic sentence in the form of a question. By doing so, he failed to provide a map that the readers need in order to grasp the main idea that would be developed in the whole paragraph.

d- debatable:

A topic sentence should be a debatable statement to which the reader can uphold an opposing motion, experts in L2 writing recommend that academic writers should move away from making the topic sentence as a fact, common knowledge, and a

scientific truth. These elements exclude the debatable nature each topic sentence should adhere to, and thus, leave no room for debate. Although, the factual nature of the topic sentence might be tolerated, if not needed, in other fields of enquiry, the human sciences in general, and language studies more precisely, this issue of the debatable nature of the topic sentence is not questionable. Despite this fact, students still seem to ignore such regulation and intend to present a topic sentence that is neither debatable nor contestable. An example of such an error is shown in the following sentence.

Drinking alcohol is scientifically proven to be harmful for mental and physical stability.

As shown in the example above, the participants chose to use a scientifically proved fact which led to the absence of a possible opposition every reader has the right to express. In such cases, the writer might be accused of being abusive in establishing his beliefs and thus, dismantles the effectiveness of his claims and assumptions.

5.2 The Post-test Results

The post-test results of the overall performance of the experimental group and the control group are first displayed in the form of central tendency and dispersion aspects, followed by the means of each element of writing, as well as their individual aspects obtained by the two groups.

5.2.1 Overall Post-test Performance

Group	Central tendency		Dispersion			
	Mean	Mode	Low	Fr.	High	Fr.
Experimental	**22.53**	22	15	01	31	01
Control	**18.17**	18	10	01	28	01

Table 5.10: The Participants' Overall Behavior during the Post-test

As Table (5.10) indicates, the mean score for post-test of control group is (18.17), and the mean score for the post-test of experimental group is (22.53). That is, the participants in the experimental group achieved a higher mean post-test score than that achieved by the participants in the control group. When considering the mode, that of the experimental group (22) appears to be higher than that displayed by the control group (18). The dispersion aspects indicate that the experimental group participants' lowest score is (15) obtained by a single participant. The same is the case with one of the control group participants who obtained (10) as the lowest score. The top grade, another dispersion indicator, in the experimental group is (31), reached by one post-test taker. On the other hand, there is one subject who could touch (28) out of (40) in the control group.

So far, comparisons of the means, central tendency, and dispersion aspects are in favor of a general indication that the experimental group participants have performed better in the post-test which may imply that the research findings move in the direction of our first hypothesis.

5.2.2 The Post-test Results of lexcico-grammatical and text organisaation Levels

Post-test	Experimental group mean	Control group mean
lexcico-grammatical level	10.66	8.60
text organisation Levels	11.8	9.60

Table 5.11: Post-test Means of lexcico-grammatical and text organisaation Levels of the Experimental and Control Groups

The results obtained from the participants post-test indicate that the mean scores of the experimental group in both levels are higher than that of the control group. Furthermore, in both groups, the text organisation means seem slightly higher than that of lexcico-grammatical. As such, a statistical testing is required to see if this slight

difference is significant or not. The following is a detailed description of the aspects constituting each level.

5.2.3 The Post-test Results of Individual Aspects

In more details, the table below shows the individual aspects' means of the experimental and control groups in the post-test.

Levels of Writing	Aspects	Experimental group mean	Control group Mean
Lexico-grammatical levels	Grammar	**3.82 (70.2%)**	**2.25 (57.8%)**
	Vocabulary	**2.13 (61.6%)**	**1.81 (42.5%)**
	Punctuation	**3.08 (61.6%)**	**2.45 (51.4%)**
Text organisation levels	Type of development	**2.35**	**1.91 (51.4%)**
	Cohesion	**3.01**	**2.21 (49.4%)**
	Coherence relations	**2.83**	**2.55 (61.6%)**
	Topic sentence	**2.65**	**2.30**
	Thesis statement	**2.66**	**2.25**

Table 5.12: The Post-test Means of the Individual Aspects

The first impression one gets while looking at the performance in each aspect of writing is that there is a notable difference between the scores obtained by the experimental group and the control group. As it can be seen, the experimental group outperformed the control group in all aspects.

5.3 The Overall Results of Comparative Evaluation

This section covers the overall results obtained from the two groups in both pre-test and post-test. We will display a comparison of the two groups' results in terms of pre-test, post-test, and rates of increase or decrease. Then, we will present a detailed comparison between the pre-test and post-test performance of each aspect of writing and its individual aspects.

5.3.1 The Results of Overall Performance

	Experimental group			Control group		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Change	Pre-test	Post-test	Change
Mean	**17.7**	**22.53**	**4.83**	**17.9**	**18.7**	**0.27**

Table 5.13: Mean Scores of Overall Performance's Change from Pre-test to Postest of the Experimental and the Control Group

Glancing at table (5.13) above, one can notice that both experimental and control groups increased their scores. The participants in the control group started with a mean of (17.9) on the pre-test and ended with a mean score of (18.7) on the post-test, an increase of (0.27). On the other hand, the mean of the experimental group was (17.7) in the pre-test, but jumped to (22.53) in the post-test, an increase of (4.83). Furthermore, considering the progress of each experimental group's participant, in

comparison with that of the control group's participants, it can be classified as remarkable. The histograms below indicate this result:
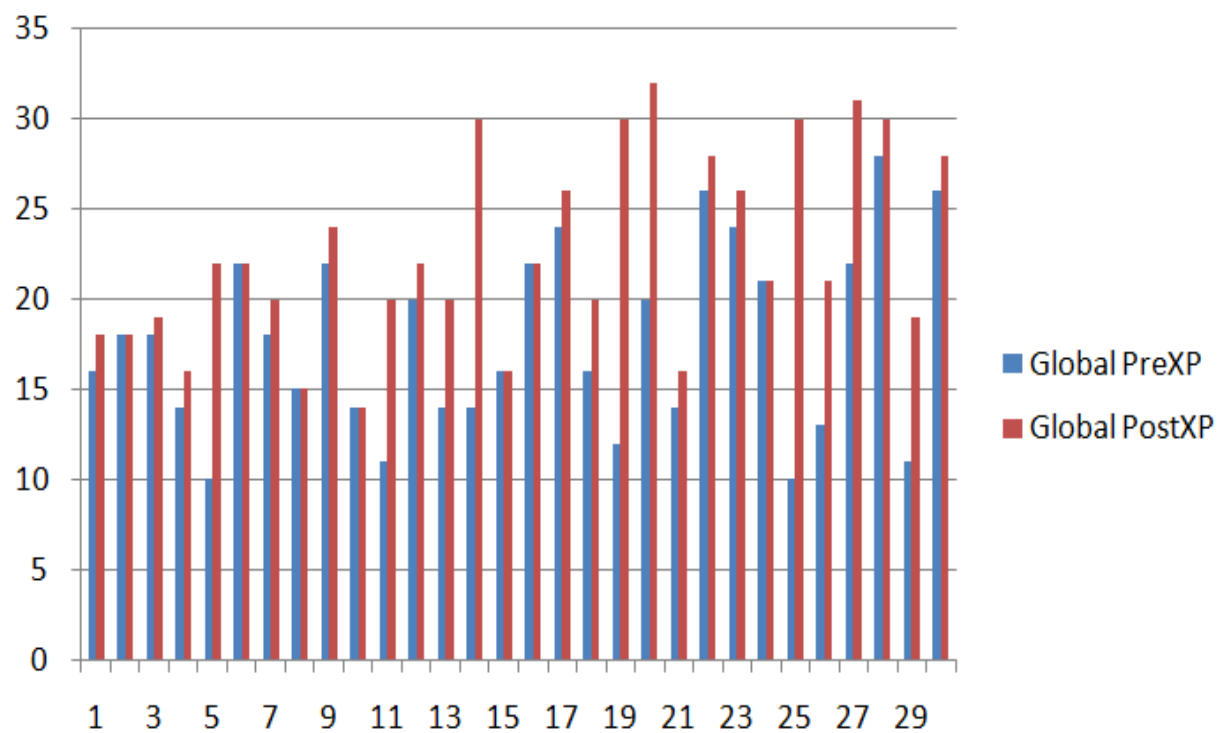
Figure 5.1. Histogram of the Experimental Group Individual Scores in the Pre-test and Post-test
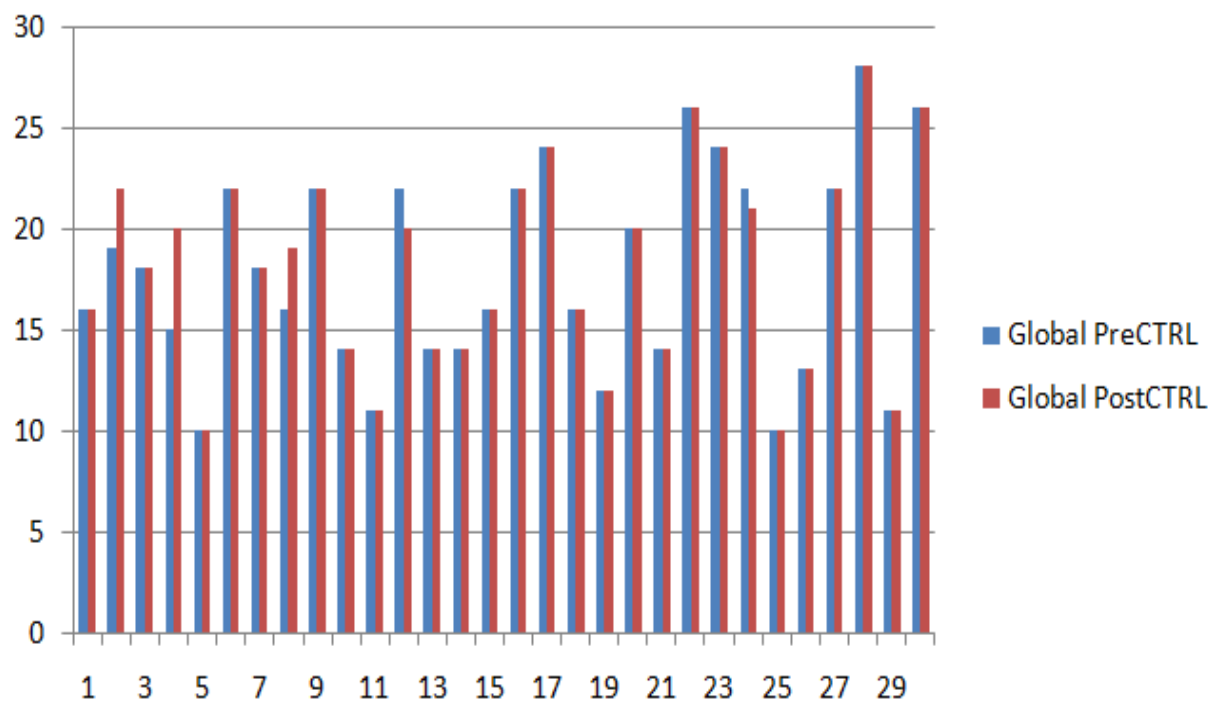
Figure 5.2. Histogram of the Control Group Individual Scores in The Pre-test and Post-test

5.3.2 The Results of Discourse lexico-grammatical and text organisation Levels

Levels of writing	Experimental group			Control group		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Change	Pre-test	Post-test	Change
Lexico-grammar	8.1	10.66	**2.56**	8.40	8.60	**0.20**
Text organisation	9.63	11.80	**2.17**	9.53	9.60	**0.07**

Table 5.14: Comparative Evaluation of Pre-test and Post-test Performance in Lexico –Grammatical and Text Organization Levels

As can be observed from Table (5.14), the experimental group has made a notable increase in both levels of writing than the control group did. Furthermore, one can notice that the increase that the experimental group has made in the lexico-grammatical level (2.56) is nearly the same as the text organisation level (2.17). Accordingly, the conducted experiment has had an equal positive impact on both levels of writing under scrutiny.

5.3.3 The Results of the Individual Aspects

Levels of Writing	Aspects	Experimental group			Control group		
		Pre-test	Post-test	Change	Pre-test	Post-test	Change
Lexico_gramma	Grammar	2.70	3..82	1.12	2.14	2.25	0.11
	Vocabulary	1.86	2.13	0.27	2.54	1.88	-0.66
	Punctuation	2.76	3.08	0.32	2.74	2.45	-0.29
Text organisation	Type of development	2	2.35	0.35	2.14	1.91	-0.23
	Cohesive Elements	2.54	3.01	0.47	2.	2.21	0.21
	Coherence Relations	2.14	2.83	0.69	1.66	2.55	0.89
	Topic sentence	1.8	2.65	0.85	2	2.30	0.30
	Thesis statement	1.9	2.66	0.76	2.68	2.25	0.43

Table 5.15 Comparative Evaluation of Pre-test and Post-test Performance in Individual Aspects of Experimental and Control Groups

In table (5.15), it is evident that both group's participants achieved nearly the same means in all aspects in the pre-test. A more detailed description is that when comparing the low means of participants' performance in some aspects, we notice that the two groups obtained approximately the same low scores. For example, in vocabulary, the experimental group mean was (1.86) and the control group (1.88). In thesis statement, another low achieved mean, the experimental group got (1.9) and the control group mean was (2.25). Similarly, when comparing the means of some aspects which are around the average, we find that the two groups obtained approximately the same means. For example, in type of development aspect, the experimental group obtained a mean of (2) and the control group (2.14). In grammar, the experimental group obtained (2.70) and the control group (2.14). Lastly, in punctuation, the experimental group obtained (2.74) and the control group obtained (2.76). Put succinctly, all the aspects' means tell us quite clearly that all the participants in both groups started with a comparable level. However, in the post-test, the results show that there was a notable difference in the eight aspects of writing across the two groups.

The data displayed in the third column of the previous table present the rates of increase or decrease per aspect of each group. As it can be seen, the control group got 3 rate of decrease in vocabulary, punctuation, and type of development respectively, (-0.66,-0.29-0.23), and five rates of increase ranging from (0.11) in grammar to (0.89) in cohesion. The slight increase in the five aspects can be attributed to the students' writing overall development. One, however, needs to use a statistical test to prove whether this improvement is significant or not.

Unlike the control group, the experimental group got rates of increase in all aspects. Its highest rate of increase was in grammar with a mean change of (19.1%), followed by topic sentence (18.1%), thesis statement, coherence relations (17.8%), cohesion (17.6%), types of development, (17%), punctuation, and finally vocabulary (15.4%). This distinctive increase in all the aspects of composition proves the positive effects of the treatment. Again, it will be only through using a statistical test that this obvious improvement must be justified.

5.4 Testing the First Hypothesis

To begin with, a null hypothesis together with the alternative hypothesis should be stated. They are as follows:

> Null hypothesis (H_0): EFL students who are trained to use metacognitiva knowledge and strategies would not exhibit a better writing level.

> Alternative hypothesis (H_1): EFL students who are trained to use metacognitive knowledge and strategies discourse would exhibit a better writing performance

Considering the tables (Appendix H) which clearly show the performance of the experimental group and the control group, the version of the t-test examined in this study will compare between the experimental and the control group post-test performance from one side, and between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group and the pre-test and post-test of the control group from the other side. The computed results are displayed below:

5.4.1. t-test for the Post-tests of the Experimental Group and Control Group.

The Calculation

1st Calculation of the Mean

$\overline{X}$ $\longrightarrow$ The mean

The formula is: $\overline{X} = \dfrac{\sum X}{N}$ / N: The number of the students per group

$\overline{X_1} = \dfrac{\sum X_1}{N_1}$ /$N_1 = 30$, $\sum X_1 = 675$

$\overline{X_1} = 22.53$

$\overline{X_2} = \dfrac{\sum X_2}{N_2}$ /$N_2 = 15$, $\sum X_2 = 561$

$\overline{X_2} = 18.7$

2nd Calculation of the Variances

S_1^2: The variance of the experimental group

S_2^2: The variance of the control group

The formula is: $S^2 = \dfrac{\sum X^2}{N} - \overline{X}^2$

So: $S_1^2 = \dfrac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} - \overline{X}_1^2$

$S_1 = 28.46$

$S_2^2 = \dfrac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} - \overline{X}_2^2$

$S_2^2 = 26.35$

3rd Calculation of the obtained 't'

$\overline{}$ $\overline{}$

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The formula is:

$$t_{(N1+N2-2)} = \frac{(X_1 - X_2)\sqrt{(N_1+N_2-2)(N_1 N_2)}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1^2 + N_2 S_2^2)(N_1 N_2)}}$$

t (58)= 3.22

t= 3.22

4th Calculation of the degree of freedom

df= N1+N2−2

df= 58

For 58 degrees of freedom corresponding to **0.05** level of significance and for one tailed hypothesis, the tabulated t value for independent samples is **1.69**. The results can be described as statistically significant because the computed t of **3.22** is higher than the critical value of 1.69. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis which stated that the experimental group would not exhibit a better writing performance in comparison with the control group.

5.4.2 t-test for Pre- and Post-tests of the Experimental Group

As a further check, the significance of difference between the mean scores of the experimental group on the variables of pre-test and post-test scores was also tested at 0.05 level by using the independent t-test, and then the same procedures were made with the control group. As for the necessary data to compute t-value, they are shown in Appendix H.

1st Calculation of the Mean

$\overline{X}$ → The mean

The formula is: $\overline{X} = \dfrac{\sum X}{N}$ / N: The number of the students per group

$\overline{X_1} = \dfrac{\sum X_1}{N_1}$ /$N_1 = 30$, $\sum X_1 = 531$

$\overline{X_1} = 17.7$

$\overline{X_2} = \dfrac{\sum X_2}{N_2}$ /$N_2 = 15$, $\sum X_2 = 675$

$\overline{X_2} = 22.53$

2nd Calculation of the Variances

S_1^2: The variance of the experimental group

S_2^2: The variance of the control group

The formula is: $S^2 = \dfrac{\sum X^2}{N} - \overline{X}^2$

So: $S_1^2 = \dfrac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} - \overline{X}_1^2$

$S_1 = 26.42$

$S_2^2 = \dfrac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} - \overline{X}_2^2$

$S_2^2 = 28.46$

3rd Calculation of the level of significance 't'

The formula is:

$$t_{(N1+N2-2)} = \dfrac{(\overline{X_1} - \overline{X_2})\sqrt{(N_1+N_2-2)(N_1 N_2)}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1^2 + N_2 S_2^2)(N_1 N_2)}}$$

t (58)= -3.59

t= -3.59

4ᵗʰ Calculation of the degree of freedom

df= N1+N2−2

df= 58

It is worth mentioning that it is not important whether the t value is positive or negative as long as the means are reported; it is acceptable to drop the negative sign when reporting the t-value. Because the computed t of 3.59 is greater than the critical value of 1.69, the experimental group results are statistically significant. This significant improvement obtained by the experimental group at the end of the treatment is an evidence that providing the subjects with the necessary metacognitive knowledge and strategies would help students produce high-quality compositions.

5.4.3. t-test for Pre- and Post-tests of the Control Group

1ˢᵗ Calculation of the Mean

$\overline{X}$ $\longrightarrow$ The mean

The formula is: $\overline{X} = \dfrac{\sum X}{N}$ / N: The number of the students per group

$\overline{X_1} = \dfrac{\sum X_1}{N_1}$ /N₁= 30, $\sum X_1 = 537$

$\overline{X_1} = 17.9$

$\overline{X_2} = \dfrac{\sum X_2}{N_2}$ /N₂= 15, $\sum X_2 = 528$

$\overline{X_2} = 18.6$

2nd Calculation of the Variances

$S_1{}^2$: The variance of the experimental group

$S_2{}^2$: The variance of the control group

The formula is: $S^2 = \dfrac{\sum X^2}{N} - \overline{X}^2$

So: $S^2{}_1 = \dfrac{\sum X^2{}_1}{N_1} - \overline{X^2}{}_1$

$S_1 = 26.78$

$S^2{}_2 = \dfrac{\sum X^2{}_2}{N_2} - \overline{X^2}{}_2$

$S^2{}_2 = 26.35$

3rd Calculation of the tabulated 't'

The formula is:

$$t_{(N1+N2-2)} = \frac{(\overline{X_1} - \overline{X_2})\sqrt{(N_1+N_2-2)(N_1 N_2)}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1{}^2 + N_2 S_2{}^2)(N_1 N_2)}}$$

$t\,(58) = -0.19$

$t = -0.19$

4th Calculation of the degree of freedom

$df = N1 + N2 - 2$

$df = 58$

As the computed t 0.19 is less than the critical value 1.69, the results of the control group could be reported as statistically non- significant. This insignificant

improvement in the performance of the control group could be traced back to the subjects' unawareness of the use of some basic aspects of writing.

5.4.4 Statistical Improvement in lexico-grammar and text organization Levels

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	T
Lexico-grammar	Experimental	10.66	10.50	
	Control	8.60	15.83	**2.20**

t < 1.69

Table 5.16 Comparison of the Performance in lexico-grammatical Level between the

Post-tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	T
Text organisation	Experimental	11.8	12.09	
	Control	9.	10.76	**3.03**

t < 1.69

Table 5.17 Comparison of the Performance in text organisation Level between the

Post-tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Group	Levels	Mean	Variances	T
Experiment al	Lexicogram mar	10.66	10.50	
Group	Text organisation	11.80	12.09	**1.58**

t < 1.69

Table 5.18 Comparison between the Experimental Group Performance in Lexicogrammar and text organization Levels in the Post-test

The data displayed in Table (5.16) indicate that there was a significant difference in the lexico-grammatical performance between the experimental and control group in favor of the post-test results (t= 2.20, t < 1.66). Similarly, Table (5.17) depicts that there was significant difference in text organisation performance as well (t= 3.03, t < 1.66). Again, these results prove that the experimental group has outperformed the control group.

The results presented in Table (5.18) show that there was also a significant change between the scores of the experimental group in the lexico-gramatical and tet organization levels as (t= -1.58). These results highly confirm that combining the product approach with metacognition was helpful in improving both levels of writing and that the students have not been influenced by a sole level.

Conclusion

According to the discussion of the results presented previously, the experimental group has made significant improvement in writing organization than the control group

did. What seems quite likely to have differentiated the subjects in the experimental group was their awareness of the use of the underlined writing aspects of lexico-grammar and tet organisation that they grasped during the experiment's implementation. Accordingly, one can conclude that the stated hypothesis has been confirmed

Chapter Six

The Questionnaire

CHAPTER SIX : THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction

The present chapter is dedicated to gauging the experimental group's attitudes towards the income they received in the instructional period. It is believed to be a back-up to the previous chapter, devoted to testing the students' performances prior to as well as after the metacognitive instruction. It includes the illustration and the analysis of the data gathered by means of a students and teachers questionnaires.

The questionnaire has been selected as a method of data collection. It is an indispensable research tool that yields representative and reliable data. The students' questionnaire is meant to support the findings of both pre and post tests. It is divided into three highly pertinent sections. The first one is entitled "**the writing skill**", it includes questions about the students perceptions, abilities, opinions, and difficulties of the writing skill after being taught writing using the Metacognitive-Product approach. The second section is entitled "**metacognitive knowledge awareness**". It encompasses three areas of interest in terms of declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge. The researcher intestinally designed indirect questions, under this section, to bring more reliability and validity to the date gathered due to its significant role and high pertinence to the very aim set in the research at hand.

The last section of the students' questionnaire is known as "**The students'
attitudes towards the metacognitive regulation and strategies**". This section aims at
unveiling the experimental group's assimilation and perception of the metacognitive
instruction provided by the researcher in the instructional period as well as their
attitudes toward the feasibility, effectiveness, and the efficiency of the implemented
Metacognitive-Product approach. It is, then, crystal clear that researcher incorporated
some indirect questions due to their high potential of detecting not only the students
attitudes and opinion, but also measure the participants assimilation and acquisition of
the instructional income.

6.1 The Students' Questionnaire

6.1.1 Analysis and Discussion of the Results
Section One: Students' Attitudes towards Learning to Write

Question 1: Is EFL writing more difficult to practise than the other language skills?

    a. Yes

    b. No

Options	N	%
Yes	23	75%
No	7	25%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.1: Writing difficulty

As the table indicates, 75% of the respondents considered writing as a difficult
skill to practice. While for 25% it was not. The results obtained prove that a large

number of students perceived the difficulty of writing. It reflects the fact that this skill requires too much time and effort to learn how to compose an effective piece of writing, even from the part of a native speaker. Accordingly, needless to mention that it is not easy at all for an EFL learner to practice something that an average native speaker usually recognizes as a difficult practice. Proposing as much approaches that can meet the students' needs, therefore, should be a priority taken by writing teachers who aspire to develop their students writing abilities. Despite this fact, we find that quarter of the participants 25% considered writing as less difficult than the other language skills. We assume that these students are either likely to have a good level in writing, or simply they are not aware of the difficulty of such a skill as well as the reason they dwarfed its difficulty;

Question two: What are the sources of EFL writing difficulties?

    a. Insufficient English language proficiency

    b. LACK OF METACOGNITIVE KNOWLEDGE and regulation

    c. Lack of interest and motivation

    d. Time constraints

    e. Others

OPTIONS	N	%
A	3	10%
B	12	40%
C	7	25%
D	7	25%
A, B, C, D	3	10%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.2: The Sources of EFL Writing Difficulties

The above table points out that 10% of the respondents selected all the options while 14% chose two options together and no one added a further source. When considering the one-option answers the most frequently mentioned source of EFL writing difficulty was "the lack of metacognitive knowledge and regulation with a percentage of 40%.and then, "lack of interest and motivation" in the second position with a percentage of 25%. While the remaining 25% is distributed to the other difficulties in terms of "Times Constraints" and "Insufficient English Language Proficiency"

Detailed reading of the students responses to his second question indicate the lack of metacognitive knowledge and regulation as well as the lack of motivation and interest to be the main sources of the writing difficulty.

Question 3: Are you satisfied with your level of writing?

   a. Yes

   b. No

   c. I cannot decide

Options	N	%
A	19	63.33%
B	4	13.33%
C	7	23.33%
Total	60	100%

Table 6.3: Students' Satisfaction with their Writing Level

Two thirds (63.33%) of the students did not seem to be satisfied with their level of writing, 13.33% seem satisfied; and 23.33% found their selves in a position where they did not chose either way.

Question 4: if no, please, say why?

The students' answers to this question are collected and classified according to their sameness as follows:

Option	N	%
Problems with basic writing skills	09	30%%
General linguistic inferioirity	7	23.33%
Insufficient knowledge about the cognitive processes of writing	8	26.66%
No answer	06	20%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.4: Students Justifications

As it is expected, considering writing as a difficult writing skill to practice makes the students' unsatisfied with their level of writing, even when they upsize their

efforts. This was the answer of the students' majority whose dissatisfaction is mainly rooted in the fact that their basic writing skills are not yet developed, linguistically they are insecure and cognitively immature.

Question 5: What aspects do always cause you the greatest difficulty when writing? (you may tick more than one)

a. Content
b. Organization
c. Grammar
d. Vocabulary
e. Mechanics

Options	N	%
a, b	4	15%
A, c	2	13.33%
A, e	4	6.66%
D, e	4	11.66%
B, e	2	8.33%
B, d	2	
A,b c	7	11.66%
B, d, e	6	10%
A, b, c, d, e	7	23.33%

Table 6.5: Students Aspects of Difficulty

Once again, it is confirmed that writing is a difficult and a highly demanding task when the figures in the table above indicate that both experimental group located their difficulty in more than one level by ticking two to three to all options. More

precisely, 14students (23.33%) have ticked all the options, 9 (15%) have responded content and organization, 8 (13.33%) opted for content and grammar, 7 (11.66%) selected vocabulary and mechanics, and the least percentage (10%) opted for either content and grammar, organization and mechanics, or organization, vocabulary and mechanics. This clearly marks the students' unawareness when it comes to the writing skill and its requirements.

Question 6: Classify the above aspects according to the importance you give them in writing (from the most to the least important)

Option	N	%
A	06	20%
B	4	13.33%
C	09	30%
D	05	16,66
E	3	10%
A, b, c ,d, e	3	10%

Table 6.6: Classification of Writing Aspects

The results tabulated above make clear that "grammar" was considered the most important aspect as 30% of the respondents ranked it the first, followed by "content" 20%, "vocabulary" with 16,66%. The least taken as important was mechanics with 10%. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that, for 10% of the respondents, all the aspect are of equal importance and therefore all were ranked in the first position.

The rank of content and grammar is, in our opinion, quite justified since these two aspects play an important role in the writing process. Having accurate grammar and rich content is the first priority on the basis of which students performances will be

evaluated especially in the EFL context. This realization inter alia triggered the researcher interest in suggesting an alteration of the process approach (which disregards grammar and content) by a refined product approach (which primarily account for these aspects).

Section Two: The students' attitudes towards Metacognitive awareness

Declarative knowledge

Question 7: When involved in a given writing task, do you believe that you have the necessary skills to accomplish it.

a. Yes
b. No
c. It depends on the task

Options	N	%
Yes	12	50%
No	8	30%
It depends	4	20%

Table 6.7: Students Awareness of their Abilities

This question aims at determining the students' level of metacognitive awareness. The researcher intentionally made this question indirect to add more reliability to the results. The findings indicated that 50% of the participants replied "yes", 30 % replied "no", while 20% replied "it depends on the task". This implies that half of the experimental group well assimilated the income presented through the metacognitive product approach during the instructional period. It is to be noted that this question reveals data about metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive awareness and

its basic component and elements known as knowledge of the person and knowledge of the task. All of which will be referred to in the following questions.

Question 8: Are you aware of your strength and weaknesses of writing?

Options	N	%
Yes	18	60%
No	12	40%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.8: Students' Awareness of their Strength and Weaknesses

The foremost aim of this question is to determine the students' perception of their own strength and weaknesses while involved in the process of writing. The results demonstrated that 60% of the participants opted for "yes". As an interpretation, the researcher argues that the majority of students do have the capacity to detect their strength and weaknesses. This capacity has been taught in the instructional period to equip students with the necessary "knowledge of the person", thus, enriching their metacogntive knowledge which is associated with high quality compositions.

Question 9: If you are given various topics to choose from, do you always choose the topic that you know the most?

Options	N	%
Yes	17	55%
No	13	45%

Total	30	100%

Table 6.9: Students Choice of Topics

This question was included to support the findings of the previous one. It serves the same purpose of detecting the students' level of the metacognitive "declarative knowledge". This is to be done by determining whether or not students do have the needed "task knowledge". The findings showed that 55% of the participants replied "yes".

Question: 10: On what bases do you select a topic before writing an essay?

    a. Subjective preferences

    b. Daily life experiences

    c. Having enough cognition (information) and feedback about the topic

    d. Others

Options	N	%
A	08	28%
B	03	10%
C	19	62%
D	00	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.10: Student's ways of Selecting the Writing Topics

After determining the students' efficiency of the declarative knowledge, the researcher sought to figure out the basics upon which the students' choices of the topics, when provided with a variety of topics, are made. 62% of the participants opted for

"having enough cognition and feedback about the topic", 28% chose "subjective preferences", while 10% chose "daily life experiences". It is to be noted that our suggested approach has a defining characteristic that entails the students to have enough cognition and feedback before choosing a topic to write about. A rich cognition and relevant feedback are, therefore, are deeply associated with high quality compositions, as proved by scholars. One available interpretation is that the product metacognitive approach has been efficient in enriching the students' metacognitive awareness as shown in their high awareness of themselves as well as the task they are supposed to accomplish.

Question 11: Before composing an essay, do you consider what strategies to use during the composition task?

Options	N	%
Yes	24	80%
No	06	20%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.11: Student's Consideration of the Writing Strategies

After gathering the necessary data about the participants "metacognitive awareness" and "metacognitive knowledge", this question was included to determine the efficiency of the learners "procedural knowledge". The result showed that 80% of the respondents declared "yes", while 20% of them announced "no". This implies that the majority of the participants do have the necessary" procedural knowledge" that allows them to account for a battery of strategies and then select which one, or ones, that are most appropriate according to their tasks and contexts.

Question 12: While composing, do you analyze the usefulness and effectiveness of each implemented strategy?

Options	N	%
Yes	20	66%
No	10	34%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.12: Student's analysis of the Implemented Strategies

This question is a complement to the previous one. It was included to figure out whether, or not the students have the ability to check the effectiveness of the implemented strategies during the writing task. The results showed that 66% of the participants do check the effectiveness of the techniques they use to work out a written task. This question revealed that the implementation of the metacognitive product approach was effective in helping students not only to account for various strategies before composing, but to further analyze their efficiency and effectiveness during the act of writing.

Section Three: Metacognitive Regulation and Strategies

The third section of the questionnaire is at the heart of the investigation at hand, it was included with the primordial purpose of revealing data highly pertinent to the students' perception, assimilation, reaction, and attitudes towards implementing such strategies within the realm of the metacognitive product approach. Once again, this section includes indirect questions in order to ascertain more credibility and reliability to the results obtained. As mentioned in the theoretical part of the research,

metacognitive regulation encompasses a variety of strategies that can be used in language apprenticeship, in general, and the teaching of writing more particularly.

Among the available metacognitive strategies, the researcher selected some to be included in the theoretical part, the test, and both teachers and students questionnaires. The strategies of concern are: self reflection, self questioning, cooperative learning, modeling, and metacognitive scaffolding. The reason behind using these strategies in both theoretical as well as the practical parts of the current study is to obtain as representative data as possible, so that the results would reconcile with the goals set at the very beginning of this research.

As such, the researcher used various indirect questions that unanimously serve the purpose of revealing the students skills at a particular metacognitive level. Put differently, instead of asking a direct question of "do you use the self reflection strategy in the accomplishment of your writing tasks?", the researcher designed an indirect question which would reveal more reliable results about the same area of interest which is 'self reflection". As such, the question was asked as follows: **"**How often do you reflect upon the written paragraphs throughout the composition process?". It is, thus, inevitable to find two or more questions with different results interpreted similarly because they serve the same purpose and they refer to the same metacognitive strategy.

Last but not least, we started this section by including questions about what is theoretically known as the cognitive processes (strategies) of the writing skills. As indicated in the theoretical chapter, goal setting, planning, monitoring, revising, and editing are no longer referred to as cognitive strategies, rather metacognitive tools that are omnipresent in the accomplishment of the writing tasks. In other words, the

implemented metacognitive product approach would not bring fruits if it does not include these basic metacognitive skills. They are, then, the bedrock upon which self questioning, self reflection, cooperative learning, modeling, and metacognitive scaffolding are built. It is , then, legitimate to argue that these strategies operate within a metacognitive spectrum that combines them together in such a way to better work out the metacognitive product approach.

Question 13: How often do you set goals at the very beginning of the writing task?

 a. Very often

 b. Sometimes

 c. Rarely

 d. Never

Option	N	%
A	15	50%
B	9	30%
C	6	20
D	0	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.13: Student's Frequency of Setting Goals

Question 14: How often do you plan your ideas and examples before starting off with writing?

 a. Very often

 b. Sometimes

c. Rarely

d. Never

Option	N	%
A	20	66.66%
B	9	30%
C	1	3.33%
D	0	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.14: Student's Frequency of Planning

Question 15: How often do you produce initial and subsequent drafts before the final essay?

a. Very often

b. Sometimes

c. rarely

d. never

	N	%
A	15	50%
B	09	30%
C	06	20%
D	0	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.15: Student's Frequency of Producing Initial and Subsequent

Drafts

Question 16: How often do you organize your time before the writing task and try to use it adequately?

   a. Very often
   b. Sometimes
   c. Rarely
   d. Never

Option	N	%
A	9	30%
B	6	20%
C	8	26,66
D	7	23,33%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.16 : Student's Frequency of Organizing Time before the Writing Task

Question 17: How often do you pay attention to the organization of your paragraphs during the writing process?

    a. Very often
    b. Sometimes
    c. Rarely
    d. Never

Option	N	%
A	14	46,66%
B	6	20%
C	4	13,33
D	6	20
Total	30	100%

Table 6.17: Student's Frequency of Paying Attention to the Organization of Paragraphs during the Writing Process

Question 18: While composing, how often do you stop to check the correctness of your grammar, vocabulary, and spelling?

    a. Very often
    b. Sometimes
    c. Rarely
    d. Never

Option	N	%
A	12	40%
B	6	20%
C	9	30
D	3	10%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.18: Student's Frequency of Checking their Grammar, Vocabulary and Spelling

Question 19: How often do you check the effectiveness of the thesis statement and the topic sentence of each paragraph while composing?

a. Very often

b. Sometimes

c. Rarely

d. never

Option	N	%
A	00	50%
B	0	30%
C	0	20%
D	0	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.19: Student's Frequency of Checking the Effectiveness of the Thesis Statement and Topic Sentence

Question 20: How often do you revise your essay before handing it?

    A. Very often

    B. Sometimes

    C. Rarely

    D. Never

Option	N	%
A	12	40%
B	6	20%
C	9	30
D	3	10%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.20: Student's Frequency of Revising their Essay

Goal setting, planning, revising, monitoring, and editing are referred to as the basic metacognitive strategies. As stated in the theoretical chapters, scholars emphasize the inter-related nature of these elements. In other words, students cannot master one strategy, while disregarding another; thus, the name of a battery of strategies. It is noteworthy that these strategies must not only be mastered but also be employed in a chronological order needed to produce high quality compositions. This order is substantial to the extent that if one cognitive process is missed or misplaced, the whole organization of writing falls apart.

In light of this, the researcher could not avoid the necessity of conducting a holistic and homogeneous analysis and interpretation of these strategies. As such, items 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20 were administered to reflect the participants' attitudes

towards the implementation of the aforementioned strategies in the accomplishment of their writing tasks. The results indicated that the instructional period with the experimental group yielded high awareness and provided the students with a guideline pertained to appropriately using goal setting, planning, revising, monitoring, and editing whenever involved in writing.

Question 21: How often do you reflect upon the written paragraphs throughout the composition process?

    a.   Very often

    b.   Sometimes

    c.   Rarely

    d.   never

Option	N	%
A	20	65%
B	06	20%
C	4	15%
D	00	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.21: Student's Frequency of reflecting upon the Written Paragraphs

Question 22: When involved in the writing tasks, how often do you stop to check whether or not you are diverting from the topic of interest?

    a.   Very often

    b.   Sometimes

c. Rarely

d. Never

Option	N	%
A	21	70%
B	06	20%
C	3	10%
D	0	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.22: Student's Frequency of Diversion from the Topic

The utmost aim of question 21, 22 was to unveil the participants views towards the implementation of self reflection as a metacognitive strategy in the accomplishment of the writing tasks. Due to the extensive exposure to the metacognitive knowledge and regulation during the instructional period, 70% of the respondents reported their tendency to stop during the process of writing and check that they are still on the right path with rapport to the topic and the global objective of the essay being composed. While 65% of the participants noted their positive reflection on the paragraphs before writing the final draft. These two skills found in the participants answers directly refer to their ability of using the metacognitive self-reflection as a strategy to overcome the difficulties associated with the writing process.

Question 23: How often do you use self questioning in judging the efficiency of your composition?

      a.   Very often

      b.   Sometimes

      c.   Rarely

      d.   never

Option	N	%
A	20	68%
B	6	22%
C	4	10%
D	0	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.23: Student's Frequency of Self-Questioning

Question24: To what extent do you believe that self questioning is beneficial in maintaining within the realm of the topic?

      a.   Very often

      b.   Sometimes

      c.   Rarely

      d.   Never

Option	N	%
A	24	80%
B	06	20%
C	00	00%
D	00	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.24: Students attitudes towards the Efficiency of Self-Questioning

Items 23, 24 purported primarily at determining the students' opinions about using self-questioning as a metacognitive strategy and the extent to which they believe that such a strategy is contributive to the betterment of their writing skills. The results indicated that the experimental's group great majority uses self-questioning in the accomplishment of the writing tasks. They reported the expediency of asking questions about the form, the content, and the relevance of what's being composed to the set objective of composition and the expectations of the audience. This realization lies behind their very often use of this strategy.

Question 25: How often do you use cooperative learning strategy in the accomplishment of your writing tasks?

    a. Very often

    b. Sometimes

    c. Rarely

    d. Never

Option	N	%
A	20	68%
B	10	32%
C	0	00%
D	0	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.25: Student's Frequency of Using Cooperative Strategy

Question 26: To what extent do you believe that cooperative learning is contributive in dispelling the writing difficulties?

a. Very often

b. Sometimes

c. Rarely

d. Never

Option	N	%
A	22	75%
B	6	20%
C	2	05%
D	00	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.26: Student's belief of the Efficiency of Cooperative Learning

The major aim of administering items 25, 26 is to gauge the participants' standpoints about the use of cooperative learning in their compositions as well as the role cooperative learning plays in dispelling some writing difficulties. The results indicated that 68% of the participants use cooperative learning as a metacognitive strategy due to their beliefs in the latter's contribution in improving their writing abilities. These results are in tandem with the researcher's expectations while teaching the experimental group. It was necessary to raise the students' awareness of cooperative learning and its utmost importance.

Question 27: When asked to work in peers, how often do you use modeling with your partner?

a. Very often

b. Sometimes

c. Rarely

d. Never

Option	N	%
A	21	70%
B	7	23.33%
C	2	6.66%
D	0	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.27: Student's Frequency in Using Modeling Strategy

Question28: To what extent do you believe that modeling written texts is contributive in developing your writing abilities?

     a.   Very often

     b.   Sometimes

     c.   Rarely

     d.   Never

Option	N	%
A	21	70%
B	9	30%
C	0	00%
D	0	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.28: Student's belief in the Efficiency of Modeling Strategy

After establishing the notion of cooperative learning, items 27, 28 were used to determine the students' attitudes towards using modeling when asked to work in peers and as well as their opinions about modeling as an instructional practice implemented by their teacher. The results indicated that 70% of the participants reported their high satisfaction with the fruits modeling does yield whenever implemented in the cooperative accomplishment of the writing tasks. They also reported that such a strategy constitutes the best instructions they received. These results are far away from being exaggerated due to the magnificent role modeling plays in clarifying, simplifying, and transmitting the necessary input to the students as ascertained by scholars specialized in the field.

Question 29: When involved in collaborative learning, how often do you use metacognitive scaffolding?

    a.   Very often

    b.   Sometimes

    c.   Rarely

    d.   Never

Option	N	%
A	18	60%
B	6	20%
C	6	20%
D	00	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.29: Student's Frequency of Using Metacognitive Scaffolding

Question 30: What form of metacognitive scaffolding do you mostly rely on?

    a.   Expert modeling

    b.   Advice

    c.   Prompts

    d.   Learner guides

Option	N	%
A	20	66.66%
B	5	16.66%
C	00	00%
D	5	16.66%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.30: Student's Form of Metacognitive Scaffolding

Question 31: To what extent do you believe that metacognitive scaffolding is fruitful in developing the students writing performances?

    a.   Very often

    b.   Sometimes

    c.   Rarely

    d.   Never

Option	N	%
A	39	65%
B	21	35%
C	00	00%
D	00	00%
Total	60	100%

Table 6.31: Student's Belief of the Effectiveness of Metacognitive Scaffolding

Question 32: How often do you account for the audience (the readers) of your written product before composing?

a.   Very often

b.   Sometimes

c.   Rarely

d.   Never

Option	N	%
A	18	60%
B	12	40%
C	00	00%
D	00	00%
Total	30	100%

Table 6.32: Student's Frequency of the Account for the Audience

As a complement to the battery of metacognitive strategies, questions 29, 30, 31, 32 were administered to record the participants' opinions about metacognitive scaffolding, its use, and contribution to the betterment of the writing skill. The results showed that 60% of the participants often use scaffolding whenever they are involved in the process of writing. When asked about what form scaffolding should be presented, they noted down their satisfaction with "experimental modeling'. The latter stands for what is technically referred to as the 'More Knowledgeable Other' (MKO) which is, in this context, the teachers' instruction that helps students move to their current cognitive awareness to a further and higher cognitive level. It is then, not surprising, to find that

the participants' majority consider modeling to be a very effective strategy that helps them overcome various difficulties of the writing process.

Section Five

Question 33: please, feel free to add any suggestions related to the implementation of metacognitive to the teaching of L2 writing.

Out of (30) experimental group respondents, only 14 provided suggestions as grouped below:

1. Metacognitive strategies contribute to better writing skills.

2. Modeling should always be implemented because it helps in overcoming the writing difficulties.

3. Scaffolding is a strategy teachers must employ to help learners acquire new input and accurately put it into practice.

4. Self-questioning helps learners verify the correctness of their essays for as well as content, that's why it should be used more frequently by teachers.

5. Self-reflection is another available means through which teachers can raise their students' awareness and motivation.

6. Teachers must implement Cooperative learning in teaching writing because it hinders the students' stress and anxiety.

As it can be seen in the last section, the experimental group respondents revealed some comments that have been predicted by the researcher and that were useful for the aim of the current study.

Simply put, the students' suggestions confirmed that the implementation of metacognitive strategies in the teaching of L2 writing made their writing more accurate than before.

6.1.2 Summary of the Main Findings:

Based on the previous discussion, the main findings of this questionnaire can be summarized as follows:

- The students' selection and use of strategies to accomplish the writing tasks are deficient in meeting their needs.

- The most important aspects that constitute the focus of students' writing in grammar and text organization.

- The use of metacognitive strategies has improved the students' grammatical as well as text organization competencies.

- Many participants have changed their opinions about the role metacognitive strategies play in helping them develop their writing skills due to the instructions they have been subject to.

- Metacognitive knowledge and regulation are very rarely used in the other language skills.

- Most of the participants are in favor of generalizing the use of metacognitive strategies in the other language courses, especially in writing.

- Among the metacognitive strategies, modeling and cooperative learning seemed to more captivate the participants.

- Students' opinions about the difficulty of applying metacognitve strategies in writing correlate with the test's findings.

- Nearly all the participants expressed their positive attitudes towards learning lexico-grammar and text organization through the exclusive implementation of metacognitive knowledge and regulation.

6.2 Teachers' Questionnaire

As for the teachers' questionnaire, it was administered to teachers of writing and of different modules; they were asked to fill in the questionnaire to indicate the extent to which metacognition is contributive to the betterment of the writing skills in the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Laarbi Ben Mhidi, Oum El Bouaghi.. The questionnaire is divided into four main parts entitled:

1- **General information.**
2- **Evaluating Students' Writing**
3- **Metacognitive knowledge and regulation**
4- **The relationship between writing and other disciplines**
5- **A short section was devoted to further suggestions.**

The main aim for such a questionnaire is to probe their students' level in writing, and how they perceive the implementation adopting the metacognitive-product approach.

Section One: General Information

Question One: Degree held

a- Master

b- Magister

c- Phd

Status	Number of Teachers	Percentage
PhD	6	25%
Magister	8	33,33%
Master	10	41,66%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.33: Degree held

The opening section seeks to state the status of teachers as a primary identification. The results revealed that among the 24 teachers questioned, many of them are "Master"; 10 they represent 41.66 %); the majority of them are involved in Doctorate research theses, some of them are beginners in teaching at the English Department, University of Larbi Ben Mhidi; yet, all of them were allotted in teaching different modules for at least 6 hours a week.

As for "Magister" category, it represents a percentage of 33,33%; their contribution in teaching writing is of a great importance since they are experienced in the field of writing. Concerning the "PhD Holders" category, it represents 25%, teachers who belong to this category can be identified easily because some of them contributed to teaching writing as well as some other modules for many years; therefore, their participation would certainly be significantly beneficial for this study.

Question Two: How long have you been teaching?

Number of Years	Number of Teachers	Percentage
1- 5 years	10	41,66%
5 – 10 years	4	16,66%
10- 15 years	3	12,50%
15- 20 years	6	25%
More than 20 years	1	4,16%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.34: Experience in Teaching

In this question, the teachers are asked about the span of years they spent in teaching written expression. In the table below it is portrayed that 10 teachers, making up (41,66%), have taught this subject for a period between zero to five years, while (4) teachers, making up (16,66%), have taught this subject for a period between five to ten years. The results mentioned in the table below also reveal that only (3) teachers, making up (12,50%) taught the module of W.E for a period between ten to 15 years, and (6) teachers, making up (25%) have taught this subject for a period between 15years to 20 years. (1) of the teachers making up (4,16%) have taught the same module for more than 20 years.

Question Three: Which level(s) have you been mainly teaching?

Levels	Number of Teachers	Percentage
1st Year	1	4,16%
2nd Year	5	20,83%
3rd Year	3	12,50%
1st, 2nd	7	29,16%
2nd, 3rd	4	16,66%
1st, 2nd, 3rd	4	16,66%
Total	24	100

Table 6.35: Teaching Levels

This question aims at determining how many teachers have taught written expression to the targeted population (2nd LMD Students). Only one of them taught 1st year, while five taught 2nd year and three of them taught 3rd year. The other teachers have taught this module for more than one level: seven of them taught 1st and 2nd levels, while four taught 2nd and 3rd, four teachers taught the three levels (1st, 2nd, 3rd)

Section Two: Teaching Writing

Recently teachers have been complaining about the students' writings in all the disciplines and at all educational levels. Teaching writing is not an easy task because it is mainly concerned with evaluating numerous and complex stages in the process of writing. The second section of this questionnaire aims at determining the teachers' attitudes towards their students' written performances. Another aim is to detect the students' weaknesses in writing and to classify them in order of importance so that

teachers can find out the appropriate techniques to help students produce high quality compositions.

Question Four: How do you evaluate your students' level in writing?

Teachers'Estimation	Number of Teachers	Percentage
Poor	16	66,66%
Average	8	33,33%
Good	0	00%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.36: Students' Level in Writing

The foremost aim of this question is to find out the teachers' opinions about their students' level in writing. The results indicate that 16 (60%) respondents consider their students as poor writers, 8 (34%) regard their students' writing level as 'Average', and none of the teachers opted for 'Good'. The immediate comment on the findings stated above is that a huge majority of the teachers consider the level of their students in writing as weak and poor because of many reasons that would be mentioned in the answers of the following question.

Question Five: When you ask your students to write an assignment, they are:

    a.   Very interested

    b.   Interested

    c.   Not Interested

Students' Interest	Number of Teachers	Percentage
A	0	00%
B	8	33,33%
C	16	66,66%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.37: Student's Interest in Writing

This question aims at gauging the participants' views about their student's reaction to the accomplishment of the writing tasks. The results indicated that 66, 66 of teachers reported that their students are not interested in accomplishing the writing tasks. 8 teachers making up 33,33% believe that their students feel interested when asked to write. While the none of the participants believe that their students are very interested when it comes to composition.

The results demonstrated above shed light on the fact that second year LMD students do regard writing as a thorny task. Such a fact might be rooted in the various difficulties that students may confront whenever involved in the act of composition. One available way to tackle the underlined complexity of writing is to urge teachers and researchers to dig into the dynamics of the writing process as an attempt to come out with data that would yield manageable solutions that would further be adopted in the classroom.

Question Six: In your opinion, what, among the following skills is less pleasant for students to be involved in?

      a- Writing

      b -Speaking

      c- Listening

      d- Reading

Options	N	%
A	18	75%
B	1	4.16
C	2	8.33
D	3	12.6
Total	24	100%

Table 6.38: Teacher's Stances towards the Language Skills

This question aims at denoting the teacher's stances about the skill that is less likely to be pleasant for the students. The results showed that 80% of the participants opted for the writing skill. Three teachers reported that reading is the most difficult skill. While 8,33% and 4,16% respectively chose listening and speaking to be the less manageable skills performed by students. The findings ascertain the hypothetical motion that writing is perceived to be the most difficult skill learners are engaged in. It is, then, a necessity to seek the teachers stand points with respect to what they attribute the underlined complexity of composition.

Question Seven: In your opinion, what weaknesses are most elaborated in your students writing performances (you may tick more than one aspect)?

    a.   Poor grammar

    b.   Poor vocabulary

    c.   Lack of Motivation to write

    d.   Poor organization of ideas

    e.   Poor punctuation

    f.   Poor spelling

Option	N	%
a, d	15	62.5
B,f	5	20.83%
B, c	3	12.5%
A,b,c,d,e,f,	1	4.16%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.39: Classification of the Students' Weaknesses in Writing

This question aims at capturing the teacher's opinions about the difficulties that are most frequent in their students writing performances. 62.5% of the participants opted for a poor grammar and organisation of ideas. While 20.83% of the participants reported that the lack of vocabulary and spelling skills are the most common students' weaknesses. In addition, 12.5% of the participants chose the lack of vocabulary and motivation to be the main difficulties associated with the writing process. Last but not least, 4.16% of the participants have opted for all the given difficulties.

Having in mind that writing is an enigmatic process under the auspices of which various competencies should be initially accounted for and then mastered. As such, the researcher upholds the view that all the above mentioned intricacies are inter twined in which one difficulty leads to the emergence of another one whenever involved in high quality compositions. It is then legitimate to support the teachers' minority that reported the existence of all these difficulties in their students' writing. Grammar, vocabulary, organisation, spelling, motivation and so on must be combined within the spectrum of proficient writing. The emerging issue, thus, illuminates the need for a teaching philosophy that recognises these difficulties, and then, go further in adopting new approaches, methods and activities in the teaching of L2 writing along with adapting the classroom practice with the modern understanding of writing as a process.

Question eight: Would you attribute the noted difficulties of writing to:

a.   Inefficient instruction

b.   Lack of practice

c.   Lack of organization

d.   Poor guidance

e.   Others

Source of Weaknesses	Number of Teachers	Percentage
Inefficient instruction	02	8.33%
Lack of practice	10	41.66%
Lack of organization	8	33.33%
Poor guidance	04	16.66%
Other	0	00%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.40: Teacher's Attitudes towards the Source of the Writing Difficulties

This question aims at giving teachers an opportunity to state the reasons behind their students' weaknesses in writing. The findings denote that 10 (41.66%) of the respondents replied "lack of practice", 8 (33.33%) opted for lack of organization. While 4 (16.66%) of teachers reported poor guidance, only 2 (8.33%) participants have opted for inefficient instruction".

The results imply that the lack of practice and disorganization are the most common causes of the students' poor writing performance. It is noteworthy that the great minority of teachers disregarded the factor of "inefficient instruction" to be potentially contributive in creating a room for students' inability to write. By inefficient instruction", the researcher means the instructional practice adopted in the classroom through the various approaches, methods and activities to teaching L2 writing. Is it legitimate to argue that we, L2 Written Expression teachers, might have disregarded certain dynamics associated with an adequate implementation of the various L2 teaching approaches.

The fact that teachers do not account for the potential existence of a gap between their instruction and their students needs and goals, draw the researcher's attention to emphasize this dilemma. We went further and propose that the current teaching practice has got certain short comings and, thus, exerting a negative influence on the students' written outcomes. This hypothetical motion is at the heart of the research at hand, thus, it comes to receive the lion's share in this questionnaire. To confirm, or disconfirm, such a speculation, the researcher devoted the whole following section.

Section Three: Teachers' attitudes toward the Process and the Product Approaches

This section aims at gauging the teachers view points about the approaches they adopt in teaching L2 writing, with a particular reference to the process and the product approach.. Capturing the teachers' opinions about the currently implemented approach, its advantages, its short comings, and their suggestions would yield significant data pertinent to the research at hand to overcome the confronted predicaments in their daily instructional practice.

Question 9: which approach do you implement in the teaching of L2 writing?

    a. Product approach
    b. Process approach
    c. Both

Approach	N	%
Product approach	3	12.5%
Process approach	17	70%
Both	4	17.5%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.41: The Approach Implemented in the Teaching of Writing

This question aims at determining which approach teachers use in the teaching of L2 writing. The results indicate that 70% of teachers adhere to the process philosophy. (12.5%) of the participants opted for the product approach. While 4 (17.5%) reported a dynamic combination of the two approaches according to the teaching context requirements

It is, then, crystal clear that the vast majority of teachers implement the process approach in the teaching of L2 writing. Such a paradigm has a distinctive nature that differs from the other trends. To achieve the desired outcomes, teachers must be fully aware of the process approach' nature, its characteristics, advantages, disadvantages, and the way it should be implemented to best fit the students' needs. One of the most substantial objectives of this questionnaire is to determine whether or not teachers do have the necessary conditions of implementing such an approach. An attempt to work such an objective out will take place in the coming questions.

Question 10: Would you please explain why?

Only three teachers who follow solely the product approach without combination of any other approach. They elucidated that:

- Students like to study model essays before engaged in writing. It gives them an image to what they are required to do.

- To encourage learners to be more productive by giving them some freedom.

For those who believe that writing is realized through steps and selected the Process Approach justified their choice as follows.

- It is necessary for students to explore the process of writing from the first phase till the last.

- At first stage, the process approach is more suitable; it helps them see how writing works in English.

- Students need to understand and complete writing tasks by following different stage of the Process Approach.

- Whenever I find time, I try to adopt the Process Approach because I like to follow my students in each writing phase so that I give them feedback on every detail. For example, feedback is very useful in drafting.

- I like to get my students think how to approach a topic through steps instead of merely receiving their production at the end of the session.

- Writing is a continuous process, and the students go through different stages to produce the final product. Students should not think of producing an ideal piece of writing right from the beginning (product approach)

- The teacher's presence during the process of writing provides students with appropriate guidance as she/he directs the process from brainstorming till editing in order to come to a well product.

- Whatever is the Product Approach, but I consider the process approach as essential. One cannot go without the other particularly in our case.

- The process approach is very beneficial, it helps students to go step by step until they arrive to produce a coherent and unified piece of writing.

- It is important to teach them how to go through an organized process to write a successful essay.

- The process approach guides the students in their writing from selecting the topic to the final coherent and unified draft.

Those who opted for the combination of both the product and the process approach illuminated their choices as follows:

1- The type of the approach depends on the length of the piece of writing, the broadness of the topic and the time allocated for the task. But I use both to get the learners familiar with various writing circumstances.

2- Following students through every step of the writing process permits the teacher to focus on their individual mistakes; evaluating their final product is more directed towards checking content (ideas) and form. This is why I use both the process and the product approaches.

3- I make use of all my theoretical knowledge in the field. The product Approach- though criticized- helps achieving accuracy which students lack today. The process approach enhances their writing skills (generating ideas, outlining, revising,…) and the genre approach acquaints them with authentic writing. Each approach fulfils a particular need.

4- The teacher's presence during the process of writing provides students with appropriate guidance as he/she directs the process of brainstorming till editing to

order to come to a well product. It is important in writing to emphasize the final product which is the result of a number of stages of writing and discovery.

Question 11: Does the approach you implement in teaching writing fulfill the requirements of producing high quality compositions?

a. Yes

b. No

Option	N	%
Yes	9	40%
No	15	60%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.42: Teacher's Belief of the Efficiency of the Implemented Approach

The foremost aim of this question is to figure out the efficiency of the approaches adopted in the writing classrooms. 60% of teachers who reported the use of the process approach showed their dissatisfaction with the latter's results. All the participants who reported the exclusive use of the product approach also reported the inefficiency of instruction solely based on the product approach. The results imply that teachers do acknowledge either the complexity of implementing the process approach as well as the inefficiency of relying exclusively on the product paradigm.

Question12: As far as the process approach is concerned, what difficulties have you been confronted with when implementing such a paradigm?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………..

The aim of this question is to determine the obstacles faced in a process-oriented writing instruction. It was intentionally designed to be an open-ended question to gain access into as much difficulties as possible confronted by teachers. Various short comings reside in the complexity of implementing such an approach. The participants reported that high teachers training, time consuming, difficulty of evaluating each cognitive process associated with the process trend, the difficulty of ascertaining a smooth movement from one cognitive process to another by students when composing, and most importantly, the approach inefficiency in developing the students' grammatical skills needed, especially, in foreign language teaching context, to be the most salient short comings of the process instruction.

Question 13: When involved in the act of writing, do your students follow all the stages of the writing process?

Option	N	%
Yes	5	20%
No	19	80%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.43: Student's Adherence to the Stages of the Writing Process

This question aims at determining whether or not students follow the cognitive stages associated with the process approach. Despite the exclusive use of the process approach, 80% of the participants reported their students' deficiency in moving from one stage to another.

Question 14: If "NO", what are the most followed stages?

a.   Brainstorming

b.   Generating initial drafts

c.   Revising

d.   Editing the final draft

Options	N	%
A D	8	33.33%
B D	15	62.5%
B C D	1	4.16%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.44: The Mostly Followed Stages

Table (6.44) Clearly shows the mostly followed stages by the students. More than half of the teachers selected the options B and D. They observed that during their experience in teaching writing, students start, first, by generating ideas and pass directly to editing the final draft. (8).teachers opted for "A and D" in the sense that their students begin, first, by brainstorming and pass to the final step where they edit their piece of writing. However, one teacher selects "B C D" and insists on the fact that the students follow three stages: drafting, revising, then they write their final clean draft.

Question 15: As far as the product approach is concerned, what difficulties that may arise when implementing such a paradigm?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………..

The administration of this question seeks to unveil the extent to which the product approach is effective in teaching L2 writing. Similarly to the previous question, this one is open-ended in order to provide teachers with an opportunity to state difficulties that may not be identified by the researcher. Being limited to developing the student's accuracy, total disregard of fluency, the cognitive processes, the communicative nature, the recursive entity of such a cognitive skill are the most common limitations of the product approach identified by teachers. The resulting issue, hence, sheds lights on the inefficiency of the exclusive implementation of the product approach due to the latte's short comings noted above.

Section Four: Metacognition and the Product Approach

This section is intended to identify the teachers' attitudes towards bringing a metacognitive dimension to the product approach of teaching L2 writing. It, further, seeks to determine the extent to which the cognitive strategies are implemented in the writing classroom under the process paradigm. The analysis of these questions would yield reliable data on the basis of which the researcher will be able to detect the process approach weak spots, and then, suggests an alternative approach.

The aspects that will be included in this section will encompass two faces. The first one includes the basic metacognitive strategies in terms of planning, monitoring, organization, and goal setting. As for the second face, it includes certain metacognitive strategies used in the manipulation of the independent variable of the set hypothesis (metacognitive knowledge and regulation), used in instructing the experimental group with the metacognitive product approach, and referred to in the theoretical part of this study. It is to be mentioned that researchers argue that the metacognitive strategies adopted in this research would not bring fruits if the sample (students) does not go

primarily through the basic metacognitive processes in terms of planning, monitoring, organizing and goal setting. It is this causal relationship between these strategies that imposed the necessity of including these strategies in this part of the questionnaire. As a result, the researcher initiated this section with questions that reflect the teachers' opinions about the basic metacognitive traditionally referred to as cognitive) strategies. Then, the researcher made reference to the metacognitive strategies adopted in this investigation.

Question sixteen: when involved in the process of writing, do your students set goals, plan, monitor, edit, revise their written product?

Option	N	%
Yes	5	20%
No	19	80%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.45: Teacher's Attitudes towards their Student's use of the Basic Metacognitive Strategies

This question aims at determining viewpoints about their students' ability to incorporate the basic metacognitive strategies in the accomplishment of their writing tasks. The results indicated that 80% of the participants reported their students' deficiency in implementing these strategies whenever involved in the act of writing. This is a sure sign that some encountered difficulties of writing are rooted in the learners' inability to set goals, plan, monitor, edit and revise, and thus, produce poor written performances.

Question 17: How often do you incorporate cooperative learning in the teaching of L2 writing?

        a.   Very often
        b.   Often
        c.   Sometimes
        d.   Never

Option	N	%
Very often	00	00%
Sometimes	7	30%
Rarely	17	70%
Never	00	00%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.46: Teacher's Frequency of Incorporating Cooperative Learning

This question aims at determining whether or not teachers incorporate the strategy of cooperative learning when instructing L2 writing. The results indicated that 70% of teachers "Rarely" use such a strategy. While 30% of the participants opted for "Sometimes". None of them replied very often and never. The results imply that teachers do incorporate this strategy in their teaching of L2 writing. However, as argued by scholars, cooperative learning detached from the other metacognitive skills, will not be efficient in meeting the students' needs. That is why it should be insightfully combined with the other metacognitive skills.

Question 18: Having in mind that metacognitive self reflection is a strategy that is divided into two basic elements: self judgments and self reaction, do you incorporate these two elements in the teaching of the writing skill?

Option	N	%
Yes	5	80%
No	19	20%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.47: Teacher's Incorporation of Metacognitive Self-Reflection

This question purports at figuring out whether or not teachers rely on self reflection strategy in their instruction. The results indicated that 80% of the participants incorporated such a strategy. While only 20% do incorporate this strategy in teaching writing. The results indicate that the majority of teachers disregard the magnificent role self reflection does play in helping students overcome the encountered writing difficulties.

Barring in mind that metacognitive scaffolding is bridging the gap between students' current knowledge and their potential outcome.

Question 19: Do you incorporate such a strategy in your writing instruction?

a. Yes

b. No

	N	%
Yes	6	25%
No	18	75%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.48: Teacher's Incorporation of Metacognitive Scaffolding

The utmost purpose of this question is to determine whether or not teachers incorporate metacognitive scaffolding in the accomplishments of their writing tasks. The results indicated that 75% of the respondents reported the implementation of scaffolding in the writing classroom. While 25% of the respondents opted for "no" which means that they are not using this strategy in their writing classroom. the researcher believes that the teachers none implementation of metacognitive scaffolding is a sure sign that it may create a room for certain writing difficulties. It is, then, legitimate, to argue that metacognitive scaffolding might serve the purpose of overcoming the writing's complexity.

Question 20: Do you provide models of texts or model the written tasks before asking the students to accomplish them.

    a.   Yes

    b.   No

Option	N	%
Yes	6	25%
No	18	75%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.49: Teacher's Incorporation of Modeling

The reason behind asking this question is to determine whether or not teachers use modeling as a one available technique while teaching composition. The results showed that   of the participants do not model the written texts before asking students to accomplish them. One available interpretation is that modeling might be the missing gap in the teaching context due to its significant role, as proved by scholars, in helping students assimilate, adopt, and adapt with the learnt income.

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Question 21 : Do you implement "self-questioning strategy" in you writing instruction?

A.   Yes

B.   No

Option	N	%
Yes	2	8.33%
No	22	91.66%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.50: Teacher's Implementation of Self-questioning

This question is included primarily to detect the frequency of using "self questioning" in the writing instruction. The findings showed that 91.66% of the participants denied the use of such a strategy. An interpretation that may arise here is that metacognitive self questioning is a neglected skill within the arena of teaching writing despite its highly proved efficiency.

Question 22: To what extent do you believe that cooperative learning, self reflection, modeling, and self questioning are contributive in the betterment of the writing skill?

a.   Very contributive
b.   Contributive
c.   Moderately Contributive
d.   Not contributive

Option	N	%
Very contributive	12	50%
Contributive	8	33.33%
Moderately contributive	4	16.66%
Not contributive	00	00%
Total	24	100%

Table 6.51: Teacher's belief of the Efficiency of Self-reflection, Modeling and Self-questioning

This question purports at gauging the teachers' attitudes towards the contribution of metacognitive strategies in the betterment of the writing skill. The findings denote that 50% of the participants opted for "very contributive", while 33.33% reported "contributive". Only 16.66% of teachers responded "moderately". These results refer to the teachers' awareness about the necessity of incorporating metacognitive strategies in teaching writing with a remarkable conviction that these strategies are highly beneficial if we are, as teachers, to help students produce high quality compositions.

Section Five: Further suggestions

Question 23: please, add any suggestions you see relevant to the aim of this questionnaire.

Only 12 teachers out of 22 added some suggestions. They are as follows.

1.   Writing teachers tend to award more attention to 'know to write…', rather than making students write. Students, for example, know quite well that the components of a good paragraph or essay are, but lack practice. What they need to do in 'write' instead of being 'taught about writing'.

2.   If the teacher manages to make his learners see and understand their mistakes, and if he succeeds to motivate them to write, he will bring about successful writers.

3.   Motivation and metacognition are crucial leadership skills and lucky the student who has them in his pocket.

4.   I suppose that reading must be integrated in any language learning curriculum because it has a significant impact on the development of the writing process. Teachers could optimize students' engagement in writing activities through constant evaluation of their progress.

5.   I think that the best way to enhance students' outcomes in writing is through introducing reading into the writing class so that students could have enough exposure to the print (In terms of ideas, vocabulary, …)

6.   The writing teachers showed attempt to make their students capable of becoming aware of their own mental learning processes as to choose which approval learning strategy to adopt when facing different kinds of learning tasks.

7.   Workshops on writing and metacognitive skills may help better both.

8.   Writing is a complex process that includes many variables, but the affective factors are of crucial importance; therefore, teachers should try to raise students' motivation to help them improve as writers.

9.   Writing should be given more attention, more hours, a lot of practice and teachers should boost students' motivation through giving positive feedback, following metacognitive strategies and mixing different teaching approaches and styles.

10.   To enhance learners' level, we have to provide them with necessary conditions, to reduce the number of students per group to allow teachers provide good teaching, and take all the students in charge, giving the opportunity to anyone of them to improve by allowing more practice under the supervision of the teacher be it individual or cooperative work, and introducing reading activities and tasks.

11.   The subject is very interesting because it seeks to investigate learners' motivation using metacognitive strategies to enhance their writing skill.

6.2.2 Discussion of the results

The teachers questionnaire is conducted to gauge the teachers' viewpoints and attitudes towards their students' written performances, the difficulties that may arise whenever involved in the teaching of writing, and the implementation of the metacognitive oriented approach in their writing instruction; it is note worthy that the questionnaire includes four basic sections. Each of which is intended to reveal data that are pertinent to the research at hand.

The first section, entitled, "General information" includes Q1, Q2? Q3 were designed to determine the participants' professional status, how long have they been teaching writing, and the level they have instructed. The results indicate that 60% of the participants are "permanent teachers" with either Phd or Magister degree. They have been teaching writing for a period that dangles between 10 to 30 years. These findings may create a room for validity and reliability of the gathered information as they represent data that is based on rich experience of teaching the targeted level used as the sample in the current investigation (2nd year LMD students).

As for the second section entitled "the writing skill". It seeks to reveal the teachers opinion about their students written performance, their interest in such a skill, the difficulties that may arise whenever teaching/learning. At the end of this section, teachers were kindly asked to note some suggestions to the previously referred issues that are omnipresent in the writing classroom.

The findings denote the teachers' thorough dissatisfaction with their students' performance in writing. 67% believed that their learners are poor writers Q4. In the same vein, Q5 and Q6 reveal that writing is the least pleasant skill for students in comparison to the other language skills as noted by the informants. Poor grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and the lack of motivation are the most salient difficulties of writing as manifested in the students' compositions Q7.

The last question in this section is administered so that teachers may state the reasons behind their students poor written outcomes and to what they attribute the encountered writing difficulties. With relatively diversified answers, 60% of the participants reported that lack of practice and organization as the main reasons, whereas, 40% opted for Poor guidance and inefficient instruction Q8. It is worth mentioning that the findings of this question denote great disregard of the teachers potential, even if minimal, responsibility in their students weak written products. By inefficient instruction the researcher means the instruction implemented in the classroom through the various approaches, methods, and activities of teaching L2 writing.

The fact that teachers do not account for the potential existence of a gap between their instruction and their students' needs and goals draws the researcher's attention to emphasize this dilemma. The researcher went further and proposed that the

current teaching practice has got certain shortcomings and, thus, exerting a negative influence on the students written outcomes.

To address the previously referred to dilemma, the researcher included a whole section devoted to determining the teachers attitude towards the currently adopted teaching philosophies with a particular reference to the product and the process approaches to teaching L2 writing. This section includes seven questions related to the subject matter. Q9 show that the great majority (70%) of teachers use the process approach as the source of their instruction. The complexity of implementing such a paradigm is well documented in the research literature. To efficiently implement the process approach, teachers should be fully aware of its nature, characteristics, advantages, shortcomings, and the ways it should be implemented to best fit the students needsQ10.

When asked if the process approach does fulfill their instructional goals, 60% of the participants showed their dissatisfaction with the outcomes of such an approach and efficiencyQ11. High teachers' training, inefficiency in developing the learners accuracy and grammatical competence, time consuming, the difficulty of evaluating each cognitive process associated with the act of writing, and the difficulty of ascertain a smooth movement from cognitive process to another by students when composing are the most noted shortcomings manifested in the process approach as reported by the participants Q12 and 13.

As far as the product approach is of a major concern, teachers were asked about the shortcoming of such an approach if it is to be used exclusively in the teaching of L2 writing. Being limited to develop the students' accuracy, total disregard of fluency, the cognitive processes, the communicative nature of writing, the recursive

entity of such cognitive skill are the most common limitations of the product approach identified by teachers Q15.

As for the last section of this questionnaire, it is believed to be the heart and the most important part. It seeks to unveil the teachers' opinions about bringing a metacognitive dimension to the arena of teaching writing. Teachers reported their students' inability to set goals, plan, monitor, edit, and revise Q16. This is a sure sign that some of the students deficiencies are rooted in their inability to go through these cognitive processes and, thus, produce poor performances. Question 17 revealed that 80% of teachers rarely incorporate cooperative learning in their instructions. It is, then, crystal clear that despite using cooperative learning in teaching L2 writing, students still face various difficulties whenever involved in composition tasks. This is mainly due to the detached and inconsistent implementation of cooperative learning with no, or minimal, reference with the other metacognitive strategies.

As for questions 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, they all serve the purpose of revealing whether, or not, teachers incorporate certain metacognitive strategies in the of L2 writing. The results showed that the majority of teachers do not take modeling, self-reflection, scaffolding, and self-questioning as a continuum of metacognitive strategies that may be used in writing instruction. Needless to emphasise the significant role these strategies play in overcome certain difficulties of composing, thus, developing the students writing performances. It is noteworthy that these strategies lay at the heart of the investigation at hand.

In a nutshell, the researcher's basic and preliminary assumption, therefore, is that the difficulties manifested in the arena of teaching writing might be rooted in neglecting the matacognitive nature and orientation of writing. One potential solution,

hence, is to create a teaching paradigm that accounts for such a critical facet of metacognition. As such, the researcher suggested that L2 writing teachers should move from adopting the process approach to the product one. The latter's efficiency is to be ascertained by analyzing and overcoming its shortcomings, preserving its advantages, and ultimately, bring a metacognitive orientation to it. Overall, the results of the questionnaire do confirm the set hypothesis which speculates that the matacognitive-product approach is designed in such a way that keeps its defining characteristics (grammar-focus, simplicity, feasibility), overcome its shortcomings (total disregard of fluency, communicative aspect of writing, social and cultural aspects of composition, and the discourse features) as well as implementing metacognitive knowledge and regulation in its modus operandi.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter; the researcher attempted to display, analyze, discuss, and summarize the findings gathered by means of teachers and students questionnaires. In light of the obtained results, the second tabulated hypothesis which emphasizes the probability that students and teachers would have positive attitudes towards the implementation of the product approach combined with metacognitive strategies to teach L2 writing has been confirmed. Though, teachers and students' answers confirmed that writing is a thorny issue that should be dealt with. The incorporation of the suggested approach was contributive in dispelling a variety of the difficulties encountered in both teaching and learning writing. In this respect, the participants ascertained that metacognitive knowledge and regulation provide input that reinforces learning, create pleasant atmosphere, increases critical thinking, captures attention, and raises inspiration. It is now crystal clear that both teachers and students are in favor of

bringing a metacognitive dimension to writing apprenticeship through establishing a

suggested approach that the researcher refer to as the metacognitive- product approach.

Chapter Seven

Overall Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

CHAPTER SEVEN: OVERALL DISCUSSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

This chapter attempts first to respond to the research questions. It summarizes the overall results which have been gleaned from the three data collection instruments: the test, students' questionnaire, and teachers' questionnaire. Then, on the basis of what has been discussed in both theoretical and practical parts, the remaining of the chapter is dedicated to some pedagogical implications.

7.1 Discussion of the Overall Results

Question One:

Is the implementation of the process approach in the teaching of L2 writing effective in meeting the students' needs?

As the results of teachers questionnaires indicate, 90% of the participants reported the implementation of the process approach where learners are supposed to develop fluency and be provided with a way to think about writing in terms of what the writer does (planning, revising, drafting editing, and the like). Students are looked upon as central in learning so that their needs, expectations, learning styles, goals, knowledge and skills are taken into consideration. The questionnaire results, also, indicated that the difficulty and the complexity associated with the implementation of the process approach decreased the teachers potentiality of meeting their instructions' goals, and therefore, hindered the learners writing abilities. Over-crowded classrooms that prevent teacher-student interaction, unbalanced learners level, the practicality of the product

over the process approach in terms of the implication' feasibility, and the teachers' very high quality (to avoid saying poor experienced teachers) required to work out such an approach are the main reasons attributed to the inefficiency of the process approach.

In the same respect, the student' questionnaire results The latter purports at determining whether, or not, students conceive their teachers writing instruction, are able to indicated that students are not able to understand and transfer the acquired knowledge, do not have the skills necessary to gain access to the higher cognitive process, and ultimately they are not autonomous and fluent in writing. The results, also, showed that the students are far away from perceiving their teachers instructions. The latter still stress accuracy over fluency insofar grammar and correctness occupy the line's share and neglect equipping the students with the cognitive knowledge necessary to gain mastery of the writing skills. As such, the process approach is not efficient in developing the students' writing abilities

Question two:

Is the implementation of the product approach in the teaching of L2 writing contributive in developing the students' writing skills?

The teachers' questionnaire results indicated that none of the participants recorded an exclusive adherence to the product approach. These results are due to the traditional nature of such a paradigm which does not serve the interest of the contemporary educational enterprises. Furthermore, a great body of research pertinent to the implementation of the product approach to the teaching of L2 writing is not recommended because of the shortcomings such an instructional practice has long manifested in the arena of L2 classrooms. It has the demits of regarding composition as a linear, non recursive process with huge interest on the final written products with no

reference to the steps students tend to go through while composing. No account for the audience, the communicative aspect of writing, fluency, socio-cultural aspects, and the cognitive processes are main critics attributed to the product approach. These theoretical finding are well within the teachers knowledge, that is why they unanimously decline to incorporate the product approach the traditional way with no modification of his framework as shown in the questionnaire results.

Question three:

Does the combination of metacognition with the product approach exert a positive impact on writing instructions; thus, foster the learners' productive outcomes?

Initially, the results of the pre-test analysis show that the participants' overall performance of the experimental and the control group is nearly the same, though the mean scores of the control group (17.90) was slightly higher than that of the experimental group (17.70). This pre-test performance which can be described as near the average or average as the scores represent half of the expected best performance is not satisfying, because lexico-grammar and text organization skills should be well mastered at the beginning levels so that the students can go beyond the basics and pursue other aspects of writing with less anxiety in the higher levels. Therefore, before embarking upon the treatment, it was evident that the participants in both groups have exhibited equivalent levels in writing, and any change takes place after the treatment would be attributable to the teacher researcher's intervention.

Further, when the pre-test results are examined separately and according to the means of each set aspect of writing, it comes out that the experimental group participants performed nearly the same as the control group participants did. The post-test results, on the other hand, indicate that the mean score of control group was (18.16),

and that of the experimental group was (22.53). That is, the participants in the experimental group achieved a higher mean post-test score than that achieved by the participants in the control group. Statistically, it was proved that there is a significant difference in the overall performance between the experimental and the control group.

In the post-test, the results also show a notable difference due to the positive performance of the experimental group in all aspects. Specifically, the control group made a significant improvement only in topic sentence and thesis statement areas, while the experimental group developed significantly in all the eight areas of instruction in terms of grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, types of development, topic sentence, thesis statement, cohesion, and coherence. These significant differences indicate that the experimental group had positive responses towards bringing the notion of metacognition in teaching writing.

Additionally, the experimental group students themselves asserted through the questionnaire directed to them that their writing has been improved due to their exposure to the notions of metacognitive knowledge and regulation. They have reported that none of the aforementioned aspects constituted a great difficulty to them after the experiment implementation. Teachers, on their parts, sustained that teaching writing through the product approach combined with metacognitive strategies could be more helpful to second year students to write more organized pieces of writing.

Question four/five:

How often do EFL students incorporate metacognitive strategies in the accomplishment of their writing tasks?

Do EFL students have the required metacognitive knowledge and skills necessary to produce high quality compositions?

At the outset, it is worth mentioning that the students have changed positively their EFL writing performance. When comparing the students' responses to a question related to their frequency of using metacognitive strategies in EFL outside the classroom before and after the experiment, it was found that the majority of the students were rarely using metacognition before the experiment. This can be described as a normal act from the part of the students who were not given enough opportunities to perceive the importance of this element. However, after the experiment, most students' metacognitive knowledge was raised, thus, the frequency of using metacognitive strategies elevated ranging between "sometimes" and "very often".

Further, the questionnaire revealed that the students are in favour of the idea of integrating metacognition in the writing classroom. The students considered metacognition to be one available tool that creates a room for improvement in the their written products. They went further to explain that bringing a metacognitive dimension into the composition course is very important and helpful because, in their opinion, it equips them with a whole effective battery of strategies they can use to overcome the difficulties associated with the writing process. Moreover, they reported that cooperative learning creates a joyful environment in the writing course, and some others described modeling as the best strategy as it provides an idea about how a good piece of writing should be; thus, inspires them when they start writing. Additionally, the students asserted that self-reflection was helpful in developing their knowledge about writing through helping them ask questions and conduct self-evaluation in the middle of the writing process. As a consequence, they pointed out that their writing got more

accurate, their text organisation was improved, and that they got more aware metacognitively.

Question Six:

What are the different EFL teachers' attitudes about combining metacognitive strategies with the product approach to the teaching of L2 writing?

The teachers' questionnaire showed clearly that all teachers agree that metacognitive is a field in its infancy which, if incorporated insightfully develops the students writing abilities. In fact, it is an interesting finding to know that teachers are not captive of the classical pedagogy which does not account for cognition or meatacognition in instruction. This answer is also quite reasonable realizing that the current conception of writing regards the latter to be an active, cognitive, and recursive process which entails a mastery of various high mental processes. The questionnaire also revealed that teachers generally favour certain metacognitive strategies (modeling, cooperative earning, and scaffolding) over others (self-reflection and self-questioning) as the most useful type of strategies that contribute to a better EFL writing. They are fully right if one should take into account time constraints, essays types and other factors.

Practically speaking, all teachers admit the high necessity of metacognition in the composition course. The contradiction, however, is that their theoretical beliefs mismatch their teaching practice. In other words, though they stress highly the implementation of meatacognitive strategies, they rarely make such realisation practised in EFL writing classrooms. As mentioned earlier, probably, the teachers prefer to focus

on practising writing through the framework of the process approach which never seems to bring fruits.

As for replacing the process approach with the product paradigm combined with metacognitive strategies, all teachers of WE show a positive attitude towards the feasibility and validity of such an instructional practice. This teachers' high positive agreement stems from their unwavering confidence in the simplicity of the product approach, its high quality in developing the students' lexico-grammatical skills. Combining such an approach with metacognition would be a step further in preserving its positive defining characteristics as well as overcoming some of its attributed demits and disadvantages. The resulting paradigm (product-metacognitive approach) would then be such an instructional practice which accounts for lexico-grammar and goes further to develop the students text organisation skills with major reference to the context of writing, the audience, the readers' expectations and the socio-cultural aspects of composition.

7.2 Pedagogical Implications

7.2.1 Implications for Teaching

Based on the survey of literature and the empirical evidence of the current study presented in the different previous chapters, some instructional actions to be undertaken in this or similar teaching contexts can be put forward as under:

7.2.1.1 On the Importance of Metacognition in the Field of EFL Writing

Metacognition can provide overriding insights in the field of language teaching and learning in general. In particular, through this study, it can be recommended as a

fruitful practice to second year students in the field of EFL writing. We mean here that the students should be exposed and sufficiently trained to use aspects of metacognition in their writing because it is during this year that they start to deal with the basic writing skills. Metacognition, in this situation, can result in greater writing versatility as the students will acquire a variety of strategies they can adapt to their own writing.

7.2.1.2 On the Significance of Metacognitive Knowledge

In this study, it was an interesting finding that the experimental group students produced more accurate written products than the control group did. This outperformance from the part of the former group can be attributable to the students' high metacognitive awareness. The pedagogical implication would be that when teaching writing, teachers are recommended to deal with the notion of metacogonitive knowledge as a vital means to create critical thinking. This notion is very helpful to second year students in the sense that it boosts their awareness of the significance of producing, deciding, and locating the important information and concepts within the main parts of their writing. Furthermore, having an adequate metacognitive knowledge will make the writer students think as readers because they will be vigilant to sidestep every irrelevant detail which may mess the global meaning of their writing.

As such, metacognitive knowledge serves as the starting point in the long run of achieving any pedagogical objective. It is about clarifying, simplifying, and triggering the students attention to what is that to be learned, its relevance to their daily life, contribution to their future careers, role it plays in developing their skills and competences in all areas of their specialty, and most importantly knowing what is

needed to be done in order to the set goals and meet their teachers expectations. All of this is the realm of meatcognitive knowledge and its essence.

7.2.1.3 On the Significance of Lexico-grammar

As shown in the practical part of this study, the experimental group students produced more grammatically accurate performances with comparison to the control group. This superiority stems from the fact that the adopted approach (product) in per se was highly efficient in developing the participants lexico-grammatical skills. this realization is in reconciliation with the research literature which emphasises the high efficiency of the product approach in developing the lexico-grammatical competence, as noted by scholars. If combined with with metacognition, the product approach modus operandi acquires much more validity and practicality by overcoming some of its shortcomings and achieving the set goals of L2 writing instructional practice.

The pedagogical implication would be that when teaching writing, teachers are recommended to account for such an approach to help learners develop their grammatical competence, acquire authentic vocabulary, and reach the needed syntactic maturity as well as the semantic prosody their teachers account for primarily while evaluating their papers.

7.2.1.4 On the Significance of Text Organisation

Cohesion and coherence are two standards of textuality without which it would be difficult to constitute structural textual entities. Based on the current body of research, accurate thesis statement, correct topic sentence, cohesive devices, and coherence relations which were investigated were also found to contribute effectively in the

hierarchical organization of textual units in the students' papers. Therefore, these aspects should take a substantial part in the design of Written Expression lessons of second year so that the students get familiar with them, and therefore, start to adapt them in their own writing in a more sophisticated way. What EFL teachers should take into account is to avoid presenting these new concepts in the form of a mere detailed theoretical handouts, because it is often hard for the students to properly grasp something that they have never directly seen or experienced before. As such, presenting these text organization features through incorporating the product approach combined with metacognition may allow students to directly observe and understand what makes the text hang together.

7.2.1.5 On the Necessity of Balancing Lexico-grammar with Text Organization Input

It is paramount to introduce the above features equally, for stressing one level over another can affect negatively the students writing performance. It was noticed that students may introduce successfully their main ideas, but they fail to create links between the main chunks of content and vice versa. Through the current study, we hope that teachers override the classical tendency of giving high priority to text grammatical accuracy, which is worthless without an efficient text organisation. Students, in fact, may find difficulties with controlling aspects of both levels in their writing, but as they develop the habit of analyzing, questioning and reflecting upon their own writing, they manage to grasp the two levels progressively.

7.2.1.6 On the Importance of the Metacognitive Strategies in Writing Instruction

The pedagogical value of metacognitive strategies, in the Algerian context, has long been neglected. Accordingly, EFL teachers and course designers should reconsider incorporating these strategies as a regular part of the writing curriculum since metacognitive knowledge and regulation have been widely reckoned to play an important role in the writing sessions. The current study suggests some implications on this importance as follows:

- Many researches stress the importance of providing as much metacognitive materials as possible for ESL/EFL students. According to these researches, these strategies raises awareness of the way English is used in written productions. However, just supplying these materials and hoping that students will develop their writing competence is certainly not sufficient. In the case of our students, a predetermined set of strategies could be the most appropriate type to incorporate in Written Expression,

- The use of modeling as a source of input seems to have helped the student participants to create a vivid picture of the aspects of writing under scrutiny. Modern emphasis in SLA theory on the crucial importance of input may even be regarded as reinforcing this finding. Therefore, getting over the different writing difficulties necessitates the presence of a model (teacher) that matches appropriately the students' level and that the students can rely on to achieve their needs as composers. As for teachers of writing, they need to provide the students with good models of the type of writing they are expected to produce in order to, at least, reduce the time spent on explaining new difficult concepts.

- The incorporation of cooperative learning may yield in interesting results because it assists the students to control their anxiety, reduce their stress, strengthen their motivation, and work in such a completive environment that helps them work better on themselves. Considering the finding of this study, some students reported that they enjoyed working cooperatively in pairs and that this strategy helped them overcome some writing difficulties. Cooperative learning activities then could be beneficial to students because they call the students' attention to specific language features. Moreover, they make the students discover a particular writing aspect with a partner they are more comfortable with; therefore, transfer the knowledge they gain to their own written production. More importantly, it has been noticed that this kind of activities adds a social dimension as it creates a real debate between two students about a particular aspect of writing.

- Another important pedagogical tool that can be used as an instructional practice is the self-reflection strategy. Similar to the context of this study, teachers may incorporate metacognitive self reflection at the end of the class, as a part of feedback, to increase the students' engagement and critical thinking. Actually, much can be accomplished with relatively little effort on the teacher's part and few minutes when he provides the students with such opportunities to become active agents in their writing and reflect upon the performance they think took place while accomplishing the writing tasks.

- As seen with the previous metacognitive strategies, self-questioning and scaffolding are two available means proved to be highly effective in dispelling some of the enigmatic nature of the writing process. In the investigation at hand, the experimental group's participants reported their sense of security when scaffolding took place as part of the instructional practice. Self- questioning

helps the learners take a while of meditation and deep self talk as to how they think their performances was, what aspects have they learned today, what mistakes were committed today, and what could be avoided afterwards? While scaffolding is the process of receiving input from a partner and a guide that supervises more than controls and governs.

Conclusion

The improvement in writing which the students achieved at the end of the experiment denotes that the product approach combined with metacognitive strategies can be a step forward in adapting a more suitable writing teaching program. This suggested approach can diminish the classical tendency of limiting the teaching of writing to the grammatical and syntactic level. It may also provide new insights which help EFL writing teachers to diagnose the students' writing failure and therefore seek for the best instructional methods.

General Conclusion

The interest lying behind this research is the quest for a teaching EFL writing methodology that best aids the students to write like academics. Through this research, it has been established that students who are trained to use metacognitive strategies would exhibit a higher overall writing performance. It has also been suggested that if teachers use the product approach combined with metacognitive strategies, they would develop their students' writing abilities.

Prior to the analysis of data and testing the hypotheses, the first part of the thesis provides the theoretical foundations on which this study is backed. It tackles various issues regarding metacognitive knowledge and regulation, the concept of writing and how its learned and taught. The objective to be reached behind the theoretical account has been to lay some background information pertinent to the experimental part. This latter has involved three data collection procedures: the writing test, the student questionnaire, and the teacher questionnaire.

Conducting the research has gone through many stages. At the outset, both the experimental and the control group took the pre-test at the same time. The ultimate aim has been to exhibit the students' writing blocks regarding the use of metacognitive strategies as well as the accuracy of their lexico-grammar as well as text organization competences. Next, both groups have been provided with different treatments: while the experimental group has received explicit and equal training, the control group treatment emphasis has been to have students write many essays in order to receive feedback about aspects of writing in general. Immediately, once the treatment has been over, a post-test has been administered to both groups under similar environmental conditions as have been available for the pre-test. Additionally, the experimental group students

have been given a questionnaire to corroborate some of the test findings and mainly to collect information about their attitudes towards incorporating metacognition in teaching writing. Lastly, the teachers have been also granted a questionnaire to elicit their attitudes about the same subject as well as to find out about their writing teaching practices and approaches they use in teaching L2 writing.

First, on the basis of the writing test results and part of the students' questionnaire, the first hypothesis has confirmed that the experimental group students who were trained to use metacognitive strategies exhibited a higher level of text organization and lexico-grammar than the control group students have done. Evidently and statistically, it has been proved that the experimental group has made a significant improvement in all the selected aspects of writing, namely grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, cohesive devices, coherence relations, types of essay development, topic sentence, and thesis statement. Second, with reference to the data obtained from the students' and teachers' questionnaire, the second hypothesis has been also confirmed in the sense that the students and teachers showed positive attitudes towards the incorporation of the product approach combined with metacognitive strategies reading in L2 teaching writing.

Eventually, some pedagogical implications in the form of guidelines for writing teaching practices have been made. The guidelines for teaching have been clustered into a number of points involving the significance of metacognitive knowledge and regulation in the field of EFL writing, the significance of lexico-grammar, the significance of text-organisation skills, the necessity of creating a balance between the two areas mentioned earlier in teaching writing.

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Appendices

Students	Control Group pre-Test Marks	Control Group Post test Marks	Experimental Group Pre-Test Group
ID	Global PreCTRL	Global PostCTRL	Global PreXP
1	16	16	16
2	19	22	18
3	18	18	18
4	15	20	14
5	10	10	10
6	22	22	22
7	18	18	18
8	16	19	15
9	22	22	22
10	14	14	14
11	11	11	11
12	22	20	20
13	14	14	14
14	14	14	14
15	16	16	16
16	22	22	22
17	24	24	24
18	16	16	16
19	12	12	12
20	20	20	20
21	14	14	14
22	26	26	26
23	24	24	24
24	22	21	21
25	10	10	10
26	13	13	13
27	22	22	22
28	28	28	28
29	11	11	11
30	26	26	26

Experimental GrOUP Post Test

Global PostXP
18
18
19
16
22
22
20
15
24
14
20
22
20
30
16
22
26
20
30
32
16
28
26
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30
21
31
30
19
28

Students	Lexico-Grammatical Competence Pre-Test Marks Experimental	Lexico Gramma.C Post test Experi	Lexical Grammatical Competence Pre-Test Control Group
ID	LexGr PreXP	LexGr PostXP	LexGr PreCTRL
1	06	10	06
2	07	09	09
3	06	09	06
4	06	06	09
5	04	10	04
6	08	09	08
7	07	09	08
8	05	06	07
9	07	10	04
10	04	06	05
11	05	09	10
12	08	11	05
13	05	08	06
14	06	12	06
15	06	06	09
16	09	10	09
17	10	12	10
18	06	07	06
19	04	17	04
20	08	14	08
21	06	10	06
22	16	18	16
23	15	11	15
24	14	16	11
25	06	14	06
26	07	11	07
27	13	16	13
28	16	12	16
29	06	10	06
30	17	12	17

Lexico Grammatical Post Test Control Gr	Text Prganisation of Pre-Test Experimental	Text Orga Post Test Experi	Text Organisation Pre-Test Control
LexGr PostCTRL	**TxtOrg PreXP**	**TxtOrg PostXP**	**TxtOrg PreCTRL**
06	10	08	10
14	11	09	10
06	12	10	12
11	08	10	06
04	06	12	06
08	14	13	14
07	11	11	11
08	10	07	08
07	14	14	14
04	10	08	10
05	06	11	06
08	12	11	12
05	09	12	09
06	08	18	08
06	10	10	10
09	13	12	13
10	14	14	14
06	10	13	10
04	08	13	08
08	12	18	12
06	08	06	08
16	10	10	10
15	09	15	09
14	09	05	11
06	04	16	04
07	06	10	06
13	09	15	09
16	12	18	12
06	05	09	05
17	09	16	09

Text Organisation Post
Test Control

TxtOrg PostCTRL
10
08
12
09
06
14
11
11
14
10
06
12
09
08
10
13
14
10
08
12
08
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06
17
16

Appendix - The Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is part of a research that aims at investigating the impact of combining the product approach with "metacognitive strategies" to the teaching of L2 writing. Your contribution will be very contributive in the achievement of this study's objectives. The information provided will be treated confidentially. Please, tick the choice that best communicates your answer and write a full statement whenever needed.

Section One: General Information

Question 1: Degree held

        a-   Master   ○

        b-   Magister   ○

        c-   PhD   ○

Question 2: How long have you been teaching?

        a-   1 to 5 years   ○

        b-   5 to 10 years   ○

        c-   10 to 15 years   ○

        d-   15 to 20 years   ○

        e-   More than 20 years ○

Question 3: Which level(s) have you been mainly teaching?

        a- 1st Year   ○

        b- 2nd Year   ○

        c- 3rd Year   ○

                         ○

d- 1st, 2nd Years

　　e- 2nd, 3rd Years　　　○

　　f- 1st, 2nd, 3rd Years　　○

Section Two: Teaching Writing

Question 4: How do you evaluate your students' level in writing?

　　a.　Poor　　　○
　　b.　Average　　○
　　c.　Good　　　○

Question 5 When you ask your students to write an assignment, they are:

　　a.　Very interested　　○

　　b.　Interested　　○

　　c.　Bored　　○

　　d.　Not interested　　○

Question 6: In your opinion, what, among the following skills is less pleasant for students to be involved in?

　　a-　Writing　　○

　　b-　Speaking　　○

　　c-　Listening　　○

　　d-　Reading　　○

Question 7: In your opinion, what weaknesses are most elaborated in your students writing performances?

　　a.　Poor grammar　　　○

　　　　　　　　　　　　○

b.   Poor vocabulary

c.   Inappropriate content   ◯

d.   Poor organization of ideas   ◯

e.   Poor punctuation   ◯

f.   Poor spelling   ◯

g.   Other   ◯

Question 8: Would you attribute the noted difficulties of writing to:

a.   Inefficient instruction   ◯

b.   Lack of practice   ◯

c.   Lack of organization   ◯

d.   Poor guidance   ◯

e.   Others   ◯

Section Three: Teachers' Attitudes towards the Process and the Product Approaches

Question 9: Which approach do you implement in the teaching of L2 writing?

a.   Product approach   ◯

b.   Process approach   ◯

c.   Both   ◯

Question 10: Would you please explain why?

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Question 11: Does the approach you implement in teaching writing fulfill the requirements of producing high quality compositions?

    a.   Yes   ○

    b.   No   ○

Question12: As far as the process approach is concerned, what difficulties have you been confronted with when implementing such a paradigm?

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Question 13: When involved in the act of writing, do your students follow all the stages of the writing process?

    a.   Yes   ○

    b.   No   ○

Question 14: If "NO", what are the mostly followed stages?

    a. Brainstorming   ○

    b.   Generating initial drafts   ○

    c.   Revising   ○

    d.   Editing the final draft   ○

Question 15: As far as the product approach is concerned, what difficulties that may arise when implementing such a paradigm?

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Section Four: Metacognition and the Product Approach

Question 16: When involved in the process of writing, do your students set goals, plan, monitor, edit, revise their written product?

Yes   ○

No   ○

Question 17: You incorporate cooperative learning in the teaching of L2 writing:

a.   Very often   ○
b.   Often   ○
c.   Sometimes   ○
d.   Never   ○

Question 18: Having in mind that metacognitive self reflection is a strategy that is divided into two basic elements: self judgment and self reaction, do you incorporate these two elements in the teaching of the writing skill?

a-   Yes   ○
b-   No   ○

Question 19: Do you incorporate such a strategy in your writing instruction?

a.   Yes   ○
b.   No   ○

Question 20: Do you provide models of texts or model the written tasks before asking the students to accomplish them.

    a.   Yes   ◯

    b.   No   ◯

Question 21: Do you implement "self-questioning strategy" in you writing instruction?

    a. Yes   ◯

    b. No   ◯

Question 22: To what extent do you believe that cooperative learning, self reflection, modeling, and self questioning are contributive in the betterment of the writing skill?

    a.   Very contributive   ◯

    b.   Contributive   ◯

    c.   Moderately Contributive   ◯

    d.   Not contributive   ◯

Section Five: Further Suggestions

Question 23: Please, add any suggestions you see relevant to the aim of this questionnaire.

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Appendix - The Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

 we would be very grateful if you could answer the following questions designed to collect data about your opinions as well as your reaction to the implementation of the" metacognitive strategies" in the accomplishment of you written tasks. Please, tick the appropriate box and write a full statement whenever necessary.

Section One: Students Attitudes towards Learning to Write

Question 1: Is EFL writing more difficult to practise than the other language skills?

    a.   Yes   ◯

    b.   No   ◯

Question 2: What are the sources of EFL writing difficulties?

    a.   Insufficient English language proficiency   ◯

    b.   LACK OF METACOGNITIVE KNOWLEDGE and regulation   ◯

    c.   Lack of interest and motivation   ◯

    d.   Time constraints   ◯

    e.   Others

 Question 3: Are you satisfied with your level of writing?

    a.   Yes   ◯

    b.   No   ◯

    c.   I cannot decide   ◯

Question 4: if no, please, say why?

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Question 5: What aspects do always cause you the greatest difficulty when writing? (you may tick more than one)

     a.   Content   ◯

     b.   Organization   ◯

     c.   Grammar   ◯

     d.   Vocabulary   ◯

     e.   Mechanics   ◯

Question 6: Classify the above aspects according to the importance you give them in writing (from the most to the least important)

Section Two: The Students' Attitudes towards Metacognitive Awareness

Question 7:When involved in a given writing task, do you believe that you have the necessary skills to accomplish it.

     a.   Yes   ◯

     b.   No   ◯

     c.   It depends on the task   ◯

Question 8: Are you aware of your strength and weaknesses of writing?

    a-   Yes   ◯

    b-   No   ◯

Question 9: If you are given various topics to choose from, do you always choose the topic that you know the most?

    a-   Yes

    b- No   ◯

Question: 10: On what bases do you select a topic before writing an essay?

    a.   Subjective preferences   ◯

    b.   Daily life experiences   ◯

    c.   Having enough cognition (information) and feedback about the topic   ◯

    d.   Others   ◯

Question 11: Before composing an essay, do you consider what strategies to use during the composition task?

    a-   Yes   ◯

    b-   No   ◯

Question 12: While composing, do you analyze the usefulness and effectiveness of each implemented strategy?

    a-   Yes   ◯

    b-   No   ◯

Section Three: Metacognitive Regulation and Strategies

Question 13: How often do you set goals at the very beginning of the writing task?

a.   Very often   ◯

b.   Sometimes   ◯

                      ◯

c.   rarely

d.   never   ◯

Question 14: How often do you plan your ideas and examples before starting off with writing?

a- Very often   ◯

b- Sometimes   ◯

                     ◯

c- Rarely

d- Never   ◯

Question 15: How often do you produce initial and subsequent drafts before the final essay?

a.   Very often   ◯

b.   Sometimes   ◯

                      ◯

c.   rarely

                      ◯

d.   never

Question 16: How often do you organize your time before the writing task and try to use it adequately?

a. Very often ○

b. Sometimes ○

c. Rarely ○

Question 17: How often do you pay attention to the organization of your paragraphs during the writing process?

a. Very often ○

b. Sometimes ○

c. Rarely ○

d. Never ○

Question 18: While composing, how often do you stop to check the correctness of your grammar, vocabulary, and spelling?

a. Very often ○

b. Sometimes ○

c. Rarely ○

d. Never ○

Question 19: How often do you check the effectiveness of the thesis statement and the topic sentence of each paragraph while composing?

a. Very often ○

b. Sometimes ○

c. rarely ○

○

d.   never

Question 20: How often do you revise your essay before handing it?

    a. Very often   ◯

    b. Sometimes   ◯

    c. Rarely   ◯

    d. Never   ◯

Question 21: How often do you reflect upon the written paragraphs throughout the composition process?

    a. Very often   ◯

    b. Sometimes   ◯

    c.   rarely   ◯

    d.   never   ◯

Question 22: When involved in the writing tasks, how often do you stop to check whether or not you are diverting from the topic of interest?

    a. Very often   ◯

    b.   Sometimes   ◯

    c.   rarely   ◯

    d.   never   ◯

Question 23: How often do you use self questioning in judging the efficiency of your composition?

    a.   Very often   ◯

    ◯

b. Sometimes

c. rarely ○

d. never ○

Question24: To what extent do you believe that self questioning is beneficial in maintaining within the realm of the topic?

a. Very often ○

b. Sometimes ○

c. rarely ○

d. never ○

Question 25: How often do you use cooperative learning strategy in the accomplishment of your writing tasks?

a. Very often ○

b. Sometimes ○

c. rarely ○

d. never ○

Question 26: To what extent do you believe that cooperative learning is contributive in dispelling the writing difficulties?

a. Very often ○

b. Sometimes ○

c. rarely ○

d. never ○

Question 27: When asked to work in peers, how often do you use modeling with your partner?

    a. Very often   ○

    b.   Sometimes   ○

    c.   rarely   ○

    d.   never   ○

Question28: To what extent do you believe that modeling written texts is contributive in developing your writing abilities?

    a. Very often   ○

    b.   Sometimes   ○

    c.   rarely   ○

    d.   never   ○

Question 29: When involved in collaborative learning, how often do you use metacognitive scaffolding?

    a. Very often   ○

    b.   Sometimes   ○

    c.   rarely   ○

    d.   never   ○

Question 30: What form of metacognitive scaffolding do you mostly rely on?

    a.   Expert modeling   ○

    b.   Advice   ○

    c.   Prompts   ○

                               ○

d. Learner guides

Question 31: To what extent do you believe that metacognitive scaffolding is fruitful in developing the students writing performances?

a. Very often ◯

b. Sometimes ◯

◯

c. rarely

d. never ◯

Question 32: How often do you account for the audience (the readers) of your written product before composing?

a. Very often ◯

◯

b. Sometimes

◯

c. rarely

◯

d. never

Section Five

Question 33: Please, feel free to add any suggestions related to the implementation of metacognitive to the teaching of L2 writing.

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French Abstract

Produire des compositions de haute qualité est un défi constant pour les étudiants en langues étrangères pour plusieurs raisons. La présente étude cherche à déterminer dans quelle mesure la combinaison de l'approche « product » avec quelques « stratégies métacognitives » développe la compétence en écriture des étudiants d'Anglais comme langue étrangère. L'objectif essentiel de ce travail vise à sensibiliser les élèves sur l'importance des connaissances métacognitives dans l'amélioration des performances écrites des apprenants. En conséquence, il est supposé que si les enseignants d'Anglais comme langue étrangère combinaient l'approche « product » avec des stratégies métacognitives, ils développeraient les compétences en expression écrite de leurs étudiants, et que l'incorporation de paradigmes métacognitifs dans la réalisation des tâches d'écriture aiderait les apprenants à surmonter les difficultés associées au processus de composition. L'étude a été menée avec deux classes divisées en un groupe expérimental et à un groupe témoin. Pour comparer les performances des sujets en termes d'utilisation efficace de la grammaire, du vocabulaire, de la ponctuation, de la cohésion, de la cohérence, de la phrase-sujet, et du type de développement de la dissertation, un pré-test et un post-test ont été administrés aux apprenants. Après la collecte des essais post-test, un questionnaire a été remis aux sujets du groupe expérimental afin de recueillir principalement leurs opinions sur l'importance des connaissances et des stratégies métacognives dans le développement de leurs performances en écriture. En outre, un questionnaire a été envoyé aux enseignants d'expression écrite pour expliciter leurs pratiques d'enseignement de la métacognition et pour évaluer leurs points de vue sur la combinaison de l'approche « product » avec des stratégies métacognitives dans la classe d'écriture. Les résultats obtenus à partir du calcul du test t ont démontré une amélioration significative du groupe expérimental dans les aspects examinés précédemment, alors que le groupe témoin a en fait abaissé ses scores en organisation corporelle par rapport au groupe témoin. L'étude a également indiqué que les étudiants et les enseignants sont favorables à la combinaison de l'approche « product » et de la métacognition dans l'enseignement de l'écrit en L2.

ملخص

يعد إنتاج مؤلفات عالية الجودة تحديًا مستمرًا لطلاب اللغات الأجنبية لعدة أسباب. تسعى هذه الدراسة إلى تحديد إلى أي مدى يؤدي الجمع بين نهج "المنتج" مع بعض "استراتيجيات ما وراء المعرفية" إلى تطوير مهارات الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية كطلاب لغة أجنبية. الهدف الرئيسي من هذا العمل هو توعية الطلاب بأهمية المعرفة ما وراء المعرفية في تحسين الأداء المكتوب للمتعلمين. نتيجة لذلك ، يُفترض أنه إذا قامت اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بتجميع نهج "المنتج" مع استراتيجيات ما وراء المعرفية ، فسوف يقومون بتطوير مهارات الكتابة لدى طلابهم ، وإدماج نماذج ما وراء المعرفية في الإدراك. تساعد مهام الكتابة المتعلمين على التغلب على الصعوبات المرتبطة بعملية التكوين. وقد أجريت الدراسة مع فئتين مقسمة إلى مجموعة تجريبية ومجموعة مراقبة. لمقارنة أداء المواضيع من حيث الاستخدام الفعال للقواعد والمفردات وعلامات الترقيم والتماسك والاتساق والجمل الموضوع ونوع تطوير المقال ، اختبار مسبق وكانت تدار بعد الاختبار للمتعلمين. بعد جمع اختبارات ما بعد الاختبار ، تم تقديم استبيان لموضوعات المجموعة التجريبية لجمع آرائهم بشكل أساسي حول أهمية المعرفة واستراتيجيات ما وراء المعرفة في تطوير أدائهم في الكتابة. بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، تم إرسال استبيان إلى معلمي التعبير الكتابي لشرح ممارساتهم التعليمية في ما وراء المعرفة ولتقييم وجهات نظرهم حول مزيج نهج "المنتج" مع الاستراتيجيات وراء المعرفية في الفصل. الكتابة. أظهرت النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها من حساب اختبار t تحسنا ملحوظا من المجموعة التجريبية في الجوانب التي تم فحصها سابقا ، في حين خفضت المجموعة الضابطة بالفعل علاماتها في تنظيم الجسم مقارنة مع المجموعة الضابطة. أشارت الدراسة أيضًا إلى أن كلا من الطلاب والمعلمين يفضلون الجمع بين نهج "المنتج" وما وراء المعرفة في كتابة L2.