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Title:

The Effect of Strategies Instruction on Students' Writing Performance:  
Investigating the Effects of Rhetorical and Outlining Strategies on Students'  
Composition Organization  
Case of Second Year Teacher Training School Students – Bouzareah

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## **Declaration**

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation entitled “**The effect of Strategies Instruction on Students’ Writing Performance: Investigating the Effects of Rhetorical and Outlining Strategies on Students’ Composition Organization -Case of Second Year Teacher Training School’s Student- Bouzareah**” is the result of my own investigation except what states otherwise by reference or acknowledgment to the work of other researchers. The present work is entirely my own under the supervision of Prof. Zoulikha Ben Safi

Place: Algiers

Date: 0 5/ 05/ 2021

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## DEDICATION

This work is lovingly dedicated to:

TO MY PARENTS, IDRIS AND FATIMA

TO MY SONS, IDRIS AND KHALIL ZINEDDINE

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to express my deepest and greatest gratitude to my supervisor Professor ZOULIKHA BENSAFI for her endless support, her insightful suggestions, and for her trust. Pr. BENSAFI is an example of modesty, patience, and hard work. She stands as a model for every researcher.

I would like also to thank the members of the Jury for their efforts and the precious time they spent reading my thesis.

## **Abstract**

Writing in a Second or a Foreign Language is a complex activity that EFL students often meet when learning English. Similarly, teaching writing is often seen as much complex as learning to write. Thus, teachers are required to find ways to facilitate it. The aim of this current research is to promote writing strategies instruction as a way to improve Algerian students' English writing performance. Accordingly, the review of this research addresses the literature in the following main fields of study: contrastive rhetoric, strategies instruction, and the theory of cognitive development and the social constructivist theory. This research is quantitative and seeks to gain a deeper understanding of the effect of strategies instruction in improving students' writing performance. Our particular focus in this study is outlining strategies as well as rhetorical strategies on students' argumentative essay. To achieve this aim, a quasi- experimental method has been selected as a method of investigation. Data were collected by a means of Pre and Post- Tests and students' questionnaires. The participants in this research are Second Year students majoring in English in the Pre-service Teachers Training College of Bouzareah. They are chosen from two intact groups and are assigned as: experimental and control group. The experimental group, in addition to the official program of the college, received an instruction which focuses on strategies use while the control group received only the courses of writing from the official program. The results of the experiment show that the experimental group recorded a significant statistical progress measured through the T-test. This study implicates that direct strategies instruction is an effective way to help students improve their writing performance.

Keywords: Learning Strategies, Strategies Instruction, Outlining, Rhetorical strategies, Writing strategies

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- **CALLA:** Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
- **EAP:** English for Academic Purposes
- **EFL :** English as a Foreign Language
- **ESL :** English as a Second Language
- **ESP:** English for Specific Purposes
- **ID's:** Individuals differences
- **LLS:** Language Learning Style
- **LTM:** Long-Term Memory
- **L1:** First language
- **L2:** Second language
- **NLP:** Neuro-Linguistic Programming
- **SLA:** Second Language Acquisition
- **SSBI :** Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction
- **VSSP:** visuospatial sketchpad
- **ZPD:** Zone of Proximal Development

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## **GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

The field of Second Language Writing is increasingly gaining importance as a result of the increasing need of people from all over the world to learn English. In fact, the development in the means of communication led to more interaction among people of different nations. People interact with each other orally as well as textually specially that communication is becoming faster with the use of internet. In addition, in the field of education, writing is considered as an essential skill that determines students' academic success or failure since students are required to answer their exam questions, write dissertations, and articles respecting the conventions of the academic writing.

In fact, learning how to write in a second or a foreign language is one of the most challenging aspects of learning a foreign language which requires a good instruction and a deeper understanding of the principles that govern this language. Thus, the ability to write effectively requires an extensive instruction from the teachers. However, teaching writing is no less complex than learning how to write. Kroll (1990, p.1) asserted that "becoming a writer is a complex and ongoing process, and becoming a writer teacher is no less complex".

Researching effective writing instruction is thus a major component discussed in this research. The view of learning as a lifelong process and equipping the learners with appropriate learning strategies is central to enable learner to communicate their ideas effectively and solve the problems that they may encounter in their learning experience and thus help them cope with this changing world.

### **1-Statement of the Problem**

Research studies undertaken on Second and Foreign language writing revealed that Second as well as Foreign language learners usually meet difficulties when composing in

English, even after years of training. Hinkel ( 2004) reported that even advanced non native students show weaknesses in their academic writing. For example, Johns (1997 cited in Hinkel 2004, p.4) asserts that many NNS graduate and undergraduate students even after years of ESL training often “*fail to recognize and appropriately use the conventions and features of Academic English prose*”. She explained that these students produce academic papers and essays that “*the faculty perceives as being vague and confusing, rhetorically unstructured, and overly personal.*”

In fact, Algerian students, as EFL learners, often meet difficulties when composing in English. These students are not only faced with the burden of foreign language proficiency but also have to deal with the complex process of writing that requires a cognitive effort. Undeniably, the Algerian students are multilingual and speak more than one language, namely: Arabic, Tamazight and French. Thus, English is a distant language. It may be the third or the fourth language for some students. In addition, among these students, the mother tongue differs. It may be one of the previously mentioned languages. It may be Tamazight for students coming from the Berber-speaking areas, or Arabic, or even French for students whose parents speak French most often at home. In fact, this multilinguality in the students’ background affects their writing in English at the sentence as well as the discourse level. These students write from their first steps at school till University in their official language, which is Arabic in the case of Algeria, and then in French as it is the first foreign language. Thus, when these students are asked to write in English, their writing tends to be unstructured and most often lacks the organizational conventions of the English academic writing.

In addition, writing is a complex activity that requires great mental efforts and requires efficient instruction in order to facilitate its learning. Accordingly, the importance of understanding factors contributing to efficient teaching of foreign language academic

writing and providing more efficient teaching methods that facilitate learning to write in a foreign language is prerequisite.

In fact, the field of teaching ESL writing provides different explanations of the nature ESL writing and many approaches and methods of teaching and learning L2 were developed; however, teaching and learning L2 academic writing still represent a challenge for both teachers and learners.

For instance, Krashen, in his reading theory, proposed that writing ability is acquired through reading (Krashen1985 cited in Williams J. 2003, p. 165). He argued that we gain competence in writing the same way we gain competence in oral language, by comprehending written discourse and by internalizing, after much exposure, the numerous conventions that characterize texts. He stated, for example, that “if second language acquisition and the development of writing ability occur in the same way, writing ability is not learned but is acquired via extensive reading in which the focus of the reader is on the message, i.e., reading for genuine interest and/or pleasure” (Krashen1985 cited in Williams J. 2003,p. 23).

Conversely, other researchers hold opposite view. For example Hinkel (2004, p.6) argued that the research which was advanced by Chang and Swales (1999), who investigated specific discourse and sentence level writing skill of highly advanced NNS students, indicated that even in the case of advanced and highly literate NNS, exposure to extensive amount of reading and experience with writing in academic context doesn't ensure their becoming aware of the discourse and sentence level linguistic features of the academic writing and the attainment of the necessary writing skill. Similarly, Dansereau (1978, p.3) stated that even good college students have very little knowledge of alternative learning techniques and this lack of awareness obviously limits an individual's ability in a situation requiring new learning strategies. Thus, explicit instruction in writing is needed.

In this regards, Dansereau (1978, p.3) stated that” educators should stress on learning strategies and encourage students to develop and explore new strategies in order to raise awareness of their cognitive capabilities.” In addition, Ferris, D. and Hedgcok, J. (2005, p.10) reported that several recent studies have suggested *that* “L2 writers may require targeted instruction aimed at the development of specific linguistic skills, rhetorical expertise, and composing strategies.”

In fact, writing strategies are defined in the literature as conscious decision made by the writers to solve a writing problem and are classified into “rhetorical strategies, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/ affective strategies” (Riazi, 1997, Wenden, 1991 cited in Mu and 2007). Unawareness of the writing strategies seem, thus, to be one of the main factors affecting our students writing since recent research studies indicate that many students, even good students, lack effective learning strategies.

Correspondingly, and in favor of the importance of strategy use in writing, Wenden and Rubin (1987, p.8 quoted in Williams and Burden 2001, p.147) claim that “one of the leading educational goals of the research on learner strategies is an autonomous language learner, one who is equipped with the appropriate skills and strategies to learn a language in a self-directed way.”

Thus, considering the reading hypothesis suggested by Krashen, it is noticed that although after being exposed to different readings from different subjects in the curriculum, such as literature, civilization as well as in reading techniques, our students still struggle with difficulties when composing and find composing in English a challenging task. Thus, though reading is an essential factor that exposes students to the different discourse features of the different genres of writing, it is not a sufficient factor that enables students to produce rhetorically acceptable composition. The students’ unawareness of the organizational conventions of L2 composition affects and limits their ability to write organized

compositions. In fact, most of non native students share these difficulties when writing in another language which may emanate from their unawareness of the rhetorical features of English language as a foreign language which results inevitably in the rhetorical deviation in their writing. Casanave (2004, p.27) relates this difficulty to the difference in the discourse level, where she explains that "the differences in discourse- level features of a learner's First and Second language cause difficulties for L2 learners who are trying to acquire discourse-level pattern in their second language". Similarly, Raimes (1994 cited in Hinkel, 2004,p.10) reported that L2 writing requires a developed L2 proficiency , as well as writing skills that pertain to the knowledge of the discourse conventions and organizing the information flow.

In addition to the unawareness of the rhetorical features of the English academic writing, students used to skip the planning strategies especially outlining strategies which are prerequisite in the process of learning that allow a better organization of ideas. Most of these students, when given a writing assignment, tend to avoid outlining and get engaged in writing their first draft which leads them to constant repetitions, confusion and lack of coherence, while outlining, in McDowell and Anderson (1938) terms, is a prerequisite to effective written expression.

To put it in a nutshell, Students' essays lack organizational structure hence the need to teach them writing strategies is required. In this study, we assume that the difficulties that cause organizational deviations in our students' writing arise from two major features that characterize the English academic writing: The cognitive process of the writing activity and the rhetorical properties of the English writing. Hence, teachers are required to teach their students the writing strategies to help them overcome the difficulties that hinder their writing performance.

## **2-The Aims of the Research**

Since writing is a skill that requires highly cognitive abilities, the present work targets the importance of writing strategies instruction as a means of facilitating teaching and learning writing, making it more effective in order to help students improve their writing performance by producing well organized pieces of writing. Rhetorical strategies and outlining strategies seem to be responsible for producing organized L2 composition. It is in terms of this reason that writing strategies instruction, more specifically rhetorical strategies and outlining strategy, can be a remarkable solution to facilitate learning to write in a second language and more precisely to help students to produce organized compositions. Teachers, thus, are required to devote time to foster the use of the outlining strategy in parallel with the different rhetorical patterns of organization that are achieved through reading different models.

Hence, the present study comes to investigate the effect of the explicit instruction of writing strategies on the Algerian University students' writing performance. Learning to write through the strategies use may facilitate composing in English for these students.

Accordingly, the review of this research addresses literature, regarding composition organization, in the following main field of studies: Second Language Writing, Contrastive Rhetoric. A review of these theories is, in fact, in favor of acquiring practical strategies for effective classroom teaching since the difficulty in teaching writing is twofold which results not only from the complexity of the writing skill, but also from the complexity of the teaching skill. The review, thus, tries to bridge the gap between teaching and learning, represented in this research by the strategies instruction and students' writing performance.

### **3- Research Questions**

The research questions that guide this study are as follows.

**RQ.1:** What are the effects of writing strategies instruction on students' writing performance?

(a): Do students who receive writing strategies instruction perform better than those who do not?

(b): Does rhetorical strategies instruction result in positive effects students' composition organization?

(c): Does the outlining strategies instruction result in positive effects on students' composition organization?

**RQ.2:** Does students' first language composition organization affect their English composition organization?

### **4. Hypothesis**

Since the research aims to measure the relationships between the strategies instruction and students writing performance following hypothesis has been formulated to be confirmed or invalidated following the statistical t- test:

The explicit instruction of the rhetorical and outlining strategies has positive effects on students' writing performance.

### **5 - Methodology**

The present research is applied, quantitative, quasi- experimental research though some features of qualitative approach has been used to afford more insight about the context in which the study is taking place. The choice of the design is made on the bases of the main

research questions and hypotheses which aim to investigate the effect of strategies instruction on EFL students' writing performance, more particularly the strategies related to composition organization. The students who participated in the present research are Algerian Second Year University students from the Teachers Training School of Bouzereah. To collect data, three main research tools have been used in this research. The first main research tool is tests. A pr- test and post- test were undertaken in this experiment to reveal about students' composition performance. The pret-test was undertaken before the treatment and has two aims: First, to equate the experimental and the control group. Second, it aims to assess the students' writing performance before the treatment in order to see if any improvement occurs after the treatment. The posttest was undertaken after the treatment in order to compare the results of the pre- and the posttest. The t-test was used to statistically analyze the collected data in the experiment. The second tool used in the present research is the analytic scale which is a scale used to assess students' papers. The third research tool is the questionnaire. The aim of the first questionnaire is to find out about the students writing background and behavior and their attitudes towards strategies' use when composing in their native and foreign language. However, the second questionnaire aims to find out about the students' views regarding the effectiveness of the writing strategies after the instruction.

## **6- The General Framework of the Research**

The present work consist of a general introduction of the study , a theoretical part that reviews the literature related to the topic of the research, a practical part that presents the methodology which aims to answer the research questions and to confirm or invalidate the hypotheses, and ends up with a general conclusion.

The theoretical part reviews the main theories related to Second Language Writing and different studies related to learning strategies and strategies instruction. Thus, the theoretical part is divided into three main chapters.

The first chapter is devoted to Second Language Writing. The first chapter defines writing and summarizes the main different approaches that marked the history of ESL compositions. It also focuses on the theory of cognitive developments that defines writing as a complex cognitive process that requires a mental effort rather than a simple reproduction of set of structures and models.

The second chapter tackles writing from the cultural perspective by focusing on a very influential field of study known in the literature by Contrastive Rhetoric which studies writing form the discourse-level organization. In this chapter, it is noticed that the field of contrastive rhetoric explains the source of errors that emanates in students' composition at the discourse level organization. The findings of the research in this field attribute the difficulty in composition organization to the difference in cultures, and writing within this view is defined as a cultural phenomenon.

The third chapter of the theoretical part focuses on learning strategies and strategies instruction. It reviews the findings of the main research studies related to learning strategies. This chapter also aims to explain the importance of the strategies use and instruction in facilitating learning and fostering learners' autonomy. Also, it provides the taxonomy of the language learning strategies, the taxonomy of writing strategies instruction, in addition to different models of teaching learning strategies.

The practical part of this work is divided in its turn into three main chapters. The first chapter of this practical part is devoted to the methodology of the research. It first describes the research design and its implementation. The quasi- experimental design was adopted in this research as a design to investigate the effect of the strategies instruction on students 'writing performance for being the most suitable design for this study as well as for being considered as one of the most popular design used in the social science studies. In addition,

the chapter describes the population of the study, the tools of data collection used in this research as well as the instruction.

The second chapter presents the results gathered from the research tools. It first presents the results gathered from the first research tool statistically using the T-test, the students' scores following an Jacob's analytical scale for assessing students' papers, and the results obtained from the questionnaire are analyzed and displayed in tables and graphs.

The third chapter discusses the results and attempts to present some pedagogical implications on teaching writing. The chapter aims to answer the research questions and discusses the results in relation to the review of the literature. Also, it provides some recommendations that may contribute to the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning.

## **7- The Limitation of the Study**

Although the research tackles the Algerian students' difficulties when composing in English with the focus on the rhetorical deviations that impedes the production of well organized texts, the research did not tackle all the rhetorical features that distinguish English from Arabic discourse. Analyzing the English discourse with reference to Arabic discourse requires another research as a comparative study which is beyond the scope of this research.

**CHAPTER ONE:**  
**SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING**

## **CHAPTER ONE: SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING**

### **Introduction**

It is commonly accepted that writing is considered as a challenging skill not only for the non-native English learner, but also for the native English learner. In fact, the complex cognitive processes included when composing makes writing the most difficult skill to acquire. In addition to this complex cognitive process, the non-native English learner struggles with difficulty of acquiring the target language which makes the difficulty even harder. For these reasons, we think that reviewing and understanding the theories that explained the nature of the writing skill may reveal about the source of the difficulties that makes of writing a challenging skill and may lead to provide better practices that facilitate teaching and learning writing skill.

The present chapter considers writing from different perspectives and reviews writing from different field of studies; namely: ESL writing and Contrastive Rhetoric. It reviews the main finding of research studies that dealt with main issues in EFL writing; more particularly with studies that focused on the most striking difficulties encountered by EFL learners when composing. Furthermore, it summarizes the different methods and approaches that marked the ESL composition instruction development and to explain their underlying assumption. In addition, this chapter seeks to highlight the relatedness of the writing skill and the other skills, namely: speaking and reading to provide better teaching practices when these skills are taught together not as isolated skills.

### **I-1 The Nature of Second/ Foreign Language Writing**

Silva (1990, p.11) reported that development in ESL composition has been influenced “by, to a certain extent, and is parallel to development in teaching writing to native speakers of English. However, the unique context of ESL has necessitated somewhat distinct perspectives, models, and practices”. In fact, different approaches have marked the history of ESL composition development and different classifications of the pedagogical approaches have been put forward. One classification is that of Silva who, in his attempt to trace the historical development of ESL composition, identified four major approaches in the history of ESL composition development, namely, “controlled composition”, “current – traditional rhetoric”, “process approach”, and “English for specific purposes” Silva (1990, p. 11) However, Raimes (in Matsuda, 2005, p.36) characterized the history of L2 writing as the development of competing pedagogies with different foci: focus on form, focus on the writer, focus on content and focus on the reader.

Basically, one may say that the methods and approaches that marked the history of ESL composition developed in parallel with how language and language learning have been approached, and, thus, can be explained within these two main views .i.e. the view of the nature of language and language learning. Methods, such as, “controlled composition” , “free composition” method, described as traditional, have their origin from the behaviorist view of learning that consider writing as a set of habit formation where students are required to reproduce given sentence structures. Silva (1990, p 12) stated that “controlled composition”, was based on the twin concepts that language was speech and that learning was a process of habit formation. Writing was also approached as language-based and was considered as a support to other skills as in Raimes words, writing is “a unique way to reinforce learning” (1983, p3) such as reinforcing grammatical structure, speaking and

listening. Later, the view of writing as a support to other skills changed to be viewed as communicative. Tuffs (1993, p. 699) stated that writing in the language classroom can be viewed from two broad categories: writing as *reinforcement and writing as communication*. Linked to reinforcement, writing is used mainly as a support skill in language learning and seen as a variety of techniques to add interest to the lesson or a testing device to diagnose grammar or comprehension errors (Reid , p.21). From the communicative approach, writing skills are goals of the course ( Tuffs. 1993, p. 700). Very generally speaking two basic models of writing have dominated approaches to writing in the language classroom. The first relates to the teaching of writing based on prescriptive rules and the copying of models which can be defined as the product approach. The second, which has gained more currency in recent years, is based on the study of how, rather than what, writers write. This model can be defined as the process approach ( Tuffs, 199, p. 700).

## **I-2 Difficulties in Second Language Writing**

In fact, this section on the difficulties in Second and Foreign language Writing is meant to contribute to the general understanding of the present work and considered as the starting point of this research that aims to expose some main difficulties that EFL/ESL students encounter when writing in English by reviewing the most common research studies that tackled the difficulties in Second / foreign Language Writing.

Indeed, many research studies have been undertaken to explain the difficulties that most of Second of Foreign Language learner encounter when composing. Most of these research studies (Kroll, 1990; Friedlander1990; Williams,2005; Rinnet and Kobachi, 2009) found out that two main factors may affect L2 students' writing: the proficiency in L2 and their ability to write in L1.

Kroll (1990), for example, asserted that “the complexity of mastering Second Language writing skill is compounded both by the difficulties inherent to learning a second language and by the way the first language literacy skill may transfer to, or detract from, the acquisition of second language skill” (p.2). Similarly, Williams (2005, p. 25) asserted that two factors have often been mentioned as crucial elements in L2 writing: their proficiency in the L2 and background and ability to write in the L1.

Friedlander (1990) considered lack of language proficiency as a constraint to writing effectively. He explained that “lack of complete control over linguistic code might limit the writer possibility of exhibiting mastery over the discourse skills required to reproduce a particular type of text” (Friedlander 1990, p.105). He further added that EFL writers retrieve information about a writing topic from memory in their first language and then have to translate into English before writing anything down. This act of translation can lead to an “overload of their short term memory and a diminishment in the quality of the content of their writing” (Friedlander 1990, p. 110). Similarly, Hinkle( 2004, p.6) argued that “learning to write in L2 is fundamentally different from learning to write in L1 since native writers already have highly developed language proficiency in English, whereas non native writers spend years to learning it as a second language.” As a result, unlike learning to write in L1, learning to write in L2 requires sufficient linguistic proficiency in L2.

Manchon et al. ( 2009 p.111) reported that in a study undertaken by Roca et al.(1996) investigating the *nature and frequency of lexical problems* in L1 and L2 writing, the total number of problems tackled in the L2 was more than double than in L1 writing. This confirms again that writing in a second language imposes a heavier burden on writers. The finding of this study revealed that participants of the study struggled with various types of lexical problems, including what Roca et al. identified as problems that arose from 1-

*addressing higher-level concerns* (lexical and stylistic precision and appropriacy); 2- *search for translation equivalents* (in cases in which the intended meaning had been encoded in the L1); 3- *problems due to lack of access to relevant lexical items with which to express the intended meaning, or from being unsure about the correctness or appropriacy of the option available to express the intended meaning*. All these problems were present in L2 writing, whereas in the L1 condition the participants tackled a more restricted range of lexical problems because they did not need to engage in activities such as searching to find translation equivalents.

The second main difficulty that may affect students' writing ability is their ability to write in their first language. Friedlander (1990) reported that the second factor that affects EFL writing is the ability to write in their L1. According to Friedlander, a number of studies have indicated that writer will transfer writing abilities and strategies from their first language to their second language. In other words students who lacked first language strategies display a similar lack of strategies to transfer to the second language (Friedlander, p.109). Rinnet and Kobayachi (2009) also argued that "novice writers who had received intensive L1 training wrote more coherently organized L1 and L2 essays (consisting of introduction, body and conclusion, with discourse markers signaling connections among the parts) than those without such training." (2009, p.38).

Similar studies on the relation between L1 and L2 writing abilities confirmed that the ability to write in L2 is correlated to the student's ability to write in L1. In their article entitled *First Language and Second Language Writing : The Role of Linguistic Knowledge, Speed of Processing, and Metacognitive Knowledge*, Schoonen et al. (2003, pp.165-202) tried to demonstrate the relative importance of linguistic knowledge, metalinguistic knowledge, and fluency or accessibility of this linguistic knowledge in both

first language (L1 Dutch) and second language (L2 English). The results of the study showed that L2 writing proficiency turned out to be highly correlated with L1 writing proficiency.

### **1-3 Writing and Other Skills**

Undeniably, the new methodology focuses on the interrelatedness of the four language teaching skills: writing, speaking, reading and listening. Although these four skills have been classified into productive and receptive, teaching writing cannot be fostered only by integrating these skills. Thus, this section aims to highlight the relationship between writing and the other skills to give more insight of the importance of integrating these skills in the writing classes.

#### **1-3-1 Writing and Speaking.**

Defining the relationship between writing and speaking is very important when teaching writing. Awareness about the distinction and the relatedness between the two skills may bring about improvement in writing proficiency for the second language learner. Teachers are, thus, required to make clear that academic writing obeys to specific features that are different from the tones used in spoken discourse.

In fact, a great deal of literature in First and Second Language studies addressed the difference between writing and speaking as to what extent are these two skills similar or distinct. This section of this chapter aims at reviewing some of the literature that focused on the difference between speaking and writing skills.

In her attempt to clarify the relationship between writing and speaking skill, Weigle (2002 p.15) stated that as Grabe and Kaplan (1997) point out linguists and educational researchers have historically held contradictory positions about the relationship between writing and speaking. Traditional linguistic inquiry, strongly supported by Structuralist and Behaviouralist schools, contended that oral language is the genuine manifestation of language and that writing is merely a rendering of the spoken language (Llach 2011, p 40). In other words, speech is primary and written language is merely a reflection of spoken language, while educational research has taken the stance that the written form of the language is more “correct” and therefore should be more highly valued than oral language (Kaplan, 1997). However, in recent years, according to the same reference, a consensus has been merging to reconcile these two positions: neither oral nor written language is inherently superior to the other, but oral and written texts do vary across a number of dimensions, including textual features, sociocultural norms and patterns of use, and the cognitive processes involved in the text production and comprehension. Similarly, Llach (2011,p.40) stated that writing and speaking, although drawing on the same linguistic sources, are carried out by different mental processes, are used in different social context, and for different purposes.

In her study on the difference between writing and speaking, Raimes (1983, pp.4-5) summarized the following main differences:

- Speech is universal; everyone acquires a native language in the first few years of life. Not everyone learns to read and write.
- The spoken language has dialect variations. The written language generally demands standards forms of grammar, syntax and vocabulary.

- Speakers use their voices ( pitch, stress, and rhythm) and bodies (gestures and facial expressions) to help convey their ideas. Writers have to rely on the words on the page to express their meaning.
- Speakers use pauses and intonation. Writers use punctuation.
- Speakers pronounce, writers spell.
- Speaking is usually spontaneous and unplanned. Most writing takes time. We can go back and change what we have written.
- Speaker speaks to a listener who is right there, nodding or frowning, interrupting or questioning. For the writer, the reader's response is either delayed or nonexistent. The writer has only that one chance to convey information and be interesting and accurate enough to hold the reader's attention.
- Speech is usually informal and repetitive. Writing , on the other hand, is more formal and compact. It progresses logically with fewer digressions and explanation.
- Speakers use simple sentences connected by a lot of **and's** and **but's**. writers use more complex sentences, with connection words like **however, who** and **in addition**. (Raimes 1983, pp.4-5)

In fact, these points stated above can be compared to those of Brown (1994, p.341) who provided a list of characteristics that differentiate writing from speaking which are the following: permanence, production time, distance, orthography, complexity and formality.

However, Weigle (2002, p.17) stated that Brown's list though valuable, it is oversimplified. Holding the view that the difference between writing and speaking go far beyond the surface textual features, the difference between the two skills can be best explained from the social and cultural aspects and the cognitive demands of the two skills.

Weigle (2002) explained that it is important to consider the social and the cultural context in which the speaking and writing are used. She argued that “ writing is highly valued in educational settings, and the standardization of writing means that accuracy in writing is frequently more important than accuracy in speaking for the correctness in writing, as opposed to speaking, is particularly relevant for writing in academic context where writing is a key entry into ‘ academic discourse community’”. Weigle (2002, p.17)

In addition to the social and cultural influences, cognitive demands of the two skills differ. According to weigle, the absence of the addressee in the writing process seems to have the most important cognitive implications. First, because unlike a speaker, a writer doesn’t need to devote cognitive resources for maintaining the flow of conversation such as avoiding long pauses. However, the absence of the addressee in writing, may lead the writer to devote more cognitive energy to managing several types of information: information about the writing topic, information about the audience, and information about an acceptable form of the text.

### **1-3-2 Writing and Reading**

Various research studies were undertaken in order to explain the connection between writing and reading. The research studies gave different explanations of the relation between the two skills were given. However, though different explanations existed, they all fall on the idea that the process of learning how to write is closely related to learning to read.

Booth Olson C. and Land R. (2007, p.273) reported that researchers have increasingly noted the connections between reading and writing, identifying them as essentially similar processes of meaning construction (Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991; Tierney & Pearson,

1983). However, Llach (2011, p.41) views reading as central to the process of developing writing skill and contributes to writing in several ways by providing: first, the content for writing through source texts; second, real instances of language use; third, rhetoric models information organization in the target language; and fourth, skills and strategies for the acquisition of writing. Similarly, Raimes (1983, p. 50) explained that the more the students read, the more they become familiar with vocabulary, idioms, sentence patterns, organizational flow, and cultural assumptions of the native speakers of the language.

Similarly, Ferris and Hadgcock reported that empirical findings about connections between reading skills and writing performance have led researchers to conclude that efficient reading skills set improves both L1 and in L2 writing proficiency. (Ferris and Hadgcock 2005, p.32). Ferris and Hadgcock called the connection between the two skills as “input- based view”, also described as “directional hypothesis” which presupposes that the emergence of composing skills must necessarily be preceded by the establishment of sound reading skill. Ferris and Hadgcock added that research on L1 and L2 composition offers two alternatives in describing the relation between the reading and writing skill which are the “*nondirectional hypothesis*” and “*bidirectional hypothesis*”.

The nondirectional model assumes that there are common underlying processes that underlie both reading and writing and that the chief pedagogical implication in this hypothesis is that instruction should focus on constructing meaning in both reading and writing tasks.

In the bidirectional view, the practice of writing promotes the development of the reading skill, just as improved reading proficiency can enhance the writing skill.

In fact, various other scholars offered other explanations to the relation between reading and writing. One of the most appealing one is that of Stephan Krashen who explained the relation in terms of language acquisition.

William J.D. (2003, p.165) reported that one of the more interesting efforts came from Steve Krashen (1981a, 1985) who approached the question from the perspective that composition skill is similar to second-language skill: mastery requires comprehensible input over an extended time. According to William J.D. (2003, p.166), Krashen (1985) proposed that writing ability is acquired through reading rather than through listening. In his view, competence in writing is gained in the same way competence oral language is gained, by comprehending written discourse and by internalizing, after much exposure, the numerous conventions that characterize texts.

Krashen (1981a) called this proposal the *reading hypothesis*, and he argued the following: (a) “all good writers will have done large amounts of pleasure reading” (p. 3); (b) “good writers, as a group, read and have read more than poor writers” (p. 3); (c) “reading remains the only way of developing competence in writing” (p. 9).

In the relation of reading and writing in classroom teaching, , Kroll (1993) reported that one cannot teach writing without also simultaneously teaching reading meaningful and that writing instruction is literacy instruction. Likewise, Raimes sees that “reading can do more in teaching writing than simply provide subject matter for discussion and for composition pattern. When the students read, they engaged actively with the new language and culture”. (Raimes 1983, p.50). Similarly, Dean et al. ( 2008, p.22) asserted that characteristic linguistic and textual organization patterns of particular genres or type of writing can be mastered only when having significant exposure to them both in reading and in writing.

Furthermore, on what concerns the strategies used for the two skills, Tierney & Shanahan, ( 1991 cited in Booth Olson C. and Land R. 2007, p.274) reported that research also suggests that when reading and writing are taught together, they engage students in a greater use and variety of cognitive strategies than do reading and writing taught separately.

#### **I-4 Approaches to ESL Writing**

Teaching Writing witnessed the rise and the fall of many approaches which all aimed at providing better practices to teaching writing. Nonetheless, Second Language Writing as a discipline did not appear until 1980's. Its theoretical framework can be traced to the advances of L1 writing. Ferris, D., Hedgcok, J., (2005) asserted that "L2 writing instruction as a discipline is far from a theoretical. Substantive L2 composition research did not appear until the 1980s, but its current theoretical frameworks can be traced to advances in first language (L1) rhetoric and composition research, applied linguistics, and TESOL" Ferris, D., Hedgcok, J., (2005, p. 3)

Thus, the following sections review the major approaches to L1 writing that shaped the theoretical development of L2 writing.

##### **I-4-1 Product Approach.**

Known by some as the "*traditional paradigm*" in U.S. English Language Education and by others as the "*model of composition instruction*" (Ferris, D., Hedgcok, J., 2005, p.4), the Product Approach came as a reaction to the weaknesses of the "*controlled composition*" or "*guided composition*" that dominated the teaching of writing in the mid 40s to the mid 60s. In the mid 1960s, teachers began to feel that controlled composition

was not enough. This led to a focus on ‘rhetorical functions’ which took textual manipulation beyond the sentence level to the discourse level, and focused on teaching types of texts such as descriptions, narratives, definitions, exemplification, classification, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, and generalizations (Paltridge, 2004). Compositions, thus, were supposed to meet certain standards of prescribed English rhetorical style, reflect accurate grammar, and be organized in conformity with what the audience would consider to be conventional. (Brown, 1994, p. 335)

As mentioned earlier, the Product Approach is also known in the literature as “*model composition instruction*” since great deal of attention, was placed on “model” composition that students would emulate (Brown 1994, p. 335) and emphasis being placed on correctness, a correctness based on the adherence to and to copying models. (Tuffs 1993, p.701), assert that the teaching of writing, in the product approach has been language focused.

In their book, *Teaching ESL Composition*, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005, p.4) explained the procedure in teaching composition within the Product Approach in the following:

“teacher following the Product Approach, initially introduced and defined a rhetorical form, pattern, or “mode” (e.g., comparison) in terms of rigidly established rules or formulas. Students then read a work of literature, which they discussed and analyzed in class. Next, the teacher assigned a composing task based on the literary text, referring back to the rhetorical description introduced earlier. This sequence often was accompanied by a linear outline or template for students to follow in constructing their essays or themes. In the final phase of the instructional sequence, the teacher evaluated the students' assignments before initiating a similar cycle based on a new literary text.” (Ferris and Hedgcock 2005, p.4)

In fact, the Product Approach has been criticized as being identified as “traditional approach” and is seen as a more teacher- directed form of learning (Tuffs,1993, p.700). It is also considered as a model of composition instruction that was not grounded in a full articulate theory of education or cognitive development.( Ferris and Hedegcok, 2005. 4) . Ferris and Hedegcok explained that this traditional paradigm reflected a perspective in which school-based essays and themes were viewed as *static representations of students' learning* and content knowledge ; therefore, little if *any effort was dedicated to the strategies and other cognitive operations* involved in putting pen to paper (or fingers to the keyboard) and drafting a coherent, meaningful piece of connected discourse .( Ferris and Hedegcok, 2005. 5) .

#### **I-4-2 Process Approach**

The Process Approach has been the predominant method of instruction of teaching L2 writing in the early 80s which came as a response to the weakness of the product approach that does not demonstrate how the writer arrives at the finished product. (Tuffs. 1993, p.702). The Process Approach is, thus, an approach to writing where the learners focus on the process by which they produce their written product. Learning to write for the process approach involves going through the stages of the composing process: planning and outlining the writing, generating ideas, writing several drafts, re-reading the text, revising, restructuring, editing and being able to call on any of these cognitive sub-processes whenever they are required.

In fact, Process-oriented writing pedagogies focused particular attention on procedures for solving problems, discovering ideas, expressing them in writing, and revising emergent texts (Canagarajah, 2002; Casanave, 2003; Hyland, 2003 cited in Ferris, D., Hedgcok, J. (2005,p 5).This view of writing as “problem solving” and “discovering of ideas” in the

Process-oriented pedagogy led to the emergence of two categories of proponents: expressivists and cognitivists.

The Expressivist view rejects a definition of writing based on correct grammar and usage and sees it as a creative act of discovery in which the process is as important as the product to the writer. Writing is learnt and not taught; it is an act of imagination and self-discovery (Park, 2005 cited in Hyland.2016, p.122). Accordingly, writing instruction should be nondirective and personalized. Expressionism writing instruction, thus, involved tasks designed to promote self-discovery, the emergence of personal voice, and empowerment of the individual's inner writer. (Ferris, D., Hedgcock, J.,2005, p 5).

The other view considers writing as a cognitive performance which can be modeled by analogy with computer processing.

In the cognitivists' view, writing is, essentially, seen as a problem-solving activity: how writers approach a writing task as a problem and bring intellectual resources to solving it ( Hyland.2016, p.122). Zamel (1982, p. 196) asserted that the composing process seems to be an extremely complex undertaking... It involves much more than studying a particular grammar, analyzing it and imitating rhetorical models or outlining what it is one plans to say .The process involves not only the act of writing itself, but prewriting and rewriting, all of which are independent. The Process Approach within the cognitivists' view is going to be explained in details in the next section.

### **I -4-3 The Genre Approach**

Reppen ( cited in Richards and Renandia 2002, p.321) noted that the emphasis on the Process Approach often disregards the importance of the written forms, as a result, many

of writing conventions will remain a mystery for L2 students unless teachers are able to bring these forms and patterns of language use to conscious awareness.

Johns (in Kroll B. 2003, p.195) reported that “genre studies” in academic settings, has referred to analyses of works of literature, such as different types of poetry, novels, and literary essay. In these analyses, conventions of form, style, characterization, plot structure and other features that distinguish a particular genre are analyzed, as are variations in conventions within a single genre across time.

Paltridge (2004) added that the genre approach to teaching writing focuses, as the terms suggests, on teaching particular genres that students need control of in order to succeed in particular settings. This might include a focus on language and discourse features of the texts, as well as the context in which the text is produced.

According to Reppen ( cited in Richards and Renandia 2002,p.306), a genre-based approach provides students with ample opportunities to become aware of the different purposes of written communication and the different ways information is organized in written texts . And that unless students are exposed to these different text’ types and are given sufficient practice in these types of writing, that their written products will leave much to be desired.

Swales (1981, p. 10) explains that it is only within genres that *viable correlations between cognitive, rhetorical, and linguistic features* can be established, for it is only within genres that language is sufficiently conventionalized and the range of communicative purpose sufficiently narrow for us to hope to establish pedagogically-employable generalizations that will capture certain relationships between function and form.

In his attempt to define the genre approach, Tuffs(1993,p 706) gave two reasons to explain his interest in genre approach. He first stated that rather than to rely on prescriptive models, the genre approach is a more useful starting point to give insights to the students of how to replicate successfully particular genre. Secondly, learners need or want to reproduce certain written genres such as letters and reports in a business situation and essays and projects in an academic setting.

In addition, Richards J. ( 1996, p. 18) reported that teachers who take a genre orientation to writing instruction look beyond subject content, composing processes and textual forms to see writing as attempts to communicate with the readers. He added that teachers are concerned with teaching learners how to use language patterns to accomplish coherent purposeful prose.

#### **1-4-4 Communicative Approach**

Although much of the research in the Communicative Competence has focused on oral skills and to a lesser extent on reading, communicative teaching is certainly occurring in ESL Writing classroom. ( Reid 1993, p.39).

Reid (1993, p.41) reported that the preface to Leki's textbook summarizes the communicative approach in ESL writing classes that strives to achieve a balance between *process* and *product*:

Students are taken through the writing process and given the opportunity to discover for themselves what kinds of approaches to writing are most useful to them. Students explore their ideas through journal writing, practice a variety of techniques for generating text, and learn how to elicit feedback on their writing from their classmates and how to respond to such feedback. Students are introduced to the rhetorical expectations of English-speaking readers on organization and development of written ideas, and they learn how to

accommodate these expectations. Finally, students turn their attention to form, learning how to focus on technical and grammatical accuracy for writing situations that require such attention. (1989, p.vii)

According to Raimes (1983, p.8), the communicative approach stresses the **purpose** of the piece of writing and the **audience** for it. She stated that students are encouraged to behave like writers and ask themselves crucial questions about the purpose and the audience:

Why I am writing this?

Who will read it?

Reid (1993, p.39) added that Communicative writing classes employ:

- The use of students' writing samples in textbooks and of peer reviews of essays that allow fellow students read, evaluate and learn from "**authentic**" responses to academic assignments.
- The use of ESL writing classroom to work on writing assignments from "real" academic classes, making the writing **purposeful**.
- The integration of the **skill-base classes** in intensive language programs that allows students to write about what they speak, read about; this integration of skills gives students and **authentic shared context** for writing.
- The focus on **the individual students' needs** by the teachers who encourage discovery writing and the students chosen topics.

### **1-5 The Different Views to Writing**

Writing has been defined from different views, namely as a *cognitive activity*, a *social activity*, and a *social cognitive activity*. In fact, these different views gave birth to the

different approaches explained above that contributed to the implementation of practical methods and techniques in teaching ESL/ EFL writing in the last years.

Thus, this section comes to shed light on the different explanations of composing in the light of these different views and may provide a better understanding of the nature of the writing performance. Understanding the nature of writing performance may be one big step to finding solution to students' writing difficulties.

### **1-5-1 Writing as a Cognitive Activity**

The purpose of this review is to examine the writing from a cognitive view. In order to understand the shift in the view of writing, from a product to a mental process, a general overview is reserved to cognitive theory; a theory underpinning this cognitive view to writing. The review also focuses on how writing has been defined and approached within this theory as well as the main models brought in the light of this view.

#### **1-5-1-1 Cognitivism as a Field of Study**

Cognitive Development Theory, which emerged in Europe in the eighteenth century, was concerned with the “ *nature of knowledge and with the structures and processes by which it is acquired* “(Mu, C. 2005, p 2). It involves the study of mental processes such as sensation, perception, attention, encoding and memory that behaviourists were reluctant to study, because cognition occurs inside the ‘black box’ of the brain.( Jordan 2008,p36). In other words, the underlying idea of cognitive psychology, according to Clark (2003.p.10) is that to understand an observable behavior (such as writing), one must understand the mental structures that determine that behavior.

In fact, four factors influenced the development of cognitivism as a separate discipline in psychology:

- the development of experimental psychology;
- the move from an interest in external behaviours to internal brain processes;
- the inadequacy of behaviourism to explain language acquisition;
- The development of computers and an interest in artificial intelligence.

### **1-5-1-2The Cognitive Models of Writing**

Cognitive models of writing explain writing within a cognitive psychology perspective in which the focus is entirely on what happens within the writer's head. (Dean et al. 2013, p.12)

In the 1970s, interest in cognitive science and the sociology of language broadened writing instruction even further (Sokolik ,2003. p91) and early studies of the composing process were strongly influenced by ideas associated with cognitive psychology, particularly those of Jerome Bruner and Jean Piaget as well as Lev Vygotsky (Clark, 2003 ,p.12). According to Clark (2003, p.10), Cognitive psychology perceives linguistic and intellectual ability as developing in a natural sequence, and it is this concept that has had the most significant impact on the study of writing acquisition and on how a teacher of writing can utilize that sequence in the classroom.

Essentially, cognitive models have tended to define writing in terms of problem-solving (cf.McCutchen, Teske, & Bankston, 2008 cited in Dean et al. 2013, p.3), and writing is viewed as a cognitive performance which can be modeled by analogy with computer processing (Hyland, 2016, p 122). Thus, writing, in the cognitive view, is seen as a problem-solving activity: how writers approach a writing task as a problem and bring intellectual resources to solving it (Hyland, 2016, p 122). Similarly, Dean, P. et al. (2008,

p1) describe skilled writing as a complex cognitive activity, which involves solving problems and deploying strategies to achieve communicative goals. These writing problems, according to the same reference, arise from the writer attempt to map language onto his or her own thought or feelings as well as the expectation of the reader.(Dean et al.2008, p.3)

It is widely accepted that the cognitive-processing theory has contributed to the research direction leading to study of writing as process (Mu, C. 2005, p. 2). Flower and Hayes's model (1981), Bereiter and Scardamalia's model (1987), and Hayes model (1996) are worth mentioning. In fact, implications of these models on second language writing will be dealt with since they directly influence ESL writing research and are likely to lead to a more understanding of the present research.

### **1-5- 1 -2 -1Flower and Hayes' Model**

In 1980 Linda Flower and John Hayes proposed a shift from the traditional linear sequence models being used to describe various steps taken during writing to process-based models. (Becker, 2006, p.25)

The basic insight of the Flower and Hayes model has been confirmed by countless later studies. They set out to map the actual mental behaviors of experienced writers at work, and they represented them as a "flow chart" of boxes indicating processes (e.g., "Revising/Reviewing") and sub-processes (e.g., "Reading"), and arrows indicating information flow between them.

According to Casanave (2004, p.76), Hayes and Flower view writing as a *cognitive problem- solving process*. The researchers have been conducting a research for about six years on what people do when they compose basing their research on a technique called “

think-aloud composing” in which writers were trained to talk into a tape recorder as they wrote, voicing their problems, decisions, and strategic choices.

In their attempt to explain how the writer composes, Hayes and Flower compared the mind of the writer to a black box; they tried to explain composing in terms of what occurs in the black box that is in the mind of the writer when composing. The goal of their research is, in fact, to formulate ‘*a Cognitive Process Theory of Writing*’. Bizzell (2003, p.393) asserts that Hayes and Flowers see composing as a kind of problem solving activity; what interest them is the “invariant” thought processes called into play whenever one is confronted with a writing task. She explained that Hayes and Flowers assume that although each writing task will have its own environment of purposes and constraints, the mental activity involved in juggling these constraints when moving to accomplish one’s purposes doesn’t change from task to task. This problem solving thought process is the “*cognitive process of writing*”

Hayes and Flower (1980 cited in Deane et al. 2008, p.4) in their original model, attempted to classify the various activities that occur during writing and their relationships to the task environment and to the internal knowledge state of the writer.

Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 369) stated that the act of writing involves three major elements which are reflected in the three units of the model: **the task environment**, **the writer's long-term memory**, and **the writing processes**.

**The task environment** includes all of those things outside the writer's skin, starting with the **rhetorical problem** or **assignment** and eventually including the growing text itself.

The second element is the **writer's long-term memory** in which the writer has stored knowledge, not only of the **topic**, but of the **audience** and of various writing **plans**.

The third element in the model contains **writing processes** themselves, specifically the basic processes of **Planning**, **Translating**, and **Reviewing**, which are under the control of a **Monitor**.

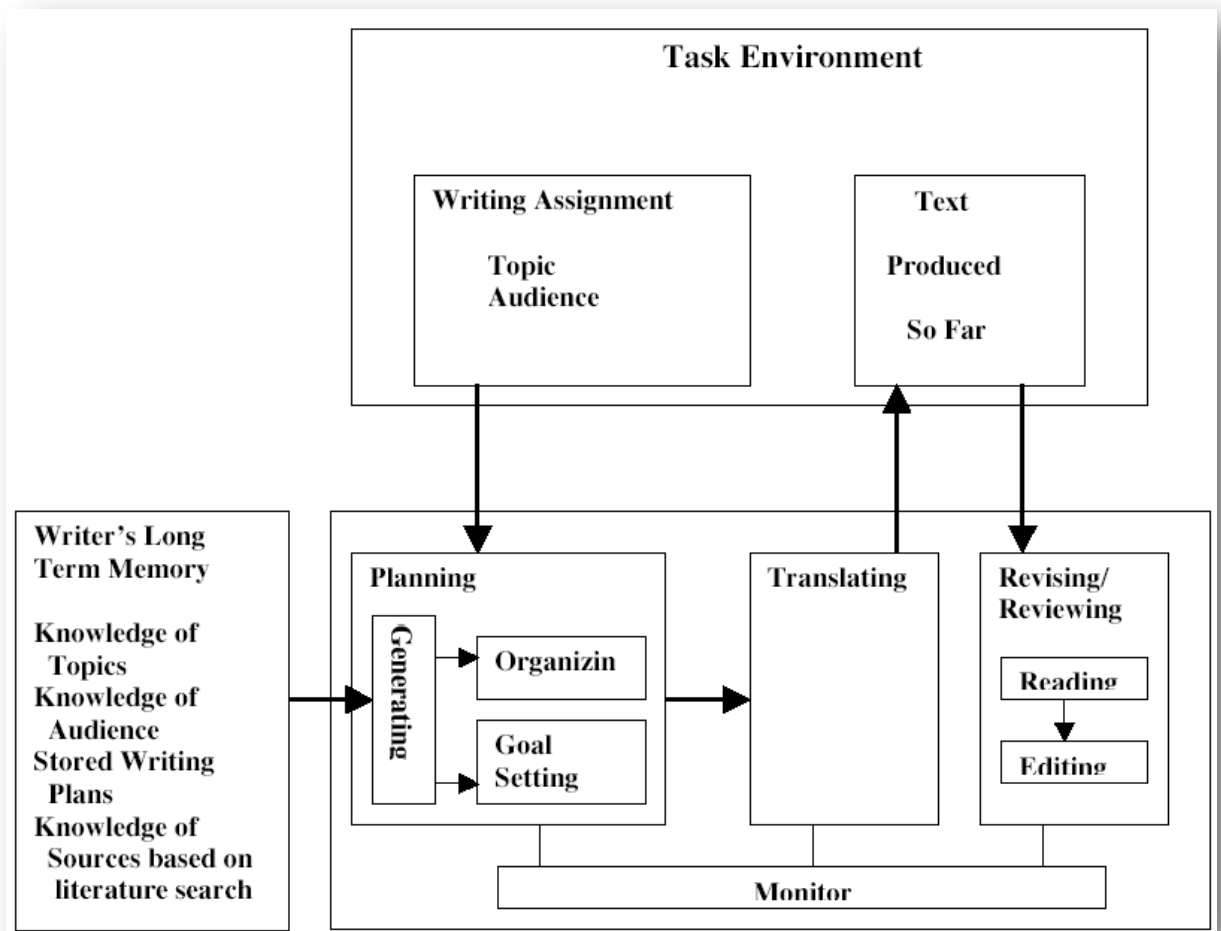


Figure 1-1: Cognitive Process Model (Flower and Hayes. 1981)

Hayes and Flower identified four major writing processes: *planning, translating, reviewing and monitoring*.

Deane et al. ( 2008, p.4) explained the four major processes brought in the Hayes and flower's cognitive model of writing as follows:

1. **Planning** takes the writing *assignment* and *long-term memory* as input, which then produces a conceptual plan for the document as output. Planning includes sub-activities of generating (coming up with ideas), organizing (arranging those ideas logically in one's head), and goal setting (determining what effects one wants to achieve and modifying one's generating and organizing activities to achieve local or global goals).

2. **Translating** takes the conceptual plan for the document and produces text expressing the planned content, in other words, translating plans into text.

3. **In reviewing**, the text produced so far is read, with modifications to improve it (revise) or correct errors (proofread).

4. **Monitoring** includes metacognitive processes that link and coordinate planning, translating, and reviewing. The coordinating role of the monitor refers, in Galbraith terms, to the vital role in controlling the writing process- deciding when enough content has been generated, when revision is necessary, and so forth.

Furthermore, Flower and Hayes (1981) viewed English writing as a recursive process in which planning, generating, translating, and editing need to be "juggled".(Mu, C. 2005, p 2) . This recursive view in the writing process came as opposition to the traditional paradigm of stages which is a model based on “ **stages**”. In this model, Flower and Hayes explained, the stages are considered as units of analysis that are organized in a *linear*

*sequence*. In contrast, the cognitive process of writing is based on the mental “**processes**” as units of analysis rather than stages and that these process *are recursive*.

Within this view, Flowers and Hayes stated the following:

“A cognitive process theory of writing, such as the one presented here, represents a major departure from the traditional paradigm of stages in this way: in a stage model the major units of analysis are stages of completion which reflect the growth of a written product, and these stages are organized in a linear sequence or structure. In a process model, the major units of analysis are elementary mental processes, such as the process of generating ideas. And these processes have a hierarchical structure such that idea generation, for example, is a sub-process of Planning. Furthermore, each of these mental acts may occur at any time in the composing process. One major advantage of identifying these basic cognitive processes or thinking skills writers use is that we can then compare the composing strategies of good and poor writers.” (Flower and Hayes, 1981, p.367)

In addition, Galbraith (2008, p.9) asserted that one of the most important consequent brought in this Hayes and Flower’s model is *the characterization of expert and novice writer*. According to the same reference, experts construct a more elaborate representation of their goals, and continue to develop and modify this representation throughout the course of writing. In particular, they develop explicit rhetorical goals for the text as a whole, and use these to guide retrieval of the content, whereas novices rely on more concrete content goals, and tend to generate content in response to the topic alone. In consequence, expert develop more elaborate plan, and continue to develop and modify this representation throughout the course of writing.

### **1-5-1-2-2Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987)**

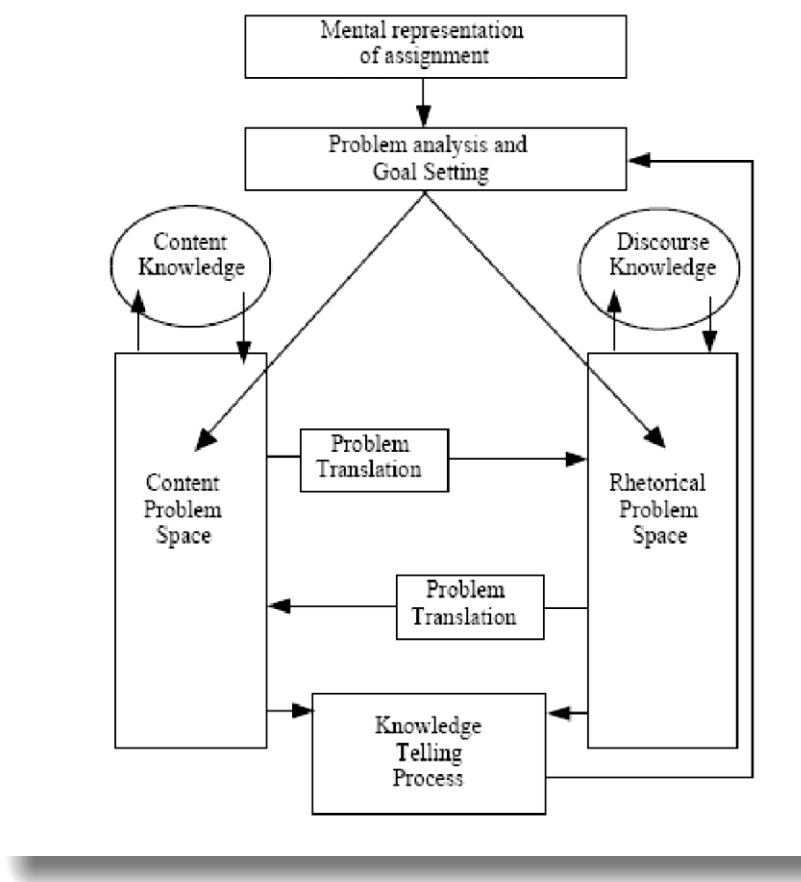
The second most influential model in the cognitive view to writing is that of Breiter and Scardmalia. Breiter and Scardamalia have summed up the difference between novices and

experts as the difference between *knowledge telling* and *knowledge transforming* model of writing.

According to this model, the development of ideas during writing depends on the extent to which the retrieval of content is strategically controlled in order to satisfy rhetorical goals. (Galbraith, 2009,p.9)

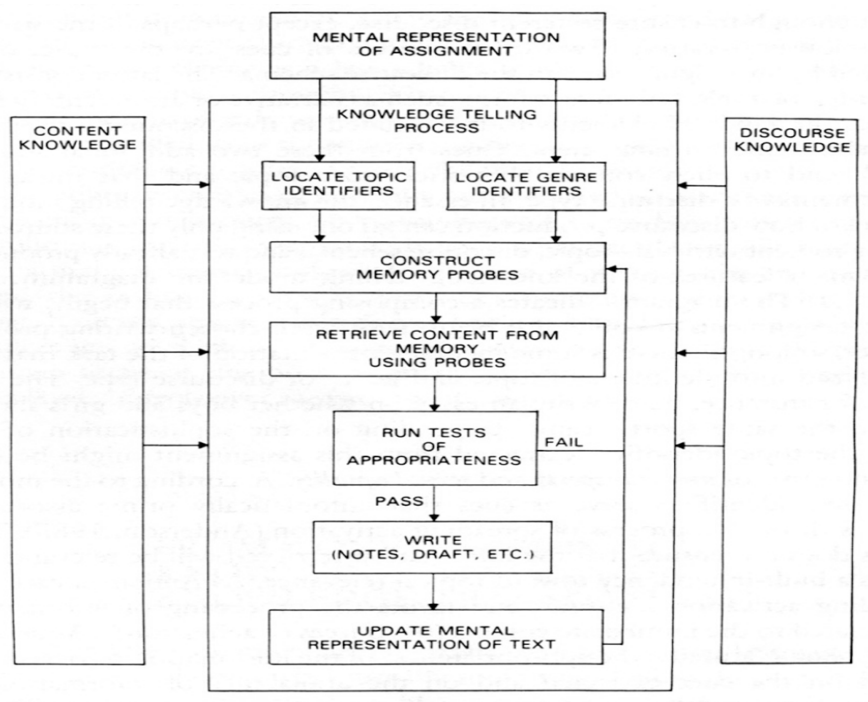
Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987 cited Dean et al. 2008, p3) proposed that skilled writers often “problematize” a writing task, adopting a strategy they called *knowledge transforming*. Galbraith explained that in the model of knowledge transforming of Breiter and Scardamalia , the retrieval of ideas for translation is mediated by active problem solving or ‘reflection’ as they call it. This involves a two-way interaction between a ‘*content space*’ - where content is worked out, and a ‘*rhetorical space*’ - where goals for the text are worked out. In consequence, writing is not just a matter of translating preexisting content, but also involves working out new content when existing content does not satisfy goals, and hence to developments in the writer’s understanding of the topic.(Galbraith, 1998)

Galbraith ( 1998) added that because content generation is guided by *goals for the text*, the text itself is not a direct reflection of existing content, but is structured so that the ideas it contains fit together in the service of the text as a whole. The overall result is both a deeper understanding of the topic on the part of the writer and a more rhetorically effective text. The figure below summarizes the knowledge transforming model of writing



**Figure 1.1: Bereiter & Scardamalia's (1987) knowledge transforming model of writing (Galbraith, 2009)**

In contrast, novice writers typically take a simpler, natural approach to composing, adopting a knowledge-telling approach in which content is generated through association, with one idea prompting the next (Bereiter & Scardamalia, pp. 5-30, 183- 189, 339-363 cited in Dean et all.2008, p.3). Knowledge telling is essentially a ‘think-say’ method of composition, in which ideas are retrieved directly from memory in response to topic and discourse cues, and are then translated directly into text. In consequence, the succession of ideas in the text is a direct reflection of the links between ideas stored in memory (Galbraith,1998)



**Figure 1.2: Bereiter & Scardamalia 's (1987) knowledge telling model of writing ( Hayes John R. 2011)**

Hayes John R. (2011) explained that with the knowledge-telling strategy (diagrammed in Figure I.2), the writer is assigned or chooses a topic and a genre and then probes memory to create a series of statements about that topic. As the name suggests, this strategy is focused on *presenting the writer's knowledge about the topic and not at all on shaping or adjusting that knowledge to the reader's or the writer's needs*. In contrast, writers using the knowledge-transforming strategy engage in a problem solving process in which *they try to shape their knowledge to meet their reader's and/or their own needs*.

Baaijen, V.M, et al. (2014, p.8) explained that the key difference between these models is the extent to which “*writing is treated as an active transaction with the reader.*” Thus, in the knowledge-telling model of writing, writing is treated as a matter of retrieving existing ideas from memory and translating them directly into words, with the resulting

text reflecting the structure of ideas in the writer's long-term memory. By contrast, in the knowledge-transforming model, writing is guided by the writer's rhetorical goals with respect to the reader. These goals guide the retrieval of content, and the evaluation and modification of the text as it is produced. The result is that the structure of the text is tailored to the reader's needs and the writer's understanding develops as they accommodate their ideas to their rhetorical goals.

### 1-5-1-2-3 HAYES MODEL 1996

Weigle (2002, p.24-25) summarized Hayes model 1996 as the following:

Hayes model 1996 of writing sees writing as consisting of two main parts: the **task environment** and the **individual environment**. The task environment is divided into: **social environment** and **physical environment**. The social environment consists of **the audience** (real or imagined) as well as any **collaborators** in the writing process. The physical environment includes **the text written so far**, which influences the writer's further efforts, and the **composing medium**, e.g. handwriting or words processing.

*The individual*, in Weigle terms, is the central focus in the Hayes model rather than the task environment. The individual aspects of writing involve interaction among four components: *working memory, motivation and affect, cognitive processes, and long term memory*.

**1- Working memory:** Hayes model of *working memory* is based upon a well known conception of working memory. Hayes conceptualizes working memory as being composed of three components:

- **Phonological memory**, which stores auditory/ verbal information (i.e. speech).

- **The visual- spatial sketchpad**, which stores visually or spatially coded information (for example, written forms or graphs).
- **Semantic memory**, which stores conceptual information.

2- **Motivation and affect:** Hayes model recognizes the important role of motivation and affect play in writing. According to Hayes the writer's goals, predispositions, beliefs, attitudes, and cost/ benefit estimates may influence the way the writer goes about the task of writing and the effort that will be put into the writing task.

3- **The cognitive Processes:** the cognitive processes in Hayes model include *text interpretation, reflection and text production*.

- **First, Text interpretation**, which includes listening, reading and scanning graphic, is the process by which internal representations are created by linguistic and graphic input.
- **Second, Reflection** is a process by which new internal representations are created from existing internal representations.
- **Third, Text production**, in text production, new linguistic (written or spoken), or graphic output is produced from internal representations

These three processes are involved not only in drafting a piece of writing but in revising one's writing as well.

4- **Long-term memory: the fourth component in Hayes model** is the long term memory, in which information and knowledge relevant to the writing task is stored. Long term memory includes such things as task **schemas**, **task knowledge**, **audience knowledge**, **genre knowledge**, and **linguistic knowledge**.

- **Task Schemas:** task schemas are defined as “packages of information stored in long term memory that specify how to carry out a particular task”. Task schemas include

information about the task goals, the processes necessary for accomplishing the task, how to sequence the processes, and how to evaluate the success of the task. An example of the task schema is a schema for revision.

- **The topic knowledge:** the topic knowledge is, of course, essential for writing, as one must have something to write about.

- **Knowledge of the audience** includes much of the social and cultural issues.

- **Genre knowledge** includes knowledge about the socially and culturally appropriate forms of a writing task in a given situation and for a given purpose.

R. **Linguistic knowledge:** linguistic knowledge includes knowledge about the language resources that are brought to bear in the writing process

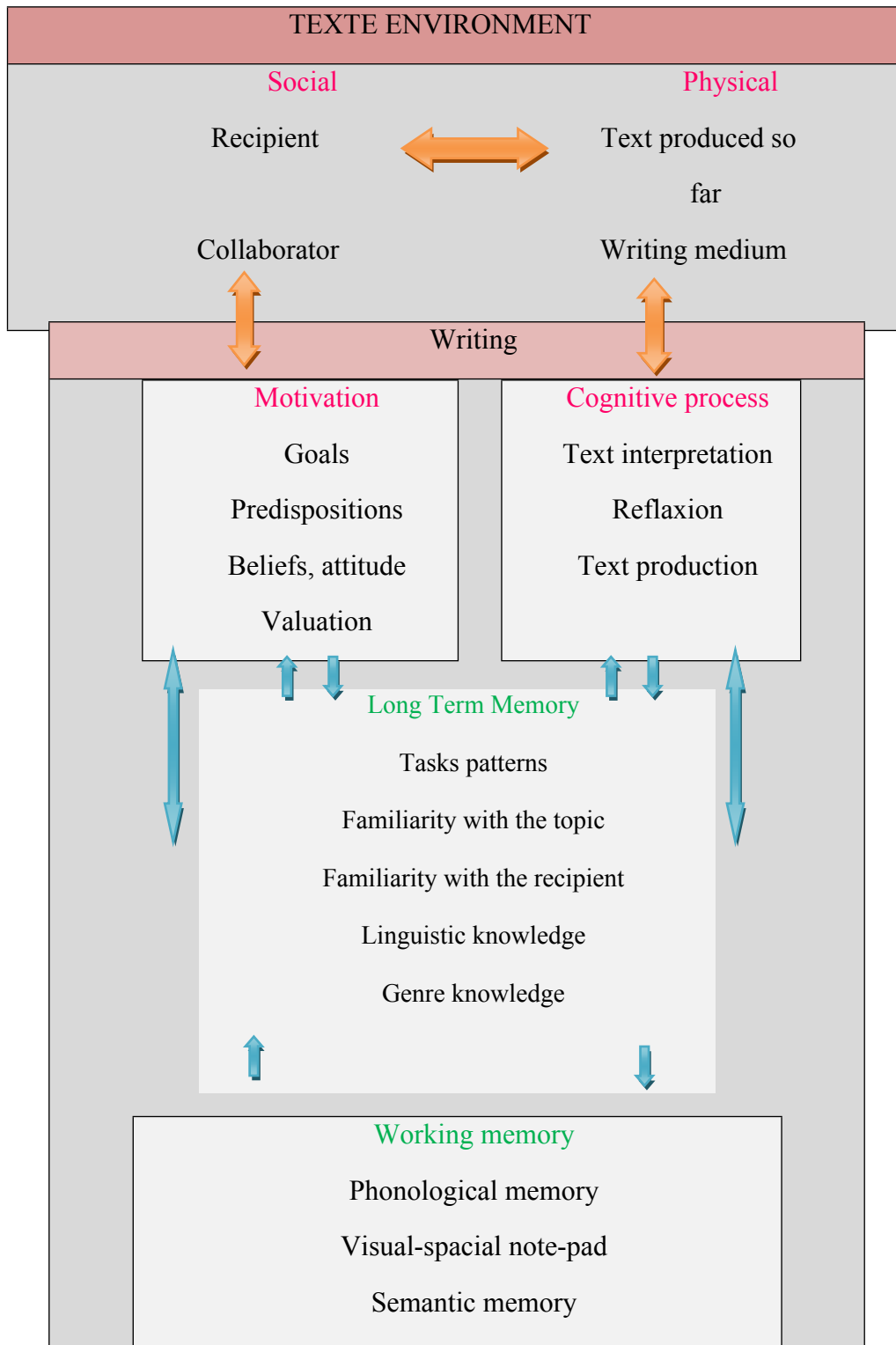


Figure 1-4: Hayes model (1996 from Hayes 1998, p.5)

### **1-5-2 the Social Constructionist View to Writing**

In the mid 1980's publications began to appear that questioned both the validity and the utility on focusing on individual writing processes. (Clark, 2003, p.14). Brizzell (2003, p. 402) asserts that the Cognitive process model brought by Hayes and Flower cannot alone give us a complete picture of the process as this model describes the *form* of the composing process, the process cannot go without the content which is the knowledge of the convention of the discourse community. Thus, the social constructivist approaches to composition comes to emphasize, the role of community in shaping discourse. However, and in order to justify the social view of writing, one has to understand the underlying theory that drives this view and that led to the shift from viewing writing as a purely cognitive process, as explained above, to a social integrationist view.

#### **1-5 -2-1 Social Constructivism**

The social constructivist theory is a variation of the cognitive constructive theory. It adds an important dimension to the cognitive constructivism that views learning as the result of the mental construction, which is the social dimension. Actually, the social constructivist theory emphasis is placed between the learner and the others. The others can come in many forms- it is the social dimension which is crucial to the social constructivists. . Jordan. A et al. (2008, p.59) reported that the Social Constructivism emphasizes the role played by society and culture in learning. In this category of constructivist thought, *culture and social communities shape the manner in which individuals perceive, interpret and attach meanings to their experiences; society forms how and what people think*. Knowledge is constructed in the context of the environment in which it is encountered. In particular, social constructivists argue that knowledge is the result of social interaction and language use.

### 1-5-2 Writing as a Social Construction

As it is mentioned earlier the view of writing has shifted from the cognitive view to a social view under the influence of the social constructivist view to learning. This social turn is the result of an increasing disaffection among certain composition teachers with the radical individualism implied by the early writing-as-process paradigm. (McComesky, 2000, p.19)

Writing, according to Clark, is socially constructed because it both reflects and shapes thinking, a position that in composition studies is known as *social constructionism* (Clark, 2003, p. 15). Social constructionist approaches to composition, according to the same reference, derive from perspectives in philosophy, as well as other fields that emphasize the importance of community consensus in determining knowledge. This view is based on the idea that individuals perceive the world according to the *shared beliefs and perceptions of the community or communities to which they belong*.

Similarly, John (1990, p.27) stated that the written product, in the social constructivist view, is considered as a social act that takes place only *within and for a specific context and audience*. She added that the language, the focus, and the form of the text, in the constructivist view, stem from the community for which it is written. According to the same reference, for social constructivists, knowledge, language, and the nature of discourse are determined for the writer by *'the discourse community'* for whom the writer is producing the text. (John 1990, p.28). Thus, a key to understanding the interaction between writers and groups is the notion of the discourse community.

Williams, D. (2003, p. 80) reported that *Discourse community* refers to the discourse that involves *the writing convention within an academic group* which is the community

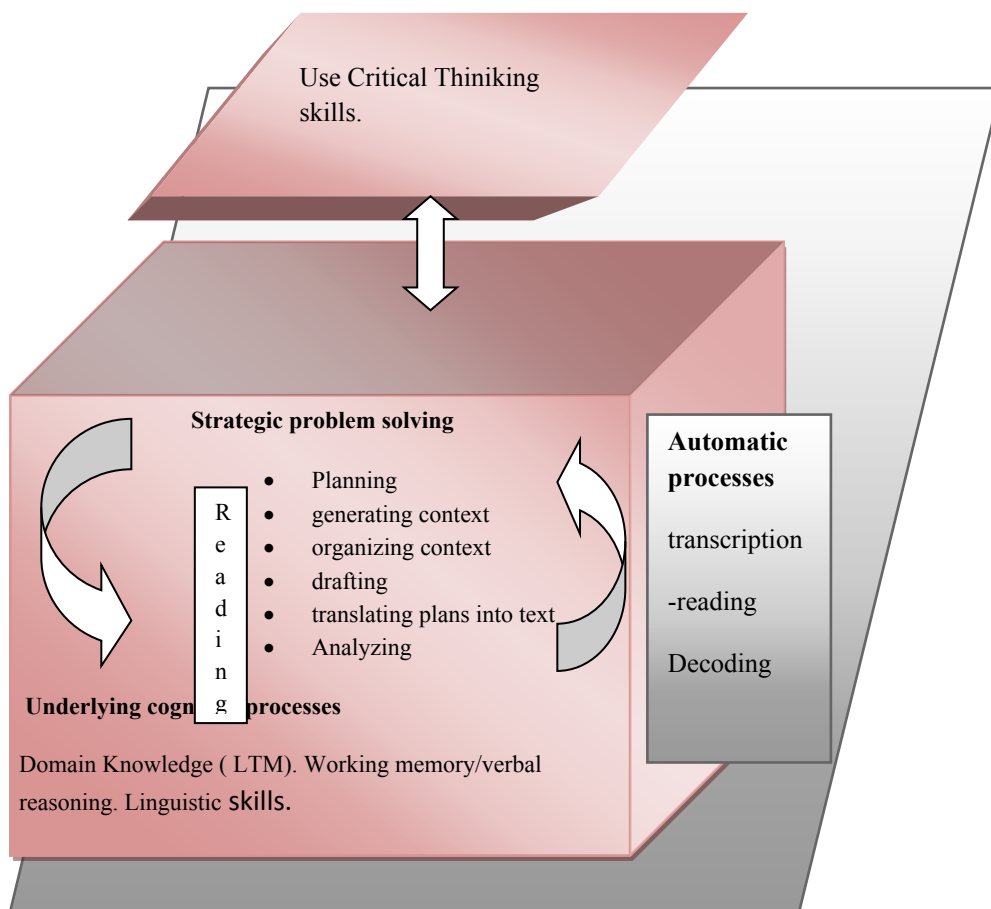
and because real writing is always produced for a specific discourse community—even if it is what might be called a “*general audience*”—writers must decide in advance what their position will be vis-à-vis that community. In other words, they must adopt a particular *rhetorical stance*. Williams added that Rhetorical stance, linked as it is to reader expectations, determines nearly all features of a text. The reason is that members of discourse communities share not only values and views but also language and language conventions. (Williams, D. 2003, p. 80). For example, in a discipline such as chemistry or geology or in a social context such as a term paper in psychology class or case study in a management course, there are substantial differences in how knowledge and ideas are communicated. (Reid 2001, p.310).

From this social constructivist view to writing, Dean et al. (2013, p.13) explains that the socio-cultural approach emphasizes that “*the actual community deeply influences what sort of writing tasks will be undertaken, how they will be structured, and how they will be received and that such constructs as genre and mode of writing are in fact conventional structures that emerge in specific social contexts and exist embedded within an entire complex of customs and expectations.*”

Dean added that this complexity involves both an audience (and other social participants, such as reviewers, editors, and the like) and a rich social context of a well-established writing practices and a variety of social conventions and institutions.

In the figure below, Dean shows how cognitive processes of writing are situated within the larger social. In other word, stresses on the fact that writing is not viewed as a purely cognitive process but influenced by the expectations of a given community.

Conversely, Ivancic (2004, p.224) extended the meaning of discourse in writing by identifying different discourses of writing. She defined “discourses of writing” as “constellations of beliefs about writing, beliefs about learning to write, ways of talking about writing, and the sorts of approaches to teaching and assessment which are likely to be associated with these beliefs not as a socially accepted association among ways of using the language.”



**Figure 1.5 : Essential dimension in Writing Proficiency by Dean et al. (2013, p15)**

In fact, in her explanation of “discourses of writing”, summarized the different assumptions about the nature of writing and learning to write. She, actually, explained these different writing discourses in relation to *beliefs about writing, beliefs about learning to write and approaches to the teaching of writing.*

Ivanic (see the table I-4 below) divided the discourse into six types of discourse and explained the difference between these types of discourse in terms of the different beliefs about writing. The table is constituted of six columns. The first column lists the six discourses of writing and learning to write. The next column shows which layer of the multilayered view of language. For example, in the row for *Asociopolitical discourse of writing*, Ivanic suggests that the beliefs and practices which constitute this discourse take into account 'the sociocultural and political context of writing'. She suggests that in some cases one layer in the comprehensive view of language has generated two or more sets of beliefs and approaches: for example, there are three distinguishable discourses of writing and learning to write associated with 'the writing event'. The third column is related to the belief about writing. According to Ivanic, the discourse is determined according to the author belief about writing. For instance, in the process discourse, the author views writing as a set of processes that he has to follow. However, the fourth column shows that the discourses differ according to the different approaches to learning. For instance, in the creative discourse, you learn to write by the topic which interests you, however, in genre discourse, learning to write involves learning to the characteristics of different types of writing which serves specific purposes in specific context. The fifth main distinguishing feature of these types of discourse is column is related to the approaches to teaching. According to Ivanic, some discourses can be taught implicitly while other discourses can be taught explicitly. For example, creativity discourse is taught implicitly while the process discourse requires explicit teaching. The last column shows the different ways of assessing these discourses. The product discourse is mainly assessed in terms of accuracy while the genre discourse is assessed according to its appropriacy to the context and the purpose.

<i>Discourses</i>	<i>Layer in the comprehensive view of language</i>	<i>Beliefs about writing</i>	<i>Beliefs about learning to write</i>	<i>Approaches to the teaching of writing</i>	<i>Assessment criteria</i>
1. A SKILLS DISCOURSE	THE WRITTEN TEXT ▲	Writing consists of applying knowledge of sound-symbol relationships and syntactic patterns to construct a text.	Learning to write involves learning sound-symbol relationships and syntactic patterns.	SKILLS APPROACHES <i>Explicit teaching</i> 'phonics'	accuracy
2. A CREATIVITY DISCOURSE		Writing is the product of the author's creativity.	You learn to write by writing on topics which interest you.	CREATIVE SELF-EXPRESSION <i>Implicit teaching</i> 'whole language' 'language experience'	interesting content and style
3. A PROCESS DISCOURSE	THE MENTAL PROCESSES OF WRITING	Writing consists of composing processes in the writer's mind, and their practical realization.	Learning to write includes learning both the mental processes and the practical processes involved in composing a text.	THE PROCESS APPROACH <i>Explicit teaching</i>	?
4. A GENRE DISCOURSE	THE WRITING EVENT ▼	Writing is a set of text-types, shaped by social context.	Learning to write involves learning the characteristics of different types of writing which serve specific purposes in specific contexts.	THE GENRE APPROACH <i>Explicit teaching</i>	appropriacy
5. A SOCIAL PRACTICES DISCOURSE		Writing is purpose-driven communication in a social context.	You learn to write by writing in real-life contexts, with real purposes for writing.	FUNCTIONAL APPROACHES <i>Explicit teaching</i> PURPOSEFUL COMMUNICATION <i>Implicit teaching</i> 'communicative language teaching' LEARNERS AS ETHNOGRAPHERS <i>Learning from research</i>	effectiveness for purpose
6. A SOCIOPOLITICAL DISCOURSE	THE SOCIOCULTURAL AND POLITICAL CONTEXT OF WRITING	Writing is a sociopolitically constructed practice, has consequences for identity, and is open to contestation and change.	Learning to write includes understanding why different types of writing are the way they are, and taking a position among alternatives.	CRITICAL LITERACY <i>Explicit teaching</i> 'Critical Language Awareness'	social responsibility?

**Table 1-6: Discourses of writing and learning to write( Ivanic,2004. p.225)**

**Conclusion:**

It is undeniable that writing in a Second and a Foreign language has been a focus of many research studies. This growing concern in teaching writing comes as a result of the complexity in writing in a foreign language, reflected in difficulties that foreign language students often meet when composing. In fact, and as it is mentioned earlier in this chapter, EFL students are not only faced with the burden of foreign language proficiency but also have to deal with the complex process of writing that requires a cognitive effort such as generating, organizing, drafting and revising. Thus EFL students are not only required to develop their language proficiency and to follow the previously mentioned processes but are also required to pay attention the rhetorical differences of L1 and L2 writing , a major

problem encountered by the student when writing. Thus as this chapter reviewed the main research studies who tried to explain the writing activity from different perspectives and this is for the purpose to understand what happens during the writing activity to facilitate the teaching and the learning of writing.

**CHAPTET TWO: CONTRASTIVE  
RHETORIC**

## CHAPTER TWO: CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC

### Introduction

Writing, as stated in the previous chapter, is a complex process that requires a high cognitive effort. EFL students are not only required to deal with the difficulties that arise from this activity, but also from difficulties that arise from the foreign language as well. In fact, organization in composing is one of the main obstacles that EFL students meet in writing. Researchers in the Second Language Writing attribute the obstacle in organizing composition to the difference in the rhetorical conventions that are typical of a language that belongs to a given culture. In other words, it is culture which determines the differences in the rhetorical conventions. Connor (1996) asserts that the conventions of discourse within each culture provide a framework in which ideas are arranged. Writing, from this perspective is defined as a cultural phenomenon and students are thus required to be aware of these conventions that are a major distinctive feature in each language. The field of study that considers the difficulty in organization is known in the literature by contrastive rhetoric. Contrastive rhetoric is a very influential field of study that marked the history of EFL writing that tackled Second Language Writing difficulties beyond the sentence level (i.e.) at the level of discourse .

As it is stated earlier, our students, who are Arabic students, find difficulties to producing organized texts that seem acceptable to the English reader since Arabic language is a totally distant language vis-à-vis English language. For this reason, it is suggested that the students' writing difficulties at the organizational level may be explained and resolved from the field of contrastive rhetoric; a field of research that may clarify and justify the discrepancy of English writing and Arabic writing at the discourse level and thus may contribute to a better teaching of ESL writing.

This chapter tackles contrastive rhetoric as a field of study with its definition, aim, development and the criticism. To raise awareness among students to the difference in textual features between Arabic and English, this section focuses on the cultural differences that lay in the written text by reviewing the findings of contrastive rhetoric research on Arabic and English argumentative text

## 2.1 Contrastive Rhetoric

Research on the difficulties in second language learning led to the rise of different fields of studies that addressed the second and foreign language learners difficulties from different perspectives, such as, Contrastive analysis and Error analysis.

Unlike Error analysis which analyzes students' written difficulties at the sentence level, contrastive rhetoric endeavors to study these difficulties beyond the sentence level, that is to say, at the discourse level. Arapoff (1967, p.3 cited in Matsuda p.20 in Kroll 2003) reported that *"writing is much more than an orthographic symbolization of speech; it is, most importantly, a purposeful selection and organization of experience."*

The focus on discourse rather than on a sentence and the great emphasis placed on the cultural dimension in writing brought about many implications in the field of second language writing. Writing within the contrastive rhetoric view is considered as a reflection of the different cultural expectations. Contrastive rhetoric, in Kaplan terms, shows that *"the different patterns of text organization are the reflection of the different cultural expectations which urges the ESL teacher needs to be aware of differences between paragraph organizations in different languages so that she or he can make these differences apparent to students."* (Kaplan (1966) cited in Connor (1996,p 166))

Thus, the present chapter highlights the finding of contrastive rhetoric on the field of Second and Foreign language writing in general and its implication on teaching writing in particular.

### **2.1.1 Definitions of the Term Rhetoric**

The term rhetoric has different meanings. One sense of the word is speech that does not convey anything of substance. For example, the politicians' campaign speeches are said to be "*empty rhetoric*" for the fact that they are appealing but ultimately false. Williams (2003, p.1).

Besides, the meaning of term rhetoric has changed, making the distinction between the classical rhetoric and the new rhetoric.

William (2003, p2) asserted that the term rhetoric is not a new term but goes back to the Classical Greek and is viewed as the use of language for purposes of *persuasion*. Aristotle, according to Williams (2003, p.1) terms, defined the term rhetoric as an ability to see, in each particular case, the available means of persuasion. Developing this ability, however, typically involved studying the structure of effective arguments, psychology, proof, and so forth, as well as practicing how to deliver a speech.

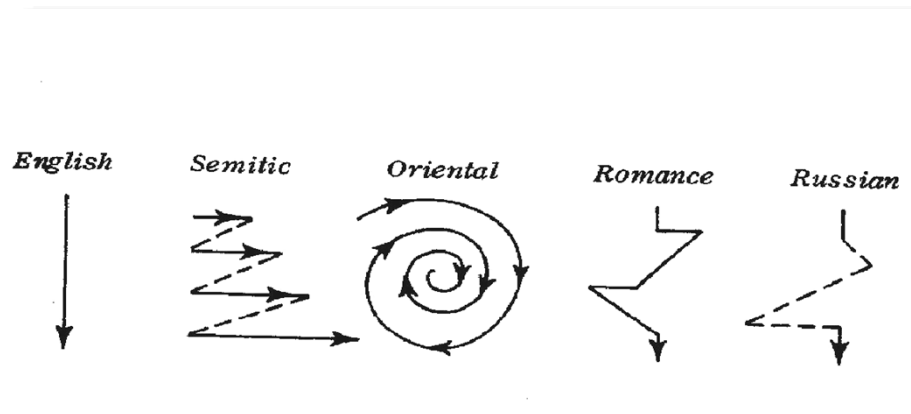
In addition, rhetoric, in classical rhetoric, used to be related to speaking not writing. Ong (1983 cited in Connor 1996, p.62), stated that among the ancient Greeks, rhetoric referred to *public speaking, not writing*. "*Rheto*" in Greek means orator, public speaker, and "*rheto-rik*" means primarily public speaking. Persuasion in written form was a much later development.

Recently, the term rhetoric goes beyond the purpose of persuasion to represent an analytical means to discover certain aspects of discourse. In Anna Mauranen's terms , a

Finish linguist, in her book *Cultural Differences in Academic Writing* (1993) , the study of rhetoric has been rediscovered not only as a means of improving efficiency in verbal representation, but as *an analytical tool that can be used by different disciplines for uncovering certain aspects of discourse.* ( Anna Mauranen 1993, cited in Connor 1996,p 63).

### **2.1. 2 Contrastive Rhetoric as a Field of Study**

Contrastive rhetoric is an area of research in Second Language Acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language writing, in attempts to explain them. (Connor,1996, p.5). This field of research has been initiated by the work of Robert Kaplan (1966), who in his famous article '*Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural education*' (1966), attempts to link the differences in discourse organization between English and other languages to their respective cultures and thought patterns. His earlier model on paragraph organization was useful in accounting for the cultural differences in essays written by college students (Connor. 1996, p.495). Kaplan maintained that language and culture are cultural phenomena and as a direct consequence, each language has rhetorical conventions unique to it. He also summarized these differences in discourse organization in his famous diagrams that represent the rhetoric of five cultural traditions: Oriental, English, Semitic, Russian, and Romance. The five drawings present English rhetoric as a straight line, Oriental rhetoric as a spiral, Arabic rhetoric as a series of zigzags, and Romance and Russian as lines heading downward but veering off at different angles along the way, as it is illustrated in the figure below.



**Figure 1-7: Rhetorical Patterns of Different Languages ( Kaplan,1966)**

Connor (1996, p.15) stated that Kaplan's work suggested that Anglo-European expository essays follow a linear development. In contrast, paragraph development in Semitic languages is based on a series of parallel coordinate clauses. Essays written in Oriental languages use an indirect approach and come to the point only at the end. In Romance languages and in Russian, essays are permitted a degree of digressiveness and extraneous material that would seem excessive to a writer of English.

Research in contrastive rhetoric, according to Mu, has examined the formal differences between texts written by native and non-native speakers of English and these textual differences have been related to cultural differences in rhetorical expectations and conventions ( Mu, 2005, P2).

In addition, Connor reported that (2002, p.493) Contrastive rhetoric examines differences and similarities in ESL and EFL writing across languages and cultures as well as across such different contexts as education and commerce.

However, Kaplan's " traditional" contrastive rhetoric , in Connor ( 1996, p.16) terms, has been criticized for several reasons: for being too ethnocentric and privileging the

writing of native English speakers (Matlene 1985); for examining only L2 products and ignoring educational and developmental process variables (Mohan and Au-Yeung Lo 1985); for dismissing linguistic and cultural differences in writing among related languages, that is, for including Chinese, Thai, and Korean speakers in one “Oriental” group (Hinds 1983) ; and for considering transfer from a first language a negative influence on second language writing (Raimes1991).

Kubota and Lehner added (2004, p12) that contrastive rhetoric, throughout these decades, has investigated cultural differences in written discourse patterns or rhetorical conventions that might negatively affect writing in a second language. The hypotheses underlying the traditional approach to contrastive rhetoric are summarized as: (1) each language or culture has rhetorical conventions that are unique to itself; and (2) the rhetorical conventions of students’ L1 interfere with their ESL writing.

Actually, Kaplan has modified his earlier position in a number of recent publications (e.g., Kaplan 1987,1988) calling his 1966 article his “doodles” article and suggesting that rhetorical differences do not necessarily reflect different patterns of thinking. Instead, differences may reflect different writing conventions that are learned in culture. (Connor 1996, p16.)

## **2.2 Contrastive Rhetoric in Applied Linguistic Context**

Contrastive Rhetoric in Applied linguistics context is taking a new direction in five domains (Connor, 1996, p19) : **(1)** *contrastive text linguistics* (comparison of discourse features across languages) ; **(2)** *the study of writing as a cultural activity* (comparing the process of learning to write in different cultures) ; **(3)** *contrastive studies of the classroom dynamics of L2 writing*; **(4)** *contrastive rhetoric studies conducted in a variety of genres in a variety of situations for a variety of purposes* (e.g., journal articles, school essays, and

business reports); (5) and contrastive rhetoric studies dealing with the inculcation of culturally different intellectual tradition and ideologies.

**First, Text Linguistics** is a written discourse analysis, an analysis that goes beyond the sentence level. Connor stated that several Text Linguistic studies have contrasted coherence and discourse patterns of various kinds in different languages. Certain text structures are used to achieve coherence, which guides the reader in making the right inference, and that *textual patterns used to express coherence vary among languages and cultures*.

Second: **Study of Writing as a Cultural Activity:** this refers to the research investigating the *processes of learning literacy and the effects of literacy on learners' thinking*. Connor stated that empirical research examining the relationship between culture and discourse falls into three categories: the first type of research is conducted into the domain of *anthropology and psychology* and focuses on the social functions of writing. Second major research direction is *education* and deals with the role of instruction on writing in a given language and culture. The third area, according to the same reference, comprises *studies of ESL students' backgrounds and the effect of background on their literacy in L2*.

**Third, Classroom-based Contrastive Studies:** Connor (1996, p.23) stated that cultural mismatches in classrooms manifest themselves in a number of situations such as classroom conversation, collaborative groups, and teacher-student conference.

**Fourth, Contrastive Rhetoric and Genre Analysis:** Connor stated that with the increased interest in writing for many purposes and in many contexts for ESL learners, the specification of genres is important. A useful model for defining genres and discourse communities in contrastive rhetoric analysis is provided by Swales (1990).

The table below summarizes the main new dimensions in contrastive rhetoric

Domain		Purpose	Example
Contrastive Text Linguistic Studies		Examine, compare, and contrast how texts are formed and interpreted in different languages and cultures	Clyne (1987); Connor And Kaplan (1987); Eggington (1987); Hinds(1983,1987,1990)
	Methods of written discourse analysis		
Studies of writing as cultural and educational activity		Investigate literacy development on L1 language and culture and examine effects on the development of L2 literacy	Carson (1992); Purves ( 1988)
		Examine cross-cultural patterns in process writing, collaborative revisions, and students-teachers conferences	Allaei and Connor (1990) Goldestein and Conrad(1990) Hull,Rose,Frasel ,and Castellano(1991) Nelson and Murphy(1992)
Genre Specific Investigation		Are applied to academic and professional writing	Bhatia (1993); Connor, Davis and De Rycker (1995); Jenkins And Hinds (1987); Mauranen (1993); Swales (1990); Tirkkonen-Condit (1996); Ventola Mauranen (1991)

**TABLE 1. 2: Sample Contrastive Studies in Four Domains of Investigation adopted New Directions in Contrastive Rhetoric, Connor (2002,p 498)**

### **2.3 Explanations of Contrastive Rhetoric Research Findings for L2 Textual Organization**

Kaplan (1966) asserted that differences in L2 writing might reflect different writing conventions that are learnt in L1 culture and may interfere with L2 writing.

Differences between the discourse-level features of a learner's first and second language, according to Casanave, cause difficulties for L2 learners who are trying to acquire discourse-level patterns in their second language (Casanave2004, p27). Thus understanding such differences can help scholars and teachers explain some of the problems that L2 learners have in organizing their writing in ways that seem acceptable to native speakers.

The solution to the problem of the L2 organizational structure, according to Matsuda(1996, p.47) is stated in the findings of Contrastive Rhetoric Research which have contributed to the teaching of ESL writing by identifying the possible sources of the apparent lack of coherence in ESL texts. The explanations that they have generated can be classified into three types: *linguistic, cultural, and educational explanations*.

First, the linguistic explanation, according to the same reference, refers to the role of L1 in determining the L2 organizational structure of the written discourse as above sentence level.

Second, cultural explanation maintains that organizational structures are strongly influenced, if not determined, by the cultural background of the writer. Pedagogical application of this view involves *the teaching of organizational structures that fit the cultural conventions shared by the readers*, because “the fact that the student knows the conventions of his or her own writing system does not mean the student understands the conventions employed in the target language” (Kaplan, 1988, pp. 296-297).

Third, the educational explanation considers how writers acquire the patterns they use in their writing in the first place, and explains the structures of ESL texts in terms of educational backgrounds.

However, Hyland (2003, p.46) claims that the findings of contrastive Rhetoric are inconclusive and show differences across L2 groups, but some the results on the differences between L1 and L2 student academic essays are summarized in the following listing .

- Different organizational preferences
- Different approaches to argument (justification, persuasion appeal, credibility.)
- Different ways of incorporating material (use of quotes, paraphrase, allusion, unacknowledged borrowing, etc.)
- Different ways and extent of getting readers 'attention and orienting them to topic.
- Different estimates of reader knowledge.
- Different uses of cohesion and metadiscourse markers
- Differences in how overt linguistic features are used (generally less subordination passives, modifiers , lexical variety , and specificity in L2 writing).
- Difference in objectivity (L2 texts often contain more generalizations and personal opinions)
- Differences in complexity of style. (Connor,1996; Grabe and Kaplan, 1996:239; Hinkel,1999 cited in Hyland 2003)

#### **2.4 Pedagogical Implications of Contrastive Rhetoric on L2 Writing**

Although contrastive rhetoric, according to Grabe and Kaplan, is not a methodology for teaching, some of its findings can be (and indeed have been) applied to teaching. (Grabe and Kaplan (1989, 269) cited in Connor (1996, p.166)).

The aim of this section is thus, to provide the main implications of contrastive rhetoric on teaching L2 writing, since contrastive rhetoric in EFL situations can empower the non-

native English teacher in a valuable way, making the teacher more confident because she knows explicitly how writing in different languages work. (Connor 1996, p.170).

Kubota and Lehner (2004, p12,13) summarized the major teaching techniques brought by contrastive rhetoric researchers in the domain of second language writing who aim to helping students raise their awareness of English rhetorical conversions. The suggested techniques, according to Kubota and Lehner are the following:

- Rearranging scrambled paragraphs and filling out an outline following given topic sentences (Kaplan, 1966, 1972);
- imitating models, doing controlled exercises, filling in missing sentences, and composing by following an outline (Kaplan, 1967);
- making students aware of the following factors in writing: cultural difference in composing conventions, culturally specific assumptions about audience, “world knowledge” (culturally constrained subject knowledge), “technical knowledge” (knowledge acquired through other academic activities), and the idea that writing is a social phenomenon that requires more than control of syntactic and lexical items (Kaplan 1988) identifying topic structures in authentic texts and narrowing down a topic to match the writer’s world knowledge (Grabe and Kaplan 1989);
- explaining chronological and logical sequences, making “point outlines,” and examining formats for various academic assignments (Reid 1984);
- and paying attention to the lexical and morphological structures of edited texts and discussing rhetorical differences between English academic prose and students’ L1 (Reid 1989).
- Pedagogical suggestions resulting from an empirical study on the native-speaking reader’s expectations of the second sentence following a topic sentence (Reid 1996)

include discussing the second sentence functions, developing the skills to predict an appropriate second sentence, and identifying the problems of inappropriate second sentences.

(Kubota and Lehner 2004, p12,13)

Connor (1996, p.167) reported the implications of contrastive rhetoric for teaching from three sets of findings: text linguistics, process-based composition instruction, and genre-specific research in EFL settings. In fact, these sets, as it has previously been mentioned, represent the new directions of contrastive rhetoric in applied linguistics.

### **First: Implications from contrastive Text Finding.**

Connor (1996, p.167) reported that contrastive rhetoricians maintain that different reader's expectations are the primary reason for cross-cultural differences in writing styles and that students should be made aware of these differences by their teachers. According to Leki (1992, p.102), a strong advocate of the employment of contrastive rhetoric insights in ESL classroom, it is important for ESL teacher in North America to make their ESL students aware of the following: "*English-speaking readers are convinced by facts, statistics and illustrations in arguments; they move from generalizations to specific examples and expect explicit links between main topics and subtopics; and they value originality.*"(Leki Cited in Connor 1996, p.167)

Connor added that exercises for the improvement of writing based on contrastive rhetoric findings include work *on thesis statements* as suggested by Grabe and Kaplan, which include *identifying topic sentences in texts, sorting supporting information from its generalization, brainstorming a thesis, and conferencing*. Other teaching suggestions from contrastive rhetoric include the use of *topical structure analysis* as a *revision* tool that students can use to improve the coherence of their own writing.

**Second: Implications from Contrastive Process-based Writing.**

Connor asserted that the teaching of writing in North America has undergone a paradigm shift. The emphasis is no longer on the product. Instead, *writing is taught as a process*, in which each stage – prewriting, composing, and editing- is important. Furthermore, teachers need to be aware of cultural differences in their students' attitudes toward *collaboration in writing classes* as students from different language and cultural backgrounds have different expectation about group work.

In addition, Allaei and Connor (cited in Connor 1996, p.168) make several suggestions for the teacher:

First, *collaborative peer response groups* to be successful, it is essential that students understand why they are being asked to participate in these activities.

To prepare them for *peer response activities*, they recommend nonthreatening interaction such as brainstorming and discussing various scenarios such as refusing requests, pointing out mistakes that a peer has made, or placing blame at the scene of an accident, with the purpose of highlighting cross- cultural differences and their implications for cross-cultural interactions.

**Third, Implications from Contrastive Genre-specific research in EFL Setting.**

According to Connor (1996, p.169) insights from contrastive rhetoric help guide the EFL teacher around the world by providing information about the expectations of native English – speaking readers. In EFL situation, teachers need knowledge of theoretical contrast between English and the other language, the student's native language.

Ventola and Mauranen (1991 cited in Connor 1996), write about the value of awareness about contrasting coherence patterns for Finnish students and teachers of English. The

awareness of differences in reader expectations about *how explicitly transitions should be stated, how directly requests are made*, and so on, is crucial for a nonnative writer. Lack of awareness of such cross-cultural differences in text characteristics and reader expectations is believed to be the main cause preventing non-native writers' success in the international community.

### **2-5 Contrastive Rhetoric Research Findings in the Writing of the Arabic Speaking EFL Learners' Argumentative Essay**

As it is mentioned earlier in this chapter, one of the major difficulties for the Arabic speaking EFL learner essay writing is that their writing does not meet the expectations of the English readers, and that composition organization causes a problem for the Arabic learners when composing and the English reader understanding the text. This main difficulty, on which the present thesis revolves, may find its solution in the findings of the research of contrastive rhetoric.

In fact, this section aims at comparing and explaining the differences in the patterns of organization of the argumentative essay in the Arabic and English writing and bringing awareness among the EFL learners to the features of argumentative essay that are acceptable by the English reader.

Indeed, the choice of argumentative text is justified, on the one hand, by the fact that students at university level are required to think critically and give more striking arguments to persuade their readers, and on the other hand to explain the cross-cultural differences in using persuasive strategies.

Many research studies have been undertaken regarding the organization of argumentative essay, its different patterns, and the preferred pattern for both English and

Arabic students and its relation to culture. However, before tackling this diversity in students' choice of a given pattern over another and its relation to culture, it is important to cite the different patterns of the argumentative essay.

### 2.5-1 Text Typology

Before tackling argumentation typology, it is quite important to mention briefly the different text typology. Different text types have been distinguished, namely: exposition, argumentation, and instruction from which other variants may be identified, as it is shown in the figure below. This distinction is made on the basis of the broad distinction between texts which set out to '**monitor**' a situation, which is the case of exposition, and texts which set out to '**manage**' a situation, which is the case of argumentation. Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 162) cited in Basil Hatim ( 1997, 36) explains this difference in the following

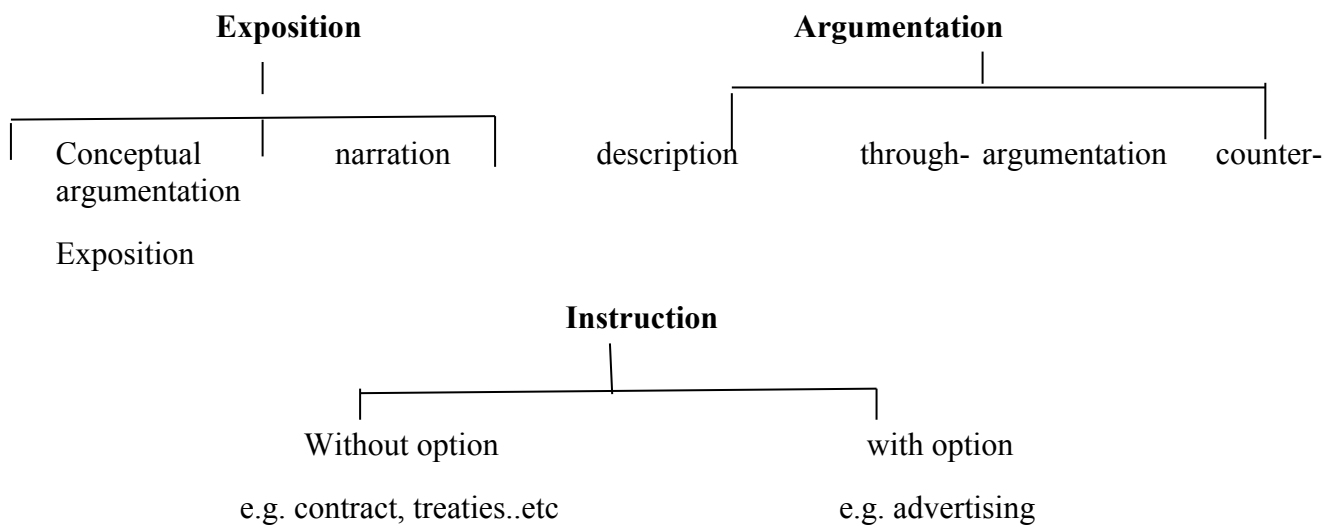
If the predominant function of a text is to provide a reasonably unmediated account of the situation model, SITUATION MONITORING is being performed. If the predominant function is to guide the situation in a manner favorable to the text producer's goals, SITUATION MANAGEMENT is being carried.

In fact, this classification includes other text types. First, *exposition* is one variety of different text types: **Conceptual exposition** which focuses on the analysis of given concepts and which combines *synthesis* and *analysis*, and **description** dealing with '*objects*' or '*situation*', and **narration** dealing with '*actions*' and '*events*'.

Second, **argumentation** focuses on the *evaluation of the relation between concepts* and two variants of argumentation may be distinguished; **through argumentation, and counter-argumentation.**

The third text type is **instruction** which, like argumentation, sets out to ‘manage’ and thus focuses on the formation of the future behavior. It is subdivided into two: ‘without options’ e.g. contracts, treaties and ‘with options’ e.g. advertising.

The figure below shows the different main text types .

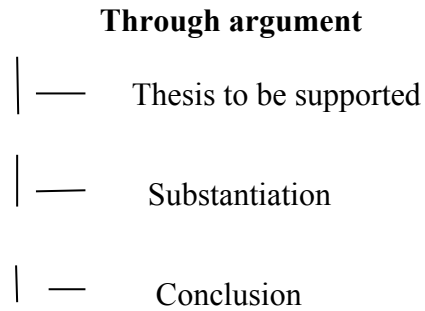


**Figure 2.8: Basic Text Types (Basil Hatim 1997, 39)**

### 2.5.2 Argumentation: Typology

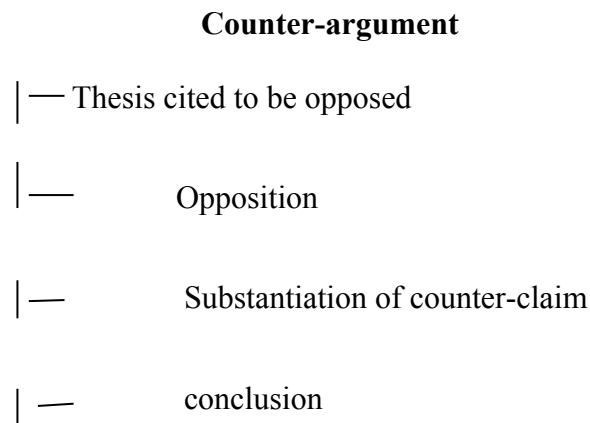
Within this text typology, two variant of argumentation may be distinguished;

(1) **Through argumentation.** This is initiated by stating a viewpoint to be argued through. There is no explicit reference to an adversary as it is shown in the diagram below. The statement and subsequent substantiation of an initial thesis characterize through-argumentation text (Hatim and Mason .1997, p.127)



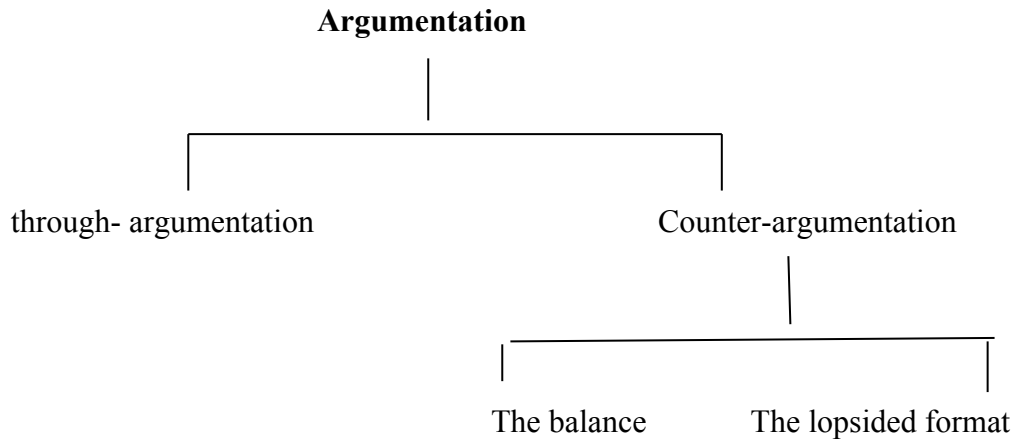
**Figure 2.9 : Though argumentation ( Basil Hatim 1997, 39)**

(2) **Counter-argumentation**: this is initiated by a selective summary of someone else's viewpoint (citing the opponent's thesis), followed by a counter-claim (rebutting), a substantiating the point of rebuttal and finally a conclusion. The figure below represents it diagrammatically.



**Figure 2.10: Counter- argumentation ( Basil Hatim 1997, 40)**

within the counter-argumentation, two further structural format may be distinguished: **the balance**, in which the text producer signals the contrastive shift between what is viewed as a claim and a counter-claim either explicitly or implicitly ( with adversative signal suppressed) and the **lopsided argument**, in which the counter-proposition is anticipated by using an explicit concessive( e.g., while, although, despite).



**Figure 2.10. Typology of argumentation ( Hatem and Mason 1997,128)**

### 2.5. 3 Argumentation in Western Rhetoric

Effective argumentation, in Western rhetoric, involves not only developing a thesis and defending it by citing reasons and evidence in support of the position being argued for. It also involves being able to recognize the existence of different sides of an issue and select the main arguments for and against each of them in order to compare, evaluate and integrate them (Kuhn, 1991, 2005; Voss, 2001 cited in **Mar Mateos et al. 2011**). Thus, this tendency to consider the opposite side when trying to persuade the audience with one's view explains the preference of the Western argumentation to the counter-argumentation over the through argumentation typology as it will be shown later in this section.

Leki (1998, p.253) added that various aspects should be considered when writing argumentative essay; **the academic argument, audience, the writer credibility, and tone.**

First, an academic argument, according to Leki ( 1998, p.253) *is characterized, for the most part, by its lack of emotional appeals;* instead *an academic argument appeals to logic.....* Academic arguments tend to surround intellectual issues and to appeal to facts and logic for support rather than emotions or to ethics.

Second, for **the audience**, Leki stated that in persuasive writing the question of audience is even more important than usual. When writing privately in one's personal journal or in invention writing, the primary focus is on oneself, one's feelings and ideas. When writing publicly, the focus shifts toward the subject and the audience for the writing. In analyzing and object, an event, or idea, the focus is on that object, event, or idea and one must concentrate on communication information. As one moves from analysis or exposition toward argumentation, the focus shifts again, this time in the direction of the audience. Information on the subject is still important, of course, but *in persuasive writing the importance of the relationship between writer and reader increases*. Leki (1998, p.253).

Private writing	focus: <b>writer</b>
1- Public writing	
a. Exposition	focus: <b>subject</b>
b. Persuasive or argumentation	} focus: <b>audience</b>

This chart shows the different types of writing and their respective foci. The chart distinguishes the private from the public writing and their foci. In the private writing, the focus is on the writer where he / she express his feelings and emotions. For that reason, the private writing is characterized by the high emotional appeals. However, in public writing two types of writing have been distinguished: exposition and argumentative; accordingly, the focus changes for each type. In the expository writing, the focus is on the subject where the writer focuses on the event or the information. However, in the argumentative writing, much importance is given to the audience.

Third, *writer credibility*, according to Leki, refers to the authority that emanates from the writer's education training or experience in the subject. And that the authority's point of view should be objective, not biased by self interest.

Fourth, the *tone*. In Leki's terms, academic arguments are characterized more by *logical appeal than emotional or ethical appeals*. Students sometimes become very involved with their subjects and make the mistake of using too many emotional or ethical appeals. As a result, their writing sounds more like political speechmaking than academic arguments.

#### **2.5-4 Argumentation in Arabic rhetoric**

Argumentation in Arabic rhetoric has been subject to controversies. Most of the research studies done on Arabic argumentation maintain that Arabic argumentation is a through-argumentation; however, counter-argumentation also exists in Arabic writing. In fact, these controversies stem from the non-identification of the term "Arabic". Thus, it seems important to define first the term Arabic before going further in the discussion of these controversies.

It is commonly agreed that the term "Arabic" is a generic term that means both Modern Standard Arabic and Classical Arabic; however, the two terms differ from each other. Nowadays, the term Arabic is used to mean the **Modern Standard Arabic** that is the Arabic used and taught at school and that differs from **classical Arabic** which is the Arabic of the Quran, Hadiith, and the Arabic of the pre-Islamic prose and poetry. It seems that the difference between the two terms could be explained as a result of the transformation that occurred on the classical Arabic that witnessed many transformations at different levels of the language to give birth to the Modern Standard Arabic. The transformations occurred at the phonological level in which some consonants sounds disappeared and were replaced by others e.g. the consonant sound ض disappeared and was replaced by the /d / sound. Also,

in grammar, the Bassora grammar was adopted at the expense of the other grammar schools; such as, Andalusia school and Kufite School

In fact, this non- specification of the term “Arabic” led to an over generalization and simplification in the research done on Arabic rhetoric. The research studies on Arabic speaking EFL learners writing assume that Arab students follow the through argumentation mode in their persuasive essay. Therefore, Arabic persuasion is built one mode of argumentation which is the through argumentation. This over generalization may lead to a condemnation of Arabic rhetoric for not using the counter argumentation. However, this “tradition” in using the through argumentation that has been inculcated in students and researches’ writing is not necessarily related to Arabic language but rather to language literacy and other factors that I will discuss as I proceed in this part of this section.

It is worth mentioning, the research findings related to Arabic students’ writing are correlated to the Modern Standard Arabic since these students have been taught and using the Standard Arabic in their writing not the Classical Arabic. Consequently, the findings of those research studies will be related to the language literacy, that is to say how these students have been taught their first language in the classroom. Students’ second language writing, thus, may be related to their first language literacy, which is once again a point that causes difficulties to EFL students writing stated previously in the earlier section of this chapter, not necessarily to the language itself.

However, other research studies went into describing the Arabic argumentation in terms of *preferred mode* of argumentation rather than simply being only through-argumentation.

Basim Hatim (1997) in his book *Communication across Cultures* argued that it would be wrong to assume that counter-argument is altogether alien to the rhetorical system of

Arabic but it exists in the classical Arabic (p.47). In addition comparative research on English and Arabic argumentation revealed that a through- argumentation is a *preferred type* among Arabic argumentative writing although counter-argumentation is also found in Arabic. (Hatim and Mason.1997 p.127). The figure below shows the preferred type of argumentation in English and Arabic argumentative writing.

**Order of**

Preference	English	Arabic
Most	* the balance counter-	* through-argumentation
Frequent	argument (both explicit	
↑ ↓	And implicit)	
	*through- argumentation	* the lopsided argument
Least	* lopsided argument	*the balance-argument
Frequent		(always explicit)

**Figure 2. 12: Argumentation Across Culture ( Hatem B. and Mason 1997, 134)**

Another feature that makes the difference in argumentation across culture is the use of persuasive strategies. As far as cross-cultural differences in using persuasive strategies, English and Arabic differ in many aspects. One of these rhetorical strategies is the argument *objectivity and credibility* that differ from one culture to another. Scolon (1994 cited in Hinkel 1999.p.92) comments that in Anglo-American academic writing, the rhetoric of objective fact occupies a prominent place. As a result, the need for Aristotelian

rhetorical objectivity and justification may present a formidable obstacle for L2 learners if they are “absent in the learner’s culture”. Strevens (1987, p. 171 cited in Hinkel 1999, p. 93). In Anglo-American academic writing, to establish the writer’s credibility in order to persuade the reader of the validity of his or her assertions, the writer must provide demonstration of how a generalization applies to a typical case, analogies to explain ideas, “facts..... that brings objective to prove appoint” and “references to recognize authority or experts on the subject” Leki (1995 stated in Hinkel 1999, p.93)

However, some research studies on Arabic rhetoric claim that in Arabic persuasion strategies, arguments are reached by quoting verses from the Qur’an and Hadiith. Connor (2002, p. 501 ) in her article entitled: *New Directions in Contrastive Rhetoric* reviewed some examples that highlight some major directions contrastive rhetoric research relevant to academic and professional setting that has been taking in Europe, the Middle East, and Asia. Connor in her review of the contrastive rhetoric research done in the Middle East cited the study made by Hottel-Burkhart who argued that what is considered an “*argument in a culture is shaped by the rhetoric of that culture*” (Connor, 2002, p.501). Connor argued that Hottel-Burkhart refers in this study to the well known interview of the Ayatollah Khomeini by the Italian journalist Oriana Fallaci, analyzed by Johnstone (1986). Johnstone analysis of the interview revealed that Fallaci used a logical argument supportable by facts while Khomeini “offered instead answers based on the words of God and his Prophet” (Hottel-Burkhart 2000 cited in Connor 2002, p.501).

However, Johnston added that “offered an answer .....in a tradition in which he was schooled” and this makes a big difference. This quotation comes to stress the fact that the discourse produced by Khomayni is not related to the Arabic language but to language literacy. Thus, saying that in Arabic persuasion strategies, arguments are reached by quoting verses from the Qur’an and Hadiith is inconclusive.

In addition, in the social constructivist view to writing, any written or spoken discourse belongs to a given community to which the discourse was delivered. In other words, the written product, in the social constructivist view, is considered as a social act that takes place only “*within and for a specific context and audience.*” John (1990, p.27). Thus, Khomayni discourse was delivered for a given community and for a specific context not to be considered as a discourse that represents the Arabic rhetoric. Thus, over generalizing Khomayni discourse features to Arabic Rhetoric is again inconclusive.

Furthermore, another critic stem from the methodology. Johnston (1986) analysis of Ayatollah Khomeini discourse regards only Khomayni’s discourse which does not allow making generalization on Arabic discourse features. Not any generalization of research finding can be built upon an analysis of one individual discourse. Analyzing one genre discourse and disregarding the different genres discourse makes biased conclusions about Arabic writing. Likewise, Swales (1981, p. 10) argues that it is only within genres that *viable correlations between cognitive, rhetorical, and linguistic features* can be established. Thus, Johnston analysis could be related to the genre discourse itself not to the language.

In fact, as it is mentioned earlier, there are factors that affected the argumentation in Arabic rhetoric that led to this tendency to the preference for a through-argumentation and other features. Martin (1985 cited in Basil Hatim .1997) stated the following:

In dealing with the various text forms identified as variants of the argumentative type, we are often confronted with one intriguing phenomenon: the various argumentative formats appear not to be equally available for all language users to choose from and the preference for one or the other varies within, as well as across, languages and cultures.

Hatim (1997, p.43) added that the choice does not seem to be haphazard and the preference for one or the other form is motivated by all kinds of factors. These range from politeness to ideology and power, and sometimes include aspects of social life such as the political system or the nature and role of the family.

## **CONCLUSION**

Contrastive rhetoric, as has been stated previously, proved its existence through its contribution in the field of Second Language Teaching and Learning. Its first explanation of the different composition organization in terms of cultural perception opened many perspectives in the domain of Second Language Writing. This, in fact, reinforces the idea of the complexity in the teaching and the learning of writing in a foreign language. Improving writing performance requires, thus, awareness of different but interrelated strategies. These rhetorical strategies, brought by the research in field of contrastive rhetoric may well be performed by the use of metacognitive strategies that may facilitate learning to write in a foreign language. This brings us to call for raising awareness to writing strategies through strategies instruction .

The need and the importance of strategies instruction in writing and the underlying theories that justify its importance constitute the purpose of the next chapter.

**CHAPTER THREE:**

**LEARNING STRATEGIES AND WRITING**

**STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION**

**CHAPTER THREE: LEARNING STRATEGIES AND WRITING STRATEGIES  
INSTRUCTION**

**Introduction**

The present chapter aims to review the main findings of the research in the field of learning strategies and strategies instruction. At first, this section justifies the focus on strategies use by stressing the importance of strategies as a means that helps make language learning more effective, self-directed, and long- lasting. In fact, research studies in the field of learning strategies proved its effectiveness in the domain of education as these strategies foster learners' autonomy. Wenden and Rubin (1987) claim that “ one of the leading educational goals or the research on learner strategies is an autonomous language learner, one who is equipped with the appropriate skills and strategies to learn a language in a self-directed way ” (Wenden and Rubin 1987 cited in Williams and Burden (1997, p. 146). Similarly, Knowles reported that one of the main aims in education is helping individuals to develop the attitudes that learning is a lifelong process and to acquire the skills of self-directed learning. (Knowles 1976 cited in Williams and Burden 1997, p.146). Furthermore, Carter and Nunan (2001,p.170) reported that positive effects of strategy instruction emerged for proficiency in listening, speaking and writing, and in various languages learning investigation and led to greater strategy use and self –efficacy, anxiety reduction and to increased motivation, strategy knowledge and positive attitudes.

This next section, and in consistency with the aim of this research, reviews writing strategies instruction as a way to achieve better performance in EFL academic writing, as well as, a special focus has been given to outlining and rhetorical strategies , as strategies that affect students' text organization.

### **3.1 The Place of Learning Strategies in the New Pedagogy**

Teaching and learning have witnessed the rise and fall of a variety of methods and approaches through the history of education. Although these methods vary in their principles and their view of learning, they aim at improving the quality of the teaching and the learning process.

One noticeable variation among these methods of teaching resides in the change in the teachers and learners' roles which witnessed a shift in responsibilities, for both teachers and learners, making movement from teachers-centered learning to learners-centered. This shift in responsibilities is considered as a turning point in the history of research in the field of education and is reflected into two major views: traditional and modern view. The modern view to language teaching and learning places great emphasis on the learner who is considered as "the center of learning" in the educational process; the thing that made a revolution against the traditional teaching that considers the teacher as "the centre of teaching".

Yet this revolution received many critics and was a subject of debate for many methodologists. Robert O'Neil (cited in Rogers 1986, p.57), an influential materials writer and trainer, wrote an article in which he expressed his disquiet since he called it "the plausible myth of learner-centeredness". O'Neil worried that letting students do the learning on their own with teachers only intervening when and if needed might amount to a form of neglect.

In fact, letting the learners be in charge of their own learning is too ambitious and misleading for the learners themselves, especially when it comes to learning foreign languages. Vigosky (cited in Oxford) emphasized that learning occurs in interaction with

other people especially with the help of a “more capable others” often a teacher. This quotation stresses the need of the teacher, as an important element in the educational process, as well as calls on his contribution to making learning more effective. Learners, thus, need assistance from the part of the teacher who, of course, plays various important roles in order to lead them reach the desired objectives.

These controversies in defining roles and responsibilities tremendously affect the field of teaching and learning foreign languages. Andrew D.Cohen (2011, p.117), in his book: *Strategies in Learning and Using a Second Language*, summarized this problem through a question in the following quotation “Given this potential or actual shift in teacher perspective, should language learners be left to their own devices or should they receive some form of instruction in how to learn and use an L2?” For which he replied “it would appear that having teachers devote some extra time and energy to an explicit focus on the strategic side of learning and using an L2 is worth the effort.”

Undoubtly, this quotation stresses the importance of the teacher role in the learning process among which his role as to explicitly teach students how to apply language learning and language use strategies. Thus, Cohen, and through this quotation, calls for **strategy instruction**, which he defines as “*the explicit teaching of how to apply language learning and language use strategies, in order to enhance the language learner to reach their own L2 goals.*”(2011, p.117)

### **3.1-1 Defining Language Learning Strategies.**

Different definitions of Language Learning Strategies are found in the literature. In fact, the term strategy has been used interchangeably with the terms such as tactics and learning style. It is for this reasons that we find it essential to highlight the difference of these three previously mentioned terms.

According to Oxford (1990, p.7), “the term strategy comes from the ancient Greek term *strategia* meaning generalship or the art of war. In nonmilitary settings, the strategy concept has been applied to clearly non- adversarial situations, where it has come to *mean a plan, step, or conscious action toward achievement of an objective.*”

In a more expanded definition, the author defined learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, more effective and more transferrable to new situations.” (Oxford 1999, p.8)

### **3. 1. 2 Strategies and Tactics.**

Strategies and tactics are two terms that are often used interchangeably. Although these terms are different, they are related in meaning. Tactics, in Oxford terms, “are the specific manifestations of a strategy and metastrategy by a particular learner in a given setting for a certain purpose . In comparison, strategies are broad and general, many possible tactics can relate to as given strategy” (Oxford, 2011, p.31). Oxford added that strategies and metastrategies for L2 learning are internal as they occur in the mind while tactics are frequently observable. For example, Michael, asks his older Chinese mentor for pronunciation help (tactic) reflecting the strategy of interacting to learn and communicate.

### **3. 2 Learning Strategies an Learning Styles**

Language learning styles and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how – and how well – our students learn a second or foreign language (Oxford, 2003, p.1). However, these terms have arbitrary connotations when used out of any context. (Schmeck, 1988). It is in term of this reason that a distinction between these two terms should be made.

*Learning style*, according to Schmeck (1983, p.101),” is a predisposition to adopt a particular learning strategy”. Similarly, Cornett defined learning style as “ the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior” (Cornett, 1983, p. 9).

*Learning strategies* , however, have been defined as “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques . Learning strategies - such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task - used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 63)

Cohen (2011,p37) added that strategies are usually linked in some way to style preferences and that language learning and use strategies do not operate by themselves , but rather are directly tied to the learner’s underlying learning style proffered ( ie, their general approaches to, and preferred ways of learning). The concept of learning styles in Cohen terms has been used to describe these tendencies or preferences when it comes to learning.

According to Oxford (2003), these terms differ in term of specificity and generality. According to the author, “ *Learning styles* are the general approaches – or example, global or analytic, auditory or visual – that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject, while *Learning strategies* have been defined as specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques learning strategies”. Oxford (2003, p. 2)

### **3.3 Features of Language Learning Strategies:**

Oxford (1990) listed the main features of the language learning strategies as follows.

1- **Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence:** oxford asserts that leaning strategies help learners participate actively in such authentic communication. Such

strategies operate in both general and specific ways to encourage the development of communicative competence.

2- **Allow learners to become more self-directed:** self direction, according to the same reference, is essential to the active development of ability in a new language. Learners will not always have the teacher around to guide them as they use the language outside the classroom. Self –directed students gradually gain greater confidence, involvement, and proficiency.

3- **Expand the role of teachers:** teachers are expected to play other roles than those they used to play. Teachers are no more the only authority. They are facilitators, helpers, guides, consultants, advisors. New teaching capacities, according to Oxford, include identifying students' learning strategies, conducting training on learning strategies, and helping learners become more independent.

4- **Are problem-oriented:** language learning strategies, in Oxford terms, are tools. They are there because there is a problem to solve, a task to accomplish, an objective to meet, or a goal to attain.

5- **Are specific actions taken by the learner:** language learning strategies are specific actions or behaviors accomplished by students to enhance their learning.

6- **Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive:** language strategies are not restricted to cognitive function, such as those dealing with mental processing and manipulation of the new language. Strategies also include metacognitive functions like planning, evaluating arranging one's own learning; and emotional (affective) , social and other functions as well.

7- **Support learning both directly and indirectly:** some learning strategies involves direct learning of the new language, other , strategies, including metacognitive, affective, and social strategies, contribute indirectly.

8- **Are not always observable:** language learning strategies are not always readily observable to the human eye. Many aspects of cooperating, a strategy can be observed, but the act of making mental association, an important memory strategy, cannot be seen.

9- **Are often conscious:** many modern uses of learning strategies reflect conscious efforts by learners to take control for their leaning, and some researchers seem to suggest that learning strategies are always conscious actions.

10-**can be taught/ teachable:** language learning strategies are easier to teach and modify. This can be done through strategy training, which is an essential part of language education. Strategy training helps guide learners to become more conscious of strategy use and more adept at employing appropriate strategies. This feature is going to be explained more as we proceed in this research.

11-**are flexible: language leaning strategies are flexible;** that is, they are not always found in predictable sequences or in precise patterns.

12- **are influenced by a variety of factors:** many factors affect the choice of strategies: degree of awareness, stage of learning, task requirements, teacher expectation, age, sex, nationality/ ethnicity, general learning style, personality traits, motivation level, and purpose for learning the language. (Oxford,1990, pp.9- 13)

### **3.4 The Purpose of the Language Learning Strategies.**

After having seen the main features that characterize the language learning strategies, it is prerequisite to learn about the findings of the research dealt with the purpose of using learning strategies in learning new language. In fact, among the most important research studies that researched the purpose of the language learning strategies is that of Cohen ( 2007). In a survey administered to international group of strategy experts to find out how

they use terminology in language learner strategy research, Cohen (2007) reported that the purpose of the language leaning strategies have been among the main findings of this research which he summarized in the following:

1. To enhance learning.
2. To perform specified tasks.
3. To solve specific problems
4. To make learning easier, faster, and more enjoyable
5. To compensate for a deficit in learning (Cohen , 2007, p.38)

### 3.5 Types of Language Learning Strategies.

Different classifications of language learning strategies exist. The differences, according to Vilcova et al. (2013.p. 95) are primarily due to different research methods (such as observation, interviews, or questionnaires) or measuring strategies at different language tasks and in different contexts (such as foreign language learning or second language acquisition or on learners with different L2 level of competence). The table below shows the different classifications of language leaning strategies.

Authors	Strategies Classification
Naiman et al. (1978)	Active task approach, realisation of language as system, realisation of language as a means of communication, management of affective demands, monitoring of L2 performance
Dansereau (1985)	Primary and support strategies are differentiated and further subdivided according to a language task (reading, writing, vocabulary learning, etc.).
O'Malley et al. (1985)	Metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective
Weinstein & Mayer (1986)	Primarily building upon the difference between learning strategies and teaching strategies. The major 6 groups of learning strategies are differentiated according to whether they

	are suitable for basic or complex learning tasks (rehearsal, elaboration, and organisational strategies). Further 2 groups are comprehension monitoring strategies (e.g., checking for comprehension failures), and affective and motivational strategies (such as being alert and relaxed, to help overcome test anxiety).
Rubin & Wenden (1987)	Direct strategies, that is learning strategies: cognitive and metacognitive.
Oxford (1990)	Indirect strategies: communication strategies, social strategies Direct strategies: memory, cognitive, compensation. Indirect strategies: metacognitive, affective, social.
Stern (1992)	Management and planning strategies, cognitive, communication experimental, interpersonal and affective.
Wild, Schiefele, & Winteler (1992, in Wild, 1997)	Primary strategies (cognitive and metacognitive) and secondary strategies
Bimmel & Rampillon (2000)	Direct strategies: memory, language processing. Indirect strategies: self-regulatory, affective, social, language use strategies
Cohen & Weaver (2006)	a) Retrieval, rehearsal, communication and cover strategies. b) Listening, reading, writing, speaking, vocabulary, and translating strategies

**Table 3.5 : Overview of the most widely used classifications of second/foreign language learning strategies by Vilcova et al. (2013,p. 95)**

Brown (1994) found that Rebecca Oxford’s taxonomy of learning strategies is the most inclusive taxonomy of learning strategies. It is in term of this reason that the Oxford classification of language learning strategies is being dealt in details below.

### **3.6 Oxford’s Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies.**

Language learning strategies according to Oxford (1990, p.37,) are of two types: **direct strategies and indirect strategies**. Direct strategies, according to the same reference are the strategies that directly involve the target language which require mental processing of

the language; the indirect strategies support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language (Oxford 1990, p. 134). In fact, the division of learning strategies stated below has been reported from Oxford's Language Learning Strategies 1990

### **3.6 -1Direct Strategies:**

The direct strategies involve the following strategies: *memory strategies*, *cognitive strategies*, and *compensation strategies*.

**3-6-1-1Memory strategies**, Memory strategies help learners *store* in their memory the important information they hear or read in the new language, thus enlarging their knowledge base. These strategies also enable learners *to retrieve* information from memory when they needed to use it for comprehension or production ( 1990, p.58). The memory strategies, according to the same reference, fall into four sets: Creating Mental Linkages, Applying Images and Sounds, Reviewing well, and Employing Actions. The first letters of each of these strategy sets spell CARE. (Oxford 1990, p.38).

In fact, these four sets include different strategies that can be applied according to the language skills to be taught .

First, **Creating Mental Linkages** involves three main strategies: *grouping*, *associating* / *elaborating*, and *placing new words into context*.

Second, for **Applying Images and Sounds**, four strategies are useful for remembering new expressions that have been heard or read: *using imagery*, *semantic mapping*, *using key words*, and *representing sounds in memory* .

Third, **Reviewing Well**. The sole strategy in this set is *structured reviewing*, which is especially useful for remembering new material in the target language

Four, **Employing Action**: the two memory strategies under employing action are using *physical response or sensation and using mechanical techniques*.

### 3.6-1-2 Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies, according to Oxford (1990), are essential in learning a new language and are typically found to be the most popular strategies with language learners. Four sets exist in the cognitive strategies: ***Practicing, Receiving and Sending Messages, Analyzing and Reasoning, and Creating Structure for Input and Output***.

These four sets involve the following strategies that are applied in the four skill.

First, **Practicing** contains five strategies: *repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, and practicing naturalistically*

Second, **Receiving and Sending Messages** consist of two strategies: *getting the idea quickly and using resources for receiving*.

Third, **Analyzing and Reasoning** involves five strategies that help learners to use logical thinking to understand and use the grammar rules and vocabulary of the new language: *reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, translating, transferring*.

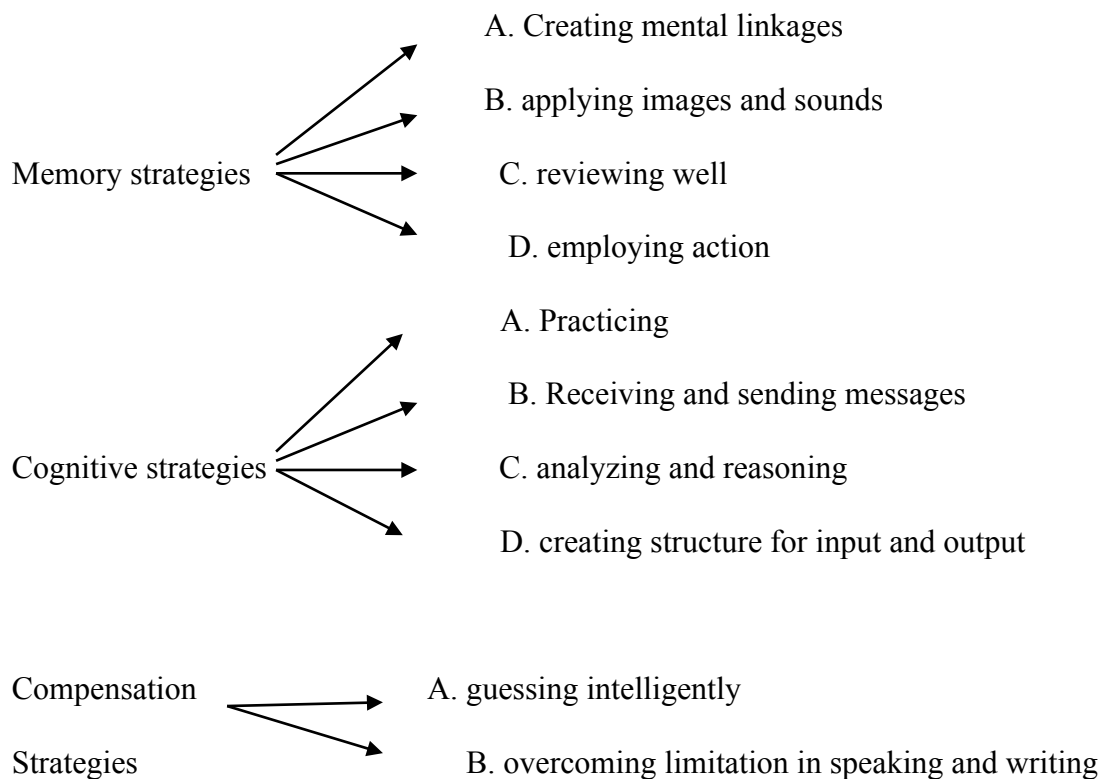
Fourth, **Creating Structure for Input and Output**: the three strategies in this group are *taking notes, summarizing and highlighting*

### 3.6-1-3 Compensation Strategies

Compensation Strategies help learners to overcome knowledge limitations in all four skills. This includes *guessing intelligently, and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing*.

**Guessing intelligently in Listening and Reading.** Oxford (1990) asserts that this set helps learners let go of the belief that they have to recognize and understand every single word before they can comprehend the overall meaning. Learners can actually understand a lot of language through systematic guessing, without necessarily comprehending all the details.

**Overcoming Limitations in Speaking and Writing.** All the compensation strategies for speaking and writing contribute to learning by allowing learners to stay in conversation or keep writing long enough to get sustained practice. This includes the following strategies: *switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, using a circumlocution or synonym.*



**Figure 3- 2: Diagram of the Direct Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p 38)**

### **3.-6-2 Indirect Strategies.**

Indirect strategies are divided into *metacognitive*, *affective*, and *social*.

**3-6-2-1 Metacognitive** means beyond, beside, or with the cognitive. Therefore, metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own leaning process. The strategies involved are: *centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning, and evaluating your learning*. Then strategies form these three groups, the acronym for which is CAPE (Oxford,1990, p.136).

First, **Centering your Learning** involves three main strategies that help learners to converge their attention and energies on certain language tasks, activities, skills, or materials namely, *overviewing and linking with already known materials; paying attention and delaying speech production to focus on listening*

Second, **Arranging and Planning your Learning** contains six strategies, all of which help learners to organize and plan so as to get the most out of language learning. These strategies, according to Oxford(1990, p.139) cover many areas: finding out about language learning, organizing the schedule and the environment, setting goals and objectives, considering tasks purposes, planning for tasks, and seeking chances to practice the language. The strategies are: *finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task, and seeking practice opportunities*.

Third, **Evaluating your Learning**. In this set are two related strategies, both aiding learners in checking their language performance. One strategy involves noticing and learning from errors, and the other concerns evaluating overall progress. The two strategies are *self-monitoring* and *self-evaluating*.

### **3.6-2-2: Affective Strategies:**

Affective strategies the term *affective* refers to emotions, attitudes, motivations, and values. The effective side of the learner, according to Oxford (1990 p.140), is probably one of the biggest influences on language learning success or failure. Three main sets of affective strategies exist: *lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself, and taking your emotional temperature*.

First, **Lowering your Anxiety**. This set contains three strategies that reduce anxiety: using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation; using music; and using laughter.

Second, **Encouraging yourself**. The most potent encouragement, in Oxford terms, may come from inside the learner. Self-encouragement includes saying *supportive things, prodding oneself to take risks wisely, and providing rewards*.

Third, **Taking your Emotional Temperature**. The four strategies in this set help learners to assess their feelings, motivation, and attitudes and, in many cases, to relate them to language tasks. The strategies are: *listening to your body, using checklist, writing a language learning diary, discussing your feeling with someone else*.

### **3.6-2. 3 Social Strategies.**

Social Strategies the appropriate social strategies are very important since language is a form of social behavior that occurs between and among people. Three sets of strategies are included here and each set comprises two specific strategies: Asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others.

First, **Asking Questions Strategy** is one of the most basic social interaction. *This strategy comprises asking for clarification or verification strategy and asking for correction*.

Second, **Cooperating with Others**. This set involves two strategies: *cooperating with peers, and cooperating with proficient users of the new language*. These strategies are the

basis of cooperative language learning, which not only increases learners' language performance but also enhances self-worth and social acceptance.

Third, **Empathizing with Others** can be developed more easily when language learners use these two strategies. *Developing cultural understanding and becoming aware of others thoughts and feelings.*

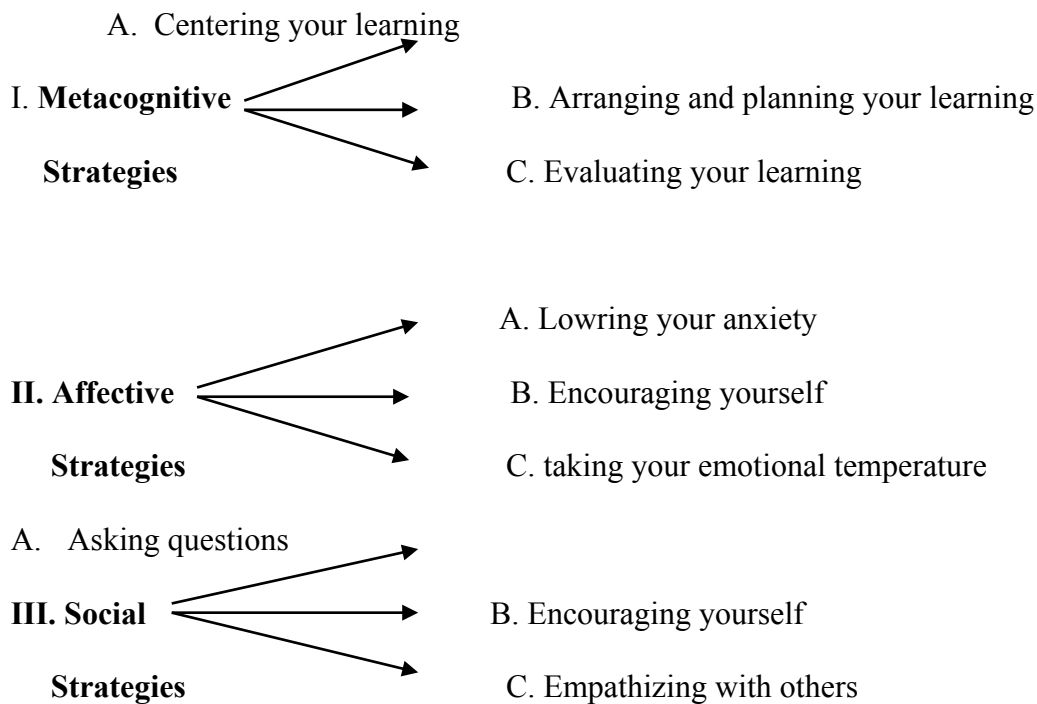


Figure: 3- 3 Diagram of the indirect strategies ( Oxford, 1990, p.136)

### 3.7 LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION

As it is stated in the previous section of this chapter, learning strategies facilitate students' learning by making learning easier, faster and more effective. However, these strategies, either implicitly or explicitly, need to be taught. Oxford explained that "learners need to learn how to learn, and teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process" (Oxford.1990, p.201).

Besides, Dansereau (1978,p.3) stated that exclusive emphasis on teaching methods may lead to ineffective instructional manipulations, force students to develop nontransferable and inefficient strategies, limit a student's cognitive awareness, and, consequently, exact a large emotional toll. He added that "the answer to this situation is clear: Educators and researchers should be redirecting at least some of their efforts to the development and training of appropriate learning strategy skills. In order to provide a basis for such redirection, it is informative to examine briefly the theoretical underpinnings of the teaching and learning approaches to the improvement of education." Dansereau (1978,p.3)

In their investigation of the effect of cognitive strategies approach on reading and writing instruction, Booth Olson C. and Land R.( 2007) reported that in order to help students develop confidence and competence, research suggests that " teachers need to provide systematic and explicit instruction in strategies used by mature readers and writers and help students develop declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge of these cognitive strategies, thereby building students' metacognitive control of specific strategies ."( Booth Olson C. and Land R. 2007, p 274)

In this context, Booth Olson C. and Land R. (2007) reported that the analysis research done by Block and Pressley (2002) on comprehension instruction received widespread

agreement among scholars on the fact that cognitive and metacognitive processes should be taught to the students. They added that “instruction should include modeling, scaffolding, guided practice, and independent use of strategies so that students develop the ability to select and implement appropriate strategies independently and to monitor and regulate their use.” (Booth Olson C. and Land R. 2007, p 274)

Accordingly, the findings of the previously mentioned research studies stress the fact that learning is more than receiving information from those who know to those who do not know, but being equipped with strategies that enable the learner to deal with new situations that he/she can meet outside the classroom. In fact, this new view of learning brought about the new pedagogy that marked the shift in the teachers’ roles from instructor to a facilitator. Hence, a teacher by being facilitator should provide learners with strategies that facilitate the learning process. Teaching the different strategies in order to facilitate learning is known in the literature by the Strategies Instruction or Strategy Training.

Thus, the aim of this part of the present chapter is trying to explain and define the term strategies instruction, its aim, the different approaches, and how these strategies are taught in order to promote the learning process.

### **3.7-1 Definition of Learning Strategies Instruction**

The term *Learning Strategy Instruction* (Oxford, 1990) (*also learning strategies training*, Chamot, 2004), cited in Oxford (2011, p175), has been used for many years to refer to ways by which teachers can help students become more effective learners.

In another study, Cohen defined strategy instruction as “to explicitly teach students how to apply language learning and language use strategies which can enhance the

student's efforts to reach their own L2 goals and those of the instructional program because it encourages them to find their own means to success.” (Cohen 2011, p.116)

From the above definitions, one may say that strategy instruction refers to the direct teaching of strategies that leads the learner to learn effectively, in other words it shows the students the best and effective way to learn in order to promote their learning.

### **3.7-2 Aim of Strategies Instruction**

Research on the aim of strategies instruction reported that the ultimate goal of strategies instruction is to raise students' awareness to their strategies use. Strategies instruction increases students' thinking for their learning process. Cohen and Macaro stated that “Learning Strategies Instruction begins with helping students become aware of what strategies are and which strategies they are already using. This consciousness- raising helps students begin to think about their own learning process” Cohen and Macaro (2007, p. 143)

Moreover, one important goal is to explicit strategy training is to encourage collaboration between the learner and the teacher as strategy training makes learning more meaningful and self- reliant. In this context, Oxford) reported that

“Many language teachers advocate *explicit training* of language for which the aims is to help make language leaning more meaningful, to encourage a collaborative between leaner and teacher, to learner about options for language learning and to learn and practice strategies that facilitate self reliance. Strategy training should not be abstract and theoretical but should be highly practical and useful for students.” Oxford ( 1990, p.201)

In this context, Cohen (2010, p. 116) asserted that the ultimate goal of strategy instruction is to enhance the language learners' act. Cohen reported that students can

consciously select strategies during their language learning and language use when receiving strategy training as it makes them more aware of the various learning.

### **3. 7-3 Models of Language Learning Strategies Instruction**

Chamot ( 2004, vol.1 n;1 p. 25) reported that a number of models for teaching learning strategies in both first and second language contexts have been developed. Chamot asserted these instructional models share many features. All agree on the importance of developing students' metacognitive understanding of the value of learning strategies and suggest that this is facilitated through teacher demonstration and modeling. All emphasize the importance of providing multiple practice opportunities with the strategies so that students can use them autonomously as well suggest that students should evaluate how well a strategy has worked, choose strategies for a task, and actively transfer strategies to new tasks. Table 1 (p. 131) compares three current models for language learning strategy instruction (Chamot 2005; Chamot et al., 1999; Cohen, 1998; Grenfell & Harris, 1999).

According to Chamot, all three models begin by identifying students' current learning strategies through activities such as completing questionnaires, engaging in discussions about familiar tasks, and reflecting on strategies used immediately after performing a task.

*These models all suggest that the teacher should model the new strategy, thus making the instruction explicit.*

Chamot reported that these current models are based on “ on developing students' knowledge about their own thinking and strategic processes and encouraging them to adopt strategies that will improve their language learning and proficiency ”.(Chamot 2004. p, 25)

CHAPTER THREE: LEARNING STRATEGIES AND WRITING STRATEGIES  
INSTRUCTION

SSBI* Model (Cohen, 1998)	CALLA** Model (Chamot, 2005; Chamot et al., 1999)	Grenfell & Harris (1999)
Teacher as diagnostician: <b>Helps students identify current strategies and learning styles.</b>	<b>Preparation:</b> Teacher identifies students' current learning strategies for familiar tasks.	<b>Awareness raising:</b> Students complete a task, and then identify the strategies they used.
Teacher as language learner: <b>Shares own learning experiences and thinking processes.</b>	<b>Presentation:</b> Teacher models, names, explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it.	<b>Modeling:</b> Teacher models, discusses value of new strategy, makes checklist of strategies for later use.
Teacher as learner trainer: <b>Trains students how to use learning strategies.</b>	<b>Practice:</b> Students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher fades reminders to encourage independent strategy use.	<b>General practice:</b> Students practice new strategies with different tasks.
Teacher as coordinator: <b>Supervises students' study plans and monitors difficulties.</b>	<b>Self-evaluation:</b> Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice.	<b>Action planning:</b> Students set goals and choose strategies to attain those goals.
Teacher as coach: <b>Provides ongoing guidance on students' progress.</b>	<b>Expansion:</b> Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies.	<b>Focused practice:</b> Students carry out action plan using selected strategies; teacher fades prompts so that students use strategies automatically.
	<b>Assessment:</b> Teacher assesses students' use of strategies and impact on performance.	<b>Evaluation:</b> Teacher and students evaluate success of action plan; set new goals; cycle begins again.

SSBI :\* Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction

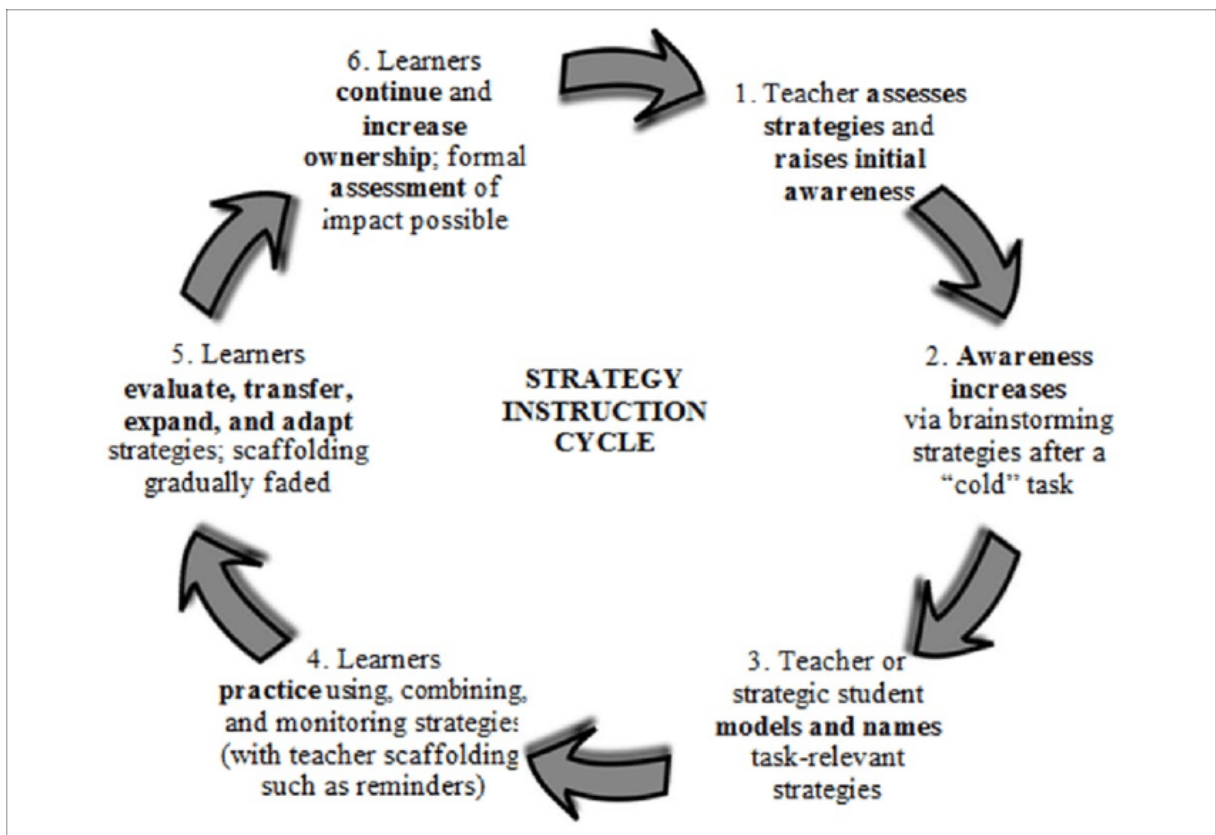
CALLA: \*\* Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

**Table 3. 6: Models for Language Learning Strategy Instruction (Adapted from Harris, 2003 cited in Chamot (2004))**

From the table above, we notice that the three models go through the nearly the same stages; however, some differences can be noticed in the last stages. From these models, we notice that language learning strategies instruction goes through six major stages. In the first stages, the teacher has to diagnose her students' actual use of strategies in a form of activities. The aim of this stage is to activate background knowledge of students 'use of learning strategies. In this stage, the teacher may notice that many of her students use different strategies without being aware of using them. In the second stage, the teacher presents the strategies by naming, modeling and explaining the new strategies. Students in this stage are going to make a link between their previous use of strategies and the newly presented one or may also become more conscious of the strategies they used previously. In the next stage, the students are going to practice the newly learned strategies in different tasks. In the fourth stages, we notice that the three models differ. In Cohen model ( SSBI model), the teacher has to monitor her students' difficulties, while in Chamot model ( CALLA model), it is up to students to evaluate their strategy after practicing them. Also, the three models differ in the fifth stage. In Cohen model, much emphasis is given to the teacher as the teacher in this stage monitors and continues providing guidance on students' progress. However, in Chamot model, the focus is on the learner. In this stage, the students transfer the learned strategies to new task to develop new repertoire of the proffered strategies that she call Expansion stage. Grenfell and Harris Model, on the other hand, focuses on both teacher and the learner in this stage. While the students carry out action plan using selected strategies, teacher prompts so that students use strategies automatically. In the final stage strategies instruction is concerned with teacher's assessment of students' use of strategies.

However, in 2011, Oxford offered a different model for strategy instruction. In a form a cycle, Oxford presented the strategy instruction process instead of linear stages in which “the elements of this model can be flexibly adapted to the needs of learner and teachers in specific situation” (Oxford, 2011, p. 184)

The figure below shows the entire strategy instruction process proposed by Oxford (2011, p.184).



**Figure 3.4: A Generic, Flexible, Cyclical Model of Direct Strategy Instruction (Oxford 2011, p.18)**

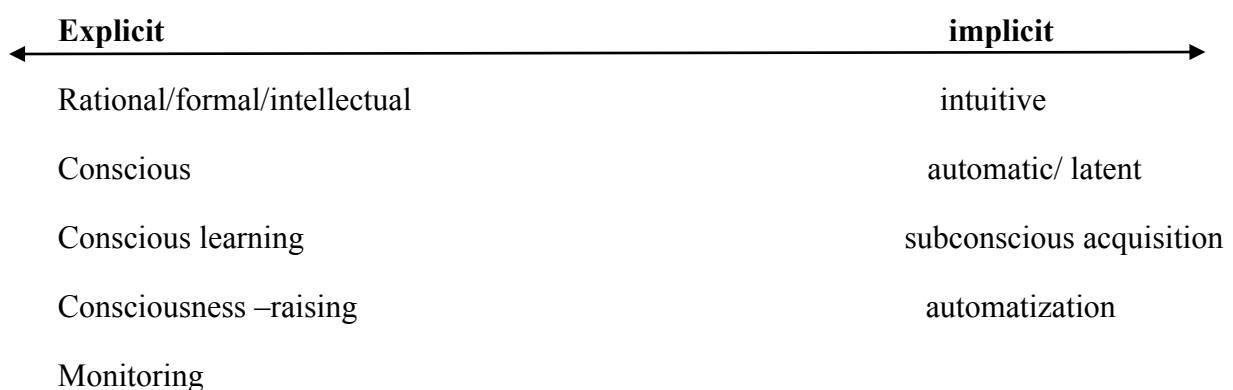
The process of strategy instruction, in Oxford model, is composed of six steps and is very similar to the previous models only a few distinctions can be noticed. The first step in this process is the assessment of students’ use of strategies and the initial awareness rise. The second step in this cycle is to increase awareness via brainstorming strategies. We notice

that awareness raising is further reinforced in Oxford’s model comparing the previous models which Oxford found very important in the process of the strategies instruction. Oxford argued that “some of the models have left out a phase, early preparation which occurs before identifying any strategies to be taught and which I believe to be important” (Oxford 2011, p. 188). The third step in this cycle is very similar to the previous models and which consists of modeling and naming the strategies through relevant tasks. In the fourth step, learners are asked to practice these strategies by using them and combining. After that, students evaluate, transfer, expand and adapt strategies to new leaning situation. Finally, the learners continue and increase ownership and assessment may occur.

### 3.7-4 Approaches to Explicit Strategy Instruction

Stern reported that advocates of an explicit teaching strategy assume that second language learning is, for many people a “cognitive process leading to an explicit knowledge” (1992, p.334). He added that “the main point about using an explicit strategy is to make the language transparent, to help learners understand the underlying principles, and to give them a sense of order, consistency, coherence, and systematicity about the way the language operates” (Stern 1992, p.335-336)

Stern explains the difference between the implicit teaching and the explicit teaching in the figure below :



Reflective	unreflective
Deliberate	incidental
Studial capacities (palmer 1922) 1922)	spontaneous capacities(palmer 1922)
Problem-solving	analogy
Analysis	global understanding
Cognitivism	behaviourism
Abstract/rule learning	
Metacognitive and metalinguistic	
Strategies	
Inferencing	mimicry and memory
Rationalist approach	empiricist approach
Systematic	exposure to language in use

**Figure 3. 5: The Explicit –Implicit Dimension in Language Teaching and Learning Strategies (Stern.1992, p.327)**

Besides, Cohen( 2011,p121) reported that the ultimate goal of strategy instruction is to promote learners autonomy and it is important to point out that there is no one best way to conduct strategy instruction- it depends on the particular learning context and the given learners. In fact, Cohen suggested three possible instructional frameworks for strategy instructions; each of the three approaches, according to Cohen, contains the following ingredients with regard to explicit strategy instruction:

- Discussion with learners regarding the use of strategies ant their potential benefit.
- Encouragement to learners that they engage in conscious and purposeful strategy use and the transfer of these strategies to other contexts.

- Modeling for students as to how they can monitor their performance and evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies that they are using.

### **3.7-4-1 Framework # 1:**

Cohen (2011, p.121) reported that this approach to strategy instruction was suggested by Pearson and Dole (1987) with reference to L1, but it can be applied to the study of L2 as well. This approach includes five main stages: Initial modeling of the strategies, guided practice, consolidation, independent practice, and the application of the strategies to new tasks. In the first stage the teacher initiates by modeling the strategies through direct explanation then moves to the next stage where she offers guided practice of these strategies. In the third stage, the teacher, consolidates the learned strategies through identifying the strategies. In the following stage, the students practice the strategies independently. Finally, the students will be asked to apply the learned strategies to new tasks.

### **3.7-4-2 Framework # 2**

This approach, according to Oxford et al. (1990) cited in Cohen (2011,p.122) “was purposely not *prescriptive* regarding the strategies that the learners are supposed to use, but rather *descriptive* of the various strategies that they could use for a broad range of learning tasks”. Thus, although this framework comprises seven stages, it differs from the previous one in many aspects. By opposition to the first framework, the teacher in this framework does not start by modeling the strategies, but by asking the student to do the language activity without any strategy instruction. The aim of this stage is to describe the way students use strategies in their learning. In the next stage, the teacher will have some discussions with the students about the strategies they used to do the activity and praise the

useful ones. Then, in the next stage, the teacher suggests and demonstrates the other helpful strategies. She also raises their awareness to the rationale for their use. In the following stage, the students will be allowed to practice the strategies with the language task. In the next stage, the teacher shows how these strategies can be transferred to other tasks. Then, the students will use the strategies in new L2 task and make choice of the strategies they will use to complete a task. Finally, in the last stage, the teacher helps students understand how to evaluate the success of their strategy use and to gauge their progress as more responsible and self-directed learners.

### **3.7-3 framework # 3**

Cohen stated that this approach to strategy instruction (Chamot and O'Malley 1994; Chamot 2009) is especially useful after students have already had practice applying a broad range of strategies in a variety of context. The approach involves four stages: Planning, Monitoring, Problem solving and Evaluation. In the planning stage, the instructor presents the students with a language task and explains the rationale behind it. It is called a planning stage since students in this stage are asked to plan their approach the task, choosing the strategies they think will facilitate its completion. The next stage called the monitoring stage; during the task, the students are asked to 'self-monitor' their performance by paying attention to their strategy use and checking comprehension. For example, they may use imagery, personalize the language task by relating the information to their prior knowledge, reduce anxiety through words of self-encouragement, and engage in language practice with their peers. In the Problem-solving stage, students are expected to find their own solutions as they encounter difficulties. For example, they can draw inferences, ask for clarification, and compensate for lack of, say, L2 vocabulary knowledge by using communication strategies such as lexical substitution. The final stage is the

Evaluation stage. In this stage students are given time to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies they use during the task.

The detail of this framework is displayed in the table below proposed by Chamot (1996, p.71) who planned for an outline of suggestions for teaching learning strategies. This outline shows five main stages teachers go through to teach learning strategies which includes: Preparation stage, Presentation, Practice, Evaluation, and Expansion as shown in

<b>HOW TO TEACH LEARNING STRATEGIES</b>
<p>➤ <b>Preparation</b> Develop student's metacognitive awareness and self-knowledge through activities such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Discussions about strategies students already use for specific tasks</li><li>• Small group interviews in which students describe and share their special techniques for completing task successfully</li><li>• Learning strategies questionnaires in which students indicate the frequency with which they use particular strategies for particular tasks</li><li>• Individual think-aloud interviews in which the student works on a task and describes his / her thoughts</li></ul>
<p>➤ <b>Presentation</b> Teach the strategy explicitly by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Modeling how you use the strategy with a specific academic task by thinking aloud as you work through a task (e.g., reading a text or writing a paragraph)</li><li>• Giving the strategy a name and referring to it consistently by that name</li><li>• Explaining to student how the strategy will help them learn the material</li><li>• Describing when, how, and for what kinds of tasks they can use the strategy.</li></ul>
<p>➤ <b>Practice</b> Provide many opportunities for strategy practice through activities such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Cooperative learning</li><li>• Reciprocal teaching</li><li>• hands-on science experiments</li><li>• Mathematics word problems</li><li>• Research projects</li><li>• Developing oral and written reports</li><li>• Analyzing literature</li><li>• Process writing</li></ul>
<p>➤ <b>Evaluation:</b> Develop student's metacognitive awareness of which strategies work for them and why through self-evaluation activities such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Debriefing discussion after using strategies</li><li>• Learning logs or journals in which students describe and evaluate their strategy use</li><li>• Comparing their own performance on a task completed without using learning strategies and a similar task in which they applied strategies</li><li>• Checklists of their degree of confidence in using specific strategies</li></ul>

the table below:

- Self-efficacy questionnaires about their degree of confidence in completing specific academic tasks
  - Self-reports telling when they use or do not use a strategy, and why
- **Expansion:**  
Provide for transfer of strategies to new tasks through activities such as:
- Scaffolding, in which reminders to use a strategy are gradually diminished
  - Praise for independent use of a strategy
  - Self-report in which students bring tasks to class on which they have successfully transferred a strategy
  - Thinking skills discussions in which students brainstorm possible uses for strategies they are learning
  - Follow-up activities in which students apply the strategies to new tasks and contexts
  - Analysis and discussion of strategies individual students find effective for particular tasks.

**Table 3. 7: How to Teach Learning Strategies. Chamot (1996, p.71)**

### **3.7- 5 Strategy Instruction in Separate Courses and Direct Strategy Instruction Integrated into Regular L2 Courses.**

Various models for the teaching of language learning strategies have been proposed. Some are concerned with teaching strategies separately and others with integrating the strategy instruction with language tasks. (Williams.M and Buden.R 1999, p.162).

In fact, Strategy instruction in separate courses refers to providing strategy instruction as part of separately-taught courses and training program, rather than direct strategy instruction integrated into regular L2 instruction.

Regarding the explicit strategy instruction, many experts promote the direct teaching of strategies within the context of L2 curriculum, because this gives students the chance to practice the strategies with real L2 learning tasks (Chamot, 2004; Grenfell and Harris, 1999). In addition, Chamot (2008 quoted in Oxford 2011) asserts that explicit strategy instruction is more effective than implicit instruction embedded in classroom activities without explanation and modeling (Oxford, 2011, p.180).

Besides, Oxford (2011) added some factors that make direct integrated strategy instruction successful; such as, to identify when a given strategy might be useful, model the strategy with a specific L2 task, provide learners time to practice the strategy, and teach learners how to evaluate when the strategy is useful and when it should be transferred to other tasks and situations (2011, p.180).

According to Oxford (2011), various levels of explicitness exist in strategy instruction and that the more explicit the strategy instruction, the more successful it is. Oxford summarized four levels that differ in the degree of explicitness in strategies instruction. These levels vary from the Blind or covert to the Completely Informed Instruction. According to Oxford, in level 1, called *Blind (covert) strategy instruction*, some learning strategies are integrated into L2 textbooks or teaching but are not explicitly or overtly mentioned. Learners are merely told what to do but might think the strategy is used part of the L2 task. However, in the next level, the teacher (or text- book) somewhat informs her students about the strategies. In this level teacher says what it is for, and asks students to apply the strategy. The degree of explicitness becomes higher in the third level, called “informed *strategy instruction*”. At this level, the teacher (or text-book) names the strategy and demonstrates how to use the strategy, explains when the strategy is useful and its purpose, and ask students to use the strategy. The last level, called *completely informed strategy instruction*, adds to the previous level one more teaching practice which is offers the learners practice on how to transfer the strategies to new tasks.

### **3.8- WRITING STRATEGIES AND THE WRITING PROCESSES**

The terms strategies and processes have come to have distinct but closely related meaning. The two terms have been used interchangeably in many research studies; however, they are used with different meanings in this study. In fact, the term process as explained below

refers to stages that the writer goes through during the writing activity. They are broad and general. However, writing strategies refer to the conscious decisions made by the writer to solve writing problem and many possible strategies can relate to as given process.

To avoid any confusion that may raise in the use of this term, this section aims to draw the distinction between them and explain how these terms have been used in this study.

### 3.8-1 The Writing Process:

Cognitive research on writing explained the writing activity in terms of the processes that the writer goes through when composing. In fact, this view, as explained earlier in first chapter, comes as an opposition of the product view which focuses on model composition and which does not demonstrate how the writer arrives to the final product.

Williams (2003, p. 106) explained that the process model proposes that a finished paper is the result of the complex interaction of activities that include several stages of development namely: Prewriting, Planning, Drafting , Reading, Pausing, Revising, Editing, Publishing. Williams explained and described these stages as shown in the table below:

<b>Writing Process</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>Prewriting</b>	Generating ideas, strategies, and information for a given writing task.	Prewriting activities take place before starting on the first draft of a paper. They include discussion, outlining, freewriting, journals, talk-write, and metaphor
<b>Planning</b>	Reflecting on the material produced during prewriting to develop a plan to achieve the aim of the paper.	Planning involves considering your rhetorical stance, rhetorical purpose, the principal aim of the text, how these factors are interrelated, and how they are connected to the information generated during prewriting. Planning also involves selecting support for your claim and blocking out at least a rough organizational structure

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<b>Drafting</b>	Producing words on a computer or on paper that match (more or less) the initial plan for the work.	Drafting occurs over time. Successful writers seldom try to produce an entire text in one sitting or even in one day.
<b>Pausing</b>	Moments when you aren't writing but instead are reflecting on what you have produced and how well it matches your plan. Usually includes reading.	Pausing occurs among successful and unsuccessful writers, but they use it in different ways. Successful writers consider "global" factors: how well the text matches the plan, how well it is meeting audience needs, and overall organization.
<b>Reading</b>	Moments during pausing when you read what you've written and compare it to your plan.	Reading and writing are interrelated activities. Good readers are good writers and vice versa The reading that takes place during writing is crucial to the reflection process during pausing
<b>Revising</b>	Literally "re-seeing" the text with the goal of making large-scale changes so that text and plan match.	Revising occurs after you've finished your first draft. It involves making changes that enhance the match between plan and text. Factors to consider usually are the same as those you considered during planning: rhetorical stance, rhetorical purpose, and so on. Serious revising almost always includes getting suggestions from friends or colleagues on how to improve the writing.
<b>Editing</b>	Focusing on sentence-level concerns, such as punctuation, sentence length, spelling, agreement of subjects and predicates, and style.	Editing occurs after revising. The goal is to give your paper a professional appearance.
<b>Publishing</b>	Sharing your finished text with its intended audience	Publishing isn't limited to getting a text printed in a journal. It includes turning a paper in to a teacher, a boss, or an agency

**Table 3.8 : Writing Stages .Williams ( 2003, 106-107)**

The term process in this view describes the writing activity as the different steps that the writer undertakes during the writing activity.

### 3.8-2 Writing Strategies

According to Manchón et al.( cited in Cohen 2007, p. 230), list of terms identified as "strategies" have been used in different imperial work to refer to the plethora of the writing

actions, such as ‘writing behaviors’ ( Whalen 1990; Armengol-Castells 2001), ‘composing behaviors’ ( Raimes 1987), and ‘composing operations’ ( Armengol-Castells 2001), and ‘composing operations’ ( Armengol-Castells 2001), while other authors use the expression ‘strategies and behaviors’ of L2 writers( Zamel 1983; Pennigton and So 1993; Matsumoto 1995). Other terms used interchangeably with strategies are ‘writing techniques and procedures’, ‘composing processes,’ ‘process-related skills’

We notice here that the term strategies have been used interchangeably with the term process. However, these different terms create confusions in the learners’ mind as they cannot distinguish between the writing process and the writing strategies. For example, Mu (2005), in his article entitled Taxonomy of Writing Strategies, reviewed different studies on ESL writing strategies; such as Arndt’s Categories of ESL Writing Strategies ( 1987), Wenden (1991 ), Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies in Writing, Riazi(1997) Composing Strategies, Sasaki(2000) Japanese ESL Students’ Writing Strategies, and he found out that almost all the categories about writing strategies in the above-mentioned studies are used to categorize the writers’ writing process not writing strategies. He added that these perplexing classifications may confuse EFL learners. In addition, the lists of strategies in these studies are not well defined and are not reasonably accessible for ESL learners and the teachers in writing practice. ( Mu, 2005)

To simplify the complicated classifications, Mu offered a model of ESL writing strategies which he synthesized from the previous studies on ESL writing strategies . Mu used three ways to cope with the various terms of strategies. First, he listed the general strategy namely: Rhetorical strategies, Metacognitive strategies, Cognitive strategies, Communicative strategies, Social/ Affective strategies. These general strategies are further divided into subcategories as individual strategies because they are very important and do

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not belong to some upper category completely. For example, according to Mu (2005), some researchers mention variables such as cohesion and coherence and organisation but do not list them as strategies (e.g., Victori, 1995). Or they attribute organizing strategy into the category of planning (e.g., Sasaki, 2000). In the synthesis of previous classifications, Mu categorized the organising strategy as individual one because of its important role in ESL writing.

The list of writing strategies and sub-strategies as suggested by Mu is summarized in the following table.

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

Rest/deferral	peers Dissolve the load of the task Reducing anxiety
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**Table 7.9 : Taxonomy of ESL Writing Strategies ( Mu 2005)**

Mu (2007, p.2) defined writing strategies as conscious decisions made by the writers to solve a writing problem. According to Mu, **rhetorical strategies** refer to the strategies that writers use to *organize and to present their ideas in writing conventions acceptable to native speakers* of that language; While **Metacognitive strategies** are those that writers use to *control the writing process consciously*. **Cognitive strategies** refer to the strategies that writers use to *implement the actual writing actions* , and finally, **Social/affective strategies** refer to those that writers use to interact with others to clarify some questions and to regulate emotions, motivation, and attitudes in the writing.

Manchón et al. (cited in Cohen 2007, p.230) best showed the relatedness between the writing processes and writing strategies. Manchón et al. classified these writing actions into both (1) **general macro writing processes** – planning, writing, and revising and (2) very **specific phenomena**, such as ‘avoidance’, ‘backtracking’, ‘evaluation’, ‘evaluation of audience response’, ‘questioning’, ‘reformulation’, ‘rehearsing’, ‘restructuring’, ‘rhetorical refining’ ( Manchón et al. cited in Cohen 2007, p.230) .

Moreover, Angelova considers the writing strategies as a factor affecting the process of writing . Angelova (1999 cited in Mu 2005) illustrated factors affecting the process and product of ESL writing as language proficiency, L1 writing competence, use of cohesive devices, metacognitive knowledge about the writing task, writing strategies and writers' personal characteristics. Thus , writing strategies are considered as a factor that affect the process of writing and which is related to the writer’s personal decisions .

In this study, we adopt Mu ( 2005) classification of writing strategies in which we consider the rhetorical strategies which include both organization strategies and genre awareness as basic strategies that help improve students' writing not as a process of language writing.

### **3.9 WRITING STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION.**

Scherff and Piazza (cited in Monaghan 2007, p. 82) in their research on effective teaching writing saw balanced instruction as the best and obvious strategy. They defined balanced instruction as including in the writing process lessons on prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing in addition to strategies that address the writer's craft, such as genre, dialogue and plot.

In this study, we consider the strategies instruction as part to the writing process instruction in order to bring more effective teaching of writing and a better performance in students' writing. In fact, this study focuses on both rhetorical strategies and outlining strategies as main strategies that help improve student's composition organization.

Writing in a second or a foreign language as mentioned earlier is complicated and requires a good instruction of the strategies that facilitates the learning process.

In fact, this present research seeks to find the strategies that help facilitating students' learning, more specifically, in organizing their writing through fostering strategies instruction.

#### **3.9.1 Rhetorical strategies instruction**

Research in ESL writing found out that L1 discourse structure affect their L2 written discourse. Mackey (1993 cited in Connor 1996) points out that while L2 writers write in English, they use their first language structure discourse. Mackey(1993) reported that :

“Many L2 writers bring to the classroom ways of structuring discourse, interacting with audiences, and valuing knowledge that they have learned in their first language, employing some of these practices as they write in English.. ” (Makckey cited in Connor 1996, p.26)

In addition Mackey urges the need to the “ a dialogue across differences” in which teachers and students together seek to understand different assumptions regarding texts, writers, audiences, and the knowledge writers can have about writing ” (Makckey cited in Connor 1996, p.26). Thus, it is the role of teacher to raise awareness to the different tradition of writing in other culture.

It is in terms of this reason that we focus on rhetorical strategies as a means to help learners learn about the structure of the English academic composition and organize better their writing. .

### **3.9. 1.Definition of Rhetorical Strategies**

Rhetorical strategies, as defined earlier, are the strategies that writers use to *organize and to present their ideas in writing conventions acceptable to native speakers* of that language (Mu, 2005) and consist of the following sub-strategies: Organizing strategies, cohesive strategies, and genre awareness. ( Mu, 2007). Thus, effective instruction of these strategies may be an effective solution solve students’ writing problems.

In this study, we focus on organizing strategies and cohesive strategies as strategies that help organizing students writings and are used in this study to mean the following :

#### **3.9.1.1 Organizing strategies**

First, organizing strategies refers to the how paragraph or essay is organized; in other words, patterns of developing the point. In this study, we focus on paragraph and essay

development as a strategy that helps students organizing their writing. Thus, we shall define and show the structure of the English paragraph and essay.

A paragraph, according to Kaplan, is mechanically considered as a division of the composition, set off by an indentation of its first sentence or by some other conventional device, such as extra space between paragraphs.... Paragraph divisions signal to the reader that the material so set off constitutes a unit of thought (Kaplan 1966, p. 13). It begins with a general statement of its content, and then carefully develops that statement by a long series of rather specific illustrations.... The flow of ideas occurs in a straight line from the opening sentence to the last sentence. (Kaplan 1966, p. 14). Thus, the structure of the English paragraph is as follows: of a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a concluding sentence.

An essay, according to Oshima and Hogue ( 2006, p. 56) is a piece of writing several paragraphs long. An essay has three main parts: an introduction (introductory paragraph), a body ( at least one, but usually two or more paragraphs) and a conclusion ( concluding paragraph).

In addition, organization is also related to how the writer's plans his essay. According to Bamberg's 1983 (cited in Connor and Lauer 1985, p. 311), Organization refers to "how the writer organizes details according to a discernable plan sustained throughout the essay". Thus, organization strategies are better used when being related to outlining strategies. In other words, organizing the elements of the paragraph or the essay requires outlining as a strategy that helps organizing the ideas. It is in terms of this reason that the present research focuses on rhetorical and outlining strategies as strategies responsible for composition organization.

### 3. 9.1.2 Cohesive strategies:

Scott Thornbury defines cohesion as “the use of grammatical and lexical means to achieve connected text, either spoken or written” (2006, p. 32). Thus, to achieve clarity in writing, the writer is required to use words that link the ideas in the text. According to Richards (1996), the writer has to provide appropriate transition statement to move from one idea to another. This transition words are called metadiscourse markers or cohesive devices which serve to explicitly organize the text and comment on it. These cohesive strategies are:

- Sequencing points ( first, next, last)
- Connecting ideas ( however, therefore, on the other hand)
- Showing what the writer is doing ( to summarize , in conclusion, for example)
- Reviewing and previewing part of the text ( in the last section we....., here we will address....)
- Commenting on content ( you may not agree that....., it is surprising that .....

( Richards J. 1996, p.48)

In this study we consider cohesive strategies as important strategies that help achieve organized composition. Students should be made aware of the use of these strategies in writing in order to meet the expectations of the readers.

### 3.9. 2 Writing Outlining Strategies

The next important strategies researched in this study are the outlining strategies. Outlining strategies are considered as basic strategies that decreases the cognitive overload that occurs during the writing activity thus, help the students reconstruct their ideas in an organize ways.

Dean et al. (2008, p.9) reported that “writer faces a myriad of hierarchically interrelated problems, at any moment of writing.....and *strategies afford a systematic means of approaching these problems*”. He added that all strategies work by focusing attentional resources on specific group of writing problems, which generally relate to either **planning or evaluating**.

In fact, Kellogg (1990, p. 329) defines outlining is “*as a traditional technique for producing a hierarchical plan for a document and needs no explanation*”. While Leki (1998, p. 30) defines it “*as a structured method of exploring your thoughts on a subject*”.

In fact, two ways of using outlining writers may use when composing. Leki reported that some writers like to use the freer invention strategies to generate ideas. Then they make an outline to organize their ideas. Outlining in this case “can be a transition between inventing and writing a first draft and then when used this way, the outline functions as a plan for writing. It is extremely helpful in dividing up the big task of writing a formal paper into the much more manageable task of writing small parts that will eventually make a unified and organized whole ” (Leki 1998, p. 30)

However, other writers like to make an outline of their paper after they have written a draft. When use this way, “the outline is not a plan but rather a check to verify that the paper presents the ideas logically and covers all aspects of the topic the writer wants to cover.” (Leki 1998, p. 30). Leki explained that in either case, the outline is not an end in itself. It is merely a tool to help you produce an organized discussion or to help you verify that the discussion you have produced is organized

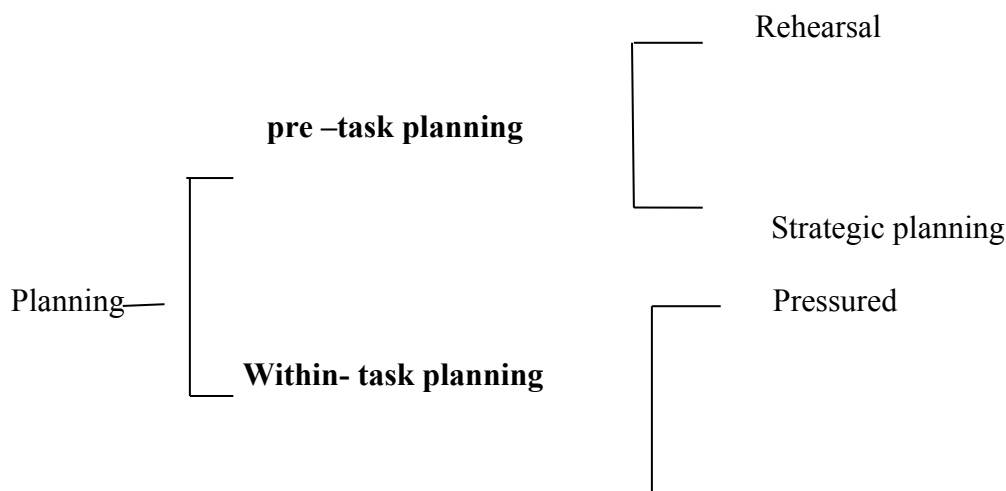
On the other hand, Dean et al.(2008, p.9) refer to these ways of outlining as Strategic approaches that may be broadly grouped into **top-down and bottom-up approaches**.

*The top-down approach* is characterized by “advance planning strategies, such as outlining and concept maps”. Dean et al. reported that this approach resolves the macro-structural text issues which make drafting easier and more affective. In contrast, *The bottom-up approach is characterized* “by much free-writing and extensive revising”, as advocated by Elbow (1973, 1981). In other words, the act of composing can prompt new ideas, which might not otherwise emerge.

Similarly, Ellis (2005, p.3) reported that two principle types of task-based planning have to be made: **pre-task planning** and **within-task planning**. These are distinguished simply in terms of when the planning takes place- either before the task is performed or during its performance.

First, **Pre- task planning** is, according to the reference just cited above, further divided into *rehearsal* and *strategic planning*. *Rehearsal* involves task repetition with the first performance of the task viewed as a preparation for subsequent performance. *Strategic planning* entails learners preparing to perform the task by considering the content they will need to encode and how to express this content

Second, **within-task planning** can be differentiated according to the extent to which the task performance is pressured or unpressured



\_\_\_\_\_ unpressured

**Figure 3. 6 : Summarizing Types of Task-based planning**

However, Sasaki (2002), cited in Oxford (2011, p.248) , in a research undertaken on L2 learning when writing, identified three kinds of planning strategies for L2 writing. : (A) **global planning**, i.e., carefully considering reader’s needs and the general organization of a text ( an expert –writer strategy); (b): **thematic planning**, i.e., less detailed planning of the organization of ideas; (c) **local planning** ,i.e., planning about adding ideas to a text without considering the organization( a novice-writer strategy).

**3.9-2-1 The Theoretical Background of the Study of Planning in Task-Based Research.**

L2 production, as has already been stated in the preceding chapters, is seen as information processing based on the analogy between human mind and a computer. In fact, **information processing models** constitute the dominant approach theorizing about language comprehension and production in cognitive psychology. These models seek to account for “ *how information is stored and retrieve; they all view information processing as involving input, temporary storage of material attended to, long –term storage of material attended to, long-term storage of this material and mechanisms for accessing this material from long-term memory.*”(Ellis, 2005, p.6)

The theoretical frameworks that have informed the study of planning in second language acquisition (SLA) research, according to Ellis (2005, p.6),draw on three certain constructs involved in *psycholinguistic accounts of language processing*: **attention and noticing, a limited working memory capacity, and focus-on- form.**

### **First, Attention and Noticing**

Schmidt (1990, 1994) cited in Ellis (1998, p.7) reported that ‘noticing’ which is the conscious attention is essential for language learning. He added that in the case of learning, attention must necessarily be conscious as “*all demonstrations of detection without conscious registration....demonstrate only the processing of what is already known, not learning*”

Ellis goes on arguing that much of the discussion of noticing ( as conscious attention) in language learning “*has focused on its role in input processing and, such might seem as having little relevance to theorizing about how task planning aids acquisition*”. Ellis asked as whether noticing has any role to play in *output processing*. Robinson (2000b), according to Ellis, suggests that output as well as input requires attention and that the degree of attention will depend on the complexity of the task requiring more attention. Therefore, providing learners with the opportunity to plan a task, may paid performance.

### **Second : The Process of Writing and the Limited Working Memory.**

Galbraith (2009, p.14) asserted that in Baddeley’s model (Baddeley 1986), *working memory* has three main components. *The central executive* is responsible for retrieval from long-term memory, control of attention, supervision of the system as a whole, and for coordinating the activity of the other two subsidiary systems. This central component is supported by, and controls the operation of, two “slave” systems: *the phonological loop*, which stores and maintains verbal material in active memory, and the *visuo-spatial sketchpad (VSSP)*, which stores and maintains visual and spatial material in active memory.

According to Kellogg (cited in Galbraith 2009, p.14), the **planning component** requires both the *VSSP and the central executive* but, since it is concerned with pre -linguistic ideas, not the verbal component of working memory. **The translation component** requires the *central executive* to plan sentences and the *phonological loop* to store and maintain verbal material while sentences are being constructed. Transcribing language, which involves **programming** and executing motor routines, requires *central executive resources*, though this may be a minimal demand for practiced writers and such resources have minimal involvement in the executing as opposed to programming component of transcription. **Reading** previously produced text requires *the central executive and the phonological loop*, **editing** requires the VSSP because it involves maintaining an image of where text is on the page.

Writing processing	components of working memory		
	VSSP	Central executive	Phonological loop
Planning	√	√	
Translating		√	√
Programming		√	
Executing			
Reading		√	√
Editing	√		

**Table 3.10 . Kellogg's (2001) model of working memory in writing cited in Galbraith (2009, p.15)**

### Third, focus-on-form

The term “focus-on-form”, according to Ellis ( 2005, p.9) helps to distinguish three related but different senses of the term, depending on whether the perspective is a pedagogic one, a discursal one or a psycholinguistic one.

In the context of **language pedagogy**, focus-on-form refers *to attempts to intervene in the process of acquisition by inducing learner to pay attention to linguistic form while they are primarily concerned with decoding or encoding message content*. These attempts can be planned (i.e. a specific form is selected for attention) or incidental (i.e. specific forms are attended to as the need arises).

**In discorsal** terms, focus-on-form refers to the pre-emptive and reactive devices that interlocutors use to draw attention to *form while learners are engaged in performing some task gives priority to message conveyance*. These devices can consist of ‘queries’ (i.e. questions about linguistic form) or various types of implicit or explicit corrective feedback (e.g. reformulations of learners’ incorrect utterances, known as ‘recast’, and metalinguistic explanation).

**In psycholinguistic** term, ‘focus-on-form’ refers to the mental processes involved in selective attention to *linguistic form while attempting to communicate*. ‘Noticing’ discussed above, serves as a cover term for these processes.

### 3. 9. 2.3 The Effects of Planning During Prewriting

On what concerns the effects of planning **during prewriting**, Kellogg (1990, p.328) asserts, in his article Effectiveness in Pre-writing Strategies, that: two opposing views on the effects of planning during prewriting can be formulated: *the interaction hypothesis* and the *overload hypothesis*.

It is assumed that *the interaction hypothesis*, according to Kellogg, holds the view that planning during the pre-writing should not benefit and may harm writing performance. Since writing is recursive and nonlinear and that the steps of the process interact during the

development of a text, outlining may prevent the writer from exploiting opportunities that arise during the interaction of collecting, planning, translating, and reviewing.

*The overload hypothesis*, in contrast, according to the same reference, contends that prewriting strategies should improve writing quality and the fluency of language production. Planning at least the macrostructure of the document during prewriting might lessen the likelihood of *attentional overload* during drafting. Moreover, it is known that overloading working memory hinders writing performance (Benton, Kraft, Glover, & Plake, 1984; Daiute, 1984).

Galbraith added that the other main factor emphasized in early models of writing was cognitive overload, arising from the fact that a complex set of processes has to be carried out in a limited capacity working memory. In particular, the demands of translating ideas into well formed text may consume resources required for higher level planning.

On what concerns the effectiveness of using outlining strategies, Galbraith (2009, p. 12) reported the studies undertaken of Kellogg (1990, 1994). The study of Kellogg (1990 cited in Galbraith 2009) suggested that the construction of a hierarchically organized outline prior to writing is associated with a higher quality final product than is the construction of an ordered list of ideas, and that this in turn is associated with higher quality final text than a simple clustering strategy. In Another study of Kellogg, (1994, cited in Galbraith 2009 , p. 12) Kellogg concluded that is that the use outlining strategy is significant of the fact that it enables writers to organize their ideas better as well as that it then enables them to devote more resources to formulating these ideas effectively in text.

## **Conclusion**

From the stated references and studies, we may come to believe that students when learning a foreign language are often faced with challenges that cause them difficulties in

learning since these students are required to master different skills with different degrees of complexity. Among these skills that the students are required to master, writing is considered as the most difficult skill. In order to facilitate learning, researchers in the field of psychology and education made contributions to the field of language learning by explaining the mental processes that occurred during the act of composing and suggesting on strategies use as a means to make learning faster, easier and more effective. In fact, these learning and teaching strategies made a revolution in the field of education and more specifically in learning foreign languages. Strategies instruction is given a special focus in this research as a means to facilitate learning writing in a foreign language. However, a special emphasis has been placed on outlining strategies as strategies that may help students to reduce the cognitive overload that happens during the process of composing and allow them to organize better there piece of writing.

Thus, this chapter is organized from general to specific. In the first place, the chapter reviews learning strategies, the different types, their importance in facilitating the learning process, and the findings of the research studies regarding strategies use. The next major point reviewed in this chapter is strategies instruction. This chapter tackles the definition, the aims and the different models used in teaching strategies. After that, and in relation to the topic of this study, the chapter focuses on the writing strategies; more particularly, the outlining strategies and rhetorical strategies as strategies that we consider responsible for composition organization .

**CHAPTER FOUR:**  
**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND**  
**DESIGN**

## CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### Introduction:

The present study aims to investigate the effect of strategies instruction on EFL student's writing performance since we assume that the students who have been taught the writing strategies specially outlining strategies and rhetorical strategies, and use them while writing will display better organized texts.

The present chapter addresses the methodology adopted in this research. It first determines the research approach and research design of the study, then it describes the participants in the study and the instruments for collecting data and method of analysis. A quantitative approach is used to collect data, to answer the research questions and to confirm or invalidate the hypothesis. To determine how data are collected and analyzed, a quasi-experimental design is used in this study. The study is conducted at the Teacher Training College of Bouzareah (ENS-B), in which 98 Algerian students enrolled in second year participated in the experiment. The participants were non-randomly assigned as they belong to two intact groups. The main research tools used to answer the research questions below are a pretest and a post-test, analytical scale for assessing students' paper and two questionnaires.

### Research Questions

The research questions that guide this study are as follows.

**RQ.1:** What are the effects of writing strategies instruction on students' writing performance?

(a): Do students who receive writing strategies instruction perform better than those who do not?

(b): Does rhetorical strategies instruction result in positive effects students' composition organization?

(c): Does the outlining strategies instruction result in positive effects on students' composition organization?

**RQ.2:** Does students' first language composition organization affect their English composition organization?

The research questions lead us to formulate the following hypotheses that need to be confirmed or invalidated

### **The null Hypothesis**

H0: The explicit instruction of the rhetorical and outlining strategies has no effects on students' writing performance.

### **The alternative hypothesis**

H1: The explicit instruction of the rhetorical and outlining strategies has positive effects on students' writing performance.

## **4-1 The Research Approach**

The present research is quantitative in nature. Quantitative research as opposition to quantitative research uses objective measurement to gather numeric data that are used to answer questions or test predetermined hypotheses. It generally requires a well-controlled setting.

Since we aim to establish the relationship between the strategies instruction and students' writing performance, the quantitative approach seems to be the best approach in this study.

Fraenkel J. R and Wallen N. R. (2009, p. 15) reported that the purpose of the researcher in

the quantitative research is to establish relationship between variables and look for and sometimes the causes of such relationship. Thus, the assumption underlying the choice of the quantitative approach is to quantify the variation in this study represented through the following major variables: strategies instruction and students writing performance and in order to establish the relationships between these variables.

The table below summarizes the key characteristics of the quantitative (Ary, Jacobs, and Sorensen, 2010) as well as how they are presented in this study.

Points of comparison	Quantitative research	The present study
<b>purpose</b>	To study relationships, cause and effect	The present study studies the relationship between the variables as it aims to examine the effects of writing strategies instruction on students' writing performance
<b>design</b>	Developed prior to study	The design used in this study is quasi-experimental design
<b>approach</b>	Deductive; tests theory	The approach adopted is deductive
<b>tools</b>	Uses preselected instruments	Different preselected instruments have been used:
<b>samples</b>	Uses large samples	the participants are non-randomly assigned and belong to two intact groups
<b>analysis</b>	Statistical analysis of numeric data	One- tailed T-test has been used to analyse statistically the data

**Table 4. 1: Characteristics of the present study**

## 4-2 The Research Design

For the current study, the experimental design was used to answer the research problem. In fact, the research design is a plan or a strategy for answering the research questions. It determines how the researcher collects and analyzes data. Many research designs exist in the literature. However, the researcher's choice of the design depends on the purpose of the research. In fact, our choice of the experimental design can be explained by the fact that the experimental design can establish the relationship between the two major variables of this research study. In other words, we seek to determine if the treatment regarding the strategies instruction influences students writing performance. Dornyei reported that the experimental design represents the quantitative research at its most scientific because it can establish unambiguous cause- effect relationships (Dornyei .Z 2011, p.115). However, two types of experimental designs exist: true experimental design and quisi-experimental design. The difference between the two types of designs depends on the methods of sampling. The experimental design relies on the random assignment of the participant in the experiment; however, the quisi-experimental design uses nonrandomized assignment.

### 4-2-1The Quasi-Experimental Design

The research design of this study is quasi-experimental since it is more appropriate to the context of our research. In educational context, true experiments with random assignment are very rarely feasible because of the inability to establish random assignment of the participants. In fact, Dornyei (2011,p. 117) explained that the quasi- experiments, also known as *naturally occurring group designs*, are similar to experiments in every respect except they do not use random assignment; therefore, researchers are required to use intact groups.

Thus, the participants in this study already belong to one group or another since any random assignment of the participants disrupts classroom learning. Accordingly, we chose two intact groups in this experiment where one group represents control group and the other group is experimental group.

### **4-3 Focusing the study**

The study tries to investigate the effectiveness of writing strategies instruction, more particularly, outlining strategies on students' composition organization in the Teachers Training College. Out of 400 students enrolled in the Second Year Department of English, 98 students participated in the experiment and naturally fall into two groups (already existing) which are designed into experimental and control group. Both groups received classes on writing techniques for one semester following the academic programme of the Teachers Training School. The experimental group received special training on the use of outlining strategy when composing. The two groups received a pretest before the instruction and a posttest after the instruction. One-tailed mean comparison was made, using the t-test. The results are to be discussed in terms of how meaningful the actual mean difference will be.

### **4-4 Sampling**

The sample of the study consists of 98 EFL second year undergraduate students from the English department at the Teachers Training College. The sample was non-randomly assigned from a population of 400 students enrolled in second year.

As mentioned earlier these students belong to two intact groups from the Second Year whose age varies from 20 to 21years. These students share some common characteristics since they have been admitted in the Teachers Training College after taken an entrance

test, and are supposed to have nearly the same language proficiency. Thus, these characteristics raise the possibility of the homogeneity of the groups designed for the experiment.

In fact, the reason for choosing second year students is that second year students, following the curriculum of the Teachers Training College, are exposed to essay writing after having dealt with the paragraph writing in their First Year and call the basics for academic writing. The choice of essay writing is due to the fact that these students are required to answer their exam question in a form of essay. Furthermore, essay requires more cognitive effort while writing and students find difficulties in producing organized composition. Thus, this matches the core of the problem in this research.

#### **4-5-Setting the Statistical Decisions**

This part of this chapter tries to set the statistical decisions required to analyze the collected data. The statistical decisions are first clarified in order to bring more understanding of the statistical procedures undertaken in this research, since we assume that these statistical procedures represent a challenge for many readers.

#### **4- 5-1The Parametric Techniques to Analyzing Data**

Perhaps the single most difficult part of a researcher's job is the selection of the appropriate statistical procedures since many statistical approaches exist in the experimental research (Brown, J. D, 1988, p.113). In the present study, we used the *t-test* for means as a statistical procedure to confirm or invalidate our hypotheses.

In fact, the *t-test* for means is parametric statistical test used to see whether a difference between the means of two samples is significant. The test produces a value for *t* (called an obtained *t*), which the researcher then checks in a statistical table to determine the level of

significance that has been reached. As we mentioned earlier, if the .05 level of significance is reached, the researcher customarily rejects the null hypothesis and concludes that a real difference does exist. (Fraenkel J. R and Wallen N. R. 2009, p. 229)

Furthermore, and in order to justify the researcher choice of the appropriate statistics to analyze the collected, Brown, J. D (1988, p.158) reported that “the choice of correct statistics depends mostly on the number of groups, types of scales, and the size of the sample”. Thus, we justify the choice of the t-test procedure in this study on the basis of these three main elements.

First, the number of groups (or levels): The number of groups simply means how many groups are involved in the study. As his study seeks to compare the performance of groups, we divided the sample into two major groups: one experimental group which is the group of the students who received the strategies instruction and one control group which is group of the students who do not receive the strategies.

Second, the scale: Scale according to Brown (1988, p. 20) are “names for the different ways of observing, organizing, an assigning number to data, which makes them important for understanding the entire data collection process”. In this study two levels can be detected an *interval scale* which stand for the scores on the post- test of student’s writing performance and the *nominal scale* which is represented by whether the students are in the experimental (students receiving strategies instruction) or control group.

Third, the sample: the type of statistics also depends on the sample size. In this study we opt for the t-test since this procedure can be used with *any sample*. Brown J. D. (1988, p.153) explained that the z- statistics is used with large sample and t- test with any sample.

### 4-5- 2 Statistical Hypotheses

The statistical test in this study is *directional or one- tailed hypothesis*. According to Brown (1988, p.110), the one tailed hypothesis is formulated when only one direction is predicted in a relationship. Brown added that he researcher assumes only one direction in the case of the presence of a sound logical or theoretical reason which makes him anticipate that one of the means will be higher than the other. Thus, we formulated one-tailed hypothesis in this study for the sound theoretical basis regarding the field of strategies instruction as shown in the previous research in the literature review . Thus, s we assumed that strategies instruction has positive effect on students' writing performance and for which only H<sub>0</sub> and H<sub>1</sub> are used in this study.

**H<sub>0</sub>** Stands for the null hypothesis which means that *there is no effect of strategies instruction on students 'writing performance*, and which can be presented in the following formula:

- **H<sub>0</sub>**:  $\bar{X}_e = \bar{X}_c$

**H<sub>1</sub>** Stands for the alternative hypothesis which means that *there is a positive effect of strategies instruction students' writing performance*. This hypothesis is presented in the following formula:

- **H<sub>1</sub>**:  $\bar{X}_e > \bar{X}_c$

*e* stands for experimental group

*c* stands for control group

- **4-5-3 Probability level or P value**

In language studies, the significance level, also called “probability level”, is typically set at  $p < .01$  or  $p < .05$  and is used by convention in most of the social sciences (Brown, 1889, p.116). In this study, we set the probability value  $p < .05$ . **The .05 probability** means that the probability to rejecting the null hypothesis is less than 5%. In other words, it is less than 5 percent that the results are due to chance and that 95% is due to the treatment

Now, let us examine how to deal with what we have constructed in the table below

Type of information needed	
The problem	the effect of strategies instruction on Students writing performance
1- Statistical hypotheses	$H_0: \bar{X}_e = \bar{X}_c$ $H_1: \bar{X}_e > \bar{X}_c$
The probability level or P value	$p < .05$ Directional decision: only one hypothesis
Number of individual	98
2- Compare the observed( $t_{obs}$ ) and critical Statistic ( $t_{crit}$ )	
Degree of freedom (df)	$df = N - 2$ thus $N - 2 = 98 - 2 = 96$
Critical value of the statistic	$(t_{crit}) = 1.65$ (given in a table And is relative to df)

- 3- If the observed statistic is less  
 Than the critical value, accept  
 The null hypothesis
- 4- If the observed statistic is greater  
 Than the critical value, accept the  
 Alternative hypothesis and reject  
 The null hypothesis

-----  
**Table 4- 1: hypothesis testing (t- test) adapted from Brown J.D. (1988, p. 169)**

The t- formula necessary for the hypothesis testing (**t-test**) are presented and explained first, and then the calculations will be done afterward:

**4-5- 4 Compare the observed(  $t_{obs}$ ) to critical Statistics (or critical value) ( $t_{crit}$ )**

**III-5- 4 -1 Calculating the observed statistics (t- value)**

$$t_{obs} = \frac{|\bar{X}_e - \bar{X}_c|}{\sqrt{\frac{se^2}{n} + \frac{sc^2}{n}}}$$

$t_{obs}$  is a value that is calculated statistically through the formula given above. This observed value will be latter compared to the critical value (  $t_{crit}$  ). The  $t_{crit}$  is a value that is given in a table of statistics for a one- tailed test.

**4-5- 4- 2 Calculating the means for the pretest experimental and control group.**

$\bar{X}_e = \frac{\sum X_e}{N}$       $\bar{X}_e$  refers to the mean for the pretest experimental group

$\bar{X}_c = \frac{\sum X_c}{N}$       $\bar{X}_c$  refers to the mean for the pretest control group

#### 4-5- 4 -3Calculating the SD the standard deviation of the pretest of the experimental and control group

$$sd = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}{N}}$$

sd refers to the standard deviation. The standard deviation provides a sort of average of the differences of all scores from the mean. In other words, it provides an average of how much the test-scores deviate from the mean

##### 4-5- 4 -3- 1 Calculating the standard deviation of the experimental group

$$Sd e = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (Xe - \bar{Xe})^2}{N}} = \sqrt{se^2}$$

##### 4-5- 4 -3- 2- Calculating the standard deviation of the control group

$$Sd c = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (Xc - \bar{Xc})^2}{N}} = \sqrt{sc^2}$$

- N= number of the students
- X the scores of each student
- $\sum X$  = the sum of scores
- $\bar{X}$  = the mean of the scores
- $s^2$ = the variance
- SD= standard deviation

#### 4-6 Instruments for Data Collection

The instruments for data collection used in this research are tests and questionnaires. These instruments have been selected on the basis of the nature of the research as well as

the requirement of its objectives. According to Dordnyei (2001, p.93), tests and questionnaires are the most common data collection instruments in applied linguistics.

#### **4- 6-1 Test.**

The test used in this research consists of an essay question in which students have to respond in a form of an essay.

According to Cohen L. et al. (2000), there are several advantages that can be claimed to essay questions. For example, an essay, as an open form of testing, enables complex learning outcomes to be measured. Also, it enables the student to integrate, apply and synthesize knowledge, to demonstrate the ability for expression and self-expression, and to demonstrate higher order and divergent cognitive processes. On the other hand, essays have been criticized for yielding unreliable data, for being prone to unreliable scoring, neglectful of intended learning outcomes and prone to marker bias and preference ;being too intuitive, subjective, holistic, and time-consuming to mark (Cohen L. et al 2000, p.330)

In order to overcome these difficulties, disadvantages, and bias of essay question, a number of measures have been taken in this research:

- First, the essay question indicates the task very clearly (see the appendix for pre- and post-test assignment).
- Second, the students' papers are assessed following Jacobs et al. analytical scale; one of most widely used analytic scales in ESL (Jacobs *et al.* 1981, cited in Weigle, 2002, pp. 115-116). This scale provides more diagnostic information about students' writing performance as shown in the section on assessment below.

In this present research, two tests have been used this research: a pre- and post-test.

#### **4 -6-1-1 The Pre-test:**

The pre-test consists of an instruction (see appendix) in which students have to write an essay . This pretest is conducted at the beginning of the semester, prior to the commencement of the program for both groups (the control and the experimental group). The aim of this pre-test is twofold: first, to identify the starting abilities of the students and their achievement; second, to equate the characteristics of the two groups for the validity of the experiment.

#### **4.6-1-2 The Post-test**

The post –test consists of an assignment to which students have to respond in a form of essay. The post-test is conducted after the treatment. The post-test aims to test students’ abilities in organizing their essay after being taught the o writing strategies.

#### **The assignment or the prompt:**

Different format exist to stimulate a written response Kroll and Reid ( 1994 cited in Richards 1996) suggested three main formats:

- A base prompt: which states the entire task in direct and simple terms, such as do you favor or oppose capital punishment? Why?
- A framed prompt : which present a situation as frame for the interpretation of the task
- A text based: prompt which presents a text to which the student responds or use hir or her writing

In this study, we chose the framed prompt in order to elicit the right response and that the students use the appropriate structure of the essay as well as to avoid any ambiguity in understanding what is expected from them.

#### 4-6-2 Questionnaire:

According to Dornyei ( 2011, p.101 ) the essence of scientific research is to find out answers to questions in a systematic and disciplined manner and it is therefore no wonder that the *questionnaire* has become one of the most popular research instruments applied in the social sciences.

Similarly, McDonough, J. and MacDonough, S. reported that questionnaire research seems to be very popular among educational researchers in general and ELT research in particular since the researcher can benefit from several advantages.(1997, 171)

- The knowledge needed is controlled by the questions; therefore it affords a good deal of precision and clarity.
- Questionnaire can be used on small scale, in-house, and on a large scale.
- Data can be gathered in several different time slots: all at once in a class, in the respondents' own time as long as it is easy to return, at convenience when a suitable respondent happens to come along and in different locations at different times
- Self-completion questionnaire allows access to outside contexts so information can be gathered from colleagues in other schools and even other countries.

Dornyei added that the popularity of the questionnaire is due to the fact that they are relatively easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily processible (2011, p.101-102 )

In fact, the term “questionnaire”, according to Dornyei, has been used in two broad senses: (a) interviews schedules, (b) self-administered pencil-and-paper questionnaire.

In this research, it is the self-administered pencil-and-paper questionnaire which is used. Brown (2001 cited in Dornyei 2011, p.102) defined this type of questionnaires as any

written instruments that present respondents with series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answer.

In the present study, two questionnaires have been administered: the first questionnaire has been distributed to the students before the experiment while the second one after the experiment.

The first questionnaire A has been distributed to the students of the experimental and control group, at the beginning of the year, before starting the official program of the writing module. The questionnaire aims to collect information about students writing background knowledge about writing. Background knowledge includes all the experience that the student can bring when writing which includes all the educational experiences, cultural experiences, knowledge of how a text can be rhetorically organized, the strategies they most often use in their writing which may give us insight about the source of difficulties that they often encounter while writing.

The second questionnaire has been distributed to the students of the experimental group only as it aims to compare the results of the experience with their claims of using of strategies in the post-test essay and their view of the effectiveness of use strategies in order to validate or invalidate, if there is improvement of their performance is due to the strategies use.

### **4-6-2-1 Questionnaire Design**

#### **4.6-2-1-1 Questionnaire I**

On what concerns the layout, the questionnaire comprises, a title, an introduction explaining the purpose of the research and assuring anonymity, an instruction to make clear to the students how to answer 21 questions.

The questionnaire is divided into two main sections that correspond to the main variable of this research: section 1 is related to writing, which comprises 12 questions; the second section is related to strategies and includes 10 questions.

The aim of the first section entitled “writing” is to find out about students background and attitudes to writing. Students come from different backgrounds and have different habits in writing. This section also seeks to know about the students’ school experiences in writing and the difficulties they often meet when composing.

The aim of the second section is related to the strategies the student use when writing and their awareness of the effectiveness of these strategies. Students may use different strategies but are unaware of their use. Thus, the questionnaire may reveal about their awareness of these strategies.

#### **4-6-2-1-1 The Type of Questions**

The type of questions used in the questionnaires varies from close to open-ended questions in order to gain more information from the respondents.

The questionnaire comprises 21 questions:

- Yes/no question on which students have to respond by yes or no.( Q. 3, Q. 6, Q. 11,Q. 12, Q.13,

Eg. Do you find difficulties to organize your text when you write in English?

- Yes
- No
- Multiple choice questions on which students have to chose among the provided choices ( Q.1, Q.2, Q.5,Q. 14,

e.g. Which form of organization do you use more frequently when writing in Arabic?

- Through argumentation
- Counter-argumentation
- Numerical rating scale on which students have to chose an adjective that represent the degree of frequency of their behavior (Q.4, Q.8, Q.9,Q.15,Q.17,, Q.18Q.19, Q.20, Q.21, )

e.g. Do you find writing in English

- 1-Easy
- 2-Somehow difficult
- 3-Difficult
- 4-Very difficult
- Clarification questions (Q. 7, Q.10, Q.16,)

1- e.g. If you chose 4/ agree or 5/strongly agree, explain what do you usually do to improve you writing?

.....

.....

#### **4-6-2-1-2 Questionnaire II**

The second questionnaire follows the same lay out as the first questionnaire and is distributed to the experimental group after the posttest. The questionnaire comprises 11 questions.

#### **4-6-2-1-2 -1Types of Questions**

- YES/ NO questions on which students have to answer by yes or no (Q.1)
- Multiple choice questions: students are provided with different answers to chose among them ( Q.2, Q.4, Q.5 Q.8, Q.9)
- Numerical rating scale ( Q.3,Q.7, Q.6)
- Open ended question (Q.10)

#### **4-7- Data Collection Procedure**

##### **4-7-1 Data collection procedure for the test**

In order to determine the effect of outlining and rhetorical strategies on students 'writing performance, an experiment has been undertaken on two groups of a total of 98 students . These students are divided equally into two groups. One group stands for control group which includes 49 students; the second group is experiment group and comprises 49 students. The procedure of data collection consists of administering a pre- and a post-test . The aim of the pre-test is to equate the two groups for the validity of the research. The post-test is administered to compare students' results. The experimental group will receive special training that we call treatment or intervention as shown below:

**Control group:** pretest -----instruction-----no intervention -----posttest

**Experimental group:** pretest----- instruction----- intervention-----posttest.

#### **4- 7-1-1 The pretest.**

To equate the characteristics of the two groups, a pretest is assigned for both experimental and control group. The pretest (see appendix) consists of an assignment in which the students are required to write an argumentative essay, knowing that these students are familiar with the essay writing since they start writing essays from the Secondary School and are required to answer most of their final exams in essays.

The aim of this pre-test is to assure an equal variance; meaning that, the two groups involved in the experiment should have the same characteristics that make the results be more reliable.

To compare students' writing performance, the standard deviation (SD) of both groups should be calculated and squared then compared; the squared SDe ( standard deviation of the experimental group) and the Squared SDc ( standard deviation of the control group) should be about the same :

$$SDe^2 = SDc^2$$

#### **4-7-1-2Assessing Students' Papers**

The students' papers of the two groups are assessed following an analytic scale. The analytic scoring procedure, according to Richards (1996), requires evaluating a text according to a set of criteria seen as important to good writing which provides more information than holistic scores.

Thus, students' papers are assessed and are rated on several writing components namely content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. Both tests i.e. the pre-test as well as the posttest are rated following Jacobs et al. analytical scale; one of most widely used analytic scales in ESL. We opted for analytic scale since that it provides more diagnostic information about students' writing performance. This analytical scale best reports about the students' composition organization, in other words, whether the strategies taught led to improvement in students' composition organization or not.

Aspect	SCORE	LEVEL/ CRITERIA
CONTENT	30-27	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable • substantive • thorough development of thesis • relevant to assigned topic
	26-22	GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject • adequate range • limited development of thesis • mostly relevant to the topic, but lacks detail
	21-17	FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject • little substance • inadequate development of topic
	16-13	VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject • non-substantive • not pertinent • OR not enough to evaluate
ORGANIZATION	20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/ supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive
	17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development
	9-7	VERY POOR: does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate

VOCABULARY	20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range • effective word/ idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register
	17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range • occasional errors of word/ idiom form, choice, usage <i>but meaning not obscured</i>
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: limited range • frequent errors of word/ idiom form, choice, usage • <i>meaning confused or obscured</i>
	9-7	VERY POOR: essential translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate
LANGUAGE USE	25-22	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/ function, articles, pronouns, prepositions
	21-18	GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/ function, articles, pronouns, prepositions <i>but meaning seldom obscured</i>
	17-11	FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/ complex constructions • frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/ function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/ or fragments, run-ons, deletions • <i>meaning confused or obscured</i>
	10-5	VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate
MECHANICS	5	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
	4	GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing <i>but meaning not obscured</i>
	3	FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • <i>meaning confused or obscured</i>
	2	VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate

**Table -4 2 : Jacobs et al.'s (1981) scoring profile**

To assess students' papers, we adjusted the rating scale to 20 instead of 100 as shown in the Jacobs et al. scoring profile. The teacher scores the papers following grading scale:

- Content up to 6 points
- Organization up to 4 points
- Vocabulary up to 4 points
- Language use up to 5 points
- Mechanics up to 1 point

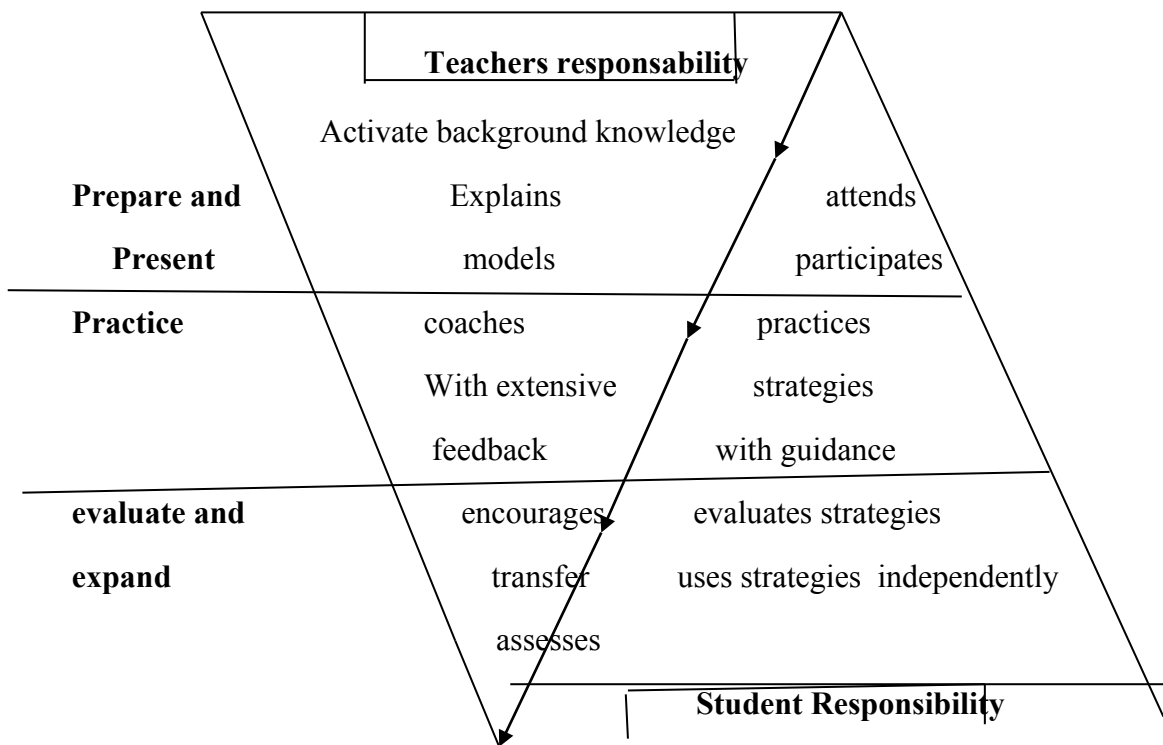
#### **4-7-1-3 The Treatment**

During the first semester, for a period of 16 weeks, the students of the two groups receive similar instruction of the academic writing following the Pre- service Standard Curriculum. The writing class program consists of essay writing techniques for duration of 4 hours and a half divided into two sessions. However, the students in the experimental group will receive a special instruction regarding prewriting strategies in addition to the official program instruction. Also, these students will do more practice regarding the use of outlining strategies and rhetorical strategies when they compose. Furthermore, tasks vary. First students will be exposed to different models then asked to write the outline that corresponds to those models so that they get acquainted with the pattern of organization of the specific genre such as organization of argumentative essay. Other tasks include writing an outline for given assignments. Other tasks require both outlines and the full essays for the assignments.

The materials used in the writing classes are mainly derived from the following books on the academic writing: namely; *Academic Writing Level3* by Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue. The second book is entitled *Academic writing: Exploring Processes and Strategies* by Ilona Leki (see the Bibliography)

In fact, we chose these two books to prepare the material for the writing classes since we found that these books seem to meet the focus of this research. The books not only provide the students with models of different genre but it also helps students develop two strategies: strategies for producing texts and strategies for preparing and polishing text in academic setting; which we find extremely suitable to achieve the purpose of our research. The books orient students to the writing processes in order to become more aware of their current writing strategies. In addition, students are introduced to the rhetorical expectations of English- speaking readers and organization and development of written idea which is the core of our research. Also, the books provide students with the opportunity to practice doing a variety of academic assignment

In fact, in order to teach students the outlining strategies and rhetorical strategies, the focus of this research, we relied on Chamot's model, known as the CALLA model in the preparation of the lesson plan. This model consists of five instructional phases: Preparation, Presentation, Practice, and Expansion as it is shown the figure bellow:



**Figure 4- 1: Framework for Strategies Instruction the CALLA (Chamot and O'Malley 1994, p.66)**

Thus the treatment or the lessons provided to teach student the strategies related to organization was based on following the five phases of the CALLA model. First, **in the preparation phase**, we aimed to raise the students' awareness to the importance of strategies use in their writing, more particularly, the use of organization and outlining strategies . To do so, students were first asked, in this phase, to write a short paragraph in English. After the students finished writing their paragraph, they were asked some questions about the strategies they used while writing in English in addition to other questions such as whether they use the same strategies while they write in Arabic, or do they translate from their first language to English...etc. (see questionnaire in the appendix)

In the next phase, **which is the presentation phase**, Students were first provided with model essays taken from the books listed above supported by some writing technique

questions in order to raise their awareness to the organization of the Academic English composition. The teacher, then, models the strategies with examples and activities. The teacher at this stage makes clear the steps included in the writing process then explicitly names the strategies used in prewriting stage with a focus on outlining strategies

After having presented the strategies, the teacher leads the students to the **Practice phase**. In this phase, students practice the strategies in different ways through different activities. They start by writing outlines from the models provided by the teacher to move to write their own outline to be able to write essays with the teacher guidance and feedback.

**In the Evaluation phase**, students, through self-evaluation, reflect on strategies use through activities in which students compare their performance on writing essay without using the outlining strategies and when they apply these strategies. Another self-efficacy questionnaire is handed after the experiment about their degree of confidence in completing the task.

The last phase in this model **is the expansion phase**. In this phase, students use the outlining strategies to write different types of essays as well as expand these strategies to write about other subjects or answer exam questions.

The table below summarizes the procedure followed by the teacher, the strategies, and the material used during the period of the treatment.

The week	The strategies	Procedure and Materials
1 <sup>st</sup> week	<p><b>Objective:</b> the students will be able to use the different strategies in the prewriting phase of the process of writing.</p> <p>- <b>the writing process:</b> The prewriting phase: Brainstorming</p> <p>- <b>strategies:</b> mapping ( clustering) , free-writing, listing strategies</p>	<p>-First, students read different model paragraphs since we assume that the best way to learn about paragraph writing is to read as many models as possible. Also, This is to relate the writing skill to reading skill.</p> <p>-The teacher shows the different strategies used when brainstorming: mapping, clustering, free-writing, listing</p> <p>-Practice: students practice the strategies when brainstorming different topics such as sport, transportation .....etc</p> <p>The material used: Great Paragraph 2. Third Edition</p>
2 <sup>nd</sup> week	<p><b>Objective:</b> the students will be able to recognize the different parts of a paragraph.</p> <p>Students are reminded of the paragraph organization / the three main parts of paragraph writing: topic sentence, supporting sentences and concluding sentence.</p> <p><b>The strategies</b> taught here are the rhetorical strategies: organization strategies and cohesive strategies</p>	<p>-First, the students read different model paragraphs in which they identify the three parts of the paragraph: the topic sentence, the supporting sentences and the concluding sentence well as they recognize the signals that tie the supporting sentences together: first, second, in addition ....etc ( cohesive devices)</p> <p>- Practice: the students write different topic sentences from the topics suggested by the teacher. Other tasks include writing a missing topic sentence for the supported sentences and a concluding sentence</p> <p>Practice the supporting sentences: the students write supporting sentences related to the topic sentence they write previously and use the transition signals to link the</p>

<p>3<sup>rd</sup> week</p>		<p>sentences together. In another practice students reorganized scrambled sentences. In another practice, the students are asked to omit irrelevant sentence ( a sentence that is not related to the topic</p> <p>Practice: students write different concluding sentences for different suggested paragraphs</p>
	<p><b>Objective:</b> students organize their ideas using outlining strategy</p> <p><b>Strategy :</b> outlining strategy</p>	<p>Presentation: The teacher, presents, explains, and models the outline and names this strategy. The teacher explains also the importance, when and how this strategy helps students organize their paragraph.</p> <p>Practice: Students practice this strategy in different tasks.</p> <p>First task: students read a paragraph and write the outline that the writer might use to write his paragraph. They write in the first place a general outline: the topic sentence, the main supporting sentences and the concluding sentence.</p> <p>. In another task the students write a detailed outline in which they write the details for each supporting sentence,</p> <p>Second task: students practice the outlining strategies in which they write different outlines for different topics. They even write an outline for the topics they brainstorm earlier in the first session</p>

<p>4<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Objective:</b> students will be able to use the rhetorical strategies (organization strategies and the cohesive strategies) and the outlining strategies to write their paragraph.</p> <p><b>Strategies:</b> organization strategies, cohesive strategies, outlining strategies</p>	<p>In this lesson, students will use all the strategies they previously saw in the lesson one , two ,and three</p> <p>Production: Students write a paragraph for the topic they brainstorm in the previous sessions.</p> <p>Students are asked first to write an outline, write their first draft following the organization of the English paragraph, and use the cohesive devices they studied previously.</p>
<p>5<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Objective:</b> Students will be able to write the first draft, revise and review their paragraph</p> <p><b>Process:</b> drafting, revising and reviewing</p>	<p>Presentation: The teacher presents the next steps in the writing process.</p> <p>Practice: Students, after having written their outlines are then asked to write their first draft.</p> <p>In the next step, students are asked to revise their paragraphs for the spelling, and grammar mistakes, and sentence structure and punctuation. Then, review the organization of their paragraph for lack of coherence: such as unrelated sentences.</p> <p>The tasks can be do in pairs : peer- editing in which each student can correct his mate paragraph as far as students can learn from their peers</p>
<p>6<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p>Essay writing:</p> <p><b>Objective:</b> students will be able to recognize the organization of the essay.</p> <p><b>Focus:</b> organization of the introductory paragraph and thesis</p>	<p>Presentation: The teacher starts with a model essay. Students read the model essay and answer guiding questions that highlight the organization of the essay: introduction, body and a conclusion.</p> <p>-The teacher presents the structure of the</p>

	<p>statement.</p> <p><b>Strategies:</b> organization strategies</p>	<p>introductory paragraph (Funnel introduction). Models the thesis statement and shows the features that characterize a good thesis statement</p> <p>-Practice: Students identify the thesis statement for different introductions. In another practice, students write their own thesis statements</p> <p>Production: Students write an introductory paragraph that ends up with a good thesis statement</p> <p>Material: Writing Academic Writing (2006) Level Four. Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue</p>
<p>7<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Essay writing</b></p> <p><b>Objective:</b> students will be able to recognize the organization of the essay.</p> <p><b>Focus:</b> Body paragraphs</p> <p><b>Strategies:</b> Organization strategies, cohesive strategies,</p>	<p>Presentation: Teacher highlights the structure of the paragraph within the essay: topic sentence, supporting sentences and shows how the subdivision of the body paragraphs relate to the thesis statement.</p> <p>The teacher presents the cohesive strategies: shows how the paragraphs within the same essay relate to each other (the use of the cohesive devices)</p> <p>Practice one : The students identify the structure of the different paragraphs and how they relate to the thesis statement to form an essay</p> <p>Practice two: The students identify the cohesive devices used in different essays and how these cohesive devices tie the paragraphs together to form a coherent</p>

<p>8<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Essay writing :</b></p> <p><b>Objective:</b> Students will be able to write an outline for an essay</p> <p><b>Focus:</b> parts of the essay</p> <p><b>Strategies:</b> outlining strategies</p>	<p>essay.</p> <p>Again, the teacher works on the previous model essays seen earlier.</p> <p>The teacher presents again the outlining strategies and highlights its importance especially for more extended piece of writing. She starts first by reviewing the outlining strategies through a practice</p> <p>Practice: Students read the model essay and write the outline of each paragraph of the essay.</p> <p>Teacher: models the outline for the whole essay and relates the outline of a paragraph to that of the essay ( see appendix)</p> <p>Practice: the students write the outline of a previous model essays</p> <p>Production: Students choose a topic and write an outline for that topic</p> <p>Material: Writing Academic Writing (2006).Level Four. Alice Ohima, Ann Hogue</p>
	<p>9<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Essay writing</b></p> <p><b>Objective:</b> Students will be able to write the concluding paragraph</p> <p><b>Strategies:</b> Organization strategies</p>

<p>10<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Essay writing</b></p> <p><b>Objective:</b> Students will be able to write an essay with the different parts</p> <p><b>Strategies:</b> Organization strategies, outlining strategies, cohesive strategies</p>	<p>Here again the teacher integrates all the strategies students saw earlier in the previous lessons about essay writing.</p> <p>Practice: in a practice the students identify the parts of an essay (its organization), write the outline of that essay and identify the cohesive devices used in that essay.</p> <p>Production: Students write a full essay using the above strategies</p>
<p>11<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Essay writing</b></p> <p><b>Objective:</b> The students will be able to recognize the pattern of organization for the logical division of ideas</p> <p><b>Focus:</b> logical division of ideas essay</p> <p><b>Strategies:</b> organization strategies, outlining strategies, cohesive strategies</p>	<p>Presentation: the best way to know about a given type of essay is to read different model essays about that type. Thus, the model essay is presented first. The students read models of logical division of ideas essays.</p> <p>The teacher asks guiding questions regarding the content by asking some comprehension questions as well as questions related to the organization of the ideas in the model essay ( in an attempt to relate the content to the organization of the type of the essay)</p> <p>Practice: the teachers ask students to reflect about the organization, identify the cohesive devices, and write the outline.</p> <p>Presentation: the teacher presents the thesis statement for the logical division of ideas</p> <p>Practice students identify the organization of the logical division of ideas essay, identify the thesis statement.</p> <p>In another practice, they students will write their own thesis statement for the logical</p>

		<p>division of ideas.</p> <p>Presentation: The teacher models the outline of the logical division of idea pattern of organization</p> <p>Practice: student practice again by writing the outline of another model essay</p> <p>Production: students are asked to write an essay using the organization strategies, the outlining strategies and the cohesive strategies</p>
<p>12<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Essay writing</b></p> <p><b>Objective:</b> The students will be able to recognize the pattern of organization for the Process essay</p> <p><b>Focus:</b> Process essay</p> <p><b>Strategies:</b> organization strategies, outlining strategies, cohesive strategies</p>	<p>The teacher follows the same procedure in teaching the logical division of ideas to teach the process essay.</p> <p>First, the students read different model essays about the process essay.</p> <p>The first practice: the students identify the different parts of the process essay ( organization: introduction, body and conclusion )</p> <p>Presentation: Teacher presents the thesis statement and explains how to write the processes essay thesis statement.</p> <p>Students have practice on writing thesis statement for the process essay.</p> <p>Presentation: The teacher models the outline of the process essay pattern of organization</p> <p>Practice: student practice again by writing the outline of another model essay</p> <p>Production: students are asked to write an essay using the organization strategies, the outlining strategies and the cohesive</p>

<p>13<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Essay writing</b>  <b>Objective:</b> The students will be able to recognize the pattern of organization for the comparison/contrast essay  <b>Focus:</b> Comparison/Contrast essay  <b>Strategies:</b> organization strategies, outlining strategies, cohesive strategies</p>	<p>strategies.  The teacher follows the same procedure in teaching the logical division of ideas to teach the comparison / contrast essay.  However, for this type of essay, the teacher presents the two patterns of organization: point by point organization and the block organization.  <b>Practice:</b> The students practice the two patterns of organization  <b>Production:</b> students write the comparison/contrast essay using the two patterns of organization: the block and point by point organization</p>
<p>14<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Essay writing</b>  <b>Objective:</b> The students will be able to recognize the pattern of organization for the argumentative essay  <b>Focus:</b> supporting details: facts, quotations, and statistics</p>	<p><b>Presentation:</b> teacher provides model paragraphs containing different ways to support main ideas. The teacher explains the different supporting details and their importance to give credibility to writers' ideas.  Teacher models how to insert these supporting details in a detailed outline  <b>Practice:</b> students identify the supporting ideas, and practice them in different activities.  <b>Practice two:</b> students write detailed outlines using different supporting details  <b>Production:</b> students write paragraphs using these supporting details</p>
<p>15<sup>th</sup> week</p>	<p><b>Essay writing</b>  <b>Objective:</b> The students will be able to recognize the pattern of</p>	<p><b>Presentation:</b> Teacher presents the model or the argumentative essay (the through argumentation pattern). Students read the</p>

16<sup>th</sup> week

organization for the argumentative essay

**Focus:** through argumentation pattern of organization

**Strategies:** organization strategies, outlining strategies, cohesive strategies

model essay and answer comprehension questions.

Teachers ask guiding questions to highlight the organization of the argumentative essay.

Practice: the teacher ask the students to write on the outline of the argumentative essay

The teacher models the Through argumentation pattern of argumentation

Practice: students write the outline of argumentative essay following the pattern of the organization

Production: students write an argumentative essay following the through argumentation pattern. Students use the outlining strategies, and the cohesive strategies

**Essay writing**

**Objective:** The students will be able to recognize the pattern of organization for the argumentative essay

**Focus:** Counter-argumentation pattern of organization

**Strategies:** organization strategies, outlining strategies, cohesive strategies

Presentation: Teacher presents the model argumentative essay (the counter-argumentation). Students read the model essay and answer comprehension questions.

Teachers ask guiding questions to highlight the organization of the argumentative essay.

Practice: the teacher ask the students to write on the outline of the argumentative essay

Teacher Models the Counter - argumentation pattern of organization

Practice: students write the outline of

argumentative essay following the pattern of the counter- argumentation organization  
Production: Students write an argumentative essay following the counter-argumentation pattern of organization using the outline strategies and the cohesive strategies.

Material used: Writing Academic Writing (2006) Level Four. Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue

The teacher uses the models for the aim of illustrating particular features of the text under study. Although organization of the text has been the main feature focuses on in the treatment, these models serves also as stimulus materials as for as arise the students ideas and extend students vocabulary about different topics.

#### **4-7-1-4 The Post Test**

After the period of instruction the students received, the students of the two groups have a post test. The post-test (see appendix) is in a form of an assignment in which the students of the two groups write an argumentative essay. The aim of the post-test is to see whether there is a difference in students writing performance, after the instruction. The students' papers are assessed using Jacob et al. analytical scale mentioned above by the writing teacher from the department of English. The scores are then reported in a paper as it is displayed in the appendix. In fact, the scores' sheet is designed to show the rate of all the components; that is, content, organization, vocabulary, language usage, and mechanics. This score sheet gives the diagnosis of the students' performance. The marks of the

students in the control group will be compared to their scores in the organization component.

#### **4- 7-2 Questionnaire Data Collection Procedure**

##### **4-7-2-1 Piloting the questionnaire**

According to Cohen et al. (2000, p.260), a pilot has several functions, principally to increase the reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaire. It thus serves:

- To check the clarity of the questionnaire items, instructions and layout;
- To gain feedback on the validity of the questionnaire items, the operationalization of the constructs and the purposes of the research;
- To eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in wording;
- To gain feedback on the type of question and its format (e.g. rating scale, multiple choice, open, closed etc.);
- To gain feedback on response categories for closed questions, and for the appropriateness of specific questions or stems of question;
- To gain feedback on the attractiveness and appearance of the questionnaire;
- To gain feedback on the layout, sectionalizing, and itemization of the questionnaire;
- To check whether the questionnaire is too long or too short, too easy or too difficult, too unengaging, too threatening, too intrusive, too offensive;
- To generate categories from open-ended responses to use as categories for closed response-modes (e.g. rating scale items);
- To identify redundant question ( e.g. those questions which consistently gain a total 'yes' or 'no' response; i.e. those questions with little discriminability);
- To identify commonly misunderstood or noncompleted items

- To try out the coding/ classification system for data analysis. (Cohen et al. 2000, p.260),

The questionnaire has been first distributed to students from other groups in the population from which the participants in this research have been assigned and who did not participate in the experiment. The questionnaire was piloted in order to improve it and to avoid any unnecessary, confusing or ambiguous questions. Only the first questionnaire was piloted as it includes necessary information about the participants before the treatment. The time allotted to the students to answer the questionnaire is 30 minutes. The result of the piloting phase brought about some improvements of the questionnaire in which some questions have been combined into one question, some questions have been reformulate to avoid any misunderstanding.

#### **4.7-2 Questionnaire I**

Forty nine questionnaires were distributed to students from the experimental group. The students completed the questionnaires and submitted them the same day within thirty minutes. These questionnaires were distributed to students before the experiment. As the students belong to a culture different from the English culture and that the English language is considered as a distant language from the Arabic language, the aim of the first questionnaire is meant to know about the students 'background. The background knowledge includes educational knowledge, cultural knowledge, past experience in writing and, and the strategies they used in their writing. Also, the questionnaire aims to find out about students' awareness of the rhetorical features of the English composition.

### **4-7-3 Questionnaire II**

The second questionnaire was distributed after the post-test. The aim of this questionnaire is to find out about students' opinion about the effectiveness of the strategies they were taught; more particularly the strategies related to composition organization on their writing. The questionnaire also seeks to know in what way does their L1 writing affect their L2 writing . Since the second questionnaire contains only eight questions, time allotted to fill in this questionnaire was 15 minutes.

### **Conclusion**

The present chapter aims to set the methodology followed in this present study. First, the chapter determines the approach and the research design followed in this research. Also, it sets the statistical decisions to test the hypotheses and explains the procedure that will used to analyze data statistically. The chapter also explains the treatment students of the experimental group received during the training. In addition, it defines the tools or the instruments used to collect data and which include: a pretest and a posttest, analytical scale for assessing students' papers, and two questionnaires which intend to collect information about the students' background, writing experience, and their attitudes towards strategies use. The next chapter reports the findings obtained from the research tools in tables and graphs as will be shown below.

**CHAPTER FIVE:**  
**PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS**

## CHAPTER FIVE: PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

### **Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to present the results of the experiment. First, statistical analyses of the results of the pre- and post test are reported in order to confirm or invalidate the hypotheses of this research. First, the scores of the pretest and the post test are presented in tables as shown below. The descriptive statistics of the pretest and post test are also presented in tables. In addition, the results of the analytical scale for assessing students' organization are also reported and compared in order to see if any improvement happened in students' composition organization after the treatment. The second part of this chapter reports the results of the questionnaires that seek to gather information about the background in which the experiment takes place, the needs of the students and their perception about the effectiveness of the strategies taught to them. The data collected from the two questionnaires are presented in tables and graphs.

### **5- Presentation of the Quantitative Data**

The quantitative data have been used to establish the relationship between strategies instruction and the student's writing performance.

#### **5-1 -The Statistical Analyses of the Pretest**

##### **5-1 -1 Results of the Pretest Using an Analytic Scale**

## CHAPTER FIVE: PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

Pretest Experiment							Pretest Control						
		Aspect							Aspect				
Student/ Marks	Cont ent/6	Organiz ation/4	Vocabu lary/4	Langu age /5	Mecha nics/1	Stude nt	Marks	Cont ent/ 6	Organiz ation/4	Vocab ulary/4	Langu age/5	Mecha nics/1	
1E	9	2.5	2	2	2	0.5	1C	8.5	2	2	2	2	0.5
2E	11	3	2.5	3	2	0.5	2C	13	4	3	2.5	3	0.5
3E	10	3	2	2	2	0.5	3C	11	4	2	2	2	1
4E	12	3	2.5	3	2.5	1	4C	10	3	2	2	2	1
5E	7	2	1	2	1.5	0.5	5C	11.5	3	3	2	2	1
6E	10	2	2.5	2	2	0.5	6C	7.5	2	1	2	2	0.5
7E	13	4	2	3	3	1	7C	9	2	2	2.5	2	0.5
8E	8.5	2	2	2	2	0.5	8C	10	3	2	2	2.5	0.5
9E	7.5	2	1	2	2	0.5	9C	10	3	2	2	2	0.5
10E	7.5	2	1	2	2	0.5	10C	8	2.5	1	2	2	0.5
11E	12	2.5	3	2	3	1	11C	8.5	2.5	1	2	2	1
12E	6	1	1	1.5	2	0.5	12C	6.5	2	1	2	1	0.5
13E	9	2	2	2	2	1	13C	9	2.5	1.5	2	2	1
14E	10	3	2	2	2	1	14C	8.5	2	2	2	2	0.5
15E	14	4	3	3	3	1	15C	9	2.5	1	2.5	2.5	0.5
16E	13	3	3	2	3	1	16C	9	2	2	2	2	1
17E	8	2	2	2	1.5	0.5	17C	9.5	3	2	2	2	0.5
18E	12	3	3	2	2.5	1	18C	9	2	2	2	2	1
19E	7	2	1	2	1.5	0.5	19C	12.5	3.5	3	2	3	1
20E	11	3	2	2	3	1	20C	8	2.5	1	2	2	1
21E	9	2	2	2	2	1	21C	9	3	2	2.5	2	1
22E	10.5	3	3	2	2	0.5	22C	10.5	3	2	2	3	1
23E	8	2	1.5	2	2	0.5	23C	11	3	2	2	3	1
24E	11.5	3	3	2	2.5	1	24C	11	2.5	2	2.5	2	1
25E	10	3	2	2	2	1	25C	9	2.5	1	2.5	2	1
26E	7	2	1	2	2	0.5	26C	9	2.5	2	2	2	0.5
27E	11	4	2	2	2	1	27C	7.5	2	1	2	2	0.5
28E	7	2	1.5	1	2	0.5	28C	11	3	1.5	2	3	1
29E	10	3	2	2	2	1	29C	11	3	2	2	3	1
30E	7	2.5	1	2	1	0.5	30C	12	3	3	2	3	1
31E	11.5	3	3	2	2	1	31C	7.5	2	1	2	2	0.5
32E	12	3	2	3	3	1	32C	11	2.5	2.5	2	2.5	0.5
33E	11	3	2	2	3	1	33C	13	4	3	2	3	1
34E	10	2	2	2.5	2	0.5	34C	10	3.5	1.5	2	2	1

<b>35E</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>35C</b>	<b>9.5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>36E</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>36C</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>37E</b>	<b>8.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>37C</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>38E</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>38C</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>39E</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>39C</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>40E</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>40C</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>41E</b>	<b>12.5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>41C</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>42E</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>42C</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>43E</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>43C</b>	<b>8.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>44E</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>44C</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>45E</b>	<b>11.5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>45C</b>	<b>7.5</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>46E</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>46C</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>47E</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>47C</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>48E</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>48C</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>49E</b>	<b>13.5</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>49C</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>1</b>

**Table5- 1: The results of the pre-test of the experimental and the control group using an analytic scale**

The aim of this pre-test is two folds. First, to assure a validity of the experiment by assuring an equal variance of pretest of the experimental and the control group; meaning that, the two groups involved in the experiment should have the same characteristics that make the results of the experiment more reliable. Second, it aims to compare the results with the results of the post test.

To compare students' writing performance, the variance ( $s^2$ ) of both groups should be calculated then compared;  $se^2$  and the  $sc^2$  should be about the same:  $se^2 \approx sc^2$

The calculations displayed below show how the variance has been calculated to ensure validity to the experiment:

**5-1-2 Descriptive statistics of the Pretest for the Experimental and Control Groups**

**5-1-2-1 Calculating the Deviation of the Pretest for the Experimental and Control Group.**

	Experimental group			control group		
N	Xe	De	De <sup>2</sup>	Xc	Dc	Dc <sup>2</sup>
1	9	-0.88	0.77	8.5	-1.26	1.58
2	11	1.12	1.25	13	3.24	10.49
3	10	0.12	0.014	11	1.24	1.53
4	12	2.12	4.49	10	0.24	0.057
5	7	-2.88	8.29	11.5	1.74	3.02
6	10	0.12	0.014	7.5	-2.26	5.10
7	13	3.12	9.73	9	-0.76	0.57
8	8.5	-1.38	1.90	10	0.24	0.057
9	7.5	-2.38	5.66	10	0.24	0.057
10	7.5	-2.38	5.66	8	-1.76	3.09
11	12	2.12	4.49	8.5	-1.26	1.58
12	6	-3.88	15.05	6.5	-3.26	10.62
13	9	-0.88	0.77	9	-0.76	0.57
14	10	0.12	0.014	8.5	-1.26	1.58
15	14	4.12	16.97	9	-0.76	0.57
16	13	3.12	9.73	9	-0.76	0.57
17	8	-1.88	3.53	9.5	-0.26	0.067
18	12	2.12	4.49	9	-0.76	0.57
19	7	-2.88	8.29	12.5	2.74	7.50
20	11	1.12	1.25	8	-1.76	3.09
21	9	-0.88	0.77	9	-0.76	0.57
22	10.5	0.62	0.38	10.5	0.74	0.54
23	8	-1.88	3.53	11	1.24	1.53
24	11.5	1.62	2.62	11	1.24	1.53
25	10	0.12	0.014	9	-0.76	0.57
26	7	-2.88	8.29	9	-0.76	0.57
27	11	1.12	1.25	7.5	-2.26	5.10
28	7	-2.88	8.29	11	1.24	1.53
29	10	0.12	0.014	11	1.24	1.53

30	7	-2.88	8.29	12	2.24	5.01
31	11.5	1.62	2.62	7.5	-2.26	5.10
32	14	4.12	16.97	11	1.24	1.53
33	11	1.12	1.25	13	3.24	10.49
34	10	0.12	0.014	10	0.24	0.057
35	7	-2.88	8.29	9.5	-0.26	0.067
36	8	-1.88	3.53	11	1.24	1.53
37	8.5	-1.38	1.90	8	-1.76	3.09
38	11	1.12	1.25	8	-1.76	3.09
39	9	-0.88	0.77	10	0.24	0.057
40	12	2.12	4.49	10	0.24	0.057
41	12.5	2.62	6.86	14	4.24	17.97
42	14	4.12	16.97	9	-0.76	0.57
43	6.5	-3.39	11.42	8.5	-1.26	1.58
44	10	0.12	0.014	14	4.24	17.97
45	11.5	1.62	2.62	7.5	-2.26	5.10
46	9	-0.88	0.77	14	4.24	17.97
47	9	-0.88	0.77	6.5	-3.26	10.62
48	8	-1.88	3.53	8	-1.76	3.09
49	13.5	3.62	13.10	10	0.24	0.057
	$\sum Xe =$	$\sum De =$	$\sum De^2 =$	$\sum Xc =$	$\sum Dc =$	$\sum Dc^2 =$
	484.5	0.38	232.90	478.5	0.26	171.21

**Table 5. 2 : - Deviation of the experimental and control pretest group**

- **N= number of the students**
- **X the scores of each student**
- **$D = X - \bar{X}$**
- **Dc =the deviation for the control group**
- **De= the deviation for the experimental group**

- $\sum X$  = the sum of scores
- $\sum D$  = the sum of the deviation
- $\sum D^2$  = the sum of deviation squared
- $\bar{X}$  is the mean
- $\bar{X}$  = the mean of the scores
- $s^2$  = the variance
- SD = standard deviation

5-2-1- 2 Calculating the means for the pretest experimental and control group.

$$\bar{X}_e = \frac{\sum X_e}{N} \quad \bar{X}_e = 9.88$$

$$\bar{X}_c = \frac{\sum X_c}{N} \quad \bar{X}_c = 9.76$$

IV-2-3 calculating the variance

$$\text{variance } s^2 = \frac{\sum D^2}{N} = \frac{171.21}{49} = 3.49$$

IV-2-3 Calculating the SD the standard deviation of the pretest of the experimental and control group

$$\text{sd} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}{N}}$$

IV-2-3-1 - calculating the standard deviation of the experimental group

$$\text{Sd e} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X_e - \bar{X}_e)^2}{N}} = \sqrt{s_e^2} \sqrt{4.75} = 2.18$$

IV-2-3-2- calculating the standard deviation of the control group

$$\text{standard deviation} = \sqrt{s_c^2} \sqrt{3.49} = 1.8$$

**The table below summarises the descriptive statistics of the pretest**

The variable	number of students N	Sum of scores $\sum X$	The mean $\bar{X} = \sum X / N$	The sum of the deviation $\sum D$	The sum of The squared $\sum D^2$	The variance $s^2$	The standard deviation SD
<b>Pretest experimental group</b>	49	484.5	9.88	0.38	232.90	4.75	2.18
<b>Pretest control group</b>	49	478.5	9.76	0.72	174.44	3.49	1.86

**Table 5.3 : Descriptive Statistics of the Pre-test**

The results show that the means of the two groups in the pretest are about the same as well as the standard deviation is about the same which means that the two groups have the same characteristics.

**Table below shows the percentage of scores in organization for experimental and control group in the pretest**

	Scores in organization	1/4	1.5/4	2/4	2.5/4	3/4	4/4
<b>Experimental group</b>	<b>Number of the students</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>0</b>
	<b>percentage</b>	<b>20.40%</b>	<b>4.08%</b>	<b>51.02%</b>	<b>6.12%</b>	<b>18.36%</b>	<b>0%</b>
<b>Control group</b>	<b>Number of the students</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>0</b>
	<b>percentage</b>	<b>22.44%</b>	<b>8.16%</b>	<b>48.97%</b>	<b>4.08%</b>	<b>16.32%</b>	<b>0%</b>

**Table 5.4: Students' Organization Scores in the Pretest**

The table shows the percentage of students with their relative scores in organization in the pretest. The table shows that the percentage of students in relation to their scores in organization taken from the analytical scale in both groups is nearly the same for the experimental and the control group. These scores will be compared to the scores in the post test to see whether students scored higher or lower after the treatment.

**5 - 2 -The Statistical Analyses of the Post Test for the Experimental and Control Group**

**IV-2-1 Results of Post Test for the Experimental and the Control Group**

Pretest Experiment							Pretest Control						
Student/ Marks	Con/6	Org/4	Voc/4	LS/5	Mc/1	Stud ent	Student/ Marks	Con/6	Org/4	Voc/4	L/5	Mc/1	
1E	10	2.5	3	2	2	0.5	1C	9	2.5	2	2	2	0.5
2E	14	3	4	3	3	1	2C	11	3	2	2	3	1
3E	13	3	3	3	3	1	3C	10	2	2.5	2	2	1
4E	10	2	2	2.5	2.5	1	4C	11	2.5	2.5	2	2	1
5E	13	3	4	2	3	1	5C	13	3	3	3	3	1
6E	15	3.5	4	3	3	1	6C	8	2	2	1.5	2	0.5
7E	11	3	3.5	2	2	0.5	7C	9	2	2.5	2	2	0.5
8E	7	2	1.5	2	1	0.5	8C	11	3	3	2	2	1
9E	12	3	3.5	2.5	2.5	0.5	9C	12	3	3	2	2	1
10E	10	2	3	2	2	0.5	10C	13	3	4	3	3	1
11E	16	4	4	3.5	3.5	1	11C	11	3	3	2	2.5	0.5
12E	13	3	4	2.5	3	0.5	12C	10	2	3	2	2	1
13E	12	3	4	2	2	1	13C	11	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	1
14E	10	2.5	3	2	2	0.5	14C	8	2	1.5	2	2	0.5
15E	15	4	4	3	3	1	15C	9	2.5	2	2	2	0.5
16E	13	2	4	3	3	1	16C	11	3	3	2	2	1

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17E	<b>11</b>	2.5	<b>3</b>	3	2	0.5	<b>17C</b>	11	3	<b>3</b>	2	2.5	0.5
18E	<b>9</b>	2	<b>3</b>	2	1.5	0.5	<b>18C</b>	9	2	<b>2</b>	2	2	1
19E	<b>10</b>	2	<b>3</b>	2	2	0.5	<b>19C</b>	13	3	<b>3</b>	3	3	1
20E	<b>11</b>	3	<b>2</b>	3	2.5	0.5	<b>20C</b>	9	2	<b>2</b>	2	2	1
21E	<b>14</b>	3	<b>4</b>	3	3	1	<b>21C</b>	11	3	<b>3</b>	2	2	1
22E	<b>8</b>	1.5	<b>3</b>	2	1	0.5	<b>22C</b>	10	2	<b>2</b>	2	3	1
23E	<b>12</b>	3	<b>4</b>	2	3	1	<b>23C</b>	8	2	<b>1</b>	2	2	1
24E	<b>12</b>	3.5	<b>4</b>	2	2	0.5	<b>24C</b>	12	3	<b>3</b>	2	3	1
25E	<b>14</b>	3	<b>4</b>	2.5	3.5	1	<b>25C</b>	9	2	<b>2</b>	2	2	1
26E	<b>11</b>	3	<b>3</b>	2	2.5	0.5	<b>26C</b>	9	2	<b>2</b>	2	2	1
27E	<b>10</b>	2.5	<b>3</b>	2	2	0.5	<b>27C</b>	7	1.5	<b>1</b>	2	2	1
28E	<b>8.5</b>	2	<b>2</b>	2	2	0.5	<b>28C</b>	12	3	<b>3.5</b>	2	2.5	1
29E	<b>10</b>	2	<b>3.5</b>	2	2	0.5	<b>29C</b>	13	3	<b>3</b>	3	3	1
30E	<b>14</b>	3.5	<b>4</b>	3	3	0.5	<b>30C</b>	10	2.5	<b>2</b>	2	2.5	1
31E	<b>10</b>	2	<b>3.5</b>	2	2	0.5	<b>31C</b>	8	2	<b>2</b>	1	2	0.5
32E	<b>16</b>	4	<b>4</b>	4	3	1	<b>32C</b>	8.5	2	<b>2</b>	2	2	0.5
33E	<b>14</b>	3.5	<b>4</b>	3	3	1	<b>33C</b>	12	3	<b>3</b>	3	2	1
34E	<b>7</b>	1.5	<b>2</b>	2	1	0.5	<b>34C</b>	10.5	2.5	<b>2</b>	2	3	1
35E	<b>11</b>	2.5	<b>3</b>	2	2.5	1	<b>35C</b>	12	3	<b>3</b>	2	3	1
36E	<b>7</b>	1.5	<b>2.5</b>	1.5	1	0.5	<b>36C</b>	12	3	<b>3</b>	2	3	1
37E	<b>12</b>	2.5	<b>4</b>	2	2.5	1	<b>37C</b>	10	2.5	<b>2</b>	2.5	3	1
38E	<b>13</b>	2	<b>4</b>	3	3	1	<b>38C</b>	7	2	<b>2</b>	1.5	1	0.5
39E	<b>6.5</b>	2	<b>1</b>	1.5	1	0.5	<b>39C</b>	12	3	<b>3</b>	2	3	1
40E	<b>12</b>	2	<b>4</b>	2	3	1	<b>40C</b>	8	2	<b>2</b>	1.5	2	0.5
41E	<b>13</b>	3	<b>4</b>	2	3	1	<b>41C</b>	14	3	<b>4</b>	3	3	1
42E	<b>15</b>	4	<b>4</b>	3	3	1	<b>42C</b>	8	2	<b>1</b>	2	1	0.5
43E	<b>8</b>	2	<b>1</b>	2	2	1	<b>43C</b>	10	2	<b>3</b>	2	2	1
44E	<b>8</b>	2	<b>2</b>	2	1.5	0.5	<b>44C</b>	10	3	<b>2</b>	2	2	1
45E	<b>12</b>	12	<b>3</b>	4	2	1	<b>45C</b>	12	3	<b>3</b>	2	3	1
46E	<b>9.5</b>	2	<b>3</b>	2	2	0.5	<b>46C</b>	13	3	<b>4</b>	2	3	1
47E	<b>7</b>	1.5	<b>1.5</b>	2	1.5	0.5	<b>47C</b>	10	2.5	<b>2</b>	2	2.5	1
48E	<b>13</b>	3	<b>4</b>	3	2.5	0.5	<b>48C</b>	12	3	<b>3.5</b>	2	2.5	1
49E	<b>13.5</b>	13	<b>4</b>	3	3	0.5	<b>49C</b>	12	3	<b>2.5</b>	2.5	3	1

**Table 5. 5: Results of the posttest for the experimental and control group**

**5-2 Hypotheses Testing. ( t- test)**

The variable	number of students N	Sum of scores $\sum X$	The mean $\bar{X} = \sum X / N$	The variance	The standard deviation
Posttest experimental group	49	524	11.39	6.60	2.57
posttest control group	49	493	10.45	3.27	1.81

**Table 5.6: Hypotheses testing**

The results in table IV. 6 bring about the following:

**1- Comparing the means of the experimental and control group**

$$\bar{X}_e - \bar{X}_c = 11.39 - 10.45 = 0.94 \quad \text{thus the null hypothesis is rejected}$$

$$\bar{X}_e > \bar{X}_c$$

$$11.39 > 10.45$$

Because the mean of the experimental group is greater than the mean of the control group, thus the null hypothesis is rejected and only the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

**2- Compare the observed ( $t_{obs}$ ) and critical Statistic ( $t_{crit}$ )**

Calculating the observed statistics ( t- value)

$$t_{obs} = \frac{|\bar{X}_e - \bar{X}_c|}{\sqrt{\frac{se^2}{n} + \frac{sc^2}{n}}} = \frac{0.98}{\sqrt{0.13 + 0.066}} = \frac{0.98}{\sqrt{0.19}} = \frac{0.98}{0.44} = 2.22$$

The result show that the  $t_{obs}$  (or the t- value) is greater than the critical statistic  $t_{crit}$  (or the critical value)

$$t_{obs} > t_{crit} \quad 2.22 > 1.65$$

Since the  $t_{obs}$  is greater than the Critical value, thus, positive relation exist between the two variables. Thus the statistics show that the strategies instruction has a **positive effect** on students' writing performance.

Table below shows the percentage of scores in organization for experimental and control group in the posttest

	Scores	1/4	1.5/4	2/4	2.5/4	3/4	3.5	4/4
	in organization		4					
Experimental group	<b>Number of the students</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>22</b>
	<b>percent</b>	<b>4.08</b>	<b>4.08</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>2.04</b>	<b>26.5</b>	<b>8.16</b>	<b>44.8</b>
	<b>age</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>0%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>3%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>9%</b>
Control group	<b>Number of the students</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
	<b>percent</b>	<b>4.08</b>	<b>2.04</b>	<b>38.7</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>34.6</b>	<b>4.08</b>	<b>6.12</b>
	<b>age</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>7%</b>	<b>0%</b>	<b>9%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>

**Table 5. 7: Students' Scores of Organization in the pretest**

The results in table 7 show great improvement in the students' scores in organization for the experimental group.44.89% scored 4/4 in organization. Also 26.53% scored 3/4 in the same group. An improvement also in organization for students of the control group where 34.69% of the students scored 3/4 . and 38.77% of the same group scored 2/4.

## 5-2 – PRESENTATION OF QUESTIONNAIRES RESULTS

The aim of this section is to present the results of data collected through questionnaires. Both questionnaires I and Questionnaire II results were presented to be discussed in the following chapter.

### 5 –2- 1-Questionnaire Results

Two questionnaires were distributed to the students from the experimental group. The first questionnaire was distributed before the treatment while the other one was distributed after the treatment.

#### 5- 1-1Questionnaire I

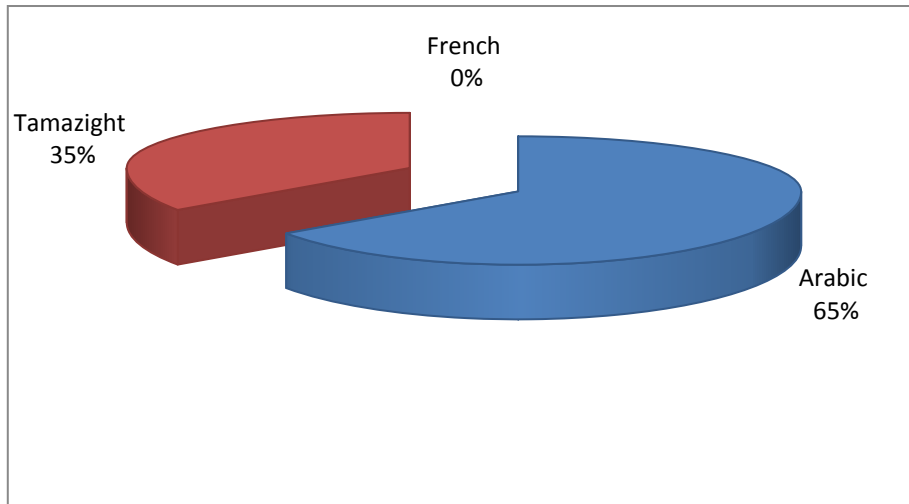
The aim of the first questionnaire is to consider the background, the needs and the strategies used by the Algerian students to explain the source of difficulties of their English writing performance. The results are interpreted with regard to the main problem of the present research that is to say, in order to provide more clarification to the issue and to bring about effective solutions to the problem.

#### Section one: General questions

**1<sup>st</sup> question: what is your mother tongue?**

Response	Number of students	percentage
<b>Arabic</b>	32	65.30
<b>Tamazight</b>	17	34.69
<b>French</b>	0	0%

**Table 5. 8 : Students Mother Tongue**



**Figure 5.1. Students' Mother Tongue**

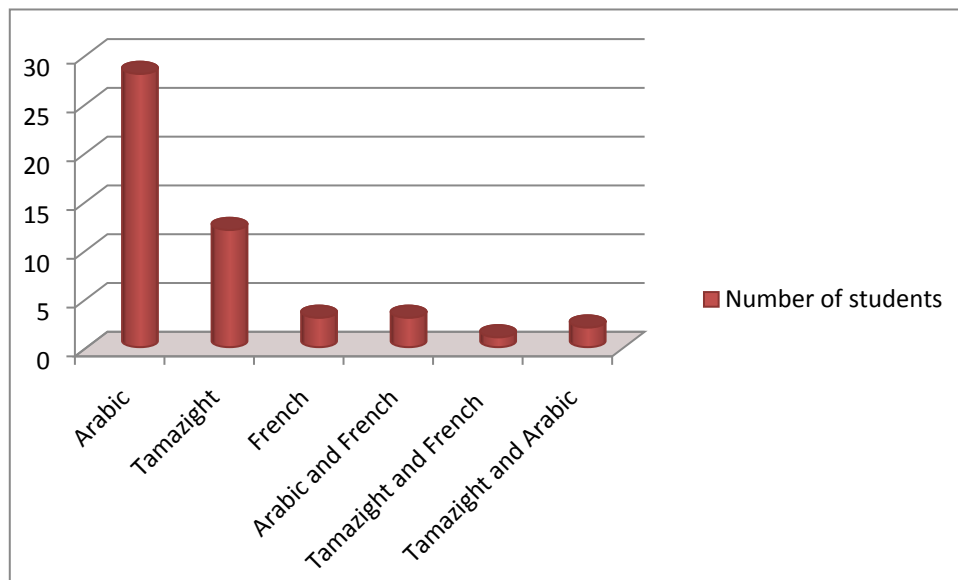
The result in the table 1 shows that 65.30 % of the students' mother tongue is Arabic, 34.69% is Tamazight while 0% is French.

The results in table 1 reflect the multilingual context of the study. The Algerian ENSB students who come from different regions, therefore different backgrounds are multilingual or at least bilingual. These students whose first language varies from Arabic to Tamazight to French consider English as the third or the fourth language. Though French is not stated here as mother tongue, it is omnipresent in the linguistic landscape via Television, internet, newspapers and students use it in their everyday life as shown in the following question the fact that consolidate the idea of the multilingualism of the Algerian society. Thus, these factors may affect students writing performance in English in terms of organization, the strategies they use, and in their sentence structure as it is going to be shown as we proceed further in this questionnaire.

**2<sup>nd</sup> question: what is the language you use most often in your everyday life?**

Response	Number of students	percentage
<b>Arabic</b>	28	59.18
<b>Tamazight</b>	12	24.48
<b>French</b>	3	6.12
<b>Arabic and French</b>	3	6.12
<b>Tamazight and French</b>	1	2.04
<b>Tamazight and Arabic</b>	2	4.08

**Table 5. 9: students' everyday language use**



**Figure 5. 2: Students' Everyday Language Use**

The results displayed in this table show that students use various language in their everyday life. The result show that 59.18% of the students use Arabic in their everyday life. 24.48% of the students use Tamazight. 6.12% of the students use French. The results show that variety of languages used by the students in the Algerian society. The table also shows that these students use at least two languages in their everyday life such as Arabic and French, Tamazight and French, or Tamazight and Arabic. In fact, this question was asked to show that the Algerian context is a multilingual

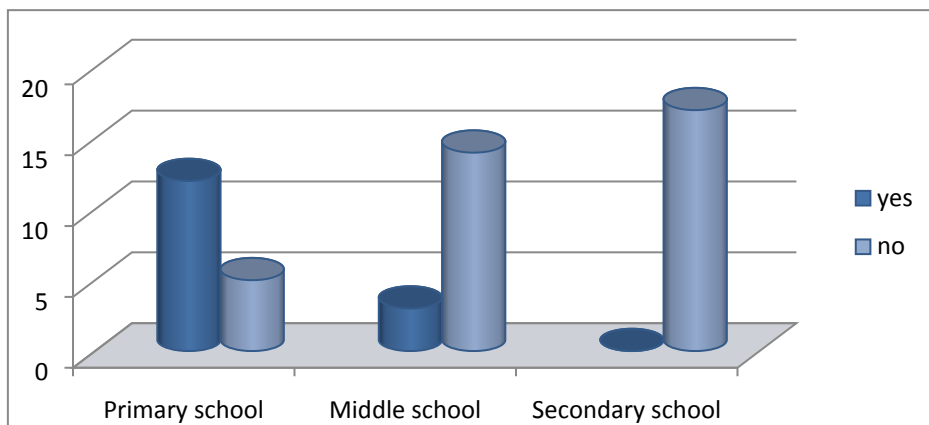
Students who answered 2 and 3 in the first question go to the third question.

**3<sup>rd</sup> question: Did your teacher use another language than Arabic to explain the content of the program that is designed in Arabic? i.e the teacher translates into Tamazight or French to explain to her students a content designed in Arabic.**

Please specify the language the teachers used to explain?

The response	Primary school	Middle school	Secondary school
yes	12	3	0
no	5	14	17

**Table 5. 10: the disparity between the language of instruction and teachers language use for explanation**



**Figure 5. 3: The Disparity between the Language of Instruction and Teachers Language Use for Explanation**

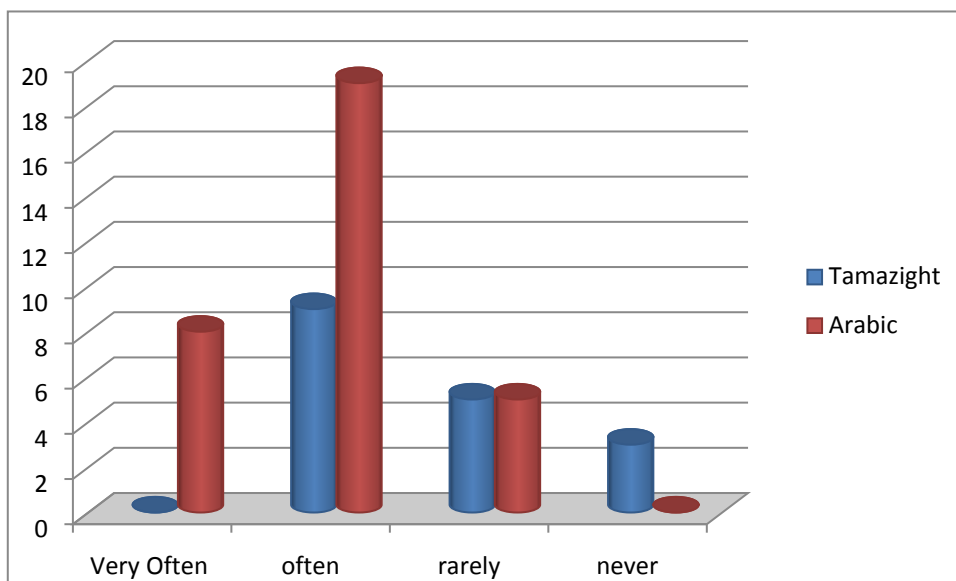
The question N 3 was mainly designed for the students who come from the Berber Area and whose mother tongue is not Arabic. The aim of this question is to show the disparity between the language of instruction and the actual language the teacher use to explain the lesson and which may have some effects on students learning of foreign languages. In fact, teachers resort to use another language, either Tamazight or French to facilitate pupils' comprehension of the content of the academic language since many

students in these areas consider the Arabic language as a new language as long as it is not used in their everyday life. The table also shows that this attitude is mainly used in the primary school because it is the level where students start learning Arabic, then it reduces in the middle school till it will be avoided in the secondary school where the students have more control over the Arabic language. This attitude of the teachers, translating from the mother tongue to the new language from the early steps at school, may have effect on students learning as they may focus more on translation strategies to learn a new which they transfer when composing in English . In other word, students ‘use of strategies may be inherited from their early years of instruction.

**4<sup>th</sup> Question: Do you write in your mother tongue?**

response	Very Often		often		rarely		never	
Tamazight	0	0%	9	52.94%	5	29.41	3	17.49
Arabic	8	25%	19	59.37%	5	15.62	0	0%

**Table 5. 11. Students’ Use of the Mother Tongue in Writing**



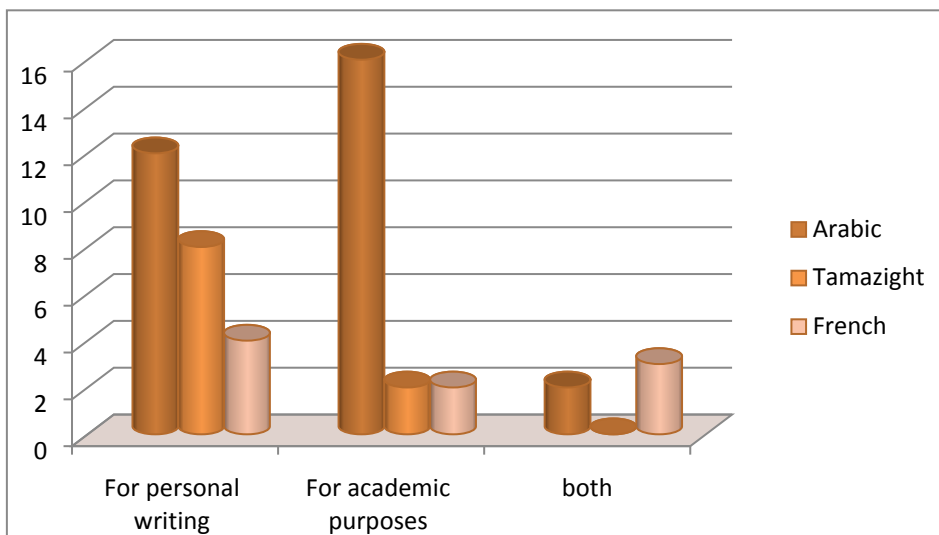
**Figure 5. 4. Students’ Use of the Mother Tongue in Writing**

The table presents the students’ use of their mother tongue in their writing. The results show a difference in the frequency of use from one language to another. From the 17 students whose mother tongue is Tamazight in this study, 52.94 % of them report that they often used to write in Tmazight while 29.41 % say they rarely use it, and 17.49% say never. No student (0%) reports to use it very often. However, students whose mother tongue is Arabic vary in their use from 59.37% who report that they often write in Arabic to 25 % who report they use it very often in their writing.

**5<sup>th</sup> question: please specify the language you use for the following purposes?**

response	For personal writing		For academic purposes		both	
<b>Arabic</b>	12	24.48%	16	32.65%	2	4.08%
<b>Tamazight</b>	8	16.32%	2	4.08%	0	0%
<b>French</b>	4	8.16%	2	4.08%	3	6.12%

**Table 5. 12: The Purpose and the Language Use**



**Table 5. 5: The Purpose and the Language Use**

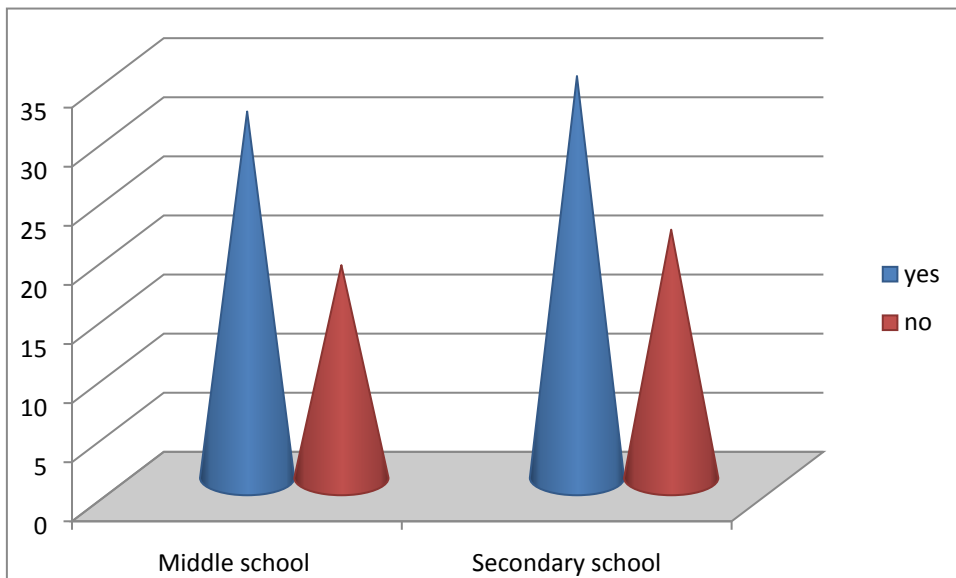
The results in the table 5 show that Arabic language is mostly used for both academic purposes and for pleasure which is referred respectively in the following results 32.65% and 24.48%. Tamazight is mostly used for pleasure as 16.32% reported using it for pleasure and only 2 students report using it for academic purposes. Four students reported using French for pleasure and only two reported using it for academic purposes.

The results from table 4 and 5 show clearly that Arabic is the language used for academic purposes among these students while Tamazight and French are used mainly for personal writing. These results are explained by the fact that neither French nor Tamazight is included in the Curriculum of Teachers Training College.

**6<sup>th</sup> Question: Have you been taught techniques of writing in Arabic language (including the writing process, parts of paragraphs, different genres)?**

response	Middle school		Secondary school	
yes	31	63.26%	34	69.38%
no	18	36.73%	21	42.85%

**Table 5. 13: Students’ awareness of the Arabic writing techniques.**



**Figure 5. 6: Students’ awareness of the Arabic Writing Techniques.**

Table IV.13 shows students’ awareness of the Arabic writing techniques in which 63.26% of the students reported having been taught these techniques in the Middle School while the 36.73 % reported not having been taught these techniques. 69.38% of students reported having been introduced to in Secondary School. 42.85% reported they never did .Among these results, some students reported not being taught these techniques in both levels. The question was asked to seek whether students who learned the techniques of writing in Arabic L1 transfer them when they write in English L2

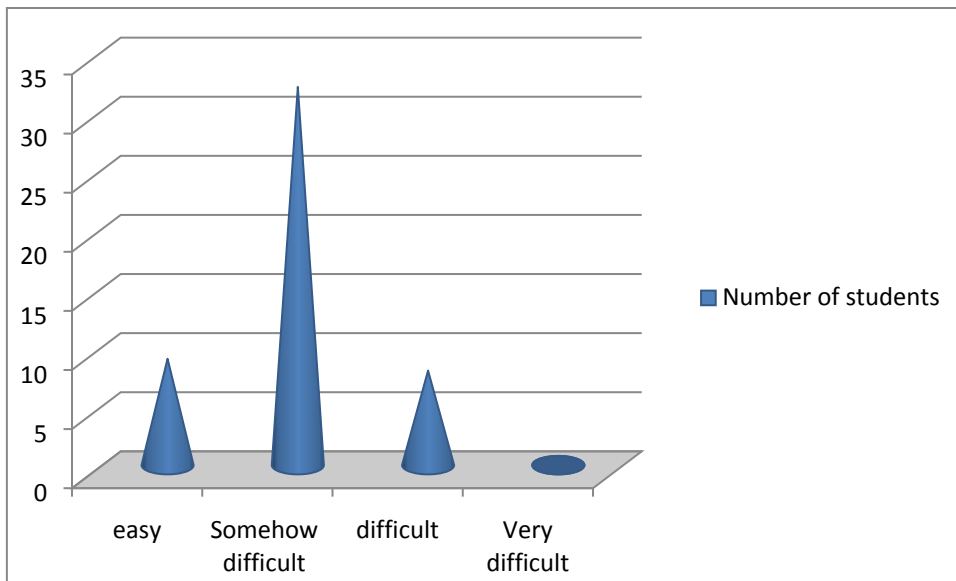
**7<sup>th</sup> question: if no, how did you learn to write compositions to answer exam questions?**

Answers vary: - writing the way they speak - following the general structure of the essay: introduction, body, and conclusion – not following any structure or techniques.

**8th question: how do you find writing in English?**

response	Number of students	Percentage
easy	<b>9</b>	<b>18.63%</b>
Somehow difficult	<b>32</b>	<b>65.30%</b>
difficult	<b>8</b>	<b>16.32%</b>
Very difficult	<b>0</b>	<b>0%</b>

**Table 5.14 : Students’ attitude to English Writing**



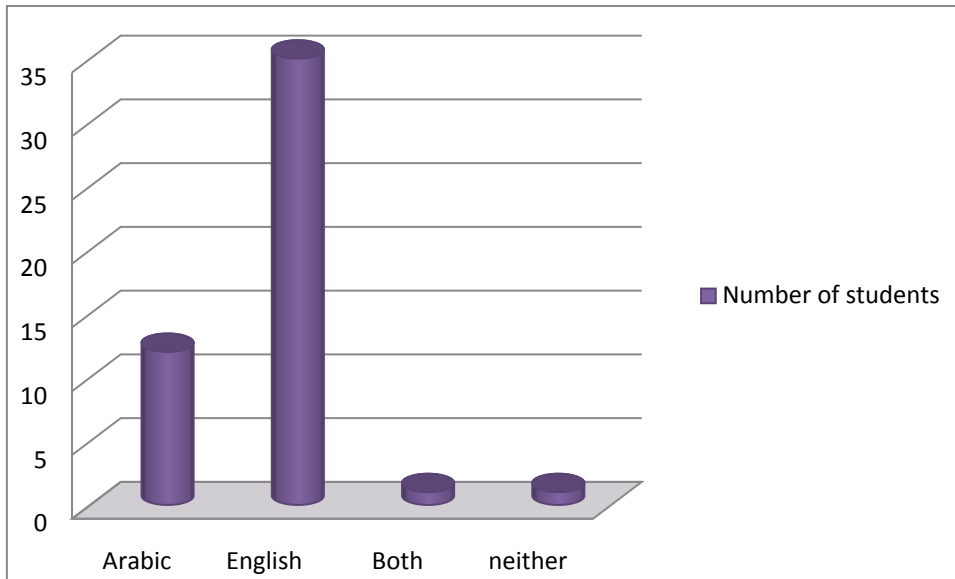
**Figure 5.8 : Students’ attitude to English Writing**

The results in table IV.14 show the attitude to the students towards English writing. 65.30% of the students report that writing in English is somehow difficult, 18.63% find it easy while 16.32% find it difficult.

**9<sup>th</sup> Question: In term of difficulties, in which language do you find more difficulties when writing ?**

response	Number of students	percentage
<b>Arabic</b>	12	24.48%
<b>English</b>	35	71.42%
<b>Both</b>	1	2.04%
<b>neither</b>	1	2.04%

**Table 5.15: Students’ attitudes towards English and Arabic Writing Difficulties**



**Figure 5. 9: Students attitudes towards English and Arabic Writing Difficulties**

Table IV.15 indicates that the majority of the students find writing in English more difficult than in Arabic in a percentage of 71.42%. Only 24.28% students find writing in Arabic more difficult.

**10<sup>th</sup> Question : Explain the reasons behind this difficulties**

**Firs, Students who find difficulties to write in English justify their difficulty to write in English by the following:**

- Lack of vocabulary
- The difficulties producing free-error sentences ; i.e syntax
- Lack of ideas to generate for the suggested topics
- Lack of knowledge of writing techniques; process of writing, patterns of organization
- Difficulties to organize and link ideas ( coherence)
- Lack of exposure to English in everyday life

**Second, Students who find difficulties to write in Arabic justify their difficulty to write in Arabic by the following:**

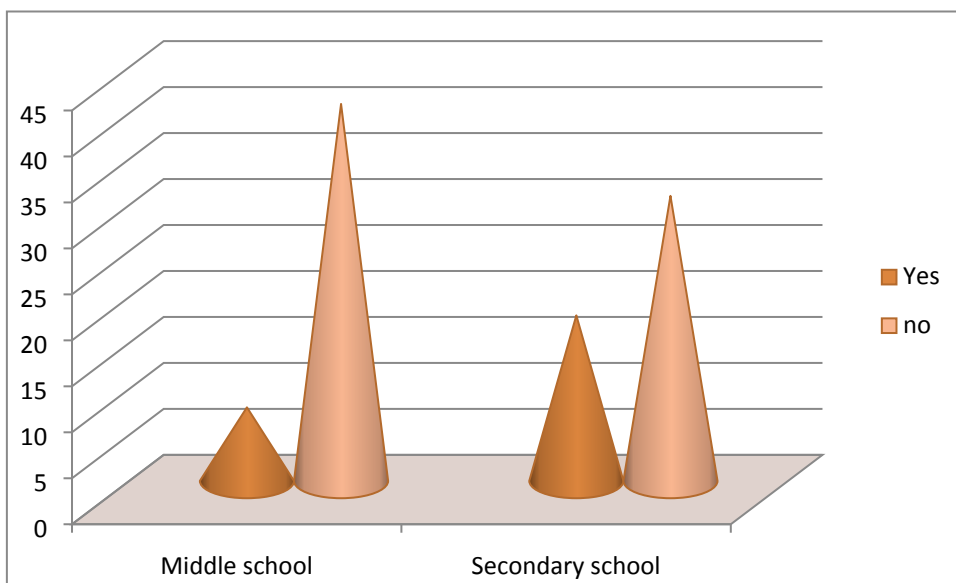
- Lack of exposure to Arabic ; mainly Arabic literature
- Lack of use of Arabic from early age especially at home i.e mother tongue is not Arabic.
- The complexity of Arabic writing
- Being more interested in English
- More exposure to English
- The complexity of Arabic grammar
- Lack of motivation and lack of interest in writing in Arabic

Notice that the students who find difficulties to write in Arabic are mainly those whose mother tongue is not Arabic as seen in question 3 above.

**11<sup>th</sup> Question: Regarding writing instruction, have you been taught techniques in English academic writing?**

Response	Middle school		Secondary school	
<b>Yes</b>	8	16.38%	18	36.76%
<b>no</b>	41	83.67%	31	63.29%

**Table 5. 16: Students’ awareness of the Techniques of English Academic Writing**



**Figure 5.11: Students’ awareness of the Techniques of English Academic Writing**

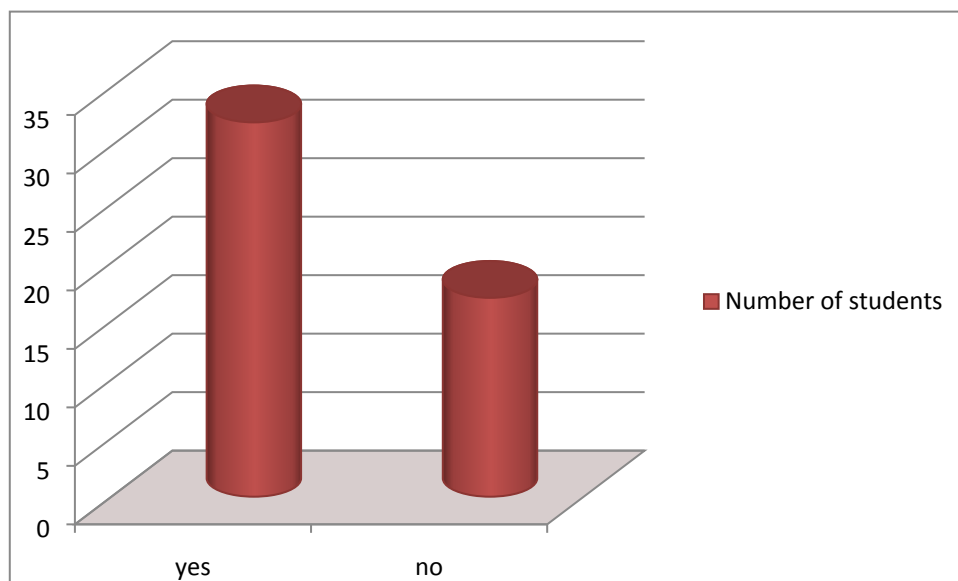
The majority of the students in a percentage of 83.67% report not having been taught the techniques of writing in the Middle School. Similarly, higher percentage of these students i.e 63.29% report not having been taught the techniques of writing in the Secondary School, either.

**12<sup>th</sup> question: do you find difficulties to organize your text when you write in English?**

Response	Number of students	percentage
yes	32	65.30%
no	17	34.69%

**Table 5.17: students’ organization difficulty**

Table 5.17 represents the students’ attitudes to the difficulties related to organizing their writing. The highest percentage of students, represented by 65.30% reported that they find difficulties in organizing their text; while 34.69% reported that they do not find difficulties in organization.



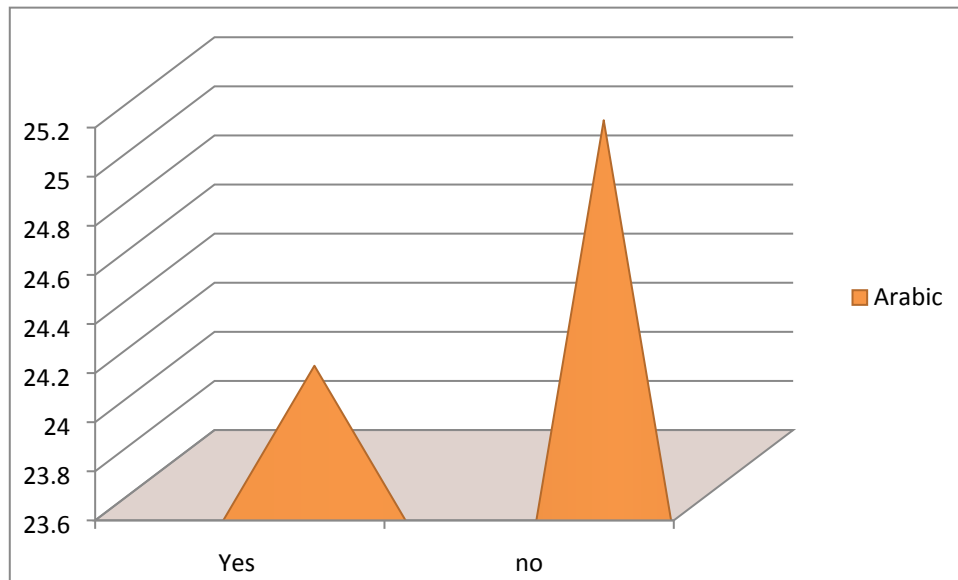
**Figure 5. 12: Students’ Organization Difficulty**

**Section two: Writing Strategies**

**13<sup>th</sup> Question: Have you been taught the different patterns of organization of the argumentative essay for Arabic ?**

Response	Arabic	
Yes	24	49.05%
no	25	50.94%

**Table 5. 18: Students’ Awareness of the Different Patterns of Argumentative Essay for Arabic.**



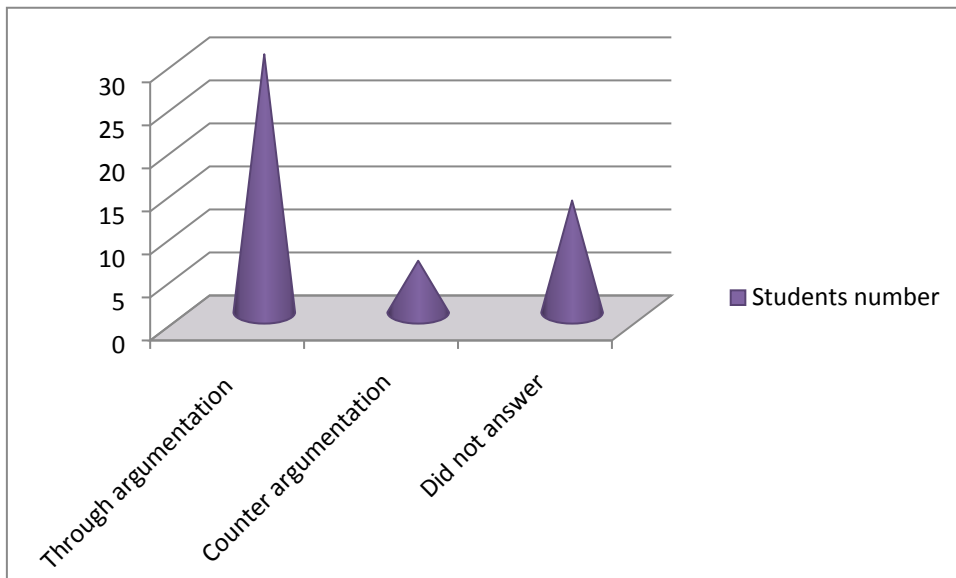
**Figure 5. 11 Students’ awareness of the Different Patterns of Argumentative Essay for Arabic.**

The table IV.18 shows that half of the students reported not having taught the patterns of organization of the Arabic language essay while the other half reported that they have been taught these patterns.

14<sup>th</sup> which form of organization do you use more frequently when writing in Arabic?

Response	Students number	percentage
Through argumentation	30	56.60%
Counter argumentation	6	11.32%
Did not answer	13	32,08

**Table 5. 19: Students’ Preferred Pattern of Organization for Arabic Argumentative Essay**



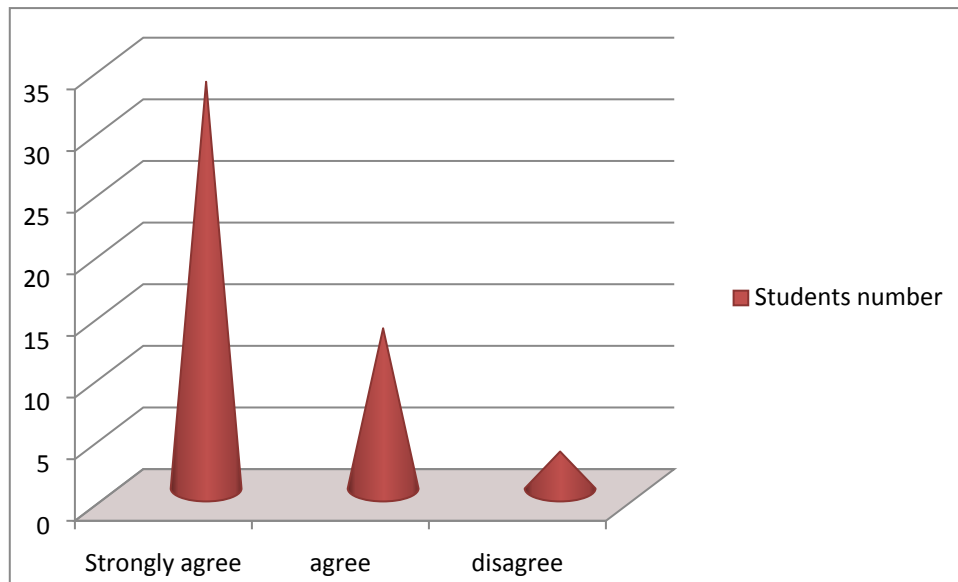
**Figure 5.14: Students’ Preferred Pattern of Organization for Arabic Argumentative essay**

The results in table 5. 19 show that more than half of the students (56.60%) use the through argumentation pattern in their Arabic writing. only 11,32 % students report using the counter argumentation. 33.96% did not answer the question. Students who did not answer this question have already stated earlier that they did not study the writing techniques of Arabic composition neither in secondary school or middle school as shown in question 6 above.

**15<sup>st</sup> question: do you agree that writing is an important skill in learning a foreign language**

response	Students number	percentage
<b>Strongly agree</b>	33	67.34%
<b>agree</b>	13	26.53%
<b>disagree</b>	3	6.12%

**Table 5. 20: Students’ Perception about the Importance of Writing Skill in Learning a Foreign Language**



**Figure 5. 15: Students’ Perception about the Importance of Writing Skill in Learning a Foreign Language**

The majority of students perceive writing as an important skill in learning a foreign language. 67.34% report that they strongly agree on the importance of the writing in learning a foreign language, and 26.53% report they agree. Only 3 students disagree on it.

**16<sup>th</sup> Question: If you chose “agree” or “strongly agree”, what do you usually do to improve your writing?**

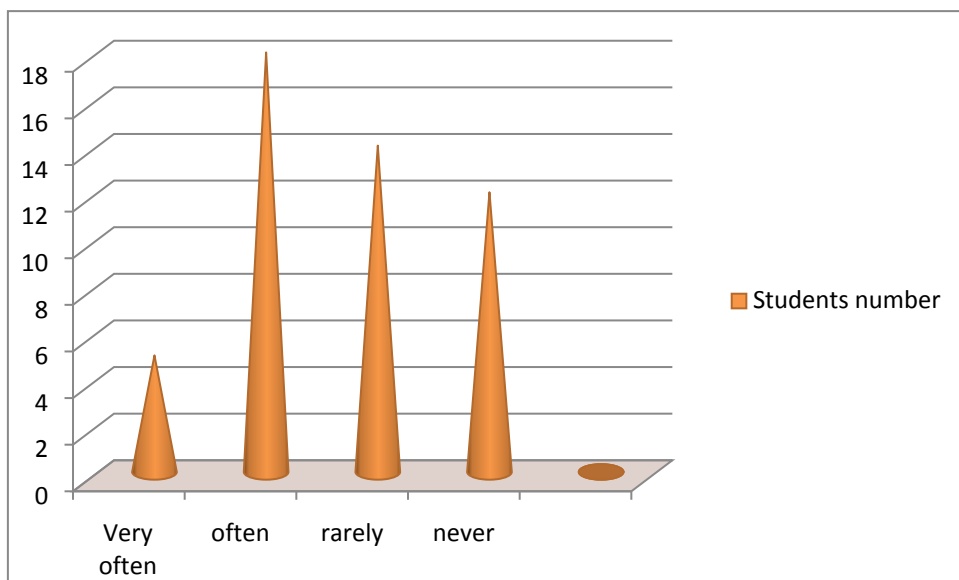
Students responded to this question as follow:

- Reading books, articles, samples of essays
- Watching movies
- Memorizing words
- Writing paragraph, essay, poems, diaries

**17<sup>th</sup> Question: Do you write diaries, letters ...etc in your free time out of class?**

response	Students number	percentage
<b>Very often</b>	5	10.20%
<b>often</b>	18	36.73%
<b>rarely</b>	14	28.57%
<b>never</b>	12	24.48%

**Table 5. 21: Students’ Attitudes to Personal Writing**



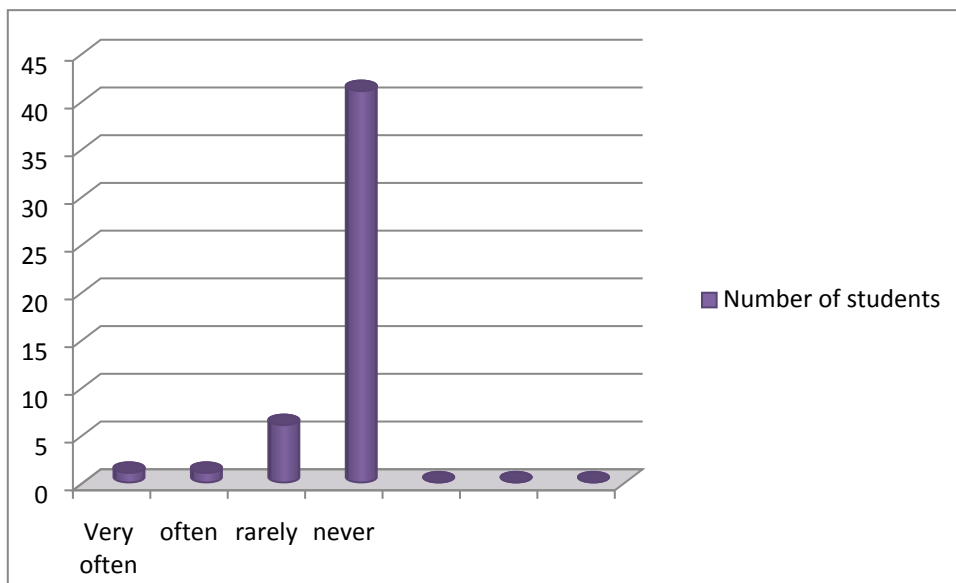
**Figure 5.17: Students’ Attitudes to Personal Writing**

The results about students' attitudes to personal writing vary. We mean by personal writing by the non-academic writing such as diaries, personal letters, short stories, ...etc they write in their free time .Only 10.20% of the students report they very often write personal writing in their free time. 36.73% report they often write, 28.57 % report rarely, and 24.48% report they never write personal writing in their free time.

**18<sup>th</sup> Question: When you are asked to write an essay in English, do you write first in Arabic then you translate to English?**

response	Number of students	percentage
<b>Very often</b>	1	2.04%
<b>often</b>	1	2.04%
<b>rarely</b>	6	12.24%
<b>never</b>	41	83.67%

**Table 5. 22: Students' Use of the Translation Strategy in their Writing**



**Figure 5. 15. Students' Use of the Translation Strategy in their Writing**

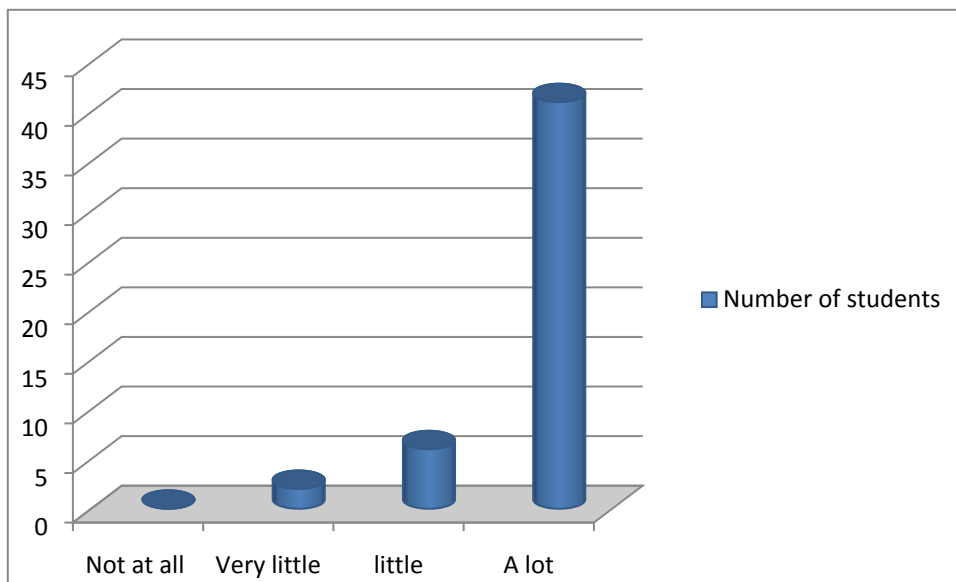
The majority of students represented in a percentage of 83.67% report not translating from Arabic to English when they are asked to write in English. Thus, these students do

not resort to the translation strategy when they write in English. Only 12.24% of the students report that they rarely translate while 1 student states he/she often translates and one another student reports he/she very often translates.

**19<sup>th</sup> Question: According to you, how does reading help you to improve your writing proficiency ?**

Response	Number of students	Percentage
Not at all	0	0%
Very little	2	4.08%
little	6	12.24%
A lot	41	83.67%

**Table 5. 23: Students’ Perception of the Importance of Reading in Improving Writing Proficiency.**



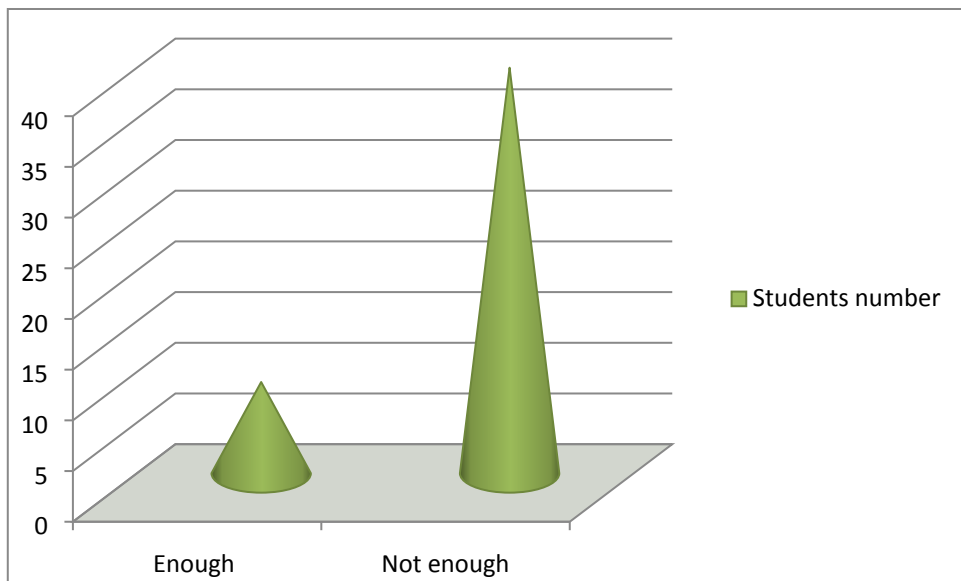
**Figure 5.19: Students’ Perception of the Importance of Reading in Improving Writing Proficiency.**

Table 5.19 represents students’ perception of the importance of reading in improving writing proficiency. The majority of the students represented by 83.67% of the students respond “a lot” for the importance of reading in improving writing proficiency;6 students report “ little” importance , only 2 students report very little, and no student negates the importance of reading in improving writing. This shows a great awareness among the students to the importance of reading in improving students’ writing proficiency.

**20<sup>th</sup> Question: If you chose 4 “a lot”, do you think that it is enough to enable you to write academically acceptable texts?**

response	Students number	percentage
Enough	9	18.36
Not enough	40	81.63%

**Table 5. 24: Learning Versus Acquiring Writing**



**Figure 5.20: Learning Versus Acquiring Writing**

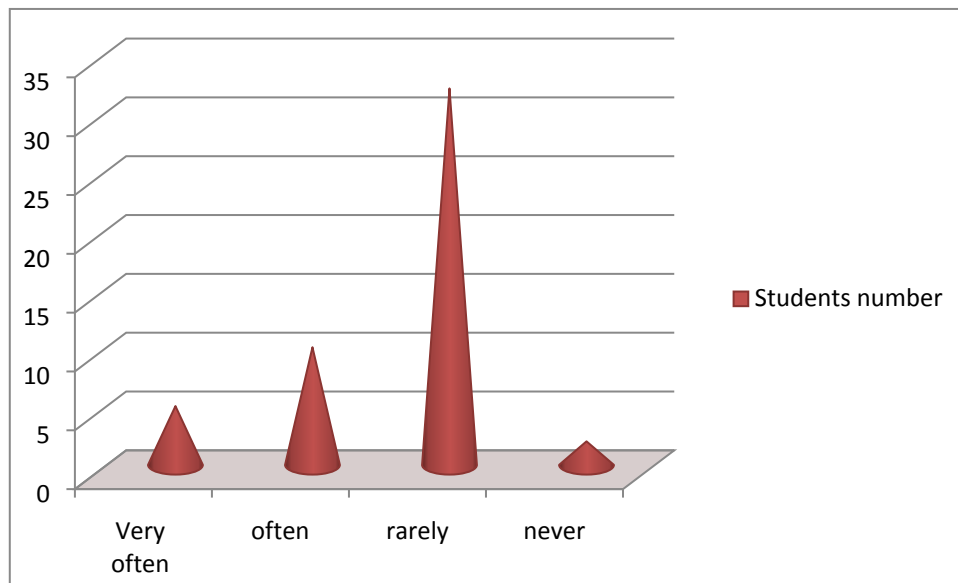
The results show clearly that the majority of students think that it is not enough to base their learning of academic writing only on reading. **81.63%**of the students report that it is not enough to rely on reading only to be able to write academically acceptable texts. Only

18.36 % of the students think that is enough. The results show that students need to be aware of the techniques and the processes included in the writing activity.

**21<sup>st</sup> Question: Do you use outlines when writing?**

Response	Students number	Percentage
Very often	5	10.20 %
often	10	20.40%
rarely	32	65.30%
never	2	4.08 %

**Table 5. 25: Students’ Attitude to Outlining Strategy**



**Figure 5. 21: Students’ Attitude to Outlining Strategy**

Table 5. 25 presents the students attitude to outlining. The majority of the students represented by 65.30 % reported that they rarely use outlining when they write, while 20.40 % of the students reported they often use it. 10.20% reported they very often use outlining. Only 4.08% reported that they never use it .

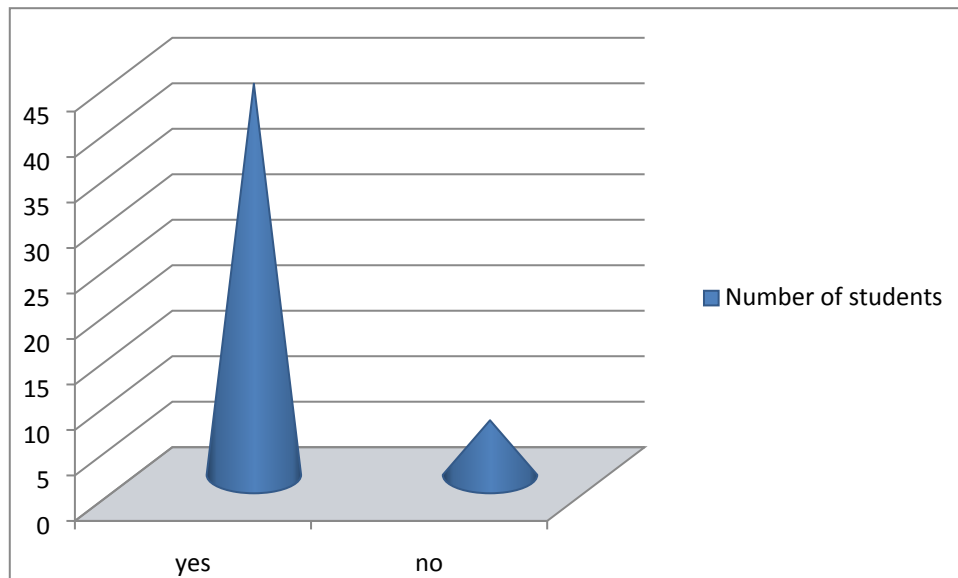
5- 2- Second Questionnaire

The second questionnaire is distributed to find out about the student’s use of the strategies taught in the treatment (i.e the lessons taught to the experimental group regarding strategies) as well as their feedback about the effectiveness of these strategies. The total number of the students of experimental group is 49 students.

**1<sup>st</sup> Question: Did you use outlining strategies in the present composition?**

Response	Number of students	Percentage
yes	43	87.75%
no	6	12.24%

**Table 5. 26: Students’ Use of Outlining Strategy**



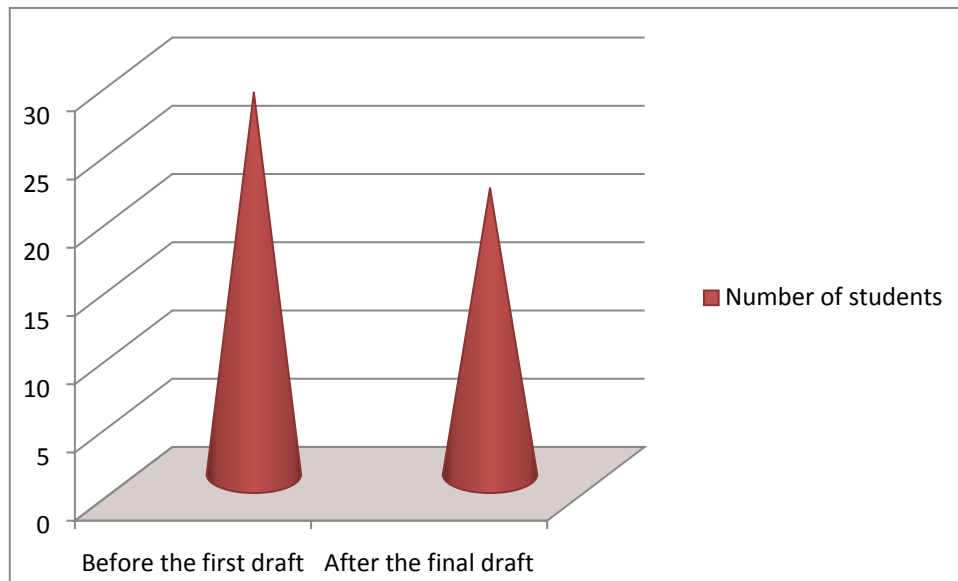
**Figure 5. 22: Students’ Use of Outlining Strategy**

The table 5. 28 presents the results of students’ use of outlining strategy. The majority of students from the experimental group report having used this strategy in their composition. Only few students report not having used this strategy.

**2<sup>nd</sup> question: when did you write your outline?**

response	Number of students	percentage
Before the first draft	28	57.14%
After the final draft	21	42.85%

**Table 5. 27: Students’ Procedure of Outlining Use**



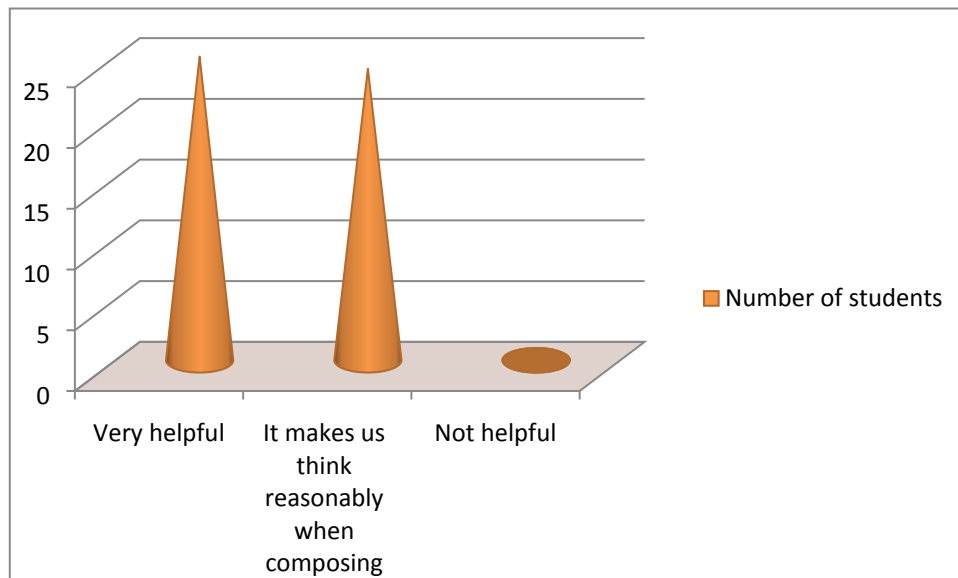
**Figure 5. 22 : Students’ Procedure of Outlining Use**

The results in the table 5. 27 show different attitudes when proceeding the outlining strategy. 57.14% of the students prefer using their outline before their first draft while the other half prefer to write their outline when they finish writing.

**3<sup>rd</sup> Question: How would you evaluate the use of outlining in organizing your composition?**

Response	Number of students	Percentage
Very helpful	25	51.02%
It makes us think reasonably when composing	24	48.97%
Not helpful	0	0%

**Table 5.28: Students’ Evaluation of the Outlining Strategy in Organizing Composition**



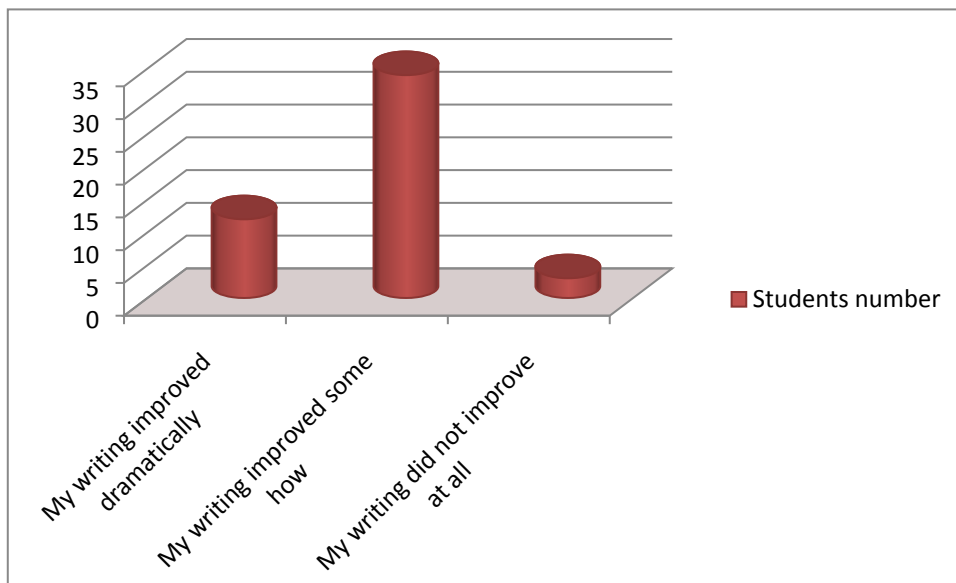
**Figure 5.23: Students’ Evaluation of the Outlining Strategy in Organizing Composition**

The results in table 5.28 show that students hold a positive attitude towards the use of outlining strategy. 51.02% of the students find outlining strategy very helpful and 48.97% of the students find that it makes them think reasonably when composing. No student report that it is not helpful.

**4<sup>th</sup> Question : How did your use of outlining strategy help you to improve your writing ?**

Response	Students number	Percentage
My writing improved tremendously	12	24.48%
My writing improved some how	34	69.38%
My writing did not improve at all	3	6.12%

**Table5.29: Students’ Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Outlining Strategy**



**Figure 5.24: Students’ Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Outlining Strategy**

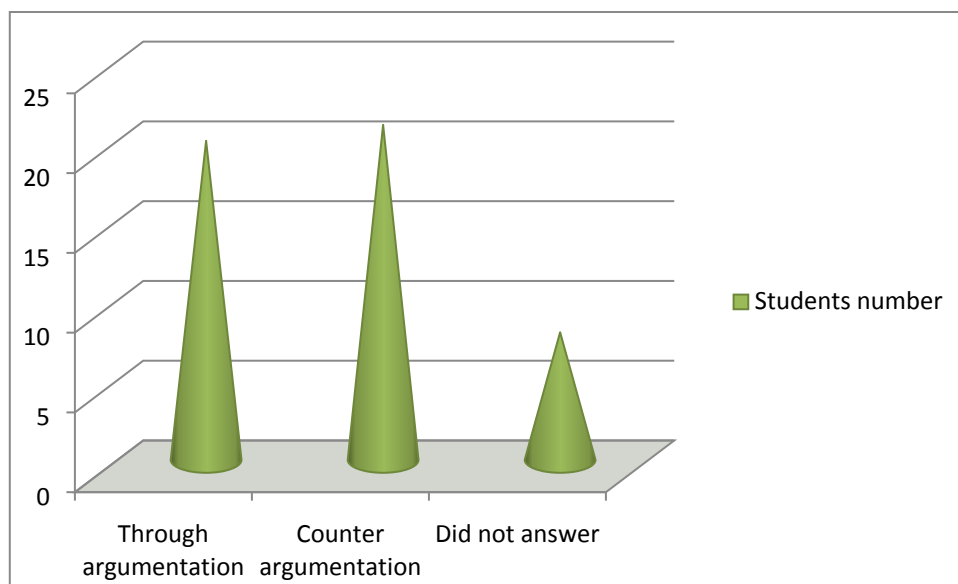
The results in table 5. 29 show that students find that outlining strategy has a positive impact on their writing. 69.38% of the students report that their writing improved somehow. 24.48% report that it improved their writing tremondously. Only 3 students reported not having improved their writing. The variation in the evaluation of the

effectiveness of the outlining strategy seems to be attributed to the main difficulties that the students could meet when writing as shown above in the questionnaire.

**5<sup>th</sup> question: which form of organization do you use more frequently in argumentative essay?**

Response	Students number	Percentage
<b>Through argumentation</b>	20	40.81 %
<b>Counter argumentation</b>	21	42.85%
<b>Did not answer</b>	8	16.32%

**Table 5. 30: students preferred pattern of organization for English argumentative essay**



**Figure 5. 25: Students Preferred Pattern of Organization for English argumentative Essay**

The results in table IV. 30 show that the percentage of students who use the through argumentation in their English argumentative essay is nearly equal to the percentage of students who use the counter argumentation; while 16.32% of the students did not answer this question. Although, there was a great emphasis on counter argumentation during the

treatment, as it is the preferred pattern in English argumentation, students still use the through argumentation. These results can be explained in relation to question 14 earlier stated in questionnaire I about the pattern of organization they mostly use when they write argumentative essay in Arabic and in which 56% respond that they use through argumentation. These students were merely influenced by the L1 literacy which affected their way of organizing their L2 writing.

On what concerns the students who did not answer this question, these students may still have difficulties to write in different patterns of organization.

### **Explain: students answered their choice of the pattern as follow**

This question consolidates our explanation of the results obtained in the previous question .Students who use the through argumentation in their English writing explain their use of the through argumentation by the following.

- By their familiarity with the through argumentation pattern as they frequently use it in their Arabic writing
- The simplicity and the easiness to write essays using through argumentation pattern
- They learn writing in this pattern
- The counter argument is not a frequent pattern of writing
- Best way to express their opinion

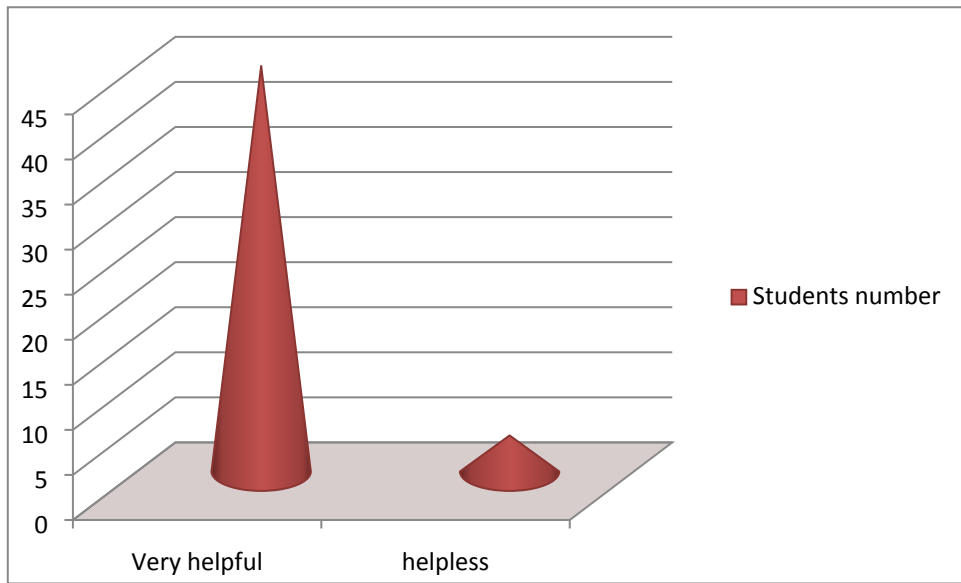
### **Counter argumentation**

- Students who opt for the counter argumentation, justified their choice by the fact that the counter argumentation is more convincing since it enables to argue in the two opposite sides

**6<sup>th</sup> Question : How would you evaluate strategies instruction?**

response	Students number	percentage
Very helpful	45	91.83%
helpless	4	8.16%

**Table 5. 31: Students’ Perception of Strategies Instruction.**



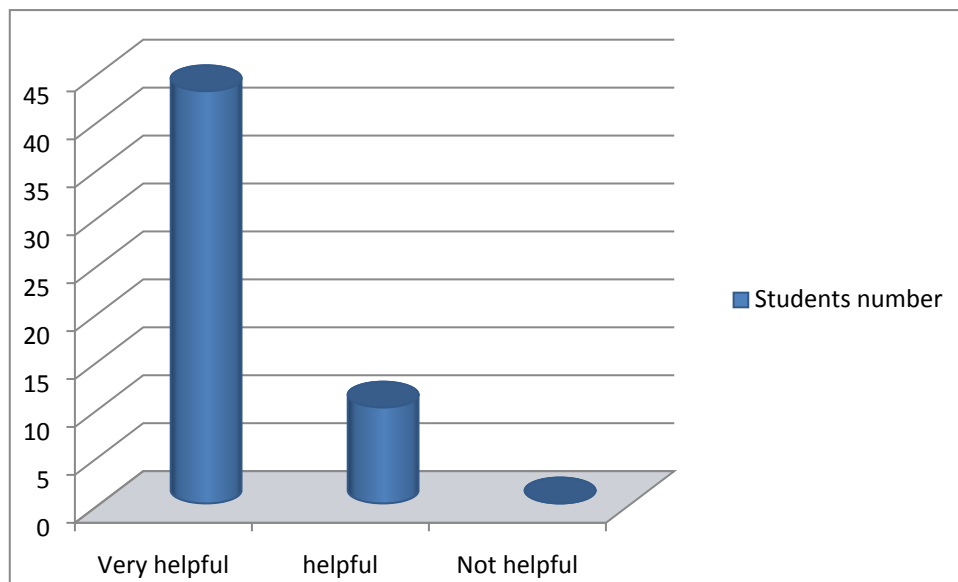
**Figure 5. 26: Students’ Perception of Strategies Instruction.**

The table IV. 31 presents the results for the students’ perception of strategies instruction. Almost all the students agree on the effectiveness of strategies instruction on writing. The results show that 91.83% of the students respond positively and see strategies instruction very helpful. Only four students report that it is helpless.

**7<sup>th</sup> Question: If yes, how helpful do you think writing strategies instruction can help you to improve your writing?**

Response	Students number	Percentage
Very helpful	43	81.13%
helpful	10	18.86%
Not helpful	0	0%

**Table 5.32: Students’ Perception of the Effect of Strategies Instruction on their Writing**



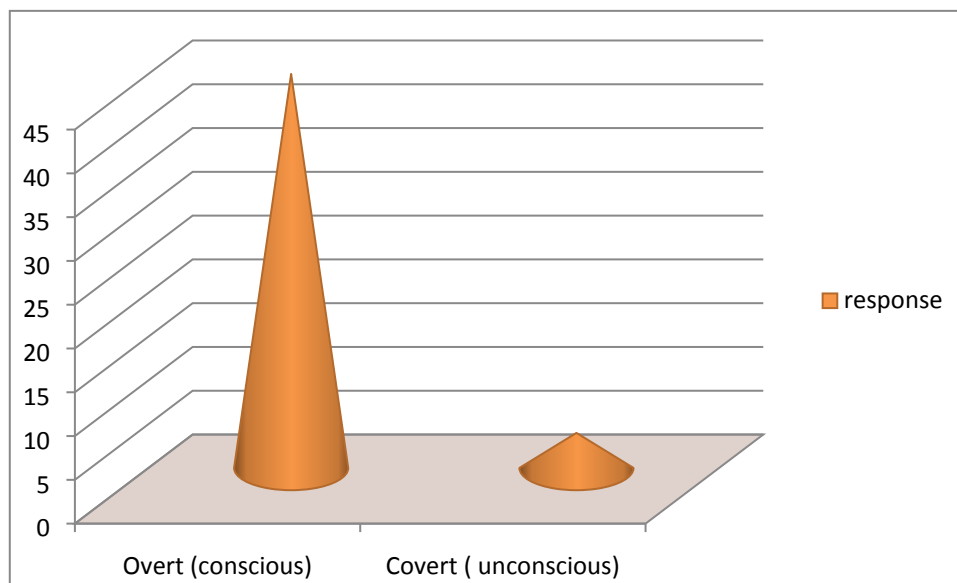
**Figure 5.27: Students’ Perception of the Effect of Strategies Instruction on their Writing**

Table IV. 32 shows the results of the students’ perception of the effect of strategies instruction on their writing. 81.13% of the students see that strategies instruction is very helpful in the improving their writing. 18.86% see that they are helpful. No student neglects the importance of strategies instruction in improving writing.

**8<sup>th</sup> Question: On what concerns writing strategies, do you prefer the overt teaching of these strategies or the covert teaching?**

Type of teaching	Response	
Overt (conscious)	45	91.83%
Covert ( unconscious)	4	8.16%

**Table 5. 33: Covert and Overt Strategies Teaching**



**Figure 5. 28: Covert and Overt Strategies Teaching**

The table displays students’ preferences to the different methods of strategies teaching. The majority of the students in a percentage of 91.83% prefer the overt (conscious) teaching of these strategies. Only 5 students represented in 8.16% prefer the covert (unconscious) teaching of these strategies.

**9<sup>th</sup> Question: How would you evaluate the writing instruction at the university?**

Response	Students number	Percentage
It improved my writing proficiency	42	85.71%
It did not improve my writing proficiency	6	12.24%

**Table 5. 34 : Students’ Feedback of Writing Instruction at the University.**



**Figure 5. 29: Students’ Feedback of Writing Instruction at the University.**

The table IV.33 presents the students’ feedback on the writing instruction at the university. The majority of the students represented in a percentage of 85.71% responded positively. These students reported that writing instruction at the university improved their writing proficiency. Only 6 students reported that their writing proficiency has not been improved.

**10<sup>th</sup> Question: what recommendations can you make to improve writing instruction?**

Students recommend the following:

- More practice of writing during class time. -Introduce these strategies right from the middle school – more reading comprehension hours – Combing the module of writing and Reading in one module - more focus on grammar and vocabulary instruction.

**Conclusion:**

This chapter was meant to report the results collected from the tools for data collection. In the first instance, the chapter reported the results obtained from the two tests undertaken in this research in which we reported the results of students' scores of the pretest in the first table and we reported the results of the posttest scores in the second table. In addition, the chapter reported the results obtained from the analytical scale regarding students' scores in organization. Also, the results obtained from the two questionnaires were reported into tables and graphs. The next chapter will discuss the results of the collected data and their implications to teaching.

**CHAPTER SIX:**

**DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS AND**

**IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING**

## CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

### INTRODUCTION

The present chapter deals with the discussion and interpretation of the data obtained with the two major tools: the pre-test and post-test, and the students' questionnaires. The discussion of the results obtained from the data presented in the previous chapter will be organized as responses to the research questions and the hypotheses formulated in this study.

The research questions that guide this study are as follows.

**RQ.1:** What are the effects of strategies instruction on students' writing performance?

(a): Do students who receive writing strategies instruction perform better than those who do not?

(b): Does rhetorical strategies instruction result in positive effects on student's composition organization?

(c): Does the outlining strategies instruction result in positive effects on students' composition organization?

**RQ.2:** Does students' first language composition organization affect their English composition organization?

### 4. Hypothesis

Since the research aims to measure the relationships between the strategies instruction and students writing performance following hypothesis has been formulated to be confirmed or invalidated following the statistical t- test:

- The explicit Writing Strategies instruction has positive effects on students' writing performance.

The chapter draws pedagogical implications and provides recommendations for teaching writing resulting from the finding of this study and the supported by the literature review.

In this research a quantitative quasi-experimental design has been used to investigate the effect of the outlining and rhetorical strategies on students writing performance. The design was used for data collection and data analysis. A pre-test and a post test have been used as means for data collection. Students participating in the experiment were divided into two groups: one group stands for the experimental group while the other group stands for the control group. The two groups had a pre-test and a post test. The results of the test were compared to see whether improvement happened in the writing of the experimental group. Also, an analytical scale for assessing students writing was used to assess student writing and to investigate the variable of the rhetorical strategies and the effect of L1 composition organization on L2 composition organization. Two Questionnaires have been used to report about students writing habits, background and their views about the strategies use after the treatment.

### **6-1 General Discussion**

This section aims to discuss the results obtained from the data collected in this study in order to answer the research questions .

#### **6-1-1 Answering and discussing the first research question and validating the hypothesis formulate in the research.**

The aim of the first research question and the hypothesis is to find out about the effect of strategies instruction on students' writing performance. To answer this question and to

confirm or invalidate the hypothesis formulated in this research, we undertook an experiment which consisted of dividing the participants in this study into two groups: experimental and the control group. The experiment group as explained earlier had a treatment which consisted of teaching students the writing strategies that enable them to write appropriately and help them improve their writing performance. The two groups then had a post-test in which the results would then be compared. A *t-test* was used as a procedure for data analysis to show if any difference could be noticed in the results of the tests. The results of the experiment show that the  $t_{obs}$  (or the *t*-value) is greater than the critical statistic  $t_{crit}$  (or the critical value)  $t_{obs} > t_{crit}$  2.22 > 1.65. which explains the improvement in students writing performance for the experimental group who received writing strategies instruction Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted, in other words, the results show that the strategies instruction has a positive effect on students' writing performance which confirms the hypothesis formulated in this study as well as answers the first question..

The results presented in this research are discussed with regards to the findings of the research in the field of cognitive psychology and strategies instruction reported in the review of the literature.

In fact, in recent years, cognitive psychology has had a considerable influence on language teaching methodology. In a cognitive approach, the learner is seen as an active participant in the learning process, using various mental strategies in order to sort out the system of the language to be learned (William and Burden. 1997 p.13). However, one major conclusion drawn from this study is that although much emphasis has been placed on students autonomy in this new pedagogy, the teachers has a major role in fostering his students' autonomy. This view consolidates the research findings in the field of cognitive psychology. According to Vygotsky (1978 cited in Jordan et al. 1987, p.60 ), the teacher

can gauge intellectual development of the learner and provide the appropriate support to advance the learner's thinking. With teacher support, learners can achieve more than they would unaided. More knowledgeable peers can perform the same function as teachers.

Furthermore, this social constructive approach brought by Vygotsky asserts that learning cannot occur without the help of more knowledgeable person. This approach fosters the importance of the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning. These new roles of the teachers brought in the modern view to learning, though they oppose the traditional views where the teacher held the authority in the classroom and whose main role is to control and pour information in the mind of his learners who were just receivers, attributes harder responsibilities to the teacher that consist of facilitating the learning process. Facilitating learning means making learning easier, faster, and efficient. The teacher is, thus, required to cope with his new pedagogy and equip the learner with the strategies that enable him to solve learning problems and this is what is known in the literature by strategies instructions or strategies training. Thus, learners need guidance from the teacher who should provide his learners with the required strategies and help them how to learn effectively.

Undeniably, Vygotsky's theories of education have many implications in teaching in general and teaching writing in particular. According to Slavin (2003, p.46), Vygotsky's theories of education have two major implications. One is the desirability of setting up cooperative learning arrangements among groups of students with differing levels of ability. Tutoring by more competent peers can be effective in promoting growth within the zone of proximal development. Thus, setting cooperative writing activities help slow learners to benefit from their more capable peers. According to Slavin, ( 2003), Vygotsky's theories support the use of cooperative learning strategies in which children work together to help one another learn. Because peers are usually operating within each

others' zones of proximal development, they provide models for each other of slightly more advanced thinking. In addition, cooperative learning makes children's inner speech available to others, so they can gain insight into one another's reasoning process.

Second, a Vygotskian approach to instruction emphasizes scaffolding, with students taking more and more responsibility for their own learning.

Scaffolding in Slavin's (2003 p.45) terms is a key idea derived from Vygotsky's notion of social learning is that of scaffolding: the assistance provided by more competent peers or adults. Typically, scaffolding means providing a child with a great deal of support during the early stages of learning and then diminishing support and having the child take on increasing responsibility as soon as she or he is able.

In addition to the importance of the teacher as a facilitator of the learning process, teaching strategies also focuses on the learner as an important element in the learning process making of the learners autonomous, self-regulated, and constructor of their knowledge, and making sense of their learning. In fact, the success of the strategies instruction depends on the positive attitudes of the learners towards the strategies use. Oxford ( 2011, p.182 ) reported that "learner's attitudes and beliefs are especially important for the success of strategies instruction, and self-regulated L2 learning involves the learner as active co-constructor of knowledge, taking responsibility for learning. Some learners come from cultures that encourage a less overtly active role."

It appears that a noticeable acceptance of strategies use and dynamic role have been noticed among the participants in this study. These students did not show any reluctance to strategies use and showed positive attitudes towards the use of the strategies in their writing. Statistics in question 6 of the second questionnaire about the students' perception of strategies instruction shows that almost all the students agree on the effectiveness of strategies instruction on writing. The results show that 91.83% of the students respond

positively and consider strategies instruction very helpful in improving their writing performance. Also in question 15 in the section of strategies instruction, students were asked about their reference to patterns of organization as a strategy to improve their writing, and 66.03% of these students report that they usually refer to them. Their use of these strategies in their writing is one step towards making them the self-regulated learners and active constructor of knowledge. These students are thus equipped with strategies that allow them to find solution to other problem-solving tasks.

Strategies instruction, thus, makes a balance between the roles of the teacher, as a facilitator of learning and the learner roles as an active participant in the learning process. The relation of the teacher-learner is based on negotiation rather than authority. According to Richards J (1996, p.12) a priority of teachers is to develop their students' metacognitive awareness of their processes, that is their ability to reflect on the strategies they uses to write.

Moreover, this significant improvement in students' writing performance has been noticed only after few months of instructions. The students showed improvement in their writing skill especially at the different writing points focused in the research; whereas, they previously showed many difficulties to produce organized texts and took more time to produce them. This comes to validate the aim of learning strategies that make learning faster. Leaver (2003, cited in Oxford 2011 p.180) reported that direct strategy instruction in L2 classes can significantly reduce the amount of time needed for acquiring high level of L2 proficiency.

On what concerns the impact of the reading on improving writing, Krashen (1985) proposed that writing ability is acquired through reading. He argued that we gain competence in writing the same way we gain competence in oral language, by

comprehending written discourse and by internalizing, after much exposure, the numerous conventions that characterize texts. However, although Krashen's acquisition theory can have many positive effects on student's learning to write, some remarks have to be mentioned.

First, writing acquisition through reading only would take time to be achieved and may not prove efficient results to all students. Students' acquisition of the features of the academic writing may, following the input theory, be slow and takes time; while strategies instruction offers faster learning. According to Mac Laughlin, in the Second Language Learning, learners vary in their learning styles and strategies, and both learning and acquisition can be beneficial for them. In addition, conscious learning can help attaining successful communicative competence in a second language

In fact, Learning has been explained from different dimensions. One main important trial to explain learning is making the difference between Explicit and Implicit learning. Indeed, discussing these dimensions to learning with reference to the result obtained in this study is of great importance as they are considered as a foundation for the field of strategies' use and strategies instruction; the central theme of this research. Brown (2007, p.262) stated that another set of constructs for conceptualizing varied processes of Second Language Learning is found in models that make a distinction between explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge.

Similarly, Stern reported that a key issue in Second Language Pedagogy is "whether the learner should be taught to approach the learning task consciously as an intellectual exercise, or whether he should be encouraged to avoid thinking about the language and absorb it intuitively." (1992, p.327)

According to Dornyei (2009, p.137), explicit learning is usually treated as "conceptually unambiguous process characterizes by the learner's conscious and deliberate attempt to

master some material or solve a problem.” From an information-processing perspective it involves the conscious intention to find regularities and to identify rules and concepts that are useful to capture these regularities. Dornyei added that this is the learning type emphasized by most school instruction either by presenting the learner with concepts and rules upfront or by encouraging them to derive and test hypotheses themselves.

However, concerning implicit learning, Frensch (1998 cited in Dornyei 2009, p.138) argued that scholars in the past years have been using the term in several meanings and, therefore, in order to move on, it is necessary to tighten the definition of the concept. He also highlighted the issue namely that those meanings of implicit learning should be given preference that emphasizes only the learning/ coding process rather than retrieval process.

Implicit knowledge, according to Brown (2007, p.262), “is information that is automatically and spontaneously used in language tasks. Children implicitly learn phonological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic rules for language, but do not have access to an explanation. Implicit processes enable a learner to perform language but not necessarily to cite rules governing the performance”.

To know about the attitudes of students towards the importance of reading in improving their writing proficiency, 83.67% of the students respond “a lot” to question 19 of the first questionnaire. This shows a great awareness among the students about the importance of reading on writing. However, in question 20, **81.63%** of the students report that it is not enough to rely on reading only to be able to write academically acceptable texts. Hence, an overt teaching of the strategies to learn writing is required as they respond in question 8 of the second questionnaire.

Moreover; students vary in their style of learning and their aptitudes for acquisition. Some students are better receivers and quicker learners than others which make their pace

of acquisition faster than other students. Slow learners need more guidance from the teacher so that learning occurs. MacLaughlin (1978, 1990 cited in Brown 2007, p. 280) explains the difference in learners' learning and the need to the conscious instruction in the following:

“Second language learning is a process in which varying degrees of learning and acquisition can be both beneficial, depending upon learner's own style and strategies. Instruction in conscious rule learning and other types of form- focused instruction can indeed aid in the attainment of successful communicative competence in a second language”. ( MacLaughlin cited in Brown 2007, p. 280)

Moreover, the input hypothesis which suggests “ *that the input is the only causative variable in second language acquisition*” (Krashen 1986, p.62 quoted in Brown 2007 P.280) favors the input in the process of acquisition and ascribes a little credit to the learner and his engagement in the process. Second Language Acquisition occurs only by providing the learners with comprehensive input rather than their active engagement in the process.

Thus, implicit teaching of learning strategies is essential to achieve better performance in students learning.

### **61-1 Answering the Sub Question for the First Research Question**

- **The second research question is :** Does the outlining strategies instruction result positive effects on students' composition organization ?

Using the analytical scale in assessing students' paper shows that students from the experimental group and who used outlining strategies scored higher in organization than

the students from the control group. The results in table III.7 show that the highest percentage of students is from the experimental group who scored 4/4 in organization which explains the positive effect of outlining strategies on students' writing organization. In addition, an improvement in students' scores in organization from the pretest to the posttest has been noticed. Only 18.36% of the students of the experimental group in pretest scored  $\frac{3}{4}$  while no student scored 4/4. However, these scores improved after the treatment in which they exceeded the 44% in the 4/4 score.

Also, students report in question 3 and 4 of second questionnaire that outlining strategy has a positive impact on their writing. 69.38% of the students report that their writing improved somehow while 24.48% report that it improved their writing dramatically. These statistics, about the degree of the students attitudes towards the impact of the outlining on their writing, may vary but in favor of the positive impact of this strategy.

It appears that students before the treatment rarely use the outline in their essays thinking that it is time consuming. 65.30 % of the students who answered question 21 of the first questionnaire reported that they rarely use outlining when they write. Thus, they embark on writing without following a given plan guiding their thoughts. They keep repeating the same idea endlessly losing thus, the thread of their thoughts. The repetition of the same idea leads to a form of neglect of the rhetorical strategies and the patterns governing the English text that the topic sentence in the English text has to be followed by different supporting ideas and detail as well as the rules of unity and coherence has to be fixed by a clear outline.

The results of this research support the main points stated in the literature review.

Hayes and Flowers modal (1980) seems to offer a clear explanation of the different processes that occur in the writers mind that made the writing act challenging for EFL

students. This explanation led to dividing the writing task into elements, as mentioned earlier in the literature review, following Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 369) model into: **the task environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the writing processes** gives a comprehensive idea about the writing act and supports the use of outlining as a strategy in the writing process that reduces the cognitive overload that students often experience when writing. The implication of this model on students' writing is going to be dealt in the implications for the study below.

The importance of outlining appears, thus, in reducing the cognitive overload that students often face when writing. EFL students find writing a challenging task since it requires many cognitive operations and mental efforts that cause them a cognitive overload. The cognitive overload is explained by difficulties that arise from the different operations that they have to do at the same time in order to produce a text; such as, retrieving the information from long term memory, lack of L2 linguistic knowledge..etc., in addition to the difficulty of organizing these ideas respecting the conventions of the academic writing that meets the expectations of the native-speaker readers.

Besides, the result of this research supports Kellogg's (1990) findings in a research about the effectiveness of the prewriting strategies. In his article entitled *Effectiveness of Prewriting Strategies as a Function of Task Demands* (1990, p.339), Kellogg examined college students who wrote analytical and informative essays who planned during prewriting and those who began drafting immediately after receiving the essay assignment. The result of his experiment showed that preparing a written outline during the prewriting stage improved the quality of the final document, both in terms of its style and content and the benefit of outlining was greater with a task that required both generating and organization.

### **6-1-1-2 Answer to second sub-question of the first research question**

Does rhetorical strategies instruction result in positive effects on student's composition organization?

The answer to this research question is found in the students' results regarding organization in the analytical scale when assessing their paper. Students showed improvement in the organization of their essay as a result of their awareness of the rhetorical strategies.

Before the treatment, students' writing tends to be personal, vague, especially in argumentative essay and lacking the conventions of the academic writing. Their writing did not obey to a clear pattern of organization, lack of scientific support the fact that affect conveying their ideas. Some students used more of their personal experience to support their main ideas where others did not provide any support. In addition, there was a lack of transition signals that links paragraphs or links sentences to others which resulted in a lack of coherence in their essay. Assessment of organization of the pre-test was based mainly on these main points and the students' scores as shown in table III. 7 were low.

However, these students showed improvement in their writing organization after being taught the different patterns of organization of the argumentative essay. Students could then to write an acceptable thesis statement, providing arguments and supporting their arguments with more scientific supports such as statistics and quotation.

This research also supports the finding brought by contrastive rhetoric. Teachers should be knowledgeable of the rhetorical differences of the different languages and the expectations of the English -speaking reader in order to make their students aware of these differences. Connor (1996, p.169) reported that:

“Insights from contrastive rhetoric help guide the EFL teacher by providing information about the expectations of native English – speaking readers. Teachers need knowledge of theoretical contrast between English and the other language, the student’s native language”

Awareness rising about the rhetorical feature of English writing through strategies instruction is, thus, an effective way to avoid writing deviations and raises the likelihood of producing text acceptable by native speakers.

### **6-1-2 Answer to the Second Research Question**

RQ 2. Does students’ first language composition organization affect their English composition organization?

This research question has been searched through analytical scale in assessing students’ paper and the questionnaire.

The results of analytical scale corroborate with the results of the questionnaire which report that L1 composition organization affect their English composition organization.

First, when assessing students’ paper students show a preference in using the through argumentation in their writing in the pretest and even in the post test. Although students were taught the rhetorical strategies, they still preferred using the through argumentation pattern of organization at the expense of the counter argumentation pattern. In fact this confirms the result of many research studies which draw the differences between L1 and L2 student academic essay such as Connor, 1996; Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, Hinkle 1999 who draw the distinction between L1 and L2 student academic essay and who summarize them in the following: “Different organizational preferences, different approaches to argument ( justification, persuasive appeals, credibility), Different ways of incorporating materials ( use of quotes, paraphrase, allusion, ....etc), different ways and extent of getting

reader's attention and orienting them to topic, different estimates of reader knowledge, different uses of cohesion and metadiscourse markers, differences in how overt linguistic features are used ( generally less subordinations ,passives, modifiers, lexical variety, and specificity in L2 writing, Difference in objectivity ( L2 texts often contain more generalizations and personal opinions ) , differences in complexity of style" Richards, J ( 1996, p. 46)

In addition, several different questions in the questionnaire have been asked about the different ways in which L1 affect their writing.

The first section of the questionnaire seeks to know about the students' background. The results show that our students' mother tongue varies from Arabic to Tamazight, and their attitudes to writing also vary from diaries, to academic writing in different languages namely French, Arabic and Tamazight. However, the high percentage of students in questions 4 and 5 of the first questionnaire reported that they mainly use Arabic in academic writing purposes. As a result, the students' attitudes to using Arabic in writing make them develop the rhetoric of the Arabic writing.

Although French is the second academic language taught from primary school and students were required to answer their exams in French, these students did not report having using it a lot as far as it is not a medium of instruction for other subjects and its use is limited to the French class only.

Also and in order to find out about the students'L1 impact on their L2 writing, question 20 seeks to know about the preferred pattern of organization when writing an argumentative essay. The answer to this question shows that 49% of the students prefer the through- argumentation over the counter argumentation. Their preference is justified by the fact that they commonly use this pattern when they write in Arabic.

In fact, these results tally with the work of Basil Hatim (1997), as mentioned earlier in the literature review, who reported that the Arabic students prefer using more the through-argumentation over the counter-argumentation in their writing which is not the case of the English students who prefer counter-argumentation over the through-argumentation. Basil Hatim (1997, p.47), in his book *Communication across Cultures*, argued that comparative research on English and Arabic argumentation revealed that a through-argumentation is a *preferred type* among Arabic argumentative writing although counter-argumentation is also found in Arabic and this is mainly related to the preferred ways of writing within the different cultures.

Although the present research is not a comparative study, examining the effect of L1 on L2 is unavoidable and contributes to the general understanding of the context of the experiment.

Tackling organization in students writing could not happen without tackling the rhetorical strategies responsible for organizing students' paper and students' background about the rhetorical strategies used in their L1.

Kaplan (1966, cited in Connor 1996) asserted that differences in L2 writing might reflect different writing conventions that are learnt in L1 culture and may interfere with L2.

In this study, the results show that the students' first language writing affect their foreign language writing in many ways which we classify into sentence level and discourse level.

First, at the sentence level: Since Arabic, not being a Latin language presents totally different syntactic structures, students tends to write very long sentences using the conjunction “ and “ and “but” in their writing which makes the structure of the sentences seem awkward and does not contribute into conveying meaning effectively. Students in question 10 of the first questionnaire reported that one main difficulty rises from the

sentence structure. i.e . at the sentence level. Students thus, use their first language structure to write in the foreign language.

At the discourse level, these students borrow the pattern of organization that is frequent in the Arabic. In question 14 of the first questionnaire, students 56.60 % reported that they use the through argumentation when they write in Arabic. The students were also asked about the preferred type of pattern of organization when they write in English in question 5 of the second questionnaire, 40 % of these students reported that they keep writing in the pattern they used to write in their L1.

In fact, the findings of this study consolidate those of the Contrastive Rhetoric Research. The explanations of the lack of coherence in ESL text, according to Matsuda (1996, p.47) can be generated: *linguistic, cultural, and educational explanations*.

Matsuda (1990) reported that the linguistic explanation to the lack of coherence refers to the role of L1 in determining the L2 organizational structure of the written discourse as above sentence level. He maintains that organizational structures are strongly influenced, if not determined, by the cultural background of the writer. He added that pedagogical application of this view involves:

“the teaching of organizational structures that fit the cultural conventions shared by the readers, because the fact that the student knows the conventions of his or her own writing system does not mean the student understands the conventions employed in the target language” (Kaplan, 1988, pp. 296-297 cited in Matsuda 1990).

In addition, the result of this research goes hand in hand with the idea of taking culture seriously in L2 writing teaching. For instance, objectivity in writing differs from one culture to another. Rhetorical objectivity and credibility in English tradition is achieved through the use of objective pieces of evidence such as statistics, quotes, facts...etc which

is not necessarily the same in other traditions. Steverson asserts that (1987 cited in Hincle 1999, p.5) “the need for Aristotelian rhetorical objectivity and justification may be an formidable obstacle for L2 learners if they are absent in the learners culture” . Hirocawa (1987) and Hinds (1983) cited in Hincle (1999) demonstrated that the objectivity and proof are rarely expected in Japanese writing, in which ambiguity and vagueness have considerable rhetorical value. Thus, the difficulties that foreign language learner often face when writing in a foreign language is due to the fact that these learners ignores the writing conventions of that culture.

## 6- 2 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

The results of the present research reveal the following findings. First, students lack the appropriate strategies that allow them to produce academically acceptable texts. Their unawareness of the different writing strategies; cognitive, rhetorical, metacognitive strategies led to deviations in their writing from the conventions of the academic writing. Also, the rhetorical deviation in students writing when they write in English comes as the result of their unawareness of the rhetorical differences of the Arabic and English discourses. Second, this lack of strategies use among the students rises from the way they have been taught writing. The over reliance of the teachers on the product approach in teaching writing right from the Middle School is not conclusive. Students taught following this approach were asked to copy sentences and imitate paragraphs which affect negatively their writing, especially when these students are asked to produce long stretches pieces of writing; such as essays, reports, dissertations. Students are confronted with complex activities that require, instead, procedures and strategies to lessen the complexity of the task. Third, adapting the process genre approach in teaching writing and inculcating strategies in the different stages makes learning more effective. Third, strategies instruction proved to be an effective solution to the problems encountered by the learners in their learning in general and in improving their writing proficiency in particular.

On the basis of the preceding arguments, we suggest the following recommendations:

- ***FIRST, FOCUSING ON STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION.***
- Teachers should equip their students with the required strategies related to the specific task.

- Present one strategy, then give much practice, let students use it in other situations, then move to present another strategy.
- Considering students' learning style when teaching the strategies; students who vary in their learning style also vary in their use of strategies.
- Name the type of the macro strategy; cognitive, rhetorical, metacognitive and their micro strategies to raise their awareness about the difference in their use and when they are used.

### • ***SECOND, INTEGRATING STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION IN COURSE CONTENT***

- Teachers and syllabus designers have to integrate the strategies instruction as part of the curriculum
- Learning strategies should be integrated in the course content
- Teach the strategies consciously and directly relating them to the learning task

### • ***THIRD, INTRODUCE LEARNING STRATEGIES AT THE ELEMENTARY LEVEL.***

Learning strategies have to be introduced right from the elementary level to solve any problem pupil may encounter in their learning process. Teachers should start by teaching their students simple strategies related to some specific tasks and let their learners practice these strategies each time they are confronted to a given problem. These learners will gradually develop the habit of using strategies to find solutions to their tasks and may transfer them to other tasks. By so doing, these learners gradually will reduce their reliance on their teachers and become autonomous.

- ***FOURTH, RAISING STUDENTS' AWARENESS TO THE RHETORICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ARABIC AND ENGLISH DISCOURS***

One major cause responsible of the students' deviations in composition organization is their unawareness of the rhetorical differences between the English and the Arabic discourse as well as their unawareness of the strategies that help them organizing their composition respecting the rhetorical features of the target language discourse. Teachers are thus, required to teach the rhetorical features of the English composition and may, if possible, compare them to their L1 discourse features. The teachers should familiarize their students with these features when they start writing compositions in English.

- ***FIFTH , ADOPTING PROCESS-GENRE APPROACH WITH THEIR RELATIVE STRATEGIES***

The teacher should be eclectic by adopting the features of the different approaches. The teacher should teach her students the different processes included in the process of writing; namely: prewriting, drafting, reviewing and revising with their related strategies. In the process approach, the teachers focus on the cognitive and the metacognitive strategies. Also the teachers should adopt the genre approach by focusing on the discourse feature of the specific genres. Thus, by adopting the genre approach, the teacher makes use of the rhetorical strategies as well as acquaints his students with the different genres to become aware of the different purposes of the written communication.

- ***SIXTH , IMPLEMENT THE PROCESS APPROACH FROM THE ELEMENTARY LEVEL***

Since writing is a complex skill that requires time and mental effort, the process of writing should be introduced from their first steps in writing. The process of writing

requires time to be followed by the learners when composing; It is in terms of this reason that the teachers should familiarize their students with the process of writing right from their first steps in learning to write.

- ***SEVENTH , INCULCATING THE STRATEGIES USE WITHIN THE TEACHING WRITING COURSE***

Teachers should introduce the strategies used at every stage of the process of writing. For example, in the pre- writing stage, the teacher should teach the strategies needed for this stage; such as, in the brain storming, students can use different strategies to write about the first ideas that come to their minds about the topic namely: mapping, free writing, and listing. The teacher should foster the strategies use among her students.

- ***EIGHTH , INTEGRATING OTHER SKILLS WHEN TEACHING WRITING***

Before tackling the writing process and teach the strategies, teachers should at the stage of her lesson-plan start relating the writing activity to one of the other skills; i.e. reading or speaking in order to provide the input. The next section will be dealing with these skills.

### **1. Reading:**

Teachers should provide texts models related to the specific genre students are required to master which constitutes the input for learning. Teachers make use of this model to achieve different objectives at different levels.

First, at the discourse level: The students should read different model texts related to one genre. With the guidance of the teacher by asking the students some specific questions, students are led to the particular features of the specific genres i.e bring about the rhetoric of this specific genre such as the patterns of organization, the rhetorical

features of the text , how sentences are related to each other to form a coherent piece of writing.

Second, at the sentence level: The students while reading the models are exposed to different types of sentences they may use in their academic writing. For example , in order to express opposing views in the argumentative essay, the students are required to use complex sentences rather than basing their writing on simple and compound sentences joined by ‘ and’ and “but” .

Third, at the lexical level: Also, along to specific rhetorical features that the students can develop from reading, reading different texts from different genre allow the students to extend their vocabulary for different topics. This will also extend students’ vocabulary related to some specific domain such as mathematics, engineering, medical science in the case of English for specific purposes (ESP). Thus, strategies instruction does not only have implication on the teaching English for Academic Purposes EAP but also has impressive impact on English for specific purposes ESP as well.

## **2. Listening and speaking**

In the pre-writing phase, the teacher can vary her teaching materials such as using reading materials as seen previously, oral material or auditory material too in order to make the writing session more motivating for the students. The teacher can start the writing session with a listening activity in which students listen or watch a video about a given topic. This procedure will provide the students with input; such as, ideas about the topic, arguments, vocabulary, which help them generating ideas. In addition, students can make the difference between the different genres when being exposed to them. This procedure may be very effective especially for auditory and visual learners as it does not

rely only on reading materials and increases students' motivation to learning writing as well.

### **Conclusion**

We aimed in this chapter to answer the research questions set at the beginning of this research and discuss the obtained results from this research with reference to the literature review. The review of this literature regarding the different fields of study regarding writing and learning strategies provided solid evidence to the effectiveness of strategies instruction in improving writing performance which directed the choice of the analytic procedure of the data collection as explained earlier. This study comes thus to confirm the necessity of inculcating learning strategies in every skill and learning activity to make learning more effective. Besides, the finding of the discussion brought about some pedagogical implications and recommendations that may help teachers in implementing strategies instruction in their teaching in general and teaching writing in particular. Most of these recommendations stress the importance of the strategies use and strategies instruction as a means to facilitate learning, and to compensate the deficit in learning.

## **General Conclusion**

## General Conclusion

Writing is the most important skill that the students need to develop. However, learning to write in a foreign language is one of the most challenging activities requires knowledge about the features of the academic writing of that language. EFL students often struggle with the difficulties to write in English. These difficulties result not only from the complexity of the writing skill but also from the burden of learning the foreign language which makes EFL student's writings often appear as being "vague, rhetorically unstructured and overly personal." (Hinkle, 2004) . Accordingly, an effective teaching of writing is needed in order to help students improve their writing.

In fact, teaching writing is as much difficult as learning how to write and implementing an effective teaching of the writing skill requires understanding what is involved in second language writing and the factors that render it a challenging activity.

As a matter of fact, the sources of difficulties in foreign language writing are various. However, we limited the scope of this study to the difficulties that cause students' writing organizational deviations; other words, this research tackles students' writing difficulties from the discourse level.

Thus, in this study, we assumed that the difficulties that cause organizational deviations in our students' writing arise from two major features that characterize the English academic writing: The cognitive process of the writing activity and the rhetorical properties of the English writing.

The first feature that characterizes the writing skill in general and the foreign language writing in particular is complexity of the cognitive processes that the writer has to carry out during the writing activity. This feature according to Galbraith (2009), result a cognitive overload.

The second main feature that causes students' writing difficulties is their unawareness of the rhetorical properties of the English writing. As a matter of fact, students' unawareness of the rhetorical properties of the English academic writing is considered as a major source of difficulties that often cause students' writing organizational deviation. According to Leki 1991 and Connor 1996, Rhetorical differences between the learners' first language and the target language affect students' writing and are believed to be the main source of trouble, since the learners may transfer first language rhetorical properties into their second language writing, resulting in unacceptable textual organization.

The importance of understanding the factors affecting students' writing performance is essential to overcome the difficulties in writing. However, improving students' writing performance requires teachers' guidance and effective teaching practices that enable students deal with the complexity of the writing activity.

Teachers are thus required to provide strategies that facilitate the learning process in order to overcome the problems that hinder students' writing performance

In this study, we aimed first to determine, whether a training on writing strategies, more particularly organizational strategies that includes both rhetorical and outlining strategies :

- raises awareness of the rhetorical properties of the English writing
- Improves students' composition organization
- Improves Students' writing performance.

Second, it seeks to know whether our students' first language composition organization affect their English composition organization

Thus, researching efficient instruction of writing in English has been the major concern of this research that led us to review the theories of different fields of study related to both

*writing* and *teaching*. In fact, reviewing these theories was for the sake to establish the relationship between them and provide better insight about writing instruction.

Teaching writing witnessed many theories explained the writing activity from different views and which results different teaching writing practices. The Product approach, Process approach, Genre approach are the main approaches that marked the history of ESL writing. In fact, difference between these approaches lies in their views of the writing activity since they view the writing activity either as a product, a process or as a genre completing communicative purposes.

In fact, reviewing all these different fields of studies and trying to explain their relatedness comes as a result of the complexity of the writing skill in addition to the difficulties to teach this skill

In fact, the Process approach has been extensively reviewed in this study as it provides practices to facilitating the writing activity. The core of this approach is that it considers the writing activity as a cognitive activity which requires a great mental effort. This approach provides different modals which all agree that the writing process goes through different steps that reduce the cognitive overload. Dividing the writing activity into a set of steps, namely: prewriting, drafting, reviewing and revising, reduces the complexity of the writing activity, especially, for the non- native writer of English.

Besides, great emphasis has been placed on rhetorical awareness. Contrastive rhetoric has been reviewed in this research as it provides explanations to the difficulties that students meet in writing in a foreign language. Contrastive rhetoric explains that organizational problem, students often meet when composing, is due to the features that characterize the English composition and which differ from the features of the students' L1. Raising students' awareness of the rhetorical features of the target language through

rhetorical strategies helps students in producing texts that meet the expectations of the English-speaking reader.

In addition, and most importantly, the field of Learning Strategies and Strategies Instruction has been researched as it offers practices to facilitate the learning and the teaching process. The field of strategies use and strategies instruction brought many implications in the field of education as it seeks to foster learners' autonomy and to make teaching and learning writing easier and faster.

The present research, thus, seeks to find solutions to the difficulties that both Algerian teachers and students face when teaching or learning writing. The central aim of this research is to investigate the effectiveness of the use of strategies in both teaching and learning since we assume that strategies instruction hold positive effect on the students writing performance. In fact, many research studies dealt with outlining as a strategy that helps learners to organize their ideas and to reduce the cognitive overload that the writer faces when composing. These studies focus on the writing activity as a complex activity requiring a great mental effort. Other research studies dealt with organization from a rhetorical point of view, showing that the lack of awareness of the rhetorical strategies leads to deviations in learners' writing. However, the present research stresses the importance of teaching the outlining strategies together with the rhetorical strategies for the EFL learners for the present research considers two main difficulties met by the Algerian students when organizing their composition. The first main difficulty rises from the complexity of the writing activity that both native and non-native English learners meet when composing. The second main difficulty is typically related to EFL learners which rise from their unawareness of the rhetorical features of English composition. The EFL learners in addition to the complexity of the writing task meet difficulties to produce texts that meet the expectations of the English reader because of their unawareness of the features of the

English discourse. It is in terms of these reasons that EFL learners should be taught the outlining strategies with reference to the different patterns of organization for the different genres.

In fact, the approach adopted to investigate the effect of strategies instruction on students writing performance is a quasi- experimental design. This design consists of assigning two groups in the experiment: one control and one experimental. The experimental group receives an instruction about the strategies use for a period of 16 weeks, while the control group received only the instruction of the academic writing of the Pres- service curriculum. Also, an analytical scale has been used to diagnose students response and provide a more effective evaluation of their essay. This analytical scale shows the areas of weaknesses and points of improvements in students' performance and allows some conclusions about the effectiveness of the strategies instruction. In addition to the experiment, two questionnaires have been used to collect data about students' writing background and their attitudes to the use of strategies in writing using questionnaire.

In the present study, we used the *directional t- test* or one-tailed hypothesis as a statistical procedure to confirm or invalidate our hypotheses. The choice of this test is explained by the presence of solid evidence about the positive effect of learning strategies in learning to write. In fact, the results of the T-test show that the T(ob) (or the t- value) is greater than the critical statistic (or the critical value)  $T(ob) > T(crit)$   $2.22 > 1.65$  which explains the improvement in the experimental group students' writing performance who received training on writing strategies use.

Thus, the null hypothesis:

$H_0$  : *there is no effect of strategies instruction on students 'writing performance* is rejected

However, the alternative hypothesis:

H1: *there is a positive effect of strategies instruction students' writing performance is accepted*

The results of the research showed a positive effect of the strategies instruction on the students writing performance.

In addition, the results of the analytical scale in scoring students papers at different components showed a greater improvement at the organizational level. Students showed improvement in organizing their composition which implicate that rhetorical strategies and outlining strategies instruction improved their writing organization.

Besides, the students' responses in the first and the second questionnaires reveal many information that help in teachers in teaching writing and more particularly when designing the material, the tasks and the teaching strategies.

The results of the first questionnaire which seeks to know the background of students writing, the strategies they used and the difficulties they often meet when writing brings more insights about the teaching of writing and makes teachers focus on what student need to know in order to overcome their difficulties. For instance the question that seeks to know about the students' educational experience when they were in the Middle and the Secondary school reveals that the majority of these students do not know the techniques and processes of writing. In addition, the responses in the next questions revealed that the students do not use outlining strategies in their writing and often fail to organize their ideas in well structured composition. Thus, the results show that lack of awareness of the rhetorical features of the English discourse which is one of the major causes of the students' writing difficulties that affect negatively the students' writing performance. Students tend to write without being guided or being introduced to the process of writing.

This implies that teaching writing in the middle and secondary school is based solely on the product approach instead of the process and genre approach.

In fact, the results obtained from the first questionnaire explain the reality of teaching writing in our course at the level of the Middle and High schools that requires reviewing and updating.

However, the students' responses to the second questionnaire questions seem to corroborate the results obtained from the experiment.

All the students reported that the use of outlining strategy is very helpful and help them think reasonably when composing.

- Most of the students reported that awareness of rhetorical strategies help them better organize their ideas.
- 91. 83%the students reported that strategies instruction help them improve their writing performance.

The students' responses also revealed that L1 writing affect their writing in English. Although the treatment or the intervention focuses mainly on the counter-argumentation pattern of organization in writing the argumentative essays, 40% of students used the through argumentation pattern in their essays. They justified their preference by the fact that they commonly use this pattern when they write in Arabic. This again confirms that their L1 writing affects their L2 writing.

The finding of the research brought about the following recommendations:

- Fostering strategies use among students through strategies instruction.
- The necessity to teach the writing strategies in the early steps of teaching writing.
- The necessity of inculcating strategies use in every skill and more particularly in writing.

- The necessity to familiarize the students with the rhetorical strategies.
- Teaching outlining strategies in parallel with the rhetorical strategies related to a given genre.
- Integrate the other skills such as reading and listening in the writing course provides the necessary input that help students when composing
- Varying tasks and activities, the materials that meet the students 'styles. Knowing the students' learning style and the strategies that are convenient to their style will foster learning and give better result in the learning process. Students learn better and faster when their needs are satisfied and when they feel engaged. It is in term of this reasons that the teacher should engage her students to the writing activity by providing different task and use different materials in teaching writing that meet their style.
- Fostering strategies use among students' with learning difficulties. Learners differ in their learning abilities; thus, strategies instruction is an effective solution to compensate for the deficit of learning.

From the stated arguments in this research, we would be at least satisfied, if we could pretend, to have approached an interesting subject which stands as a major issue in the Teaching of Writing in English as a Foreign Language

#### ▣ Limitations of the study

Although the study tried to investigate the difficulties that the students meet in writing and attempted to find solutions to these difficulties, the study has some limitations: first, the findings of the study do not allow generalization for a limited number of the students who participated in the experiment

Second, the research did not tackle all the rhetorical features that distinguish English from Arabic discourse. Analyzing the English discourse with reference to Arabic discourse requires another research as a comparative study which is beyond the scope of this research.

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## **Appendices**

### **Appendix 1**

#### **Pretest assignment**

##### **Topic 1**

The increasing social and financial pressure on parents led mothers to work and keep their children in kindergartens. The issue of kindergartens and working mothers has been subject of dispute for some time.

Write an essay in which you present both sides of the issue (positive and negative) regardless of the position you personally would take

#### **Posttest assignment**

Controlling adolescents' access to internet at home, schools and libraries has long been debated. Specialists in social affairs warned parents of the misuse of internet especially for adolescent and have to control on the sites their children used to visit. Opponents to control access to internet see that controlling some sites will further adolescents curiosity to visit these sites.

Write an argumentative essay in which you express your opinion about the issue.

## Appendix 2

## Teacher scoring sheet for the pre- and posttest

Pre-test / Experimental group	Teacher 's name .....					
		ASPECT				
Student's name	Mark / 20	Co/ 6	Or/ 4	Vo/ 4	Ls/ 5	Mc1
1 .....	.....					
2.....	.....					
.....	.....					
49.....	.....					

Pre-test / control group	Teacher 's name.....					
		ASPECT				
Student's name	Mark / 20	Co/ 6	Or/ 4	Vo/ 4	Ls/ 5	Mc/ 1
1.....	.....					
2 .....	.....					
.....	.....					
49.....	.....					

Posttest / control group	Teacher 's name.....					
		ASPECT				
Student's name	Mark / 20	Co/ 6	Or/ 4	Vo/ 4	Ls/ 5	Mc/ 1
1.....	.....					
2 .....	.....					
.....	.....					
49.....	.....					

Posttest / experimental group	Teacher 's name.....					
		ASPECT				
Student's name	Mark / 20	Co/ 6	Or/ 4	Vo/ 4	Ls/ 5	Mc/ 1
1.....	.....					
2 .....	.....					
.....	.....					
49.....	.....					

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**Teachers Training College of Bouzereah****Date.....****QUESTIONNAIRE 1**

The present questionnaire is designed for Second Year students at the Teachers Training College .

The aim of this survey is to find out about the students' writing background, behaviors and the strategies they use when writing. The questionnaire also seeks to know about the students' views of the strategies use. The information gathered from this questionnaire may give us insights on the reasons of the difficulties when writing in order to find solutions that could solve the students writing problems

**Instruction**

We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions concerning writing in a foreign language, more particularly writing in English. This is not a test so there is no "right" or "wrong" answer. We assure you complete anonymity. Thank you very much for your help.

**Section one: writing****Please circle a response for each question**

1- What is your mother tongue?

- 1- Arabic
- 2-Tamazight
- 3-French

2- What is the language you use most often in your everyday life?

- 1-Arabic
- 2-Tamazight
- 3-French

3 - Did your teacher use other language than Arabic to explain the content of the program that is designed in Arabic? i.e the teacher translates into Tamazight or French to explain to her students a content designed in Arabic.

	Primary school	Middle school	Secondary school
➤ 1-Yes	yes	yes	
➤ 2- no	no	no	

Please specify the language that the teacher used to explain with:.....

4 - do you write in your mother tongue?

- 1-Often
- 2-Very often
- 3-rarely
- 4-never

5-Please specify the language you used for the following purposes

- 1-Tamazight 2-Arabic 3-French

A-For pleasure ( e.g. Personal writing, diaries)

B-For academic purposes ( article of school magazine)

C- Other.....

6- Have you been taught techniques of writing in Arabic language ( the writing process, parts of paragraphs , different genres) ?

- Yes            middle school            secondary school
- No             middle school            secondary school

7- if no, how did you learn to write composition to answer exam questions

8- How do you find writing in English?

- 1-Easy
- 2-Somehow difficult
- 3-Difficult
- 4-Very difficult

9- in term of difficulties, in which language do you find more difficulties to write?

- Arabic
- English
- Bothe
- Neither

10- please, explain why .

.....

.....

.....

11- regarding writing instruction, have you been taught techniques in English academic writing?

Middle school

Secondary school

- |         |     |
|---------|-----|
| ➤ 1-Yes | yes |
| ➤ 2- No | no  |

12 -Do you find difficulties to organize your text when you write in English?

- 
- Yes
  - No

**Section two: writing strategies**

-13 Have you been taught the different patterns of organization of the argumentative essay for Arabic ?

- Yes
- No

**14 -** Which form of organization do you use more frequently when writing in Arabic?

- Through argumentation
- Counter-argumentation

15- Do you agree that writing is an important skill in learning a foreign language

- Strongly agree
- Agree
- Disagree

16- if you chose agree or strongly agree, what do you usually do to improve your writing?

.....

.....

.....

17- question: do you write diaries, letters ...etc in your free time out of class?

- Very often
- Often

---

➤ Rarely

➤ Never

18 -when you are asked to write an essay in English, do you write first in Arabic then you translate to English?

➤ Very often

➤ Often

➤ Rarely

➤ Never

19 –according to you, how does reading help you to improve your writing proficiency ?

➤ Not at all

➤ Very little

➤ Little

➤ A lot

20 - If you chose 4 “a lot”, do you think that it is enough to enable you to write academically acceptable texts?

➤ Enough

➤ Not enough

21 - do you use outlines when writing?

➤ Very often

➤ Often

➤ Rarely

➤ never

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

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**Teachers Training School****Date:.....****QUESTIONNAIRE II**

The aim of the present questionnaire is to find out about the students' behavior after strategies instruction and to what extent their answers correlate with the results of the post test.

**• Instruction**

We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions concerning writing in a foreign language, more particularly writing in English. This is not a test so there is no "right" or "wrong" answer. We assure you complete anonymity. Thank you very much for your help.

**Please circle a response for each question**

1- Did you use outlining strategies in the present composition?

- 1-Yes
- 2-no

2- When do you write your outline?

- 1-Before I write my first draft.
- 2-After I finish writing my final draft.

3- How would you evaluate the use of outlining in organizing your composition?

- Very helpful
- it makes us think reasonably when composing

- 
- Not helpful

4-How did your use of outlining strategy help you to improve your writing?

- 1-My writing improved dramatically
- 2-My writing improved somehow
- My writing did not improve at all

5- which form of organization do you use more frequently in argumentative essay?

- Through argumentation
- Counter argumentation

6- How would you evaluate strategies instruction?

- 1- Very helpful
- 2- Helpless

7- if yes, how helpful do you think writing strategies instruction can help you to improve your writing?

- Very helpful
- Helpful
- Not helpful

8 - on what concerns writing strategies, do you prefer the overt teaching of these strategies or the covert teaching?

- Overt teaching
- Covert teaching

9- How would you evaluate the writing instruction at university

- It improved my writing proficiency
- It did not improve my writing proficiency

10-What recommendations can you make to improve writing instruction?

Teachers Training College- Bouzereah **Appendix 4**

Second year students **Samples of students' compositions** Groupe: ..... / .....

Name ..... MARK .....

Surname.....

**Topic**

The increasing social and financial pressure on parents led mothers to work and keep their children in kindergartens. The issue of kindergartens and working mothers has been subject of dispute for some time.

Write an essay in which you present both sides of the issue (positive and negative) regardless of the position you personally would take.

The financial gap that low-income families nowadays forced mothers to work along with fathers in order to make a balance. But, this act makes mothers absent and have to take children to kindergartens.

From one hand, it is positive in both financial and educational sides. Financially, mothers can work and the family can rely on two breadwinners. Another good financial reason is developing the kindergartens chains, and therefore, developing the national income.

Educationally, children benefit from early education, including, more cultural background to have an effective future workforce, and develop the nation's future leaders.

In the other hand, it is negative. Using part of the family's total income is a problematic option for securing children care. While paying for child care is affordable for wealthy families, it is not truly an option for many couples.

Finally, we can say that Kindergarten represent a good warming-up for children to prepare for primary education, and beyond, and also help parents, especially mothers, not to worry about their children while working, but still it is not the best option depending on the family's financial situation.

## Teachers Training College- Bouzereah

Second year students

Groupe: .. .. .

Name .. .. .

MARK .. .. .

Surname .. .. .

## Topic

The increasing social and financial pressure on parents led mothers to work and keep their children in kindergartens. The issue of kindergartens and working mothers has been subject of dispute for some time.

Write an essay in which you present both sides of the issue (positive and negative) regardless of the position you personally would take.

The economy of our country nowadays is disaster, that's make pressure on parents and led mothers to work to help their husbands and let their kids in the nursery. So, what are the positive and negative sides of kindergartens and working.

In the side, there are some mothers who find that it's better keeping children in the kindergartens and work because of many reasons:

First, working to help husbands and make prepare for good future to their children.

Second they think that when their children go to the nursery they learn a lot of things and make friends and may this help them when they attend the primary school.

Third, they can't work and take care of their children at the same time.

In the other side, there are some mothers who can't accept this idea of keeping their children on the nursery and work and they justify their point of view by:

First, the mother must just take care of her children, husband and house.

Second, they can't make equality between the work outside and their houses and children.

Third, they don't make confidence on the kindergartens.

To conclude, The kindergartens and mother working outside has positive and negative points. personally, I think that mothers should work to be independent and children go to the kindergartens to be prepared for the primary school.

Teachers Training College- Bouzcreah

Academic year 2017/2018

Second year

Group: ... ..

Student's Name: .....

Controlling adolescents' access to internet at home, schools and libraries has long been debated. Specialists in social affairs warned parents of the misuse of internet especially for adolescent and have to control on the sites their children used to visit. Opponents to control access to internet see that controlling some sites will further adolescents curiosity to visit these sites.

Write an argumentative essay in which you express your opinion about the issue.

### Controlling Adolescents' Access to Internet

The internet is known for being a double edge weapon, especially for adolescents. Internet can be very useful for adolescents, but it can have a very bad impact on them as well. These two paradoxical sides of the internet, and the need of the parents' control on the sites their children visit have long been debated. Although many people think that adolescents' access to internet should not be controlled, many others believe that parents must control their children' use of the internet.

Apponents claim that controlling the adolescents' access to some sites may further their curiosity to visit them. According to them, if parents forbid their children to visit some sites, this would shed more light on these sites. As a result, adolescents would certainly visit them in order

to find out what they contain. However, this point of view is not based on scientific researches. Psychologists say that parents must control their children use of internet because they can misuse it, and they can early be victims abused. According to statistics of Daily magazine, there are more than two hundred adolescent, in New York city alone, who were victims of physical abuse, by people they knew from suspected web sites.

Opponents of to control access to internet see that adolescents can have now make new friendships, especially, by the shy ones, who can communicate with others more easily.

However, specialists in social affairs warn the parents from such relationships, as we can't know the real identity of people we are dealing with.

The final argument given by the opponents is that the adolescents entertain themselves through the online games. They say that there are hundreds of sites for games, and the parents should not bother their children by controlling them everytime, otherwise it become a problem of trust between parents and children. However, parents believe that they should control their children for their own benefit as Mrs. Dawell says: "She ~~to~~ "My daughter's level of learning was sinking if I didn't control her use of the internet, she would have been banned from school.

To conclude, It is evident that the arguments given by the opponents to are not valid. Parents should always to look after their children and protect them. They have to control their children use of the internet not because they don't trust them, but because they can be abused or misled.

Teachers Training College- Bouzereah

Academic year 2017/2018

Second year

Group:....

Student's Name:..

Controlling adolescents' access to internet at home, schools and libraries has long been debated. Specialists in social affairs warned parents of the misuse of internet especially for adolescent and have to control on the sites their children used to visit. Opponents to control access to internet see that controlling some sites will further adolescents curiosity to visit these sites.

Write an argumentative essay in which you express your opinion about the issue.

### The Access to Internet Control:

Internet is a large web that is known for its good as well as its bad aspects. It is full of malivious sites that are destructive for adolescents in a specific way. Therefore, it is recommended for parents to control the access of their children to internet. Opponents of this control, however, believe that this control will lead to more negative effects than positive ones. Although these latters find the control of access to internet for teenagers harmful, supporters of this control find it highly effective to limit adolescents' misuse of internet.

Opponents claim that controlling access to internet for teenagers will multiply their curiosity to know the content of the banned sites.

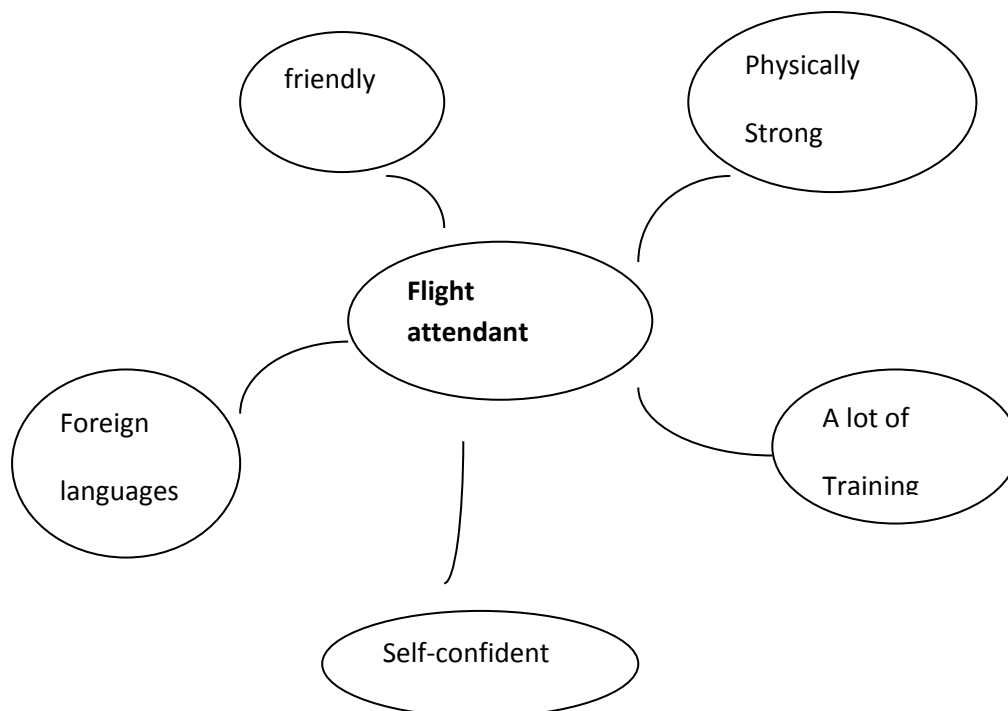
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**APPENDIX 5 : INSTUCTION****THE PROCESS OF WRITING**

- **PREWRITING:** the prewriting step comprises two major parts: ideas generation and planning
- 1- **Ideas generation: different techniques may be used to generate ideas.**
- a- **Clustering:** clustering is a prewriting technique that helps you get ideas to write about .

Model of clustering: ( Oshima and Hogue (2008, p.35)

Begin by writing your chosen job or profession in the center of a piece of paper. Draw a circle around it. Then think about characteristics and abilities necessary for that job, and write down every idea that comes into your mind. Don't stop to worry if the idea is a good one or not. Write words or phrases in circles around the main circle and then connect them to the main circle like in the picture.



**b- Freewriting:** when you freewrite, you write “freely”- without stopping-on a topic for a specific amount of time. You just write down sentences as you think of them without worrying about whether your sentences are correct or not. You also don’t have to punctuate sentences or capitalize words. You can even write incomplete sentences or phrases. The main goal in freewriting is to keep your pencil moving across the papers.

A model ( free writing) : look at his example of freewriting “ A memorable Event in My Life “ ( Oshima and Hogue ( 2007, p.34)

### **A Memorable Event in My Life**

I’m supposed to freewrite for ten minutes about a memorable event in my life. I don’t know what to write about. Maybe about my brother’s boat accident. We were so scared. We thought he was going to drown. He was trapped under an overtuned boat and didn’t have any air to breathe. But it ended all right. He was rescued and had only a broken arm. What else can I write about? Oh! I know. A day I will always remember was the day I left my country to come to the United States. That was a sad/ happy day. I felt sad and happy at the same time. Maybe I should write about something happy. Our family vacation last summer was fun. We drove to the coast and camped for a week on the beach. Then there was the day the earthquake happened. Now that was definitely a memorable event. I will never forget it. I was at home with my older sister and little brother.....

---

**c- Listing**

Once you have decided on an aspect of a topic to write about, you need to find out what you know about that topic and anything related to it. Listing is faster than freewriting but operates on the same general principle. When you list, you write down everything that comes to your mind about your topic, but you do not write sentences. Instead, you write only words or quick phrases. Once again, you are trying to get down quickly as much information as possible. Listing is particularly useful for getting examples or specific information about a topic. This technique is also one of the most useful ways for writers to get started again if for some reason their ideas dry up as they are writing a draft. Here is one example of a student's list. (Leki, 1998, p.23)

**Student example: Listing**

- Sunday night, Massey Hall lobby
- Noisy: everybody returning home weekends
- Crowded
- Parents, boyfriends
- Floor wet and white, snow
- Coke machine noisy
- R.A. at front desk bored, answers phone
- Two guys playing Pac-Man
- Others waiting
- One guy on the phone a long time
- Two others waiting to call
- Couples sitting in lobby, laugh, talk, forbidden to go upstairs in this dorm
- Employees from pizza places delivering Sunday dinner

- snowball thrown in from outside, becoming a water hole
- someone playing piano, several voices singing a carol
- change machine broken, I have been asked for change
- suitcases everywhere
- elevator broken

## **2-Outlining .**

The best way to organize a paragraph is to make an outline before you begin to write. An outline is like an architect's plan for a house. Imagine building a house without a plan. The kitchen might be far away from the dining room, or the house might have no windows. Having a plan not only helps you, the writer, to organize your thoughts but is also ensures that you don't leave out anything important (Oshima and Hogue 2007, p.54)

Leki (1998,p. 30) reported that an outline is a structured method exploring your thoughts on a subject. Some writers like to use the freer invention strategies to generate ideas. Then they make an outline to organize their ideas. Thus, outlining can be a transition between inventing and writing a first draft. When used this way, the outline functions as a plan for writing. It is extremely helpful in dividing up the big task of writing a formal paper into the much more manageable task of writing small parts that will eventually make a unified and organized whole

Basically, an outline helps you divide up a subject. Suppose you are going to compare conceptions of beauty in the United States with those in Greece. You can begin to figure out the structure of your paper by preparing an outline or structural sketch of one way to put your ideas together.

**Example: outlining****Beauty in the United States**

In general : artificial

Face: makeup

Hair: any color is okay

Clothes: many colors, plaids, stripes

**Beauty in Greece**

In general : natural

Face: no make up

Hair: blond, blue eyes preferred

Clothes: simple, European styles, single colors

Notice that the topic, concepts of beauty, is first divided into two parts, beauty in the United States and beauty in Greece. Each of these topics is then subdivided into subtopics or subheadings representing the categories that the author wants to cover. Each of the subtopics is further subdivided by comments the author wants to be sure to include in the essay (clothes in the United States: many colors, plaids, stripes;; clothes in Greece : simple , European styles, single colors). Once the plan is written down this way, the author can easily rearrange material to make the plan symmetrical and the eventual essay logically presented. Also, notice that the outline does not include many of the details that will eventually appear in the essay, but that all the details fit neatly under some subtopic or subheading in the outline

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- **DRAFTING**

- A- **Pre-drafting**

- I- *Audience: who is going to read your writing ?*

If you have that same kind of awareness of your audience when you write, you will be better able to decide what would be convincing or informative. Thus, if you are writing for your compatriots, you don't have to explain anything you assume they already know. On the other hand, if you are writing of someone not from country, you will have to give explanations that your compatriots would not need. In the same way, if you wrote an article on the advantages of having a vertical 90 degree 16 valve combustion engine on a Honda Interceptor motorbike for readers with no particular knowledge of or interesting this subject, those readers would probably feel you were wasting their time. They would not be able to understand all the technical terms or concepts you would be using. Yet the same article might be quite interesting to readers of a motorcycle magazine

**Exercise : Audience**

Read the following paragraph written by a student. Who do you think this student's intended audience?

Now answer these questions:

1. Does the intended audience attend the University of Tennessee? How do you know?
2. Is this intended audience American? How can you tell?
3. Does this intended audience know anything at all about American football? How do you know?
4. Describe the intended audience you think this student had in mind?
5. Is this paragraph appropriate for this audience?

---

6. What special information did the students include for the benefit of their audience that would have been irrelevant to someone from the United States?

7. What information would have been irrelevant to an audience from the University of Tennessee?

2- ***Purpose: why are you writing this?***

Decide what your purpose is and what you want this piece of writing to accomplish. Will it inform? Persuade? Entertain? Will it help you discover your own ideas?

Beside your audience, another important idea to keep in mind as you compose and revise a draft is your reason for writing, your reason for wanting to tell your audience about your subject. There are two basic reasons for writing: to express yourself and to communicate with someone else.

Ask yourself questions like the following ones may help you to discover your purpose.

1- Am I trying to inform my audience about a subject they do not know much about but would be interested in knowing?

2- Am I trying to show my audience a new way to look at this subject, a way they may not have thought of before?

3- Am I trying to persuade my audience to agree with my point of view on this subject?

4- Am I trying to demonstrate to my audience ( to a professor, for example ) that I know about this subject?

5- Am I trying to entertain by writing something funny or beautiful or dramatic?

**Exercise:**

Your purpose in writing is related to the type of writing you are doing. The following are the first sentences of texts written by students in an English class. Can you figure out just from these first sentences what kind of text the students were probably writing? For each sentence, choose one of the following:

- A letter home
- An essay exam
- An article informing readers about something they don't know about but might want to know about
- an article persuading readers to agree with the author
- a text with not clear purpose

1- Non-engineering students often confuse computer programming with computer engineering, but these two areas of specialization are quite different .....

2- My mother has always been kind and generous to all to her children.....

3- The use of robots instead of human beings in certain work situations raises serious questions about the fate of workers in the affected industries .....

4- Since bicycles are a popular means of transportation in many countries, most people have a fairly clear idea of what they look like.....

5- Although this school is theoretically interested in educational excellence, this goal is not obvious in certain classes her.....

6- The hardest class I'm taking right now is United States history.....

7- While it may make sense for North American students to take United States history, foreign students, who do not intend to become United states citizen, are

---

forced to waste time and money when they are required to take United States history courses.....

8- Erosion is the process by which the land surface to the earth is gradually worn away.....

### **B- Writing the first draft**

Now gather all your material together, including your answers to the pre-draft questions, and write your first draft. Try to follow the three- part pattern most english-speaking readers expect. Write legibly so that your classmates can read your draft easily, but don't worry too much about correct grammar, spelling, punctuation or vocabulary. Just try to get your ideas down on paper. You will have plenty of opportunity later to change this draft

### **C- Post draft ( Self-Analysis)**

Reread your own writing frequently. Try to read objectively, as though you were not the author and you were seeing it for the first time.

1- Who was in the back of your mind as you wrote? Did that audience change as you wrote?

2- Reread your draft as though you were your intended audience reading the draft for the first time. In a different color ink, make any comments or questions you think your audience might have on any part of the draft, especially comments or questions asking for more or clearer information.

3- As you were writing, did your propose chang? Did you chandge your mind at all about what you wanted to communicate?

- 4- How does the draft you wrote compare with the ideas you had about it before you began to write?
- 5- Do you feel that you did what you set out to do?
- 6- Go back to the list you made in the third pre-draft question and put a check next to the items that you carried out in your draft. Did you find as you wrote that you didn't need or want to do some of the things you set out to do ?
- 7- Did you write enough in your draft to be able to answer questions 1 through 5 here, or do you perhaps need gather more material and expand your draft?
- 8- What was easy about writing this draft? What was difficult about writing it?
- 9- Do you feel satisfied or disappointed in your draft?

- **REVISION**

In this step, you polish what you have written. This step is also called revising and editing. Polishing is most successful if you do it in two steps. First, attack the big issues of content and organization (*revising*). Then work on the smaller issues of grammar, punctuation, and mechanics (*editing*)

---

## Typology of the English paragraph

### A- Topic sentence

### B- Main supporting sentences

1- Main supporting sentence one

a- Detail one

b- Detail two

2- Main supporting sentence two

a-Detail one

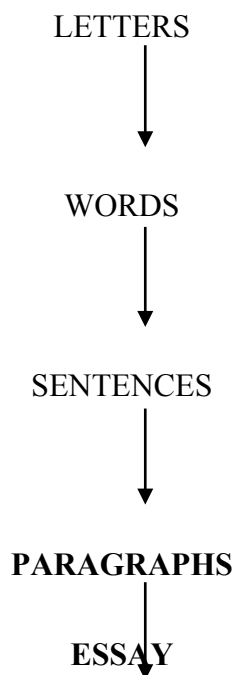
b-Detail two

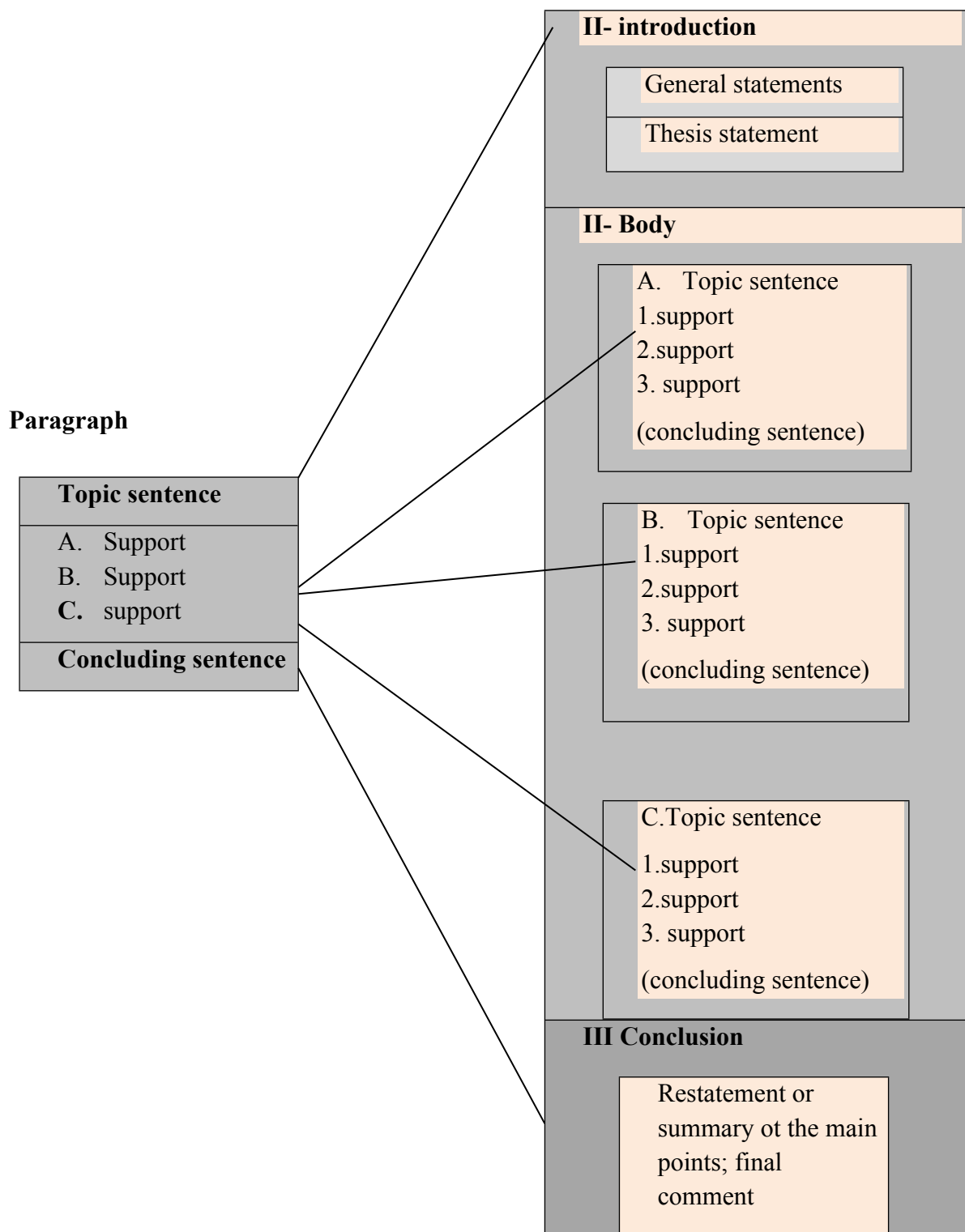
3- Main supporting sentence two

a-Detail one

b-Detail two

### C- concluding sentence





Typology of the English Essay ( Alice Oshima ,Ann Hogue (2006). P57 Fourth edition)

## Types of English essays and their patterns of organization

### 1-Organization of Argumentative Essay for Counter-argumentation

Block Pattern	Point-by-point Pattern
I. introduction	<b>I. introduction</b>
<b>Explanation of the issue</b>	Explanation of the issue, including a summary of the other sides' arguments
<b>Thesis statement</b>	Thesis
II. body	<b>II-body</b>
Block1	A. Statement of the other side's first argument and rebuttal with your own counterargument
<b>A .summary of other side's arguments</b>	B. Statement of the other side's second argument and rebuttal with your counterargument
<b>B. rebuttal to the first argument</b>	C. Statement of the other side's third argument and rebuttal with your counterargument
<b>C. rebuttal to the second argument</b>	
<b>D. rebuttal to the third argument</b>	
Block 2	
<b>E. Your first argument</b>	
<b>F. your second argument</b>	
<b>G. your third argument</b>	<b>III. conclusion</b> – may include a summary of your point of view
III.concluding – <b>may include a summary of your point of view</b>	

Alice Oshima , Ann Hogue (2006). P143 Fourth edition

**Task: students have to complete the outline of the model essay**

### **Separating the Sexes, just for the Tough Years**

#### **I. Introduction ( explanation of the issue)**

Thesis Statement:

.....  
 .....

#### **II. Body**

A. Opposing argument 1

Opponents of single- sex education claim that test scores show that there is no advantage to all-girl or all- boy classes

Rebuttal to argument 1

1. Research is inconclusive – show opposite results

2. Other results that cannot be calculated

a. Girls .....

b. Boys.....

B- opposing argument 2

.....

Rebuttal argument 2

.....

a. Setting squabbles with siblings

b. Negotiating with opposite-sex parent

C- opposing argument 3

.....

Rebuttal to argument 3

.....

a. ....

b. Teachers call on boys more often

D. Own point of view

1. Same-sex classes provide a better learning environment

2. Reasons

a. Boys and girls .....

b. Girls .....

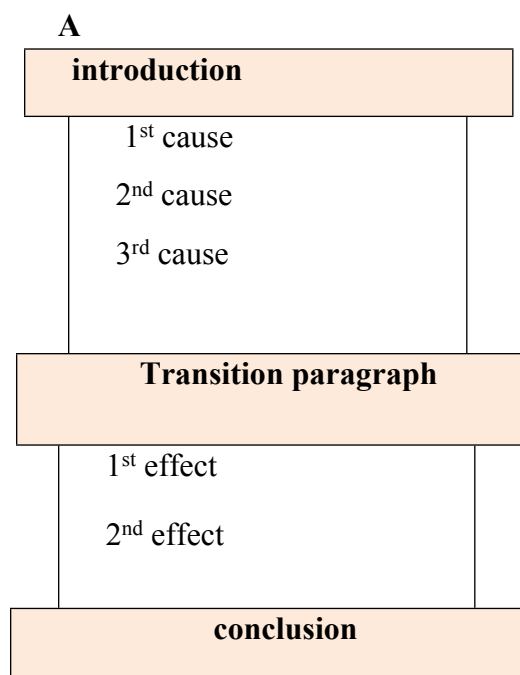
c. Boys .....

#### **III. Conclusion**

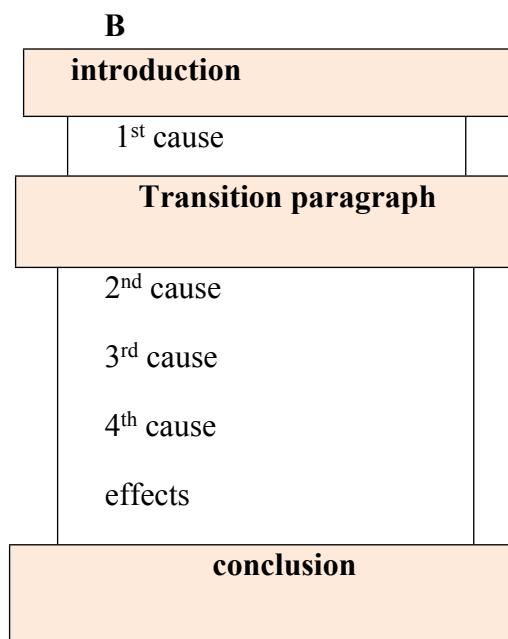
**Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue (2006, p.146 )Fourth edition**

#### **2-Organization for Cause/ effect Order**

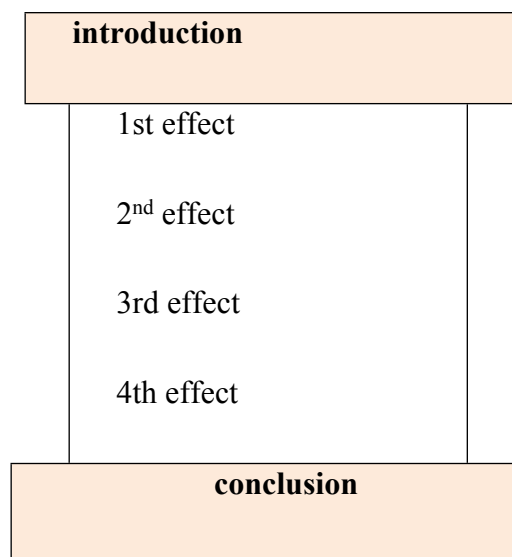
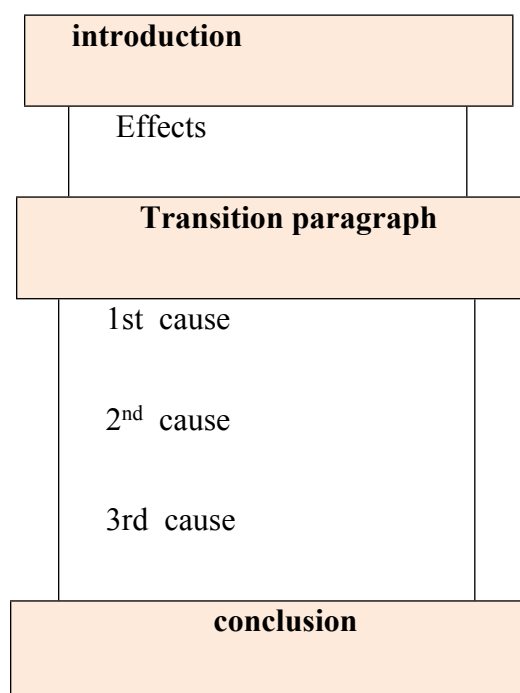
##### **A- Block organization**



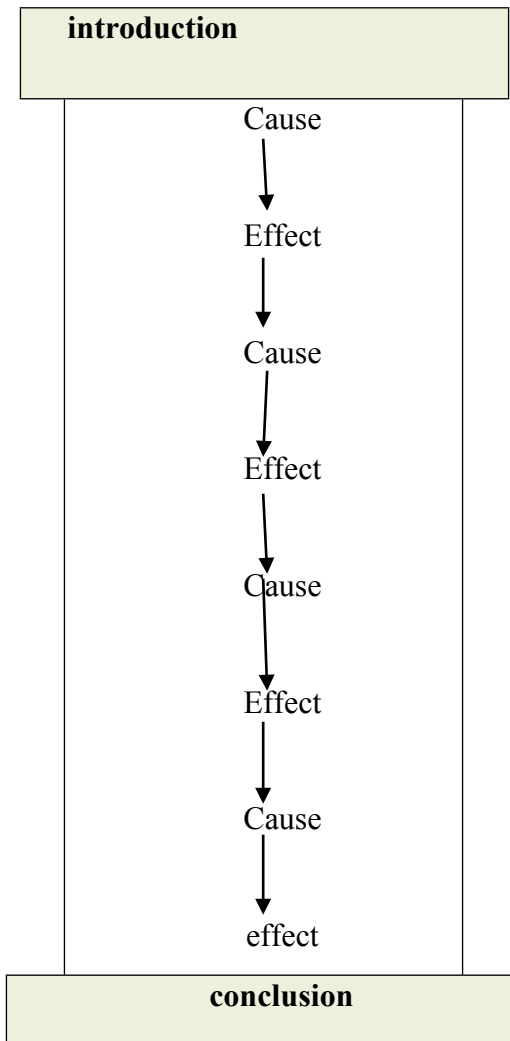
C



D



Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue (2006,p.95 )Fourth edition

**B- Chain Organization**

Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue (2006, p. 99.)Fourth edition

### 3- Organization of comparison /contrast essay

#### A-Point by point organization

<b>I- Introduction</b>	<b>I- introduction</b>
Thesis statement:	one way to decide between two jobs offers is to compare them on important points
<b>II- Body</b>	<b>II- body</b>
A- First point of comparison	A. salary
B- Second point of comparison	B. Benefits
C- Third point of comparison	C. opportunities for advancement
D- Fourth point of comparison	D. workplace atmosphere
E- Fifth point of comparison	E. commuting distance from home
<b>III-conclusion</b>	<b>III- conclusion</b>

#### A- Block organization

<b>I- Introduction</b>	<b>I- Introduction</b>
Thesis statement:	one way to decide between two jobs offers is to compare them on important points
<b>II- Body</b>	<b>II- body</b>
A-Similarities	A- Similarities
1. 1 <sup>st</sup> similarity	1. Benefits
2. 2 <sup>nd</sup> similarity	2. Commute distance from home
B-differences	B- differences
1. 1 <sup>st</sup> difference	1.Salary
2. 2 <sup>nd</sup> difference	2.Opportunities for advancement
3. 3 <sup>rd</sup> difference	3.Workplace
<b>III- conclusion</b>	<b>III conclusion</b>

Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue (2006). P114 Fourth edition

#### 4- Organization of Process essay

<b>I- Introduction</b>	<b>I-introduction</b>
Thesis statement:	discuss the steps in your process I the order They occur
<b>II- Body</b>	<b>II- body</b>
A. 1 <sup>st</sup> step	A. shaping the vase
B. 2 <sup>nd</sup> step	B. firing
C. 3 <sup>rd</sup> step	C. Glazing
D. 4 <sup>th</sup> step	D. Second firing
<b>III- Conclusion</b>	<b>III- conclusion</b>

Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue (2006, p. 84) Fourth edition

#### Transition signals

##### 1- Transition signals for chronological order

Chronological order signal words and phrases	
<b>First, first of all, second, third, etc.</b>	First, choose a destination for your camping trip.
<b>Then, next, after that, soon, later ,later on</b>	Then, make a list of supplies and equipment. Last of all, have a good time.
<b>Finally, last, last of all</b>	Meanwhile, have a supply of clean rags ready.
<b>Meanwhile, at the same time, now</b>	Gradually increase your child's allowance
<b>Gradually, eventually</b>	
Subordinators	
<b>After</b>	<b>since</b>
<b>As</b>	<b>until</b>
<b>As soon as</b>	<b>when</b>
<b>Before</b>	<b>while</b>
Others	
<b>The first ( second, last, final) step</b>	<b>The last step</b> is to decorate the cake
<b>On the third day</b>	Continue stirring the soup for <b>five minutes</b>
<b>After leaving home</b>	<b>In 2004</b> , scientists announced a major discovery

<b>Later that morning</b>	<b>After leaving home,</b> I began to appreciate my
<b>For five minutes</b>	parents.
<b>In 2004</b>	My parents immigrated to the United States <b>several</b>
<b>Several years ago</b>	<b>years ago.</b>
<b>a few weeks later</b>	The court announced the decision <b>a few weeks</b>
<b>In the next (past, last) 15 years</b>	<b>later.</b>

Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue (2006). P. 68, Fourth edition

## 2- Transition signals for Cause/ Effect essay

### A- Cause signal words

Coordinators	
<b>for</b>	Bison were indispensable to the Native American tribes, <b>for</b> this one animal provided them with nearly everything they needed for survival: meat, clothing, shelter, tools, and weapons.  Note: when used in this way, for has the same meaning as because. However, you must use a comma in front of for, and you must not use a comma in front of because
subordinators	
<b>Because</b> <b>Since</b> <b>as</b>	Bison were indispensable to the Native American tribes because/since/as this one animal provided them with nearly everything they needed for survival: meat, clothing, shelter, tools, and weapons
others	
<b>To result from</b> <b>To be the result of</b> <b>Due to</b> <b>Because of</b> <b>The effect of</b> <b>The consequence of</b>	The bison's near extinction resulted from/was the results of loss of habitat and overhunting.  Bison nearly became extinct due to/ because of loss of habitat and overhunting.  One effect of/ consequence of westward expansion was the destruction of habitat for the bison.

<b>As a results of</b>	The areas in which bison could roam freely shrank as a result of/as a consequence of the westward expansion of the 1800's
<b>As a consequence of</b>	

Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue (2006). P. 101, Fourth edition

## B- Effect signal words

	Transition words and phrases
As a result As a consequence Therefore Thus Consequently hence	Workers building the new transcontinental railroad needed meat; <b>as a result/ as a consequence/ therefore/ thus/ consequently/ hence</b> , hunters killed bison by the thousands. Note: notice the difference between as a result and as a result of. As a result is followed by a full sentence (independent clause) and introduces an effect. <b>As a result of</b> is followed by n noun phrase and introduces a clause.
	<b>Coordinators</b>
So	Native Americans began trading bison skins to the settlers for steel knives and guns, so they began killing bison in larger numbers
	<b>Others</b>
To result in To cause To have an effect on To affect The cause of The reason for thereby	Loss of habitat and overhunting resulted in/caused the near extinction of bison. The reduced numbers of bison has a terrible effect on/ affected the lives of the Native Americans who had depended on them for survival. The rescue of the bison from near extinction is a cause of / a reason for celebration The 85 bison that survived we're given refuge in Yellowstone National Park in 1892, thereby saving these species form total extinction . note: thereby is most frequently used in front of 6ing phrases

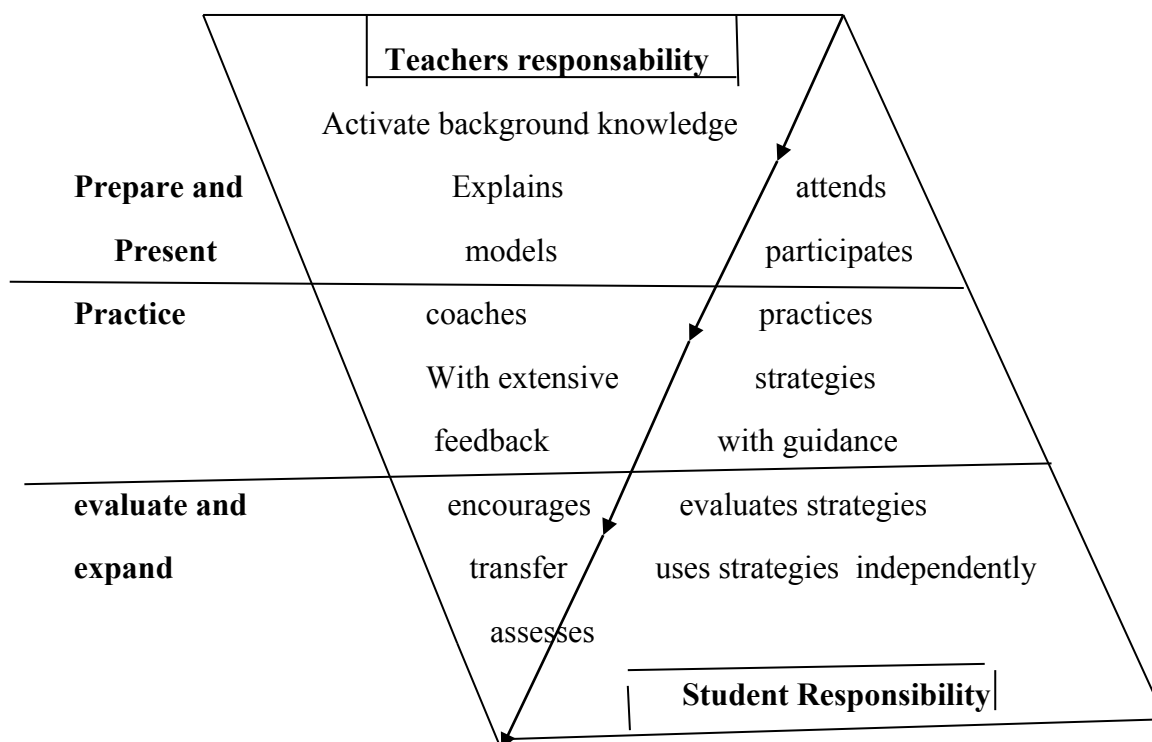
Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue (2006). P. 102, Fourth edition

### 3- Transition signal for Comparison and Contrast essay

Transition words and phrases	
Similarly	Human workers can detect malfunctions in machinery;
Likewise	<b>similarly/ likewise</b> a robot can be programmed to detect
Also	equipment malfunctions
too	Human workers can detect malfunctions in machinery; a robot can <b>also</b> .
	Human workers can detect malfunctions in machinery; a robot can <b>too</b> .
Subordinators	
As	Robots can detect malfunctions in machinery, <b>as/ just as</b>
Just as	human workers can.
	Note : use a comma when as and just as show comparison even when the dependent clause follows the independent clause as in the above.
coordinators	
And	Robots and human workers can detect malfunctions in
Both...and	machinery.
Not only...but also	Both robots and human workers can detect malfunctions in
Neither...nor	machinery.
	Neither robots nor human workers are infallible.
Others	
Like (+noun)	Robot, like/ just like/similar to human workers, can detect
Just (+noun)	malfunctions in machinery.
Similar to ( to (+noun)	Robots are like/are similar to / are the same as human workers
(be) like	in their ability to detect malfunctions in machinery.
(be) similar to	Robots and human workers are alike/are similar in their ability
(be) the same as	to detect malfunctions in machinery
(be) the same	
(be) alike	Robots can be compare to / be compare with human workers
(be) similar	in their ability to detect malfunctions in machinery

Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue (2006, p 117) Fourth edition

### Framework for strategies instruction



Framework for Strategies Instruction (the CALLA ( 1994, p.66) by Chamot and O'Malley)

**Sample of English paragraph****Bad Drivers**

There are three kinds of bad drivers you see on the streets and highways of almost any country. The first kind of bad driver is the wannabe Grand Prix racer. This kind of driver drives very aggressively. For example, he or she steps on the gas and roars away a millisecond before a traffic signal turn green. Driving in the passing lane and ignoring speed limits are normal for this kind of driver. The second kind of bad driver is the modern multitasker. Modern multitaskers include drivers such as working mothers and overworked businessmen and women. They eat a sandwich drink a cup of coffee, talk on their cell phone, and discipline the children fighting in the back seat while speeding down the highway at 65mph. the last kind is the cautious driver. The cautious driver drives v-e-r-y slowly and carefully. For instance; he or she drives no faster than 40mph on highways and slows down to 30 on every curve. When making a turn, he or she almost comes to a full stop before inching around the corner. In conclusion, bad drivers can be speedsters,” slowsters”, or just inattentive, but you have to watch out for all of them

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**Wannabe:** someone who wants to be something he or she is not ( informal)

**Multitasker :** person who performs many tasks at the same time ( informal)

**Oshima A. and Hogue A. ( 2007).** Introduction to Academic Writing. Level 3. third Edition. Pearson Longman

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**Sample of English essay****Separating the Sexes, Just for the Tough Years**

The middle school years (grades 7 and 8) are known to be the “tough years.” These are the years when the uneven pace of girls’ and boys’ physical, emotional, and cognitive development is most noticeable. Girls are ahead of boys on all counts, and both suffer. Educators debate whether separating boys and girls during these difficult years might improve student’s academic performance. Separate classes are now prohibited in public schools that receive federal funds, but a change in the federal law that prohibits them is under consideration. Although some parents and educators oppose same-sex classes, there is some evidence that separating boys and girls in middle school yields positive results.

Opponents of single-sex education claim that test scores of students in all-girl or all-boy classes are no higher than those of students in mixed classes (“Study”)<sup>1</sup>. However, the research is inconclusive. Despite the fact that some research shows no improvement in test scores, other research shows exactly opposite results (Blum)<sup>2</sup>. More important, many psychologists believe that test scores are the wrong measuring sticks. They believe that self-confidence and self-esteem issues are more important than test scores. In same-sex classes, girls report increased confidence and improved attitudes toward math and science, for example (“Study”). These are results that cannot be calculated by a test but that will help

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1 “ Study: All-Girls Schools Don’t Improve Test Scores” CNNinteractive 12Mar.1998. 2 June 2004. <[Http://www.cnn.com/US/9803/same.sex.classes/](http://www.cnn.com/US/9803/same.sex.classes/)>

2 Blum, Justin. “ Scores Spar at D.C. School with Same Sex Classes.” Washingtonpost.com 27 june 2002. 2 Junz 2004 <[http:// www.Washingtonpost.com/ac2/wd\\_dyn/A52023-2002 June 26/?language=printer](http://www.Washingtonpost.com/ac2/wd_dyn/A52023-2002 June 26/?language=printer)>.

Gross, Jane. "Splitting Up Boys and Girls, Just for the Tough Years." *The New York Times* 31 May 2004: A16.

adolescents become successful adults long after the difficult years of middle school are past. New York University professor Carol Gilligan is certain that girls are more likely to be "creative thinkers and risk-takers as adults if educated apart from boys in middle school" (Gross). Boys, too, gain confidence when they do not have to compete with girls. Boys at this age become angry and fight back in middle school because they feel inferior when compared to girls, who literally "out-think" them. With no girls in the classroom, they are more at ease with themselves and more receptive to learning (Gross).

Opponents also maintain that separate classes (or separate schools) send the message that males and females cannot work together. They say that when students go into the work force, they will have to work side-by-side with the opposite sex, and attending all-girl or all-boy schools denies them the opportunity to learn how to do so ("North")<sup>1</sup>. However such an argument completely ignores the fact that children constantly interact with members of the opposite sex outside school from playing and squabbling with siblings to negotiating allowances, chores, and privileges with their opposite-sex parent, children learn and practice on a daily basis the skills they will need in their future workplaces.

The final argument advanced by opponents of same-sex education is that it is discriminatory and, therefore, unconstitutional. However, research supports exactly the opposite conclusion: that discrimination is widespread in mixed classes. Several studies have shown that boys dominate discussions and receive more attention than girls and that teachers call on boys more than they call on girls, even when girls raise their hands ("North"). Clearly, this is discriminatory.

It should be evident that the arguments against same-sex classes are not valid. On the contrary, many people involved in middle-school education say that same-sex classes provide a better learning environment. Boys and girls pay less attention to each other and more attention their schoolwork (Marquez)<sup>5</sup>. As a teacher noted, “Girls are more relaxed and ask more questions; boys are less disruptive and more focused” (“North”). Girls are less fearful of making mistakes and asking questions in math and science; boys are less inhibited about sharing their ideas in language and literature. Furthermore, schoolchildren are not disadvantaged by lack of contact with the opposite sex because they have many opportunities outside the school setting to interact with one another. Finally, discrimination occurs in mixed classes, so discrimination is not a valid argument. Therefore, in my opinion, the law prohibiting same –sex classes in public schools should be changed.

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1 “ North Carolina School Stop Same –Sex Classes.3 American Civil Liberties Union News 5 Apr.2000. 2 June 2004 < <http://archive.aclu.Org/news/2000/w040500d.html>>

**Oshima A. and Hogue A. ( 2006). Introduction to Academic Writing. Level 4. Fourth Edition. Pearson Longman**

### Abstract in Arabic خلاصة

تعد الكتابة بلغة ثانية أو لغة أجنبية نشاطاً معقداً يجعل طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية يواجهون صعوبات عند الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية. يظهر هذا التعقيد في كتابات الطلاب التي غالباً ما توصف بأنها غير منظمة من الناحية الخطابية وشخصية بشكل عام. يعتبر تدريس الكتابة معقداً بقدر تعقيد تعلم كيفية الكتابة ، ويسعى المعلمون إلى إيجاد طرق لتسهيل ذلك. الهدف من هذا البحث الحالي هو تعزيز أهمية تعليم استراتيجيات الكتابة في تدريس الكتابة كوسيلة لتحسين أداء الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية للطلاب الجزائريين باعتبار اللغة الإنجليزية لغة أجنبية في الجزائر. وعليه ، فإن مراجعة هذا البحث تتناول الأدبيات في مجالات الدراسات الرئيسية التالية ، وهي الخطاب المقارن ، وتعليم الاستراتيجيات ، ونظرية التطور المعرفي ، والنظرية البنائية الاجتماعية. يسعى هذا البحث الكمي إلى اكتساب فهم أعمق لتأثير تعليم الاستراتيجيات في تحسين أداء الكتابة لدى الطلاب ؛ وبشكل أكثر تحديداً ، تأثير التعليمات الواضحة لاستراتيجيات مخطط التعبير وكذلك الاستراتيجيات الخطابية على المقال الجدلي . لإثبات تأثير تعليمات الاستراتيجيات ، تم اختيار طريقة شبه تجريبية كطريقة تم فيها لجمع البيانات. تم جمع البيانات عن طريق الاختبارات التمهيدية والبعيدة واستبيانات الطلاب. المشاركون في هذا البحث هم طلاب السنة الثانية بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة في بوزريعة ، وتتراوح أعمارهم بين 20 و 22 سنة. حيث أن الطلاب المشاركون في هذه الدراسة قد درسوا اللغة الإنجليزية لمدة 8 سنوات وتم قبولهم في الكلية بعد اجتيازهم اختبار القبول الانتقائي. المشاركون من مجموعتين سليميتين وتم تعيينهم على النحو التالي: المجموعة التجريبية والضابطة. تلقت المجموعة التجريبية ، بالإضافة إلى البرنامج الرسمي للكلية ، تعليمات تركز على استخدام الاستراتيجيات بينما تلقت المجموعة الضابطة مساقات الكتابة من البرنامج الرسمي فقط. أظهرت نتائج التجربة أن المجموعة التجريبية سجلت تقدماً إحصائياً معنوياً تم قياسه من خلال اختبار T. يمكن أن نستنتج أن تعليم الاستراتيجيات يمكن أن يكون وسيلة فعالة في تحسين أداء الكتابة لدى الطلاب.

الكلمات المفتاحية: استراتيجيات التعلم ، استراتيجيات التدريس ، مخطط التعبير ، الاستراتيجيات البلاغية