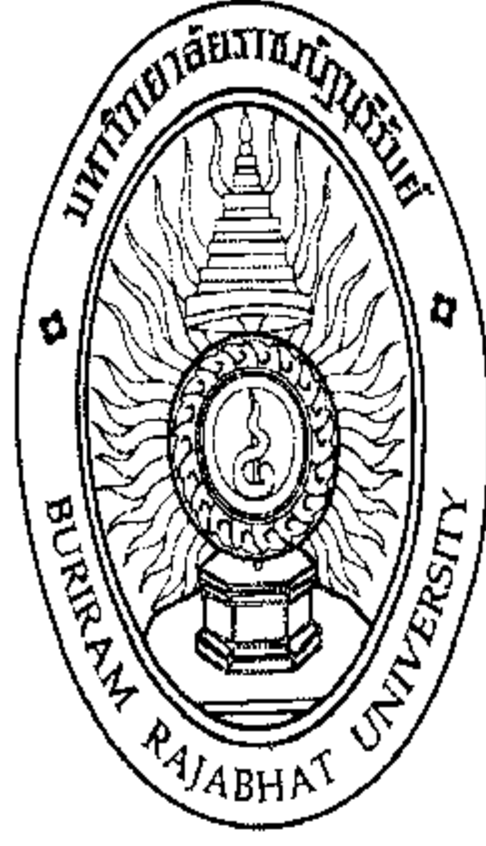

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Buriram Rajabhat University

วิทยานิพนธ์

ของ

ปุณณภา แพงศรี

เสนอต่อมหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์ เพื่อเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษา

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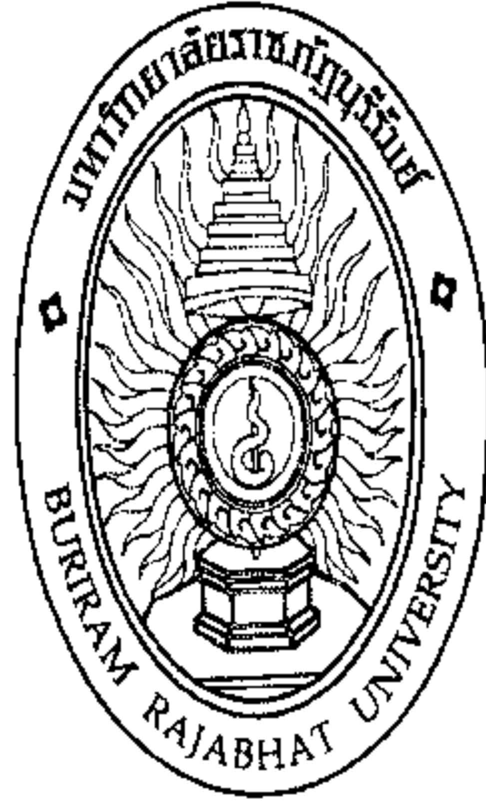

INVESTIGATING THE ENGLISH WRITING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY GRADE 9 STUDENTS IN BURIRAM PROVINCE

Punnapa Paengsri

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of Master of Arts Program in English

April 2016

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ชื่อเรื่อง	การสำรวจการใช้กลวิธีการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 3 จังหวัดบุรีรัมย์		
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สถานศึกษา	มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์	**ปีที่พิมพ์**	2559

บทคัดย่อ

การวิจัยนี้มีจุดมุ่งหมายเพื่อศึกษาและเปรียบเทียบการใช้กลวิธีการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 3 จังหวัดบุรีรัมย์ เมื่อจำแนกตามเพศและความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษ กลุ่มตัวอย่างที่ใช้ในการศึกษาครั้งนี้เป็นนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 3 จำนวน 140 คน ซึ่งเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษพื้นฐาน (อ 23101) ภาคเรียนที่ 1 ปีการศึกษา 2558 โรงเรียนธารทองพิทยาคม จังหวัดบุรีรัมย์ สังกัดสำนักงานเขตพื้นที่การศึกษามัธยมศึกษา เขต 32 ได้มาโดยใช้ตารางของเครซี่และมอร์แกนและการสุ่มอย่างง่าย เครื่องมือการวิจัยได้แก่ แบบสอบถามการใช้กลวิธีการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษและการสัมภาษณ์ สถิติที่ใช้ในการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลจากแบบสอบถามได้แก่ ค่าร้อยละ ค่าเฉลี่ย ส่วนเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานและค่าคะแนนทีที่เป็นอิสระต่อกันโดยกำหนดค่านัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ .05 ส่วนการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลจากการสัมภาษณ์ใช้การวิเคราะห์เนื้อหา ผลการศึกษา พบว่า

1. การใช้กลวิธีการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 3 จังหวัดบุรีรัมย์ โดยภาพรวมและรายกลวิธี อยู่ในระดับปานกลาง ค่าเฉลี่ยสูงสุด คือ กลวิธีทางสังคม รองลงมา คือ กลวิธีการชดเชย กลวิธีทางพุทธิปัญญา กลวิธีทางความจำ กลวิธีทางอภิปัญญา กลวิธีทางจิตใจและกลวิธีเชิงลบ ตามลำดับ

2. การใช้กลวิธีการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 3 จังหวัดบุรีรัมย์ เมื่อจำแนกตามเพศและความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษ พบว่า แตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ .05

TITLE	Investigating the English Writing Strategies Employed by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province		
AUTHOR	Punnapa Paengsri		
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	Dr. Surachai Piyanukool		Co-advisor
DEGREE	Master of Arts	**MAJOR**	English
SCHOOL	Buriram Rajabhat University	**YEAR**	2016

ABSTRACT

This research aimed to study and compare the English writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram province classified by gender and English language proficiency. The samples were 140 grade 9 students who were studying the Fundamental English Course (E 23101) in the first semester of 2015 academic year at Thantongpittayakhom High School in Buriram Province under the Secondary Educational Service Area Office 32. They were selected by using the table of Krejcie and Morgan, and simple random sampling, respectively. The research instrument was the writing strategies questionnaire and semi-structure interview. The collected data from the questionnaire were analyzed by using percentage, mean, standard deviation and independent samples t-test while the interview data were analyzed by content analysis. The findings were as follows:

1. The English writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram province in overall and each category were at a moderate level. The highest mean score was social strategies, followed by compensation strategies, cognitive strategies, memory strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and negative strategies, respectively.

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2. There were statistically significant differences at the level of .05 of the English writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram province classified by their gender and English language proficiency.

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Buriram Rajabhat University

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
IW	Individual Writing
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LLS	Language Learning Strategy
NS	Native Speakers
NNS	Non-Native-Speakers
PW	Paired Writing
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
UG	Universal Grammar
WSQ	Writing Strategies Questionnaire

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Academically speaking, English is a major international language taking part in both regional and global academic and professional communities. Overall, people all over the world in non-English speaking countries take English as a foreign language (EFL) to develop their proficiency in English. The higher level of education being pursued, the greater the command of English is required, especially in reading and writing in order to access academic resources and keep up with world standards in all disciplines (Carrell. 1993; Paris, Lipson & Wixon. 1994). More specifically, learning to read and write in English is a great challenge for EFL students, especially when it is mostly for academic purposes. One way to envision the steps an EFL learner must take is to consider the nature of their language learning on a continuum.

In writing education, since the 1980s, following the developments in composition instruction of English as a first language, ESL composition instruction has shifted from the controlled composition and current traditional rhetoric approaches that focus on the ultimate products of student writing to the process approach that emphasizes the essence of promoting the writer's thinking skills while writing (Spivey. 1990; Tapinta. 2006; Dhanarattigannon. 2008; Zhou & Siriyothin. 2009). In this process approach, students are trained to pay attention on the purpose and content of the messages they want to convey to the readers, not just primarily on the forms of the language. The strategic knowledge involved in planning, drafting

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(composing), and revising is the central focus in second language writing practice. With this approach, the writing classroom environment transforms into a writing workshop context (Silva. 1990; Hirvela. 2004; Tapinta. 2006).

Over the past ten years, Thai educators and researchers have paid increasing attention to various types of literacy instruction. Along with the literacy crisis, English which is considered a foreign language in Thailand has become more important due to globalization and the increasing number of investments from foreign countries. A good command of English is required not only for higher education, but also for getting and keeping a job. While English oral skills have long been emphasized in the academic world and the market, reading and writing skills are becoming important for academic purpose. Zhou and Siriyothin (2009) state that in English writing instruction in Thailand, the approaches of controlled composition and current traditional rhetoric still prevail. Also, it should be noted that prior to entering the tertiary level of education, the majority of Thai students have a few opportunities to practice English writing beyond the paragraph level (Tonthong. 1999; Tapinta. 2006; Dhanarattigannon. 2008). Generally, in writing classrooms, students are taught useful vocabulary, sentence patterns, and how to use conjunctive devices to connect sentences to form a paragraph and connect discourses between paragraphs. Then, they apply such linguistic knowledge for the assigned writing task. The knowledge of rhetorical patterns is generally introduced through modeled essays/ compositions. On the other hand, students are not trained to think about how they can develop their cognitive strategies to enhance different writing processes (i.e., planning, drafting, revising). The real senses of goal-setting and rhetorical problems are not seriously promoted. Besides, students are not provided with enough time to develop multiple

drafts or reflect on how they could revise their drafts (Tonthong. 1999; Tapinta. 2006). Generally, they produce a single draft, perhaps with some minor revision of content but with most editing focused on grammatical elements.

At the high school level, Thai writing is an elective course. Thai students rarely have a chance to practice academic writing. In Thai writing classes, students are primarily taught to use language grammatically and to write a variety of letters and poems with proper structure. In English classes, Thai students rarely write. If they write, grammatical structure at the sentence level is emphasized. For writing, speaking from the researcher personal experience as both an EFL student writer and an EFL writing teacher, the researcher perceives that learning and teaching writing by a product-oriented approach helps students to develop mainly their linguistic skills rather than writing expertise (Tonthong. 1999; Tapinta. 2006; Dhanarattigannon. 2008; Zhou & Siriyothin. 2009). Clearly, its major limitation is that it does not prepare students to become proficient, independent writers because they do not learn to be explicitly aware of the writing processes they are working on and do not gain the strategic knowledge necessary to enhance their performances during these processes. In one study, a Thai EFL high school is described at the beginning of the study as a non-fluent writer since she could not produce "complete and meaningful texts" (Rorschach. 1986: 58). The researcher notes that the student's concern about the teacher's expectations of the final quality of the written work focused the attention away from how the student should deal with writing processes. However, more recent research that examined the effect of the instruction of the process-oriented writing practice to Thai high school students reported that using a communicative writing task (i.e., dialogue journal writing) helped build students' awareness of what

writing means and entails (Tonthong. 1999; Tapinta. 2006; Dhanarattigannon. 2008). Most important of all, writing academic English seems to be a difficult task for EFL students in Thailand.

Consequently, in Thailand, English is a foreign language and taught as an academic subject. From the researcher' experiences as a students in English class, writing in English is taught as an assembly of discrete parts, starting from tracing the 25 letters from A to Z, followed by simple words, sentences, and paragraphs, respectively. Exercises in writing are primarily focused on forming sentences correctly. From the researcher' personal experiences as a student and a teacher and as far as the research have informally observed, writing classes in Thailand are generally product-oriented. As illustrated earlier, writing is a process, as well as a product. The current study therefore seeks to provide a more holistic investigation of writing strategies via the use of the mixed methods approach. A close investigation of how their writing occurs and what writing strategies they use may contribute to the teaching/training them to be more effective strategy users, thus help them become more effective academic English writers. As a result, this research seeks fill some of the gaps and seeks to make some contribution to the teaching of effective academic English writing to EFL students in Thailand by providing a more comprehensive understanding of writing strategies via the research design.

1.2 Purposes of the Study

1.2.1 To explore the English writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram Province;

1.2.2 To compare the English writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram Province, classified by gender and English language proficiency.

1.3 Research Questions

A case study approach, together with a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods, will be appropriate for answering the two research questions:

1.3.1 What are the English writing strategies most frequently used by grade 9 students in Buriram Province?

1.3.2 Is there any different English writing strategy employed by grade 9 students in terms of gender and English language proficiency? If so, how?

1.4 Significance of the Study

The current study therefore seeks to provide a more holistic investigation of writing strategies via the use of the mixed methods approach. In spite of the fact that quite a lot of studies have been carried out to investigate writing strategies of ESL/EFL learners at different gender and levels of proficiency, most of them relied heavily on qualitative research methods as their major source of data. This approach does not allow data to be corroborated. The incorporation of a quantitative aspect is the feature which makes the current research different from previous studies. Data drawn from qualitative methods of interviews are now cross-checked by those from questionnaires, thereby providing more confidence in the research findings.

The study also contributes to our knowledge of composition strategies and is therefore of "potential value" to language teachers. As Ellis (1997 : 78) explains: "if those

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strategies that are crucial or earning can be identified, it may prove possible to train students to use them". More specifically, EFL students' knowledge/ awareness of strategy use and their abilities in applying such strategies in writing has not been discussed extensively in the literature. The study of learning behaviors that take place during the writing processes should provide more insight into this issue. This better understanding may help inform classroom teachers and educators about what pedagogical considerations needs to be taken when developing or implementing instruction to promote students' strategic knowledge and expertise in English writing. Eventually, this could help EFL students become strategic and proficient writers in English. Also, the findings and discussions of the theoretical and practical implications from this study should contribute to the body of research knowledge in the field of English literacy development for EFL learners.

1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Study

Prior to the study, it is first limited in that it is a small scale study, which involves a small sample size, and thus affecting generalization. A small sample of nine participants can though allow certain generalizations, makes it inadequate to generalize from one case to another. A larger but less homogenous sample size would provide a clearer picture of writing strategy use of Thai EFL proficient and less proficient writers.

Lastly, the research is also limited by the limitations inherent in the research instruments. The retrospection method used in the interview, a method in which data are collected some time after the event under investigation has taken place, has been

criticized in that "the gap between the event and the reporting will lead to unreliable data" (Nunan. 1992: 124).

1.6 Definitions of Key Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following terms are defined.

1.6.1 Learning Strategies refers to the conscious or unconscious mental steps that are employed by learners to aid in the acquisition of a target language (Oxford. 1990).

1.6.2 Language Learning Strategies refers to "specific actions taken by the leaner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford. 1990b : 8). The learner is either conscious or partially conscious of the strategies he/she employs (Cohen. 1998). According to Oxford's New System of Language Learning Strategies (1990 : 14-15), language learning strategies can be divided into two main classes: 1) direct strategies, which directly involve the target language such as reviewing and practicing; and 2) indirect strategies, which provide indirect support for language learning such as planning, co-operating and seeking opportunities.

1.6.3 Writing: Writing and composition are often changeable. In L1 and ESL research, it refers to a paragraph or an essay. As Raimes (1983: 29) puts it, writing is based on the assumptions that "writing means writing a connected text and not just singles sentences, that writers write for a purpose and a reader, and that the process of writing is a valuable learning tool for all our students." In FL classroom, non-native teachers sometimes mix a sentence-level exercise up with a paragraph writing. In this study, writing or composition refers to a paragraph or an essay writing above sentence

exercises, such as pattern sentences, sentence combination, substitutions or transformations. To accomplish a writing task, not only do students need to possess the knowledge of grammatical structures and vocabulary but they also have to acquire the knowledge of paragraph organization or rhetorical structure.

1.6.4 Writing Process refers to a series of operations leading to the solution of a problem. The process begins when a writer consciously or unconsciously starts a topic and is finished when the written piece is published" (Graves. 1975: 227-241).

1.6.5 English Writing Strategies refer to the major categories of strategies that apply to enhance the effectiveness of the students' writing. The three processes were classified in accordance with the cognitive process model of writing.

1.6.5.1 Planning Strategies refer to the behaviors that enhance effective processes of goal setting (including thinking about rhetorical problems), generating, and organizing of ideas. Harris and Graham (1996) suggest that student writers be made aware of employing goal-setting strategies and know how to relate their background knowledge and different sources of information to create the topic and generate ideas for the topic.

1.6.5.2 Drafting Strategy refer to the concept that writing a good piece of work involves the process of developing the composed text in multiple drafts. This concept will help strengthen their awareness that the goals, generated ideas, and the composed text in the first draft can be refined until they feel that their text satisfactorily represents the ideas that want to communicate to the readers. Through the process of developing ideas and refining the language in multiple drafts, students will become more aware of the essential elements of fluency and accuracy in writing (Kane. 1988).

1.6.5.3 Reviewing Strategies refer to revising, editing, and evaluating strategies (Hayes & Flower. 1980; Flower & Hayes. 1994). Students need to be aware that these behaviors will enable their writing to yield a satisfactory product.

1.6.6 Writing Strategies Questionnaire (WSQ) refer to any written instrument that presents respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers (Brown. 2001). The WSQ used in this study is based on Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies and is adapted from the one that is used in Baker and Boonkit (2004). Strategies asked in the WSQ are divided into seven categories in which six belongs to Oxford's taxonomy: Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective and Social. The last category used in the present study is called Negative which consists of strategies regarded as deterring writing process.

1.6.6.1 Memory strategies refer Strategies involving creating mental linkage and employing actions to aid in entering information into long-term memory and retrieving information when needed for communication.

1.6.6.2 Cognitive strategies refer Strategies for analyzing and reasoning, used for forming and revising internal mental modes and receiving and producing messages in the target language.

1.6.6.3 Compensation strategies refer Strategies that include guessing unknown words while listening or reading, or circumlocution in speaking and writing to overcome any gaps in knowledge of the language.

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1.6.6.4 Metacognitive strategies refer Strategies that learners use to exercise executive control, planning, arranging, focusing, and evaluation of their own learning process.

1.6.6.5 Affective strategies refer Strategies that enable learners to control feelings, motivation, and attitudes related to language learning.

1.6.6.6 Social strategies refer Strategies that involve asking questions, cooperating with others, and facilitating interaction with others, often in a discourse situation.

1.6.6.7 Negative Strategies refer to the strategies regarded as deterring writing process. These strategies add validity to the questionnaire by offsetting "overly positive responses and any tendencies to simply agree with everything in the questionnaire" (Baker & Boonkit. 2004: 305).

1.6.7 Grade 9 students refer to grade 9 students who study English as a foreign language at Thantongpittayakhom School in Buriram Province, Thailand in the first semester of academic year 2015.

1.7 The Overviews of the Study

This thesis is presented in five chapters. This introductory chapter comes first in order to present the background, the aims as well as a brief introduction of the content covered by the other chapters. The Literature Review chapter, chapter two, then follows and focuses on reviewing the body of research related to the current study. Relevant theories and major findings from previous composition studies in both L1 and L2 will be provided. Gaps in the literature are then identified and the research questions are introduced. Chapter three will provide the theoretical

framework in which the study is conducted. A mixed methods approach will be adopted as the research design. The research instruments, as well as research procedures, will be presented with justifications. Issues concerning data reliability and validity and research ethics are also considered in this chapter. Description and statistical significance of findings will be presented in chapter four. These include results from a content analysis applied to qualitative data drawn from interviews, and results from a questionnaire analysis using a quantitative method of data analysis. An interpretation of research findings with explanations in reference to previous studies in the field is provided in the discussion of results chapter. Chapter five summarizes the research findings, evaluates the study in terms of significance and limitations, and draws some conclusions about practical applications for pedagogy.

1.8 Summary of the Chapter

In conclusion, this chapter has presented the background of the research, the purposes of the research, and the research questions. The current research is attempted to identify the contributions of the study, scope and limitations of the study of Thai EFL learners' writing strategies. This research also provided the definitions of key terms used to define the research variables. In the next chapter, Chapter Two presents the review of the related literature.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviewes the body of literature which is relevant to and of great importance to the current study. In the first section, some background of second language acquisition was provided to give a general understanding of the field. This includes an explanation about how language learning occurred and the rolled of language learning strategies in second language acquisition. Four most prominent second language learning theories were presented to provide a better understanding of the importance of learning strategies in making input comprehensible for acquisition. The second section then focused on the body of literature involving language learning strategies in general. Issues regarding terminologies, definition and classification of learning strategies were presented. Research into language learning strategies was then followed. The major approaches to teaching were discussed in the second section. Those included product or text-oriented approach, process approach, and genre approach. Three models of writing under the process approach were discussed in depth for their role in guiding process composition studies. The third section was described the strategy used in writing including planning, drafting, and reviewing strategies. The fourth and also the last section provided space for research into writing strategies. Both first language (L1) and second language (L2) composition research were reviewed in this section. Previous studies were then presented, respectively.

2.1 Theories of Second Language Acquisition

> ... unless we know for certain that the teacher's scheme of things really does match the learner's way of going about things, we cannot be sure that the teaching content will contribute directly to language learning.
> (Ellis. 1985a: 1)

The above statement is Ellis's (1985: 1) argument for why language teachers should be familiar with second language acquisition (SLA) research. According to Ellis (1994), it is generally agreed that second language acquisition research became a field of enquiry around the end of the sixties. Since that time, a great body of empirical research has been carried out in order to fulfill the two goals of SLA, which are to describe learner language and explain its characteristics. This large amount of the empirical research also contributes to the construction of theory, which is reflected in the availability of a number of models and theories of second language acquisition. These theories represent different perspectives on factors which have an important role to play in the process of second language learning. These include Noam Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG), Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis, Long's Interaction Hypothesis, and Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory.

Universal Grammar was proposed by American linguist Noam Chomsky as a "system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages not merely by accident but by necessity" (1995: 29). According to the UG approach, all human beings are born with a universal set of principles and parameters controlling the shape of human languages and responsible for the similarities between them. While principles (e.g. structure dependency) apply to all

natural languages, parameters (e.g. head parameter) consist of values making languages different. Applied to second language acquisition, there are a number of hypotheses about the role of UG, including no access hypothesis, full access hypothesis, indirect access hypothesis, and partial access hypothesis. The first hypothesis, no access hypothesis, states that UG is no longer available to second language learners. Advocates of this hypothesis propose that adult L2 learners are out of the critical period for language acquisition; thus, they have to rely on other language mechanisms. The second UG hypothesis completely contradicts the first one in that "UG continues to underpin L2 learning, for adults as well as children" and "there is no such thing as 'a critical period" (a period of time that is ideal for the acquisition of a language in a linguistically rich environment) (Mitchell & Myles. 1998: 66 as cited in Flynn. 1996). Standing in between the two extremes are the indirect access and partial access hypotheses. The indirect access hypothesis claims that adults L2 learners still have access to UG but only via their L1. The last UG hypothesis – the partial access hypothesis states that some aspects of UG are accessible and some are not to adult L2 learners. However, the hypothesis is controversial in that there is less agreement on which aspects of UG might be accessible and which might not be.

Belonging to the second type of theory about second language acquisition, the interactionist theory, the Monitor model is proposed by Krashen (1982) consisting of five hypotheses, including the Acquisition-learning Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis, and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. The Acquisition-learning Hypothesis makes a distinction between acquisition and learning, which is reflected in an opposition between a subconscious

process in natural settings and a conscious process focusing on form and error correction in formal settings like classrooms. One controversial argument rising from the hypothesis is whether learning becomes acquisition. Krashen (1982: 83-87) proposes that learning cannot turn into acquisition based on the following claims:

> 1) Sometimes there is "acquisition" without "learning" – that is, some individuals have considerable competence in a second language but do not know very many rules consciously.
> 2) There are cases where "learning" never becomes "acquisition" – that is a person can know the rules and continue breaking them, and
> 3) No one knows anywhere near all the rules.

Krashen further stresses the importance of acquisition, arguing that only the language gained through acquisition is readily available for natural, fluent communication. However, McLaughlin (1987) points out that the concepts of "conscious" and "subconscious" have not been made clear by Krashen (1982), thus, making it difficult to test whether the conscious or subconscious process is operating at a given moment. In addition, the matter of whether learning becomes acquisition also causes much debate.

The second hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, states that "learning has only one function, and that is as a Monitor or editor" to make "changes in the form of our utterance, after it has been 'produced' by the acquired system" (Krashen. 1982: 15). Meanwhile, the acquired system acts as a trigger for utterances and "is responsible for fluency and intuitive judgments about correctness" (Lightbrown & Spada. 1993: 27). Once again, Krashen's (1982) argument that conscious knowledge has little to do with acquisition is obviously demonstrated in that it only plays the role of an editor to polish the knowledge acquired in natural settings. From this point of view, thus, the implication for language teaching, according to Krashen (1982), is to focus on

communication, not rules. However, in order for the Monitor to be used, three conditions must be met, including time, focus on form, and the knowledge of rules. In other words, in order to use the monitor, the learner must have time, which means he/she has to slow down. In addition, the learner must focus on form and know the rules, both are difficult as he/she has to focus on meaning and form at the same time, and has had explicit instruction on the language form he/she is to produce, respectively. The problematic nature of these three conditions causes the hypothesis to be criticized. Another drawback of the Monitor Hypothesis, like the Acquisition – learning Hypothesis, lies in the fact that it is difficult to test empirically whether the acquired system or the monitor system involves in the production of output.

The third hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, states that features of the target language are acquired in predictable sequences but it is not that the earliest rules are the first to be acquired. The fact that Krashen (1982) draws on morpheme studies in the building of the hypothesis is the reason for it to be criticized as the process of SLA "cannot be captured by research that focuses on the accuracy use of specific morphemes in large cross-sectional samples of second-language learners" (McLaughlin. 1987: 35).

Lying at the centre of the theory is the Input Hypothesis which is both influential and controversial. The Input Hypothesis is central in Krashen's Monitor model in that it "attempts to answer the critical question of how we acquire language" (Krashen. 1982: 168). The answer claims a strong role for comprehensible input as the only means through which language is acquired. Krashen explains comprehension input using the formula i + 1, in which i is the learner's current competence while i + 1 is the comprehensible input – "the next step in the development sequence"

(Mitchell & Myles. 1998: 38). Both Krashen's claim for the exposure to comprehensible input as the only way for language to be acquired and his definition of comprehensible input are not clear enough to escape criticisms. The Input Hypothesis is thus criticized for the problem of how i and i + 1 are determined.

In addition to being exposed to comprehensible input, Krashen (1982) further claims that in order for acquisition to take place, such input must reach the Language Acquisition Device - an innate built-in system allowing language acquisition. According to the Affective Filter Hypothesis, whether comprehensible input can or cannot reach the Language Acquisition Device is controlled by the so-called Affective Filter. Such affective variables as the learner's motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states determine what input is allowed to enter the Language Acquisition Device. Thus, the filter will be 'up' or operating when the learner is stressed, self-conscious, or unmotivated" and "it will be 'down' when the learner is relaxed and motivated" (Lightbrown & Spada. 1993: 28). Krashen's (1982) idea of the affective filter is very useful in explaining why there are both successful and unsuccessful learners even when they have equal opportunities to learn. However, as Lightbrown and Spada (1993: 28) point out, it is difficult to say whether those affective variables "cause the differences in language acquisition" or vice versa.

Agreeing with Krashen (1982) on the role of comprehensible input in language acquisition, Long (1985) proposes the Interaction Hypothesis which incorporates the question of how to make input comprehensible, giving rise to interactional modification. Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1985) is drawn mostly from studies which observe interaction between native speakers (NS) and non-native-speakers (NNS). On the basis of the research findings, he claimed that through

interaction, NS and NNS employ such conversational strategies as repetition, confirmation and comprehension checks, clarification requests to negotiate input, thereby making input more comprehensible and ready for acquisition.

The relationship between interaction and language acquisition – the key idea of the Interaction Hypothesis – is illustrated as follows:

1. Interaction modification makes input comprehensible;
2. Comprehensible input promotes acquisition. Therefore,
3. Interactional modification promotes acquisition.

(Lightbrown & Spada. 1999)

As mentioned above, Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1985) is derived from research on L2 interaction in negotiating meaning. However, it is criticized for failing to "specify how comprehending input lead to acquisition" (Ellis. 1994: 286), and "how interaction affects grammatical development" (Braidi. 1995: 142-3). Moreover, the body of research on interaction has been done mostly "within western educational settings" (Mitchell & Myles. 1998: 142), which makes it unwise to claim that interaction assists language acquisition in other cross-cultural contexts.

Another interactionist theory which "is more social in orientation" (Ellis. 1994: 244) is the sociocultural theory, proposed by Vygotsky (1978). It is important to note that language, according to Vygotskian perspective, is "the prime symbolic tool available for the mediation of mental activity" and for directing "our own attention to significant features in the environment" (Mitchell & Myles. 1998: 145). Thus, dialogic communication is seen as a key factor in jointly constructing knowledge to be developed first inter-mentally, then intra-mentally by individuals. This is the central idea in sociocultural theory and it sheds light on the major concepts embedded in it. Language learning in sociocultural theory is assisted by the concept of

scaffolding – the process of supportive dialogue which directs learners to attend to key features in the environment and "prompt them through successive steps of a problem" (Mitchell & Myles. 1998: 145 as cited Wood et al. 1976). Another important concept of the sociocultural perspective is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). According to Vygotsky (1978: 85), the ZPD is the difference between the child's developmental level and the higher level of potential development determined by self-regulation (i.e. the ability to function autonomously) and other-regulation (i.e. guidance from a more knowledgeable person or peer group), respectively. Using scaffolding to make use of other-regulation within the ZPD is said to facilitate the learning of new concepts. The Vygotskian perspective also introduces activity theory which is influenced by Leontiev's (1978) theory of activity. According to Leontiev (1978), an activity consists of a subject, an object, actions, and operations. In language learning, the subject is the learner learning a new language, the object is the goal which is achieved by a number of actions carried out at different operational levels and influenced by the conditions in which they are executed (Donato & McCormick. 1994).

According to Ellis (1994), second language acquisition cannot take place without access to L2 input. However, as reflected in the foregoing theories of second language acquisition, "there is little agreement about the role that input plays in L2 acquisition" (Ellis. 1994: 26). While Universal Grammar leaves little space for the importance of input, interactionist theorists such as those proposed by Krashen (1982) and Long (1985), argue for a direct and powerful contribution of comprehensible input to acquisition. Although it cannot be denied that input is necessary for language acquisition, the language learners themselves also have an important role to play in

the learning process. In order to process new information and make input comprehensible, the language learners employ strategies; and this has been the concern of researchers in the field of second language acquisition since the sixties. Some issues involving learning strategies, including terminologies, definitions, classifications, and some research into learning strategies, are discussed in the next section.

2.2 Learning Strategies

It has been acknowledged by a number of researchers in the field that research into language learning strategies has resulted from a shift in focus from teachers and teaching (teaching methods and instructional materials) to learners (Lessard-Clouston. 1997; Hismanoglu. 2000). This remarkable shift can partly be traced back to an increase in awareness of the role of learners in their own learning, as Griffiths (2004: 2), puts it: "even with the best teachers and methods, students are the only ones who can actually do the learning". Embedded in this shift, with greater emphasis being put on the learners, is a growing awareness that "learning strategies are an important part of the second language acquisition process" (Baker & Boonkit. 2004: 299). However, it is interesting to see that there is an absence of consensus in terminologies, definitions and classifications within the field of language learning strategies despite the fact that a considerable body of research has been carried out.

2.2.1 Terminologies of Learning Strategies

Firstly, the lack of consensus is obviously reflected in the use of a number of different terminologies such as learner strategies by Wenden and Rubin (1987), learning strategies by O'Malley and Chamot (1994) and language learning strategies

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(LLS) by Oxford (1990a, 1990b). Wenden and Rubin (1987: 6) use the term learner strategies to refer to the three "distinct but closely related phenomenon" that guide research on learner strategies: what learners actually do to learn a second language or "language learning behaviors", their knowledge about the strategies they use or "strategic knowledge", and knowledge about "aspects of their language learning other than the strategies they use". Although Macaro (2001: 19) admits that language learning strategies and learner strategies are synonymous and used interchangeably in the literature, he makes some distinctions between the two. He argues that while learner strategies are used by learners to help them accomplish all language-related tasks, language learning strategies may not be associated with any recognizable language task, thus the former will often cover the latter. Another distinction made by Macaro (2001) is that learner strategies seems to carry more emphasis that would be placed on the learners as "active participants" in the learning process. He further argues that the term language learning strategies is used to refer to strategies that are specifically related to the language learning process while learner strategies might cover techniques in the learning of any subject.

2.2.2 Definitions of Learning Strategies

The fuzziness which characterizes the field of learning strategies as Ellis (1994: 529) comments is not only obvious in the use of terminologies but also in the use of definitions. The lack of consensus on defining language learning strategies was pointed out as early as 1975 by Naiman, Fröhlich and Todesco. It is then confirmed eight years later by Bialystok (1983: 100) as "There is little consensus in the literature concerning either the definition or the identification of language learning strategies". On explaining the absence in consensus, Macaro (2001) argues that researchers and

authors from different spheres of interest are affected by their domains when looking at the same matter, some from a psycholinguistic viewpoint and some from a pedagogical one. A review of the literature provides the following definitions:

Table 2.1

Definitions of Learning Strategies from the Different Scholars

Source	Definition
Tarone (1983)	An attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language -- to incorporate these into one's interlanguage competence.
Stern (1983)	Strategy is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behavior.
Weinstein and Mayer (1986)	The behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process.
Wenden and Rubin (1987)	Any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information.
Rubin (1987)	Are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly.
Chamot (1987)	Techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information.
Oxford (1989)	Behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable.
O'Malley and Chamot (1990)	The special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information.
Stern (1992)	The concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques.
Oxford (1992/1993)	Language learning strategies -- specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. Strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability.

As Lessard-Clouston (1997) points out, there is a change over time in those definitions, and this is reflected through a shift from focusing on "the product of LLS" to "the processes and the characteristics of LLS". In other words, rather than considering linguistic and sociolinguistic competence as objectives to be achieved in learning the target language by using language learning strategies, researchers in the field now put a greater emphasis on the nature of language learning strategies themselves.

However, according to Ellis (1994: 531-532), those definitions also reveal a number of problems. First of all, there is a distinction in the perception of learning strategies about whether they are behavioral or mental or both. For example, while Oxford (1989, 1992,1993) sees learning strategies as "behaviours", Weinstein and Mayer (1986) view them as both "behaviors and thoughts". Another problem is what kind of behaviours can be counted as learning strategies. While Stern (1983) makes a distinction between strategies and techniques, others such as Chamot (1987) and Oxford (1992,1993) have used the former to refer to behaviours called techniques by Stern. Stern argues that strategies are general approaches to learning while techniques refer to the kind of observable behaviours that are evident in particular areas of language learning such as grammar and vocabulary. The third problem revealed in those definitions is the matter of consciousness. Although not many researchers address this issue in their definitions, the argument that language learning strategies are consciously employed by learners has been put forward by several researchers such as Wenden and Rubin (1987), Oxford (1990) and Cohen (1998).

On describing the six criteria which characterize language learning strategies, Wenden and Rubin (1987: 8) state that "sometimes strategies may be consciously

deployed". They further provide situations in which this may happen, such as "when something new is being learned; when accuracy and/or appropriateness are considered important; when there is a need to correct or relearn familiar material; when there is an unexpected breakdown in understanding". Consciousness is also regarded as one of the features of language learning strategies by Oxford (1990). Cohen (1998: 4) confirms that "the element of consciousness is what distinguishes strategies from those processes that are not strategic" although "this is a controversial issue". He argues that the term "process" should be used to refer to behaviors which are so unconscious that the learner cannot identify any strategies associated with them. Ellis (1994) also shares this view by pointing out: "if strategies become so automatic that the learners are no longer conscious of employing them, they are no longer accessible for description through verbal report by the learners and thus lose their significance as strategies" (Cohen. 1998: 11 as cited Ellis. 1994). The two other problems concerning the definitions of learning strategies pointed out by Ellis are whether learning strategies affect the development of the interlanguage directly or indirectly, and what motivates strategy use. For example, while Rubin (1987) claims a direct effect, Seliger proposes a more indirect one. Finally, concerning what motivates learning strategy use, learning strategies are said by almost all the definitions listed in Table 2.1 to be used in order to facilitate the learning of the second language. However, the definition by Oxford (1989) added that learning strategies can have an affective purpose, that is, they can make learning enjoyable.

2.3.3 Classifications of Learning Strategies

It is important to note that how learning strategies are defined has an influence on how they are classified. Therefore, how to classify language learning strategies is

also one factor which contributes to the "fuzzy" nature of the field. A number of taxonomies have been created in an attempt to classify language learning strategies; however, this "remains no easy task" (Griffiths. 2004). Those taxonomies created so far reflect both overlap and conflict. For example, Rubin's (1975) very early classification has resulted in "a certain arbitrariness in the classification of learning strategies" as Stern (1992: 264) acknowledges. Rubin's classification consists of two types of learning strategies: direct (clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and practice) and indirect ones (creating opportunities for practice and production tricks). That communication strategies are considered as a kind of indirect learning strategies by Rubin has led to controversy. Tarone (1980) also shares the same viewpoint as Rubin by arguing that communication strategies can help enhance language input which in turn results in learning. However, others such as Brown (1980) and Ellis (1994) view learning strategies and communication strategies as "two quite separate manifestations of language learner behaviour" (Griffiths. 2004) with Brown's (1980: 87) argument that "communication is the output modality and learning is the input modality". Both Brown (1980) and Ellis (1994) point out communication strategies such as avoidance or message abandonment which aim to compensate for the lack of linguistic knowledge may even prevent learning. According to Tarone (1980: 419), it is the motivation of whether to communicate or to learn that determines if a strategy is considered as communication or learning strategy. This early classification of language learning strategies by Rubin is not only controversial but also incomprehensive since the system is based on research focusing only on successful language learners.

A later classification by O'Malley et al. (1985) has been broadened to include more social and communicative strategies. O'Malley et al.'s (1985) classification consists of three main categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socioaffective strategies. This inclusion of socioaffective category, as Griffiths (2004: 4) points out, "was an important step in the direction of acknowledging the importance of interactional strategies in language learning". However, the most comprehensive classification of all as acknowledged by a number of authors (Griffiths. 2004; Brown. 2001) is Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning which consists of six groups of strategies embedded in two main classes, direct and indirect. Direct strategies include memory, cognitive and compensation strategies, directly involving target language. Indirect strategies which indirectly support language learning are metacognitive, affective and social strategies.
Six major groups of L2 learning strategies have been identified by Oxford (1990) are presented as follows:

1. Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings, and practicing structures and sounds formally.

2. Metacognitive strategies (e.g., identifying one's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for an L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy) are employed for managing the learning process overall. Among native English speakers learning

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foreign languages, Purpura (1999: 61) has found that metacognitive strategies had "a significant, positive, direct effect on cognitive strategy use, providing clear evidence that metacognitive strategy use has an executive function over cognitive strategy use in task completion".

3. Memory strategies help learners link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding. Various memory-related strategies enable learners to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms), while other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds (e.g., rhyming), images (e.g., a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g., the keyword method), body movement (e.g., total physical response), mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a page or blackboard).

4. Compensatory strategies (e.g., guessing from the context in listening and reading; using synonyms and "talking around" the missing word to aid speaking and writing; and strictly for speaking, using gestures or pause words) help the learner make up for missing knowledge. Cohen (1998) asserts that compensatory strategies that are used for speaking and writing (often known as a form of communication strategies) are intended only for language use and must not be considered to be language learning strategies.

5. Affective strategies, such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk, have been shown to be significantly related to L2 proficiency in research by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) among South African EFL learners and by Oxford and Ehrman (1995) among native English speakers learning

foreign languages. However, in other studies, such as that of Mullins (1992) with EFL learners in Thailand, affective strategies showed a negative link with some measures of L2 proficiency. One reason might be that as some students progress toward proficiency, they no longer need affective strategies as much as before. Perhaps because learners' use of cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies is related to greater L2 proficiency and self-efficacy, over time there might be less need for affective strategies as learners progress to higher proficiency.

6. Social strategies (e.g., asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms) help the learner work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. Social strategies were significantly associated with L2 proficiency in studies by the South African EFL study by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) and the investigation of native-English-speaking foreign language learners by Oxford and Ehrman (1995).

Additionally, Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies is most comprehensive in that it attempts to deal with the shortcomings of many previous inventories with "a severely limited number of items reflecting affective and social strategies" and "a relative overabundance of cognitive and metacognitive strategies" (Green & Oxford. 1995: 265). Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies is used in this research because of its comprehensiveness and applicability to writing.

2.3.4 Research into Language Learning Strategies

Despite the lack of consensus in terminology, definition and classification, the amount of research in the field of language learning strategy in recent years has been growing. The earliest body of research in the field has focused on describing and identifying strategies used by successful L2 learners. Included in this body of research is the study carried out by Rubin in 1975 in an attempt to suggest a model of good language learners. Such effort has resulted in a list of strategies and characteristics which describe good language learners as those who are willing and accurate guessers, have a strong motivation to communicate, are often not inhibited, practice, monitor their own and others' speech, and attend to meaning. Another list which consists of ten language learning strategies was also created by Stern at around the same time as Rubin. According to Stern (1975), the good language learner possesses the following: positive learning strategies, an active approach to the learning task, a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language which is empathetic with its speakers, technical know-how about how to tackle a language, strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the meaning, willingness to practice, willingness to use the language in real communication, critically sensitive self-monitoring and language use, and an ability to develop the target language more and more as a separate reference system while learning to think about it. These two different suggested models of the good language learners can be explained by the pursuing of two different definitions of learning strategies. More strategies have been added to the list as a result of studies carried out by a number of other researchers such as Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978), Reiss (1985), Raimres (1986), O'Malley and Chamot (1990). In addition to the identification of

learning strategies by good language learners, research findings also demonstrate that those learners often "use strategies in an orchestrated fashion" (Oxford. 1994). For example, Chamot and Kupper (1989) have found that strategies supporting one another are selected and tailored by successful language learners to meet the requirements of the language task; and more specifically, cognitive and metacognitive strategies are the two that are often used together (O'Malley & Chamot. 1990).

While early research puts a great emphasis on describing good language learners, more attention has been paid to less successful language learners in recent times, based on the assumption that those learners lack strategies used by successful ones. This reflects an attempt to give remedy to the strategies of less successful language learners. Research comparing more and less successful language learners has confirmed that less successful language learners do use learning strategies and are even learning strategy active users (Vandergrift. 1997a, 1997b; Chamot & El-Dinary. 1999; Khaldieh. 2000). Vann and Abraham's (1990: 190) case study using think-aloud protocols and task product analysis to investigate learning strategies of two Saudi Arabian unsuccessful learners demonstrates that these two learners are "remarkably similar to successful learners in their repertoire of strategies". The research findings also provide counter-evidence for the claim by Wenden (1985: 7) that unsuccessful learners are "inactive". However, the difference between more and less successful learners lies in the fact that successful learners are aware of the strategies used and why they use them (Lavine & Oxford. in press; Vann & Abraham. 1987; O'Malley & Chamot. 1990) while those less successful learners do not seem to be aware of the potential role of learning strategies in learning the target language (Graham. 2004). In addition, much research has also revealed that

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less successful learners apply strategies inappropriately (Block, 1986; Stern. 1975; Vann & Abraham. 1990; Galloway & Labarca. 1991) and in an unconnected and uncontrolled way (Vann & Abraham. 1987; Chamot et al. 1996).

In addition to the effort to suggest differences between more and less successful language learners, researchers in the field of language learning strategies are also interested in how factors such as language proficiency, gender, motivation etc. affect strategy use. Research investigating the relationship between language proficiency and strategy use has shown that more proficient language learners report not only to use higher level of overall strategy but to frequently use a greater number of strategy categories. Griffiths' study in 2003 which involved 348 students in a private language school in New Zealand shows "language learning strategies were reportedly used significantly more frequently by advanced students than by elementary students" (Griffiths. 2004: 13).

In terms of gender, many studies have reported a greater overall strategy use for females than males. The study by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) reveal that strategies are employed far more often by females than males. The distinct gender differences in strategy use are also confirmed by Ehrman and Oxford (1989) in such strategy classifications as general study strategies, strategies for authentic language use, strategies for searching for and communicating meaning, and metacognitive or self-management strategies. In the Chinese context, Sy's (1994) study has found that cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies are used more significantly by females than males. However, later research by Ehrman and Oxford (1990) have found no evidence for gender difference. Griffiths (2004: 14) concludes

that although gender difference may not always be evident but "where differences are found women tend to use more language learning strategies than men".

Regarding motivation, more motivated students are reported to use more strategies than their less motivated peers. Career choice has been discovered by Ehrman and Oxford (1989) to be the motivation that has a major effect on reported language strategies use. The relationship between strategy use and other factors such as learning style (Ehrman & Oxford. 1989), cultural background (Grainger. 1997; Wharton. 2000), attitudes and beliefs, types of task, and tolerance of ambiguity has also been investigated. However, the relationship is not as salient as proficiency, gender and motivation.

In summary, the body of research investigating language learning strategies which began in the sixties has yielded valuable insights into the strategies of language learners. Studies focusing on defining good language learners by Rubin (1975), Stern (1975), Naiman, Frohlich, Stern and Todesco (1978), Reiss (1985), Raimres (1986), O'Malley and Chamot (1990) result in a list of strategies and characteristics describing good language learners. Learning strategies used by unsuccessful language learners as well as factors influencing language learning strategy use such as language proficiency, gender, motivation etc. has also been explored. An investigation of composition strategies took place at the same time as the body of research into learning strategies.

2.4 Strategies Use in Writing

When researchers explore what writers do during writing, one major attention is focused on which cognitive strategies writers apply to enhance the effectiveness of

their writing, and how they perform those strategic behaviors. The following section covers literature that has determined which writing strategies students should learn. The major categories of strategies were classified in accordance with the cognitive process model of writing as discussed thus far.

2.4.1 Planning Strategies

Planning strategies are behaviors that enhance effective processes of goal setting (including thinking about rhetorical problems), generating, and organizing of ideas. Harris and Graham (1996) suggest that student writers be made aware of employing goal-setting strategies and know how to relate their background knowledge and different sources of information to create the topic and generate ideas for the topic. In classroom instruction, brainstorming and discussions can help raise students' awareness of the purpose of a particular writing task, their potential audience, and how they can put ideas into a plan. In addition, they need to learn strategies for organizing ideas. The uses of organizers and outlines to order and connect ideas, topics, topic sentences, and supporting details should be introduced. Also, the ability to organize ideas presented in the text requires the knowledge of text structures (e.g., story grammar, genres, types of expository passages, and rhetorical patterns of essays or compositions). This knowledge of text structures will enable student writers to maintain the coherence of ideas and cohesion of text, and to conform to the standard conventions (Harris & Graham, 1996).

2.4.2 Drafting Strategies

Students should learn the concept that writing a good piece of work involves the process of developing the composed text in multiple drafts. This concept will help strengthen their awareness that the goals, generated ideas, and the composed text in

the first draft can be refined until they feel that their text satisfactorily represents the ideas that want to communicate to the readers. Through the process of developing ideas and refining the language in multiple drafts, students will become more aware of the essential elements of fluency and accuracy in writing (Kane. 1988).

2.4.3 Reviewing Strategies

Reviewing involves revising, editing, and evaluating strategies (Hayes & Flower. 1980a; Flower & Hayes. 1994). Students need to be aware that these behaviors will enable their writing to yield a satisfactory product. They should learn that good writers reread, examine, and make changes in the composed text. Writers should also be able to evaluate whether the content presented in their text is clear, logical, well organized, useful, and complete. Learning to improve their text to meet the standard of convention and being aware that a good piece of written text should be finally error-free is also important. Students should understand that during the revising process, all planning strategies can be recursively applied (Hayes & Flower. 1980b; Harris & Graham. 1996). In addition to revising ideas of the text, students need to learn various aspects of editing the text (e.g., knowing how to write a topic sentence, checking grammar, using proper connectors, choices of words, spelling).

Peer revising/ editing is also an effective strategy for the reviewing process since it provides students with opportunities to access opinions and feedback from their immediate audience. Writers can learn about the evaluation criteria and suggestions from their peers. A peer conference not only promotes a sense of audience, but it also promotes co-operative learning in writing (Harris & Graham. 1996).

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Writers need to be aware of various strategies and learn to use one to enhance another to help them control the processes of planning, translating and reviewing effectively. Students should also be aware that these strategies can be applied recursively during the process of writing.

As previously mentioned, reviewing also involves monitoring and evaluating. These metacognitive abilities will help writers regulate and control their writing behaviors during different processes. To illustrate, an awareness of using monitoring and evaluating strategies helps students to pay attention to their writing to, focus on their thinking, to be able to select ideas, set criteria, and control their writing behaviors and, as a result, to be able to perform their task efficiently. Harris and Graham (1996) conclude that students need to understand the writing task, to learn the strategies, to use the knowledge of the learned strategies to direct themselves along the process of their writing. There are three major approaches to teaching and researching writing, namely the product, process, and genre approach. These are presented in the next section before a review of composition research.

2.5 The Major Approaches to Teaching Writing

Each approach to teaching writing has its own focus and instructions which result in the use of different strategies to accomplish the writing task. As a result, the methods of investigating writing strategies are, to a great extent, influenced by the approach to teaching writing. A review of three major approaches to teaching writing: product/text-based approach, process approach, and genre approach will be provided before looking at what researchers in the field have found.

2.5.1 Product / Text-based Approach

The product approach came earliest and was popular in the 1960s until the 1970s. The source of this approach was the audio-lingual method, "the dominant mode of instruction" (Raimes. 1991: 407) in the sixties. The audio-lingual method puts a strong emphasis on speech, seeing it as primary; thus viewing writing as means of reinforcing oral patterns of the language. In this approach writing performs its function as tester of accurate application of grammatical rules by means of sentence drills such as fill-ins, substitutions, transformations and completions.

Later in the early seventies, writing instruction moved beyond sentence level to passages of connected speech and students manipulated linguistic forms within a provided text. It is also structuralism and Noam Chomsky's Transformational Grammar that provides the basic premises for the product approach. At the center of this model is the view that writing is "a textual product, a coherent arrangement of elements structured according to a system of rules" (Hyland. 2002: 6). Texts are said to be independent of writers, readers and contexts in which they are produced. They have their own structures made up of words, clauses and sentences following correct orders. Accordingly, writing is seen as depending on neither writers nor readers but forms to encode meanings. The idea that texts are contextually independent implies that language is the means to carry out human communication by transferring ideas from one mind to another; meanings can be decoded by anyone having the right decoding skills regardless of context and writer; and conformation to homogeneous rules leads to no conflict of interpretations and understandings.

Since texts are considered contextually independent objects, "learners' compositions are seen as langue, that is, a demonstration of the writer's knowledge of

forms and his or her awareness of the system of rules used to create texts" (Hyland. 2002: 7). Thus, writing is assessed on criteria such as factual display and clear exposition, and instructions aim at explicitness and accuracy. Playing the center role in composition classes are teachers who use guided composition as the main teaching method. Learners passively receive knowledge of rules from teachers. The content of writing was often supplied and involved no context, what is expected to create good writing is the ability to recall and manipulate learned structures.

Not long after that, the product approach was strongly criticized for the fact that undue attention was paid to the evaluation of written products so that other "more important considerations such as purpose, audience, and the process of composing itself" are ignored (Zamel. 1982: 195). This gave birth to a new approach to writing which dominated in the seventies, the process approach.

2.5.2 Process Approach

The increasing interest in writers' initiatives and how they write has heightened the need for research on the cognitive features of their composing process. In Emig's (1971, 1983) ground-breaking studies, she argued that teachers of composition tend to under-conceptualize and oversimplify the process of composing and she also challenged the previous view of writing as a linear three-phase activity, that is, prewriting, writing and revising. The complexity of planning, composing, and editing activities was increasingly revealed in a great deal of research (Jones. 1982; Zamel. 1982, 1983; Raimes. 1985; Faigley. 1986; Flower. 1988, 1989) and the process approach they explored defines writing as essentially a "non-linear, exploratory and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel. 1983: 165).

The process approach started in the 1970s as a reaction by teachers and researchers against the product approach. This new approach to teaching writing was mainly influenced by first language writing research into composition process "under the assumption that before we know how to teach writing, we must first understand how we write" (Zamel. 1982: 196). As the process approach takes on greater breadth and depth, researchers studied not only the cognitive process of writers but also contextual factors and their impacts on the writing process and their research extends from the L1 context to the L2. This process orientation, which has been widely adopted by a substantial number of writing teachers, justifies the teacher's role as a facilitator to guide students through the writing process and help them develop strategies for generating, drafting, and refining ideas. Seminal to this approach in L2 writing research were three models: Flower and Hayes's (1981), Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987), and Grabe and Kaplan's (1996), whose core features and contributions will be reviewed in the following sections.

2.5.2.1 Flower and Hayes' (1981) Model of Writing

As the pioneering model in the process approach, Flower and Hayes (1981) conceive of writing as processes of planning, translating, reviewing, and monitoring, which are influenced by the task environment and the writer's long-term memory (See Figure 2.1 for the model).

As we can see from the figure, the three major components of the model are the writing processes, the task environment, and the writer's long-term memory. Within the writing processes, three main processes generate the written text: planning, translating, and reviewing, which are also managed by an executive control called a monitor. The planning process involves three sub-processes: generating ideas,

organizing information, and setting goals, and in the actual generation of text, the ideas in planning are assumed to be translated into language, which is then reviewed, evaluated and revised. Throughout the writing processes, elements in task environment and the writer's long-term memory interact with them.

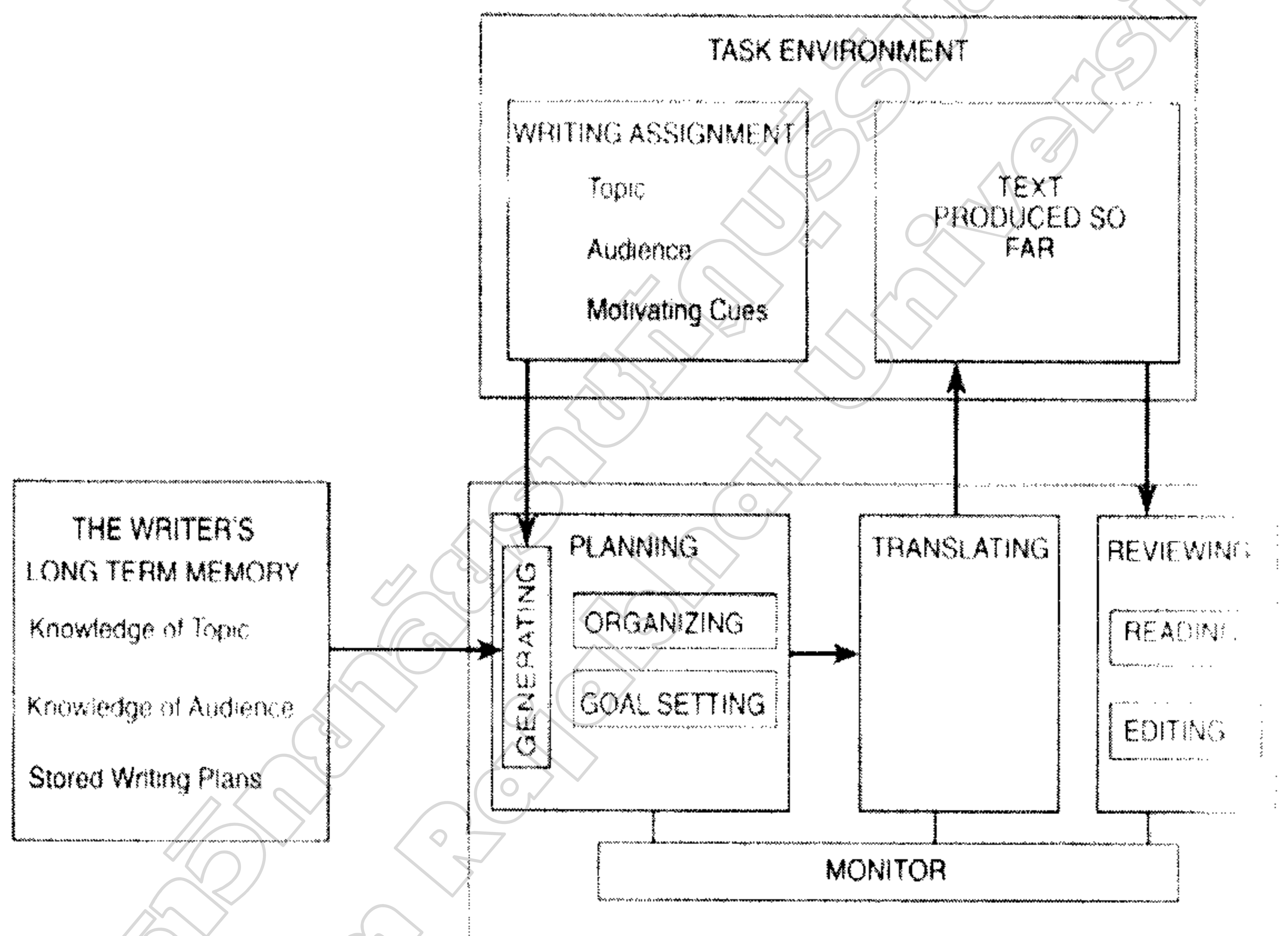

Figure 2.1: Flower and Hayes' Writing Process Model (Flower & Hayes. 1981)

Flower and Hayes' model is underpinned by two key concepts: the writing process is best understood as a set of distinctive thinking processes which have a hierarchical and highly embedded organization; the act of composing in itself is a goal-oriented thinking process guided by the writer's own growing network of goals, which comprise high-level goals and supporting sub-goals and are manipulated by the writer throughout the act of writing (Flower & Hayes. 1981). Regarding writers'

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individual differences, Flower and Hayes (1980) have found that skilled writers could address rhetorical problems not only in more breadth, but also in greater depth; they could create particularly rich networks of goals to influence the reader; they usually had a richer sense of what they wanted to write than novices. Flower and Hayes (1981) also suggest that recognizing and exploring the rhetorical problem was a teachable process and the growth of writing ability was viewed as the development of strategies for appropriate goal formation, constrained by task environment and content knowledge.

The relationship between the major components task environment and writing process in Figure 2.1 is further explored in a series of follow-up studies led by Flower (e.g. Flower. 1989, 1994, 1998; Flower et al. 1994). Flower (1989) argues that there is an interactive relationship between cognition and context: on the one hand, context cued cognition in multiple ways: context selectively tapped knowledge and triggered specific processes; context set the criteria by which a text or even one's own thinking process is monitored and evaluated; context supplied the writer with a wealth of prior knowledge, assumptions and expectations in the form of past experience. On the other hand, context was mediated by individual cognition: tasks students built for themselves differed from one another in the goals they set, the strategies and knowledge they chose to use, and the organizing plans they thought appropriate for the assignment. Later, Flower (1994) argues that writing is fundamentally a cognitive and social activity and that students primarily need to develop strategic knowledge - having strategies to determine appropriate writing goals, having awareness of the writing-task goals, and having strategies for carrying out the goals set - for higher writing ability and meaningful construction of academic discourse. Flower (1998)

also studies the writing goals and problem-solving strategies for academic and civic discourse, some of which are listed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Writing Goals and Problem-solving Strategies for Academic Discourse

Goals	Strategies Used to Achieve the Goals
Explore the rhetorical problem	Explore your image of the problem Explain the assignment to yourself
Generate new ideas	Turn off the editor and brainstorm Talk to your reader Systematically explore your topic Rest and incubate
Organize ideas	Expand your own code words Nutshell your ideas and teach them Build an issue tree
Know the needs of your reader	Analyze your audience Anticipate your reader's response Organize for a creative reader
Edit for connections and coherence	Transform listlike sentences Reveal the inner logic of your paragraphs
Test and edit your writing	Edit for economy Edit for a forceful style
Look for the unexpected	Keep an observation/reflection journal Reflect to see for yourself, to recreate for others
Start a community problem-solving dialogue	Come to the table on shared problems Write stories, seek rivals, examine options / Document and expand the inquiry

The strategies Flower (1998) has explored can be roughly classified into three types: strategies for understanding the rhetorical situation which mainly includes the reader and expectations surrounding any occasion for writing, strategies for adapting writing to the needs of a reader, and strategies for the act of composing itself. In her exploration of how these strategies could help writers write better, Flower (1998) also highlights the impact of discourse communities and the larger social context on

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writing strategy use and the necessity of translating writing strategies for classroom writing into those for civic writing and participation in the wider society.

2.5.2.2 Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) Model of the Writing Process

While Flower and Hayes (1981) assumed that there was a single writing process which was essentially the same for all writers - expert writers would appear to do the same thing as novice writers but do it much better - and their model sought to describe features that were common to all writers. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) argue that novice writers and expert writers seem to go through a different sort of writing process and experts could transform information through an additional set of strategic processes. Bereiter & Scardamalia. (1987) attempt to deal with an apparent paradox in writing - virtually everyone in a literate society can learn to write as well as they can speak while expertise in writing involves a difficult, labor-intensive process that only some people master - and suggest that there should be two models to account for the two qualitatively different kinds of writing processes between less-skilled and skilled writers. The model of knowledge telling for less-skilled writers is represented graphically in Figure 2.2.

As the figure shows, a knowledge-telling process begins with the mental representation of a writing task, which calls for both content knowledge and discourse knowledge to locate identifiers of topics and genres. These topic and genre identifiers serve as cues that search one's memory for relevant content items, which are subjected to a test of appropriateness and are, if accepted, written down. Then the cycle repeats itself, but this time uses the text written so far, rather than the original mental representation of the assignment, as a source for additional memory probes.

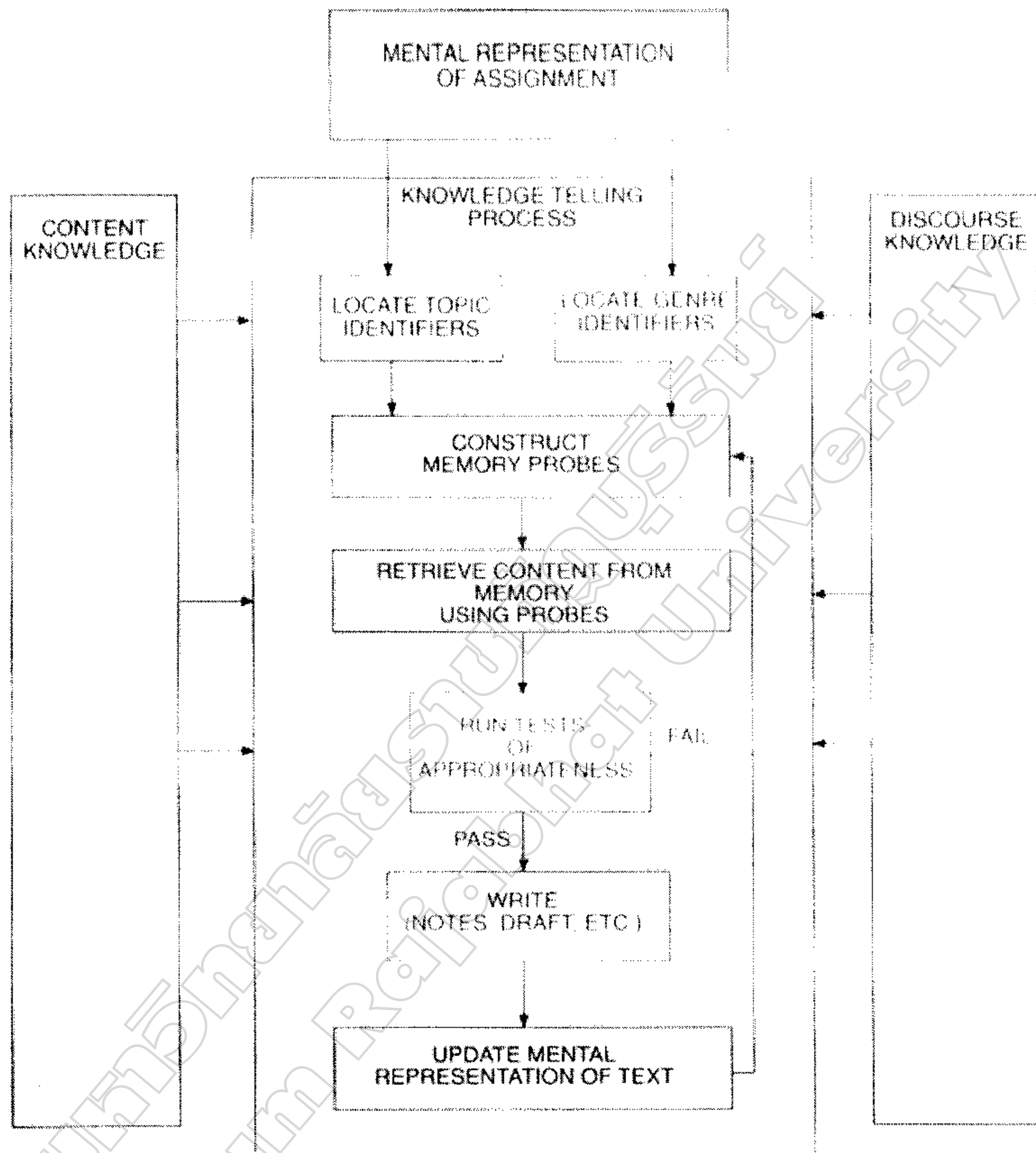

Figure 2.2: Structure of the Knowledge-telling Model (Bereiter & Scardamalia. 1987)

The knowledge telling model follows the straight-ahead form of ordinary speech production and does not require any greater amount of planning or goal-setting than does every conversation (Bereiter & Scardamalia. 1987: 9-10). The primary goal captured by the model is to generate content, as usually held by writers when writing about personal experiences or feelings, writing in journals and diaries, and writing to

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recount specific events and stories. Writers mainly depend on three sources to retrieve information and generate ideas: they think about the topic of the assignment and ask themselves what they know; they consider the genre of the assignment and search for its discourse schema or knowledge about the forms of writing, including what elements need to be included to fulfill that task and how they should be arranged; the third source of input is the text written so far. Yet, the writer in this model seems unable to conduct more sophisticated actions such as using main ideas to plan and integrate information, recalling ideas through complex routes, reorganizing content, and making other major revisions. Coherence in their writing tends to take care of itself through the basic process of simple content generation on a topic and possibly through simple devices for chronological ordering of details and events. As such, this model cannot represent the complicated writing process involved in difficult writing tasks and undertaken by skilled writers.

In contrast to the knowledge telling model, the knowledge transformation model (See Figure 2.3 for its structure) represents the reflective problem-solving nature of expert writing when task complexity requires such processing. The process of writing involves not only the knowledge-telling process but also the creation of new knowledge. The mental representation of a task leads directly to problem analysis and goal setting, which further leads to plans for the resolution of the perceived problems, that is, whether they are content problems (for example, content generation and content integration) or rhetorical problems (for example, audience expectation, genre form, linguistic style, and organization logic). The resolution of one problem may create another: generating or solving content problems may result in new rhetorical problems and vice versa. As problems are resolved they feed to the

knowledge-telling component which generates the writing. As writing is generated, it also creates sets of problems which must then go through the problem-solving processes.

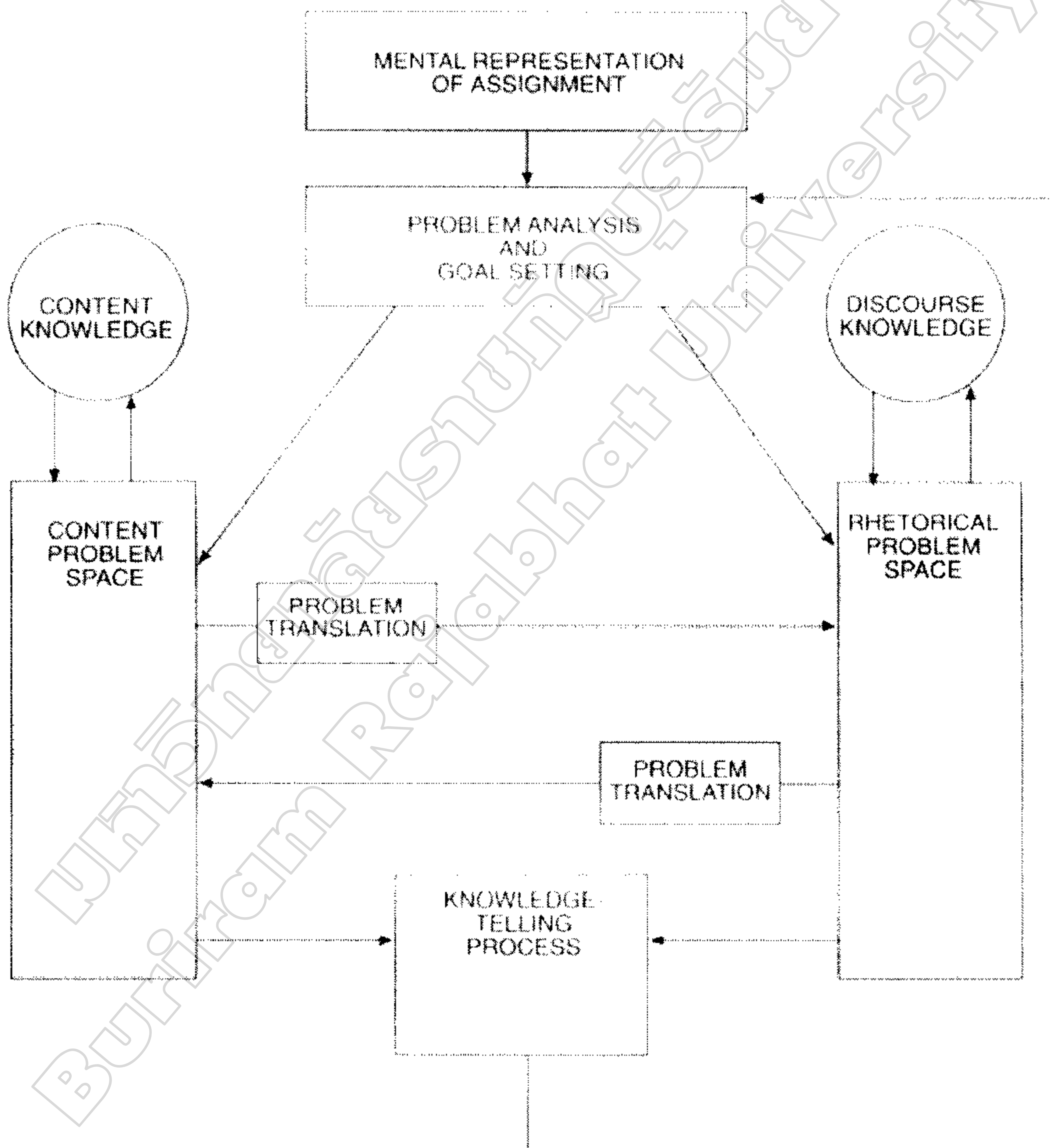

Figure 2.3: Structure of the Knowledge-transforming Model (Bereiter & Scardamalia. 1987)

Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) models carry both merits and shortcomings (Flower, 1989, 1994; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996) in their conceptualization of the writing

process. By focusing on differences rather than similarities, the models suggest that less-skilled writers actually do something different - they go through a less-refined version of skilled writers' process. They also shed light on why writing tasks differ in difficulty, even for skilled writers: if the information demands of a task are great and the writer is inexperienced in writing a particular genre, the task will require more cognitive efforts to resolve issues in both the content and rhetorical problem spaces. Despite these advantages, neither the knowledge telling model nor the knowledge transforming model takes account of adequate contextual influence on the writing process. In the domain of cognitive research on writing, with researchers' increasing recognition of the importance of different contextual variables in understanding writing development, it seems that "any appropriate descriptive theory of writing will have to account for the many social contexts that influence writing in various ways" (Grabe & Kaplan. 1996: 145). A second problem with Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) models is that it is not clear how or when a writer makes the cognitive transition from knowledge telling to knowledge transformation or whether it is possible to speak of a stage in which a writer has a partially developed knowledge-transforming ability. If it is possible, how can it be recognized and how generalized is its applicability?

2.5.2.3 Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) Model of Communicative Competence Applied to Writing

Recognizing the primary purpose of writing in almost all contexts as being communicative, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) create a model of writing as communicative language use (See Figure 2.4 for its structure) by integrating context, writing process, language competence, goals, and writing products. Grabe and

Kaplan's (1996) model is made up of two parts: the external social context of the writing situation and the writer's internal processing in verbal working memory, each of which has its own subcomponents. The external context includes language performance output and situational factors such as the participants, the setting, the task, the text, and the topic while the internal processing comprises three subparts: the internal goal setting, the verbal processing, and the internal processing output.

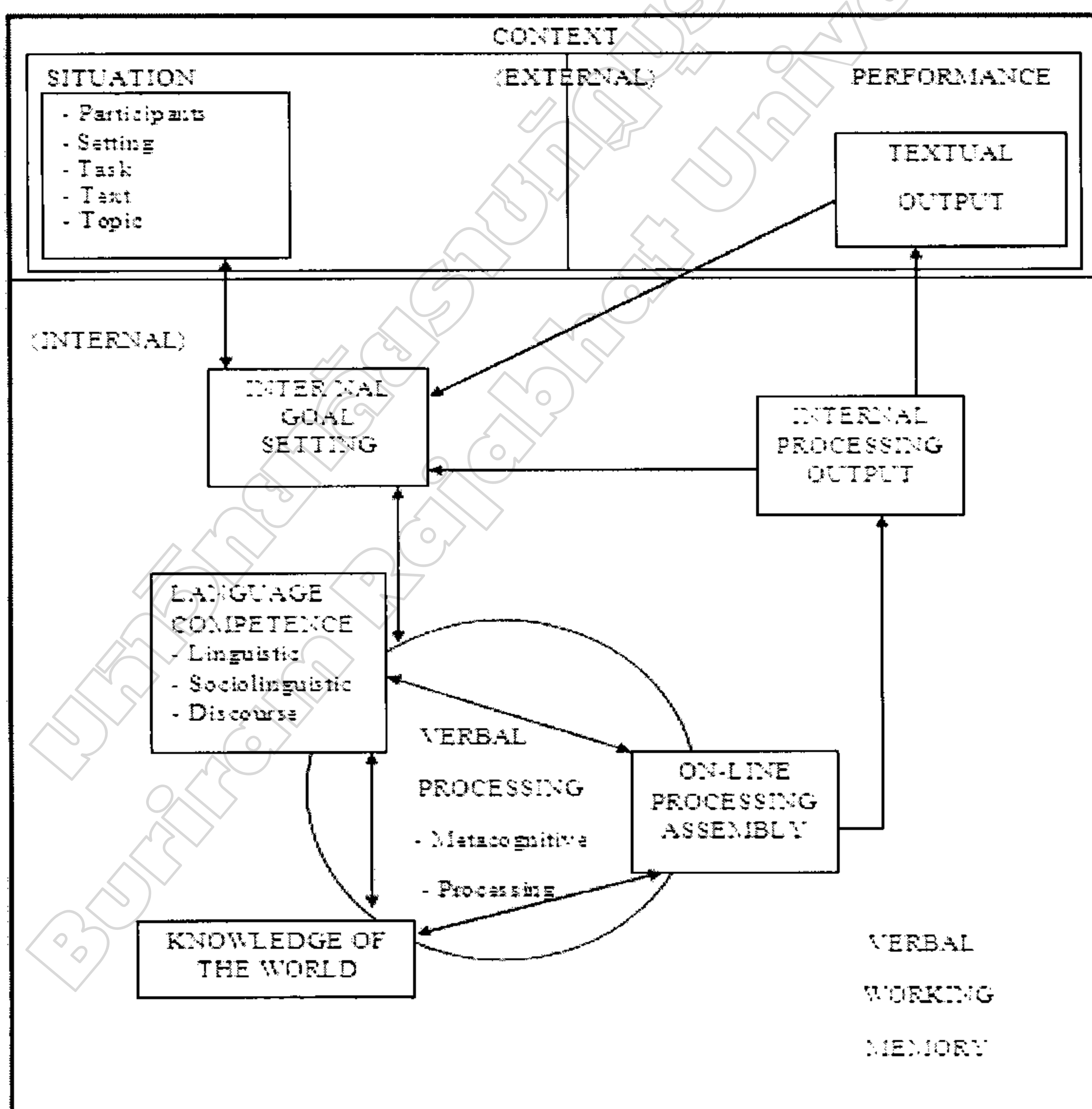

Figure 2.4: Model of Communicative Competence Applied to Writing (Grabe & Kaplan. 1996)

The role of goal setting is particularly distinctive in this model: it "generates lenses through which the writer attempts to match external 'context' with internal resources" (Grabe & Kaplan. 1996: 227). The two bi-directional arrow lines between goal setting, verbal processing, and situational factors indicate that contextual influences on verbal processing are always mediated by the internal goal setting. Verbal processing, which is monitored by metacognitive awareness, involves the writer's language competence, knowledge of the world, and on-line processing assembly. As the processing continues, the writer produces textual output or re-processes information from goal setting.

Building upon a notion of communicative competence and including a language competence component, Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) model accommodates more cognitive variations exhibited by both L1 and L2 writers and captures more contextual influences on cognition than Flower and Hayes' and Bereiter and Scardamalia's models. Yet, the model continues their dichotomous perspective on cognition and context by assuming a two-part interactive scheme (cognition ↔ context) of their relationship. Although the model recognizes the impact of context on writers' strategy use, writing strategies are still considered to be exclusively internal cognitive mechanisms, which seem too narrow to account for the social origin of higher mental functions as revealed in recent neuroscience and sociocultural studies.

2.5.3 Genre Approach

The last major approach to writing, which began in the eighties as a reaction against the process approach and has been now widely applied in teaching academic writing, is the genre approach. Based on the major concept of genres as "systems of complex literate activity constructed through typified actions" (Bazerman. 1994: 79),

the genre approach views writing as the conformation to "certain conventions" to organize ideas for certain social purposes (Hyland. 2002: 16). However, there are three distinctive approaches to genre which are different from one another in theory and origin, thus, resulting in different genre-based pedagogies. Systemic functional linguistics developed by Halliday in Australia defines genres as "staged, goal-oriented" social processes in which participants achieve their purpose by following "a conventional, step-wise structure" (Hyland. 2002: 17). Accordingly, knowledge of genres serves as a means for achieving social purpose in everyday life. Therefore, genre analysts play a very important role in the elaboration of genres. The systemic functional approach to genres has its own genre-based pedagogy. Teaching writing involves the provision of genres which are "identified by their structure and by repeated patterns" such as procedure, description, report, and explanation (Hyland. 2002: 18). For certain type of genre, there are certain linguistic choices within and above sentence level which can be provided to students via the teaching of explicit grammar by teachers. Then, learning to write is actually the practice of selecting appropriate genres and appropriate linguistic materials for certain types of readers. However, such genre-based pedagogies have been influential primarily in Australia and have had major impact on L1 writing (primary and secondary school children) and adult migrant second language learners (Feez. 2002); thus, "they still have not exerted a great influence on ESL/EFL writing classes in tertiary education settings despite their great potential" (Poedjosoedarmo. 2005: 114).

The second approach to genre – the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) approach also views language as a means to accomplish social goals and desires to elaborate explicit recurrent features of texts for the teaching of genre. However,

the type of genres under the ESP perspective is restricted by "shared purposes recognized by the member of a particular community" (Hyland. 2002: 17). Swales' (1990) "Create a Research Space" model which proposes moves for writing introductions in research articles, for example, is the best-known analysis of a genre. Structures of other genres for professional and academic purposes have also been proposed such as abstracts (Hyland. 2000), Business response letters (Ghadessy. 1993), corporate mission statements (Swales & Rogers. 1995) and so on. Since applications of this approach are closely associated with academic purposes, it has exerted little impact on general-purpose ESL/EFL writing classrooms.

While systemic functional and ESP approaches to genre make every effort to elaborate genres for the purpose of better understanding and teaching writing, New Rhetoric approach aims to raise students' awareness of "contextual features and the assumptions and aims of the communities who use the genres in order to provide a critical understanding of rhetorical features and their effectiveness" (Hyland. 2002: 19 as cited in Bazerman. 1988: 323). According to Coe (1994), like systemic functional approach, New Rhetoric approach to genre mostly dominates L1 contexts.
Its influence on ESL/EFL writing is minimal.

Despite its significant influence on teaching writing to ESP learners, genre pedagogy is limited in that there can be a danger of perceiving genre as "sets of rules", which may be caused by a failure to acknowledge "variation and choice in writing" by untrained or unimaginative teachers (Hyland. 2003: 22).

This section has presented the three major approaches to teaching and researching writing, namely the product, process, and genre approach. The product approach which was dominant in the sixties and seventies has no longer been an

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attraction as "the investigation of students' written products tells us very little about their instructional needs" (Zamel. 1983: 165). The genre approach, although it has been gaining status in the teaching of academic writing teaching, it has had little influence on ESL/EFL writing classes. On the contrary, the focus on writing behaviours which began in the eighties as a reaction against the product approach has led to a large body of research, yielding more insights into the writing behaviours of both L1 and L2 writers. A review of a number of L1 and L2 composition studies are presented in the next section.

2.6 Research into Writing Strategies

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

The conception of composition research following the process approach concerning what writers actually do when they write derives from the recognition that "the investigation of students' written products tells us very little about their instructional needs" (Zamel. 1983: 165). Researchers in the field have been focusing on investigating writing behaviors, believing that an understanding of the composition process will provide more insights into ways of teaching it. This shift of focus in composition research occurred in both L1 and L2 research. However, it is interesting to note that "L2 composition teaching has generally not been based on theoretically derived insights gained from L2 composition research" (Kroll. 1990: 37). The simple

explanation for this can be drawn from second language acquisition theorist Stephen Krashen's (1984: 41) acknowledgement that "studies of second language writing are sadly lacking". As a result, second language composition practitioners have relied on first language composition research for guidance and planning classes.

2.6.1 L1 Composition Research

The very first and most influential first language composition research was Emig's (1971) The composing processes of twelfth graders which not only reflects the first attempt in making a shift of focus in composition orientation from product to process, also establishes "what has become the primary research design for conducting research into the writing process" (Kroll, 1990: 38). Emig's participants were eight above average students selected from six different schools in Chicago. The writing process of those students was investigated using a case study approach through four sessions. Data was collected by means of think-aloud protocol in the first two sessions. Students were asked to compose aloud on whatever subject matter in the first session and were given a particular topic to compose aloud in the second session. The students' think-aloud composition was both tape recorded and observed by the researcher. Interviews of the students' writing experience both inside and outside schools were then carried out in the third session. The researcher also welcomed the students' past writing samples. All interviews were, again, recorded. Before the final session, the students were asked to produce "a piece of imaginative writing – a story, poem, sketch, or personal narrative" (Emig, 1971: 30). The whole process of producing the piece was recounted by those students and every plan and draft involving the written piece was collected at the final session. The students' recounts were recorded on tape.

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Despite some limitations regarding the research method, which are inherent in each method of data collection, this case study approach has been adopted by later L1 composition researchers in an attempt to explore the writing process. A body of L1 composition research has revealed the writing process of both skilled and unskilled L1 writers. Perl (1980) employed the case study approach and observed the recursive nature of the writing process in more proficient writers, in other words, they go back in order to move forward. Unskilled writers, in her study, were also reported to reexamine what had already been written as a strategy to guide the direction of their thoughts or to discover meaning. Although both groups of writers use what Perl calls "retrospective structuring" to discover meaning, what makes them different lies in their view of composition. One important finding in Perl's research, and also an important aspect of the composition, is that "less skilled writers who view composing as more mechanical and formulaic are so inhibited by their concerns with correctness and form that they cannot get beyond the surface in order to anticipate the needs and expectations of their readers" (Zamel. 1982: 198 as cited in Perl. 1990: 368).

Sommers' (1980) study investigating revising strategies of student writers – twenty university freshmen and experienced adult writers including journalists, editors, and academics, to some extent, confirms Perl's research findings. Sommers' student writers demonstrated revision in a most limited way, reflected in their basic concerns with vocabulary and teacher-generated rules. They "decide to stop revising when they decide that they have not violated any of the rules for revising" (Sommers. 1980: 383). The reason for this, as explained by Sommers, lies in their view of composition as a linear process. Unlike student writers, Sommers' experienced writers not only view revision as a recursive process "with different levels of attention

and different agenda for each cycle" but also show concerns for their readers (Sommers. 1980: 385-386). Sommers explains that it is this holistic perspective and perception of revision that helps those experienced writers discover meaning and get rid of early concern for lexis.

Also in 1980, Rose carried out research in an attempt to understand why certain writers are blocked. Their findings corroborated Perl and Sommers' research findings. Rose's finding was that the blockers' composition is restricted by "writing rules or planning strategies that impeded rather than enhanced the composing process" (Rose. 1980: 390). On the contrary. her non-blockers, while following certain rules and plans, revealed an awareness that these are flexible and subject to modification.

In conclusion, the body of L1 composition research since the 1960s has provided insights into what L1 writers actually do when they write. The experienced writers possess a view of composition as a recursive and cyclical process to explore meaning, and they have a consideration for purpose and their readers (Perl. 1980a, 1980b; Sommers. 1980; Faigley & Witte. 1981). Furthermore, they also plan, and let ideas incubate. The unskilled writers are different from those experienced writers in that they pay more attention to form and correctness. They spend less time on creating meaning (Perl. 1990; Sommers. 1980; Rose. 1980), spend less time planning (Pianko. 1979), revise to make changes in terms of form rather than content, hardly rework ideas once they have put them on the page, and more importantly, they spend little time considering their readers (Flower. 1979). "The obsession with the final product ... is what ultimately leads to serious writing block" (Halsted. 1975: 82) in those inexperienced writers.

2.6.2 L2 Composition Research

Research in L1 composition process had an important role to play when second language composition researchers began their investigations. According to Kroll (1990), L1 composition research has had much influence on L2 research, especially with regard to research designs. Much L2 research has been carried out following L1 research designs and "seems to corroborate much of what we have learned from research in first language writing" (Zamel. 1984: 198). Early L2 composition studies demonstrated a central focus on the nature of L2 composition, particularly behaviors which either inhibit composition or result in successful and effective writing. The studies of researchers such as Jones (1982, 1983), Lay (1982, 1983), Zamel (1982, 1983), Tetroe and Jones (1983) reveal similarities between the writing process in L1 and L2. Second language writers are reported to use the same strategies as native language students in composition. Zamel (1982) adopts a case study approach, and interviewed each of eight proficient ESL students about their writing experience and behaviors to examine the extent to which L1 findings apply to ESL writers. The findings were that, like skilled native language writers, Zamel's proficient ESL students experienced writing as a process of discovering meaning. Ideas and thoughts were explored on paper and attention was paid to both meaning and form that best expresses them. Moreover, they also considered their readers; and moved back and forth on their work.

Zamel (1982) goes on with her investigation of the writing process of L2 students one year later. Her research participants are six advanced L2 students, and again, the case study approach was adopted. The participants in this research are her own university-level students who are both skilled and unskilled writers as decided by

other L2 composition instructors. Those students are directly observed while composing, interviewed and are asked to provide all the written materials for the production of their essay. Again, findings from her previous study of skilled L2 writers are confirmed. Zamel (1982) finds that the skilled writers not only spent more time writing but also revised more, which has been confirmed by Yang's research in 2002. Their primary concern is ideas, revision done at discourse level, and their writing process was recursive. Those findings also show that L2 skilled writers use similar writing strategies to those L1 counterparts described in Sommers' (1980) research. In contrast, the unskilled writers in Zamel's (1983) study exhibits the same strategies used by those unskilled writers in Sommers' research. Their attention is paid to small bits of the essay, and little time is spent on both revising and writing.

More information about unskilled L2 writers can be found in Raimes' (1985b) research. The eight participants are defined as unskilled writers by L2 composition instructors as in Zamel's (1983) study. The data derive from the students' score on the Michigan Proficiency Test, questionnaires, and think-aloud composition of forty-five minute essay. It finds that little planning is done by those unskilled writers before and during writing, a behavior typically observed among L1 and L2 unskilled writers. However, her unskilled writers exhibited some behaviors that make them different from their counterparts in previous studies. It is interesting to see that those unskilled writers appeared to possess a behavior often found in skilled writers, i.e. they let ideas develop by rereading their work. Moreover, they also revised and edited less than expected. These findings led Raimes to hypothesize that L2 writers might not be "as concerned with accuracy as we thought they were" (p. 246).

The role of first language use in L2 composition is also an aspect investigated by L2 composition researchers. Lay's (1982) investigation of four Chinese-speaking L2 students' L1 use in L2 composition showed that "when there are more native language switches (compared to the same essay without native language switches), the essays in this study were of better quality in terms of ideas, organization and details" (p. 406). However, the matter of whether first language use is a positive or negative strategy in L2 composition is still debated. In the study carried out by Zamel (1982), the most proficient writer was reported to use translation from L1 to L2 while her other subjects did not. This finding corresponds to those found by Cumming (1987). Using audio-taped think-aloud protocol, observation and questionnaire, Cumming found that L1 is not only used by expert writers to generate ideas but also check style. Meanwhile it is only used in the generation of ideas by inexpert writers. The role of L1 use as a positive strategy in L2 composition is also confirmed by Friedlander (as cited in Kroll. 1990) who provided evidence that writers are not constrained by translation, both in terms of time and quality of the composition.

Although there is evidence proving the positive effect of L1 use in L2 composition, studies by Johnson (1986) and Baker and Boonkit (2004) provide contradictory evidence. The subjects in Johnson's study showed that "the use of first language when writing in a second language is ill advised for advanced learners" (Kroll. 1990: 47 as cited in Johnson. 1986) as using L1 in L2 composition is like "being pulled by two brains" (Zamel. 1982: 201). In a study investigating learning strategies in reading and writing, Baker and Boonkit (2004) find that successful writers make less frequent use of the L1 than unsuccessful writers or that they do not use any at all.

This section has reviewed a number of L1 and L2 composition studies carried out as a result of a reaction to the focus on the writing product. Composition research started with Emig's study in 1971 and it has had a great influence on later research. It is important to note that the case study method used in Emig's study has effectively contributed to our understanding of the writing process of both skilled and unskilled L1 writers in such later studies as Perl (1980), Sommers (1980), and Rose (1980). This body of L1 composition research then, in its turn, lent its design to L2 composition research. Following L1 composition research designs, second language composition research has provided findings that corroborate with what has been found by L1 composition research. The writing process of both skilled and unskilled L2 writers has been investigated. Second language writers are found to have the same writing process as native language writers (Jones, 1982, 1983; Lay, 1982, 1983; Zamel, 1982, 1983, Tetroe & Jones, 1983). However, L2 composition research has broadened its scope of investigation to examine the role of L1 in L2 writing. Although L2 composition studies have helped gain insights into the writing process of L2 writers, they have a number of limitations. Firstly, it is obvious that they relied heavily on qualitative methods of enquiry and so have been criticized for their inability to offer generalizations to other contexts. Secondly, there seems to have been a focus on native speakers of Chinese and Spanish. More research which combines quantitative and qualitative approaches and investigates other EFL contexts is needed in order to have a fuller picture of L2 writing strategies.

2.7 Previous Studies Related to the Present Study

This portion of the literature review is aimed at identifying and summarizing successful strategy use in writing among ESL/EFL learners explored in the previous studies. Thus far, various aspects of commonalities and differences regarding the ESL/EFL writer's strategic knowledge and behaviors have been revealed. Hence, central to the following section is a review of previous research studies that have shed light on a series of issues on the nature of interesting to the researcher to explore whether the EFL students in this present study would share any of strategic behaviors as evidenced among learners.

Sasaki and Hirose (1996) investigated factors that influence the performance of expository writing in English of 70 Japanese EFL college freshmen majoring in the British and American Studies. For the writing tasks, the students were given a prompt and were asked to compose one essay in English to express their opinions about the given topic, and another version in the native language. These two tasks were performed one week apart. Major findings from the quantitative analysis revealed that L2 proficiency, L1 writing expertise, and metaknowledge were all significant factors in L2 writing. L2 proficiency especially had the most influence on the students' writing performances. Their metaknowledge (e.g., knowledge about organization, style, sense of audience) was not adequate to enhance their writing performance. The findings from the qualitative analysis revealed that skilled EFL writers were more concerned with the overall organization before and while writing in both L1 and L2 than were unskilled writers, and skilled writers wrote more fluently in both languages. However, students generally demonstrated little difference in their applications of revising strategies. Skilled writers also tended to have higher

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confidence and better metacognitive strategy of self-assessment. Also, generally they had more prior experience than their peers in writing beyond a paragraph level from high school.

Bosher (1998) explored the writing processes of Southeast Asian ESL post-secondary students. The study focused on aspects writers attended to and the strategies employed during writing. The results of three from the total of eight participants were reported. While the students were writing, they were videotaped. After completing the writing task, they were asked to recall of their thinking processes from selected parts of the video. Also, they were interviewed about their writing processes. The first student, earning the highest score of the writing task in the study, appeared to write as she had planned and referred to the overall plan during writing. Also, she integrated her personal experience appropriately in her essays. She was well aware of the element of coherence in writing and was concerned about the issue of fluency of expression. She paid close attention to the content and elements of the rhetorical organization (discourse) while composing. The second student, who earned the lowest score of the writing task, neither applied the planning strategy before beginning to write nor while composing. Her essay was very much influenced by her personal experience. Instead of paying attention to global organization, her primary attention was focused at the local level (e.g., connection of sentences). The third student, who earned a score in between those of his peers, paid great attention to the task requirements and the teacher' s expectations. He used his notes from reading to help generate ideas and he referred back to the article while writing. Like the first, proficient student, he was concerned about the content of the text he produced, and he consistently attended to goal-setting during composing.

Tonthong (1999) investigated an EFL college writing classroom when dialogue journals were required as a supplementary writing activity. The setting was a classroom of basic writing course whose teacher was a native English speaker. The participants were 14 Thai students from four major fields: economics, engineering, humanities, and science. The student participants were required to write and respond to their peers and their teacher. The method of the study employed was naturalistic. Data collection included photocopies of the dialogue journal entries, observation of every class meeting, interviews, field notes and other documents. The findings indicated six points of connection occurring through writing dialogue journals: students and writing, students and language learning, teacher and leaching, students and students, students and teacher, and students and journal writing. Seven conclusions of the study are: (1) dialogue journals allowed EFL students to experience writing that involves a process as well as a product; (2) EFL students were engaged in writing dialogue journals; (3) dialogue journals provided EFL students an opportunity for language learning, and promoted reading and writing skills; (4) dialogue journals promoted reflective learning and teaching; (5) dialogue journals provided EFL students an opportunity to communicate in the target language; (6) dialogue journals promoted relationships among the students and between the teacher and the students in the classroom; and (7) dialogue journals developed collaboration in the classroom.

Nixon and Topping (2001) examined the impact of Paired Writing on emergent writers and older children with writing delay in the form of cross-age tutoring pairs. The study involved sixty-eight children, including fifty-eight 5-year-old emergent writers and ten 11-year-old children with writing delay. The emergent writers were all engaged in a wider literacy development project involving various

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writing stimulus developments: 1) writing centre; 2) literate play areas; 3) value and encouragement; 4) structured peer interaction (Paired Writing). Ten randomly

selected emergent writers (tutees) were paired with the ten purposefully selected older children helpers (tutors) for an extra intervention - Paired Writing. The remaining forty-eight children served as the comparison group experiencing Individual Writing (IW), with the writing stimulus developments except Paired Writing. The study lasted for six weeks (twelve 30-minute writing sessions). The study employed four major measures: 1) writing assessment for all aged 5 children emergent writers (three samples of individual writing based on Gorman and Brook's (1996) scale; 2) teacher questionnaire -- pre-post intervention (observed children's writing changes in general, in attitudes, writing skills, and others – reading ability); 3) tutor questionnaire on PW program evaluation; 4) tutee verbal feedback. The results indicated all children showed statistically significant improvement in the writing tests. But the experiment group (PW) outperformed the comparison group (IW). Teacher reported observable changes among students in different writing aspects of pre-post intervention. Statistically significant improvement was found in the amount of independent writing done, writing attitudes and skills. Results of PW tutor questionnaires and tutee verbal feedback indicated that all PW participants enjoyed Paired Writing.

Yarrow and Topping (2001) explored the effects of Paired Writing upon student writing quality and attitudes. The study involved twenty-eight 10 to 11-year-old children from a problematic mixed-ability class. They were matched by gender and pre-post writing scores, divided into two equivalent groups, and groups assigned randomly to Paired Writing (PW) or Individual Writing (IW) conditions. Both the PW and IW received training in Paired Writing and its inherent metacognitive

prompting. The Paired Writing group consisted of six boy-girl pair and one girls' pair, with the more-able children being the tutor and the less-able ones being the tutees. The study employed four major measures: 1) 3 writing tests, interim test, and post-intervention test; 2) writer self-perception scale; 3) lesson observation; 4) semi-structured interview at the end of the intervention. Results indicated that all groups showed statistically significant improvements in pre-post intervention analyses of the quality of writing done by individual students. This implied the metacognitive content of Paired Writing training and flowchart, together with an increased rate of practice in writing received by everybody, might lead to improvements for all the children. However, the pre-post gains of the Paired Writing group were found significantly greater than those of the IW writers.

El Mortaji (2001) explored the writing processes between the skilled writer and unskilled writers. Protocols were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively from eighteen subjects subdivided into four groups in English and three groups in Arabic according to their writing proficiency. The main source is think-aloud procedures in which the students think aloud and externalize their thoughts while writing two narrative and two expository essays in English and Arabic respectively, in addition to a background questionnaire and an interview. Protocols were typed, transcribed, and coded in a scheme based on Perl to identify the writing strategies used. It was analyzed the writing process and strategies used by subjects across different levels of writing proficiency and different types of discourse. The findings revealed that skilled writers used writing strategies more effectively than unskilled writers. It also showed that the subjects' affect, their perception of the characteristics of good writing, the effect of their teachers' feedback, and their prior knowledge about

English composition writing, through teaching methods received and their own reading experience are important factors which contribute a great deal to their understanding of what writing really involves and affect their approaches to writing and their strategy use, which eventually contribute to the quality of their writing.

Singhasiri (2001) studied the writing strategies used by Thai University students while doing summary tasks. The samples were twenty first-year undergraduate students from the Faculty of Engineering and Faculty of Science, studying at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, selected from the three classes of basic study skills. The instruments were questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observation. The subjects had to write three summaries from three passages. While summarizing, immediate retrospective oral report was used every ten minutes to access the subjects' process of reading and writing. The data was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings revealed that English proficiency influenced the frequency of use of reading and writing strategies and also strategy repertoires; however, the significant differences found were not strong and did not appear with every strategy type. Moreover, it was discovered that the use of some strategies did influence summary product quality. Five tentative overall patterns of the summarizing process were found from this present study and the results revealed that they affected the quality of summary product. Observation in classrooms showed that the teachers' instruction affected the subjects' summarizing performance both in terms of processes and products.

Nicholas (2002) investigated the effect of explicit instruction in the use of a writing strategy on the quality of expository compositions produced by African-American college undergraduates with learning disabilities. The samples were 36

students and randomly assigned to one of two workshops: 1) explicit writing strategy instruction, or 2) general strategy instruction involving study skills. All instruction was delivered in a 60-minute workshop. Pre- and post-treatment measures involved students writing a 20-minute response to an expository writing prompt and completing an eight-question self-efficacy questionnaire. The writing samples were evaluated on the basis of clarity, supporting details, organization, mechanics, and global (holistic) impression using a scoring rubric. The results indicated that students in the explicit strategy instruction group significantly improved their use of supporting details m expository essays, and there were no significant differences between explicit instruction subjects and control subjects on the self-efficacy measure.

Hui Ling (2004) examined the relationships between writing strategy use and L2 writing ability on an academic writing test. This study utilized a new 38-item cognitive and metacognitive strategy use questionnaire and two composition prompts to gather writing strategy use and writing ability data from 214 college and graduate ESL participants. Exploratory factor analysis was used to identify the latent factors in both strategy use and writing data. The full-latent variable structural equation modeling was used to model the relationships between participants' reported strategy use and writing performance. The results showed that metacognitive processes had no direct effect on L2 writing ability, but had a significant, positive, direct influence on the comprehending and text generating processes. Comprehending processes, in turn, showed a significant, positive, and direct effect on L2 writing ability, while text generating processes indicated a significant, negative, and direct impact on L2 writing ability. In other words, the more test-takers reported using comprehending strategies,

the better they performed; the more they invoked text generating strategies, the worse they performed in the context of a timed writing assessment.

Marcum-Dietrich (2005) explored the writing strategies used and content knowledge gained by secondary science students. The study identified four writing strategies students commonly use to write: pre-writing, revision, point of utterance, and prior understanding and asks which writing strategies students use when writing about science. The findings found that the writing strategies used by students with similar changes in content knowledge. Thirteen students were classified as having an increasing or consistently high content knowledge. Students in this category used pre-writing and revision writing strategies more often than students belonging to other content knowledge categories. Students who showed consistent high knowledge represented a unique challenge for science educators, specifically how to create writing tasks that motivate high achieving students to evaluate and to re-structure their own understanding. Students in the consistently high content knowledge category used the prior understanding strategy more often than students in other content knowledge categories. With the prior understanding strategy, students' writing represented a mere retelling of the knowledge they possess. One student wrote with limited content knowledge and minimal reflection and another student writes using strategies endorsed by writing to learn advocates but fails to increase her content knowledge.

Sullivan (2006) examined the self-regulatory writing behaviors of high achieving and low achieving pre-service writers. The study addressed the following: 1) the nature of the self-regulatory writing strategies employed by high achieving and low achieving pre-service writers and 2) the similarities and differences in self-

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regulatory writing strategies used by these two groups. The samples were students enrolled in the teacher education program. Students were categorized high achieving and low achieving writers based upon their scaled score for the written constructed response of this exam. Anyone who received above 220 was classified as a high achieving writer while those who received below a 220 were identified as low achieving writers. A random sampling of each group was conducted to identify 5 participants in each group. Think-aloud protocols were used to record the composing processes of these writers as they completed a practice written task. The findings demonstrated that the high achieving pre-service writers used the self-regulatory categories of planning, monitoring, and evaluating more frequently than the low achieving pre-service writers. Additionally, the high achieving writers used a wider variety of self-regulatory strategies than the low achieving writers. Statistical significance was found for the categories of monitoring and evaluating.

Naughton (2007) investigated how L2 college writing students use metacognitive knowledge, writing strategies and learning styles and the relationship that exists among them. This study used various research instruments to uncover answers to the posed questions; among the data collection instruments were learning styles questionnaires, writing autobiographies, retrospective interviews, journal entries, and observations. The semester-long study suggested that L2 learners who evaluated their learning in respect to their knowledge of themselves (learning styles), knowledge of the tasks (writing), and thoughtful use of writing strategies, such as questioning for clarification, self-assessment, and monitoring production, were more likely to succeed in the college writing classroom as opposed to L2 learners with weak metacognitive knowledge, who applied writing strategies almost superficially,

as a writing course requirement and not as part of their personal writing repertoire to solve a problem. This research also hypothesized that freshman L2 learners who process material relationally, field dependently, and analytically and field independently make more use of their metacognitive knowledge as compared to the L2 learners who process material primarily focused on one side of the cultural variables of learning styles (field dependent versus independent and analytical versus relational learning styles.

Dhanarattigannon (2008) explored and described Thai college students' response to nontraditional writing instruction taught by a Thai teacher who graduated from a university in the United States. The participants included the teacher and forty-one students who enrolled in a fifteen-week writing course, Writing 1, offered at a public university in Bangkok, in the first semester of the academic year 2004. The data were collected through classroom observation, formal and informal interviews of the teacher and her students, the personal background questionnaire, and archival documents such as students' writing samples, course syllabus, supplementary exercises, and the textbook. The three major sources of data: field notes observations, interviews, and artifacts, were triangulated and analyzed based on Spradley's domain analysis and Wolcott's method for descriptive and analysis process. Major findings showed that after experiencing the nontraditional writing instruction, the students moved from feeling discomfort to comfort as they gained experience with the writing process. The students began to view writing as a process by moving from correctness to expressionist. This writing class created a stress-free environment that promoted social discourse. After engaging in this writing class, the students exhibited growth in their writing. The findings also revealed that the students' attitude and perception on

writing particularly English writing changed positively. However, the students experienced cultural and instructional frustration as the teacher infused innovative writing instruction into the existing curriculum.

Dujsik (2008) investigated the effects of computer-based pre-writing strategy training guided by procedural facilitation on intermediate ESL students' writing strategy use, writing quantity, and writing quality. The samples were 41 students from four intact intermediate-writing classes in an intensive English program. The instructional modules for the control groups were the writing instruction, essay writing, and opinion essays. The training modules for the experimental groups consisted of pre-writing strategies, audience, and idea generation and organization. The participants' writing performances and uses of pre-writing strategies prior to and after the training were analyzed. In addition, six semi-structured interviews conducted shortly after the post-test helped to illuminate the quantitative results. The findings revealed a significant training impact on ESL students' pre-writing strategy use but fail to detect significant effects on the students' writing quantity and writing quality; however, a trend of improvement regarding the writing quality variables was detected among the strategy-trained students. Furthermore, the qualitative analysis showed some similarities and differences of less experienced and experienced writers' writing processes and strategies.

Martindale (2008) examined how high school students made sense of writing instruction and how they incorporated writing instruction into their writing practices. The three participants were seniors enrolled in a "dual-enrollment" English class in the spring term of their final year of high school. The researcher had direct daily access to the students as they received writing instruction, made choices and

incorporated them into their writing practices. Sources of data used in this study included: 1) entry writing samples; 2) observation field notes; 3) teacher interviews; 4) a student survey; 5) student interviews; and, 6) an exit writing sample. The findings suggested that the participants possessed information about how they learn and perceive classroom instruction. Participants did a great deal of their writing outside of class, and embraced different strategies to accomplish the same writing task. There was no consensus among the participants as to how well prepared they were for the rigors of college writing.

Velasco (2009) explored the use of outlines as a planning strategy to facilitate second-grade students' writing and impact the organization and content quality of students' summary writing. The study took place in a second grade, self-contained classroom composed of a diverse group of students with a wide range of academic needs. The intervention targeted six students who represented a continuum of writing skills and abilities: proficient, basic, below basic. One of the six focus students was an English language learner, and one was receiving additional services for language development. The intervention occurred over a course of nine weeks and comprised of sixteen writing sessions. Session activities ranged from whole class, direct instruction on intervention components, small group brainstorming and practice with Step Up to Writing graphic organizers, and independent application of outlines and writing of drafts. The data sets included pre and post parent surveys, student writing samples, teacher observations, and teacher-created newspapers documenting the students' work and community's responses. From the analysis of preliminary and outcome data, students demonstrated growth in their summary writing. Improvements varied, but were noted in both the quality of structure and content of writing.

Improvement in organization was demonstrated through increase in use of transition words and appropriate order of sentence structures; improvement in content quality was demonstrated through increase in details and explanation/example sentences, as well as the strength of support; in addition, overall student self-efficacy was shown to improve through teacher observation.

Anderson (2010) examined the integrating English language learner writing strategies in special education. Sixteen teachers from southwest Minnesota and southern Iowa participated in this study. The instrumentation included a survey asking for teacher's perception of selected strategies designed for ELL programs. The quantitative data obtained through the teacher surveys were summarized. The findings of the quantitative data showed the strategies that the teachers selected as the most effective. Five of the eighteen strategies emerged as the best, based on the sixteen teachers' perceptions. For the growing number of ELL students, the complexity of the English language was an obstacle as they struggle to develop higher order reading and writing skills. The results of this study provided information for educators interested in improving reading and writing skills of students with special needs who are emerging English language learners.

Defauw (2010) studied the effect of using authentic contest-writing tasks with third-grade students as an instructional strategy to support students' narrative writing abilities for standardized writing assessments. The study utilized a 3 (Treatments) x 2 (Test Periods) factorial ANOVA. The three treatments included a test-preparation, contest-writing, and contest-creation group. The results indicated that the three treatments made similar gains on measures of writing quality from pretest to posttest.

These gains were not related to specific treatment conditions. There were no significant interactions among test periods and treatments that could have supported the hypothesis of differential treatment effects on the writing quality measures. The treatments did, however, significantly influence the amount of writing produced. Both of the authentic writing treatments resulted in increased word production relative to the test-preparation treatment. The two authentic writing treatments did not differ in the relative increase in writing production from pretest to posttest.

Lee (2010) explored the effect of concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy on second language learners' writing performance in a college-level Korean language program context. One hundred and twenty-three undergraduates from Korean Language courses in a state university in the United States participated. There were three different proficiency level classes (beginning, intermediate, and advanced classes) represented in both the treatment and comparison groups. Data were collected during three writing sessions: 1) pre-test of writing, 2) individual planning, and 3) collaborative planning. To analyze the findings, the study used a repeated measure, analysis of covariance and multivariate analysis of covariance on composition scores. Correlation coefficients between concept map scores and composition scores, and analysis of variance of survey responses were also used for data analysis. The results indicated that the treatment groups who used concept maps scored significantly higher than did the comparison group on a composition profile at both sessions. The correlation analysis revealed that the number of propositions in concept maps was significantly correlated with composition scores at the individual writing session, while the collaborative map scores were not significantly correlated with composition scores. The findings from the survey on the concept mapping groups' perception

suggested that most participants were satisfied with collaborative concept mapping activities for writing. But some of advanced class students expressed reservation on group collaboration.

Lu (2010) investigated cognitive factors that might influence Chinese EFL learners' argumentative essay writing in English. The samples were 36 university students who received a battery of tests in two sessions. The tests consisted of timed essay writing tasks in L1 and L2, post-writing questionnaires for genre knowledge and use of strategies in the writing process, a timed grammaticality judgment task for L2 grammar knowledge, a receptive vocabulary test and a controlled-production vocabulary test for L2 vocabulary knowledge, and working memory span tasks in L1 and L2. The quantitative analyses using correlations, paired-samples t -test, analysis of variance and multiple regressions revealed that L2 language proficiency is the most important predictor of L2 writing, followed by genre knowledge and L2 writing strategies. L1 writing ability and working memory capacity have slight impact as explanatory variables for L2 writing performance in the timed essay writing task.

Howell (2011) formulated three primary questions: 1) What are students' perceptions of the use of the arts as a tool for writing and making meaning? 2) How would a deliberate, honest, and authentic approach to increasing and facilitating dialogue and communication in the language arts classroom affect students' writing and/or their writing process? and 3) What effect does using empathic literature selections have on students' writing? The study was a naturalistic case study that led to several findings. Of the arts, the study revealed that students demonstrated increased confidence in their writing and began to value the process of writing over the product. Further, students perceived this writing approach as new and freeing.

Of dialogue, the study revealed that dialogue was a dynamic convention, one that constantly changes and rarely looks the same in different contexts, and that an honest, deliberate, authentic approach to increasing dialogue creates a comfort and familiarity that encourages writing as well as sharing. Finally, the use of empathic texts allowed students to demonstrate greater clarity and organization in their writing. Students also developed a new approach to voice and audience, and empathic texts fostered empathy within students' writing.

In summary, findings from the studies reviewed above provided useful information about writing strategies employed by ESL/EFL learners. However, none of them investigated nor described how ESL/ EFL learners developed their awareness/knowledge of those strategies into the strategic behaviors that they might apply during writing. Also, none explored the holistic strategic writing behaviors of EFL learners that developed over time. Because of this lack of research which address those important aspects, there is a clear need for studies that examine these issues. Therefore, it is reasonable for this study to explore these aspects of writing behaviors among adult learners in an EFL context.

2.8 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has provided a review of the literature concerning areas of knowledge related to the focus of this study. Issues involving language learning strategies including terminology, definition and classification were firstly presented. Research into language learning was then reviewed. Secondly, three major approaches to teaching and researching writing were discussed in depth, with special attention being paid to three models of writing associated with the process approach.

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L1 and L2 composition research investigating writing strategies then followed.

It should be noted that a large amount of L2 composition research has followed L1 writing process research designs, employing mostly qualitative methods and case study approaches to address research questions. The qualitative data often included methods such as think-aloud composition, direct or indirect observation of students while composing, interviews, and the collection of written materials. There seems to have been a lack of research which combines qualitative and quantitative methods.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter introduces and contains a discussion of the methodological approach and research design which is used in this study. The chapter is organized according to the following sections: research design, population and samples. In addition, threat to research instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis and statistical procedures are discussed.

3.1 Research Design

The study employed a mixed - method design that was a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques. Incorporating techniques from both the quantitative and qualitative research traditions enables the researcher to combine them in unique ways to answer research questions that could not have been answered in any other way.

3.2 Population and Samples

3.2.1 Population

The population of this study included 231 grade 9 students who were studying Fundamental English Course (E 23101) in the first semester of 2015 academic year at Thantongpittayakhom High School in Buriram Province.

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3.2.2 Samples

The samples were divided into two groups as follows:

3.2.2.1 The samples for quantitative data were 140 grade 9 students who were studying Fundamental English Course (E 23101) in the first semester of 2015 academic year at Thantongpittayakhom High School in Buriram Province. They were selected by using the table of Krejcie and Morgan (1970), and simple random sampling, respectively.

3.2.2.2 The samples for qualitative data were 8 students: 4 males and 4 females, four (2 males and 2 females) were low English proficiency and four (2 males and 2 females) were high English proficiency. They were selected by purposive sampling. Four high English proficient, and four low English proficient learners were selected from the survey samples based on their students' own self-ratings of English proficiency. If his or her self-reported English ability was also 'good' or 'very good', they were grouped as the high English proficient learners. On the other hand, if his or her self-reported English ability was 'poor' or 'very poor', they were grouped as the low English proficiency learners and considered from their English grades, GPAX, from the general information classified by grade 2.5-4.0 were grouped as the high English proficient learners and grade 0.5-2.0 were grouped as the low English proficient learners.

3.3 Research Instruments

The present study employed a mixed - method design which included both quantitative and qualitative research methods. To accomplish the goals of this study,

two instruments were used to collect data: 1) Writing Strategies Questionnaire (WSQ); and 2) Semi-structured Interview. The details of each instrument and how they were implemented briefly described as follows:

3.3.1 Writing Strategies Questionnaire (WSQ)

The WSQ used in this study was based on Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies and was adapted from the one that was used in Baker and Boonkit's study in 2004. It had been recognized by Hsiao and Oxford (2002), and Zhang (2003) that there was a connection between learning strategy use and the context in which it takes place. In consideration of the language teaching and learning context in Thailand which was culturally distanced from the Western academic contexts of most previous studies, the adoption of the research instrument used in a similar context in study in Asia (Thai context) can result in a better understanding of strategy use. Strategies asked in the WSQ were divided into seven categories in which six belongs to Oxford's taxonomy: Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective and Social. The last category used in the study was called Negative which consists of strategies regarded as deterring writing process. For example, negative strategy such as "When I have finished my work I don't look at it again"; It can be used to cross-check the participants' answers to questions involving revision after finishing their writing such as "I go back to my writing to edit and change the content (ideas)", and "I go back to my writing to edit and change the grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation".

The English original questionnaire, the one used in Baker and Boonkit's (2004) study, consisted of thirty-eight questions organized into three sections: Pre-writing, While writing, and After finishing my writing. A number of changes

were made to fit the context of the current study. Firstly, the concepts of "feedback" and "brainstorm" were clarified for the participants by definitions in parentheses. Secondly, the last five questions in the third section were removed from that section to be put under a new fourth section entitled "After my written work had been marked". As a result, the last question in the questionnaire (I give myself a reward when I have finished) was moved to section three as it involved the activity after writing had been finished. Thirdly, one open-ended question was added at the end to seek any strategy that may not had been included in the questionnaire. The thirty-eight questions were translated into Thai version in order to be appropriate for grade 9 students in Buriram Province, Thailand. The Thai version were checked for the correctness and appropriateness by three experts who are good at translation from Thai into English and English into Thai. In addition, the questionnaire were then tied out with 30 grade 9 students who are not the samples at Thantongpittayakhom school under The Secondary Educational Service Area Office 32. The 30 grade 9 students were asked to answer the questions which are scaled from 1 (never true of me) to 5 (always true of me). All answers were analyzed in order to find out the reliability of the questionnaire.

Although questionnaires can be effective in exploring broad areas of strategy used, they were limited in a number of aspects. Therefore, other qualitative method as semi-structured interviews was employed in order to cross-check the quantitative data draw from the questionnaire.

3.3.2 Semi-structured Interview

Semi-structured interviewing, in which the interviewer refers to an interview guide or a list of questions and also depends on topics and issues to determine the

course of the interview, is an important method used in this study. Semi-structured interview can give the interviewer flexibility and privileged access to other people's lives and the interviewee a degree of power and control over the course of the interview.

Semi-structured interview was employed in this study as a primary method of data collection and as one method in triangulation for cross-checking data. The interview question list was consisted of eleven questions divided into two sections adapted from Nguyen (2009). Section one included two questions asking participants to explain more if there was any confusion when completing the questionnaire and if there were any other strategies not included there. The second section was consisted of a series of open-ended questions which derived from the researcher's knowledge of the literature, gave participants opportunities to discuss more about their writing. These open-ended questions aimed to gain a better understanding about some of the content areas of the questionnaires, and some aspects which were not included such as the teacher's approach to teaching writing and the participants' general writing behaviors. The interview questions were translated into Thai so that they could decide whether to answer in Thai or English. The interview questions were examined by the thesis advisors and three experts for the correctness and appropriateness.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

3.4.1 The Writing Strategies Questionnaire (WSQ)

The data were collected over a period of nearly two months from August – September 2015. The real survey was conducted at Thantongpittayakhom School

under The Secondary Educational Service Area Office 32 in Buriram Province. Before the real survey, the researcher obtained the permission to do the study from the school director. The samples were asked to self-complete the questionnaires in the context of their academic study during their first semester at the school and at the first stage of the data collection phase. Before the students starting to work on the questionnaires, the researcher explained in Thai for the purpose, nature, and procedures of the study, and assured them that participation in the study is entirely voluntary and their identities as well as the research data containing their identity or student numbers were kept confidential. A Thai consent form for taking questionnaires was first distributed to all of the students of the class. Only those students who agreed to participate in the study were asked to sign the form.
The participating students were then asked to complete the questionnaire. At the beginning and in the middle of the testing, the researcher reminded students to ask questions whenever an item was unclear to them. The researcher then asked some of the students for their opinions of the questionnaire. The samples were provided with enough time to read through the questionnaire carefully to check if there was any difficulty in understanding the questions before completing it. They were answered to the questions which were scaled from 1) never true of me, 2) usually not true of me, 3) sometimes true of me 4) usually true of me and 5) always true of me. The entire procedure of administering was taken approximately 30 minutes, an entire class period, including the time spent on instructions and consent forms.

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3.4.2 The Semi-structured Interview

The qualitative data were gathered by interviewing 8 students. Four high English proficient, and four low English proficient learners. A total of 8 grade 9 students were interviewed after the survey questionnaire. The interview was conducted in a quiet place study room. Before the interview, the researcher asked the targeted interviewees for consent to participate in the interview. An appointment was then made with the interviewees if they agreed to participate. On the actual interview day and right before the interview was got started, the researcher explained to the interviewees the purposes and nature of the study, asked them to read and sign the Thai consent form for interview, and answered any questions about the consent form or the study. The interviewees knew nothing about the interview questions in advance. The interview was conducted in Thai and each interview session was lasted roughly 10 minutes. The interview was audio-taped and then transcribed for further analysis.

3.5 Data Analyses and Statistics Procedures

3.5.1 The Writing Strategies Questionnaire (WSQ)

Each strategy included in the questionnaire were coded for analysis according to seven categories of learning strategy. These included Oxford's (1990) six learning categories: Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective, Social; and one added Negative category which consisted of learning strategies considered as having a negative influence on the writing process, e.g. "I like to start writing immediately without a plan". Therefore, Each group's frequency, mean ($\overline{X}$) and standard deviation (S.D.) of Thirty-eight items were calculated. They then ranked according to the mean scores of these items. Also, the seven broad strategies of

writing strategy were used by these statistical procedures. In both steps, the SPSS statistical package were used. However, the three levels of strategy use: "high use", "moderate use", and "low use" (Oxford. 1990) based on the holistic mean scores of frequency of strategy used by the research subjects under the present investigation were defined.

To see whether there were any significant differences between two groups in the level of use of writing strategies in terms of gender and English proficiency levels of grade 9 students' questionnaire responses, an independent samples t-test were used to analyze each group of strategies and the whole set of strategies. To detect the statistical significance among seven categories of strategy used, the alpha level were set at $\alpha = .05$ level.

3.5.2 Analysis of Data from the Interviews

The qualitative data analysis in this study began with the pre-coding step. Interview transcripts were read again and again by the researcher in order to make sense of the data. The pre-coding step was then be followed by the coding process which starts first with initial coding. The traditional method of using hard-copy printouts of interview transcripts were employed throughout the coding process. Relevant texts to the research questions were highlighted. An informative label was then added on the margin to the highlighted text.

In the next step of the coding process, called second-level coding, all the codes identified in the initial coding step were listed. Seven broad categories of writing strategies were emerged from the code list. Also, another five categories corresponded to the four stages in the writing process: Pre-writing, While writing, After finishing writing, and After the written work has been marked; and one general writing

behavior category were listed. The general writing behavior category was included strategies such as making a timetable for writing and practicing writing. Codes were then clustered together under those five categories.

3.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter had outlined the research methodology with detail about the research instruments, procedures, data collection and analysis, research reliability and validity. A mixed method approach will employed as a response to the call for an inclusion of a quantitative aspect in the investigation of writing strategies. This was reflected in the use of triangulation combining quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection including structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The findings from the data analysis were presented in Chapter Four.

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CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of data analyses and the findings for this study. The primary purpose of this study is to explore and compare the English writing strategies used by grade 9 students in Buriram province. In this section, the results are organized around the two research questions that guided this study. The results and findings are reported according to the research questions. The results of each research question are described in the following order: 1) research question one regarding English writing strategies most frequently used by grade 9 students in Buriram province; and 2) research question two regarding the comparison of English writing strategy used of grade 9 students in Buriram province, classified by gender and English proficiency.

Besides, the focus of this chapter is to present the results of an analysis of the data collected by means of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. It is first started with the presentation of quantitative results. Qualitative results from a content analysis of the interviews then follow. Although the quantitative and qualitative findings are presented separately in this chapter, they are discussed together in the next chapter in order to show how they corroborated.

4.1 Research Question One: What are the English writing strategies most frequently used by grade 9 students in Buriram Province?

Descriptive statistics were employed to answer the first research question. The descriptive statistics included means and standard deviations of each strategy use, the overall use, and the use of three strategy categories. Questionnaires were employed in order to add the quantitative aspect to the mainly qualitative part in the current study. Questionnaires were administered at the beginning of the data collection phase. All nine questionnaires were self-completed by the participants. Data drawn from the questionnaires were analyzed following the quantitative method of data analysis as described in the previous chapter. The questionnaire findings are to be presented in the following Tables. Table 4.1 below illustrates the results for overall English writing strategy of both the high writing proficient students (HWPS), and low writing proficient students (LWPS).

4.1.1 The English Writing Strategies Employed by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province

The English writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram province in all categories are shown in Table 4.1 below:

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Table 4.1

English Writing Strategy Employed by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province

Category	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Meaning	Rank
1. Metacognitive Strategies	3.10	.58	Moderate	5
2. Memory Strategies	3.11	.59	Moderate	4
3. Social Strategies	3.37	.70	Moderate	1
4. Compensation Strategies	3.16	.55	Moderate	2
5. Affective Strategies	2.95	.72	Moderate	6
6. Cognitive Strategies	3.12	.69	Moderate	3
7. Negative Strategies	2.71	.74	Moderate	7
Grand Total	3.07	.51	Moderate	-

As revealed in Table 4.1 above, the mean scores of the English writing strategies used by grade 9 students in Buriram province both in overall and each strategy were at a moderate level. The highest mean score was social strategies, followed by compensation strategies, cognitive strategies, memory strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and negative strategies, respectively.

When considering each strategy, the findings were shown in the tables below:

Table 4.2

The Metacognitive Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province

Metacognitive Strategies	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Meaning	Rank
1. I consider the task or instructions carefully before writing.	3.33	.58	Moderate	1
2. I brainstorm ideas (create a list that includes a wide variety of related ideas) and write notes.	2.94	1.01	Moderate	8
3. I use my background (world) knowledge to help me with ideas.	3.21	.90	Moderate	4
4. I think about the organization of the writing in Thailand before writing.	3.21	.92	Moderate	4
5. I write the outline of organization in English.	2.85	1.07	Moderate	9
6. I like to write two or more draft.	2.84	1.10	Moderate	10

Table 4.2 (continued)

7. I like to write just one draft.	2.95	1.06	Moderate	7
8. I edit my content (ideas).	3.26	.96	Moderate	3
9. I edit for grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation .	3.11	.91	Moderate	6
10. I like to change or make my ideas clearer as I write.	3.31	1.09	Moderate	2
Grand Total	3.10	.58	Moderate	

From Table 4.2, it was found that the mean score of the Metacognitive Strategies used by grade 9 students in Buriram province both in overall and each item were at a moderate level. The highest mean score was item 1 "I consider the task or instructions carefully before writing", followed by item 10 "I like to change or make my ideas clearer as I write", item 8 "I edit my content (ideas)", item 3 "I use my background (world) knowledge to help me with ideas", and 4 "I use my background (world) knowledge to help me with ideas", item 9 "I edit for grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation", item 7 "I like to write just one draft", item2 "I brainstorm ideas (create a list that includes a wide variety of related ideas) and write notes", and item 5 "I write the outline of organization in English, in order." The lowest mean score was item 6 "I like to write two or more draft."

Table 4.3

The Memory Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province

Memory Strategies	$\overline{X}$	SD	Meaning	Rank
1. I do extra study outside the classroom to improve my writing.	2.90	.85	Moderate	3
2. I read my lesson notes, handouts and course requirement before writing.	3.25	.86	Moderate	1
3. I search information and make notes in Thailand before writing.	3.18	.96	Moderate	2
Grand Total	3.11	.59	Moderate	

As revealed in Table 4.3 above, the mean score of the Memory Strategies used by grade 9 students in Buriram province both in overall and each item were at a moderate level. The high mean score were item 2 "I read my lesson notes, handouts and course requirement before writing", item 3 "I search information and make notes in Thailand before writing", and item 1 "I do extra study outside the classroom to improve my writing", respectively.

Table 4.4

The Social Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province

Social Strategies	$\overline{X}$	SD	Meaning	Rank
1. I read my feedback (advice, comments and work suggestions about completed written) from my teacher about my previous writing.	3.28	.94	Moderate	3
2. I discuss what I am going to write with other students or my teacher.	3.45	1.02	Moderate	1
3. I like to discuss my work with other students or teachers when I have finished.	3.39	.96	Moderate	2
Grand Total	3.37	.70	Moderate	

In Table 4.4 above, showed that the mean score of the Social Strategies used by grade 9 students in Buriram province both in overall and each item were at a moderate level. The high mean score were item 2 "I discuss what I am going to write with other students or my teacher", item 3 "I like to discuss my work with other students or teachers when I have finished", and item 1 "I read my feedback (advice, comments and work suggestions about completed written) from my teacher about my previous writing", respectively.

Table 4.5

The Compensation Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province

Compensation Strategies	$\overline{X}$	SD	Meaning	Rank
1. I like to edit my work as I am writing.	3.31	.98	Moderate	1
2. I like to edit my work when I have finished writing a draft.	3.19	.95	Moderate	4
3. I go back to my writing to edit and change the content (ideas).	3.21	.96	Moderate	2
4. I go back to my writing to edit and change the grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation.	3.06	.95	Moderate	7
5. I go back to my writing to edit and change my organization.	3.11	.87	Moderate	5
6. I make notes or try to remember the feedback I get for my work.	3.11	.80	Moderate	5
7. I record the types of errors I made (e.g. grammar, vocabulary and organization).	3.03	.93	Moderate	8
8. I use the feedback to help with my other English language skills (reading, speaking and listening).	3.21	1.00	Moderate	2
Grand Total	3.16	.55	Moderate	

As revealed in Table 4.5 above, the mean score of the Compensation Strategies used by grade 9 students in Buriram province both in overall and each item were at a moderate level. The highest mean score was item1"I like to edit my work as I am writing", followed by item 8 "I use the feedback to help with my other English language skills (reading, speaking and listening)", item 3 "I go back to my writing to edit and change the content (ideas)", item 2 "I like to edit my work when I have finished writing a draft", item 5 "I go back to my writing to edit and change my organization", item 6 "I make notes or try to remember the feedback I get for my work", and item 4 "I go back to my writing to edit and change the grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation", respectively. The last mean score used was item 7 "I record the types of errors I made (e.g. grammar, vocabulary and organization)."

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Table 4.6

The Affective Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province

Affective Strategies	$\overline{X}$	SD	Meaning	Rank
1. I make a timetable for when I will do my writing.	2.70	1.06	Moderate	3
2. I try to write in a comfortable, quiet place where I can concentrate.	3.36	.98	Moderate	1
3. I like to write a draft in Thai first and then translate it into English.	3.19	1.02	Moderate	2
4. I give myself a reward when I have finished.	2.56	1.22	Moderate	4
Grand Total	2.95	.72	Moderate	

Table 4.6 above, it showed that the mean score of the Affective Strategies used by grade 9 students in Buriram province both in overall and each item were at a moderate level. The highest mean score was item 2 "I try to write in a comfortable, quiet place where I can concentrate", followed by item 3 "I like to write a draft in Thai first and then translate it into English", item 1 "I make a timetable for when I will do my writing", and item 4 "I give myself a reward when I have finished", respectively.

Table 4.7

The Cognitive Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province

Cognitive Strategies	$\overline{X}$	SD	Meaning	Rank
1. I use a dictionary to check thing I am not sure about before or when I write.	3.29	1.05	Moderate	1
2. I use a grammar book to check things I am not sure about before or when I write.	3.04	1.00	Moderate	3
3. I edit my organization.	3.04	.99	Moderate	3
4. I use an English – Thai, Thai – English dictionary.	3.25	1.11	Moderate	2
5. I use an English – English dictionary.	2.98	1.15	Moderate	5
Grand Total	3.12	.69	Moderate	

As revealed in Table 4.7 above, the mean score of the Cognitive Strategies used by grade 9 students in Buriram province both in overall and each strategy were at a moderate level. The highest mean score was item1 "I use a dictionary to check

thing I am not sure about before or when I write", followed by item4 "I use an English – Thai, Thai – English dictionary", item 3 "I edit my organization", item 2 "I use a grammar book to check things I am not sure about before or when I write", and item 5 " I use an English – English dictionary", respectively.

Table 4.8

The Negative Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province

Negative Strategies	$\overline{X}$	SD	Meaning	Rank
1. I like to start writing immediately without a plan.	2.50	1.11	Moderate	5
2. I don't use a dictionary until I finish writing a draft.	2.78	1.05	Moderate	2
3. I don't use a grammar book until I finish writing a draft.	2.80	.95	Moderate	1
4. When I have finished my work I don't look at it again; It is finish.	2.71	1.15	Moderate	4
5. I don't usually remember the feedback I get.	2.77	1.19	Moderate	3
Grand Total	2.71	.74	Moderate	

A result in Table 4.8 above, it was found that the mean score of the Negative Strategies used by grade 9 students in Buriram province both in overall and each strategy were at a moderate level. The highest mean score was item3 "I don't use a grammar book until I finish writing a draft", followed by item 2 "I don't use a dictionary until I finish writing a draft", item 5 "I don't usually remember the feedback I get", item 4 "When I have finished my work I don't look at it again; It is finish", and item 1 "I like to start writing immediately without a plan", respectively.

4.2 Research Question Two: Is there any different English writing strategy employed by grade 9 students in terms of gender and English proficiency? If so, how?

4.2.1 A Comparison of English Writing Strategies Employed by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province Classified by Gender

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The English writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram province classified by gender are shown in Table 4.9 below:

Table 4.9

A Comparison of English Writing Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students Classified by Gender

Category	Male		Female		t
	$\overline{X}$	SD	$\overline{X}$	SD	
1. Metacognitive Strategies	3.17	.64	3.05	.52	1.16
2. Memory Strategies	3.09	.67	3.13	.53	.40
3. Social Strategies	3.34	.74	3.39	.68	.45
4. Compensation Strategies	3.27	.62	3.07	.49	2.00*
5. Affective Strategies	3.01	.71	2.90	.74	.90
6. Cognitive Strategies	3.20	.69	3.08	.67	1.08
7. Negative Strategies	3.06	.68	2.48	.68	4.88*
Grand Total	**3.14**	**.67**	**3.02**	**.60**	**1.60**

*significant difference at .05 level

As shown in Table 4.9, there was not different of writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram province in overall, classified by gender. However, when considering in each strategy, it was found with statistically significant difference at .05 level in the negative and compensation strategies while the rest strategies were not different.

4.2.2 A Comparison of English Writing Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students Classified by English Language Proficiency

The English writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram province classified by English language proficiency are shown in Table 4.10 below:

Table 4.10

A Comparison of English Writing Strategies Used by Grade 9 Students

Classified by English Language Proficiency

Category	High Proficiency		Low Proficiency		t
	$\overline{X}$	SD	$\overline{X}$	SD	
1. Metacognitive Strategies	3.20	.59	2.87	.47	3.52*
2. Memory Strategies	3.21	.59	2.90	.52	3.12*

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Table 4.10 (continued)

3. Social Strategies	3.45	.73	3.19	.60	2.28*
4. Compensation Strategies	3.24	.59	2.97	.42	2.65*
5. Affective Strategies	3.05	.72	2.72	.67	2.60*
6. Cognitive Strategies	3.22	.66	2.88	.70	2.70*
7. Negative Strategies	2.77	.78	2.58	.61	1.59
Grand Total	3.16	.67	2.87	.57	3.19*

*significant difference at .05 level

As shown in Table 4.10, there was statistically significant difference at .05 level of writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram province in overall, classified by English language proficiency. When considering in each strategy, it was found with statistically significant difference at .05 level in five writing strategies, namely metacognitive strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. In contrast, there was not different in the negative strategies.

4.2.3 A Data Analysis of English Writing Strategies Used by HWPS and LWPS from Interviews

The English writing strategies used by HWPS and LWPS from interviews are shown in Table 4.11 below:

Table 4.11

English Writing Strategies Used by HWPS and LWPS from Interviews

Writing Stage	HWPS	LWPS
Pre-writing	-Brainstorm ideas using background knowledge. -Discuss with peers to generate ideas. -Search information and read about the topics to help generate ideas.	-Brainstorm ideas using background knowledge. -Discuss with peers to generate ideas. -Search information and read about the topics to help generate ideas.

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Table 4.11 (continued)

	-Take notes while writing. (2)* -Make outlines. -Write in a quiet and comfortable place.	-Make outlines. -Write in a quiet and comfortable place.
While writing	-Write one draft. (3) -Write more than one draft. (3) -Think in both first and foreign language but write in English. (6) -Think totally in first language. (2)	-Write no draft. (1) -Writes one draft. (1) -Think in both first and foreign language but write in English.
After finishing writing	-Edit for grammar (3), vocabulary (2), and spelling (1). -Edit for content. (2) -Use peer and teacher edit. (3) -Self-reward.	-Do not edit much. (1) -Edit for both content and grammar. (1) -Self-reward.
After the written work has been marked	-Remember teacher feedback. (4)	-Remember teacher feedback.

*Note: * = the number of students who used the strategy*

The strategies used by the students throughout the writing process are presented in Table 4.11 It can be seen that both the successful and less successful writers had a number of strategies in common at the pre-writing stage. They all used their background knowledge to brainstorm ideas on the topic. Two other strategies to help them with the generation of ideas included discussing with others and searching information and reading about the topic. Making outlines was the strategy also reported to be used by both groups of writers. Moreover, it is interesting to see that all eight students' writing was more or less affected by the place where they write.

A quiet place where they could concentrate was said to be a good place to write by all the students.

At the writing or drafting stage, as Table 4.11 shows, seven out of eight students wrote at least one draft while only one less successful writer did not write a draft; as a result, she edited her work while writing, paying attention to grammar and vocabulary. The data also reveal that the successful writers wrote more drafts than their less successful counterparts with three among six reported writing more than one draft. Another strategy employed at this stage by six out of eight students was the use of first language while writing. However, there was a process of translation of their thoughts from the first language into the foreign language before their ideas were written down. The difference in this strategy between the two groups of writers was that two successful writers relied totally on the first language while writing.

Table 4.11 also represents the strategies used by the participants after they finished their writing. As mentioned earlier, seven out of the eight students reported writing at least one draft except for one less successful writer. However, they did not edit their work until they had finished writing a draft. There seems to have been a focus on accuracy rather than content. This focus is reflected in the revision for grammar, vocabulary, and spelling by almost all the writers while only three of them also edited for content. Regarding editing strategy use, the successful writers were different from the less successful ones in the use of peer and teacher editing by asking their peers and teacher to edit their work for them. The last strategy found at this stage of writing which was the affective strategy to help retain motivation such as self-rewarding was reported to be used by five students while self-rewarding was

decided later by three others depending on the results of their work after it had been marked.

The only strategy revealed from the interviews after the writing has been assessed was remembering teacher feedback. Among eight students who attended the interviews, six answered they attended to and tried to remember the teacher's feedback to help them improve their writings later.

A summary of the English writing strategies reported in the diaries is presented in the table below:

4.3 Summary of the Chapter

In summary, few findings of this study reached statistical significance. The results of each research question are described in three aspects: 1) questionnaires; 2) semi-structured interviews. In addition to these findings, the interview responses displayed, to some extent, the personality of the students and their preference for doing the writing, indicating that students prefer to write in class. The other is from the writing fluency of the HWPS group compared with the other LWPS group. The findings reveal that English writing strategy shows positive results in developing writing and particularly in writing fluency notwithstanding. Some possible reasons for these results will be discussed next in Chapter Five.

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CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter provides a discussion of the key research results within the context of the study itself and within the overall body of research in relation to the research questions. Although the key findings from the questionnaires and interviews are presented separately in Chapter Four, they are discussed together in this chapter to show how the findings from the two research instruments corroborated. A summative presentation of the research in its entirety is then included at the end of the chapter.

5.1 Summary of the Major Findings

The present study investigated English writing strategies employed by grade 9 students in Buriram province. The total number of participants were 140 grade 9 students who are studying Fundamental English Course (E 23101) in the first semester of 2015 academic year at Thantongpittayakhom High School in Buriram Province. The research questions were addressed by means of a triangulated approach to collect data, including structured questionnaire, semi-structured interviews. The data were collected over a period of two months. The quantitative data were analyzed by percentage, mean, standard deviation and independent samples t-test while the qualitative were analyzed by using content analysis. The main research findings were summarized as follows:

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5.1.1 The results from an analysis of the quantitative data showed that the high writing proficient students not only generally used writing strategies more frequently but also made more frequent use of metacognitive, memory, compensation, and cognitive strategies than their low writing proficient students. A number of writing strategies which were most and least frequently used by the students were identified. Regarding individual writing strategy use, the research found that the high writing proficient students were different from the low writing proficient students in that they wrote more drafts, used editing strategies more frequently, and used a dictionary to check unsure things.

5.1.2 The qualitative results from interviews not only provided supportive evidence to the questionnaire results but gave more insights into the students' writing process and some factors affected their writing. The qualitative results indicated that the students all took a process approach to writing and generally made no timetable for their writing. Some important affective factors identified were the place of writing, the writing topic, self-rewarding, the amount of time allowed to prepare for writing, the student's personal emotions, state of health, and even the weather.

In this section, the major research findings in related to the two research questions as mentioned above will be discussed in the light of the results reported in the Chapter Four. A detailed account and interpretation of the research findings are discussed in relation to previous research and in the context of 1) overall perceived use of writing strategies; 2) perceived use of writing strategies by high and low writing proficient students; 3) most and least perceived used strategies by high and low writing proficient students; and 4) individual writing strategy use by high and low writing proficient students. The ensuring discussion of the research findings will be

guided by the original two research questions that emerged from the analysis. Afterwards, implications for writing paragraph and research will be presented. Below is shown the discussions of the following aspects based upon the research findings.

5.2 Discussion of the Major Findings

5.2.1 Overall Perceived Use of English Writing Strategies

As presented in the previous chapter, there was no statistical difference between Oxford's (1990) six categories of strategies: 1) Metacognitive, 2) Memory, 3) Social, 4) Compensation, 5) Affective, and 6) Cognitive. However, the results from t-test showed a significant difference between the six categories and the negative category with negative strategies being used least frequently of all. It is not difficult to explain the low frequent use of the Negative category as negative strategies are perceived as those which have negative impact on writing. The interviews and learning diaries also provided evidence to support this finding. The low frequency of use of negative strategy such as "I like to start writing immediately without a plan" was corroborated by an indication by the participants during the interviews and in the diaries that they did make outlines at the pre-writing stage.

In addition to providing evidence to cross-check the questionnaire findings, the interviews and diaries also revealed more affective strategies that were not investigated by the questionnaire. The writing topic was reported to be a factor that affected the writing of five out of the eight participants. These students indicated that they wrote better when it was the topic they were interested in. Other affective factors found during the interviews included the amount of time allowed to prepare for

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writing, the writer's personal emotions, state of health, and even the weather. Another important affective strategy found in the interviews and diary entries was self-rewarding. Self-rewarding was mentioned by all the participants during the interviews. The diary entry of one successful writer showed an emphasis on the role of this affective strategy in creating her motivation as follows:

> After finishing my writing, I usually give myself a reward such as listening to music, playing game, eating my favorite dishes or spend more time for myself. To sum up, I will do anything I like, which is good for me so that I can enjoy myself, remember how happy, comfortable I feel when finishing tasks. I will be encouraged by joy I myself make.

The identification of affective strategies from the interviews other than those covered in the questionnaire puts an emphasis on the presence of affective strategies which used to be ignored in language learning strategy research. It also lends support to Oxford's (1994) arguing for the role of affective strategies in language learning that "the L2 learner is not just a cognitive and metacognitive machine but, rather, a whole person".

5.2.2 Perceived Use of Writing Strategies by High and Low English Writing Proficient Students

As mentioned earlier, the students were divided into two groups: 1) high writing proficient students (HWPS), and 2) low writing proficient students (LWPS). An examination of the HWPS and LWPS of writing strategy use did provide evidence to conclude that the proficient writers generally used strategies more frequently than their low proficient counterparts. This finding causes no surprise as previous research investigating learning strategies has indicated that successful language learners use

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strategies more frequently than less successful language learners (Oxford & Burry-Stock. 1995; Oxford & Ehrman. 1995; Oxford. 1994; Politzer. 1983; O'Malley et al. 1985; Wenden & Rubin. 1987).

In addition to the more frequent use of writing strategies in general, the HWPS was also different from LWPS in the use of more Metacognitive, Memory, Compensation, and Cognitive strategies. This finding is useful for the answering of the second research question which aims to investigate the relationship between writing strategy use and the learners' success. It was not surprising to see the more frequent use of the four categories of strategies by the successful writers than their less successful counterparts. In fact, much research in the field has provided evidence for this. Oxford (1996: xi), in "Language learning strategies around the world" cross-cultural perspectives" states that "successful learners often use metacognitive strategies such as organizing, evaluating, and planning their learning." The finding that metacognitive strategies are often associated with successful learners was also so found by Cohen (1998) and Gregersen et al. (2001). Research has also found that successful language learners are good at combining strategies which work together in order to meet the demand of the task (O'Malley & Chamot. 1990). According to Oxford (1996: xi), using metacognitive strategies, "along with cognitive strategies like analyzing, reasoning, transferring information, taking notes, and summarizing – might be considered part of any definition of truly effective learning." Therefore, the success of the successful writers in the present research can be said to have a positive relationship with their use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies.

In addition to metacognitive and cognitive strategies, research has also found other strategies that are associated with successful learners. Compensation and

memory strategies were reported by Oxford (1996) to be frequently used by competent learners. The identification of the four strategies (Metacognitive, Cognitive, Compensation, and Memory) associated with successful language learners from previous studies and this study has lent support for the conclusion of a positive relationship between strategy use and the learners' success.

5.2.3 Most and Least Perceived Used Strategies by High and Low English Writing Proficient Students

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the results from the questionnaires revealed some strategies which were most and least frequently used by HWPS and LWPS. The most frequently used strategies were those which scored 4 and above, meaning usually true to always true of the participants. On the basis of the mean score for individual strategy, ten were counted as most frequently used strategies by all the participants.

Of the ten most frequently used strategies revealed, the use of the foreign language when writing an outline was used most frequently of all. This finding was supported by the result from the interviews when almost all the participants except two successful writers reported that they thought in both Vietnamese and English but wrote down in English.

Concerning the use of the first language in second language writing, the results from the interviews provided some interesting insights. As mentioned previously in the literature review chapter, there has been much argument on the role of L1 use in L2 composition to date. Researchers, Baker and Boonkit (2004) found that L1 use was a negative strategy and was not used by successful L2 writers.

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Meanwhile, research by Zamel (1982) and Cumming (1987) provided counter-evidence. It is interesting to see that L1 was used by both the successful and the less successful writers in the current research. Despite the participants' effort to think in English in every stage of writing, L1 was used as a strategy to help them compensate for the lack of vocabulary, especially when writing about unfamiliar topics, as it was expressed in the diary by one proficient student:

> We tried our best to think in English to make sentences more beautiful and natural. And in fact, we did it in some extents. However, with some sentences which are complicated to think in English, we had to think them in Thai and then translated into English. I know that it is not good for students who study at a language secondary level like us because we have to learn to think in English to use it fluently and naturally. But there are some words we do not know the meaning in English. Therefore, we must say Thai sentences first and then, found English words.

It is interesting to note that L1 was even used in the whole L2 composing process by two successful writers. On explaining this total reliance on L1 while composing in L2, these two successful writers said that they were unable and did not have confidence to think in English. The following extracts from interviews illustrate this point:

HWPS1: I don't think I have the ability to do so because it is difficult for me to perform two tasks at the same time. I think in Thai first, then, translate into English.

LWPS4: The teacher also advises us to think in English as we are learning English. However, I am not very confident, so I have to think in Thai first to ensure I have enough ideas, then, I translate into English.

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It can be concluded from the finding about the role of L1 in the current research that using L1 in L2 composition is not really a negative strategy when L1 is only used as a compensation for the lack of certain L2 knowledge.

The role of teacher feedback about previous writing was also noticeable. This was also one of the most frequently used strategies found in Baker and Boonkit's (2004) study. In addition, this finding further lends support to Ferris and Roberts (2001) report of the significance of the influence of teacher feedback on writers. Again, interviews and diaries provided more evidence to strengthen this finding.

> LWPS4: I think the teacher's feedback is important, more important than the mark I receive.
> HWPS3: I find the teacher's feedback valuable because it helps us avoid making mistakes in grammar and select related ideas. All of those comments are very valuable that I will apply to the final one handed 2 weeks later.

The importance that the students attributed to teacher feedback can be partly explained by the role of teachers in this teaching and learning context. In an Asian country like Thailand, teachers still play a central role in the classrooms as a source of knowledge as expressed by one of the participants:

> Although I discuss my writing with peers before handing it in for assessment, I think the person who assesses my writing has more knowledge than those. So I pay more attention to his/her feedback.

Another important strategy found in this research was using background knowledge to help generate ideas in writing. The results from the interviews not only provided evidence to support this finding but gave more insights. In order to help them generate ideas, the students always consulted their world knowledge first.

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However, according to them, world knowledge was only useful in generating ideas for topics which they were familiar with, and which did not require any reading before writing. When background knowledge could not help, particularly, when writing unfamiliar topics, they discussed with their peers and searched information and read about the topics to help them with the generation of ideas. These strategies were evident in the following excerpts:

HWPS8:	I use my background knowledge to generate ideas for familiar topics. I must search for more information for unfamiliar topics.
HWPS8:	If I can't generate ideas using my background knowledge, I ask my friends or anyone around who has better understanding about that topic.
Researcher:	What else do you do to generate ideas?
HWPS8:	I read books and newspapers. I use my background knowledge. I discuss with friends and teachers but not often.
Research:	You don't usually discuss with teachers?
HWPS8:	Usually with friends.
Researcher:	Do you use any other ways to help you generate ideas? What do you do if both the relying on your background knowledge and discussing with peers cannot help you with the generation of ideas?
LWPS7:	I search information on the internet or in the library. I usually read related readings and think nothing. I only read to have some surface understanding about the topic. I can generate ideas after I have done all readings.

Taking into consideration of the role of background knowledge in generating ideas, Baker and Boonkit (2004) suggest choosing writing topics which are relevant to the writers in order to motivate and interest them. An affective strategy such as choosing to write in a comfortable and quiet place where they can concentrate was also one of the strategies most frequently used by the participants. This finding is strongly supported by the interview finding when all the participants reported that their writing was affected by the place where they wrote. The diaries further confirmed this finding:

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> And I can only write in a comfortable, especially, quiet place where I can concentrate. This is one of the most important things affecting my working productivity. I am likely to work effectively in an absolutely place or at the night when no one can disturb me. I myself acknowledge that. Instead of spending all the morning writing the introduction, it only takes me 30 minutes at night to do the same work. Sometimes, I cannot believe in it. I like to write during night.

In terms of revising strategies, the research results showed a strong emphasis on revision at a local level. This is reflected in the frequent use of revising strategies such as "I edit for grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation" at the "While writing" stage and "I go back to my writing to edit and change the grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation" after the written work had been finished. This focus on local revision can be explained by the participants' learning background. The students had been learning English as a subject since they were at primary schools. However, the method of teaching English at schools in Thailand is still mainly grammar translation method which places a strong focus on forms and correctness. As a result, English learners often pay attention to correctness rather than how their ideas are expressed. Another explanation for the local rather than global revision expressed by the participants was that once they had made outlines, they would never change their ideas. The students' primary concern of grammar while editing their work was also found during the interviews and in diary entries.

Researcher:	You have written a draft. It is not a finished essay, isn't it? Do you pay attention to grammar when you come back to edit it?
LWPS9:	Yes.
Researcher:	How about ideas? Do you change ideas?
LWPS9:	Normally I don't change ideas when I edit my draft.
Researcher:	So you keep your ideas and check for grammar, right?
LWPS9:	Yes.

Moreover, the interviews and diaries help gain more insights into the students' editing strategies. In addition to self-editing, peer and teacher editing were the strategies reported being used by the successful writers. These strategies also make the difference between the successful and less successful writers in terms of their revising strategies. The use of peer and teacher editing, to some extent, can explain for the frequent use of the social strategy "I like to discuss my work with other students or teachers when I have finished".

There were four least frequently used strategies found in this study. These were the three strategies belonging to negative category and one cognitive strategy which was writing a draft in Thai and translating it into English. It is not surprising that negative strategies such as "I like to start writing immediately without a plan and When I have finished my work I don't look at it again; it's finished" were used least frequently by both groups of writers as they all took a process approach to writing. These findings were corroborated by the participants' indication of making outlines and editing their work presented in the interview findings section in the previous chapter. The low mean score for the remaining negative strategy, which is forgetting feedback could be easily explained by the importance that the participants credited to teacher feedback as discussed earlier. In fact, they all indicated their attention to teacher feedback during the interviews and in the diary entries:

Researcher: Do you read the teacher's feedback immediately when you receive your assignments back?
HWPS2: Of course. I read it immediately and I even highlight it.
Researcher: So you read the teacher's feedback and use it to improve your later writings?
HWPS4: Yes, I also remember teacher feedback.
Researcher: Do you pay attention to the teacher's feedback? Do you read it carefully and remember it so that you can improve your writing?

LWPS8: Yes. I usually pay attention to teacher's feedback as soon as I get back my assignment.
Researcher: Always attend to teacher's feedback?
LWPS8: Always.

> I received my first draft from my teacher. I read the feedback (comments, suggestions). Almost mistakes I made in this one are those I mentioned in 2nd entry. Also, there are some minor typing mistakes. It's not necessary. However, I make note in order not to repeat them. I think this feedback's also important for me to improve other English skills (reading, speaking, listening).

The least frequently used cognitive strategy which received lowest score of all involves the use of L1 in writing a draft which was then translated into English. Although L1 was used by all the participants, any translation from Thai into English occurred only in their mind as evident in the following interview passage:

Researcher: Do you write the outlines in Thai or English if you think ideas in Thai?
HWPS2: Although I think ideas in Vietnamese, I write the outlines in English.
Researcher: It means there's a step of translation before you write down ideas in the outlines, right?
HWPS2: Yes, but it occurs in my mind.

5.2.4 Individual Writing Strategy Use by High and Low English Writing Proficient Students

In terms of individual writing strategy use, the results from an analysis of individual strategy use of the two groups revealed a significant difference between the high writing proficient students and their high writing proficient counterparts in the use of five strategies. First of all, the high writing proficient students reported writing more drafts than the low writing proficient ones. The interviews result further confirmed this finding with three high writing proficient students reporting writing

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more than one drafts. The finding that the low writing proficient students usually wrote only one draft was also reflected in the fact that one low writing proficient students mentioned in the interview that she wrote no draft at all. The teacher's method of teaching writing could be a good explanation for this. There seemed to be a relationship between the habit of writing drafts of the participants in the research and the teacher's requirements. One high writing proficient student who reported writing more than one drafts said that this strategy use derived from her teacher's requirement of writing drafts as follow:

> HWPS3: I think we were lucky to have an enthusiastic writing teacher when we learned to write paragraphs. She required us to write quite a lot of drafts so that she could have a look and gave feedback.

An examination of the participants' interviews lends more support to this finding when one less successful writer said "I don't write drafts if it's not compulsory".

The high writing proficient students are also different from their low writing proficient counterparts in the more frequent use of editing strategies such as "I edit for grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation and I edit my organization". This concern for grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation, as well as the organization of their work confirmed Zamel's (1982) that proficient ESL students paid attention to both meanings and form.

The last strategy that makes the high writing proficient students different from the low writing proficient ones, regarding individual writing strategy use, was the use of a dictionary to check unsure things while writing. The interviews provided no information about this strategy but the diaries did confirm this finding:

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> I am not sure about my vocabulary, when and how to use it. That is the reason why I had to use Oxford dictionary and Thai-English dictionaries very frequently.

> I often use grammar book to check sentence structures and an English dictionary for vocabulary.

In addition to providing evidence to cross-check the findings from the questionnaires, the data from the interviews also yielded some useful insights into the participants' general writing behaviors. It is interesting to see that seven out of eight participants who attended interviews made no timetable for practicing writing. This finding corresponds to Baker and Boonkit's (2004) report that making a timetable for practicing writing was never or usually not true of their Thai participants. It is appropriate to follow Baker and Boonkit's explanation that the reason lies in the perception of time among cultures pointed out in O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk (1997). According to O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk, Thai students are polychronic, or in other words, they consider time commitments an objective to be achieved and change plans often and easily. Choi (2007) indicates that the polychromic perception of time is one of the three cultural characteristics which make East Asian culture unique. Therefore, the use of a timetable for practicing writing may also be a culturally appropriate strategy for Thai students. Instead, there seemed to be a tendency to focus on the writing outcomes which was reflected in the participants' report that they only practiced writing before exams, or otherwise, they only did extra writing when they were inspired by a certain topic. The data from the interviews also provided some possible reason as expressed by one of the successful writers as follow:

HWPS2: ((smile)) To be honest, I'm quite lazy, so I sometimes practice. I only write when I find an interesting topic. It's not my habit to practice writing.

The absence of a timetable for practicing writing, especially in the high writing proficient students provided counter-evidence to Rubin's (1975) description of good language learners that they practice.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

Language learning strategies has been viewed by authors such as Lessard-Clouston (1997) and Oxford (1990) as having a positive relationship with the development of the communicative competence. Oxford (1990: 1) states that language learning strategies "are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence". Fedderholdt (1997: 1) states that "the language learner capable of using a wide variety of language learning strategies can improve his skills in a better way". Much research into language learning strategies has been done in an effort to identify the strategies used by good language learners in order to teach those to less or unsuccessful learners. The present study found that the successful writers used metacognitive, memory, compensation and cognitive strategies more frequently than the less successful writers. As learning strategies help develop the learners' communicative competence, it is first suggested that the strategies found in this research should be informed to language teachers so that they can help their students extend their repertoire of writing strategies.

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In addition to getting familiar with learning strategies, language teachers should particularly understand the factors affecting the acquisition of a second language. Rossiter (2003), states that there has been an increasing focus on individuals' emotions and feelings recently as a result of the development of humanistic psychology. The positive relationship between attention to affect and good language learning outcomes, also according to Rossiter, has been confirmed over the last three decades by such researchers as Gardner (1985), Gardner and Lambert (1972), Gardner and MacIntyre (1993). If it is true that there exists an affective filter (the learner's motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states) as Krashen (1982) proposed, then, helping language learners control these affective variables will greatly contribute to their learning process. To this end, the language teachers should create an environment which is open and comfortable for their students to partly help them control and understand the affective factors to use them in a productive way.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

In considering this study, a variety of additional unanswered questions arose that could be the impetus for further investigations. The following are some suggested research ideas the researcher feels would be of value.

5.7.1 Further research should incorporate this aspect into the investigation of writing strategies to determine if awareness of learning strategies makes high and low proficient students different.

5.7.2 Further research should use a larger sample size with a caution in choosing the range of settings that represent the wider population. A larger sample

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combined with the use of triangulation would be effective in providing a holistic view of learning strategies.

5.7.3 Future research could also be directed specifically at intercultural writing. The current study has shown that these Thais write to people with different linguistic backgrounds. What are the challenges these correspondents face, and how are they dealt with? How might those challenges be lessened or better prepared for? How are norms established, or how do they evolve?

5.5 Conclusion Remarks

As the questions in the preceding section suggest, this research has not generated answers to nearly all of the questions related to the nature of paragraph writing in Thailand or to the way(s) it can and should be taught. What it does do, though, is provide data describing the various ways students at a particular Thai high schools are writing paragraph in English, and the ways their undergraduate writing instruction prepared them for their future needs. Perhaps the instruments developed for this study can be applied to research in other contexts; perhaps the findings will raise questions that will inspire continued work in this area, or that will point the research in new directions. If others do indeed engage in related research, the researcher can only hope that the process of designing the project, gathering the data, and reporting on the results is as rewarding for them as it has been for her.

This thesis offers several topics for future investigation in the area of writing and of development. It showed some possibilities regarding how to promote learning-leading-to-development in current educational contexts where the learning became equated to high grades and to the acquisition of compartmentalized knowledge.

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Despite a considerable number of constraints such as time, instructor's inexperience, students' prevailing empirical thinking, and the use of a limiting tool for students' expression of theoretical thinking (L2), some students developed signs of theoretical thinking and engaged in some sort of meaning-making process. So, there is a light at the end of the tunnel.

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Buriram Rajabhat University

APPENDICES

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์
Buriram Rajabhat University

APPENDIX A

The Letter Requesting to be the Expert for the Research Instruments

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์ Buriram Rajabhat University

No. 0545.11/W803

Buriram Rajabhat Uiversity
Jira Road, Amphur Mueng,
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

August 27, 2015

Dear Mrs. Touchcha Nampich,

Subject: Requesting to be the Expert for the Research Instruments

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents its complements to you to be the expert for the research instruments. I would like to inform you that Mrs. Punnapa Paengsri, a student studying in Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research entitled **"Investigating in English Strategies Employed by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province"** under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, a Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU strongly believes in your kindness to be the expert for giving suggestions about her research instruments.

Your kind acceptance of being the expert is very much appreciated.

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์
Buriram Rajabhat University

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr.Narumon Somkuna)
Dean of Graduate School
Buriram Rajabhat University

Office of Graduate School
Tel. 0 4461 1221, 0 446 1616 ext. 7401-2
Fax. 0 4461 2858

No. 0545.11/W803

Buriram Rajabhat Uiversity
Jira Road, Amphur Mueng,
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

August 27, 2015

Dear Assistant Professor Dr. Akkarpon Nuemaihom,

Subject: Requesting to be the Expert for the Research Instruments

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents its complements to you to be the expert for the research instruments. I would like to inform you that Mrs. Punnapa Paengsri, a student studying in Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research entitled **"Investigating in English Strategies Employed by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province"** under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, a Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU strongly believes in your kindness to be the expert for giving suggestions about her research instruments.

Your kind acceptance of being the expert is very much appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr.Narumon Somkuna)
Dean of Graduate School
Buriram Rajabhat University

Office of Graduate School
Tel. 0 4461 1221, 0 446 1616 ext. 7401-2
Fax. 0 4461 2858

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์ Buriram Rajabhat University

No. 0545.11/W803

Buriram Rajabhat Uiversity
Jira Road, Amphur Mueng,
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

August 27, 2015

Dear Mrs. Nutcharri Namrat,

Subject: Requesting to be the Expert for the Research Instruments

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents its complements to you to be the expert for the research instruments. I would like to inform you that Mrs. Punnapa Paengsri, a student studying in Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research entitled **"Investigating in English Strategies Employed by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province"** under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, a Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU strongly believes in your kindness to be the expert for giving suggestions about her research instruments.

Your kind acceptance of being the expert is very much appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr.Narumon Somkuna)
Dean of Graduate School
Buriram Rajabhat University

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Tel. 0 4461 1221, 0 446 1616 ext. 7401-2
Fax. 0 4461 2858

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์
Buriram Rajabhat University

APPENDIX B

The Letter Asking Permission to Try out the Research Instrument

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์
Buriram Rajabhat University

No. 0545.11/842

Buriram Rajabhat University
Jira Road, Amphur Mueng,
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

September 2, 2015

Dear Director of Lamplaimat School

Subject: Asking permission to tryout the research instrument

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents its complements to you, the Director of Lamplaimat School, and asks your permission to allow Mrs. Punnapa Paengsri to tryout the research instrument. I wish to inform that Mrs. Punnapa Paengsri, a student studying in Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research entitled **"Investigating in English Writing Strategies Employed by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province"** under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, a thesis chairperson. She would like to tryout the research instrument in order to find out its efficiency. The schedule of this process will be officially informed later.

Your kind acceptance and permission is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr.Narumon Somkuna)
Dean of Graduate School
Buriram Rajabhat University

Office of Graduate School
Tel. 0 4461 1221, 0 446 1616 ext. 7401-2
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Buriram Rajabhat University

APPENDIX C

The Letter Asking Permission to Collect the Research Data

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์ Buriram Rajabhat University

No. 0545.11/846

Buriram Rajabhat University
Jira Road, Amphur Mueng,
Buriram 31000, HAILAND

September 30, 2015

Dear Mr. Director of Thantongpittayakom School:

Subject: Asking Permission to Collect the Research Data.

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents this letter to the Director of Thantongpittayakom School to asks permission to collect the research data. I wish to inform you that Mrs. Punnapa Paengsri, a student studying in Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research entitled **"Investigating in English Strategies Employed by Grade 9 Students in Buriram Province"** under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, a Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU would like to ask permission from Mr.Director of Thantongpittayakom School to allow he to collect the research data from grade 9 students at Thantongpittayakom School by responding to her research methodologies in September 2015.

Please accept, Mr. School Director, my sincere appreciation and the assurances of my highest consideration.

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr.Narumon Somkuna)
Dean of Graduate School
Buriram Rajabhat University

Office of Graduate School
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APPENDIX D

The Questionnaire

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QUESTIONNAIRE

Writing strategies (specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques to improve writing)

This questionnaires lists a wide range of writing strategies most frequently used by English-as-a-foreign-language learners. Its aim is to identify which of these are used by you. Please tick the box which best expresses your answer to each question. The information you provide in this questionnaire will be kept confidential. Thank you very much for your time.

<u>Part 1: General information</u>

<u>Directions</u>: Answer the following questions about your personal data.

1. Sex: ( ) Male ( ) Female

2. GPAX ……………………………..

3. How will you rate your English proficiency?

( ) very good ( ) good ( ) poor ( ) very poor

<u>Part 2</u>

<u>Directions</u>: Answer the following questions about your English writing by putting the / under the column 'never true of me, usually not true of me, sometimes true of me, usually true of me and always true of me.

Questions	never true of me	usually not true of me	sometimes true of me	usually true of me	always true of me
<u>Pre writing</u> 1. I do extra study outside the classroom to improve my writing.					
2. I read my lesson notes, handouts and course requirement before writing.					

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Questions	never true of me	usually not true of me	sometimes true of me	usually true of me	always true of me
3. I read my feedback (advice, comments and work suggestions about completed written) from my teacher about my previous writing.					
4. I consider the task or instructions carefully before writing.					
5. I discuss what I am going to write with other students or my teacher.					
6. I brainstorm ideas (create a list that includes a wide variety of related ideas) and write notes.					
7. I use my background (world) knowledge to help me with ideas.					
8. I search information and make notes in Thailand before writing.					
9. I think about the organization of the writing in Thailand before writing.					
10. I write the outline of organization in English.					
11. I like to start writing immediately without a plan.					
12. I make a timetable for when I will do my writing.					

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Questions	never true of me	usually not true of me	sometimes true of me	usually true of me	always true of me
13. I try to write in a comfortable, quiet place where I can concentrate.					
While writing 14. I like to write a draft in Thai first and then translate it into English.					
15. I like to write two or more draft.					
16. I like to write just one draft.					
17. I like to edit my work as I am writing.					
18. I like to edit my work when I have finished writing a draft.					
19. I use a dictionary to check thing I am not sure about before or when I write.					
20. I don't use a dictionary until I finish writing a draft.					
21. I use a grammar book to check things I am not sure about before or when I write.					
22. I don't use a grammar book until I finish writing a draft.					
23. I edit my content (ideas).					

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Questions	never true of me	usually not true of me	sometimes true of me	usually true of me	always true of me
24. I edit for grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation .					
25. I edit my organization.					
26. I like to change or make my ideas clearer as I write.					
27. I use an English – Thai, Thai – English dictionary.					
28. I use an English – English dictionary.					
After finish my writing 29. I go back to my writing to edit and change the content (ideas).					
30. I go back to my writing to edit and change the grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation.					
31. I go back to my writing to edit and change my organization.					
32. I like to discuss my work with other students or teachers when I have finished.					
33. When I have finished my work I don't look at it again; It is finish.					
34. I give myself a reward when I have finished.					

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Questions	never true of me	usually not true of me	sometimes true of me	usually true of me	always true of me
<u>After my written work has been marked</u> 35. I make notes or try to remember the feedback I get for my work.					
36. I record the types of errors I made (e.g. grammar, vocabulary and organization).					
37. I use the feedback to help with my other English language skills (reading, speaking and listening)					
38. I don't usually remember the feedback I get.					

<u>Part 3</u>

Are there any writing strategies you employ which are not included in the questionnaire?

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APPENDIX E

The Semi Structure Interview

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INTERVIEW QUESTION LIST

Question for semi-structure interviews with participants may change in detail as a result of initial analysis of the responses to the questionnaires. However, at this stage the questions anticipated to be asked are as follow:

About the questionnaire:

1. Can you explain if there is anything in the questionnaire that makes you confused?
2. Could you describe any writing strategies you use that are not mentioned in the questionnaire?
   Could you explain why you use this (or these)?

About writing:

1. How writing is taught in your class?
2. How often do you practice writing in English?
3. How much time do you spend each time you practice?
4. Could you explain what you do to practice writing in English?
5. Could you tell me what you do to help you with the generation of ideas before you write?
6. Do you read about the topic you are going to write about before writing?
   Could you explain why?
7. Could you tell me whether you think in English or in your first language when you write?
   Could you explain why you do this?
8. Do you write immediately in English or translate from your first language when you write?
   Could you explain why you do this?
9. Can you describe and explain any factors that affect your English writing (where you write, topic, ect.)?

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CURRICULUM VITAE

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Education:	1987	Bachelor of Education in English Major, Buriram Teacher Collage, Buriram Province, Kingdom of Thailand
	2014-2016	Master of Arts in English, Buriram Rajabhat University, Buriram Province, Kingdom of Thailand
Working Place:	1985-2009	English Teacher at Wat Ban Bupho School, Lampliamat District, Buriram Province, Kingdom of Thailand
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